Improving the Livelihoods of Young People in Nepal:
The Contribution of Social Enterprises

Submitted by

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Statement of Authorship

This thesis contains no material published elsewhere or extracted in whole or in part from a thesis by which I have qualified for or been awarded another degree or diploma.

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Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
CBO	Community-Based Organisations
CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DDC	District Development Committees
FI-NGO	Financial Intermediary Non-Government(al) Organisation
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
GoN	Government of Nepal
HBW	Home-Based Work(ers)
HDI	Human Development Index
IHDI	Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organisation
LSGA	Local Self-Governance Act
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MEDEP	Micro-Enterprise Development Programme
MFI	Microfinance Institutions
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoF	Ministry of Finance
MoHP	Ministry of Health and Population
MoYS	Ministry of Youth and Sports
NGO	Non-Government(al) Organisation
NPC	National Planning Commission
RMA	Rapid Market Assessment
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SLA	Sustainable Livelihoods Approach
SLC	School Leaving Certificate
SNASEA	Surya Nepal Asha Social Entrepreneurship Award
SWC	Social Welfare Council

TEVT   Technical Education and Vocational Training

TSO   Third Sector Organisation

UN   United Nations

UNCT   United Nations Country Team

UNDP   United Nations Development Programme

UNICEF   United Nations Children's Fund, formerly United Nations
              International Children's Emergency Fund

UNIFEM   United Nations Development Fund for Women

VDC   Village Development Committee

Abstract

This thesis examines five cases of social enterprise organisations from Nepal, a geographically challenged, politically volatile country with poor infrastructure, a high poverty gradient, and high levels of social and gender disparity. The study aims to explore how organisations following principles of social enterprise can address the multifaceted challenges of youth unemployment. Specifically, the study aims to understand the contribution of social enterprise organisations to the improvement of livelihoods of young people in Nepal, through job creation and market integration, fundamentally adopting market principles to address development challenges. The research contributes to the body of empirical literature on social enterprises from Nepal, and social value creation processes through the use of empirical evidence. It uses the qualitative method of analysing the social value creation processes which subsequently informs a range of challenges faced by young people attempting to participate in the market.

In terms of methodology, the research implemented a three-step process: literature review, an organisational survey, and five qualitative case studies. Thirty-four self-identified social enterprise organisations were used for survey analysis. Five organisations were selected for detailed case analysis. Using cross-case analysis methods, interviews from 17 representatives and 30 young men and women aged 18–30 were analysed . A combination of development theory, the theory of social entrepreneurship, and youth perspectives, is used in establishing the contribution of social enterprises to the improvement of the livelihoods of young people in Nepal.

The overall contribution of social enterprises is unfolding in two distinct ways. The first level of contribution is revealed in the form of organisations attempting to become financially self-sustainable and market-competitive. The second level of contribution is demonstrated by limited social and economic change as immediate outcomes, and chances of significant and sustainable social change in the longer term. By demonstrating the change process at an organisational level as well as at the participants' level, the study presents a meaningful explanation of a social enterprise model of development in improving livelihood of young people in Nepal.

Keywords: social enterprise, social entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurship, non-profit, not-for-profit organisation, Nepal, youth livelihood, development practices.

Chapter One: Introduction and overview -Social enterprise organisations addressing youth unemployment in Nepal

>Every family invests their hard-earned money for the education of their children so that their education would make sense for their career. …Each year thousands of graduates enter into (the) job market dreaming of their sparkling future. However, their dreams begin to shatter each day, because of the lack of employment opportunities in our country. ...The cut-throat competition, corruption, nepotism, and political apathy start to make the future of our nation, a frustrated jobless youth … college/universities (quality of education) is insufficient to motivate the youths to do something on their own (Ojha, 2016 Paras. 4, 5 and 6).

The quotation above points to the social, political and economic failure, including the failure of international development, to address the socio-economic and other challenges faced by a young person in Nepal. The process of transition from education into employment has resulted more often a frustrated youth population in Nepal. These failures and their impact on young people have been recognised in various reports that identify psychological and social alienation (Ministry of Health and Population [MoHP], 2012), resulting in stigma and poverty (Robins, Bhandari & ex-PLA research group, 2016; Uddin, 2013; Upreti, 2006) and poor social and economic conditions (Bhattarai, 2005; Bushell, 2008; Köhler, Calì, & Stirbu, 2009). This frustration also shows a distrust of the agricultural system as a viable livelihood option, even though agriculture is one of the main areas of employment in Nepal with more than 70 per cent of the population directly or indirectly employed in it (Asian Development Bank [ADB], 2015; Serrière, 2014).

Modern education is seen as a means to achieve a better life facilitated by 'good jobs', whereas agriculture is seen as 'not modern'. The understanding of what it is to be a modern young person in Nepal is dynamic, challenging young people to find their identity in a rapidly changing social and economic context (Greenland & Skuse, 2015; Ministry of Finance [MoF], 2015).

Attempts to address many of the issues facing young people in Nepal through poverty-alleviation programs are not focussed specifically on youth-related poverty such as

life-course poverty[1] and intergenerational poverty[2] (Brossard & Mazard-Lecourbe, 2010, p. 15; Moore, 2005). There has in fact been little effort to address the critical needs of young people (MoHP 2012), but instead a greater focus on youth activism (Snellinger, 2013, p. 85). Yet to be addressed are the failed aspirations of Nepalese youth (British Council, 2010; Kohrt et al., 2016); their poor social and economic integration, indicated by a high rate of external migration (Serrière, 2014); and the development of strategies to help Nepalese youth become independent adults with a capacity to cope with uncertainties. Many of these factors, when linked to the dynamic nature of poverty among young people, are addressed by the provision of social protection measures in Western countries (United Nations Economic and Social Council, 2005, p. 24); however, this is yet to be implemented in the context of Nepal.

Although international development interventions began in Nepal in the 1950s, questions remain as to why these interventions have not resulted in an improvement in standards of living for the majority of the population (Metz, 1995; Sharma, 2006; Upreti, 2014). Many have argued that a combination of structural challenges (Bennett, Tamang, Onta, & Thapa, 2006; Neupane, 2017; Upreti, 2006); the imposition of a Western model of development (Metz, 1995; Sharma, 2006; Upreti, 2014); failure to use foreign aid effectively (Panday, 1999); and economic and spatial inequality (Murshed & Gates, 2005) are the primary causes of development failure in Nepal. The development context is further complicated by the existence of the topographical diversities of high mountains and turbulent rivers, giving rise to the evolution of distinct and diverse ethnic groups with their own cultures [3] and economies (Bhattarai, 2009; Nepal Agricultural Research Council [NARC], 1995; National Planning Commission [NPC], 2011).

Within this context, social enterprises have emerged as a new way of addressing development challenges (Barraket & Archer, 2009; Cai, 2012; Singh, 2016), both globally and in Nepal (Nepal Economic Forum, 2012). The idea of social enterprises is driven by the thinking that making money is not an 'evil act' but a tool for generating social value in a way that is more sustainable than relying on donor funds (Kerlin, 2013). It is also seen as a means of initiating and resolving social change through commerce (Popoviciu & Popoviciu, 2011). Social enterprises represent a new way of practising philanthropy towards social works and social investment in individuals (Barraket, Collyer, O'Connor, & Anderson, 2010) and are

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[1] Life-course poverty refers to a process by which a poor child or young person becomes an even poorer adult.

[2] Intergenerational poverty refers to the transmission of poverty from one generation to the next.

[3] Culture may be defined as being made up of the socially-derived attitudes, behaviors, norms and values in a given society.

also referred to as one of the growing development approaches that address youth unemployment by helping young people enter the job market (Brouard, McMurtry, & Vieta, 2015; European Research and Development Service, 2014).

Research gap

Despite the move towards social enterprises using social entrepreneurship as a development intervention (Alvord, Brown, & Letts, 2004), the majority of the programs, models and literature have a focus in Western countries (Borzaga & Defourny, 2004; Matei & Sandu, 2011; McMurtry et al., 2015; Mendell, 2010). There is a paucity of literature regarding social entrepreneurship and social enterprises in the Asian region (Shanmugam & Ramakrishna Velamuri, 2008), and specifically in Nepal. Explicit research related to social enterprises in Nepal primarily focuses on microcredit (Nissanke, 2002); fair trade (Biggs & Lewis, 2009; Shahnaz & Tan, 2009); community development (Khatiwada, 2014); conservation of agricultural practices among the tribal farmers (Paudel, Wilson, Chan, & Tamang, 2017); and social enterprises as a new outlook for improving education sector programs (Carney, 2015). Moreover, little is known about whether the social entrepreneurship approach to development work is leading to long-term social change (Haugh & Talwar, 2016, p. 643).

Contemporary activities of social enterprises in Nepal range from supporting youth to become social entrepreneurs; promoting education in rural villages; promoting renewable energy technology; producing and promoting handicrafts; helping street children and trafficked girls; promoting high-value agricultural products like coffee and tea; improving the livelihoods of farmers through information and communications technology (ICT) and e-services integrated with microfinance institutions (MFIs); promoting community learning centres; providing smart technological support for water treatment and storage methods; and providing business support for starting entrepreneurial activities (Nepalsutra, 2013). The concept of social entrepreneurship is starting to dominate local development discussions in Nepal (Khatiwada, 2014; Nepal Economic Forum, 2012; Surya Nepal Asha Social Entrepreneurship Award [SNASEA], 2012), and has been featured as a possible development strategy (Carney, 2015; Global Impact Investment Network [GIIN], 2015; Himalayan Climate Initiative, 2014).

Together with the relative paucity of literature on social enterprises and social entrepreneurship in Nepal, there is also a gap in qualitative research which seeks to explain the challenges faced by young people in Nepal and possible sustainable ways to address

them. Only a small amount of research has examined social entrepreneurship as a social change process and the role of social enterprise organisations in creating social values (Dacin, Dacin, & Tracey, 2011; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), rather than their role in effecting personal or economic gain (Peredo & McLean, 2006).

More broadly, the literature on social entrepreneurship and social enterprises is focussed on organisations and largely derives its information from the study of management (Awogbenle & Iwuamadi, 2010; El Kayaly, 2012; Fernández-Pérez, Alonso-Galicia, Rodríquez-Ariza, & del Mar Fuentes-Fuentes, 2015; Karatas-Ozkan, Anderson, Fayolle, Howells, & Condor, 2014). Although this is informative for students of management, it is not as useful for those trying to implement social change especially in the context of poverty. This study, therefore, also attempts to discover if the operation of social enterprises as a new process of development is an answer to the employment concerns of young people in Nepal.

The unique context of Nepal

Topographically, Nepal is a mountainous country except for a thin strip of plains stretching east-west, known as the *Terai*. The Himalayan ranges in the north form the natural boundary between Nepal and China. This area is very sparsely populated, mostly by ethnic groups who speak languages of Tibeto-Burman origin and have close cultural and religious affinity with the people of Tibet (Nepal Agricultural Research Council [NARC], 1995). The deep valleys and high mountain ridges divide the country's ethnic groups into small, isolated and predominantly self-contained communities. Many of the communities remain isolated, except during winter seasons, and have developed their own unique cultures and economies. Statistical data reveals the presence of 103 caste and ethnic groups, speaking 92 languages (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2011b). These diversities indicate the existence of multiple and complex societies and point to the cultural pluralism of the country. The diversity of religion adds another layer to the unique development context.

The population of Nepal is recorded at 26,494,504 as of June 22, 2011, showing a population growth rate of 1.35 per cent per annum (Central Bureau of Statistics [CBS], 2011a). Nepal is one of the poorest countries in the world (ranked 157 out of 186 countries), with a Human Development Index (HDI)[4] of 0.558 and an Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI) of 0.4 (United Nations, 2016). The poverty rate is reported to be

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[4] The HDI is a computation combining measures of life expectancy and health, mean years of schooling and a standard of living in terms of PPP$ (per capita income). HDI of Australia was .939 against Nepal as 0.558.

25.2 per cent[5] (CBS, 2011b), but the poverty gradient between rural Nepal and urban centres, hills and mountains, and among the castes and ethnic groups, remains high (United Nations, 2013). The HDI also varies between the rural and urban areas, education and income, and between various castes (United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2014, pp. 18–19).

The failure of the government to reach out to marginalised, geographically poor groups, especially young people, is reflected in the insurgency during 1996–2006 (Bennett et al., 2006, p. 914; British Council, 2010; Upreti, 2006, p. 2). Participation in the insurgency by those historically discriminated against on the grounds of caste and ethnicity in the rural areas, 30–40 per cent of whom were women (Griffin, 2015), is an indication of the resentment of those groups toward the system, culture, and practices that denied them a better life.

The urgency of addressing youth poverty is reflected in various policy documents including the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), Labour Act 1992, National Labour Policy 1999, Labour and Employment Policy Act 2005 (CBS 2009), Three Year Interim Plan 2008–2011 (Acharya, 2009; NPC, 2007); Youth Policy 2010, and the Foreign Employment Policy 2012 . However, these policies did not address the core issues of youth employment in the different social, cultural and geographical contexts: the many complexities of getting a job and achieving good social status; and fulfilling personal aspirations, including getting married and supporting family members. Furthermore, the policy documents did not recognise the diversity of youth characteristics that exist within the different geo-ecological zones of Nepal, as a result of differences in socio-economic conditions, gender, caste, religion, and education levels. Across this diverse profile of young people in the country, development concerns for young people in Nepal still revolve around the social and structural issues of caste, ethnicity, social practices, norms, and values. Within development practices, these structural issues are recognised in the context of integrating the poor and marginalised groups into the development mainstream (Bennett et al., 2006; Hattlebakk, 2007; Marit & Aasland, 2015; Upreti, 2014).

The focus of the research

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to explore how social enterprises can address the multifaceted challenges affecting the livelihood of young people in a geographically-

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[5] There has been a reduction in poverty from 42 % in 1996 to 25.3% in 2010.

challenged, politically volatile country with poor infrastructure, a high poverty gradient and high levels of social and gender disparity. Specifically, the study sought to:

(a) collect baseline information about social enterprises to provide details about their typologies, focus, revenue mix, activities, and challenges;

(b) Identifying drivers of change by examining five representative social enterprises in relation to attaining their social objectives of reducing youth unemployment and disadvantage;

(c) conduct in-depth interviews with young people (18–24 years of age) selected by the case study enterprises, to critically examine the effectiveness of the strategies employed by each social enterprise in contributing to improved livelihoods for these youth, by integrating them in the job market.

By assessing the lived experiences of the young participants from the case study organisations, the study aims to articulate the impact of the social enterprise development approach in improving livelihood of young people in Nepal.

Scope and limitations of the research

This thesis offers a significant contribution to the documentation of possibilities created by social enterprises in improving the livelihoods of young people. The thesis will do this by examining the strategies of social enterprises and exploring how social enterprises translate their social mission into meaningful development practices. This study is thus expected to produce some systematic documentation on social enterprises in Nepal which will contribute to the global pool of knowledge of developing countries.

Additionally, by acknowledging at the outset the many challenges faced by young people (Benson, Scales, Hamilton, & Sesma, 2007a, Park, 2004; Ryff & Keyes, 1995), the study is able to focus on evaluating the changes in the lives of young people as a result of their involvement in social enterprise organisations. Therefore, the study does not focus on sub-cultural issues of young people on how young people express themselves differently from other age- groups (Sinclair, McKendrick, & Scott, 2010). Together with understanding changes in the lives of young people, an effort is also made to better understand the process of such social change creation processes. Understanding the change process enables the translation of inputs into results in a more transparent way (Henri, 2004), and is a preferred approach in social science by which to explore the entrepreneurial processes of social enterprise organisations (Johannisson, 2011; Steyaert, 2007).

Thus, by examining relationships between the social enterprises and young people, the study also demonstrates the social value creation process and subsequent social changes in the lives of young people in Nepal which contribute to the improvement of their livelihoods. In reviewing the literature, this process of examining the social enterprises aligns with the Schumpeterian[6] way of relating entrepreneurship with innovative ways of finding solutions to social problems (Rindova, Barry, & Ketchen, 2009).

The research is focussed on organisations registered in Nepal only. This is neither an in-depth study of the financial viability of the organisations nor an impact evaluation study. Instead, the research attempts to understand the contribution of these organisations to show how their social mission is translated into practice, leading to consideration of both economically and socially sustainable development practices. The research was focussed on young people belonging to the age group of 18–30 years.

Research framework

This is an exploratory study which uses multiple case studies as a broader strategy to respond to the main research question. It utilises secondary sources such as reports, policies, and academic literature, along with empirical data from an organisational survey, case studies, and interviews with young people. The research employs the theoretical framework proposed by Crotty (1998), who outlines four elements as being critical to the construction of a research framework: (a) epistemology; (b) theoretical perspective; (c) methodology; and (d) methods. These elements are discussed in turn below.

Epistemology

This study uses an interpretive case study method. Interpretive research focusses on interpreting the world from the subjective point of view rather than from the objective point of view (Ponelis, 2015). The findings of the research within the interpretive paradigm focus on the criteria of (a) reliability; (b) validity; (c) objectivity; and (d) generalisability of qualitative research (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). Reliability is about the quality of data collection and analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985); validity refers to the portrayal of participants in reference to the participants' own perceptions (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008); objectivity is

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[6] Skoll Foundation (2015) describes Schumpeterian entrepreneurship as a strong force that acts as change agent for society, taking advantage of available opportunities that others do not realise, inventing new approaches and creating sustainable solutions for the betterment of the society.

about explaining the research systematically (Miles & Huberman, 1994); and transferability is the possibility of applying the findings to other studies of similar situations (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008).

Theoretical perspective

Theoretical perspective describes the theory that supports a particular research model. Theoretical perspectives make particular assumptions about society and combine various types of information to determine, or to sum up, the findings of the study (Sarantakos, 2005). A particular theoretical perspective has the potential to systematically relate different constructs and propositions in explaining and predicting a phenomenon or interest area under study (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

Much of the research on social enterprises has employed institutional theories of organisations to examine the emergence of social enterprises (Dart, 2004). Other theories which have been used in relation to social enterprises include complexity theory (Goldstein, Hazy, & Silberstang, 2008; Massetti, 2008; Rhodes & Donnelly-Cox, 2008; Tapsell & Woods, 2008); grounded theory (Granados, Hlupic, Coakes, & Mohamed, 2011, p. 212); social entrepreneurship as a strategy to address poverty and marginalisation (Diochon & Anderson, 2009); social origin theory (Kerlin, 2010); and structuration theory (Downing, 2005).

While agreeing on the importance and relevance of these theories in the study of social enterprises, the current research applies a theory of historic intuitionalism, together with national empirical data and the conceptual framework of Kerlin (2013) in order to identify a typology of social enterprises. A combination of development theories such as the capability approach is used, in conjunction with indicators which explain empowerment and agency[7], in order to create a theory of social entrepreneurship which is supported by youth perspectives in order to explain the contribution of social enterprises in improving the livelihoods of young people in Nepal.

The development theories are viewed as dynamic ways of explaining the changes in approaches to development (Sato, 2016; Willis, 2011). The theory of social entrepreneurship, a change process led by social leaders and social enterprise organisations in creating social

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[7] Agency describes individuals as dignified and responsible human beings who shape their lives in the light of goals that matter, rather than simply being shaped or instructed how to think (Walker & Unterhalter, 2007, p. 5). Empowerment is the capability that drives individuals to make changes for themselves (Luttrell, Quiroz, Scrutton, & Bird, 2009, p. 9).

values (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), is used in the study. In relation to youth, the youth perspective is used in explaining the association between social enterprise organisations and young men and women.

Research methodology and methods

This study is exploratory in nature and uses multiple case studies as a broad strategy. Interviews are used as the research method by which data is collected for each case study organisation.

Qualitative research as a growing methodology is applied in this empirical study of social enterprises. The use of qualitative methodology indicates an increase in the representation of voices of the social entrepreneurs and young people (Granados et al., 2011). Qualitative research seeks to understand the experience of people themselves on how they act, how they think about themselves and the world surrounding them. Thus, qualitative research involves activities like 'observing', 'describing', 'interpreting', and 'analysing' (Bazeley, 2013, p. 4). Having defined the research framework, the key terms used in the thesis are described in the following section.

Descriptive terms used in the research

The study uses various terms that are central to the discussion; these are discussed below. The terms 'market', 'market orientation', and 'marketing strategies' are used to discuss the social enterprise organisations. The market-related terms are emerging within the study as a manifestation of the narrowing of the gap between the non-profit organisations and business organisations (Larsson & Kinnunen, 2008).

Young people

The term 'young person' are individuals aged 18-30 years. The term young people is not used here to indicate a biological or psychological stage, although the experience of ageing as a biological process is recognised. It is understood instead as a process through which the meaning and experience of becoming an adult are mediated by institutions and one's capability to exercise the power of making decisions by oneself. The term 'young person' is recognised as a socially-constructed and context-dependent term (Furlong, 2012; Jones, 2009; Smith, 1981; Valentine & Skelton, 2007; Wyn & White, 1996).

Disadvantaged youth

The definition of 'youth' as relating to individuals aged 18–30 years is a common practice used in many studies (Serrière, 2014, p. 12). In the context of this study, the criterion 'disadvantaged' is a composite of being economically poor[8] and belonging to a minority ethnic group or marginalised social caste.[9] Also included are groups which have been socially marginalised by gender and regional identity[10] (Helvetas Nepal, 2011; Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation [SDC], 2010). Vulnerable groups and individuals are also recognised as disadvantaged because they are at risk of being trafficked or are internal migrants to an urban area, thus facing marginalisation in the home community (Robins et al., 2016). Groups of young people who are not able to complete schooling are viewed as a critical missing middle in Western countries (Roberts & MacDonald, 2013) and are equally important for consideration in Nepal as well. Significantly, the broader term 'disadvantaged' designates women as disadvantaged, irrespective of any social class. This use of multiple criteria recognises the heterogeneity of disadvantaged people within a broader disadvantaged social group (Norris, Zajicek, & Murphy-Erby, 2010).

Work

The term 'work' is used to denote market-related work undertaken for the purposes of earning an income. It does not include personal care work (example taking care of family), and domestic work.

Not-for-profit and non-profit

There is confusion in the use of the terms 'non-profit' and 'not-for-profit'. The term 'non-profit' is understood to refer to social enterprise organisations similar to those of the United States, which make a profit and use the remaining revenues within the program after meeting the other expenses. They are tax-exempted. The term 'not-for-profit organisation' is commonly used in Nepal for a range of organisations such as voluntary organisations, commonly known as Non-Government Organisations or NGOs. Not-for-profits in Nepal have

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[8] The national poverty income e was marked at USD 1.25 per day in 2005, and USD 1.90 in 2015 (National Planning Commission, 2016, p. 26).

[9] This classification of caste and ethnicity will be based on the Central Bureau of Statistics, Nepal, 2011.

[10] Regional identity denotes an individual's geographical origin, i.e. 'mountain people', 'hill people', or 'Terai/Madhesh people'.

a social mission and are not fully tax-exempted but the term remains ambiguous. The thesis, influenced by the non-profit concept, describes the not-for-profit organisations attempting to become self-sustainable as a non-profit.

Why this research at this point?

The researcher's interest in the area of social enterprise and young people's livelihoods is an outcome of previous work undertaken with local governance and community development programs It also springs from work undertaken in the areas of informal sector micro-enterprise and employment creation; skills-training and employment creation for disadvantaged young people; and the knowledge gained from programs designed to enhance access to financial services for marginalised people in Nepal. This study provides an opportunity for the researcher to gain further knowledge and skills in the areas of youth unemployment and local development, as well as to gain deeper theoretical and empirical knowledge about social enterprise practices in Nepal.

The research is also equally important at this point of time as social entrepreneurship is emerging as a new phenomenon in Nepal. The thesis also explains the process of social value creation for young people. These focus of the study on social entrepreneurship and social value creation process contributes to the knowledge and literature on sustainable development benefiting young people in the country.

The organisation of the text

Chapter One. The first chapter is the introduction of the thesis. The chapter states the research problems, justifies the research and frames the research aims and objectives. The chapter also summarises the study's theoretical orientation and theoretical perspective and notes the research limitations.

Chapter Two. Chapter Two presents the literature review. The chapter reviews social enterprises and social entrepreneurship literature as emerging development practices and examines the challenges faced by young people within the contemporary development practices. The global experiences are contextualised to inform the reader about similar practices and experiences faced by young people in Nepal. By examining these areas of literature, the review establishes the research gaps and also identifies the theoretical foundation for the study.

Chapter Three. Chapter Three outlines the research methodology and research methods. The chapter reveals the justification for the research topic and the chosen research

approach. It begins by presenting the research design and then discusses the methodological approach for each of the research steps.

Chapter Four. Chapter Four presents findings from the survey. The first section describes the typologies of social enterprises emerging in Nepal. The subsequent sections describe the timeframe of the emergence of such organisations, working areas, and the financial trends. The chapter concludes by identifying the challenges faced by those organisations.

Chapter Five. Chapter Five describes the five case study organisations and presents the findings from a cross-case analysis. The cross-case analysis examines emerging trends with regard to the process of social value creation among the five organisations. Seven broad themes are identified from the coding process and are used to structure the cross-case findings.

Chapter Six. This chapter presents the common ideas and themes arising from the interviews conducted with young people, and in doing so provides evidence of the social changes created by the organisations. The findings lead to discussions based on empirical evidence of the presentation of the values created by the social enterprise organisations.

Chapter Seven. Chapter Seven is the concluding chapter. It summarises the overall findings and makes conclusions for each research proposition. The overall findings and conclusions of each research proposition are used to draw inferences in answering the main research proposition, which is to examine the contribution of social enterprises to the improvement of the livelihoods of young people in Nepal.

Summary and conclusion

This introductory chapter has described the research context; research gaps; research aims and objectives; theoretical framework; and chapter outlines. The need for this research is justified by describing the contemporary research gaps and explaining the significance of the study. As presented in the chapter outline above, the next chapter reviews the literature relevant to the current research.

Chapter Two: Literature review-Social enterprises and youth development

The emerging fields of social enterprise and social entrepreneurship are gaining global popularity as a means of addressing complex market and social needs (Alvord et al., 2004; Chell, Spence, Perrini, & Harris, 2016). Many examples have emerged and the subject is experiencing increased scholarly attention. In this thesis, social enterprises and social entrepreneurship are explored as a new development paradigm and an organisational structure for Nepal. Furthermore, the question is raised of whether a new paradigm such as this can transcend current market inefficiencies in order to improve the livelihoods of young people in a developing country.

Social entrepreneurship, as both a practice and an emerging area for examination, provides a unique opportunity to challenge, question, and rethink concepts and assumptions from different fields (Dacin et al., 2011; Mair, 2010). In order to do this, the literature has been reviewed globally; however, it is worth noting that a significant percentage of the existing research particularly that related to development is Western in focus.

Just as the practice of social entrepreneurship requires disparate stakeholders to work together, in a similar vein the study of social entrepreneurship requires an examination and a drawing together of a diverse range of literature. Therefore, this chapter examines literature and theory from both the development and social enterprise fields of literature. The connection between social entrepreneurship and development studies is reflective of a broader gap in the literature. Whilst many authors have written about definitions of social enterprise (Alter, 2007; Barraket, 2008; Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2016; Kay, Roy, & Donaldson, 2016; Matei & Sandu, 2011), or the personalities of social entrepreneurs (Bielefeld, 2009; Cunha, Benneworth, & Oliveira, 2015; Kirzner, 2009; Light, 2005), far less has been said about the impact of social enterprises in developing countries, with virtually none focussing on young people.

The chapter does not provide a chronological development of social enterprises and social entrepreneurship but rather highlights theories and practices that relate to the emergence and proliferation of social enterprises as a development practice to address youth issues. As this thesis investigates young people in Nepal, the combination of development theory, the literature on social enterprise, and literature about young people provide the framework within which the current research question rests.

Understanding social enterprises, social entrepreneurship, and social entrepreneurs

The range of literature related to social enterprises, social entrepreneurship, and social entrepreneurs is vast and does not converge to any common point of agreement (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2016; Dacin, Dacin, & Matear, 2010; Kay et al., 2016; Matei & Sandu, 2011). However, there are common points across the literature that includes: social aims; the centrality of trading and business; diversifying revenues; and income sources, as dominating features (Dacin et al., 2010, pp. 95–96; Teasdale, 2009b). Research relating to social enterprises, social entrepreneurship, and social entrepreneurs will each now be discussed in turn.

Social enterprises

Social enterprises have emerged from the state's failure to meet the social and economic needs of its citizens (Borzaga & Defourny, 2001; Defourny & Nyssens, 2009). Originating in North America and Europe during the 1980s, social enterprises were a response to a reduction in state funding for social programs. Both the Thatcher and Reagan governments embraced entrepreneurship and enterprise as ways of growing their weakened economies (Bland, 2012; Kay et al., 2016). In response, NGOs tried to address the lack of social services by incorporating business strategies within their work (Borzaga & Defourny, 2001; Evers & Laville, 2004). As NGOs continued to deliver their main services in a business-like manner, they realised that it not only increased their income but that it also had the potential to release them from the constraints imposed by government funding. However, the motives among NGOs varied, and it is this point that has resulted in a disparate field of social enterprises and social entrepreneurship, terms difficult to define.

Young (2009) notes that:

In the United States, we are fixated on non-profits and for-profits ... there is less concern in Europe about the strict separation of for-profit and non-profit forms and more emphasis on governing arrangements that help ensure that an enterprise pursues the right combination of social and private goals. (p. 33)

Young continues:

In the world's least-developed countries, cooperatives and micro-enterprise, networks of nongovernmental organisations, and a variety of public-private partnerships constitute a web of activities that may be understood as a social

enterprise. It is tied to policy initiatives for economic development and grassroots efforts to address poverty-related concerns. (p. 34)

Social enterprises are understood as distinct from parts of business organisations or corporations which have a designated focus on 'social' aims, that is, a Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). CSR entities are different from social enterprises in the areas of decision-making. Decisions made in cases of CSR are easily reversible because of their decision making power as funders. This reflects the unilateral nature of CSR. Although partnerships are encouraged, the corporate organisation remains the key decision-maker (Defourny, 2009).

A social enterprise differs from the traditional non-profit organisation regarding strategy, structures, norms, and values and has been noted as being "a radical innovation in the non-profit sector" (Dart, 2004, p. 411). Social enterprise also differs from traditional commercial enterprise mainly in its focus, identification of market opportunities, the purpose of its resource generation and the interests of its investors (Peredo & McLean, 2006). Social enterprises also differ from commercial enterprises in their reinvestment policies; social enterprises either invest the surplus in the organisation or have a policy of limited sharing, in contrast to the profit interest of commercial businesses (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006). This study uses the definition of social enterprise which is proposed by the Social Enterprise Knowledge Network (SEKN), a body formed to study the practice and effectiveness of social enterprise in the United States and in Latin American countries:

> [Social enterprise is] any enterprise and undertaking, encompassed by non-profit organisations, for-profit companies or public sector businesses engaged in activities of significant social value or the production of goods or services with an embedded social purpose. It is the underlying social purpose of the enterprise, rather than its particular legal form, that determines whether it falls into this category or not. (Dumont, 2010, p. 1415)

Social entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurship is a common but distinctive characteristic defined across all types of social enterprises, irrespective of any model or school of thought (Austin et al., 2006). In practice, it seems to be used to describe a range of activities, ranging from the work of social leaders who are not at all involved in the business, to that of international

businesspersons who start a socially responsible business in their home country (Hockerts, 2006). Social entrepreneurship has also been recognised as an effective means of generating opportunities and sustainability related to environment, social and economic areas (Acs, Boardman, & McNeely, 2013; Austin et al., 2006). Social entrepreneurship is also explained as an activity that creates social value (Austin et al., 2006; Nicholls, 2007), and a process of social change (Arvidson & Lyon, 2013; Austin et al., 2006; Lakatos, Bercea, & Bacali, 2016; Nyssens & Defourny, 2016).

Thus, within the diverse attempts to define social entrepreneurship, several themes are consistent. These are: the mission to create social impact/change or value (Defourny, 2010); the embracing of new opportunities for change (Nicholls, 2005; Peredo & McLean, 2006); a set of values or principles to guide behaviour (Austin et al., 2006; Lakatos et al., 2016); the development of financial sustainability (Defourny & Kim, 2011); innovative activity with a social objective in the for-profit sector (Mair & Marti, 2006; Nicholls, 2005); and the use of business expertise and market-based skills to develop innovative approaches to earning an income (Peredo & McLean, 2006). Thus, social entrepreneurship shows widespread appeal, but the evolution of social entrepreneurship, particularly across countries, varies significantly.

Social entrepreneurship has emerged out of the social economy (Defourny & Nyssens, 2012; Evers & Laville, 2004; Lakatos et al., 2016), the welfare state (Kerlin, 2012, pp. 92–93; Poon, 2011), the emergence of third sector organisation (Poon, 2011), and market failure (Kingma, 1994, 2003).

The social construct of entrepreneurship is further elaborated as "concepts of social embeddedness, social capital, social networks, business models, personal entrepreneurial history, vision and innovation" (Downing, 2005, pp. 196-197). These explanations are extended from the understanding of social capital (Coleman, 1990), produced via reciprocal relationships with mutual obligations between individuals (p. 188).

Further broad agreement on the characteristics of social entrepreneurship is found to include: a combination of social and/or environmental outcomes innovative organisational model and processes; development of new products and services; new ways of addressing the social challenges; and market orientation (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012, p. 3). However, most of the understanding of social entrepreneurship is limited to finding opportunities (Brown, 2003; Defourny & Pestoff, 2008), innovations (Bielefeld, 2009; Light, 2005), and the creation of new business ventures (Austin et al., 2006). These understandings has been challenged by a need to provide a broader definition that offers solutions to a range of social problems (Nicholls & Cho, 2006).

Choi and Majumdar (2014) describe five components of social entrepreneurship as a *cluster of concepts*. The five components identified include social enterprise as an organisation, social entrepreneurs as individuals leading the social enterprises, social innovations, social value creation, and market orientation (Choi & Majumdar, 2014, p. 5). The fact that Choi and Majumdar refer to social entrepreneurship as a cluster of concepts, rather than giving a singular definition, points to the inherent complexity of the term. Nonetheless, Choi and Majumdar's (2014) definition of social entrepreneurship as a being a cluster of concepts has gained acceptance among other scholars as well (Chell et al., 2016), and will be retained for the purpose of this thesis.

Social innovations are different from technological innovations (Fujisawa, Ishida, Nagatomi, & Iwasaki, 2015). Social innovation is related to social change at the societal or individual level. Howaldt, Domanski & Schwarz (2015) describe social innovation as:

> A new combination of and/or new configuration of social practices in certain areas of activity or social contexts prompted by certain actors or constellations of actors in an intentional, targeted manner with the goal of better satisfying or answering needs and problems than is possible on the basis of established practices. (p. 90)

In social enterprises, social values are described as the outcome of process resulting from exploiting opportunities, by engaging in innovative activities, becoming risk tolerant, and using the available resources to their optimum level (Peredo & McLean, 2006) and of increased compliance with legal provisions and the organisation's mission (Bagnoli & Megali, 2009; Lee, 2009). Gaining the trust of clients and consumers is critical to the creation of social values (Defourny & Pestoff, 2008; Lee, 2009).

Ideas of market orientation are linked with the concepts of social enterprises becoming more efficient and effective through commercial activities (Nicholls, 2010; Nicholls & Cho, 2006) and creating financial sustainability through the efficient and effective use of their resources (Sud & VanSandt, 2016; Haugh, 2005). The market orientation is related to the ability of the social entrepreneurs to upscale (Dees, Anderson, & Wei-Skillern, 2004, p. 30). Financial self-sufficiency is one of the most important market-oriented features of social enterprises.

Dees (1998) summarises social entrepreneurship as the adoption of a mission to create and sustain social values, not just private values, recognising and relentlessly pursuing new

opportunities to serve that mission and engaging in the process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning. Dees (1998) further defines it as acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand and exhibiting a heightened sense of accountability to the constituency's services and for the outcomes created (Dees, 1998, p. 4; Rahim & Mohtar, 2015).

The social entrepreneurship organisation is related to the social enterprise by being the context within which the entrepreneurial activities for making a social change take place (Choi & Majumdar, 2014; Mair & Marti, 2006). These organisations may be located within different legal forms such as non-profit organisations, for-profit organisations, or within hybrid organisations, in order to support social change processes (Austin et al., 2006; Bacq & Janssen, 2011).

Social entrepreneurs

Social entrepreneurs are defined as individuals who are engaged in creating social values (Dees, 1998) and who have a profound knowledge of the market in which they operate (Kirzner, 2009). They are seen as strategic, ambitious individuals who take on significant accountability in serving others and in achieving social values (Bielefeld, 2009; Dees & Anderson, 2006; Light, 2005). They are viewed as change agents (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010a) who create social values by using innovations to solve social problems (Cunha et al., 2015; Nicholls, 2006). They are ambitious and persistent leaders (Bielefeld, 2009; Dees & Anderson, 2006; Light, 2005). The difference between a traditional entrepreneur creating social values and a social entrepreneur creating social values is that in the former, economic value generates social value, while in the latter, social value generates economic value (Linstead & Hytti, 2005). Bill Drayton, the founder of Asoka Foundation, is credited with introducing the term social entrepreneurs (Schatz, 2017).

Entrepreneurial leaders identify existing market opportunities in order to bring about social innovation, such as by enhancing the work efficiency of existing goods and services (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000) and by promoting a culture of joint production. Such a culture enables people to come together as a collective force to capitalise on resources and to benefit by using those resources. Entrepreneurial leaders demonstrate the ability to transform resources into more valuable forms and facilitate the exploitation of further opportunities in order to make more profit. These approaches can be argued to be ways of responding to the changing environment and local needs (Cunliffe, 2008, p. 107).

Together with the contestations of the key terms, the growth of social enterprises as a new development approach in Asian countries has grown from successful examples in the United States and Western Europe (Defourny & Nyssens, 2009). Growth is also evident across South Asian countries (Global Impact Investment Network [GIIN], 2015, p.2) such as India (Kant, Deepika, & Arora, 2015; Ip, 2012), Bangladesh (Defourny & Kuan, 2011; Hackett, 2010) and Nepal (Khatiwada, 2014; Nepal Economic Forum, 2012). Political, legal, cultural, social, and institutional environments influence the emergence of social enterprises (Poon, 2011) as well as the types of enterprises which develop (Kerlin 2009). There is a pressing need for in-depth research and case studies with qualitative and quantitative data to aid a better understanding of country-specific social enterprises (Defourny & Kuan, 2011). It is the aim of this thesis to answer that call in documenting the case studies of social enterprises in Nepal.

The sections above outlines the conceptual basis of social entrepreneurship used in the study and contextualises the understanding of social enterprise, social entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurship in Nepal. The following section uses the conceptual basis of social enterprises and social entrepreneurship presented above, to establish a link with youth development issues. Firstly, the literature on youth livelihoods and youth aspirations is presented, followed by research on global development efforts to address youth-related challenges. The literature on youth issues specific to Nepal is then examined, along with Nepal's development efforts. By presenting a theoretical basis for social enterprises and youth issues, and presenting this within a national context, a link between social enterprises and youth livelihoods in Nepal is established.

Youth livelihoods and youth aspirations

The youth livelihood discussions move beyond the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA), commonly used for livelihood analysis of rural areas (Krantz, 2001). Most literature on youth livelihood puts emphasis on young people becoming resourceful and relying on their ingenuity and agency.[11] Such literature focuses on the need for young people to develop and improve their own intrinsic qualities, while at the same time becoming aware of external factors influencing their lives. The literature highlights the need to improve both intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing the sustainability of the livelihood options of young people.

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[11] Agency is viewed as the action of individuals or groups of individuals (King, 2005).

Intrinsic factors are related to characteristics such as attitude, resilience, a sense of purpose, self-esteem, self-control and the capacity to self-monitor (Lewis, 2016, p. 194). Practicing good health habits are (De Neve, Diener, Tay, & Xuereb, 2013, p. 3); gaining additional qualifications and seeking out work experience (Ni Ógáin, Dawn, Harries, & Kail, 2013) is related to influencing the lives of young people positively. Additionally, enhancing market competitiveness with qualities such as being "enterprising", "ambitious" and "capable" (McKague, Wheeler, & Karnani, 2015), is considered to contribute to employment prospects. The role of ingenuity and creativity is also positively linked to young people's entrepreneurial intentions to develop small business (Bellò, Mattana, & Loi, 2017); and education to express themselves artistically (Burhans & Dantu, 2017; Harris & Ammermann, 2016).

Becoming resourceful requires more than developing intrinsic qualities. It is also linked to increased access to resources (Bebbington, 1999; Blaikie, Cannon, Davis, & Wisner, 2014) and to improving the capability to acquire these different assets (Sen 1992). Resources have also been described as capital: capital may include social capital,[12] economic capital, physical capital,[13] human resource capital (Forcier, Adan, Gutsell, Forcier, & International Labour, 2013; Jimah, 2016; Peeters, 2009) and identity capital, such as that gained from one's social identity (Rattansi & Phoenix, 2005).

An agency and structure approach to the empowerment process (Luttrell et al., 2009, p. 9), can also be linked to explaining how improvements can be made in the lives of young people. and how they respond to the vulnerabilities posed by the various structural forms of disempowerment in their lives (De Haan, 2016; Khanlou & Wray, 2014; Robeyns, 2005; Snellinger, 2013). Here 'agency" is explained as a process of self-engagement in making decisions influenced by various structures and emphasises the importance individual's capabilities to exercise (Evans, 2002).

The structure and agency approach to livelihood improvement, therefore means that young people not only responds to the norms and regulations established by the institutions but also by the skills and knowledge possessed by them (Sweet & Meiksins, 2015); their work experiences (Trice, 1993; Watson, 2009); individual own vocation (Premchander, 2010, p. 10), own values, attitude, behaviour , shaped by personal biographies (Snellinger, 2013; Wyn & Harris, 2004) and how they approach work (Watson, 2009).

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[12] This refers to networks, social relations, associations and affiliations.

[13] Examples include land, water, and forest.

Taking into account the role of several institutions (De Haan, 2012), the empowerment process is explained as allowing the young individuals to hold their beliefs in imagining a valued future (DeJaeghere, McCleary, & Josić, 2016), and making informed choices and decisions (Evans, 2002; Wyn & Dwyer, 1999). Further and broader external and structural factors influencing youth livelihood options include changes in political, social, cultural and economic processes (Dolan & Rajak, 2016; Gough, 2016). Cultural factors such as gender norms, social practices, and social relations are particularly powerful (Nilan, 2011); increasingly too there is a need for young people to overcome digital and technology related challenges (World Bank, 2016).

These descriptions provide an analytical framework for explaining the complexities involved in explaining the realities of youth livelihoods and the aspirations of young people. The following section introduces literature relating to improvements in the development of youth livelihoods, before exploring the changing Nepalese context and youth in Nepal.

Young people and development

Young people are increasingly the focus of development for both non-governmental organisations and governments in Nepal. Many policy documents reflect the need to integrate youth into employment (Ansell, 2004; Godfrey, 2003, p. 4; ILO, 2013a; Brossard & Mazard-Lecourbe, 2010; O'Higgins, 2003). Recently, the importance of youth employment has been emphasized for its role in contributing to economic growth, to the sustainable development of a country and to social cohesion within societies. *Global Employment Trends for Youth* (ILO, 2015b) cites the importance of developing a strategy to increase youth employment globally (ILO, 2015b, p. 13). Another report, from the *World Employment and Social Outlook* (ILO, 2015c), notes how the nature of jobs has changed drastically within a decade, reflecting the weakening global labour market. The complexities of a decreasing economy linked with a weakening labour market is evident in increasingly diversified work arrangements, a decreasing average income for non-standard[14] work, a rise in the informal employment market and in the changing patterns of work (for example, to temporary or involuntary part-time) in a majority of countries (ILO, 2015c, pp. 3-4). Sachs & Smolny (2015) argues that "groups divided by age, sex, qualifications or migration status exhibit

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[14] ILO (2015c) considers ten temporary jobs, contract jobs, self-employed jobs, and ambiguous employment without clarity on rights and obligations (ILO, 2015c, p. 30).

differences in their labor market status or their labor supply decisions" (Sachs & Smolny, 2015).

Most policy-related definitions place the term 'youth' within a restricted age bracket. The UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs define youth as the population within the age bracket of 15–24 years. This age group, in general, comprises teenagers aged 15–19 and young adults aged 20–24 (Cukier, Trenholm, Carl, & Gekas, 2011; Green, 2013). In economic terms, the age of 15 serves as a benchmark for entering the employment market, as defined by Article 2 of the ILO Convention No. 138. In India, youth is typically specified by the age range of 15–35 years (Brown, Larson, Saraswathi, & Saraswathi, 2002); for Uganda, youth ranges between 18–30 years (Komakech et al., 2015).

This age-specific definition does not always recognise the social and cultural complexities of young people's lives. Nilan (2011) highlights the importance of considering the local cultural, social and economic status of young people, as well as the unequal power relations arising during youth transition due to experiences of being young in different contexts (Nilan, 2011). The various definitions emanating from different countries demonstrate these features (Bowman, Borlagdan, & Bond, 2015).

The experience of being young and growing from a child into an adult is a biological process. In biographical terms, the time of youth represents "the history of the life of a person" (Ruspini, 2016; Thomson, 2007, p. 73). Sociological perspectives on 'childhood', 'youth' and the 'young person' recognise these different life stages as socially-constructed and context-dependent terms (Furlong, 2012; Hopkins, 2013; Nilan, 2011; Ruspini, 2016). For example, youth has been defined as a series of transitions between childhood and adulthood that mark the individual's journey from being dependent to independent (Evans, 2002). A conceptual relationship between the concepts of the life-course, intergenerationality, and intersectionality (recognition of gender and race in compounding disadvantage) is increasingly being proposed to recognise the complexities involved in explaining the experiences of young people (Hopkins, 2013, p. 14).

The International Labour Organization, in their report, *Global Employment Trends for Youth* (2015b), states that, as of 2014, there were 1.8 billion young people of ages 10–24 years. Out of these, 201.2 million between the ages of 15–24 (73.4 million) and above 25 years (128.2 million) were not in employment (ILO, 2015b, pp. 79-80). The same report reveals that youth unemployment declined from 76.6 million in 2009 to 73.3 million in 2014, mainly because of the increase in school enrolment rates.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDG)[15] claimed to be the most successful global anti-poverty push in history, particularly in the areas of extreme poverty and hunger (MDG 1), child mortality (MDG 4), and environmental sustainability (MDG 7). But these goals did not define youth as a particular reference group. Recognising the importance of youth participation in attaining the MDGs, youth employment concerns were targeted through MDG 6 (to combat HIV/ AIDS), malaria and other diseases) and 8 (to develop a global partnership for development) for the age group of 15–24 years. Although the other MDG goals 1, 2, 3 and 5 do not mention youth as direct target groups, activities such as educational attainment, gender balance in education, improvements in maternal health and the combating of HIV/AIDs and other diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis, are directly or indirectly related to young people (Millner, 2010; United Nations, 2013).

Young people were also not well-represented in the ILO's global report discussed above. Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) [16]designed for the period of 2015–2030 also fail to recognise youth-related concerns as primary goals. Despite proclamations that young people will be placed at the centre of the development agenda, it appears that development organisations have prioritised children and overlooked young adults in many of their interventions (Lord & Hutchison, 2009). Apart from sporadic and isolated events internationally, many development institutions such as the United Nations Children's Fund UNICEF (formerly called the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund) and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) do not represent youth groups. An exception is a separate unit for young people located in the Division of Social Policy and Development at the UN (Ansell, 2004, 2016).

The absence of youth-specific development interventions, combined with the ongoing absence of social protection measures, safe working conditions and a lack of adherence to human rights within international labour standards, makes impoverished young people highly vulnerable (Morris, 2006). Despite the many dimensions used to define poverty covering various forms of vulnerability, the age-based vulnerability has not been previously considered as a youth poverty measurement. These factors, together with unemployment, lead to an increase in youth poverty, not only in terms of income poverty but also in the development of

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[15] Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were the eight development goals established by the United Nations Millennium Declarations summit in 2000 for the period of 15 years. 191 countries including Nepal made commitments to achieve the MDG goals.

[16] Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are the collection of 17 development goals endorsed by the United Nations General Assembly in September 2015.

social problems (Bell & Blanchflower, 2010; Moore, 2005), psychological impacts resulting into low self-esteem (Patel, Flisher, Hetrick, & McGorry, 2007) and the risk of future unemployment (Sen, 2000, p. 26).

It is apparent that many challenges lie ahead in actually addressing youth poverty. As this discussion has emphasised, youth are marginalised not only by social processes but also at the institutional level. In countless earnest speeches by development agencies, pledges have been made that youth will be placed at the centre of the development agenda; these have not been fulfilled. Nevertheless, the following section reviews the efforts which have been made to date to address the concerns of youth within the development agenda.

Young people and unemployment

Youth unemployment increased in Asia, the Middle East and North Africa between 2012 and 2014. In 2013, 37.8 per cent of employed young people were earning less than US $2 per day (ILO, 2015c, p. 2). As noted above, while there is a reported global decrease in youth unemployment, largely due to school retention rates, young people with tertiary education are increasingly underrepresented in employment compared to young people with a lower level of education (ILO, 2015b, pp. 6-7).

The ILO report entitled *Global Employment Trends for Youth* (2013b) reveals that there has been an increase of 3.5 million in unemployed youth from 2007 to 2013, amounting to 73.4 million unemployed young people in 2013 (ILO, 2013a, p. 3). These young people form a distinct social group globally (Clark, Lipset, & Rempel, 1993; France, Bottrell, & Haddon, 2013; Shildrick, Blackman, & MacDonald, 2009), and face age-based discrimination during their lives while transitioning from childhood to adulthood (Evans, 2002; Moore, 2005). They are also confronted with multiple vulnerabilities in addition to unemployment (Morris, 2006), including poverty (Assaad & Levison, 2013; El Kayaly, 2012; ILO, 2015b, p. 2); migration (ILO, 2015a); trafficking (Uddin, 2013); personal tragedies and 'life shocks';[17] social exclusion (Brossard & Mazard-Lecourbe, 2010); and HIV/AIDS (Yankah & Aggleton, 2008). More evidence reveals that young people struggle to enter the job market (Ibarraran, Ripani, Taboada, Villa, & Garcia, 2014; Nkomo, Obadire, & Mudau, 2015; Thomson, 2007, p. 80). They face challenges due to a changing job market that is characterised by both a decreasing number of full-time jobs (Bowman et al., 2015) and the

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17 The term 'life shocks' refers to unprecedented incidents such as accidents, death and ill health that demand huge financial resources, leading a person to fall once more into poverty.

replacement of low-skilled jobs through technological innovation (Gough, Langevang, & Owusu, 2013; Gough, 2016; ILO, 2015c; United Nations Economic and Social Council, 2005).

Youth unemployment has become a global concern encompassing both the literate and the illiterate cohorts of young people and indicates persistent vulnerabilities among the youth groups in countries with a poor economy (ILO, 2015b, pp. 2,6). The report, *Global Employment Trends for Youth* (ILO, 2015b) provides perhaps the best picture in explaining the factors influencing the labour market. It states, "It is not easy to be young in the job market today, in the context of the stubborn jobs crisis, long job queues and increasing scarcity of stable employment (…) the instability of the situation continues" (ILO, 2015b, p. 1). Many policy documents further reflect the need to integrate youth into employment (Ansell, 2004; Godfrey, 2003, p. 4; ILO, 2013a; Brossard & Mazard-Lecourbe, 2010; O'Higgins, 2003).

A lack of paid work has wide-ranging implications not only for individuals but also for their family, society and the nation. These implications are exacerbated for young people. The experience of being unemployed can lead to isolation and create a sense of pessimism. It impacts on other factors, such as leaving home, and forming a marriage and family, add further complexity to young people's lives. This difficult situation has been expressed well by Sen (2000) in his article, *Social Exclusion: Concept, application, and scrutiny,* where he describes youth unemployment as a practice of social exclusion leading to long-lasting social problems. Young people may hold several part-time jobs due to a lack of full-time openings and may be employed in a variety of flexible arrangements such as agency work and zero-hour contracts[18]. For many young workers, the situation is not ideal; they may have little control over their hours and, where they hold several part-time jobs, may lose much time in travel (Furlong, 2012). Therefore, youth unemployment can take an unusually high toll, leading to a loss of self-esteem among young workers and would-be workers (such as school leavers) in the long-term. There is some considerable evidence that this damaging effect is particularly severe for young women (Sen, 2000, p. 26).

Unemployment, according to Sen (2000), causes an increase in ill health leading to higher rates of mortality, troublesome social and family relations, weakening of personal

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[18] The employer is not obliged to provide minimum working hour and the workers is also not obliged to accept any work hours in the zero- hour contract type. But the staff under this contract types are eligible to employment rights.

motivation towards finding work, and weakening of social norms and values leading to increased crime as a result of personal grievances (Moore, 2005; Sen, 2000). The social unrest related to youth unemployment and weak economic growth has become common not only in post-conflict and conflict-affected countries (Mac-Ikemenjima, 2008); but also in the developed, developing and least-developed countries. The findings from a study entitled *Repairing the economic and social fabric* (ILO 2013c) established that economic growth and unemployment are important determinants of social unrest in any country.

Youth face high risk in countries in a conflict where young people are recruited to fight. Examples from various countries such as Liberia and Sierra Leone (Mac-Ikemenjima, 2008), as well as Nepal (British Council, 2010), provide evidence of the recruitment of young people in large numbers. Insurgents recruited hundreds of youth, particularly from rural regions, during the conflict period in Nepal. The insurgents found young people to be easy recruits because they were unemployed and disoriented (Sharma, 2006; Upreti, 2006).

The literature reveals that it is hard to find a stable job within the formal job market in the Global South, even for those who have completed a university degree. This leads to a large proportion of youth entering the informal employment sector by starting a business, and then mostly failing in these businesses (Gough, 2016; Nkomo et al., 2015).

Various development strategies have been proposed to minimise the marginalisation of young people by creating employment and reducing the risk factors. The most common interventions include: providing quality education (Adams, 2007; Skattebol, Hill, Griffiths, & Wong, 2015); vocational training and job creation (Bennell, 2000); and creating youth entrepreneurship (Nkomo et al., 2015).

The provision of education serves as one of the indicators in assessing the Human Development Index (HDI) and has been viewed as the primary strategy for addressing the challenge of youth unemployment (Bussi & Dahmen, 2012, p. 91; Morris, 2006, pp. 12-13; UNDP, 2013, p. 141). The concept of education is linked to the capability approach to development (Walker & Unterhalter, 2007). According to this approach, it was anticipated that education would address the concerns of lifelong learning and inequality in the lives of young people (Bussi & Dahmen, 2012; Furlong & Cartmel, 2007). However, the provision of education needs to consider not only the opportunity to obtain an education but also the quality of the education which is received. Often, the school education curriculum does not align with the needs of the labour market and does not meet the learning needs of the increasing population of young people (Brossard & Mazard-Lecourbe, 2010).

The focus of other development interventions on increasing income by creating jobs is a common practice. The principal argument here is that jobs are the starting point of a social transformation process (Lee, 2013). Providing employment and generating income for young people is an anti-poverty approach to youth development. These types of programs focus on providing a source of income by offering jobs or employment which transitions young people into the productive workforce (McKague, Wheeler, & Karnani, 2015). This welfare approach to development has been criticised for not addressing the root causes of poverty but only acting as an intervention for maintaining livelihoods (Bennell, 2000).

Improving skills among young people is one of the most common development interventions (Adams, 2012). Skills development in school, skills for work through technical and vocational education programs, and competencies development through various training institutions (public, private, and employers) are common ways of enhancing skills. The importance of developing entrepreneurial skills to address the different challenges faced by young people is increasingly being recognised. Youth entrepreneurship as a way to tackle youth unemployment is a growing trend (Assaad & Levison, 2013; Freedman, 2008; Kuriakose & Joseph, 2016; Nkomo et al., 2015). The set of skills for developing entrepreneurship is identified as including access to loans (Betcherman, Godfrey, Puerto, Rother, & Stavreska, 2007; JMartin & Grubb, 2001); business-planning skills; the development of new ideas (El Kayaly, 2012); and entrepreneurial behavioural training, mentoring and coaching (Sullivan et al., 2012).

Through entrepreneurship, it is anticipated that young people will learn skills in being enterprising, and in being able to develop business ideas and skills in business management. Several authors point to the provision of a number of external mechanisms like mentor support, access to financial resources and loans, increased access to working spaces, the provision of business expansion support mechanisms and the creation of networks to support their jobs as being vital components needed for young people to become entrepreneurs (O'Higgins, 2001; Sullivan et al., 2012, p. 10). The entrepreneurship approach emphasises that young people need both to start the process of lifelong learning and to reskill in order to develop their self-identity. This entrepreneurship intervention model is an emerging model being adopted by many countries as a strategy to address youth unemployment (Kuriakose & Joseph, 2016; Sullivan et al., 2012).

In what follows, the concerns of young people in Nepal are discussed in order to provide further youth perspectives within a geographically challenging situation which is

socially, economically and politically volatile as well as culturally diverse. The review will also help contextualise youth and development issues at one specific local level.

Factors affecting the growth of social enterprises: The Nepalese context

Nepal was never colonised. The country has previously existed in semi-colonial forms and was influenced by British colonialism in India (Joshi, 2013). It faces numerous challenges, including: a difficult topography and geography; cultural diversity; caste-based discrimination; poverty; gender inequality (NPC, 2007; UNDP, 2014); inadequate physical infrastructure (Central Bureau of Statistics [CBS], 2011a); and high regional imbalances regarding poverty and income (UNDP, 2014). There is a huge imbalance between the revenue basis at the central and local levels, affecting mostly low-income local bodies (Kelly, 2011).

Development factors

In 1990, the country changed from the non-party *panchayat* system to the multi-party democratic system, and this year marked the start of economic liberalisation in Nepal. After the 1990s, neoliberalism became a new way of viewing economic growth through the adoption of the free market, free trade, entrepreneurial freedom, deregulation and private ownership in Nepal (Acharya, 2009; Ghimire, 2009; Khadka & Nepal, 2010). Soon after Nepal became a signatory to the structural adjustment programs in 1989, the liberal development modality imposed deregulation of the domestic market and promotion of international trade (Ghimire, 2009; Shakya, 2010). The development discourse from this point in time was seen to create more foreign aid dependency, with more elite groups continuing to benefit from the power of knowledge and access to political outreach (Aditya, 2011; Ojha, Cameron, & Bhattarai, 2005; Timsina, 2002).

During this period, the large number of flourishing import substitution industries in the country were affected by the introduction of heavy taxes, based on implied and overvalued exchange rates. These taxes discouraged the commercial production of items like rice and jute, slowing their production down by the mid-1980s. During this period, Nepal, which had the highest agricultural yield per hectare in South Asia during the 1960s, was left behind other South Asian countries (Sharma, 2006, p. 1242). The deterioration of the agricultural sector affected rural areas, resulting in landlessness and the disappearance of incentives to stay in the farming industry, which led to migration from the countryside to urban areas. The urban population increased five-fold in the mid-1980s. The stagnation of

agriculture affected the sale of products and exports, and increased the importation of goods, putting the country into a financial crisis (Sharma, 2006, p. 1242). Despite these effects, agricultural production still was not a priority at this time.

Neoliberal policies favoured industries such as the manufacturing of carpet and garments which were based in urban centres, thus failing to promote rural jobs and employment opportunities. By the mid-1990s, unemployment reached 17 per cent with over 32 per cent underemployment, and with much higher disparities in income inequality between rural and urban areas evident (Sharma, 2006, p. 1244). Moreover, the business realm was still overshadowed by *Brahmins/chhettris* as dominant socio-cultural groups, and from a socio-cultural perspective, power relations were understood to be regulated by this higher class. Once again, development was seen to benefit limited groups and castes. Inefficient fund delivery mechanisms added additional difficulties to the accountability and transparent provision of resources. Marginalised groups and those in challenging geographical locations felt further excluded (Lawoti, 2010; Shakya, 2010; Tiwari, 2010). Despite positive achievements in the MDGs, gender and economic disparities remained wide (MoF 2013; UNDP, 2014). With the government focussing on neo-liberal development, the much-needed focus on issues of decentralisation was shifted. The decentralisation of power and authority was not happening in the functional ministries, and this created a conflict of interest. In the presence of very weak human resources and limited resources available from the centres, together with low local revenue generation, the Village Development Committees (VDCs) proved incapable of delivering necessary services.

Although the history of NGOs can be traced back to the 1960s in Nepal (ADB, 2005), the NGOs were led by members of the royal family before the establishment of parliamentary democracy in the 1990s (Shrestha & Dhakal, 2010). The involvement of the royal family in NGO businesses gave rise to other forms of power struggles between those who had access to the royal family and those who did not. From a dependency theory perspective, although the influences of western power and knowledge have been blamed for extending imperialism, history has not adequately reflected the political power that played a role in the rise of new social and political elites facilitated by continuing the dependency on foreign aid for their benefit.

The country saw NGOs and civil society organisations increase in number during the 1990s (Dhakal, 2007; Pokharel, 2000; Tamang, 2002; Uprety, 2011). These non-state organisations received acceptance and support through external funding in the form of foreign grants (Tamang, 2002). With NGOs coming to the forefront of service delivery, the

country was seen to revert to community-based participatory development. Thus, the period after the 1990s was marked by a boost in community development programs as one of the alternative ways to reach poor people at the grassroots level. Strategic, targeted and holistic approaches to community development were practiced in the country (Agrawal, Britt, & Kanel, 1999; Poudyal, 2005). The acceleration of a community forestry program (Dahal, Nepal, & Schuett, 2014; Dougill et al., 2001; McDougall, Jiggins, Pandit, Thapa Magar Rana, & Leeuwis, 2013); and the introduction of a users' committee at the local level, were some of the self-reliance and participatory development practices initiated during the 1990s as alternative development programs (Acharya, 2009). Gradually, reducing poverty, promoting good governance and autonomy, and improving service delivery and empowerment, became the central development strategies among the NGOs implementing community development programs (Madsen, 2014; Wong, 2012).

The country also saw indigenous nationalities emerging as a major political force, demanding recognition of cultural diversity and rejecting the domination of the higher-class social groups, specifically the *Brahmin* (Hangen, 2007; Shakya, 2010). The role of NGOs was observed to be changing from service delivery to an advocacy role in defending human rights and promoting a rights-based approach to development. Various development reports, however, viewed the changing role of NGOs from service delivery to a more politically-oriented way of development to be creating social disharmony in the country (Karkee & Comfort, 2016; Shrestha & Adhikari, 2011).

In addition, various factors such as lack of effective coordination; a weak financial base; lack of capacity (Dhakal, 2007; Uprety, 2011); lack of monitoring and evaluation; lack of transparency; lack of commitment among the NGO activists; and the absence of public surveillance of NGO governance in Nepal became the basis of criticism of civil society organisations, and this continues today (Dhakal, 2007; Roka, 2012). Therefore NGO governance came under the scrutiny of both the government and development partners and did not establish a positive image publicly (Lawoti, 2010; Uprety, 2011). The lack of an elected body at the local governing institutional level since 2007 fuelled the promotion of poor accountability and poor governance among the NGOs (Aditya, 2011; Dhakal, 2007). From the development perspective, only limited groups were benefiting and the distribution of development aid was not transparent. The view that the new elite was benefiting in the name of poor people became one of the factors fuelling the rise of the Maoist movement in Nepal during 1976–2006 (Aditya, 2011).

Political factors

The insurgency (Basnett, 2009; Köhler et al., 2009; Parajulee, 2010; Sharma, 2006) led to the centralisation of all services because of security reasons (Bhatta, 2016; Upreti, 2014). During the insurgency period, the role of civil society organisations and the private sector did not lessen. Instead, the role of state civil society organisations proactively increased in reaching the people through development activities such as health, education, and sanitation. Thus, even in a difficult period, Nepal could meet some of the MDG targets which would not have been possible without the extended role of civil society organisations, mainly NGOs. Because of the active role of civil society organisations, even during the challenging time, the role of non-state actors (mainly civil society organisations and private sector organisations) was recognised by the government and development partners both for their contribution to their meeting of MDG goals and through their extending of service delivery functions during the Maoist insurgency in 2000-2009 (United Nations Country Team [UNCT], 2012).

The Three Year Interim Plan (2007), the multi-year plan of the government, illustrates the importance of the role of civil society organisations in the inclusion of NGOs; community organisations and private sector organisations as partners of development; and shows the organisations' readiness to improve policies for sustainable development (NPC, 2007). However, the existence of weak local institutions resulting from poor state mechanisms has led development organisations such as NGOs and multilateral funding organisations to take the lead in strengthening social and institutional bases in delivering development and environmental outcomes. In the meantime, development programs have started to build social relationships between citizens and local institutions through community development programs, using users' committees[19] (Ministry of Federal Affairs and Local Development [MoFALD], 2016, p. 139; MoF, 2012). NGO-led development programs have used an enterprise culture to create employment at a grassroots level to aid in the alleviation of poverty.

Within the development field of work in Nepal, enterprise culture has also developed and affected the most rural and deprived sectors by the introduction of micro-enterprise (Food and Agriculture Organisation [FAO], 2009; Pant, 2008).

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[19] Community level committee entrusted with overall planning/ budgeting of development project/ activities

Social and cultural factors

Various forms of civil society organisations have played a role in delivering social welfare services in Nepal (Costantini, 2010, p. 23). These traditional solidarity forms include *Guthi* (trusts), *Parma* (local labour exchange systems) and *Dhikuri* (local savings and credit practices; Dhakal, 2007). *Guthis*, for example, was based on the idea of philanthropic practices such as land endowment, creating a collective consciousness of a group in a relationship with society and state (Dhakal, 2007; Joshi, 2013; Vajracharya, 1998). Other traditional practices include charity-based institutions such as *Ashrams* (shelter homes), *Gurukuls* (traditional residential schools), and *Ghats* (old-age public residential systems). These grassroots organisations are considered a part of the traditional solidarity system in Nepal (Costantini, 2010). The *Parma* system allowed the sharing of irrigation, planting, cultivation and other agricultural works for the reciprocal exchange of volunteer labour among families in society. Other cultural practices like *Bhaja*, a traditional practice where community members collected food and money to give to families in the event of marriage, accident, and death, are also documented (Vajracharya, 1998).

These foundations of culture contribute to a broader socialisation process in Nepal. In the absence of any effective state mechanism, societies are preserved by keeping their cultural and religious practices alive. These types of practices are valued not only for their cultural and religious influence, but also because they exist in the form of reciprocity, redistribution, and patronage to sustain the individual livelihoods of destitute people and to allow people living in extreme poverty to survive in the country, in lieu of the political economy (Harriss-White, 2005; Shakya, 2010; Shrestha & Dhakal, 2010). These traditional practices are also related to cultural and religious practices rooted in the country's religious heritage of Hinduism and Buddhism (Yadama & Messerschmidt, 2004, p. 104). These religious and cultural organisations can be compared with mutual organisations[20] (Defourny, 2001; Defourny & Nyssens, 2012). However, many development reports speak of how social caste and related cultural practices dominate society, and how social welfare is at the mercy of the social elite rather than being carried out by the government system. Joshi (2013), in *Redefining Civil Society in Nepal*, explains how these social and cultural practices became norms and regulations that took the place of a democratic dissemination of knowledge:

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[20] Trade unions, credit unions are examples of mutual organizations because these organisations mutualise various social risks such as responding to social and environmental calamities in the society , cost- effective service delivery etc., thus benefiting the members.

… (with) lack of access to government officials in remote places where traveling was difficult due to tough geographic landscape, most of the day-to-day governance work was carried out by the tribal head who ruled through the tribal laws and rights (…) Rana[21] had a tight leash on the state, and its bureaucracy did not promote democratic values and ideas to the masses. (p. 17)

These realities are strongly underlined by scholars like Dor Bahadur Bista, who describes how people in Nepal succumbed to cultural factors, hindering the development process. He famously referred to these cultural factors which resulted in high economic disparity as the "culture of fatalism" (Bista, 1991, p. 2) According to Bista, this is the practice of cultural acceptance of life as determined by "powerful external agencies" beyond personal control. These external but powerful agencies were depicted in the form of *afno manche*[22] and *chakari*[23]. These socially-constructed institutions and social processes favoured and encouraged the use of any opportunity to gain privilege by attempting to increase personal importance and priority (Bista, 1991, p. 4).

Caddell (2007) cites Hofer (1979) when explaining that the ethnic and caste-based social divisions were legitimised in Nepal during the Rana regime in the form of a civil code, *Muluki Ain*. The social system has always been based on the distribution of labour. Each of the castes was classified based on its technical and non-technical roles (Caddell, 2007). Panday (1999) described dominant cultural practices such as landlessness (Murshed & Gates, 2005, pp. 8) and the patriarchal society (Morgan & Niraula, 1995; Simkhada et al., 2015) as contributing to the structural causes of poverty. In the absence of state mechanisms to educate and build awareness among the people, and in addition to the geographical limitations, society was geared towards the reinforcement of cultural and religious practices within a caste-based system. These practices continue to perpetuate social division and the interplay of power relations within the hierarchies of the class system in Nepal. Social welfare is seen more within the context of an individual's fate rather than as the state's responsibility.

Together with traditional and cultural practices, cooperatives also had a role in service delivery functions in Nepal. They have been involved in various welfare activities, such as disaster relief, from as early as 1956 (Shrestha, 2015, p. 28). Multi-purpose agricultural

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[21] Ranas were autocratic rulers who ruled Nepal from 1846 to 1951.
[22] Helping others through one's personal connections.
[23] Nepotism and obeisance towards those in power.

cooperatives were established to finance farmers in crop production, to buy or sell crops, to aid with the supply of agricultural inputs (seeds, fertilisers, and feed for cattle) and to maintain farm machinery for their members. These cooperatives were also involved in the collection and sale of milk. However, they have low outputs, and their contribution in the modern era is a little less than one per cent of GDP (Neupane, 2006, p. 195).

In addition to agricultural services, other cooperatives are engaged in activities such as savings and credit, rural electricity, health promotion and communication systems promotion (Department of Cooperatives, 2015). Other community-based organisations that operate in Nepal include fair trade organisations (FAO, 2009; Upreti & Müller-Böker, 2010), microfinance activities (MoF, 2013, p. 65; 2015) and community forestry (NARC, 1995; McDougall et al., 2013; Pokharel & Nurse, 2004). However, these community-based organisations have not been reviewed or provided with the support necessary to sustain them.

Motivated by the country's poor governance and inspired by the successful models of western nations, socially-motivated leaders have emerged, aiming to contribute their endeavours to achieve greater social equity. NGOs are investigating better ways of managing competing resources and private sector organisations are looking to invest for social returns. This kind of organisational growth is seen to evolve through networks of like-minded groups, people, and organisations that are either establishing social ventures or social enterprises of their own, thereby bringing the concept to public attention. The concept has gained recognition since 2011, through a forum called the Surya Nepal Asha Social Entrepreneurship Award (SNASEA)[24]. The academic sphere has also taken up the social enterprise agenda. Private institutions are now providing academic courses on entrepreneurship. Therefore, the concept of social enterprise has moved across the development space of non-profits, for-profits and academic activities.

The discourse of enterprise and its relation to entrepreneurship came to life after Ashoka[25] members started to establish themselves as social entrepreneurs (Nepal Economic Forum, 2012). Some of the Ashoka members established themselves in the areas of women's empowerment (Biggs & Lewis, 2009) and in the health sector by devising low-cost intra-ocular lenses and serving the disadvantaged (Ruit, Tabin, Nissman, Paudyal, & Gurung, 1999). Other work was undertaken to extend rural telecommunication services to the remote

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[24] SNASEA was conceived in 2011 as the first Nepalese social entrepreneurs award for the choice of best social entrepreneurs in Nepal.

[25] Ashoka is an international organisation founded by Bill Drayton in 1980 to identify social entrepreneurs and to promote the sharing of innovative ideas in order to effect social change.

villages of the mid-hills of Nepal (Nepal Economic Forum, 2012; Ruth, Pun, & Stone, 2013). The enterprise culture was then seen to change from being a poverty-related activity to being driven by a philosophical understanding of tackling social problems.

The concept of social entrepreneurship also gained wider acceptance with the National Business Initiative (NBI)[26] and Change Fusion Nepal (CFN)[27]. These organisations began to recognise 'hidden heroes' and 'agents of change', identifying and rewarding successful social entrepreneurs (SNASEA, 2012) at the Young Women Entrepreneurship Summit in 2013 (*Kathmandu Post*, 2014), and at the first Nepal Responsible Business Summit in 2014 (Nepal Business Initiatives [NBI], 2014). A group of socially-oriented, not-for-profit organisations, such as NGOs, small and micro-enterprises (SMEs), associations, fair trade groups, cooperatives, and microfinance organisations has recently been found to be adopting different innovative business models focussing on social enterprise. These models incorporate the customisation of products and services to meet the needs of target markets, as well as the use of appropriate technology, production, and service delivery in order to improve efficiency (Nepalsutra, 2013). These efforts, mainly by not-for-profits, are paving the way for the growth of social enterprise in Nepal.

All of these changing development paradigms have affected various social groups differently in Nepal. Young people constitute one of the most neglected groups receiving the attention of the state only since 2006, after the conclusion of the insurgency in the country. A survey by the British Council (2010) reports that poverty, peer pressure, and unemployment were some of the reasons for participation by youth in the struggle (British Council, 2010). The psychological basis for young people's engagement in the Maoist Movement was their oppression by the exploitative upper class. With this context, the Nepali youth came to believe that insurgency was a way of achieving social equity (Upreti, 2006). Young people perhaps face the most serious challenges in earning their livelihood than any other group in Nepal.

The specific provisions to create employment opportunities for women and excluded groups are revealed in the Three Year Interim Plan (NPC, 2007), Labour Policies (2005), and the Foreign Employment Act (2007) which were developed after the insurgency period. The focus was put on providing equal opportunities to all social and gender groups (Acharya,

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[26] NBI is a private sector led initiative established for promoting ethical and responsible business practices with growth opportunities (NBI, 2014)

[27] CFN is an NGO that working in the field for social entrepreneurship in Nepal.

2009). However, these policies have not been able to show positive results, as a high rate of out-migration continues to take place (Gurung, 2004).

Therefore, the following section examines young people's experience with service delivery, especially focused on employment provision functions and young people's livelihood concerns in Nepal. Since there is also a paucity of literature on young people in Nepal, the global trend of young people and development will also be examined, followed by a review of young people in Nepal.

Youth in Nepal

Young people in Nepal face the range of challenges. Most of them are discussed above, together with some additional specific issues: living in poverty, with high unemployment and underemployment (Gupte & Bogati, 2014; Serrière, 2014). The young people living in rural and hilly regions face geo-ecological limitations. These groups are also challenged with low education standards, mostly in public schools. There is also limited job opportunities for young people in Nepal because of limited job opportunities in the country with limited income. Young people going for foreign employment has become a common practice in the country (Bhattarai, 2005; ILO, 2014). There is also a growing trend of trafficking in person, especially of young girls (Thapa, 2015; Uddin, 2013); HIV/AIDS (Hennink & Simkhada, 2004; Poudel & Carryer, 2000). The young people in Nepal are also challenged with the politicisation of non-state groups (Gupte & Bogati, 2014), where young people are also used for political interest. Within the cultural context, there is also a changing definition of jobs among young people. Moreover, individual life situations of young people are highly influenced by social and cultural norms (Serrière, 2014).

The National Youth Policy of Nepal defines youth as those from 16–40 years of age (Ministry of Youth and Sport [MoYS], 2010). Although there is no official explanation for extending the age group to 40 years, the logical answers can be related to the delayed entry of middle-class young people into the job market. However, the age-based demarcation of being young does not relate to the social and cultural practices of being a young person in Nepal. Onta-Bhatta (2001) suggests that as a result of the ongoing threat of poverty and the existence of cultural practices based on a patriarchal society, young Nepalese males are pushed into adulthood with more social responsibilities, such as taking care of parents and making a living to supplement the family income. In contrast to young males, young Nepalese females are pushed towards married life before they are teenagers (Onta-Bhatta, 2001). Families have

a bigger role in urging girls towards marriage than the girls' own decision-making (Bajracharya & Amin, 2010).

Culturally, social ceremonies for boys, such as *Bratabandha*, mark the social endorsement of a child to enter adulthood. There are several cultural practices that form part of the social transition from childhood to adulthood. In this transition, youth is not always defined by age but by an eligibility to start a family life through marriage. A vernacular term, *Yuba,* broadly represents a combination of adolescence and youth, mostly representing the age group of 15–29. Although the term *kisorawastha* is used to denote adolescence, there is no age specified for this period. These cultural practices account for differing ages for the young boys and girls to enter adulthood, denoted by marriage and the ability to start a family. Marriage and starting a family remains the ultimate goal for all girls, irrespective of their age (Posner et al., 2009).

A report by the Nepal Ministry of Health and Population (MoHP) entitled *Adolescent and Youth 2010/2011* (2012) revealed that the median age at first marriage for a male is 19 years and, for a female, 17 years. The same report showed that one in every five participants drank alcohol (18 per cent), smoked cigarettes/tobacco (13 per cent, or used major drugs (six per cent). Twenty-four per cent of those surveyed reported having faced physical violence in the form of beating, with eight per cent of them requiring medical treatment. About three per cent of those surveyed disclosed that they were involved in some harmful activity resulting in the destruction of public and/or private property.

The process of socialisation of young people in Nepal is also influenced by increased access to internet services, which have begun to provide a new space for entertainment. According to the same report (MoHP, 2012), the most common forms of entertainment for young men is reported to be going out with friends, playing video games and watching a movie on the internet; watching TV is reported to be the most common form of entertainment for young women. Fourteen per cent of the women reportedly listen to music and participate in cultural activities, while five per cent reported "doing nothing" at all. This data reflects a multitude of cultural factors that play a role in a life of a young person transitioning from childhood to youth in Nepal (p. 127).

Broadly, the transition process of youth in Nepal can be categorised into (a) cultural processes based on performing roles, such as marriage, defined by the family and society; (b) socialising processes through friends, TV, the internet, and participation in cultural festivities; (c) engaging in drinking and drug use; and (d) employment. Pandey (2010) argues that the transition of adolescents is caught up in the changing value system of the country as a result

of the struggle to keep up the old traditions as well as to follow the western concept of being modern. She argues that families (and parents in particular) are also confused in how to best direct and support their children towards the attainment of future life goals (Pandey, 2010). Snellinger (2013) identifies "caste, social class, gender, cultural ideology, social institutions and personal biographies" as playing a role in shaping what the author calls the lived experience of a young person in Nepal (Snellinger, 2013, p. 76).

One-third of the population (27.8 per cent) is made up of young people aged 15–29 years in Nepal (Serrière, 2014, p. 2). This growing population of young people is similar to the general 'youth bulge' trend taking place in South Asia (Assaad & Levison, 2013, p. 6). Youth poverty and youth unemployment are growing concerns in Nepal. Youth unemployment rates for the population of 15–29 years are reported to be 19.2 per cent. Unemployment rates for males across all ages are 17.1 per cent compared to 22.2 per cent among females (Serrière, 2014, p. 29).

The study also revealed that mobility rates are different for males and females, with 46 per cent of surveyed males having moved to another city within the country in comparison to just 15 per cent of surveyed females. Moreover, 13 per cent of those surveyed reported their interest in migrating to a new place in order to find a job, either within the country or outside the country (MoHP, 2012, pp. 22-27). The ILO (2015a) predicts that the migration trend of Nepali youth to foreign employment is likely to continue to increase until 2025[28] (ILO, 2015a, p. 13), despite the existence of demanding working conditions in many employment destination countries (Adhikary, Keen, & Van Teijlingen, 2011; Joshi, Simkhada, & Prescott, 2011).

This trend in the search for work in foreign countries demonstrates attempts to escape the disempowerment of life in Nepal due to prevailing unemployment. The Nepal Living Standard Survey has reported that at least one inhabitant in 53 per cent of households is employed in a foreign country. This figure increased by 9.2 per cent from 2001 to 2011 (ILO, 2015a, p. 13). Migration to India and the Middle East is highest (37.6 per cent each), followed by Malaysia (13 per cent), European countries (3.3 per cent), other Asian countries (3.3 per cent), USA and Canada (2.5 per cent), and elsewhere (2.1 per cent). The youth age group of 15–29 years constitutes about 50 per cent of the total migrants (pp. 15–19).

More than 450,000 young people enter the labour market annually in Nepal (MoF, 2015, p. 104), with approximately 715 of those leaving the country each day for overseas

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[28] With an estimated increase in migration rate of 9.2 per cent each year.

employment (ADB, 2015, p. 4). Out of these people leaving the country, 74 per cent of them are reported to be unskilled, 25 per cent semi-skilled and about one per cent are skilled workers (MoF, 2015, p. 104). Among those in overseas employment, 50.3 per cent are also reported to be in the 15–29 years age group, 34.2 per cent in the age group of 30–44 years, and seven per cent in the age group of 45–59 years (ILO, 2014, p. 19).

More in-depth insight from *Labour and Social Trends in Nepal* (2010) indicates that a 45 per cent of young people do not have right skill due to problem of skills-mismatch , and 30 per cent are earning less than what they should be earning leading to underemployment among youth in Nepal (ILO, 2010, p. 29). Other research has also pointed to the gap between the skills required by available jobs and the skills possessed by the individuals (Fergusson & Yeates, 2013; ILO, 2013a, p. 8). This is particularly the case in the academic sector (Betchoo, 2013).

Migration among women mainly as domestic caregivers and domestic workers is problematic, as women in these roles can suffer from unregulated national laws and legislation of the countries providing employment (Bajracharya & Sijapati, 2012). Long separations of mothers from children have also given rise to several social and psychological problems among the children. Significantly, these young migrants also suffer various forms of exploitation such as low wages, unhealthy work conditions and hazardous and long working hours (Bhattarai, 2005, p. 57; Sijapati, 2012).

The statistical data also reveal that women and girls of all ages face social discrimination of one form or other in Nepal (Posner et al., 2009). The social discrimination faced by women varies across caste, ethnicity, social class, education level, religion and geographic regions. Socio-cultural practices, gender power differences, and poverty have been linked to internal migration processes of young women, increasing the vulnerability of young girls to trafficking and sexual abuse (Datta, 2005; Hennink & Simkhada, 2004; Mahendra, Bhattarai, Dahal, & Crowley, 2001). Gender-based power differences between males and females and between youth and elders, as well as discrimination based on caste and ethnicity, create social disparities. These unequal power relations also play a role in diminishing the power of females to negotiate in a sexual relationship (Posner et al., 2009). Thus, male domination conditions young girls to be "passive, obedient and self-sacrificing" (Mahendra et al., 2001; Poudel & Carryer, 2000, p. 5). A strong social division of the labour force based on gender and class divisions reflects the existing social inequalities in Nepal (MoHP, 2012; Posner et al., 2009).

Trafficking is extremely prevalent in Nepal (Greenland & Skuse, 2015; Griffin, 2015; KC, Subedi, Gurung, & Adhikari, 2001; Upreti & Müller-Böker, 2010). Thapa (2015) cites a report from the *Global Slavery Index* that ranks Nepal fifth among 165 countries in 2013 (Thapa, 2015, p. 451). It is estimated that about 5000 to 7000 girls are trafficked every year from Nepal to India and the other countries (Mahendra et al., 2001, p. 4; Uddin, 2013). Hennink and Simkhada (2004) found that 50 per cent of trafficking could be attributed to poverty and unemployment (Hennink & Simkhada, 2004, p. 307). Mahendra et al. (2001) cite *New Era* (1997) in mentioning that 38 per cent of females of varying ages who enter into sex work are influenced by their peers and about nine per cent are forced by family members (Mahendra et al., 2001, p. 5). Some young girls are sold to brothel owners at a price ranging from Indian Rs. 50,000 to 70,000 (USD 5000 to 7000) (KC et al., 2001, p. 11). About 100,000 Nepali women are reported to be involved in commercial sex work in India, with as many as 50 per cent of them infected with HIV/AIDS (World Bank, 2012a). These trends reveal sex-trafficking is widespread in Nepal (Thapa, 2015, p. 10).

An increasingly higher level of education has been linked to the fact that young people are being selective in the choice of jobs (ILO, 2015a, p. 29). A seminal paper by Jeffrey (2008), "*Generation nowhere? Rethinking youth through the lens of unemployed young men*", provides a reflection on the cohort of educated unemployed young men from the Global South. The same study focussed on three sets of unemployed young men those from elite and educated backgrounds; those without a secondary education; and those who had passed high school but were unable to find suitable jobs (Jeffrey, 2008). Although there are similar cohorts of unemployed youth in Nepal, a fourth category also exists there: those who do not have even basic literacy. The formation of an illiterate and poor social group of young people has arisen due to the low retention rate in schools. Further categorisation of young people in Nepal is possible based on geographical, and caste-based discrimination distinctions (Liechty, 2003; UNDP, 2014).

The ILO report, *Labour and Social Trends in Nepal* (2010), makes particular reference to the changing preference for work among a well-educated and economically wealthier group of young people. The report mentions that a good job as a social preference is a growing trend among the youth from well-to-do families who can withstand longer unemployment in Nepal (ILO, 2010, p. 28). The term 'good job' reflects changing social perceptions. In contrast to these global trends, perceptions of 'good' employment are driven by the linking of employment/ unemployment status to social class, caste, economic status and level of education and with a sense of decency and respectability in society in Nepal

(British Council, 2010, p. 10). These social expectations put immense pressure on young people in Nepal.

Young people in Nepal are also challenged by changing family structures which are shifting from an extended to a nuclear family structure. These changes in family structures affect traditional family support mechanisms such as practice to look after children by the grandparents and other family members. These changes are adding a higher level of responsibility for young parents (Limbu, 2012; Mitchell, 2009). Under-development of the social security system to protect the elderly in the country also means that the young people need to take care of the elderly as well even if they live separately (Limbu, 2012).

As noted above, changes in the language of development and in development thinking and practice have not necessarily contributed to resolving youth poverty in Nepal; there is still a need to address the various contributing issues such as education, income, social status, personal aspirations and family obligations within the various social, cultural and geographical contexts which are faced by Nepalese young people.

Development interventions in addressing youth concerns in Nepal

In the case of Nepal, social inclusion is a major development strategy undertaken to address equity concerns (MoF, 2015; Pradhan, 2006). Social inclusion of disadvantaged young people is envisioned as a strategy to overcome structural inequalities related to social and cultural practices, to reduce social discrimination and to increase access to education and employment opportunities for disadvantaged groups and women in Nepal.

Development interventions targeting youth can be related to overall development practice in Nepal. Although systematic development planning through five-year planning processes can be traced back to the 1950s (NPC, 2010, 2013), the history of development focusing on young people is a recent trend. The Maoist insurgency in 1996 marked the beginning of a realisation of the need to recognise young people as an important part of the country's development concerns (Acharya, 2009, 2011). Hundreds of young people were recruited by the Maoist insurgents, particularly from the rural regions, and were seen as a politically significant force (Upreti, 2014, p. 37). The young people were influenced by a doctrine called *prachandapath*, which was based on the Marxist philosophy of social class division. Impoverishment, such as that experienced in Nepal, was described as a dependency created by the so-called 'privileged' social class, industrialist factory owners and the owners of the private schools. The doctrine urged its cadres to shift their focus from the periphery to the centre to achieve social equality, where the centre was referred to the industrial corridors

including Kathmandu Valley. The understanding that power could be seized, helped young people to believe that joining the insurgents would serve as a way of achieving social equity (Upreti, 2006).

A survey by the British Council (2010) reports that the highest number of recruited youth to the rebel forces came from middle school and high school students (Devkota & Upadhyay, 2015, p. 294). The groups of young people infiltrated the labor-intensive industries in the urban areas. Factories such as garment production and tourism were affected (Shakya, 2010). The groups soon began to undertake more violent activities (Hoffmann, 2014; Upreti, 2014). These activities started a period of deterioration for slowly-growing small- and medium-sized industries in Nepal. Business owners in these sectors, such as *Marwari, Bahun-chhettri* and *Newar* businesspersons, experienced hostile treatment from the insurgents, mostly in the form of abductions and extortion. The threat of extortion created terror and a sense of insecurity. The mobilisation of factory workers and students in the name of patriotism became even more chaotic. In the absence of any state-led protection system, these attacks on the economic base of the market and employment system destroyed the emerging economic activities (Shakya, 2010, p. 9).

These political moves of the Maoists were analysed from two opposing perspectives. The developmental viewpoint of the Maoist movement considered these actions as addressing the persisting caste, ethnic and gender-based disparities (Bennett et al., 2006; Sharma, 2006). The other perspective viewed the Maoist movement as a hindrance to the process of the country's democratic development (Köhler et al., 2009; Murshed & Gates, 2005). At the same time, the infiltration of the education and industry sectors ultimately resulted in the deterioration of these slowly-growing sectors, further hindering the employment opportunities in the country (Shakya, 2010, p. 54). The insurgency ended in 2006 through the success of the peace process (Robins et al., 2016, p. 8).

Irrespective of how the Maoist movement was viewed, the issues of representation and equity related to caste and ethnicity and the inclusion of young people suddenly became important issues because of the increasing conflict in the country. Altogether, the need to address these concerns underlined a need to address the historical, cultural, geographical and economic causes of poverty for young people in Nepal. This was seen as having paramount importance for development issues (Acharya, 2009; Upreti, 2006).

Thus various policies and programs were formulated by the government in order to provide a smooth transition to the labour market. One example of this was the *Labour and Employment Policy* (2005), which aimed to ensure equal access to employment for women,

disadvantaged social groups known as the *Dalits* and the *Adibasi/Janajati*, and individuals with disabilities. Economic liberalisation was further extended by enacting the Foreign Employment Act (2007), with the aim of protecting the rights of foreign migrant workers, especially women (NPC Secretariat, 2008). However, the new labour policies designed to create local employment were of little help; efforts to build local employment failed as a result of the insurgency (Bhattarai, 2005; Gurung, 2004; Sharma & Karki, 2011). More recently, the *Foreign Employment Policy* (2012) and *Technical and Vocational Education and Training Policy* (2012) have also recognised the inherent problems with skill gaps and the increased vulnerabilities among migrant workers.

Like western countries, Nepal has progressively implemented education plans and provided various vocational training and micro-enterprise related programs. The *Basic and Primary Education Master Plan 1997-2002,* (Ministry of Education [MoE], 1997), *Education for All 2001–2015* [EFA] (MoE, 2012) and the *School Sector Reform Plan 2009–2015* [SSRP] (MoE, 2009) aim to ensure access and equity in primary/basic education, to enhance the quality and relevance of education and to improve efficiency and institutional capacity. The SSRP seeks to bring the entire school system under one coherent management and governance structure (MoE, 2012).

A study report, *Labour and Social Trends in Nepal* (ILO, 2010) shows that the literacy rate among the age group of 15–29 years has increased in Nepal (70 per cent for male and 43 per cent for female) but the labour underutilisation of a similar age group (15–24 years) remains very high (CBS 2009, p. 120; ILO, 2014). In contrast, reports reveal that there are very low retention rates among students of basic (1-8 class), and secondary (9-12 class) school (MoE, 2012). These early school leavers end up either in the informal market or taking up high-risk jobs within the country or abroad (Gurung, 2004; Sharma & Karki, 2011). The figures show further variance in terms of geographical and ecological regions, indicating a higher disparity among youth within the country (Taylor, 2013; UNDP, 2013). These figures indicate social disparities arising either from different opportunities to obtain an education or the affordability of access to education services.

The Technical and Vocational Education System (TVET) was put in place to address the skills demand in the market and to contribute to the development of basic- to medium-level human resources. Short-term skills are commonly imparted to implement basic development programs (Adhikary, 2005; Pant, 2008, p. 8). The new structure comprises 12 years of school education, with the first eight years being basic development programs (MoE, 2012). However, to access TVET at a technical school, potential trainees must possess a

School Leaving Certificate (SLC), which is obtained after completing the tenth-grade examination (ADB, 2015). With only 15.7 per cent of boys and 14.2 per cent of girls enrolled in secondary schools (CBS, 2011b, p. 84), and only about 50 per cent of candidates passing the exam (ADB, 2015, p. ix), the vast majority of youth do not have access to the formal TVET system.

The government, with the objective of *development of entrepreneurship*, established the Youth and Small Enterprise Self-employment Funds in 2008/2009[29] (MoE, 2009, p. 33). Six hundred and twenty-three primary cooperatives, 24 banks and various financial institutions were involved in providing funds for this scheme. It has reportedly assisted 28,206 people to gain employment (MoF, 2015, p. 103). The Micro-Enterprise Development Programme (MEDEP) is a flagship program of the government of Nepal led by the Ministry of Commerce and Supply and the UNDP (MoF, 2013, p. 175). These programs are implemented in 38 out of 75 districts and are in the sixteenth year of operation. Among the 71,000 micro-entrepreneurs, 55 per cent of youth has benefited by receiving entrepreneurial skills-training and the generation of employment opportunities (MoF, 2015, p. 151). Similarly, the Ministry of Women's Development has reportedly provided livelihood training to 1770 young girls in 2014–2015 (p. 246). These activities view youth entrepreneurship as a way to tackle unemployment in Nepal (Assaad & Levison, 2013; Freedman, 2008; Kuriakose & Joseph, 2016; Nkomo et al., 2015). International studies have found that such interventions are effective for older age groups rather than young people (Green & Haines, 2015, pp. 2-3). Nevertheless, the age-group-specific effectiveness of the entrepreneurship, focussing on young people in Nepal, has not been studied.

National and international NGOs and several UN agencies are involved in providing skills-training activities in Nepal. Moreover, departments such as the Ministry of Local Development, Ministry of Health and Environment, Department of Agriculture, Department of Land Survey and Maintenance, Department of Cooperatives, Department of Roads and Department of Forests are also involved in providing vocational skills-training in Nepal (Pant, 2008).

Private sector organisations are encouraged to invest in jobs and employment creation (NPC, 2013). However, the political instability (ADB, 2015; MoF, 2015, p. 17), followed by political class domination of social groups (Dahal, 2004), poor infrastructure (GIIN, 2015, p. 9), and insufficient adaptive capacity of the country to climate-related natural disaster (NPC,

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[29] Nepali Era 2065 BS.

2016, p. 118) have contributed to the scenario of poor investment in Nepal. Although the service sector, including hydropower, tourism, and hospitality, contributes to 37 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product of the country, the tourism and hospitality sectors in which most young people are engaged to generate only 3 per cent of the GDP (GIIN, 2015, p.6). The unfavorable investment environment at both the micro- and macro-level has also been attributed to the difficult and challenging geographical terrain, inadequate resources, poor infrastructure, inadequate social protection measures and weak coordination among the government ministries, departments and various sectors as well (Pant, 2008).

Youth in Nepal are thus caught within a multiplicity of challenges, including traditional socio-cultural practices; being in control of their lives (Greenland & Skuse, 2015; MoYS, 2010); playing an important role in the peace-building process (British Council, 2010; MoYS, 2010); and having a sense of being modern in Nepal (Liechty, 2002).

Summary and conclusion

This chapter has examined the literature related to the development of social enterprises and social entrepreneurship as an emerging form of development practice. Although the concept of social entrepreneurship is gaining popularity and application in development contexts, specific literature and examples from developing countries are limited. Moreover, the understanding and interpretation of the terms 'social enterprises' and 'social entrepreneurship' remain contested globally. Therefore, in this literature review, the key terms 'social entrepreneurs', 'social innovation', 'social entrepreneurship organisations', 'social value', and 'market orientation' were defined and clarified in the context of this research project. The criteria that define social enterprise and social entrepreneurship were used to contextualise the emergence of similar development trends in Nepal. Various developmental, political, social and cultural factors were also identified as influencing the change in development discourse in Nepal, leading to the option of a business model of development based on social entrepreneurship concepts as a viable option to address one of the most pertinent development issues related to youth unemployment in Nepal.

It was within this context that, as a second step, the relationship between youth and development was examined. The literature reveals that young people are largely absent from the development interventions literature and the interventions made for youth unemployment are fragmented. The global perspective on youth and unemployment was then used to further contextualise the situation of young people in Nepal in order to provide a youth perspective on their employment prospects, and life opportunities more generally.

Within the failed development context of Nepal, social enterprises and social entrepreneurship have provided a new way of addressing development challenges, including that of youth unemployment. However, a gap is identified in the literature in understanding the details of social enterprise organisation and the interrelationship with young people in Nepal. Three aspects-development theories, social entrepreneurship, and youth perspectives are established as the focus of this study. These aspects will, in turn, facilitate a better understanding of the growth of social enterprise and its contribution to improving the livelihoods of youth in Nepal. The methodology utilised in the current research will now be discussed.

Chapter Three: Research methods

The previous chapter explored the literature on developing social enterprises and social entrepreneurship as an emerging development practice. The review showed that, despite the popularity of the concept of social enterprises and the proliferation of writings discussing it, qualitative studies of this approach, particularly from developing countries, remains sparse. The present study aims to contribute to this gap by undertaking a qualitative study of social enterprises and their contribution to Nepal in meeting the employment and livelihood needs of young people. This chapter outlines the methodological approach and the research methods used in undertaking this study.

In undertaking this research, the decision was made to diverge from the standard tools for researching social enterprises (Emerson & Cabaj, 2000; Hall, 2014; Kaplan & Norton, 2001; Maas & Liket, 2011; Reeder & Colantonio, 2013). The standardised tools are criticised for lacking the flexibility to adapt to the individual situation of the organisations, often causing limitations in explaining actual organisational realities (Reeder & Colantonio, 2013). Instead, a multiple case study approach was chosen, using a qualitative framework to understand the experiences of the research participants (Clifford, Markey, & Malpani, 2013; Dawson, 2010). The case study method provided an opportunity to understand social phenomenon such as identity, power, and the voices of the disadvantaged, which otherwise are not explicitly revealed in many studies (Karatas-Ozkan et al., 2014). The selection of case study organisations was based on a varying typology of social enterprises working in the areas of employment outcomes, together with other social objectives. The aim has thus been to provide an overview of the organisations and individuals involved in social enterprises and to provide an analysis of their actions and motivations.

This research takes the form of an exploratory study that gathers information from literature reviews, an organisational survey and case studies combining the perspectives of organisations and disadvantaged young people. Information obtained at each stage is used to inform the subsequent steps and to triangulate the results obtained from other stages. By combining the perspective of the organisations and individuals separately, the study recognises the significance of agency in making decisions related to respective goals and organisational or individual prosperity. Therefore, the interviews were arranged at the organisational level, and interviews with beneficiaries (young people) were conducted separately, to form a crucial part of each case study organisation. All five case studies served

primarily as a basis for explaining the process of social change and in identifying the actual social changes in the lives of young people.

The justification for using qualitative methods

This project used qualitative research methods (Creswell, 2013; Hammersley, 2013; Patton, 1990; Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013) with some quantitative data collected for the purpose of interpretation to guide the analysis (Alvesson & Deetz, 2006, p. 274; Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011). Qualitative research has the potential to use multiple research strategies (Hennink et al., 2011; Silverman, 2015; Stake, 2013). These strategies are used as part of the process of triangulation (Creswell, 2013; Yin, 2013) or as a part of the cumulative process with a focus on understanding participants' behaviour, perceptions, and experiences in a particular context. Qualitative research allows an understanding of the experiences of participants from different perspectives (Bailey, Hennink, & Hutter, 2011; Hennink et al., 2011). The other specific characteristics of qualitative research include the researcher's use of inductive thinking, flexibility, inquisitiveness, reflective listening and insight analysis (Minichiello & Kottler, 2010). Qualitative research aims to capture the experiences of the people themselves, how they act, how they think about themselves and the world surrounding them. Thus, qualitative research involves activities like observing, describing, interpreting, and analysing (Bazeley, 2013, p. 4). These activities are embodied in structured strategies such as participant observation, interviews, and case studies.

Of these methods, the qualitative case[30] study is recommended when the study attempts to answer 'how' and 'why' questions. It is also recommended when it is difficult for the researcher to regulate the behaviour of those involved in the study, and if the focus of the study is on contemporary topics in contrast to issues that have a stronger historical basis (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2015, p. 10; Tellis, 1997; Yin, 2003, 2013). Tellis (1997) maintains that the research framed around 'what' questions justifies an exploratory study, and research around 'how' questions justify an explanatory research study (Tellis, 1997, p. 8). These propositions thus frame the study as exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory.

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[30] The case study has been presented in different forms: case studies about individuals where each person serves as a case differ from multi-case studies. Individual cases can be explored either individually or in a group. The single case study focuses on single representations to learn about its unique feature. In contrast, for case studies of people in a group, instead of comparing individuals directly, themes are explored across interviewed individuals, and researchers examine the particular case (as a group) to better understand the phenomenon (Stake, 2005).

Research design

A three-step process of data collection was followed. A literature review was the first step to establishing the context of the study. The survey of potential social enterprises was the second step of the research study. Five organisations were selected from the surveyed organisations for a detailed case study. Conducting interviews with the representatives of the organisations, as well as the young participants who were associated with the selected case study organisations, was the third step of the research. Figure 1 shows the overall research design of the study.
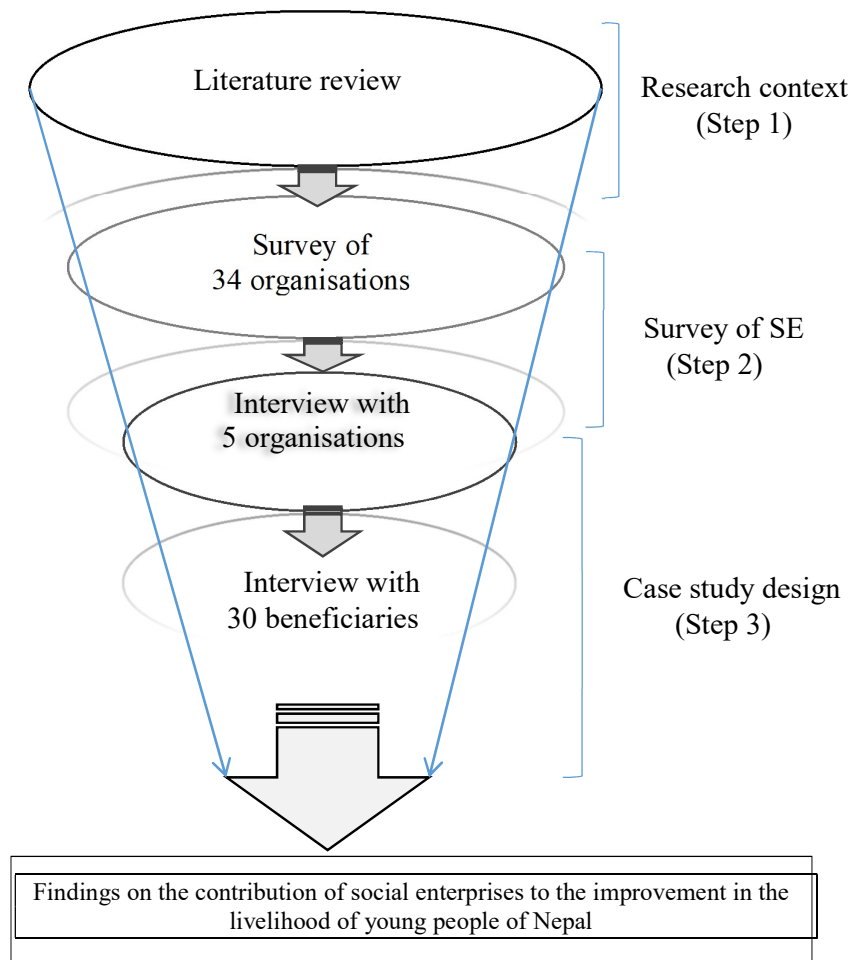
Figure 1. Research design: a three-step process of data collection.

The data collection in this study used interpretive qualitative methods (Eisenhardt, 1989; Stake, 2005). The robustness of findings of the research within the interpretive paradigm is measured with the criteria of: (a) reliability; (b) validity; (c) objectivity; and (d)

generalisability of qualitative research (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). Validity refers to the portrayal of research outcomes in reference to the participants perceptions (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008); reliability is about the quality of the data collection and analysis (accounting for changes), and contexts which might impinge on the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985); objectivity concerns explaining the research systematically (Miles & Huberman, 1994); and transferability, or generalisability, explains the possibility that the findings can be applied to other studies in similar situations (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008).

Ethics

As on the focus of this research is young people, ethical considerations were paramount to ensure that they were not put at risk (Bailey et al., 2011; Silverman, 2015). Thus, before the research commenced, an Ethics Approval was obtained (15 December 2014, ethics register number 2014 312 N; see Appendix A). The researcher obtained informed consent (Appendix B) and provided a safe and supportive environment for the interviews. The confidentiality was maintained by removing the names of the participants and the names of the organisation. Additionally, concerns of power relations (Matthews & Limb, 1999; Morrow & Richards, 1996) arising from the differences between the researcher and interviewees in age, academic position, social class and gender were taken into account during the interview process. As the researcher is from Nepal, research ideas were communicated to the participants in their native language, Nepali. Communicating in a known local language was valued by the participants as it was easier for them to understand and respond to the questions. The young women participants also felt at ease talking with a female researcher.

For the interview, the first step in obtaining informed consent was to brief the management or team leader of the research project. The importance of the research project, together with the roles and responsibilities of the researchers and the rights and obligations of the interviewees were made very clear. Before conducting the interviews, copies of a consent letter and a general information letter (Appendix C) were translated into Nepali and were provided to each organisation. The informed consent letter also included information on anonymity, confidentiality, the use of data for academic publications and the rights of respondents to stop at any point or ask for clarification. The participants were also informed about the use of electronic recording and note-taking during the interview process.

Other ethical considerations were included during the process of data analysis. Care was taken during comparisons and the data interpretation process to differentiate the

experiences of youth belonging to the 18–24 years group and those between 25–30 years. The participants were also provided with the researcher's local contact number in case they had queries about the research and/or were thinking of withdrawing from the research process.

Survey: method and analysis

Identifying the social enterprise organisations for the survey

A list of about 198 organisations was identified through online and secondary sources of information that were publicly available. This online search was accomplished using search engines such as Google, Google Scholar, ProQuest, Trove, Research Gate and the Australian Catholic University search engine. Keywords such as 'social enterprise Nepal', 'social entrepreneurs', 'social entrepreneurship', 'social entrepreneurship awards', 'non-profit' and 'not-for-profit organisation Nepal' were used in compiling lists of organisations, before identifying the appropriate organisations to which the survey forms would be sent.

There were complexities in the identification of the social enterprise organisations for the survey, because of their contested definition (Lyon & Sepulveda, 2009). Definition-related challenges in the mapping of social enterprise organisations are highlighted by several studies (Barraket et al., 2010). A list of 98 organisations was short-listed for the survey based on the pre-defined criteria as follows:

Organisations

(a) with a strategy to balance their social and economic objectives;

(b) those benefiting young people;

(c) those registered in Nepal; and

(d) those willing to participate in the survey.

Furthermore, the challenge in identifying and selecting social enterprises because of the contested definition of the term was addressed by the use of another filter as a top-down approach to determine the social enterprises for the survey (Dart, Clow, & Armstrong, 2010; Lyon & Sepulveda, 2009). The top-down approach allowed social enterprise organisations to identify themselves as a social enterprise or not (Barraket et al., 2010; Lyon & Sepulveda, 2009).

Deciding the numbers

The number of social enterprise organisations in Nepal has not been calculated through systematic studies. Therefore the social enterprise organisations used in the survey

do not necessarily provide a representative sample of all the social enterprise organisations found in Nepal. But in the absence of baseline information in the country, the findings are useful in informing others about the emerging trend of such organisations in Nepal.

Survey data collection

The survey was distributed during January–July 2015. The 98 organisations selected were surveyed using email as the first step. The structured survey comprised a mix of closed questions and open-ended questions, to support the narratives. The survey questions concerned general information about the organisation: the organisation's goals and objectives; its year of establishment; the legal basis of the organisation; information about the target beneficiaries; data about its self-identification as a social enterprise organisation; material to do with social problems identified by the organisation and how they are addressed; data on financial trends; and challenges faced by them to upscale their initiatives. The survey questions are presented in Appendix D.

The questionnaires were prepared both in English and Nepali. However, it was not feasible for all the organisations to use the online survey because of network and electricity problems. A telephone interview was used as an alternative means of data-gathering in places where the email network was limited. This situation was created because of the massive earthquake in May 2015, during the mid-survey period. Five organisations were interviewed using a telephone interview.

Subsequently, only 42 out of 98 organisations responded to the survey. Six of the organisations identified themselves as not considering themselves as social enterprises, and two of the responding organisations did not attempt to declare themselves as social enterprises during the survey process. This information eliminated eight organisations with the result that a total of 34 organisations were used for survey data analysis. Figure 2 below presents the survey data collection process.
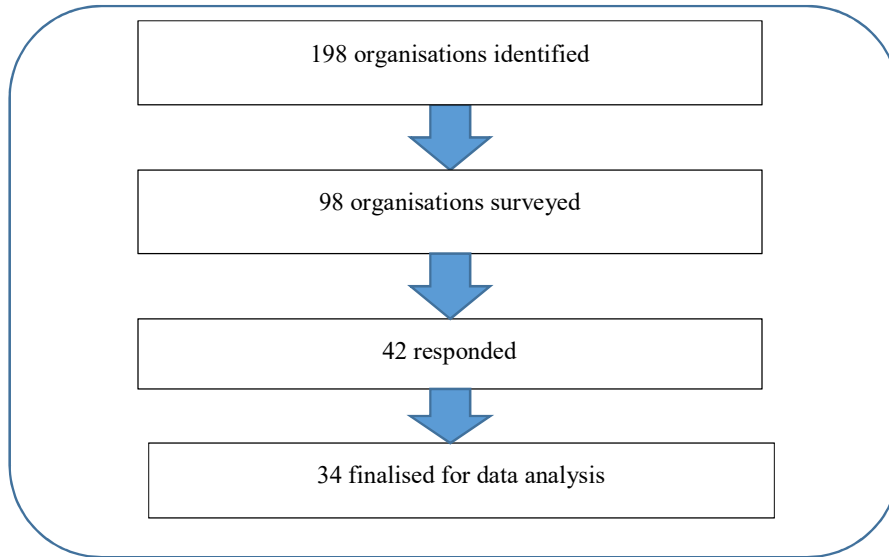
Figure 2. Survey process utilised for case study organisations

Out of 34 organisations, 22 organisations were from Kathmandu Valley, and the remaining 12 were from outside the valley. The distribution of survey respondents from different parts of the country is presented in Appendix E. The higher representation of the surveyed organisations from Kathmandu Valley is attributed to the higher economic activity concentrated in that region and the greater accessibility to the Kathmandu Valley (GIIN, 2015, p. 9).
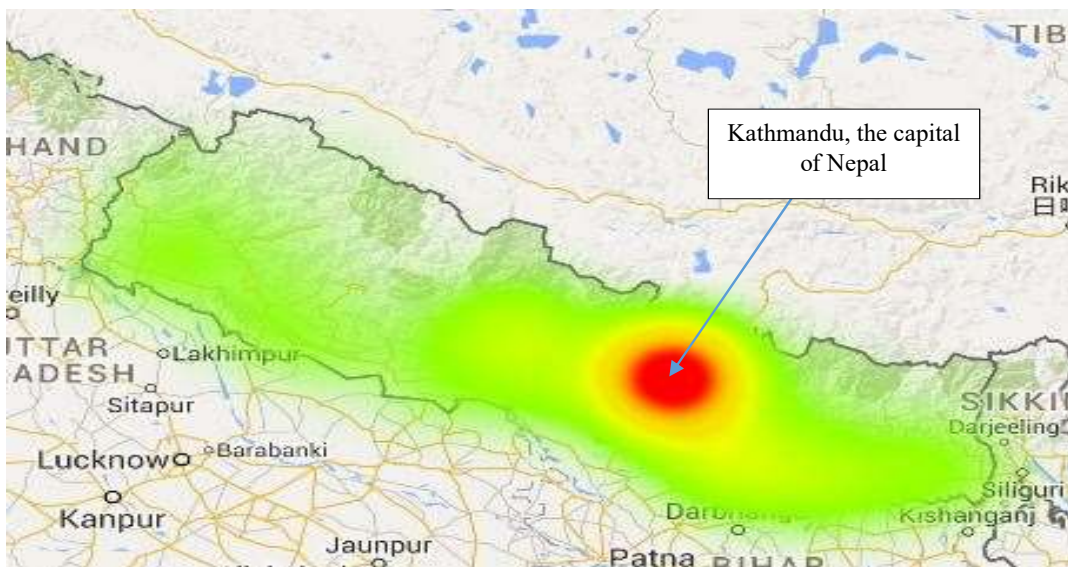
Figure 3. Heat map of NGO concentration in Nepal

Source: http://kcdipendra.com.np/heatmap-of-ngos-in-nepal/

Survey data collection and data coding

The survey data included responses from the survey. Information was obtained on the following aspects of each organisation: goals; activities; results; establishment year; whether the organisation was a result of an individual or a group effort; selection criteria of the beneficiaries/clients; age profile of the beneficiaries/clients; products and services; staffing; financial trends over the five years; percentage of reinvestment; and challenges for up scaling the best practices. Some of the data received in Nepali was translated into English before the coding process. All data gathered from the organisational survey and case study were printed, then checked for the consistency of the information by comparing with the information available on the organisations' websites. All the survey responses were coded so as to maintain the anonymity of the organisations.

Manual coding was done for the qualitative data set in order to generate a code for each category of the survey questions. After completing the manual coding for the first five organisations, a similar process was followed for the next five organisations. This coding process was repeated twice, separately, in order to test the consistency of the coding process. This code was applied in order to identify similar ideas as evidenced in the remaining data respondents. After completing the data coding process, the results for each coding process were compared, as each response had been developed into a codebook (see Appendix F). Based on these codes, the qualitative data were re-coded and organised into a spreadsheet, before importing into SPSS for multiple analysis.

Table 1

A sample of completed qualitative data sheet before analysis

Org CODE	Q5 Org founded by	Q14 Income trend	Q15 Sources of income	Q15.1	Q15.2	Q15.3	Q15.4	Q16 Use of revenue	Q16.3
ORG 001	An Individual	Increasing	Own business	5	1	1	99	Program operation and program implementation	4
ORG 002	Group of Citizens	Increasing	Own business	5	99	1	99	Operation, expansion, and profit-making for the shareholder	4
ORG 003	An Individual	Increasing	Business service fees, rental service fees	5	9	1	99	Business expansion	1
ORG 004	Government	Decreasing	Government	1	99	99	99	Program operation and program implementation	99
ORG 005	Institution	Increasing	Own Business + NGO	5	6	99	99	Profit distributing	99
ORG 006	Group of Citizens	Increasing	Venture funding	7	99	99	99	To cover operational costs or reinvestment	99

								in the organisation and expansion of its activities	
ORG 007	Group of Citizens	Decreasing	Own business	5	99	99	99	Office operation, reinvestment in the company for the program expansion	99
ORG 008	Group of Citizens	Increasing	Government (2), self-funded through own enterprises (3) and NGO/ International NGO(INGO(1)	1	5	6	99	Reinvestment in the organisation and expansion of its activities and to generate profit for limited distribution to shareholders	4
ORG 009	Institution	Increasing	Bilateral donors and World Bank	6	99	99	99	Program operation and program implementation	99
ORG 010	Institution	Variable	Own Business, Bilateral, IINGO	3	5	6	9	Reinvestment in the organisation and expansion of its activities and to generate profit for limited distribution to shareholders	99

Note. A sample of information based on the data analysis process followed during the research for selected organisations.

Survey data analysis and interpretations

The coded data were arranged in a Microsoft Excel chart before importing into the SPSS program. The frequency of the data codes was analysed using single and multiple response analysis for each of the questions. The results from the SPSS analysis were copied separately for each of the questions and were used for analysing them. Reference to both the *India Social Enterprise Landscape Report* (ADB, 2012) and *Challenging Social Enterprise Debates in Bangladesh* (Hackett, 2010) was also made in order to compare the findings.

Case study: Methods and analysis

Undertaking a case study is one of the methods recommended for assessing social values created by social enterprises (Clifford et al., 2013). The case study method provides a process perspective, in contrast to standard evaluation tools like Social Return on Investment (Reeder & Colantonio, 2013), Balanced Score Card (Kaplan & Norton, 2001), Social Accounting and Auditing (SAA), Triple-bottom-line Accounting and Blended Value (Emerson & Cabaj, 2000), Randomised Control Treatment (RCT, Hall, 2014) and the Logical Framework Approach (Lee & Nowell, 2014; Moxham, 2014). A case study is also an empirical inquiry that helps in investigating the contemporary phenomenon and real-life context (Yin, 2003).

The examination of multiple case studies (Yin, 2013) has been used as a research strategy to generate case study data sources. One of the positive aspects of the multiple case

study strategy is that cases with different contexts or other differing dimensions can be considered (Yin, 2013). Multiple cases are often considered more compelling, and the overall study is therefore regarded as being more robust (Yin, 2009). Yin (2013) suggests that multiple case studies are of more value if each case represents contrasts and similarities across the selected organisations. The use of these types of multiple case studies has also been recommended to answer research questions that require a detailed understanding of social or organisational processes because of the rich data that can be collected across one or more organisations or from a group of individuals operating within or around the organisations (Hartley, 2004). So it can be said that a multiple case study approach helps to better understand the phenomenon in question as well as the differences between cases (Singh, 2016). This is made possible by analysing a collection of cases which are categorically bound together either as members of a group or by being examples of similar phenomena (Stake, 2013). It is this method which has been employed in order to find answers to the main research question.

Identifying social enterprises

There are no explicit recommendations for a specific sample size in choosing interpretive case studies (Ponelis, 2015, p. 540). VanWynsberghe & Khan (2008) and Creswell (2013) suggest that since a case study is about the in-depth study, a comparatively smaller sample size is recommended (Creswell, 2013; VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2008, p. 4). Stake (2013) suggests no fewer than four and no more than ten cases (Stake, 2013).

The case study organisations were chosen using 'theory-based sampling' (Bryman & Bell, 2014, p. 418; Patton, 1990, p. 177) and 'purposeful sampling' (Creswell, 2013, p. 100; Patton, 1990, p. 169; Silverman, 2015, p. 61). The theory-based sampling was carried out using the criteria that defined the organisations as social enterprises. Purposeful sampling was done by selecting 'information-rich' social enterprises from the surveyed organisations (Patton, 1990, p. 169), by selecting organisations that differed in at least one dimension and by selecting organisations that exhibited interesting features as per the research focus (Silverman, 2015). Further to these criteria, they were contacted by email to confirm their willingness to participate. The focus was on the selection of successful organisations rather than mixing these with a selection of struggling organisations. These selections were thus purposeful. Patton (1990) emphasises the selection of information-rich cases which provide great insight and serve the purposes of the research. In this respect, the present study

undertook a purposive sampling of five organisations from among the surveyed organisations, based on additional criteria of willingness to participate in the research process and the fact that they were working with young people to deliver positive employment outcomes.

The following five organisations were selected as case studies: *Maitreya Enterprises*; *Mangala Services*; *Dipankar Organisations*; *Paduma Enterprises*; and *Gautama Women's Group*.[31] Each of these five organisations differed in generating different employment opportunities, working with different strata of young people such as out-of-school youth, home-based workers, young people starting their own enterprises, youth belonging to disadvantaged communities, and organisations working in a different location and working sector. The study of different cases is a strategy recommended in order to allow critical comparative analysis of different strategies which are intended to improve employment outcomes (Flyvbjerg, 2006; Silverman, 2015, p. 72).

Case study data collection: Interviews

Interview data were collected from representatives of the organisations and from the young people separately. The reason for selecting the interview method was to facilitate a subjective assessment of different aspects of the organisations and their involvement with young people (Coghlan, Preskill, & Tzavaras Catsambas, 2003, p. 6). The interviews conducted were all led by the researcher and involved face-to-face and in-depth interactions with each of the participants.

Once the selected organisations had agreed to be involved in the study, through discussions with the senior management, each organisation identified a list of people who would be able to provide information about the organisation with a focus on its inputs, activities, output, outcomes, processes, systems and impacts. A list of young people 18–24 years old who were willing to share their life experiences was also constructed.

The interviews were conducted mostly at the organisation's workplace, for the convenience of the representatives of the organisations. A specific time was allocated by the organisation in order to meet officials during office hours. The interviews with the young participants were conducted in their workplace, their home or in the office of the parent

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[31] These are pseudonyms used for the case study organisations.

organisation. All of these interviews were completed in Nepal during April to July 2015. Figure 4 represents the data collection process for the case study organisations.
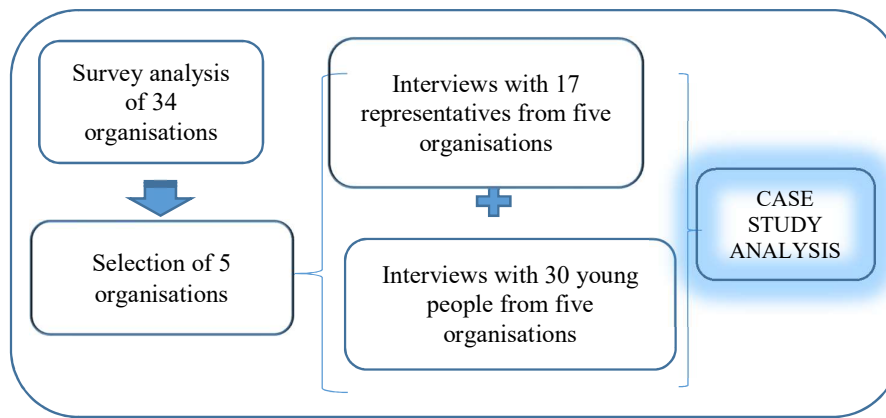
Figure 4. Data collection process used by the researcher

In the interviews, semi-structured questions were used with representatives of the organisation as well as the young people associated with the organisation. The interview questions at the organisational level were designed to obtain information about the organisational practices that resulted in improvements in the livelihood of young people. The interview questions for the young people were intended to gain information about their lived experiences. Interview questions were broadly used in varying order to accommodate the perceptions and flexibility of participants during the interview process.

The interviews began with building a good rapport with each participant (Bailey et al., 2011; Creswell & Clark, 2007) and this rapport-building included introductions and allowing enough time to exchange information of mutual interest. For example, as noted, since the researcher was conducting the interviews after the massive earthquake, all people were affected and this topic was often the informal starting point of discussion. Thus the interview process usually began with a briefing on the purpose of the study and a short conversation about the earthquake and how the interviewee was coping. By listening carefully to participants and allowing for questions, the researcher ensured that participants were ready for the interview. Moreover, the researcher's proficiency in speaking Nepali was an essential aid to communication. The interviews were recorded using a tape recorder after participants had agreed that the interviewer could do so. Overall, the interviews helped the researcher learn about the interviewee's personal experiences, perceptions, and feelings in a unique way (Weiss, 1995). An interview guide (Appendix G) was used for interviewing the

representatives of the organisations, and the beneficiaries (Ponelis, 2015). Details of the interviewing process are presented below.

Interviewing representatives of organisations

A total of 17 respondents were interviewed at the organisational level and 30 young people at the beneficiary level. Participant selection was made using criterion sampling (Patton, 1990, pp. 169-170). In case studies, it is relevant to interview people in strategic positions, such as people working in the central areas of strategic interest (Bailey et al., 2011, p. 87) as well as people with different perspectives (Pennsylvania State University, 2006). Therefore, people representing each organisation's management, board, marketing/business section and mid-level staff were approached to be interviewed. The sampling of the interviews at the organisations was engineered to reflect this range but not to a contrived extent.

Thus, three to five members representing each organisation were interviewed with the same set of questions. Interviewing more than one person in an organisation allowed an opportunity to reaffirm the accuracy of the research regarding the organisation's work and mission. Interviewing representatives of the same organisations at different levels of seniority was useful in reflecting specific job-related understandings; a shared knowledge about the organisational goals, mission, vision, and activities. It became clear that some of the participants could articulate some topics better than the others. For example, a manager could explain the organisation's goals, missions and activities in more depth than the head of social development activities. The representative from the social unit was able to provide more detailed insight into social activities and social relations compared to a person working in the marketing unit. Overall, interviewing more than two people in the same organisation was useful in clarifying some of the questions arising between interviews during the process. Interviewing three people from the organisation at strategic positions was found to reach an information saturation point.

The following questions were asked in order to establish the contribution and achievements of each of the five social enterprises separately:

1. What is the social objective of the organisation?

2. What has been achieved?

3. How were social objectives achieved?

Interviewing the young people from the organisations

The findings on outcomes for the social objectives from each of the organisational-level interviews were further verified with the young people of 18–30 years. The maximum age bracket of what constituted youth was increased from 24 years to 30 years due to the challenge of locating young people belonging to the 18–24 years age bracket, particularly in one of the case study organisations. The beneficiary-level interviews were focussed on the effectiveness of the strategies used by each of the organisations in creating an impact and sustaining social change.

Organisations served as 'gatekeepers' in connecting with young people (Bailey et al., 2011, p. 92). Each organisation selected five to eight young people. Priority was given to finding the best representation of gender, social castes, ethnicity, and of young people aged 18–30 years. The characteristics of young people selected for interview are presented in Appendix H.

The interviews with young people were held at their workplaces, their homes (in the case of home-based workers), or in a shop, factory or public place. In saying this, the majority of the interviews were carried out in the workplace. The time of the interview and the venue were confirmed by the parent organisations. Meetings with the beneficiaries outside of the Kathmandu Valley were facilitated by the field staff of the organisation.

Consideration of cultural sensitivity was also important. For instance, the cultural sensitivity of meeting young girls was managed by identifying local female social workers who could mediate the interview by providing access and allowing the researcher to ask questions and record them. Similarly, in some cases, a senior guardian was present. In such a case, a detailed outline of the research process, research objectives, ethical guidelines covering the use of data information, anonymity, information confidentiality and opportunity to withdraw from the interview process were reiterated to the guardian as well.

Probing questions were used to generate further responses to questions. For example, one of the issues that the researcher needed to revisit many times was the subjective view of the young people about their well-being. Most of the answers concerned with achievements in life were related to income and physical assets. As a lead researcher, I had to use probes such as:

1. What are the different life experiences you've faced?
2. What has your experience with your family, friends, and communities been?

3. What have been the changes in your emotional capabilities, attitude, and employability?

These prompts opened up the discussions for the participants to share more personal experiences. Individual assessments provided invaluable insights into how the organisations worked with their young people and the impact this had on their lives. Probing was used to avoid a tendency to deviate from the primary subject matter and ensure the receipt of a complete answer (Foddy, 1994, p. 136).

Further to the interview methods discussed above, the significance of maintaining neutrality and being empathetic and nonjudgmental during the interview process was also important (Patton, 1990). Attempts were made at every possible level to capture the perceptions of participants in their responses to a question (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p. 112). Other skills such as echoing, paraphrasing and reflecting were employed. These interview strategies and approaches were followed while interviewing both the representatives of the organisations as well as the young participants.

Case study field observation and field notes

Observations of the participants by the researcher were noted during the interview process along with the recording of the interview. The researcher kept a notebook to reflect on the ideas, questions and different concerns that emerged in the researcher's mind as well as to note subjective information such as the participants' expressions and feelings as the interview progressed. Field notes were helpful in reflecting on all the interviews (Bailey et al., 2011). Notes were taken on the location, date, the timing of the interview, social setting and participants' emotions (Lofland & Lofland, 2006, p. 112). The field notes were reviewed thoroughly, and major points were managed by the researcher using QSR International's *NVivo 11* qualitative data analysis software package. The field note observations were used for coding together with other data coding processes. The process of taking field notes provided an opportunity to build new viewpoints and alternative lines of interpretation, during the data analysis. This reflective approach used data from the field observations and field notes to provide richness in interpreting the meaning of the complex range of empirical materials being studied.

Multiple case study data management

Multiple case study data management was completed in three steps: case study writing, the cross-case analysis in order to find the drivers of social change, and establishing evidence of the social impacts.

Case study writing

All of the interview responses were transcribed in Nepali and then translated into English using a professional translator working in an NGO (Oliver, Serovich, & Mason, 2005). The responses from the representatives of the organisation and young people were compiled for each organisation separately. Since the 'interview only' (Poland, 1995, p. 291) did not capture all the emotions and gestures, field notes were added to the transcripts. The difference between interviewing the young people and the organisations was that the young people shared their life experiences whereas the members of the organisations confirmed the organisations' work values and practices. By sharing life experiences, young people were able to provide an account of whether and how various organisational interventions had changed their lives. In contrast, the organisations were able to provide more objective details of achievements, such as training completed and earnings made by these groups, in contrast to the subjective well-being of young men and women.

Case narratives provided a detailed description of each case. The case descriptions were then used to organise the qualitative data in comprehensive ways. Direct quotations were used in the case study writing to verify the participant's role in the study and not impose "a preconceived scheme" (Lofland, 1971, p. 4). The case study writing was completed in four steps: preparing coherent transcripts; writing narratives; updating with field notes, and developing a case study separately for each of the cases. Thus, five descriptive case studies were prepared.

Content analysis using data coding

The qualitative content analysis involved identifying coherent data information by identifying similar quotes or similar ideas across the organisations (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Ponelis, 2015), and finding the core ideas through coding (Patton, 2005). The primary outcome of this anslystical process were the themes or pattern of categories.

NVivo 11 was used in coding the case study findings the coding process followed a three-step process: descriptive coding; topical coding; and analytical coding (Bailey et al., 2011; Richards, 2015619; Saldaña, 2016). Descriptive coding involved systematically arranging the data information for each organisation's representatives and young people separately. Data coding was also done separately for each set of interviews.

The topical coding process helped in identifying the main topics and ideas discussed within each of the responses in the first five organisations. These ideas were recorded as a list of categories. The codes and themes of inquiry were developed in NVivo as 'child nodes' and 'parent nodes', presenting hierarchies of several codes like a tree in a visual mode (Richards, 2015; Saldaña, 2016). The relationships between the higher-level and lower-level categories were kept flexible during the whole of the coding process. By grouping a set of nodes, patterns, and associations between the different nodes were able to be identified. This process of coding was helpful in allowing the researcher to respond to the research objectives. In this way, the structure of tree nodes was further developed, leading to the emergence of main thematic areas Thus, within each of the five cases, the NVivo text coding process was used systematically to build within-case themes.

The following primary headings describe the themes that emerged and were used in writing cross-case findings on the drivers of the social change process:
1. General description of the organisation;
2. The social mission of the organisation;
3. Role of social leaders;
4. Resource generation;
5. Market orientation;
6. Social innovation in balancing social and economic objectives;
7. Financial self-sufficiency; and
8. Policy changes.

Of the eight themes, all but the general description of the organisations, were used for comparing among the cases. The comparison was completed by checking for intra-group similarities and differences within the theme. The resulting pattern and their relationships were then compared with evidence gathered from each case in an iterative manner to inform how well the emerging pattern of information fitted with the case study data (Eisenhardt, 1989). Eisenhardt contends that those cases in multiple case analysis which conform to the emerging relationships, enhance confidence in the validity of the relationships.

Cross-case analysis

Researchers have suggested a number of techniques for analysing qualitative data, such as pattern-matching, explanation-building, logic models, and cross-case analysis (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2005; Yin, 2013). A cross-case analysis was used for analysing the data from five case study organisations. The cross-case analysis sought to establish commonalities and differences within different themes through qualitative content analysis (Patton, 1990; Stake, 2005).

The themes and patterns emerging across the five case study organisations were used to reveal associations of categories across the different organisations (Bazeley, 2013; Richards, 2015). This process of tracing evidence of processes has been a part of comparative case study analysis design (Blatter & Haverland, 2012). Common themes that emerged in the cross-case analysis were documented as emerging common trends among the five case study organisations. Ponelis (2015) suggests that additional measures should be taken to interpret the findings (Ponelis, 2015).

Considering the broad seven themes as triggers to social change processes, the effectiveness of these social change processes was further analysed at the participants' level to provide evidence of social change.

Providing evidence of the social change

Inferences about social change were drawn by identifying the critical moments in which the interviewee mentioned that they started to change. Therefore, common or similar words or words with similar meaning were used with the group to identify such critical moments so that the common trends across the five organisations could be established. The results were thus the expressions of lived experiences of 31 young men and women belonging to the age group of 18–30 years. The changes happening in the lives of the young men and women interviewed were thus derived from the "confessions" or "statement[s] of actors" by isolating the elements of explanations that provided evidence (Blatter & Haverland, 2012). By examining the context of the interviewee, the interview provided evidence of their perceptions, motivations, and aspirations. Causal relationships of the interview findings were therefore used to provide insights into the changes in the lives of young people.

Summary and conclusion

This chapter has outlined the research methodology. The chapter began by justifying the use of a qualitative research design in the study. The research study design comprised three steps: a literature review; a survey of the organisations; and a case study. The case study involved interviewing the representatives from the organisations and the young people involved in those organisations. The information obtained as a result of one area of study informed the subsequent steps. Multiple case study design is the core of the research design.

Five case study organisations were identified following a survey method which was used as a filter in the selection process. Semi-structured interviews were used for gathering information to complete the five case studies. The data collection, case study writing, and identification of themes through data coding of each case were undertaken. The themes were then compared across the five organisations using a cross-case analysis. In all of these processes, the ethical considerations and overall data quality were checked carefully to ensure the making of informed and logical conclusions from the study findings. Appropriate measures were taken to establish credibility, transferability, and reliability of the collected data. It is to these findings that the next chapter turns.

Chapter Four: Emerging trend of social enterprises in Nepal

The previous chapter explored the research methods guiding this study. This chapter begins the process of empirical analysis and explores the results of the organisational surveys. The purpose of this chapter is to respond to the research proposition that aims to collect baseline information about social enterprises, providing details about their typologies, focus, revenue mix, activities, and challenges.

Although a much more comprehensive survey was intended, the response to the survey was limited because of a low response rate. The factor that limited the response was that the data collection timing coincided with the post-earthquake period in Nepal during April 2015, towards the end of the survey period. Therefore, the survey findings do not necessarily represent the full spectrum of social enterprises but instead provide a broader perspective of what is happening amongst emerging social enterprises working for employment outcomes in Nepal.

The chapter is organised into four sections to present the overall survey findings. The first section presents the results of the survey on typologies. This section revealed that there are eight different types of social enterprises that possess the characteristics of an organisation having social and economic objectives. It also demonstrated how typology reflects the changing development discourse, leading towards the growth of organisations having dual objectives. The second section describes the trends in the emergence of social enterprises in Nepal. The findings and discussion in this section point to a timeline that marks the emergence of a new form of philanthropy, the social enterprises. This section also reveals who is leading such organisations.

The third section of the chapter examines the working areas of the organisations surveyed and provides insights into four priority work areas. They are: engagement in promoting a strategy for equitable development; generating different job types; promoting market-related/market-oriented activities; and activities to generate more resources for financial sustainability.

The additional challenges, beyond financial ones, are presented in the last section. These are challenges which are related to society, culture, human resources, the external environment, infrastructure, policy and the lack of a common understanding about social enterprise.

Survey results

Section 1: Findings on typologies of social enterprises

The concept of typologies is useful in interpreting and understanding the contributions of these organisations through an analysis of empirical evidence (Nyssens & Defourny, 2016). However, the objectives of building typologies in this context have varied across different survey studies and include: to understand the landscape of social enterprises in different countries; to develop conceptual clarity about social enterprise organisations (Nyssens & Defourny, 2016); to map the diversities of such organisations (Barraket et al., 2010); and to identify the technical difficulties in mapping exercises (Dart et al., 2010). The typologies defined by scholars are mostly specific to the countries being examined (Singh, 2016, pp. 42–43). Here, the typologies are used, not to classify the organisations surveyed, but to deepen the understanding of the phenomenon of social enterprises under study (Brouard, Hebb, & Madill, 2009). The understanding of the typologies of social enterprises provides a basis for the establishment of a reference point for starting a baseline on the typology of a social enterprises database in Nepal.

There are no standard means by which to classify social enterprises. Social enterprises have been categorised or classified using different criteria to identify the typologies and, in many cases, the typologies are described in relation to social entrepreneurship (Singh, 2016). The most cited examples of social enterprise-related typology include Kerlin (2013), Salamon, Sokolowski, & Anheier (2000), Mair, Battilana, and Cardenas (2012), and Grassl (2012).

Kerlin uses institutional perspectives as a basis and explains how macro-level institutions shape the social enterprises in five different countries (Kerlin, 2012, 2013). Salamon et al. (2000) use the size and activities of non-profit organisations to compare organisations across 22 countries. Mair et al. (2012) describe typology based on the possible form of capital resources such as social, economic, human and political. Grassl (2012, p. 38) applied ontology to identify the typology of the organisations surveyed rather than any defined criteria.

Alter (2007) used a hybrid spectrum of social enterprises ranging from traditional non-profits at one end of the spectrum to traditional for-profit at the other end. This model recognises that social enterprises including non-profits with income-generating activities; organisations with social and economic objectives; and socially responsible businesses and corporations practising social corporate responsibility activities are distributed between the

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two ends of the spectrum. This categorisation is based on three major criteria: the motive of the organisations; the degree of accountability to stakeholders; and criteria based on the reinvestment of income into the program (Alter, 2007, p. 13). The present study makes use of Alter's hybrid spectrum criterion in describing the findings on typology in order to contribute to the process of building a database of social enterprises in Nepal.

Eight types of social enterprise organisations were identified through the survey. They are: (i)non-profit private companies (13 per cent); (ii) non-profit NGOs such as social firms;[32] (iii) social ventures;[33] (iv)Fair Trade organisations, associations and trust funds (28 per cent); (v) social business, including subsidiary units within either NGOs or the private sector (3 per cent); (vi) hybrid models[34] (16 per cent); community-based organisations (6 per cent); (vii) social cooperatives (13 per cent); and (viii) for-profit private organisations (21 per cent). These findings explain the complexities of social enterprise growth in the country. The findings on typologies are presented in Figure 5.
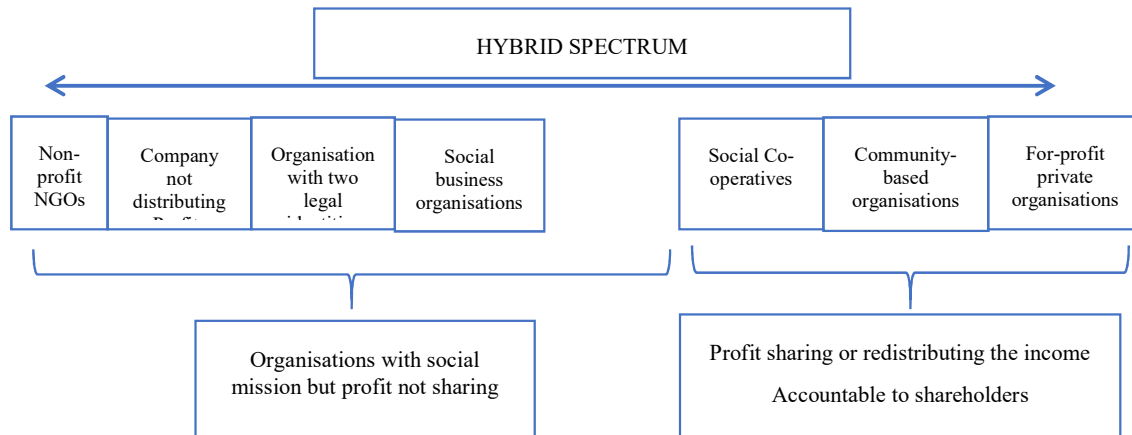
Figure 5. The range of social enterprise organisations in Nepal (Adapted from Alter, K. (2007). Social enterprise typology. *Virtue Ventures LLC, 12*. Retrieved from https://www.globalcube.net/clients/philippson/content/medias/download/SE_typology.pdf)

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[32] Social firms are described as a business which uses its market-oriented production of goods and services to pursue its social mission. In this type of organisation, a significant number of employees have a disability or other disadvantage in the labor market. Every worker is paid a market-rate wage or salary appropriate to the work, irrespective of their productive capacity. The work opportunities are provided between disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged employees. All employees have the same employment rights and obligations (Spear & Bidet, 2005).

[33] Venture philanthropy is characterised by the following traits: high funder engagement; multi-year funding; risk return analysis; risk management; exist strategies; capacity building of the funded institution; and measureable performance (social and financial returns) (Alter, 2007, p 18).

[34] Hybrid models included a combined NGO and not-for-profit private company; and a combined NGO and for-profit private company.

The descriptions of each of the identified social enterprise type are presented in the section below.

Non-profit (NGOs): Earned income non-profits

The NGO is a legal form in Nepal and NGOs can be registered under the Societies Registration Act (1977) and the NGO Regulation Bill (2013). All NGOs are required to be affiliated with the Social Welfare Council, governed by the Social Welfare Act (1992) to receive funding from donors outside the country (Sigmund, 2012). Different institutions such as societies, foundations, and associations of NGOs can be registered under these legal forms. However, NGOs working at the grassroots level are also required to be registered with the District Development offices (ADB, 2005). All the NGOs have limitations on their ability to raise funds locally. Also, tax exemption is not guaranteed to them. Thus financial sustainability without grants remains challenging to NGOs in the non-profit sector in Nepal (Uprety, 2011).

Non-profit NGOs are the first type of social enterprises identified during the survey. However, the findings suggest that the organisations which were identified as non-profit NGOs comprised a wide range of organisations, such as fair trade organisations, social venture operations, and social firms, which all have social objectives and operate as a business but are registered as NGOs. The survey also identified some NGOs that are beginning to participate in charitable activities by sponsoring local events and providing financial support, similar to the practice of corporate houses. These findings exemplify the changes happening among the traditional NGOs towards more commercial operations by regularly engaging in activities that do not limit them only to traditional philanthropic funding. These organisations, although located within the NGO framework, therefore, cannot be generalised as NGOs whose only source of income is from grants or philanthropic funding. Similar examples are found in Japan (Laratta, Nakagawa, & Sakurai, 2011, p. 51).

The social firms, operating under an NGO framework, are the newest forms of socially-oriented enterprise organisations to emerge in Nepal. These social firms are working with most vulnerable groups such as conflict survivors, migrants, and single women, all of whom face systemic marginalisation due to social and cultural practices in the society. These organisations provide opportunities to reintegrate individuals into society while helping them to link to job markets by ensuring that they are paid a minimum wage as per the government regulation (Spear & Bidet, 2003; Spear, Cornforth, & Aiken, 2009, p. 253). Additional

earnings are paid, based on an individual's expertise and volume of work (Borzaga and Galera, 2009, p. 253).

Social venture[35] organisations are identified during the survey as another category of social enterprise. These organisations exist with the aim to make a social impact, in contrast to business ventures. The social venture organisations provide managerial and technical support to individual entrepreneurs as they start their own business. Their support activities primarily include conceptualising business ideas and translating business ideas into practice through business planning. Similar practices are documented in India where social venture organisations provide both financial and managerial support (Rankin, 2004, p. 12).

The company not distributing profit

The company not distributing profit[36] organisations are the second group of social enterprises identified during the survey. These groups of social enterprises basically non-profit but private organisations. This is a new type of legal provision enacted under the Company Act 2006 (Ministry of Industry, 2006, pp. 172-173). This new legal appears to be a unique provision, specific to Nepal. The company is allowed to receive membership fees and receive donations and gifts in pursuing social objectives. However, the company is not authorised to distribute profits, bonuses or any dividends among the employees, staff or board members. In addition, the company is not permitted to merge with any profit-making company. These models can be compared with the commercial, non-profit view of social enterprises presented as "non-profit organizations more oriented towards the market and developing earned income strategies as a response to decreasing public subsidies…" (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010b, p. 1).

However, the survey findings suggested only two organisations were registered under this legal provision. This limited reference to the new statutory provision raises questions as to whether the non-profit NGOs are aware of these legal provisions.

A hybrid model

A hybrid model of social enterprises is a new type of social enterprise emerging in Nepal. There are two types of hybridity found among the organisations surveyed. They are

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[35] These organisations are mostly funded by venture philanthropists in the form of multi-year funding.

[36] As of mid-December, 2015, a total of 913 organisations were registered under these legal provisions of a not-for-profit distributing company in Nepal.

hybrid in that they have both social and economic objectives and two legal identities. One of the hybrid models of social enterprises aligns with the definition that suggests non-profits as having both social and economic objectives, (Alter, 2007, p. 15; Dees, 1998), and a mix of not-for-profit and for-profit motives (Rahim & Mohtar, 2015). These kinds of organisations are known also for attempting to attain double bottom line objectives, such as NGOs undertaking revenue-generation activities (Sud & VanSandt, 2016); and private sector organisations participating in creating social values such as jobs (Howaldt et al., 2015). Thus, hybrid organisations have arrived as one of the prominent typologies within social enterprise discussions (Rahim & Mohtar, 2015).

DiMaggio and Anheier (1990) argue that organisations choose different legal forms if they have a choice or they change their legal forms to develop their specific market niche (DiMaggio & Anheier, 1990). This differs in the case of these survey findings. The organisations not only changed their legal forms but they also possess two distinct legal structures. From a governance point of view, although the combination of more than one form of legal structure might not be the correct indication of the state of the public governance system, these situations are present in the current mapping in Nepal.

This mix of organisational structures operating between two legal forms reaffirms the blurring of the boundaries between the for-profit and not-for-profit organisations (Alter, 2007; Dees, 1998). This state of hybridity has emerged out of the necessity for an NGO to compete with the private sector in delivering goods and services as development outcomes while making an effort not to violate the existing regulations. It is a clear indication of the challenges faced by NGOs in transitioning to a business approach in Nepal. Uprety (2011) reaffirms these challenges by stating "the concepts of the private fund and managed public interest organisations are not well understood or widely encouraged" (p. 1).

Bull (2016) describes the nature of hybrid forms differently as organisations becoming "self-conscious" in addressing aspects of social problems such as social inclusion, integration of the disadvantaged into society and the building of social and economic capital among the stakeholders involved with the organisations (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2016, pp. 304-305). This definition of Bull's could be used to explain the existence of different forms of hybridity in the country. However, these findings could be further explored.

Social business/social business unit

Survey findings reveal a social business model existing in Nepal. The social business is existent either as an autonomous organisation or as a business unit within the parent organisation. From a theoretical perspective, the term 'social business' is commonly used to refer to activities having a business activity that generates income and results in a social benefit.

The surveyed organisations identified as a social business organisation mentioned that they have a combination of social objectives similar to those of an NGO, but they operate as a business to sustain their social work. These social business modalities thus explain the embeddedness of social objectives within business entities and can be also compared with the *Grameen Social Business*, which is active in the area of selling energy products, health services, schooling, and industrial manufacturing in Bangladesh (Hackett, 2010).

Consistent with Poon (2011), several non-profits that had a social business unit were also identified during the survey process. Some of these NGOs were found to have established subsidiary business units within the umbrella of the parent organisation, in order to run a business arm. This kind of activity undertaken by the non-profits is explained as an additional mechanism to achieve the social mission (Poon, 2011). These business units operated fully and were aimed at sustaining social and economic achievements. Such business units also shared the cost of all the facilities and common human resources with the parent organisation. These kinds of NGOs can be compared with entrepreneurial NGOs in their efforts to support the social objectives of the organisation (Nyssens & Defourny, 2016). Thus, the social business, whether it is operating independent business activities or a business arm of an NGO, can be identified as an emerging social enterprise. NGOs that undertake projects based on a business model within parent organisations are not common. In the absence of a business model, the project would be entirely dependent on the parent NGO for funding. These types of social enterprises are new to Nepal and these findings align with Alter (2007), in identifying subsidiary units as a department or "a separate legal entity" within a for-profit or a not-for-profit organisation (p. 18).

In most cases, the term 'social business' has been used interchangeably with the terms 'social enterprise' and 'non-profits'. Some of the organisations surveyed, registered as a Company Not Distributing Profit, and also identified themselves as a social business. Similarly, some non-profit NGOs mentioned they prefer to use the term social business in explaining their working modality. This use of the term could also be further examined. The

term social business was thus found to be used synonymously and interchangeably resulting in confusion to represent social enterprise organisations with social and economic objectives as well as in recognising business or trading as a primary source of income.

Social cooperatives-non-profit cooperatives[37]

Although the term 'cooperative' as a mechanism of social cohesion was encountered, the term 'social cooperative' was not encountered during the survey. However, the survey results revealed that cooperative models of producers' and farmers' groups were evident. These cooperatives support their members, not only in the marketing of their products which are produced in small volume [38] but also in aiding the farmers in overcoming structural challenges such as accessing agricultural extension services[39] and finding affordable and quality farm inputs such as fertilizers and seeds. Access to agricultural extension services such as obtaining technical advice in farming practices and receiving access to fertilisers and pesticides are very challenging in Nepal (Nepali et al., 2011). Farmers commonly suffer from the lack of farm-related support and technical expertise.

The challenges related to such problems faced by the farmers are reported as being a result of a number of factors: the supply-driven approach; the failure to meet the demands of the farmers; the insufficient technical capacity of the extension workers; and inadequate agriculture service coverage. Such cooperatives are aimed at maximising the benefits to their members and survey responses revealed that they also share the dividends. This reflects the emergence of amalgamated self-help groups of farmers with income-generating activities. These federated groups were registered as farmers' cooperatives because of their aim to buy the products from farmers and sell them. They are also similar to marketing cooperatives because of their direct involvement with the marketing of the products, or as a combination of both objectives. In all three cases, the cooperatives maintained that they aimed to ensure fair prices to the farmers.

Thus, based on the nature of the activities explained by the cooperative organisations, they can be categorised as social cooperatives, a new category of social enterprise emerging in Nepal. This type of social enterprise can be compared with social economy models of

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[37] A cooperative is an autonomous association of persons with an objective to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs. Cooperative movements are not new to Nepal

[38] These products are produced in small volume because of the small land size or because the farmers are without land.

[39] Technical services for promoting agricultural practices.

social enterprises, most commonly found in European countries (Borzaga & Tortia, 2006; Defourny & Nyssens, 2008). These social enterprises differ from the American model of social enterprises in the areas of profit distribution. The social economy model focuses more on making a social impact and it provides the market with goods and services through entrepreneurial activities(Lakatos et al., 2016). The social economy model, by definition, denotes the existence of economic activities within cooperatives, mutual organisations and associations that aim to benefit their members not only by generating profit but also by ensuring their participation in decision-making (Defourny, 2001, p. 7).

These kinds of cooperatives may be in abundance in Nepal as a result of the popularity of the cooperative concept which is promoted as a way to address the poverty concerns of rural farmers in Nepal.

Community-based organisations

Community-based organisations (CBOs), such as grassroots organisations, have distinct characteristics that make them different from the non-governmental organisations. In Nepal, CBOs are engaged in income-generating activities either through individual or collective effort. Findings from the survey identified two distinct kinds of community-based enterprises. They are community-based enterprises run collectively by the members, and community-managed businesses or enterprises.

The first type of CBO is found to generate income and employment opportunities using local resources. The second type of CBO is operated by paid professionals and is governed by board members who supervise the business. The survey findings also indicate that both of these grassroots-based enterprises and grassroots-managed enterprises are the result of a combination of group effort and technical support from the district-based NGOs or international NGOs. The shareholders in the community-managed enterprise receive a financial return as members of the community-based groups through the provision of share dividends and by the creation of self-employment opportunities that involve mainly the supply of raw materials.

The findings can be compared with community-based organisations following the entrepreneurship approach, also noted as "unconventional forms of social enterprises" (Peredo & Chrisman, 2006, p. 323). These types of organisations in Nepal are known for presenting the notion of collective and individual bases for creating a social venture that contributes to development objectives like the alleviation of poverty (FAO, 2009). These

activities indicate a gradual shift of grassroots organisations towards being independent by undertaking self-initiated activities and increasing participation in market-led activities such as linking the products to the larger markets or to the manufacturing companies.

Private company

There has been a debate about whether organisations that are profit-oriented but with a social purpose should be considered as a social enterprise or not. Many scholars believe the social enterprise approach should not include the profit-oriented organisations (Dees, 2001). Other scholars argue, however, that profit-oriented organisations are also able to fulfil their social mission using a social entrepreneurship approach (Hartigan, 2006). It is believed that this type of organisation focuses on the motivation of social entrepreneurs to reach out to the community's needs which are not met by the state nor the market.

The findings indicate that the profit-oriented private sector social enterprises are the result of individuals starting sole proprietorship businesses as microenterprises, small or medium enterprises.[40] Sole proprietorship businesses are mostly led by individuals serving as social entrepreneurs. These types of local organisations create local jobs by employing local people, and they generate revenue from the sale of goods produced from the local raw materials, following sustainable ways of harvesting and processing.

The micro-enterprises also generate jobs and use local resources. Therefore, it cannot be said that all micro-enterprises are socially-oriented enterprising organisations. The findings align with the literature in that, not all the micro-enterprises are socially-oriented, but the practice of micro-enterprises can make a more widely sustainable social impact (Alter, 2007 p. 15).

The third category of for-profit organisations included the training and employment service providers. These organisations were mainly the private training and employment service providers delivering transitional jobs and self-employment,[41] primarily in the informal[42] sector. These private companies were engaged in the area of job training and job placement services, driven by incentive structures. The desire to reach the most disadvantaged and integrate them into the labour market was one of the motivating factors

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[40] Sole proprietorship firms are governed by the Private Firm Registration Act 2014 BS (1957).

[41] This refers to managing one's own business, irrespective of the productivity and income.

42 The informal sector is divided into three broad categories in Nepal: (a) self-employed; (b) wage based workers; and (c) unpaid family workers. Wage workers include micro-enterprises, agriculture, home-based, domestic, and construction sector workers including porters and loaders (ILO, 2013b).

leading them to achieve the social objective of an employment outcome for the disadvantaged.

Thus, the profit-oriented organisations identified during the survey align with Young's (2005) definition of for-profit social enterprises. He described the for-profit private company as profit-oriented businesses engaged in socially-beneficial activities, either as corporate philanthropies, corporate social responsibility enterprises or as dual-purpose businesses that mediate goals with social objectives (Young, 2005).

In this section on typologies, the findings have revealed the diverse forms of social enterprises in Nepal. These development changes are not a result of one policy event. The changes are the result of a series of factors leading to the growth of diverse patterns of service delivery models in Nepal. In the next section, the timeframe and emergence of social enterprises as a new philanthropic way of development in Nepal are explored.

Section II: Emergence of social enterprises in Nepal

The findings from the survey reveal that the emergence of social enterprise organisations is a recent trend, pointing to a growth of non-profits such as fair trade and social ventures from 1983/1984. This timeframe coincides with the beginning of structural adjustment programs in Nepal that promoted the policies of deregulation, privatisation, and reduction of state funding to welfare programs, thereby reducing the role of the state and promoting NGOs as the key providers of development and welfare programs. The increasing role of non-state actors in development in Nepal can be compared with the experiences of African countries' NGOs. The social enterprises have grown in that region as a result of the influence of foreign actors such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (Poon, 2011). These results align with some of the literature that has analysed changes happening in the NGO sector over the years (Biggs & Lewis, 2009, p. 1) Figure 6 presents the distribution of the surveyed organisations' emergence over time in Nepal.

No. of Organisations Established Per Year
1983–2014
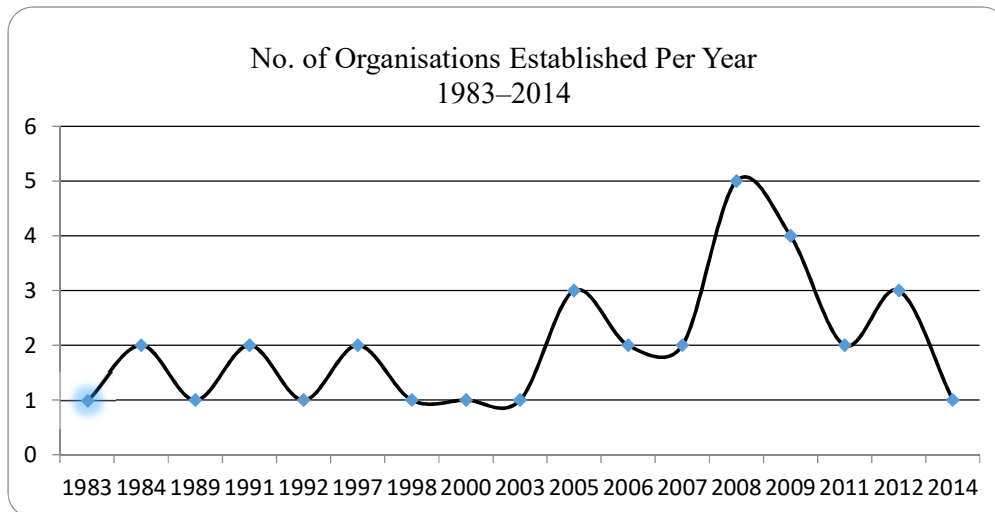
Figure 6. Distribution of the organisations surveyed which had been established during the period 1983–2014

The survey findings suggest that such organisations expanded in Nepal after 2005/2006. The pattern of growth seen in Nepal is understandable as the country faced insurgency during 1996–2006. After the period of conflict, government policy favoured the promotion of third sector organisations[43] such as NGOs, private organisations, and cooperatives, who were all seen as being able to contribute to the alleviation of poverty through activities such as women's empowerment, improvement of livelihoods, and the creation of employment (NPC, 2010). It is not surprising, therefore, that there was a considerable growth of social enterprise organisations in Nepal during 2006 and 2007.

With the emergence of social enterprise organisations in Nepal, there has been curiosity about social enterprises and whether these kinds of organisations are initiated by individuals as social leaders, or by collective groups of like-minded people (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010a; Peredo & McLean, 2006). Research on the emergence of social enterprises is dominated by the description of social entrepreneurs as leaders in the establishment of social enterprises (Dees, 2001; Singh, 2016). In such cases, the function of the social leaders is described as being that of visionaries (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009), change agents (Bacq & Janssen, 2011), and social innovators who take the lead in launching social enterprises by being innovative and able to sustain them (Dees, 1998).

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[43] The third sector organisations are a group of non-state actors, consisting of a variety of organisations including civil society, NGOs, voluntary and self-help groups, formal and informal organisations including social movements (Dahal, 2001, p. 7).

The survey findings reveal that social enterprise organisations in Nepal are initiated by groups of like-minded people (38.25 per cent), followed by individuals (29 per cent), institutions (21 per cent), community groups (9 per cent) and the government (3 per cent). The establishment of social enterprises is also being initiated by INGOs, NGOs, community groups and the government.[44]

The increased interest of INGOs, the government, and community-based organisations show increasing interest in the concept of market-based approaches among the mainstream development agencies to discern how to address local challenges. These results reaffirm the changing development paradigm in Nepal. The section below, therefore, examines the working areas of the organisations surveyed.

Section III: Working areas of the organisations surveyed

Areas of focus within the organisations are found to cover four priority areas: market work, personal work, personal relationships and market/work relationships. 'Market work' refers to the work that people do to earn an income; 'personal work' is related to providing caring services such as parenting; 'personal relationships' describes ongoing interactions with family and friends; and 'market/work relationships' describe functions such as mentoring and supervision (Richardson, 2012).

The findings, as summarised in Table 2, suggest that the major working areas were related to equitable development, economic growth-related activities, engagement in innovative activities, development of the capacity of staff members, and generation of more revenue.

Table 2

Distribution of survey responses for major activities

Areas of Work	Major Activities	Responses	%
Equitable development activities	Increasing the participation and representation of the disadvantaged	11	15.2

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[44] However, the government-initiated program was a single event led by the Department of Cottage and Small Industries of the Government of Nepal, in collaboration with academics, professional organisations, and research institutions. Mandated as a non-profit program, the social incubation program envisioned the transformation of innovative ideas into dynamic enterprises that could compete in the market. The program provides both incubating facilities, and facilities that nurture ideas, market test products, upgrade systems, process new technology and create demand for business growth.

Economic growth-related activities	Addressing unemployment and underemployment issues (skills-development)	21	29.2
	Community-level income and employment activities	18	25.0
	Creating enterprises and entrepreneurial skills	7	9.7
Market-related activities	Developing new market/business strategies (improving product portfolio, innovations in creating a business, sustainable business creation, increasing income)	7	9.7
	Providing smart solutions (social/technological innovations improving environment)	4	5.6
Activities related to financial sustainability	Capacity-development activities (improving human resources of the organisation)	3	4.2
	More income generation	1	1.4
	Total	**72**	**100**

Note: Information based on the survey conducted by the researcher in Nepal between April–July 2015.

Equitable development activities

Equitable development is one of the most important items on the development agenda globally as well as in Nepal (NPC, 2011; Tamang, 2014; United Nations Development Programme, 2014). The United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (2010) suggested seven arguments that can help attend to equitable development and poverty reduction: (a) economic growth, structural change and productive employment; (b) changes in social policies for poverty reduction; (c) narrowing the poverty gaps through redistributive policies; (d) building the state's capacity for mobilising resources and allocating them for welfare of the citizens; (e) protecting civil rights; (f) conforming to the globalised context; and (g) designing economic and social policies, institutions and political arrangements to mutually support each other. All of these strategies are recognised but are not discussed in detail in this chapter. Rather, the following discussion focuses only on the economic growth strategy as an equitable way to sustainable development.

The findings of the present study specific to the major strategies concerning economic growth-related activities were: targeting of specific social groups; a gender and group-based approach; increasing affordability and accessibility to the poor and disadvantaged through activities such as expanding income and employment opportunities to the disadvantaged;

creating awareness; facilitating social integration and rehabilitation of the conflict-affected individuals and groups.

Women, the poor and the disadvantaged were the major target populations for the surveyed organisations. These populations were organised into groups in the form of associations, such as entrepreneurs' associations, cooperatives, users' groups or producers' associations. These activities can be seen as enabling access to increased economic and political opportunities, in order to increase one's power (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003). The group approach has been documented as an important dimension of empowerment, as it works to change women's vocational reality from the household to the group; creates a sense of sisterhood; provides a separate identity and empowers women to establish equality in their practices (Sabhlok, 2006). The group-based approach also presents a strategic approach to overcoming structural challenges such as enhancing the physical participation of women and the disadvantaged in many activities.

The enhancement of personal skills and improvement of individuals' self-confidence through increased exposure and continuous involvement in group-based activities help members to improve their capabilities. Capacity-building, increasing voices, and enabling choices through increased representation and participation of members, also lead to improvement in the constraints of poverty as members participate in group-based income-generating activities or group-based enterprising activities.

Availability of financial services, access to credit, loans and a variety of loan products such as savings, insurance, microcredit, and education made up another category of activities mentioned as leading towards the improvement of access to various services. The changes in the lives of the target groups were described as an improvement in their capabilities to increase their income, start a new enterprise or business or expand it (in the case of existing business/enterprises). For those who did not invest in the business, several loan products (other than credit) served in building a safeguard mechanism for unexpected life events. The teaching of basic literacy, numeracy, and financial literacy through classes in local languages broadened the knowledge base of participants and was mentioned as comprising some of the activities which contributed to equitable participation in development programs. Organisations also provided a partially or fully subsidised fee, thus increasing the affordability for the target groups to embark upon skills-training and awareness-building programs. In some cases, the organisations provided free access to cost-effective technologies and access to specific software programs that were expensive for an ordinary person to purchase, thus increasing their chances of accessing resources.

Creating awareness through training in set areas such as the rights-based approach to development, gender and development, personal health and hygiene including HIV/AIDS, and basic literacy and numeracy contributed to the aims of social empowerment This commitment by organisations to social empowerment was demonstrated through awareness and capacity-building, and, by increasing access to knowledge through formal or informal education, equipping participants to build self-esteem, thereby receiving greater respect in the community. These activities are likely to contribute to an increased participation of women and the disadvantaged in economic and political activities.

Moreover, the category of women within gender discussions considers the condition of women as universal rather than recognising the different situations of women positioned in different cultures and contexts (Porter & Judd, 1999). Consistent with this thinking, the inclusion of young people within the work of social enterprises was also examined. The section below provides the findings on the results of targeting concerns related to young people from among the organisations surveyed.

The inclusion of young people by the social enterprises

The exploration of young people's participation was aimed at learning how young people are connected to the organisations surveyed. This was done by asking questions about the selection criteria and findings on priority age groups by the surveyed organisations.

The survey responses to the question on selection criteria showed that organisations were recruiting young people based on the criteria of poverty (17.9 per cent), gender (17.9 per cent), geographical location (16.7 per cent), caste/ethnicity (10.7 per cent), education level (9.5 per cent), potential to learn (8.3 per cent) and age (4.8 per cent), with 14.3 per cent saying that they had other criteria for reaching unspecified target groups, as shown in Table 3. Thus, the targeting criteria can be divided into two broad common approaches: targeting based on caste, gender, poverty, geographical location; and the business approach which targeted groups based on criteria such as education, potential to learn, and age. The targeting criteria in the first group are common and used across all development organisations to align development policies with those of the government. However, the second group of criteria is a comparatively new trend. Specifically, looking at the 'potential to learn' as a way of selecting an individual indicates a sensitivity by organisations towards market demands and needs.

Table 3

Targeted groups as indicated by selection criteria of organisations surveyed

Selection criteria	Responses	%
Income Level	15	17.9
Gender	15	17.9
Geographical Location	14	16.7
Other	12	14.3
Caste/ Ethnicity	9	10.7
Education Level	8	9.5
Potential to learn	7	8.3
Age	4	4.8
Total	84	100

Note: Information based on the survey conducted by the researcher in Nepal between April–July 2015.

The low percentage of age as a criterion was verified by asking if organisations had a preference towards a particular age group. The intention was to explore whether young people (18–24 years) were specifically targeted. More than 50% of the organisations surveyed were open to including age groups, up to 60 years. Another 32% revealed that they preferred age groups from 18–40 years. No organisation specifically targeted young people in the 18–24 age category, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Distribution of preferred age groups in the selection of the target groups

Age groups as a priority	Responses	%
18–60	18	52.9
18–40	11	32.4
25–40	2	5.9
Not completed	2	5.9
25–60	1	2.9
Total	34	100

These findings reaffirm that young people are not targeted specifically and are likely to be marginalised as organisations do not recognise the challenges faced by young people as distinct from those of other social groups. Thus, the priority to include poor and disadvantaged, as pragmatic ways to respond to equitable development, did not automatically include young people.

Economic growth-related activities

The second working area consisted of economic growth-related activities. These included: generating employment and promoting regular savings habits; various income-generating activities resulting in a range of seasonal jobs; supporting family members in family businesses; providing opportunities to learn skills; and the promotion of community-based enterprises. The social enterprise organisations were found to deliver several types of formal or informal employment options including:

1.   fixed-term employment;
2.   self-employment jobs;
3.   transitional jobs;
4.   seasonal jobs; and
5.   types of employment involving socialisation.

Fixed-term employment opportunities

The survey found that some of the organisations were providing employment opportunities in the form of a fixed-term arrangement. Theoretically, the company benefit by not losing the skilled staff and the organisation is able to respond to market needs by using the skills of such staff. The individuals also benefit by obtaining a fixed-term position that provides a regular income and other benefits. However, the organisations surveyed had limitations on how many such jobs could be created by them.

The response to the question on staffing patterns reveals that only four organisations had staff numbering above 50; 12 organisations had a staff size in the range 1–10, and nine organisations had a staff size of 11–20. Although the surveyed organisations were creating fixed-term job types by training and employing disadvantaged people, these findings indicate that the organisations were limited in the creation of such an employment type. Thus, with

reference to the huge number of young people entering the job market in Nepal (MoF, 2015, p. 104), these employment figures are not very significant. Moreover, in these job types, the staff are mostly bound by a contractual agreement and are required to act as per the agreed contract provisions. In hiring and firing staff, the company makes decisions based on the staff performance and the organisation's needs. Thus the individual workers employed by the company have limited choices to make a transition to the formal job market as well. In many cases, such provisions do not serve the interest of those who are willing to build their own career but do not feel secure enough to leave the job. Thus the beneficiaries have a direct relationship with the organisations.

More employment opportunities were found to be created in the informal labour market in the form of self-employment and community-based jobs. Some of the organisations worked with producers' groups by enhancing their capacity and buying back the products produced by the groups. The following section examines the income-generating, market-related work in the informal sector.

Self-employment and seasonal job types

The OECD definition of self-employment includes people working at home, engaged in a separate business or working in workshops (OECD, 2001). Self-employment in the informal sector is a major employment market for Nepalese youth and adults (Serrière, 2014). Natural resources form a major basis of production and employment creation in Nepal, indicating a high dependence on land, labour, and capital, which need high, labour-intensive manufacturing processes. These kinds of jobs are labor-intensive and have low value-addition (Pant, 2008; Poudyal, 2012, p. 57; UNDP, 2014). Most of the natural resource-based manufacturing industries are located in rural areas and provide employment to the wider population in the form of small- and micro-enterprises (Pant, 2008). Vocational skills-training sponsored by international and national NGOs provide vocational training with the aim of poverty reduction but are criticised for delivering on a piecemeal basis (Pant, 2008, p. 15). Waged employment both in agriculture (74 per cent) and the non-agriculture sector (15.4 per cent) represents the greatest proportion of the population (ADB, 2015, p. 3). Thus self-employment forms an important part of informal employment in Nepal.

The findings of the survey showed that the creation of self-employment opportunities included home-based jobs mainly for women, jobs generated for artisans, self-help groups, producers' groups, cooperative groups, and producers' cooperatives. Other findings included helping the target groups refine and upgrade their production skills, providing credit support,

helping individuals/groups develop new prototypes of products, helping them improve the quality and quantity of products and, finally, helping with the marketing of products.

Other self-employment jobs mentioned included community-based jobs involving individuals in either micro-enterprises or community-managed activities such as raw material collection, processing, and production of goods. In these cases, the members gained income by either engaging in the value chain of the production process or by being shareholders through mechanisms of the community organisations where the CBO holds the share, not the community members. However, the greater part of self-employment generated in the informal sector does not fall within the purview of the government's plan or programs. In the absence of any job options within the government's reform program, men and women are forced to join the informal job market. Thus self-employment becomes a definitive choice for those who do not have any other options.

Creation of transitional jobs

Transitional jobs are understood as short-term, wage-paying jobs that provide work experience. This work experience helps young men and women to overcome the structural challenges of not having the necessary experience to enter into a more permanent type of job in the regular job market. (Baider & Frank, 2006; Thoresen, Bradley, Bliese, & Thoresen, 2004). Paid internships are said to be important for young and disadvantaged people (DFID, 2013). The transitional nature of jobs is important in the Nepalese context, especially for young people receiving vocational and technical skills. Transitional jobs were created mainly by private sector institutions providing skills-training in order to link disadvantaged young men and women to job opportunities. These job opportunities were either in the form of self-employment generating activities, formal job markets, and the service or manufacturing sector of their expertise. The integration of trained graduates was designed to be achieved through the offering of internships, or on-the-job training. Bowman et.al. (2015) notes that such internship provisions are common ways of enhancing employability and improving job-specific skills (Bowman, Borlagdan, & Bond, 2015). Examples from other countries reveal instances of where the provision of vocational training and training in life skills followed by an internship has proven very successful (ILO, 2015, p. 66; World Bank, 2013, p. 171).

Self-employment through youth entrepreneurship

Youth entrepreneurship skills are one of the well-documented areas attributed to job creation. The training in skills of youth entrepreneurship is mostly described as improving the

capability of young people to recognise opportunities; assisting them to acquire knowledge in business planning and enabling them to pilot test a business. These traits are known to assist young people to gain proficiency in entrepreneurial competencies (Green, 2013; Sullivan et al., 2012). The Youth Entrepreneurship approach to employment creation assumes that "…young people have not developed the necessary knowledge, skill or abilities to make judgments about the desirability of entrepreneurship" (Green, 2013, p. 13).

The organisations surveyed were also found to be engaged in providing training in entrepreneurial skills to the participants, mainly to those willing to start their businesses or enterprises. The trainees received services such as coaching, counseling, consultation, and mentorship, and were assisted in how to improve networking skills and access information, technologies and financial services. Development of skills in business planning, networking and linking with financial services was also mentioned as contributing to those aiming for the self-employment job market. The organisations, mainly the private companies, mentioned that they delivered high outcomes in helping trained graduates transition to the job market. The employment outcome ranged from 60% to 80% with a minimum income also guaranteed, together with market integration. The main motivating factor for such a high result was incentive-based payments for each of the young people trained and placed in a job.

The discussions on youth entrepreneurship are mostly linked to self- employment creation for young people (Green, 2013). However, the findings reveal that the self-employment outcomes are not necessarily the result of youth entrepreneurship only but the result of a combination of individuals or groups starting their own micro-enterprises or income-generating activities either individually or in a group.

Creation of socialisation job types

Socialisation is a new job type generated by some of the organisations. In contrast to all other job categories, the socialisation job category is designed not to integrate the disadvantaged into the job market. In other words, this job type does not aim for professional integration of individuals to the open labour market because the employees within this category are mostly assisted to become socialised either by being engaged as participants through social contacts or are or by being placed into a situation where they will be living a structured lifestyle. The activities can be compared with semi-formal types of jobs where the jobs are not fully regulated but are protected for the target groups. In most cases, very vulnerable social groups, with serious social and/or psychological problems such as drug addiction and alcoholism, are engaged in these job types (Davister, Defourny, & Grégoire,

2004, p. 5). Socialisation as a job category has been studied in Belgium and elsewhere where the organisations work with people with serious social problems.

The surveyed organisations generating socialisation job types were found to work with young women with serious social problems. These groups of women, mainly belonging to the age group of 18–30 years, were either formerly trafficked girls, women suffering from domestic violence or young internal migrant girls. The given age group made them more vulnerable to discrimination and physical assault.

These job types examined above mostly align with the non-standard forms of employment created by the surveyed organisations, where there were fewer 'regular' jobs. These non-standard work arrangements (part-time, temporary work arrangements) are understood to impact upon the level of income for each individual, thus affecting the economic status of the engaged population. For example, self-employed individuals are considered to earn more than permanent wage earners (ILO, 2015b, p. 41). These factors will be considered in assessing the impacts on the livelihood of young people. Moreover, in the case of Nepal, the income for these groups does not take into account the income received from the government's social welfare provisions.

Market-related activities

The third working area was concerned with the market-related activities of the social enterprises. Such activities included, for example: engagement in social enterprise commercial activities to become more efficient in service or product delivery (Nicholls, 2010); engagement in identifying opportunities that can bring about social change (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000); and engagement in finding new ways to address social challenges (Howaldt et al., 2015). Some of these traits were revealed during the survey in response to a survey question that sought to find the answer to how the organisations were addressing social problems.

Consideration of the dimensions of market orientation helped identify examples of how the organisations surveyed were engaged in finding solutions to local problems. The findings reveal that there was a wide variety of areas identified by organisations as 'space' where various activities could be carried out. These activities include: (a) creating new ways of service provision (9.3 per cent); (b) using common property leasing methods (7 per cent); (c) providing business support services (3 per cent); (d) creating new business (11.6 per cent); (e) helping conflict-affected people to reintegrate into society (4.7 per cent); (f) innovating

production and marketing (14.0 per cent); (g) reaching the target groups (9.3 per cent); (h) new working modality (11.5 per cent); (i) creating jobs (14 per cent); and (j) improving service delivery functions (9.3 per cent).

The survey findings reveal that the terms 'introduction of new technologies' and 'promotion of new technologies' are mentioned together with other ideas such as improving the product portfolio, improving product design and utilising technical services. The practice of this social innovation was mentioned as being a result of: (a) collaborating and coming together to address social challenges; and (b) promoting cost-effective service delivery mechanisms. The various forms of organisational collaboration were found to be the result of the changing nature of partnerships. The new forms of the partnership include: (a) NGO partnership models (hybrid), (b) community-managed business models; and (c) corporate social responsibility models for the financing of socially-oriented business/enterprising organisations.

Other activities mentioned in the survey were related to various activities, for example: promoting volunteerism; financing through earned revenue; enforcing a sustainability approach such as sustainable harvesting; the processing of natural resources; and using technological innovation (developing appropriate technologies).

These findings show that social innovation activities consist of a wide range of creative activities that do not have to be exceedingly technical. The findings align with the definition provided by Howaldt et al. (2015), who saw social innovation as a new, or a combination of new, configurations that describe particular ways of finding solutions to social problems. However, while this chapter does not intend to discuss these findings further, a reference to them will be made and elaborated on in subsequent chapters.

Degree of financial sustainability and self-sufficiency

The fourth major work area of the surveyed organisations focuses on activities to assist individuals to become financially independent by diversifying resources. 'Financial sustainability' of a social enterprise is a business term and is defined as generating income to cover the operational cost of service delivery, diversifying the sources of revenue and starting to increase an organisation's source of income to self-finance programs or cover the operational cost from its sources (Alter, 2007).

Therefore, the degree of financial sustainability among the organisations surveyed was examined within the context of the researcher's awareness of existing sensitivity around

information about financial statements. Not only a high level of corruption in government organisations and NGOs (Khanal, 2000; Subedi, 2005) but also poor accountability among organisations such as UNDP have created a great sensitivity around gathering data on finance in Nepal (Cox, 2015). Therefore, the findings on financial trends over the last five years were deduced through an indirect means of obtaining information on the financial health of the organisations surveyed, by examination of the sources of revenue and reinvestment areas as broad areas of inquiry.

Income sources

The organisations surveyed have different sources of income, varying from single sources to more than four or five sources of revenue. As shown in Figure 7, these include but are not limited to the government as a source of income; income from social businesses; income from the organisation's own sources such as local sales of products and services; institutional support from international NGOs, bilateral and multilateral organisations; and revenue from various charities, foundations, and venture organisations. Other sources include corporate donors, international donations, contributions from individuals, income from professional fees, and membership fees (Figure 7).
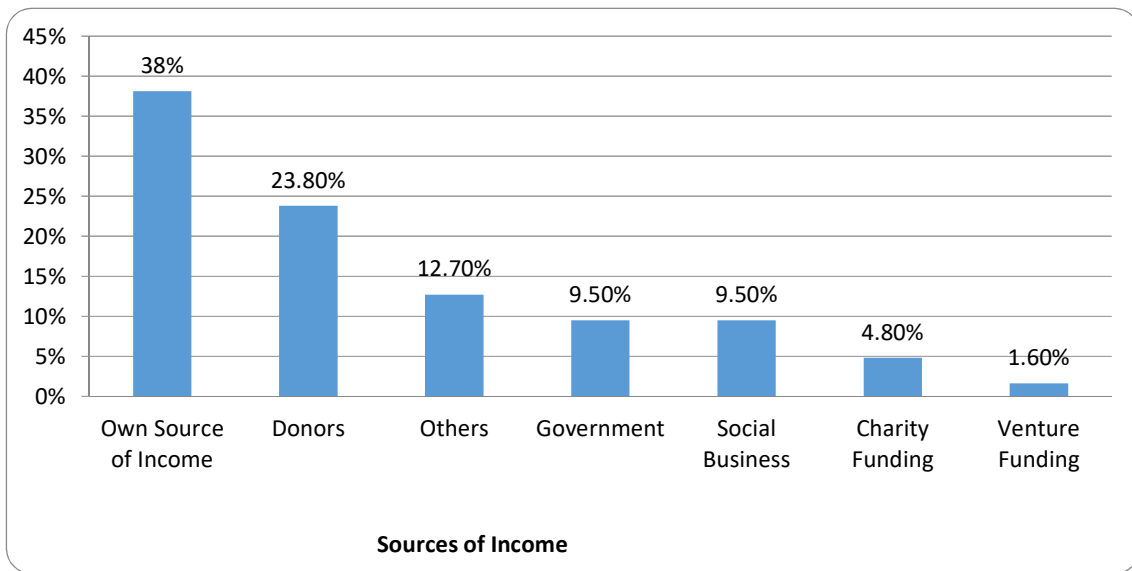
Figure 7. Sources of income

Note: This information is based on responses to a survey conducted by the researcher in Nepal between April–July 2015.

The literature review showed that diversity in revenue generation is very important for the financial sustainability of the organisations and has been related to five primary sources of revenue. They are private contributions of individuals, for example, membership fees, and donations; corporate donors; government grants and contracts; commercial enterprise, for example, concession sales; and foundation grants and contracts (Lee & Nowell, 2014). Sixty-two per cent of the organisations surveyed rely heavily on other institutional sources of income, making traditional financing a major phenomenon in Nepal as shown in Figure 8.
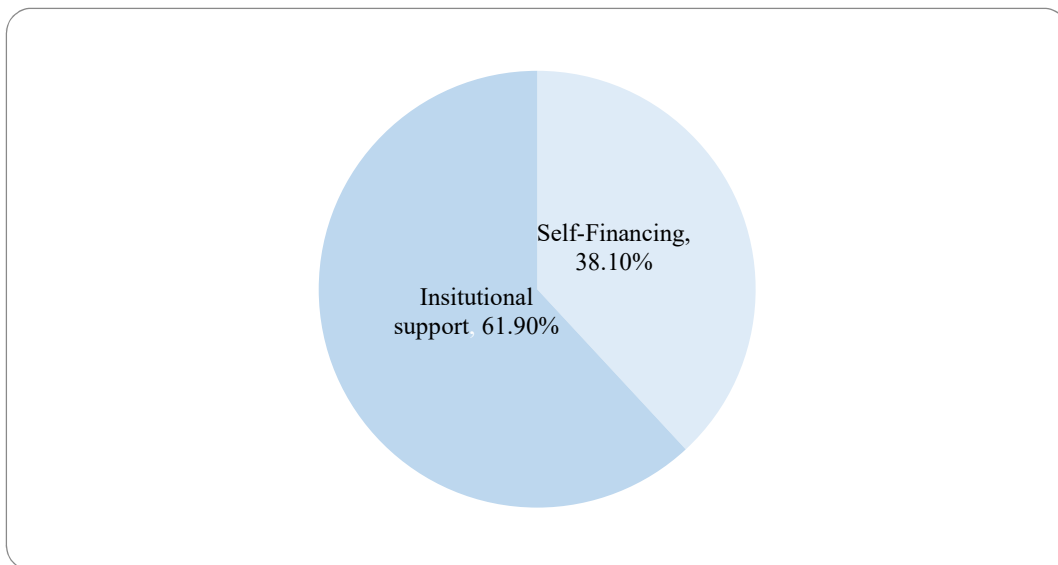
Figure 8. The ratio of institutional dependencies versus own source of income

Note: Data was collected by the researcher from April–July 2015.

These trends of financial dependence indicate that socially-oriented enterprise organisations have an enormous financial challenge to become grant-independent, unlike the ideal social enterprise organisation which is expected to be financially sustainable (Austin et al. , 2006; Dees, Emerson, & Economy, 2004; Haugh, 2005; Reis & Clohesy, 2001).

Despite heavy dependence on an external source of income, the majority of the organisations surveyed (67.6 per cent) stated that income has been increasing over the last five years, as shown in the table below. Shrestha and Adhikari (2011) note that most of the savings made by NGOs are from project grants, rather than from local fundraising activities or other sources of income (Shrestha & Adhikari, 2011, p. 50). Thus, although these

organisations have multiple sources of income, the challenge remains for them to become self- sufficient (Boschee, 2001).

Table 5

Income trends over the last five years

Trend	Responses	%
Increasing	23	67.8
Variable	5	14.7
Decreasing	3	8.8
Steady	2	5.9
Missing	1	2.9
Total	**34**	**100**

Note: Information based on the survey conducted by the researcher in Nepal between April–July 2015.

Organisations were also queried about the amount of net income that is reinvested in the organisation. This question was asked to review the potentiality of financial sustainability. Approximately 30% reinvested more than 50% of their profit back into the organisation; about 4% were investing about 26–50 per cent; 20% reinvested 10–15 per cent, and 3% were reinvesting only 20–25 per cent. About 23% of the organisations did not respond to this question and about 12% indicated that the question was not applicable.

The findings reveal that major investments are being made to cover operation costs (36 per cent), followed by program expansion (31 per cent), share distribution (22 per cent), support of the parent organisation (4 per cent), and unidentified activities (7 per cent) which were not elaborated upon. In totality, the program share is very low when compared to the non-program activities, as shown in Figure .9. The overall findings on financial trends reveal that the organisations surveyed are struggling to achieve their economic objective of being financially self-sufficient.
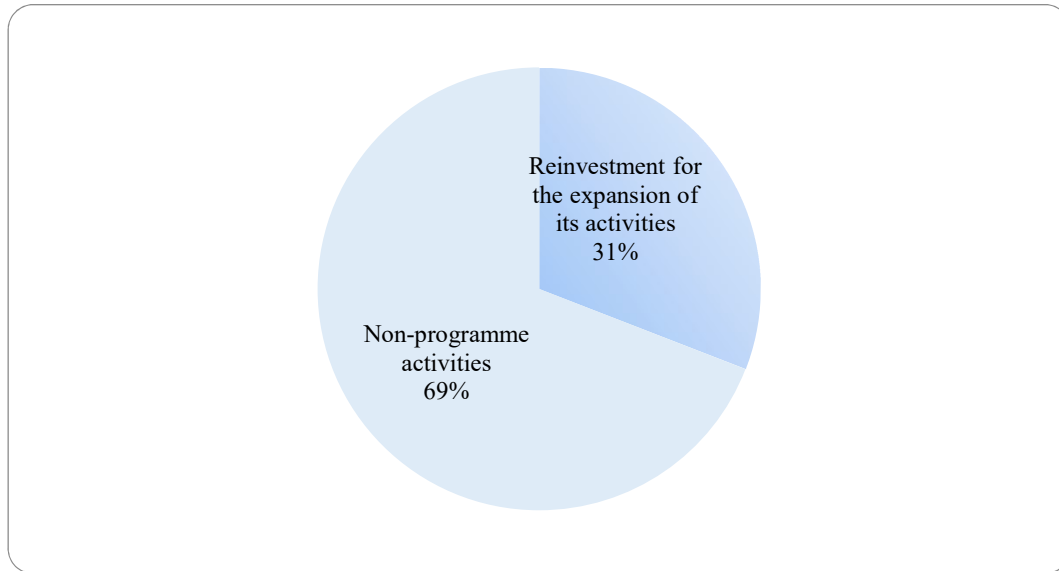
Figure 9. Reinvestment areas distribution by socially-oriented enterprise organisations

*Note***:** Information is based on responses to survey conducted during April–July 2015 in Nepal.

These discussions on financial sustainability are important in the context of Nepal as the argument that social enterprises should, principally, be financially self-sustainable is dominating the development discussions. But an additional list of challenges exists in the specific context of Nepal. They are the problems related to multiple market failures in a subsistence economy; social welfare mechanisms that have not been developed well; high dependency on foreign aid for local development; a high poverty gradient; poor infrastructure; and poor market readiness these areas of challenge were identified by the surveyed organisations and are discussed in the following section.

Section IV: Challenges faced by social enterprises

A question exploring the key challenges faced by the socially-oriented enterprise organisations was asked in order to find opportunities for improvement in the future. The findings reveal that the organisations are facing challenges in the areas of: (a) market; (b) policy; (c) conceptual understandings; (d) external factors; (e) labour; (f) human resources; (g) finance; (h) individual culture; and (i) organisational culture. The purpose of identifying the challenging areas was to underline the fact that the social, political and geographical context of Nepal is very different from that of other countries and consideration of many factors that hinder the growth of such organisations in Nepal is needed. The following section provides an overview of the challenges faced by the social enterprise organisations.

Policy-related challenges were described as the existence of contradictory policies and lack of clarity in the existing policies. The policy provisions for social enterprise organisations are mostly connected to government provision of opportunities for inclusion-related activities through development programs, provision of wage subsidies to the employers, and legal recognition of these activities (European Resarch and Development Service, 2014).

Market challenges are the result of multiple market failures in Nepal. The market failures areas identified by the organisations surveyed include: declining sales; not being able to raise the price of the products as fair trade despite an increase in market inflation; and challenges in a regular supply of the raw materials. These failures have direct implications for revenue-earning and income-earning for the poor and disadvantaged.

Poor infrastructure, such as defective electricity and inadequate transportation, has been identified as another challenge faced by the organisations. The infrastructure-related concerns are also identified by a study, *Landscape Study for Impact Investing in Nepal,* as challenging areas (GIIN, 2015). The infrastructure includes the existence of road density as low as 48km per square kilometre with only 5% of the total rural roads being paved, and most road networks consisting of a weathered road, with no bridges and a low level of road maintenance resulting in low road effectiveness. These challenges limit road access mainly during the rainy season (World Bank, 2012b, pp. 4-5). Nepal also faced prolonged electricity cuts for almost eight to twelve hours a day until 2015 GIIN, 2015). The situation has improved since 2016.

The volatile political situation has been identified as one of the most challenging external factors hindering the growth of social enterprise organisations in Nepal. Lack of political stability has hampered the favourable conditions for foreign investment, which requires a stable regulatory environment in promoting or even contemplating the possibility of such investment in Nepal (GIIN, 2015). In addition to the volatile political situation, labour union problems have been identified as major concerns raised by some of the organisations surveyed.

The findings from this survey also identified a number of additional external issues. They are: a long recovery period for investments; limited finance availability; low financial investment capacity of groups or individuals; financial sustainability; and unfair competition among service providers who tender at low prices but compromising on the quality of services. These considerable obstacles indicate a grave challenge within the financial sector.

Although the concerns of financial transparency and accountability were not stated, concerns about financial transparency are likely to surface.

The lack of clarity in defining social enterprises is identified as one of the challenges faced by the social enterprise organisations. These findings align with the results in the previous section which maintains there is confusion is explaining the working modality of public interest private organisations. However, recent voices are urging the government to pay attention to clarifying the concept of social entrepreneurship in Nepal (THT Oneline, 2016).

In addition to the external challenges stated above, internal challenges within the organisations were also highlighted. These included: cultural issues; management issues such as the inadequate transfer of skills and knowledge by senior management; and micro-management of staff by senior managers, hindering the productivity of the staff in doing their jobs. Additionally, inadequate skills, high turnover of staff, low work efficiency among staff, and high production costs were identified as problematic. All of these managerial concerns are interrelated; for example, low efficiency and low productivity are related to a low level of staff capacity. Moreover, the productivity factors are related to the overall context of high dependence on forest and natural resource-based enterprises for generating local jobs and employment (FAO, 2009; FORWARD Nepal, 2016).

Other concerns included: the lack of in-country workers in the agriculture sector; the decreasing interest of young people in the agriculture sector; and lack of affordability amongst the poor to buy into business development. All of these challenges identified by the organisations indicate growing concerns that greater challenges require more time and more investment with a low level of certainty in the results. Major challenges are summarised in Table 6 below.

Table 6

Summary of challenges identified by the organisations surveyed

No. of areas of challenge	Areas of challenge	Description of the challenge identified
1.	Market-related	Decline in sales resulting in decreasing revenue; Fair Trade buyers have not increased the price of products with an increase in production costs; Inadequate and inconsistent supply of raw materials.
2.	Policy	Contradictory policies ; Lack of clarity in policies;

3.	Different conceptual understanding	Poor understanding of Fair Trade policies; Different understandings of the concept of SE; Geographical challenges; Poor physical infrastructure.
4.	External factors	Disaster risk like flooding; Poor electricity supply; Poor transportation infrastructure; Volatile political situation.
5.	Labour-related	Increased labour migration; Labour union challenges; Labour shortage; The system of payment even for unproductive work
6.	Human Resources	Lack of skilled HR; High turnover of staff; Low level of efficiency; High production costs.
7.	Finance-related	Very long IRR[45] for social business; Limited finance available; Low financial investment capacity; Financial sustainability challenges; Over-financing in the MFI sector; Unfair competition among service providers.
8.	Culture-related	Lack of professionalism—difficulty in the transition to home-based workers into the formal job market; Finding the right people with the right attitude; Lack of interest in agriculture sector among the new generation.
9.	Organisational culture	Seniors not adequately transferring management skills and knowledge; Micro-management.
10.	Poverty	Inadequate capacity among poor to buy the Business Development S services; Inadequate accessibility and affordability among physically disabled people.

Note: Information based on the survey conducted by the researcher in Nepal between April–July 2015.

Many of these challenges align with a study: *Growing the Social Enterprise: Issues and Challenges* (Hynes, 2009). The study identifies the following challenges: access to finance and investment for securing funds in order to develop and expand the business; a lack of clear understanding of the concept of social enterprise by financial and non-financial institutions including the general public; pricing of services and the cash flow management; problems of recruiting and retaining staff; and personal challenges faced by the

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[45] Internal Rate of Return (IRR) is a business term and is calculated to find out profitability of the projects.

managers/leaders in actually implementing the requirement for the social entrepreneur to adjust from their original role in the business to accommodate the changing internal and external demands on the business (Hynes, 2009). The other challenges are related to conceptual understanding in defining social enterprises.

From the perspective of development, the challenges related to the market, as well as external factors such as labour, culture, and poverty remain very specific to Nepal. These challenges are different from the challenges faced by the social enterprise organisations from western countries. Therefore, while discussing the up scaling of these social enterprise organisations, it is important to recognise the challenges faced by them and to show sensitivity when referencing material from other countries while comparing the outcome. Moreover, it seems that upscaling issues are not always about growing in numbers (such as increasing the outreach) but are also about addressing the depth of intensity of the cause, such as the inclusion of the disadvantages as revealed in the findings.

Summary and conclusion

The chapter presented survey findings by analysing responses from 34 organisations. The findings suggest that it is very challenging to compare the social enterprises of Nepal to those in other countries and expect results similar to those.

The social survey results demonstrated that these organisations started to grow in the period after 2005/2006 in Nepal, a period that coincides with the peace process which followed ten years of in-country insurgency. Eight types of social enterprises were observed and their broad working areas were described.

The working areas indicated that the organisations surveyed were engaged in promoting equitable development as well as economic growth-related, market and financial growth activities. Equitable development activities focused on promoting strategies to include disadvantaged and marginalised groups. However, the inclusion of young people within these programmatic interventions remains a challenge, as there is no specific mention of young people as being the intended program participants.

Economic growth-related activities focused on employment creation through skills-training and youth entrepreneurship. The employment-focused training was found to be a means of integrating disadvantaged men and women into the labour market, most evidently in the informal economy. Because they were entrepreneurial organisations, the market-oriented activities also revealed the organisations' engagement in various creative and innovative ways of addressing social challenges, increasing resources and developing partnerships. The

activity related to financial trends demonstrated that, although organisations have their source of income from their own trading or small businesses, more than 70% depended on external sources. The external sources of funding come mainly from charities, donors, and international organisations. Moreover, the findings of reinvestment areas did not provide satisfactory solutions to the problem of the organisations becoming self-sustaining and their hope that they could expand with their own funding. The also faced additional challenges that moved beyond the common challenge of financial and legal limitations encountered by most social enterprises in other countries.

Since the economic objectives are directly related to social objectives, a research gap may be highlighted here, that is, the need to find out more about how some of the organisations are balancing both social and economic objectives. Therefore, the viability of the social enterprises in an environment characterised by poverty and multiple market failure could also be explored further.

Five organisations are identified from among the organisations surveyed for a detailed case study. The findings from the survey on social change and the process of social change are further examined through a case study, cross-case analysis and social change assessment in the following chapter.

Chapter Five: Cross-case analysis: Social value creation process

The previous chapter provided an overview of social enterprises in Nepal. The findings revealed that these organisations are in a preliminary stage and face multiple challenges. Five organisations were selected from the survey for detailed analysis. Data collected from interviews with organisational representatives are used in this chapter to develop five case-specific descriptions.

The five cases are presented in the first section of this chapter. The second section provides a cross-case analysis by comparing the similarities and differences among the five organisations. Through the process of documenting these similarities and the differences, an emerging pattern is revealed of strategies used by the social enterprise organisations to generate employment. The emergent common strategies not only reveal the strategic approaches used by the organisations but also explain the process of social value creation.

Case Study 1: *Gautama Women's Group*—making bags to help victims of sex-trafficking in Nepal

The *Gautama Women's Group* was established in 2012 and began with young volunteers who are involved in addressing climate change. The volunteer program provided opportunities for young women to engage in community work, enabling them to identify social problems. The young volunteers developed the idea of producing sustainable products as a solution to social as well as environmental challenges.

Gautama is now a development project located as a unit within the parent company's NGO organisational structure. Situating the program within the broader NGO umbrella not only provides the required legal framework but also serves in developing the concept more within a business incubation model. As an autonomous unit, the focus of *Gautama* is geared towards addressing social and environmental problems by applying entrepreneurial interventions in partnership with the private sector, led by young leaders who share common values and are committed to being part of environmentally sustainable solutions. Whilst the organisation initially focused on working with those who are victims of sex-trafficking, the program has now been extended to include other groups including single women, domestic violence victims, and young female migrants.

Gautama Women's Group believes in the importance of advocacy and campaigning across a wide range of media outlets to promote the products and make people aware of how they can be part of social and green business solutions. Campaigns using a slogan such as

"No Thanks" and "If you want to empower women, buy their product" have become a popular way of creating awareness among people regarding the environment and society. *Gautama* has also used celebrities to promote the brand and the idea of women's empowerment and this has been very effective. One of the board members also helped in linking the products with supermarket outlets. The team leader explained that increasing sales is a current focus:

> The focus is on how to get people to buy the product (bags) for the cause of women's empowerment. It is because if people did not purchase the products, women would not make any income. We want people to let them know that the purchase of a bag is about contributing to women's empowerment because then women could make an earning. We believe in autocracy[46] acting for the cause of their belief. (Team Leader)

The organisation and the cotton bags it produces gained popularity due to a significant advocacy campaign that highlighted the cause of environmental problems and promoted women's empowerment. Thus, within a very short time, the bag became a visual conceptualisation of the possibility of women's empowerment. Such is the effectiveness of these cotton bags that *Gautama* is now starting to be known by the name of cotton bags. The team leader explains the outcomes of such success:

> The story behind the success of these simple bags is the cause of women's empowerment. We want people to understand Bag Enterprise as a labour-intensive business involving many people in a series of activities along the production process starting from growing to making products and marketing of the products. Therefore, the bag is not a single bag but a series of jobs. (Team Leader)

With the increased awareness of the organisation and of the cotton bags, there is an increased number of women contacting the organisation with an expectation and desire to be employed. At this stage, *Gautama* also developed a PET (*Polyethylene terephthalate*)[47] bottle

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[46] The term coined by the team member expressing their belief in 'acting' in contrast to just preaching and making slogans. However, this term is not a widely-used or accepted term to describe the action of translating the belief into practice.

[47] Polyethylenterephthalate (PET) is a kind of plastic that is used for packaging as soft-drink bottles.

recycling project. But due to the limited capacity of job creation, they created a digital platform[48] that is used to link the unemployed with prospective employers for services such as aged care, child care, and house-keeping. The organisation plays an intermediary role to ensure participants' rights and security by providing legal aid services free of charge and ensuring that all have support. It also plans to create a 'green place'. This is envisioned to be a community hub and market outlet for products from rural areas, made by women. The aim is to incorporate a broader group of women not limited to women from the Valley.

Despite the popularity of the cotton shopping bags, *Gautama* faced stiff competition when the Nepalese government prohibited the use of plastic bags resulting in the local market being swamped with cotton bag products from many suppliers. Since the bag produced by *Gautama* is comparatively expensive for most people to buy, the bag enterprise faced fierce market competition regarding supply, cost, and quality.

After facing this market competitiveness the team started to invest their time and effort in product refinement, producing new designer bags using a variety of sources of natural fibres such as jute (*Corchorus olitorius*) and nettle (*Urtica dioica)*, and more recently, a paper version which has attracted public attention.

Together with product diversification activities, another strategy used by *Gautama* is the generation of multiple resources: financial, physical and human resource capital. Human resources are derived from the team of volunteers and board members. Other investment costs are met by corporate houses and donor agencies interested in creating green jobs. *Gautama* also derives its earnings from the sale of goods and services to sustain all of its activities. Thus, the sustainability of the organisation depends on mixed sources of revenue, including: resources from donors; the voluntary contribution of cash, time and service of volunteers; sales of products; and sales of specialised services. Within the first two years of operating, the business reached the break-even point. The financial capital and other resources served as a basis for the organisation to mobilise the development of market competency and financial sustainability.

An enormous number of jobs have been created out of a need to sew and supply replacement bags in the market. The quality of the bags has also been improved by using a different yarn and natural fibres in making a new variety of bags. In this way, the objectives

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[48] The digital platform is a website where information is provided about demand and supply of potential employer and employees.

of the organisation expanded from being simply one of green job creation for women to one of creating a greater market value for them as well.

Case Study 2: *Mangala Services*—**A traveling approach to vocational education for out-of-school young people in Nepal**

Mangala Services was established as an NGO in 1992 by a group of like-minded and socially-committed friends under the direction of a visionary social leader who worked in a Kathmandu-based vocational education training centre. Vocational training is often centralised and conducted within the city; this leader conceptualised the idea of providing mobile skills-training and such training is now provided in areas such as building, electrician work, plumbing, furniture making, wood carving, air-conditioning, refrigeration and many more.

Mangala received donor funding for ten years before it registered also as a private limited company in 2008. The shift from a non-profit NGO to having an additional private limited legal framework indicates a change in the organisation's own belief in how it should adjust to the changing environment. The organisation maintains that the decision was made to match donors' requirements and shared their reasons as follows for going through such a complex process of legal transformation:

> We have changed the legal framework from NGO to the private sector to match the interest of the donors. As the landscape of development work is dependent on the interest of donors, they invite proposals sometimes only for the NGOs and, sometimes, only for the private sectors. We started working as an NGO, but the donor agencies changed their preference to the private sector. Therefore, we had to acquire a new legal entity. The existence of dual legality has allowed competing for the resources in the market both as private and NGO. (Chief Executive Officer)

The organisation aims to respond to the skills needs of out-of-school young people (16-40 years) who remain either unemployed or underemployed, mainly in the geographically remote area in Nepal. It also helps women from those remote locations who are unable to participate in skills-training due to cultural beliefs and practices. Due to the lack of services in such contexts, *Mangala* provides mobile training and offers a 'traveling approach' to vocational training where market-oriented skills-training is provided at the doorstep of the training recipient. Most of the training is organised in remote villages.

Mangala also provides youth entrepreneurship packages and skills-training packages developed through a process of Rapid Market Assessment (RMA) which allows the organisation to identify skills that are in demand or are not currently fulfilled by existing skills-training. The youth entrepreneurship training is focussed on business planning, management of raw materials, accessing credit, and account-keeping. Individuals are also provided with opportunities to access a trainer/mentor for enquiries about technical problems[49] for at least six months after the completion of training.

Mangala demonstrates flexibility in organising the training at different hours of the day, allowing the young men and women to attend to multiple tasks such as going to school in the morning hours. *Mangala* also puts emphasis on using the local language in delivering training by hiring local instructors, thereby increasing participation by young people with low literacy. This flexibility, along with an emphasis on practical skills-training and an after-training service, is helpful for young people to overcome the social, technical and market-related structural challenges, thereby increasing the chances of gaining a foothold in the job market. The organisation, focussed mainly on adolescent girls, also provides life skills[50] training in areas such as reproductive health,[51] communication skills, and information on HIV/AIDS, motivation, and stress management.

The organisation maintains that there is a huge challenge in employing young people in general and especially young women. The organisation has noted challenges in integrating disadvantaged young people in the job market and improving their capacity to earn a minimum wage:

> Young adults are more confident in starting their job compared to young
> people of 16–20 years. Most of the young people start as an intern. However,
> placing young girls in a job is the most difficult. It is because of the reason
> that the young girls in Nepal face a challenge to come out of the home and get
> into employment [because this is] as a social taboo. For this purpose, we

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[49] Completing skills-training does not imply that an individual has gained complete knowledge of every aspect of the given areas of skill training. Technical problems are some of the challenges that surface after training and include coming up with new designs, understanding upgraded techniques and much more.

[50] Life skills' are considered to be critical resources necessary for day-to-day living (Greenland & Skuse, 2015). However, there is no agreed definition of life skills (Assaad & Levison, 2013; Yankah & Aggleton, 2008, p. 466).

[51] The additional information related to menstrual hygiene is considered very important as the topic of sexual health is not widely discussed in Nepal. Poor information on such a topic is leading to reproductive health-related infections and psychological, social and personal distress.

encouraged the young girls either to start an enterprise with a group of friends. For example, to start a business or to find a job within walking distance within a known community of people. Although finding a job locally does not provide an excellent income to the girls, even earning about 200–300 NPR per day is contributing considerably to their income. (Program Officer)

Mangala has developed strong social capital with their skilled graduates who serve either as partners to organise skills-training locally or as assistant instructors during specific training in their area of expertise. As partners, graduates provide job placement services for newly-trained young men and women and monitor their employment for up to six months after completion of the training.

The organisation provides employment to 600–700 young people per year, mostly in the local market. This employment outcome means the organisation is also able to expand the initiation of new economic activities not only by creating employment opportunities but also by expanding into the rural areas of Nepal through the provision of skilled human resources.

The composition of the participants is 60 per cent women,[52] 30 per cent disadvantaged individuals and 10 per cent from other social groups. The *Random Income and Employment Verification Report (2005-2007)* (Rana, 2008) revealed a consistent employment outcome at 70–80 per cent over a three year period.[53] Since the organisation cannot stipulate that the participants must continue the same profession, the program assumes that a trained graduate will continue to work in the same sector if he/she has been employed for six to nine months with a regular income. The mobile-based training approach is now commonly practiced and replicated by national, bilateral and multilateral organisations in imparting skills-training in Nepal.

Case Study 3: *Dipankar Organisation*—Providing job opportunities to young men and women from the most impoverished social groups in Eastern Terai of Nepal

The *Dipankar Organisation* is a licensed NGO, established initially as a women's empowerment project in 1997 by a social leader, Mr. Sriniwas[54] who was born in a village of Eastern Terai and is a university graduate. Going back to the village after graduation, he

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[52] Women, irrespective of social caste, are mostly considered as a separate social group and face discrimination based on gender.

[53] However, the organisation indicated that they had stopped such rigorous verification processes over time as the organisation did not received funding for such activities.

[54] Pseudonym used instead of real name.

started teaching children from a nearby village voluntarily. To his surprise, the number of children grew to a size that he could not handle alone. He is inspired by the enthusiasm of the children who came to him with the hope of learning. He recounted in an interview that most of them barely had clothes, were barefoot, unwashed and often hungry. The children were left at home on a daily basis by parents who had to earn a living. Parents are not in a situation to pay any fees, but, in order to hire a teacher for the children, provided grain from the farm to be sold. This willingness of children and parents to help themselves through schooling motivated him to pursue his beliefs creatively which led to the establishment of an NGO. He believed that changes could be made in the lives of this impoverished *Mushar* community.

The *Mushar* community suffers from various forms of deprivation such as poor access to and affordability of health facilities, education and agricultural extension services; and high migration levels to India in search of jobs and employment services. The CEO shared the experience of how the women's empowerment project started:

> There were many social needs in the community when we had begun our saving and credit programs. We first started our social activities by distributing iron tablets to women and rehydrating packages to help children suffering from dehydration. We continued to [the] provision of primary education to children through the work of volunteers. We also mobilised young people through sporting activities to unite them and mobilise them to volunteer in some social activities. (CEO)

Dinpankar provides literacy training, income generation and advocacy for the rights of women in the *Mushar* community, benefiting approximately 1000 women in total. Soon after its inception, *Dinpankar* changed from focussing solely on women's empowerment to microfinance activities, establishing itself as a Financial Intermediary NGO (FI-NGO).[55] Microfinance activities are now operating in seven districts, through 200 Village Development Committees (VDCs) with 63 office branches and benefiting 135,000 women. Over the last ten years, the organisation has worked with approximately 500 households from the *Mushar* community, increasing their financial access and providing community services such as access to basic primary health and education that benefits their clients and their families. *Dipankar* acknowledged that accessing financial services is beyond the reach of

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[55] A FI-NGO is an NGO which is legally permitted to conduct microfinance activities in Nepal. Such practices are widely found in Nepal (Dhakal, 2011).

these groups, mainly because they are considered high-risk as they have limited physical assets to put forward as collateral. This challenge is addressed by the organisation in the design of a microfinance loan plan suitable for the group.

As *Dinpankar* initially focused on microfinance activities for women, it did not necessarily guarantee the engagement of young people. However, due to the increasing out-migration of young people in the area, the organisation reoriented its social objectives to benefit the young men and women.

For this purpose, the organisation made policy changes to ensure inclusion of young men and women into their development activities, giving them preference for enrolment in internship programs. Those who fulfil the basic criteria of completion of grade 12, who are willing to participate in the paid internship program of six months and sit for the examination at the end of the internship program are then provided with job opportunities within the organisation. This policy provision provided an opportunity for young people with little or no experience to enter the job market.

Young people who do not meet this criterion but wish to continue formal education are provided with an education loan. Provision of vocational training is also made available for those willing to undergo skills-training in relevant trade areas. Those who are willing to start their own business are provided with a self-employment loan through their mothers if their mothers are clients of the organisation.

To sustain these activities, the organisation engages in generating resources such as financial capital, human resource capital and social capital, with income from the microfinance scheme being the main source of income. Thus, the organisation does not rely on external funding sources and now owns the property where its business operates. Sixty per cent of the profit generated from microfinance loans is reinvested as capital to expand the microfinance activities, and 40 per cent is invested in community development projects. However, the organisation maintained that although it has reached financial self-sufficiency, it receives some sources of income either from government or donor agencies to run various projects.

In addition to the generation of financial resources, the organisation has also built the in-house capacity of their staff. This has helped staff members maintain a very high level of enthusiasm and be confident in their work because of their enhanced experience, knowledge and skills. As most of the staff are from the communities where *Dipankar* is working, this process of engaging the local people helps to build a very high social bond and capital with participants as well as staff.

Social capital is strengthened with the community members by meeting the other needs of the community in addition to providing micro-loans. Other services such as primary education, primary health services, higher education loans and loans for starting a self-employment enterprise are provided as a part of community development activities among the microfinance clients. The organisation also provides access to basic health services through a health clinic operated in the basement of the organisation's building. A trust fund has been established in order to operate the English Medium School. The school also provides scholarships to all the marginalised communities such as Mushar children and children of single mothers.

In the activities described above, further discounts are offered to the participants and their families provided they hold a green or an orange-coloured identity card for the microfinance activities. Similar to experiences in other countries like Bangladesh (Chaudhury & Matin, 2002), overlapping of membership is a huge challenge in Nepal (Dhakal, 2011; Sharma, 2012) when the members choose to take out loans from more than one micro-finance institution leading to over-indebtedness (Centre for Microfinance (CMF) Nepal, 2016). The green card indicates their membership in only one organisation and the orange card shows membership in more than one organisation. Members with a green card receive higher discounts to the existing service rate.[56] As a result, 100 per cent of school-aged children of members are reported to be attending school.

Flexible loan products are also provided for building affordable housing using local raw materials such as bamboo. *Dipankar* assists members in paying premiums for their personal life insurance and by providing emergency relief funds, livestock insurance, and remittance services to its members.

Dipankar is also continuously involved in field-level monitoring activities. The field-level visits provide direct feedback on microfinance activities and verification of whether or not the needs of the participants have been met. The monitoring also involves cross-checking of field-level reports, networking with communities and stakeholders and six-monthly meetings with staff. These monitoring mechanisms are a means to obtain feedback to improve the loan products as well as discovering and eliminating skills-gaps amongst field-level staff. In addition to these activities, *Dipankar* is conducting independent research

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[56] For example, a person would pay only NPR15 for his or her health check-up instead of NPR20, compared to a yellow card holder who is offered a lesser discount for the same services.

looking towards launching new products either as a microfinance loan product or as community development products.

Dipankar has also established a staff investment company which involves the regular contribution of staff income in order to run various business-making activities. Such a profit-making activity, although independent, is operated on the organisation's premises. The staff investment company manages projects such as the selling, installation and after-sales services of solar home systems. It also manages the sale of bottled drinking water and has a dairy outlet and pharmacy service that is linked to the health service. By providing such investment opportunities, *Dipankar* has also built a social security system for staff ensuring additional income in the longer term.

In addition to the activities mentioned above in health, education, and staff investment companies, the organisation focusses continuously on expanding its outreach to remote areas. The organisation mentioned that they are currently engaged in research to investigate the possibility of establishing a seed bank locally for poor farmers. These initiatives demonstrate the strategic approach of the organisation in balancing the social as well as economic objectives.

The organisation today provides employment opportunities to more than 400 young men and women, 90 per cent of whom belong to local communities. A report on the benefits to the young adults in higher education and the creation of additional employment opportunities through loans was not provided.

Case Study 4: *Paduma Enterprises*—Improving the transition of home-based workers from the informal market to the formal job market in Nepal

Paduma Enterprises is a registered Not-For-Profit distributing company as well as an NGO, established in 2013 in Kathmandu. The organisation is designed to support home-based workers (HBW), an informal practice of working from home, mainly by women. This kind of home-based work is considered as labour-intensive but generates home-based employment and income.

Specific study related to HBW and problems faced by home-based workers in Nepal has not been examined. However, research related to other South Asian countries can be closely linked with Nepal, because of similarities in socio-economic conditions. One report, entitled *Living in the background: Home-based women workers and poverty persistence* (Doane, 2007), reveals that there is a close relationship between poverty and home-based workers. The same study concludes that many of the home-based workers have no choice but

to earn their livelihoods as such. Primarily, the women are found to be bound by social norms, and they are required to work close to the household to be able to manage their gender roles and responsibilities. Access to information about how to enter the job market, enhance or their skills, or gain new competencies, is limited. These limitations also hinder women from achieving any career growth. In addition to these limitations, social exclusion based on social caste/ethnicity and gender-based discrimination is also found to be limiting the career growth of home-based workers. The research also highlights that HBW includes one of the poorest strata of the population. The majority of such workers live in an isolated geographical area. They are also often found to work in an unhealthy work environment and under dangerous work conditions (Doane, 2007). It is estimated there are over 2.2 million home-based workers in Nepal (Sabah Nepal, 2015).

The organisation collaborates with both unemployed and underemployed home-based workers in Nepal. Households serve as the primary production unit for most of the products marketed by the organisation. Knitting and weaving take place at the houses of individual workers apart from limited production from the main factory. The organisation is a membership-based organisation and provides a framework that allows the members to participate in the governance process of the institution. The beneficiary is represented on the board of governance through their elected member and ensures the participation and representation of the recipients of the board of management. In this way, the organisation has guaranteed the representation and voice of its members at the level of decision-making.

Entrepreneurial characteristics are reflected in its legal framework, having both an NGO framework as well as a private company legal framework. The organisation is happy to present itself as a social business organisation, as the concept of public interest private organisations is very difficult to explain to the public. As a Team Leader stated:

> We do not want to be called an NGO, because of their image related to poor accountability and grant/donor-dependency tendencies. These features do not represent what we are doing. We are doing a business and helping people to address social issues related to home-based workers. We are not spending donor grants for complementing the project activity but for the sustaining and growth of the activity. (Team Leader)

The organisation developed its practical strategy into two broad components: a social unit and an economic unit. Separate managers are assigned for each of the units. The Social

Development Unit's principal activities are to build a membership base and capacitate members mainly through the acquisition of various technical skills. The Economic Development Unit's main activities are related to the following: increasing the organisation's own sources of income; diversifying the products; marketing the products; promoting other sources of revenue such as the opening of a food cafe; providing fee-based training (using infrastructure) to the third party; and extending networking for creating a new market. By separating the functions, determining the expected outcomes of each unit and clarifying the unit managers' roles in achieving these, the organisation sought to balance its social and economic objectives. The two managers are asked to negotiate when they are put under pressure, in order to contribute to the broader organisational goal of benefiting the HBW. The manager shared how he thinks the organisation can achieve the social objectivity by balancing its social and economic activities:

> There is a continuous effort if a single unit also performs both the social and economic development activities. For this purpose, we have split these two functions to be led by the separate managers. The social manager looks after the social component and takes care of members' benefits. The business manager looks after the economic component and takes care of maximising the profit and cannot be lenient and compromising. However, we want to make sure that there is a right kind of balance between social and economic objectives. When the business manager is put under pressure by the social development manager, they negotiate and arrange conditions to ensure the benefit of the HBW beneficiaries. (CEO)

The major objectives of the Social Development Unit include the following: to identify home-based workers; enrol the members; renew membership; mobilise the members to form a group; federate them to create a cluster; and capacitate them. Each individual is required to demonstrate that he/she possesses some skills and is making some income by using those same skills, in order to be a member of the organisation. The skills level of each new member is categorised as either 'A', 'B' or 'C'. A represents the highest skills level, while B and C are used to classify individuals with skills-gaps. The organisation aims to equip all home-based workers to qualify for the A category.

Capacity-building is an ongoing process in which the members are provided with regular opportunities to upgrade their skills. The only limitations imposed by the organisation

are that the members are not allowed to change their working sector. The continual process of skills-upgrading helped to ensure production of goods ready to be sold in the market, thus generating income. The technical training is followed by training in resource management and product development and this training takes place at the cluster level. Dealing with such issues as raw material, machinery, and product development is the major focus at this stage.

The Social Development Unit is also responsible for looking after the activities of the main facility centre at the central-level Production and Management Unit, as well as its decentralised local-level Production and Administration Units. Although most production takes place in decentralised production units, the central Production and Management Units served as the central coordinating and quality control unit. All decentralised units are required to meet their operating costs from their own income source and are structured to function in a semi-autonomous way; they are nonetheless accountable to the board at the central level. The decentralised units operated with a separate account and form a part of organisation's main audit reporting.

The main activity of the Economic Development Unit is to achieve the financial sustainability of the organisation. The strategic plan includes activities such as diversifying the revenue by increasing their revenue source. Other strategies include diversifying the products and increasing both the volume of production and the market sales of the goods. The Economic Unit is also successful in initiating other sources of income such as the opening of a food cafe, providing fee-based training to a third party, and networking in order to create new markets.

The Research and Design team, within the business component, is responsible for developing new products and new designs. The Social Development Unit is instrumental in disseminating the findings from the Research and Design team of the Economic Unit. Thus the two units worked in coordination, complementing each other's primary functions. A flagship store and several other shops serve as a major market outlet for the organisation. These market stores play an instrumental role in the commercialisation of the goods made by the HBW, thus generating revenue. The members are provided training in collaboration with the Social Development Unit. The function of the research team is shared as follows:

> The Research and Design team is responsible for developing new products and
> new designs. The members are again provided training on the new production
> line in collaboration with the Social Development Unit. (Unit Leader, Social
> Development Unit)

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Profit acquired by the private company is reinvested, instead of being distributed amongst the shareholders, ensuring the financial sustainability of the activities.

Members are encouraged to set up and grow their own business. This comes at a cost, with the most skilled home-based workers leaving the organisation once they find employment or are able to start their own small businesses:

> [By] allowing the members to grow and transit to the formal job market, we lose 'A' grade members. If we did not have social objectives, we could have made a strong bond after giving them training, for not leaving the organisation. However, we do not limit these groups to ourselves but allow them to grow as per our business model. (Unit Leader, Social Development Unit)

Traditionally, the HBW sector comprises of adult men and women; however, young people are now regularly becoming part of the organisation as a result of being inspired by their parents, mainly their mothers. The enrolment of young women is noted positively because of their ability to learn new techniques, their innovativeness in coming up with new ideas and their capacity to deliver the products with good quality and quantity.

The strategic plan for financial sustainability includes diversifying the revenue sources from the organisation's own sources, donors, training income, and sales from market outlets. A flagship store and several other market outlets have been opened. The market outlets are instrumental in the marketing of the products made by the home-based workers, thus generating revenue. Profit acquired by the private company is reinvested, instead of being distributed amongst shareholders, ensuring the financial sustainability of the activities. Moreover, the strategy for each local production unit to generate its own revenue sources is another sustainability measure in place.

The organisation worked with 2140 members in December 2014 and is experiencing a membership growth of about 25 per cent per year. With a transition to the formal job market of 10 per cent of its members in the same period, there is a net 15 per cent membership growth each year. At this time, of the total number enrolled, 250 women have established their own businesses or are selling their skills expertise by becoming trainers. This represents approximately 10 per cent of the total membership. An average earnings increase of 34 per cent per year among graduates of the program is reported by the organisation.

Case Study 5: *Maitreya Enterprises*—**Working with the women entrepreneurs and traditional craft persons to increase their access to markets in Nepal**

Maitreya was established in 1984 as an NGO. The organisation is led by a young professional with a sound academic background in business management and belief in traditional craftsmanship. *Maitreya Enterprises* maintains its affiliation with one of the oldest enterprising organisations in Nepal, providing shelter, skills-training and employment opportunities to destitute women. Learning from historical experiences, the organisation focuses on two broad social objectives underpinned by the principles of Fair Trade. The first objective is to establish a sustainable business together with groups of producers, artisans and disadvantaged communities. The second social objective is to provide continuous financial support to a philanthropic organisation which offers shelter and vocational training to destitute women to assist them to be able to earn a livelihood.

The organisation provides technical assistance to improve product quality, as well as to enhance the workers' efficiency, productivity, and skills in order to enable the refinement of traditional crafts. It also provides a buyback guarantee and advances money to invest in raw materials for those who are linked to the organisation. Refinement of product-related activities focuses on helping the entrepreneurs make changes in design, colour, and pattern so that the goods are more appealing in the market. In some cases, new technology is introduced into the production processes so that the goods are produced in greater volume and become more cost-effective. The technological inputs are provided to certain products only.

Maitreya works with women's groups or women entrepreneurs with the business 'potentiality', as well as with individuals or groups willing to commit to delivering quality products. Business 'potentiality' is explained as the ability of persons or groups with some level of skills and knowledge who can produce marketable goods. However, the quality of the products not only enhances the market sales but also provides a sense of trust among the stakeholders. The organisation shared their experiences as follows:

> The quality of the products increased trust among the buyers and suppliers,
> helping in increasing client numbers internationally and expanding the
> business portfolio locally. (Manager)

An ongoing process that also serves the purpose of the organisation is the practice of enrolling micro-entrepreneurs. As mentioned above, the priority is given to the women entrepreneurs. However, a closer look at the process of enrolment reveals that as a business

organisation, it followed a very careful process to ensure that the recruited groups and individuals would also have market potential. The criterion of having market potential, therefore, is explained as having women's groups or women entrepreneurs with a business potentiality, individuals or groups willing to commit to delivering quality products, and individuals or groups with some level of skills and knowledge in producing commercial goods. The organisation's preference for women and the requirement to be potentially marketable is shared by *Maitreya*'s Marketing Officer in the statement, "The selection criteria cannot be compromised because the quality of products is directly related to the product sales and profitability".

One of the strategic approaches used by *Maitreya* is to capitalise on groups or individuals with existing skills. For this purpose, *Maitreya* collaborates with external organisations such as NGOs and cooperatives which provide micro-enterprise related training to develop participants as micro-entrepreneurs. By collaborating with such NGOs and cooperative organisations, *Maitreya Enterprises* is able to work with already trained groups who have basic knowledge of the micro-enterprise activities but are struggling to bring their products to the market. By working with the external groups such as NGOs, cooperatives, producers' groups and individual micro-entrepreneurs, the organisation aims to create a culture of mutual benefit.

The social objectives of *Maitreya* are also focussed on building social relationships with stakeholders, mainly with the producers and the buyers. By guaranteeing the quality of the products and services to the consumers, the organisation aims to improve the relationship of trust among the stakeholders, as seen in the words of the CEO:

> Viable products are being produced by the producers' groups and individuals that enhanced the business growth, creating a win-win situation for both the parties. Moreover, the quality products increased trust among the buyers and suppliers, helping in increasing client numbers internationally and expanding the business portfolio locally. (CEO, *Maitreya* Enterprises)

This relationship-building process develops a trust in and a sense of mutual accountability with the producers' groups and the micro-entrepreneurs. As a result of all the activities mentioned above, the organisation today works with approximately 1000 entrepreneurs from more than 50 external producers' groups. These producers' groups supply the products to *Maitreya Enterprises*. Women comprise 80 per cent of the groups

represented. The organisation also provides regular jobs to 130 staff, including internal production and staff, of whom about 60 per cent are women employed under formal employment contracts. The organisation also provides 40 per cent of their net income to support continuously, through their parent organisation, an additional 80 destitute women every year.

Cross-case analysis: Finding drivers of social change

The case studies discussed above is helpful in demonstrating the types of challenges and the range of approaches to these challenges. These challenges are specific to Nepal. The cases reveal that each organisation employs different strategies that guide the organisation in implementing its social and economic objectives. Irrespective of their effort to address different social challenges, seven common themes are identified as common strategies across all five organisations. The common thematic areas are (1) social objectives; (2) the role of social leaders; (3) resource generation activities; (4) social innovation; (5) market orientation; (6) financial self-sufficiency; and (7) policy changes. These themes emerged during content analysis, explaining the contemporary but complex social change process in each case.

In the following section, the common themes are compared across the five cases in order to understand the factors that hinder or facilitate social change. By constantly comparing the themes, the common factors as similarities and differences with supporting evidence that enable, guide and trigger the process of social change for these organisations are established. This process has provided an opportunity to identify the common themes that can be further tested in order to establish the likelihood of similar results in similar contexts.

Social objectives

Understanding of social objectives plays a major role in determining the social values of the organisation, for example, the inclusion of excluded groups, finding solutions to social problems and identifying and working towards long-term social change. The findings demonstrate that the five organisations worked to address social challenges in their own settings, specifically: (1) increasing market participation among micro-entrepreneurs, especially women; (2) improving access to skills-training for out-of-school young people in geographically-challenged areas; (3) providing job opportunities to young men and women who lacked employment experience; (4) working with young female home-based workers in order to transition them into the formal job market; and (5) working with young internal

migrants who faced the various challenges of exclusion due to their migrant status. Table 7 below provides a summary of the primary social objectives of the case study organisations.

Table 7

Summary of the social objectives of case study organisations

Organisation	Social objectives
Gautama Women's Group	To provide job opportunities to needy and disadvantaged young women; To reduce environmental pollution in urban areas; To promote self-sustaining social enterprises through active engagement of trained professionals.
Mangala Services	To improve the livelihood of out-of-school young people by creating self-employment opportunities through skills-training in the informal sector.
Dipankar Organisation	To provide financial access to one of the most impoverished social groups in Nepal and gradually expand its services to other challenging areas of Nepal; To provide job opportunities to the local young people.
Paduma Enterprises	To address the issues of unemployment and underemployment among the home-based workers in Nepal; To look at the effect of globalisation and changing market orientation to help women continue their livelihood from earnings made from home-based work.
Maitreya Enterprises	To promote market competitiveness among the target group; To establish a sustainable business together with groups of producers, artisans and disadvantaged communities; To promote values that support capacity among the target group to enhance their ability, innovation, market competitiveness and a customer-focused business orientation.

Note. Information based on the interviews conducted by the researcher with five organisations in Nepal, 2015

The *Gautama Women's Group* provided job opportunities to disadvantaged young women who suffered from various social, economic and culture-based discrimination. Young girls, particularly those with low literacy, high poverty and a lack of information, face a greater risk of being exposed to sex-trafficking (Hennink & Simkhada, 2004; Thapa, 2015). Working with disadvantaged groups such as internal female migrants is also a huge challenge in Nepal (Sijapati, 2012, pp. 12–13). The organisation provided a regular income to these groups and opportunities to engage in the process of social reintegration.[57] Since most young

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[57] Process of assimilating social and economic life with communities (Robins et al., 2016).

women had left their homes and had experienced social exclusion from their communities, their reintegration back into society is very important. This social and economic integration has immense value in the lives of these young girls.

Increasing access to skills-training in geographically-challenged areas[58] is addressed by *Mangala Services*. Its main target groups are early school leavers. It is reported that approximately five per cent of the primary school-aged children (5–9 years) are out of primary school in grades 1–5. Approximately 63.2 per cent are enrolled at lower secondary (grades 6–8) and only 23.9 per cent at senior secondary school (grades 9–10) (ADB, 2015, p. 2). These young men and women participate in the labour market without having completed their schooling. Expanding skills-training services in areas of poor infrastructure such as low road density[59] is very challenging not only for the government but also for development workers. These difficult situations are complicated by the significant number of young people who have low literacy and very few employment skills (United Nations Country Team [UNCT], 2012). Socio-cultural taboos under the Hindu religion also reduce mobility, in particular among young girls (Dahal, 2004; (MoHP, 2012). All of these challenges add to the importance of, and need for, increasing access to skills-training opportunities in creative ways. By providing 'doorstep' (mobile) services, *Mangala Services* aims to overcome these social, cultural and geographical challenges.

Dipankar provides employment opportunities to young men and women who belong predominantly to socially-excluded communities such as the Mushar, within the *Terai Dalit.*[60] A research report, *The situation analysis for Dalit women in Nepal* (Bishwakarma, 2004), notes that this group of people owns less than one per cent of the cultivable land. Approximately 95 per cent of them are landless and earn a per capita income of around NPR3960[61] (USD 39.6) per month. More than 90 per cent of the women from the Terai Dalit groups are engaged as agricultural labourers and 'owned' by the higher social class landlords (Bishwakarma, 2004, pp. 4–5). The discrimination against women in this caste is severe; women are excluded from participating in employment, education, decision-making processes and accessing property rights. Thus, creating employment options for these young

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[58] Nepal includes four of the Global 200 eco-regions—critical landscapes of international biological importance—and ranks 25th in biodiversity with about 118 ecosystems, 75 vegetation types and 35 forest types.

[59] The density is as low as 48 km per square kilometers (WB, 2012, pp. 4-5).

[60] The Mushar are one of the most impoverished social groups, mostly involved in earthwork like tillage, farming, digging wells

[61] This has been calculated at the rate of 100= USD $1, as there is no mention of the amount in NPR.

women leads to the bringing about of social change that not only provides hope for the young people to gain employment but also creates optimism for the social group that has been marginalised by the state for decades because of the social mechanism which considers them to be 'untouchables'. Therefore, the creation and provision of professional job opportunities to young men and women belonging to this group generate high social value in the family and the broader society.

Similarly, *Paduma Enterprises* focusses on helping home-based workers transition from the informal to the formal employment market. Although home-based workers are mostly adult females, the absence of job options and the ready access to easy-to-learn handcrafts from mothers at home have increased the engagement of young women in the sector of home-based workers. Home-based workers, in general, are categorised as belonging to one of the poorest strata of the population, living in isolated geographical areas and often working in unsafe conditions (Doane, 2007). The organisation noted that those who are not able to pursue formal education beyond grade ten or high school often joined the home-based workers' workforce. These transitions also occur during the school term break, especially after tenth grade, in urban areas such as Kathmandu. The Team leader shared his experiences as follows:

> …talking about the children of the members, most of the kids join the organisations after finishing grade 10 or grade 12 level of formal education. These groups have become members and are taking training and earning income. We have found these young people are fast learners and are supporting their family from their earning as well. But they tend to move on quickly, mostly after two years. (Team Leader, *Paduma Enterprises*)

Maitreya Enterprises aims to address the market failures of the small and micro-enterprise sector in Nepal. The failure of development interventions in this sector is revealed through data indicating that small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) account for 96 per cent of the total industrial establishments, with the sector generating approximately 83 per cent of the total employment \in Nepal. The sector also contributes 9 per cent to the overall GDP in the country (Paudel, 2006, p. 5). The poor quality of local products has been identified as one of the factors in the reduction of the competitiveness of goods produced by these micro-entrepreneurs (Pandey, 2004), hampering the ability of entrepreneurs to sell their goods beyond local markets. A large number of these enterprises are informal and

unregulated, and therefore are unable to utilise the opportunities available through linkages to proper marketing channels. SMEs are also constrained by a lack of value-addition,[62] technology, and product supply capacity, as well as by the absence of a supportive policy and legal framework (FAO, 2009).

The description of the five organisations shows the diversity and heterogeneity of socially-oriented enterprising organisations. All these organisations are fulfilling their respective social purposes, and thus can be viewed as contributing to a social mission (Defourny & Nyssens, 2012, 2016; Kerlin, 2006). The literature review revealed that the managers of these kinds of organisations are expected to possess the additional qualities of being innovative and able to attract resources (such as capital, labour, equipment; Dees, 1998); being skilled in networking (Evers & Laville, 2004); driven by vision, and being highly motivated. It is assumed that these skills are required to start a business (Haugh, 2005); and that such individuals have the ability to find solutions to social problems (Hockerts, 2006; Hynes, 2009); create social values; and manage their available resources (Hynes, 2009).

Role of social leaders[63]

Similar to social entrepreneurs, the social leaders are found to be engaged in delivering social changes that are different from the business activities which generate changes in the lives of participants. These leaders are happy to align themselves more with the social activities than the entrepreneurial activities, although they act by respecting market principles in following business planning and making a profit. Therefore, the term 'social leaders' is being used in the present research. Collier and Esteban (2000) describe these leaders as acting in response to "changing environmental and technological conditions, which requires entrepreneurial decision-making across the organisation, managerial autonomy, and the freedom to take risks and make mistakes" (Collier & Esteban, 2000, p. 207).

The findings reveal that there are two categories of social leaders who are directing the activities of these organisations. Social leaders in the first category began their work from a basis of the personal belief of how social change can be achieved. The personal conviction

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[62] 'Value-adding' is the process of changing a product from its original, or intended state, to being more valuable by way of re-design, extensive marketing etc.

[63] Although the term 'social leader' is less commonly used within the discussion of social enterprises when compared to 'social entrepreneurs', the term social leaders, here, aligns with the term 'systemic leadership' that requires that the leaders of non-profit organisations consider taking up challenges to create social change within given uncertainties (Thompson, 2008).

of these social leaders about making a contribution to society led to their engagement in the establishment of an organisation that could transform their imagination and belief into reality. Social leaders from *Maitreya Enterprises,* the *Dipankar Organisation* and the *Mangala Services* are all found to take the lead in translating their ideas, imagination, and beliefs into the establishment of an organisation and in embedding their values as foundations of the organisation. Despite seeing a great need, these leaders did not have any initial capital of their own to start addressing social issues and thus were required to generate resources.

In contrast to the social leaders of groups discussed above, the other two organisations, *Gautama Women's Group* and *Paduma Enterprises* are led by professionals who had academic backgrounds to support their work. These team leaders had developed an understanding of market demands and products, the need to strengthen relationships with stakeholders and the importance of social media. Apart from their academic backgrounds, they also had a personal belief in what and how they could contribute to social causes such as the issues and concerns of vulnerable young women and home-based workers. The personal convictions of the team leaders are compatible with the social objectives of the organisation. The findings reveal that all the aims and objectives aligned with the leaders' personal experiences, imagination and beliefs about what would make a difference in society.

Believing in the social objectives of the organisation is of paramount importance for these leaders, as it is such beliefs and vision that motivated income generation, in contrast to the beliefs and vision of business managers producing social change using the economic values of money (Linstead & Hytti, 2005). In an ordinary business situation, all five of these organisations could have simply focussed on generating income and allocating some of the proceeds to social work.

The entrepreneurial thinking and conceptualisation skills of these social leaders are recognised as key factors in making a difference in the lives of people by serving as change agents (Chell et al., 2016; Dees, 1998; Defourny & Nyssens, 2010a). Consistent with various studies, the social entrepreneurs as change agents and leaders of these organisations (Dees, 1998; Galvin & Iannotti, 2015) are found to play a critical role through engagement and strategy development, and undertaking a high level of accountability to the social cause (Chell et al., 2016). The following section examines the entrepreneurial activities, led by the social leaders, as different strategies used by the organisations to fulfil the social as well as economic objectives of the organisations.

Resources generation by the organisation

The resource generation strategy of each organisation triggered the ability to generate various assets. Income is one of the main types of resources generated by the organisation and a primary source of income for all the five organisations is the sale of products or services. Together with the trading and sales of services, the organisations also earned income from other sources of income such as the public bidding system,[64] membership fees, and donor funding and corporate sources of funding. This diversity of income sources demonstrates the inclination towards the social economy model of social enterprises. Table 8 below provides a summary of the sources of income generated by the five organisations.

Table 8

Sources of income

Organisation	Legal framework	Sources of income
Gautama Women's Group	A unit within the NGO framework	Corporate funding Donor funding Sales of the goods
Mangala Services	NGO Private Limited	Public bidding Private sales of the training services based on incentives
Dipankar Organisation	NGO Microfinance license holder	Microfinance activities Development projects
Paduma Enterprises	NGO	Membership fees Sales of the goods Private sales of the training services
Maitreya Enterprises	**The company not distributing profit Private Limited**	**Trading**

Note. Information based on the interviews conducted by the researcher i with five organisations in Nepal, 2015.

Generating physical assets and human resource capital

In addition to their financial assets, the organisations also generated and accumulated physical assets, including: office buildings; buildings for the production of goods such as

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[64] The public bidding system is a procurement system whereby the organisations compete with other organisations providing similar services in terms of its quality, cost and benefits. This process looks for the best services at the lowest possible prices.

factory space; technical equipment; and the logistical equipment required to manage the organisations' activities. Whilst the acquisition of physical assets through the purchase of land and buildings is said to be a common practice (Hafeez, Zhang, & Malak, 2002, p. 30), the capacity to buy these assets differed among the five organisations. Only two of the five organisations had their own office space, while the others rented their premises. All organisations built the capacity of their staff to adapt to the private sector-like business activities growing within the organisation. The staff is provided either with business training or opportunities to learn business skills.

The investments in building staff capacity are very strategic for the transition of not-for-profit organisations to operate within a business-like model. The majority of the organisations indicated that they are investing in staff capacity-building and relayed their expectation to the staff to contribute to the gearing of the organisation towards a business organisation.

Building networks and social capital

Together with the economic, physical and human resource capital, the organisations also built social capital. Within studies of social enterprises, social capital is conceptualised as social and personal networks, and the ability to connect people (Chell, 2007) or as networks with other organisations (Diochon & Anderson, 2009). Thus, social capital is considered a valuable resource to help connect people, to build a customer base through interaction and to realise different opportunities (Chell, 2007). The findings across the five organisations revealed that social capital is built with the board members, buyers, suppliers, clients, producers, corporate houses, donor agencies and graduate trainees.

Social capital is achieved by diversifying membership of the board of governance. The board included a range of diverse groups such as social leaders, business representatives, marketing experts, technical experts, entrepreneurs and development professionals. The value added to the organisations through network relationships is described below.

Gautama Women's Group summarised the benefits of having diversity in its board members as: (a) learning from the business experiences of the board members; (b) technical input in designing the products; (c) marketing of the business through branding, using print and digital media; (d) funding mobilisation; and (e) providing leadership, advocacy, networking and coordination. These relationships with different categories of stakeholders and institutions are described by Portes and Vickstrom (2015, p. 462) as a "network of

relationship". These linkages are described by *Gautama* as developing a sense of "trust" (see also Portes and Vickstrom, 2015, p. 462). By building a strong relationship with stakeholders and board members, the organisation is seen to attain cognitive as well as moral legitimacy (Deephouse & Suchman, 2008). This kind of network of institutional support has been considered very important to organisational sustainability (Dart, 2004; Hockerts, 2006; Poon, 2011).

 Maitreya Enterprises built a network of specialists and experienced trainers to ensure the quality delivery of services and training. These networks provided a good support mechanism to develop a pool of effective trainers and resource persons to be used during the training delivery. This resource base is mentioned as being very useful not only for delivering quality training but also for linking the skilled graduates to local jobs. In this case, a sense of reciprocity developed, in which each party benefited from the trustworthiness arising from the social network between the organisation and individuals. This relationship can be viewed as changing from a 'bridging' form of capital[65] to a kind of relationship having investment values. Conceptually, social capital which has an investment value focuses on taking advantage of the social capital for a return (Li, 2015, p. 5).

 Maitreya Enterprises also had a strong relationship with its producers—goodwill and trust being key characteristics. The collaborative approach to working with groups provided an opportunity to develop mutual relationships and create reciprocity whereby individuals are provided with capacity-building opportunities. In return, the organisation guaranteed to buy back all the goods produced by these groups or individuals.

 . In this process, the relationship based on goodwill is found to change to a relationship that generates monetary values. The gradual change in relationship is found to shift from a network of relationship (Portes, 2000) to one that is social and has economic value (Lin, Cook, & Burt, 2001). Table 9 provides a summary of the different types of social capital developed by organisations with different stakeholders.

Table 9

Social benefit created by the organisations

Organisation	Stakeholders' representation on the board	Social benefit made by the organisation

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[65] This refers to a relational concept of social capital in which groups share, exchange information, and coordinate the actions of common interest.

Gautama Women's Group	Business house representatives Beneficiaries (members) Marketing experts	Business experiences, business expertise in management Funding Marketing of the product
Mangala Services	Development workers (as investors) CEO	Funding, marketing of the products, Inputs on business development
Dipankar Organisation	CEO Members of the same community	Marketing of the business through branding, using print and digital media
Paduma Enterprises	Social leaders Entrepreneurs Technical experts	Technical inputs in designing the products Marketing of the product
Maitreya Enterprises	Entrepreneurs Social leaders A representative from the parent organisation	Leadership, advocacy, networking, coordination

Note: Information based on interviews conducted by the researcher with five organisations in Nepal, 2015.

Social innovation: Balancing the social and economic objectives

Social innovation-related activities are the fourth driver of change to uncover factors contributing to social change. Within social entrepreneurship, social innovation is a critical component of how social enterprises manage and respond to the changing environment. Social innovation-related activities are mostly described as processes, products and technical innovations (Cunliffe, 2008), "building local capability, disseminating a package and building a movement" for social change (Alvord et al., 2004, p. 24). However, the findings reveal that social innovation-related activities are expressed in various forms.

The empirical evidence reveals that the organisations *Maitreya, Dipankar* and *Paduma* have established separate units for social and economic activities, appointing managers to take care of each section. The manager of *Paduma Enterprises* maintained that working with two separate units was helpful as it avoided confusion between social and economic objectives as these goals are sometimes in conflict with each other. The two managers were required to negotiate with each other to support the organisations' goals. For example, in the case of *Paduma Enterprises*, the economic unit always sought to generate an income, whereas the social unit aspired to mentor home-based workers transit to a formal market. After assisting these highly skilled workers to transition to the market, the economic unit needed to increase investment in training another group of home-based workers to

continue the production of goods. In such cases, the social objectives took priority over the economic objective, but economic goals were still able to be met. This is further described:

> There is a continuous conflict if a single unit also performs both the social and economic development activities. For this purpose, we have split these two functions to be led by separate managers. The social manager looks after the social component and takes care of members' benefit. The business manager looks after the economic component and takes care of maximising the profit and cannot be lenient and compromising. However, we want to make sure that there is a right kind of balance between social and economic objectives. When the business manager is put under pressure by the social development manager, they negotiate and arrange conditions to ensure the benefit of the HBW beneficiaries. (Team Leader)

In contrast to the organisations discussed above, *Maitreya Enterprises* did not have a separate unit to lead social and economic objectives; instead, it based its operation on a revenue-based business model and mobilised young school graduates to volunteer in identifying social problems, generating new ideas and finding solutions that matched the organisation's goal of generating green jobs.[66] These young men and women were also provided with the opportunity to lead the implementation of the project with support from the *pro bono* volunteers and other members helping to mobilise the funding.

Mangala also managed their social and economic objectives by participating in an outcome-based financing modality, where the payments were done based on outcomes[67] achieved. The outcome cost defined by the organisation consisted of a total of skills-training costs, costs of placement into the job and ensuring a minimum income for the participants. Just ensuring employment was not adequate. The organisation needed to provide evidence of participants making a minimum income of NPR4, 600 (USD46) per month for at least six months after the completion of the training if that individual is working in the urban centres of Nepal.[68] Providing evidence of the participants making such an income would guarantee additional incentives. Moreover, the higher incentive was received by the organisation for

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[66] Green jobs are jobs which are also help "to protect environment or conserve the natural resources"(Renner, Sweeney, Kubit, & Mastny, 2008, p. 10).

[67] The definition of 'outcome' used by the organisation is a combination of two results, i.e. job placement and defined income guaranteed as income for the participants.

[68] There is separate income amount defined for rural and overseas work areas.

successfully achieving the employment outcomes for disadvantaged groups such as Dalits, compared to those belonging to another social caste. Failure to put the trained graduates into employment meant losing incentives and sometimes even losing the pre-invested cost of providing training. Thus, in an outcome-based financing modality, the organisation could end up receiving only the training cost if they failed to guarantee employment, and thus no profit.

The organisation today offers various types of skills-training at a unit cost price. For example, the cost of training a young person in a vocational education Level One training (390 hours) is offered at an average cost of NPR20,000–25,000 (USD200–250) with a guarantee of minimum 80 per cent success rate of employment. Depending on the geographical area, the difficulty of target groups and training types, the cost variations are negotiable. Additionally, the organisation also offers flexibility to ensure employment to selected target groups as per the interests of the donors or the sponsors. For example, donors or sponsors can define the category of disadvantaged groups to whom they want to provide funding and agree on different outcome amounts for the services.

The social innovation activities of *Dipankar* are related to the extension of community development activities in addition to the core business of the microfinance activities. The community development activities are provided in the following areas: basic health care; education for children; microfinance loan products around low-cost housing; loan products for self-employment for the adult children of the microfinance clients; higher education loan products; and renewable energy loan products, together with regular saving and credit loan products. The health and education services are made affordable by providing services at a rate similar to that of the public hospital. For example, a basic health check-up would be available for NPR 20. The quality of such services is ensured by qualified medical practitioners offering their time voluntarily or at a lower service rate.

Market orientation

Market orientation is another driver of change. This fifth strategy of becoming market-oriented is achieved by aligning the products and services to the needs of the market or the participants in order to address the challenge of skills-mismatch. This is a challenge that occurs when an educational or training program is delivered without considering the needs of the employer or the market. In the absence of such consideration, this mismatch can further disadvantage young men and women in entering the job market (Assaad & Levison, 2013; Betchoo, 2013; ILO, 2013a, p. 113). This idea of aligning the products and services to the client or market demonstrates the market orientation of social enterprises becoming more

efficient and effective through commercial activities (Nicholls, 2010; Nicholls & Cho, 2006), becoming financially sustainable (Harding, 2004; Haugh, 2005), and using the resources efficiently and effectively (Haugh, 2005).

The five organisations used different strategies to strengthen their product portfolio. These included: finding a market gap and aligning with the market need; getting regular feedback from clients; upgrading the skills of the participants; and developing products to respond to the needs of the market. The development of in-demand services and products served as a basis for the enterprise to become more market-competitive. The strategy of all five organisations is presented as a three-step capacity-building activity, which is outlined in the following sections.

Preparing for the capacity-building activities

The organisation prepared itself for the capacity-building process through a series of in-house undertakings, such as: market research; product development; aligning the products and services as per market needs, and assessing the skills gap in order to identify the skills needs. However, activities designed to align with the market need differed in each of the five cases.

Market research and product development

The market research process carried out was unique to each of the five organisations. This is an ongoing activity undertaken to align the organisation's products and services to market needs, to upgrade its services and products and to continue to develop new products as per the client need or market demand. Four of the five organisations had a dedicated team for continuous involvement in market research and product development. Organisations such as *Maitreya Enterprises, Gautama Women's Group* and *Paduma Enterprises* are involved in developing new products such as paper, wood and metal crafts, and natural resource-based products. The ability to diversify the same product for different markets—national and international—is a quality that has helped these organisations to progress. The continuous effort put in by *Maitreya* is described as follows:

> It is an ongoing effort because adapting the products to the market demands
> are some of the ongoing activities we use to respond to the market needs. We
> diversify the same product, making it suitable for a different market—national
> and international. (Manager, *Maitreya Enterprises*)

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In contrast to these products, the *Dipankar Organisation* developed loan products that would address the needs of poor clients so that they remained motivated to work with the organisation. Finding mechanisms to help poor farmers by establishing a seed bank[69] is such an example. Similarly, *Mangala Services* maintained its rigour in developing skills-training packages which aligned with the market needs by using a participatory tool called Rapid Market Assessment (RMA). This tool engaged the major stakeholders in identifying the labour demand and supply status, skills-gaps, availability of the local resources and market infrastructures, in a given geographical area. Young people, traders, business people, raw material suppliers, social workers, entrepreneurs and school teachers were those mainly involved in performing these tasks. As noted by Johnson & Wilson (2000) and Morgan (2016), activities involving the prospective clients or the beneficiaries in project design are considered to be sustainable development practice.

After identifying potential market needs and tentative absorption capacity, *Mangala* determined the number of people who could be trained for that market area. By developing training packages based on RMA findings, the organisation met the market demand and also ensured internal quality control mechanisms for a high employment outcome result. Their ability to maintain an employment outcome of 70–80 per cent established them as one of the most notable organisations in the sector. These findings from the market research component of the organisation not only focus on the innovation or production of new products but also identified skills-gaps among the young people. Table 10 below provides a summary of market exploration activities by the five organisations.

Table 10

Market exploration process

Organisations	Market exploration processes
Gautama Women's Group	Continuous involvement in finding environment-friendly solutions in response to the market, environment, and various other social problems targeting different client groups; Alignment with the market demands in meeting the quantity and quality of the products.
Mangala Services	Rapid Market Assessment, a participatory approach to finding skills demand at the local level; Incorporating skills demands from potential employers, skills needs to use the local resources.

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[69] This refers to the community practice of conserving local seeds and make seeds accessible to farmers.

Dipankar Organisation	Incorporation of feedback on staff performance; Continuous exploration to find the "loan products to address the needs of the clients"; Exploration of new areas of community support.
Paduma Enterprises	The categorisation of the skills of each member into Levels A, B, and C; Enhancing the skills of each member to the highest level; Ensuring the quality of the products.
Maitreya Enterprises	**Skills need assessment of market demand, market research, and product development;** **Requests and feedback from the buyers;** **Ensuring the quality of the products.**

Note. Information based on interviews conducted by the researcher with five organisations in Nepal, 2015.

These activities align with a recognised trait of social entrepreneurs, that is, to continuously explore new opportunities for growth and development (Drucker, 1987). The resulting products and services are then linked to the producers' groups, entrepreneurs or the recipients of the skills-training by providing skills-training tailored to the needs of the target groups (customised services) as well as that of the potential employers.

This skills-training and capacity-building approach are different from the social entrepreneurs or organisations mobilising resources to become competitive. The capacity-building approach is about developing effective ways to impart knowledge, skills and work experience among the participants to increase the young people's chances of getting into the employment market.

Capacity-building activities—Providing market-oriented skills to the target group

In implementing skills-training packages, all of the five organisations aimed to increase the employability of the target group. The capacity-building activities of each of the organisations to prepare young people for job readiness is summarised in Table 11.

Table 11

Employability approach

Organisations	Market exploration processes
Gautama Women's Group	Identification of the right target groups; Assessment of skills-gaps; Equal payment, irrespective of skills; Awareness of gender empowerment; Acquisition of basic numeracy and literacy in English.

Mangala Services	Assessment of market needs; Identification of skills gap; Assessment of labour supply and demand; Addressing skills demand in the market through vocational training; Creation of personal and business awareness by the production of additional support packages; Provision of on-the-job training.
Dipankar Organisation	Creation of jobs for more young people by expanding the core business of microfinance; Provision of paid internship for six months basic training.
Paduma Enterprises	Identification of target groups with defined criteria that require individuals to possess minimum skills in specific trades/occupations and who are learning to some extent; Assessment of skills gap; Upgrading of skills as per skills gap assessment to reach Grade A; Awareness of gender empowerment and leadership skills.
Maitreya Enterprises	**Creation of jobs; Market-oriented skills-training; Technical inputs; Technological inputs; Awareness training; Designing/refinement; Pre-investment, if needed.**

Note. Information based on interviews conducted by the researcher with five organisations in Nepal, 2015.

Employability has been defined as skills, knowledge, and competencies that are helpful in an individual's ability to obtain and retain a job. Discussion of employability here includes the combination of a broad range of skills such as "…broad-based education and training, basic and portable high-level skills including teamwork, problem-solving, information and communication technology (ICT), communication and language skills" (Freedman, 2008, p. 2). Organisations like *Maitreya Enterprises* and *Paduma Enterprises* designed customised packages that suited the needs of the target groups as well as the interests of the organisation.

For both of these organisations, capacity-building is an ongoing process. The only limitations imposed by the organisations were that the members were not allowed to change their work sector. The technical training was also followed by additional training such as resource management and product development, which involved training in the better management of resources such as raw materials. The organisations were also required to address the following areas: the market-related challenges of informal economies such as micro-enterprises, home-based enterprises and service sector activities (Adhikary, 2005);

challenges such as low literacy and poverty (Adhikary, 2005); a mismatch between jobs and the training provided (ADB, 2015, p. 36; Serrière, 2014, p. 34); and a low level of bargaining power where the inability to negotiate on the prices of services increases the likelihood of earning a low income. The challenge of creating capacity-building activities was even more complex for young men and women who were attempting to enter into a job market for the first time (Assaad & Levison, 2013). Moreover, the context of a developing country cannot be discussed without considering the complex relationship between the "informal market and the local power structures," controlled by the elites of the "power rich people" (Hackett, 2010, p. 218).

Additionally, training in gender awareness, leadership, and female empowerment is also provided to the members of the organisations like *Maitreya Enterprises* and *Paduma Enterprises*. The immediate guardians of young girls and husbands of married women were involved during training in gender sensitisation. The intended result of these joint efforts is to create a supportive environment for the young women. Bushell (2008) argues that enterprises led by women in Nepal are hindered by the prevailing control of men in business activities as well as in various decision-making processes. She borrows the term "surrogate entrepreneurship" from Ganesan (2003) to explain the situation of women entrepreneurs in Nepal (Bushell, 2008, p. 552). Many activities for a woman, such as exposure visits and training outside of the organisation, are not possible within a dominant patriarchal society without the permission of the male guardians. Specifically, gender awareness training programs can be viewed as an organisation's attempt to increase the confidence of young women in pursuing the young women's social and economic empowerment process.

For *Paduma Enterprises*, internship and on-the-job training formed the other main capacity-building activity for participants. The findings revealed that internships and apprenticeships were provided by the organisation for a period of between one and six months. In doing so, participants were able to gain valuable work experience—an approach which has been proven to increase the employability of people from marginal groups and individuals (ILO, 2015b, p. 66; Skattebol et al., 2015).

Mangala Services implemented training courses by aligning them with either the market needs or clients' needs. These training courses involved classroom sessions and practice sessions. On-the-job training was also part of the training course. Together with technical training and internships, the organisation also provided inputs such as life skills and business skills. One of the participants shared her experiences as follows:

Life skills are very helpful as I learned many things which are taboo in our society like menstruation, sanitation, and hygiene. I also learned about reproductive health issues, HIV/AIDS, and family planning, and some sessions on managing stress are also very helpful. I am now using sanitary pads when before I used cotton cloths instead, and now I am aware of the importance of being clean and keeping myself sanitised during my menstrual period. (Ms Ansari)

Mangala Services employed a local trainer who spoke the local dialects in order to communicate more effectively with the target groups. *Mangala* also emphasised flexibility in the timing of training. This timing flexibility proved important for young people to enable them to accommodate other obligations such as attending school and college classes, taking up extra jobs, undertaking household duties and carrying out family responsibilities. The flexibility of timing was also welcomed in geographical locations which suffered from extreme heat during the daytime in summer.

For those participants aiming to be self-employed or starting micro- or small enterprises, assistance in developing business skills was offered. Business support ranged from simple numeracy and account-keeping to managing customer relations. In some cases, participants were linked with financial service providers in accessing loans, whereas other organisations provided knowledge of business planning, business mentoring and counselling as part of the entrepreneurship-building process for the target groups. These skills are known to be effective as a means of generating self-employment or as a way to start a small business (Daskalaki, Hjorth, & Mair, 2015; Emerson, 2003).

Follow-up support for enhancing the capacity of the individual young people

Several organisations provided follow-up support as a part of capacity-enhancement activities. *Mangala,* for instance, provided such support for at least six months after completion of skills-training, ensuring participants were able to apply some of the practical lessons learned during the skills-training and could gain more knowledge about new designs and new tools.

Paduma Enterprises provided skills-upgrading continuously until the members reached Category A, the highest benchmark set by the organisation as an indicator of readiness to transit to the formal market. This continuous support mechanism ensured the highest level of skills, knowledge and work experience so that individuals were confident

enough to transition to the open market. Similarly, *Maitreya Enterprises* and *Gautama Women's Group* provided customized skills packages as per the specific skills needs of the women's groups.

This competence and knowledge development activities are important and influential in improving individual capabilities, as these traits increase chances of securing better jobs (Sen, 1999). It is particularly important for organisations to focus on upgrading the skills and qualifications of young people. The enhanced sets of capacities differ from the entry-level skills that do not respond to market needs (Adams, 2012).

These findings from the five case studies reveal that enhancing the capacity of young people to participate in the market is a combination of creating employability, improving the market competency of individuals, skills-training, and follow-up support. Following Sen (1999), these approaches to capability-enhancement provide confidence to the participants in respect of a sense of wellbeing, the capacity to influence social change, and economic upliftment, thus influencing positive change in the poverty conditions (Sen, 1999). When related to young people, the strategy of such market-oriented skills provides them with skills sets which can improve their ability to meet various needs. The impacts in the lives of young people, resulting from the interplay of different strategies, together with the market-oriented and capacity-building initiatives, are presented in the next chapter.

Entrepreneurial marketing

In addition to providing market-oriented skills-training, the organisations also developed their own marketing strategies using the underlying idea of markets and entrepreneurship. The term 'marketing capabilities' implies that social enterprises which are developing marketing capabilities are able to become more market-driven through commercial practices (Liu & Ko, 2012). The marketing strategies among the case study organisations not only followed commercial approaches to selling the products and services but also provided the stakeholders with insight into the creativity and innovativeness of the organisation's attempt to address social problems. In these cases, the products and services provided are given extra meaning, revealing the values added by the disadvantaged groups or individuals. This kind of approach applied only to *Gautama* and *Maitreya.*

Gautama had a distinct marketing strategy, which went beyond simply the sale of bags. The organisation explained that bag-making enabled the creation of a series of employment activities in addition to addressing an environmental problem. The *Gautama* team marketed the cotton bags produced by the young women firstly by promoting the social

cause behind the cotton bags and then by explaining the reasons people should buy their products. The marketing of the bag products also used advocacy and campaigns as strategies to create awareness about social causes while also raising awareness about environmental problems. The advocacy group, formed within the business unit, also took to campaigning for the ban on plastic bags in the valley. *Gautama* also used product branding, including a slogan and logos, to represent and reinforce the message of the social and environmental causes and to strengthen their advocacy and campaign activities. Aided by celebrities, the campaign became even more popular. These promotional activities are vastly different from the marketing of conventional business organisations such as private companies (Dholakia & Dholakia, 2007). Rather, this marketing approach, which seeks to provide better opportunities for its employees and is driven by its social enterprise origins, is described by Shaw (2004, p. 195) as 'entrepreneurial marketing'.

Maitreya Enterprises focused on continuous business growth and the meeting of sales targets, maintenance of the supply chain and improvement in the quality and quantity of products. Business growth was maintained by the promotion of the products in international, national and local markets. By ensuring the quality of the goods and services, the organisation aimed to improve the trust relationship among the stakeholders. The organisation shared their experiences as follows:

> The quality of the products increased trust among the buyers and suppliers,
> helping in increasing client numbers internationally and expanding the
> business portfolio locally. (Manager, *Maitreya Enterprises*)

Financial self-sufficiency

Financial self-sufficiency is identified as the sixth driver in the social change process. The findings reveal that the organisations depend on various sources of income. These sources of income contribute to the financial sustainability of the organisation and are also linked to the sustainability of their social activities (Popoviciu & Popoviciu, 2011). The notion of organisations becoming financially sustainable in order to continue their social mission is seen as moving beyond the grant-dependent way of development work towards becoming financially independent. However, following Boschee (2001), organisations that are financially sustainable do not necessarily become self-sufficient. According to Boschee (2001), financial sustainability can be achieved by mobilising resources from different

sources; but nevertheless, organisations also need to have their own source of income to be financially self-sufficient.

The sustainability of the financial resources is attained by: (a) reinvesting the profit into the organisation; (b) not distributing the benefits; (c) diversifying the sources of income, and (d) institutionalising the activities. The findings reveal that four of the five organisations reinvested their revenue to fulfil their social objectives. *Maitreya Enterprises* provided 40 per cent of net profit to the NGO activity of its parent organisation and used 60 per cent of its income for program expansion and operation. *Dipankar Organisation* spent 40 per cent of its net income on the microfinance activity as capital investment and 60 per cent for undertaking operation and community development activities. *Paduma Enterprises* invested all its profit into the program. However, *Mangala* did not provide clear answers about reinvestment percentages. The organisation advised that the profit was used for cross-financing the activities. For example, surplus from an NGO legal entity was invested into a private company and a surplus from an NGO was invested into a private form of organisation. A summary of the investment pattern is shown in Table 12.

Table 12

Reinvestment percentages of the organisations

Name of the organisation	Reinvestment percentage
Maitreya Enterprises	40 per cent to parent organisation; 60 per cent operational and program.
Mangala Services	Followed a cross-financing modality. Surplus from the private form of organisation is invested into the NGO and vice versa. However, the percentage of investment is not clear.
Dipankar Organisation	40 per cent on community development; 60 per cent in capital generation.
Paduma Enterprises	Profit not distributed; All profit for program operation and expansion.
Gautama Women's Group	**All profit in operation and program expansion.**

Note. Information based on interviews conducted by the researcher with five organisations in Nepal, 2015.

Gautama Women's Group generated income by selling goods, mobilising funds from development aid and donations from corporate houses. The revenue-based model of the organisation had clear business targets. The business unit operated as a fully decentralised

unit with the authority to design, innovate, pursue new opportunities, continue employing innovative ways to produce goods, and adapt to the new challenges in the market by diversifying its products.

Mangala Services followed a cross-subsidy model; the profit from one entity was used to fund the other. Although it is not clear if incentive-based financing reduced operational costs, the organisation's representative indicated that it had no other option to generate the revenue other than to bid on proposals and negotiate with partners on various outcome indicators such as employment and earnings generated per unit cost of investment. Thus, by increasing its own source of revenue, the organisation attempted to move beyond the culture of donor-dependence to become self-sufficient.

Policy changes

Together with all other strategies previously described, the case study organisations also made policy changes that helped them use the resources according to priority needs. For example, capacity-building through training and exposure, investment in research and product development, and increasing staff efficiency helped to equip the organisation to respond to the changes in the internal and external market environment. Similarly, changes in organisational policy to prioritise young people without experience provided an opportunity for those young people to enter the job market. Other internal policy changes that allowed young people to join a volunteer platform and exhibit leadership skills provided opportunities for young leaders to envision creative ideas about innovative sustainable products that could serve as a solution to social challenges as well as environmental ones.

Generating different job types

A wide variety of employment was generated by the case study organisations, ranging from transitional to professional jobs, self-employment and socialisation work. Thus the approach to creating jobs and employment is a combination of the following: improving employability through the acquisition of technical skills; training in entrepreneurship skills to enable self-employment; training in life skills; training in business skills; and creation of financial linkages for accessing credit and buy-back guarantees. Traits including an openness to learning, to gaining new experiences, to using new information technology, and to increasing education have been noted as being important for developing an entrepreneurship mindset, together with a personal commitment on behalf of the young people (Dioneo-

Adetayo, 2006). Table 13 summarises some of the jobs generated by each of the case study organisations.

Table 13

Summary of jobs generated by the organisations

Organisations	Description of jobs generated
Maitreya Enterprises	1,000 (approx.) entrepreneurs from more than 50 external producers' groups supplied products to *Maitreya Enterprises*; *Maitreya Enterprises* provided regular jobs to 130 staff (including internal production and staff) of whom about 60 per cent were women under formal employment contracts.
Mangala Services	*Mangala* trained approximately 600–700 young people per year. The monitoring and progress report data revealed an employment outcome of 80 per cent over more than five years. This evidence means that 80 young people out of 100 were trained and employed for at least six months after the completion of the skills-training with a minimum income of NPR 4,600 guaranteed. Sixty per cent of the participants were women, and 30 per cent were belonging to the disadvantaged category defined based on a list of caste identified by the government of Nepal.
Dipankar Organisation	Approximately 500 field staff jobs were created locally. Thus the social objective of job creation involved a combination of activities to address market failures and state failures.
Paduma Enterprises	The organisation benefited 2,140 members by June 2015. Approximately 250 micro-enterprises were established by the women who had made their transition to the formal job market.
Gautama Women's Group	*Gautama* employed a small group of about ten women who were engaged in bag production; about 60 women were subcontracted to the same job. About ten people were engaged in PET bottle recycling, and an additional 180 women were linked to a potential employer (as of June 2015) for different domestic and factory-based work.

Note. Information based on interviews conducted by the researcher with five organisations in Nepal, 2015.

Connecting young people to employment is the result of a series of activities such as providing market-compliant capacity-building skills, additional life and business skills, and follow-up support. However, the experiences of the social leaders directing the organisations revealed that the understanding and expectations of young people were different. Moreover, all of the five organisations held the view that the definition of a job is changing in Nepal, especially among the young people:

> The changing definition of 'job' symbolises social status in our society. Young
> people hesitate to take up unskilled and labour-intensive jobs in the country

but are willing to take up any jobs out of the country. Peer pressure, increasing family expectations due to media (TV, radio) and cultural practices have also put pressure on young people to find a well-earning job. Out-migration has been an easy answer to all of these resulting in the drain of the productive age group out of the country. (Manager, *Dipankar Organisation*)

Traditionally, young people look down upon work such as sewing and tailoring. Culturally, these jobs are linked to low-caste social groups and thus are understood to be a job done by someone with low social status. This is in contrast to students in fashion design courses and the fashion industry who consider themselves as progressive and take pride in mentioning that they are learning these skills. This mindset has affected not only the youth of Nepal but also the elderly and the senior members of the family who do not believe that sewing and tailoring would make a decent income for the future. Senior family members tend to recommend jobs in marketing, sales or any type of office work as being suitable.

These findings concerning the changing notion of employment reveal inconsistencies in how work is understood and defined in the context of contemporary Nepal, where the choice of employment is limited. These current expectations of Nepali young people regarding employment do not seem to match the reality of the increasingly fragmented nature of work (Bright & Pryor, 2011, p. 150). Work such as that involving flexible contract jobs, part-time, temporary jobs, self-employment, freelancing, and sub-contracting, are emerging aspects of the nature of work in Western countries (Dex & McCulloch, 2016) and are on the rise in Nepal as well.

Irrespective of all these concerns, the representatives of organisations participating in the interview process also agreed that young people were generally efficient and quick learners. For this reason, the organisations expressed their interest in continuing to include more young people in their plans and programs.

Summary and conclusion

This chapter presented a description and a cross-case analysis of five case study organisations. The case study descriptions were used to identify seven drivers of change: (1) the social objective of the organisations; (2) the role of social leaders; (3) resource generation activities; (4) social innovation-related activities for balancing social and economic objectives; (5) market orientation; (6) financial sustainability; and (7) policy changes.

The seven drivers of change in an organisation differed across the organisations but the strategies of resource generation exhibited a common trend across all five of them. The analysis also showed that all of these resources were used to develop market competency by improving the quality of the product and services, improving the financial condition and capability of the staff, expanding the program by investing back into it and investing the resources that strengthened the product portfolio for a good financial return.

Social innovation as an act of balancing social and economic objectives, either by establishing separate units or by giving responsibility to designated individuals, also highlights the distinctive and innovative approach of social leaders in achieving the overall goals of the organisations. Likewise, the market orientation strategies contained a series of creative ways of finding solutions to the social, economic and market-related challenges. Engaging in activities like research and product development, aligning the product and services to the market needs, providing market-oriented skills and capacity-building inputs to the participants and creating ways of marketing the product, also demonstrated the growing market orientation of each of the organisations. These types of strategies were followed by the development of internal policies that facilitated the implementation of various program activities.

The internal policy changes were in turn found to be significant in assisting organisations to achieve their social and economic objectives. Some of the new policies such as: special targeting of disadvantaged groups; allocating more financial resources as an investment for the capacity-enhancement of target groups; resource allocation to market research and product development; and capacity-building of their own staff were critical to creating social and economic values both for the organisation as well as in the lives of the young people

Significantly, it is noted that the intensity of and approaches to the implementation of activities within these broad areas of work differed across all of the five organisations. Also evident was the mismatch between the expectations of young people and the job market about the concept of a 'job'. Future investigations into the changing nature of jobs in meeting the expectations of young people could explore further the situation in Nepal. The next chapter outlines the use and the effectiveness of these strategies in actually making differences in the lives of young people.

Chapter Six: Social enterprises' impact on young people

The previous chapter presented seven common strategies used by five social enterprise organisations in balancing their social, economic and market-related objectives. All organisations had similar objectives: being able to contribute to positive social change in disadvantaged people's lives, including disadvantaged young people. In this way, social enterprises take on a significant challenge, not only to generate income and employment but to work towards alleviating poverty. This, in turn, can have positive social effects at different levels of society, from the personal level to the local community, as well as at the regional level.

This chapter examines the effectiveness of the strategies used by the organisations in meeting their social and economic objectives. The discussion about the effectiveness and long-term impact of social enterprises uses a sociological perspective of social change that puts emphasis on leveraging the power of knowledge and skills and leveraging economic activities to bring social change (Mair et al., 2012).

In the literature about young people, other researchers have noted that measuring what matters to young people to make their journey of making a livelihood meaningful includes the following: an assessment of the positive experiences of young people (Sesma, Mannes, & Scales, 2013); development of personal skills and capacities (Benson et al., 2007b, p. 910); life satisfaction (Diener, 2000; ILO, 2015b, p. 52); psychological wellbeing (Ryff & Keyes, 1995); social relationships and networks (De Neve, Diener, Tay, & Xuereb, 2013, p. 3); the ability to overcome structural challenges;[70] and the ability to drive themselves in making their own decisions as free agents (Evans, 2002).

This chapter draws on this diverse literature and themes by critically examining the effectiveness and the impact of the case study organisations on the improvement in the livelihood of young people and their families. This chapter is based also on the notion that the social impact of social enterprises takes place on multiple levels such as personal, community and regional.

Firstly, on a personal level, access to social enterprises usually leads to increased income, increased capacity to buy assets, and increasing personal savings.

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[70] Structural challenges include: inputs from organisations at a national and local level; the effect of labor markets; and the influence of broad social characteristics such as gender, social class and ethnicity on the education-to-employment transition process as experienced by young people (Rudd & Evans, 1998, p. 2).

From this stems an array of positive social impacts including the economic empowerment of women from their improved access to income (Luttrell et al., 2009; Willis, 2011); social empowerment resulting from improving their status in the family and society (Sen, 2000); access to education (Bennell, 2000); an ability to cope with economic shocks[71] (MacDonald, Shildrick, & Blackman, 2013; Shephers et al., 2014); and better access to education, healthcare and food.

At a community level, the impact includes higher quality jobs indicated through higher productivity, increased skills and empowerment (Haugh & Talwar, 2016), resulting in a higher income across the community. This enables collective resilience to economic shocks that may occur and, subsequently, overall community cohesiveness.

At a regional level, the creation of jobs strengthens income and employment which, in turn, reduces pressure on the environment and natural resources and can potentially reduce outward migration.

It is beyond the scope of this chapter to look at the impact across these three levels. However, by drawing on the empirical data collected, the chapter will examine the impact which social enterprises have at the individual and household level on disadvantaged young people in Nepal. This discussion is concerned not only with what changes have occurred but also with establishing to what extent such changes can be sustained by attributing them to the interventions of social enterprises.

First, and most important, is evidence of the positive and negative effects on social enterprise participants and their immediate families. These include the impact on the following: income and obtaining assets; economic resilience through increasing savings; learning; attitude change and empowerment; and the creation and protection of livelihood/employment.

Individual impact

The findings across the five organisations reveal that the majority of the participants were earning incomes ranging from NPR6, 000–9,000 (USD60–90) per month, followed by salaried earnings around NPR10, 000–15,000 (USD100–150) per month. Income differed between male and females; self-employed females were earning approximately NPR15, 000–20,000 (USD150–200) and males were earning approximately NPR16, 000–30,000 (USD 160–300) per month. The differences in income between self-employed males and females

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[71] For young people, economic shock can also occur as a result of closure of local employment opportunities.

could be a result of occupation type and traditional values placed on those occupations. For example, several male respondents were involved in trades such as electrical motor repairs in contrast to females who were more typically employed in tailoring. This finding is reflective of the patterns of income among males and females in Nepal more generally (CBS, 2009, p. ii). Also, in the case of Nepal, the low-income situation and underemployment have led to a pattern of people leaving Nepal in search of jobs (Bhattarai, 2005; MoF, 2015).

Table 14

Summary of average earnings by the participants in Nepali Rupees (NPR)

Income type	Average earning (male)	Average earning (female)
Wage	NPR6000–9000 (USD60–90)	NPR6000–9000 (USD60–90)
Salaried	NPR10,000–25,000 (USD100–250)	NPR10,000–25,000 (USD100–150)
Self-employed	**NPR25,000–30,000 (USD250–300)**	**NPR15,000–20,000 (USD150–200)**

Note. Information based on interviews conducted by the researcher with young people in Nepal, 2015.

By comparing the income of interviewed participants with the national average household income per year in Nepal of NPR72,100 (USD721; (MoF, 2013, p. 2), the findings confirm that the wages of young men and women are on par with the national average income level.[72] This income level of NPR5000–6000 (USD50–60) just meets the poverty threshold of USD1.90 per day (NPC, 2016, p. 26). These findings indicate that 50 per cent of interviewees were on par with the poverty line. Thus with minimal income, youth poverty, also described as life-course poverty and integrational poverty (El Kayaly, 2012), is likely to continue, and people in this group remain vulnerable if any unintended life experiences occur such as illness, accidents or closure of local employment opportunities. The other 50 per cent of interviewees belonged to a comparatively higher income group. To examine an aspect of social and economic change in both of these groups, the ways in which participants' actions impacted their lives was investigated.

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[72] The average income per year has been calculated at NPR6000*12= NPR72, 000 (USD720 @ NPR100-USD1).

An examination of the relationship between the social enterprises and the empowerment of young people reveals that the organisations were using their financial, human and physical resources to build the capacity of the individuals and enable them to participate in the job market. The income improved the overall economic resources of the young people. How these economic resources were used by individuals in improving their living conditions revealed the agency dimension of young people and their pathways leading to the empowerment process (Kabeer, 1999) generated by gaining greater financial independence. Agency, in this sense, is defined as the choices the participants make in their lives. In the context of the present research, the agency refers to how the resources are controlled by the individuals.

The interview analysis identified that participants were using their earnings not only for savings but also for improving their physical living conditions and personal social circumstances. Saving were used for a number of purposes: to buy small physical assets; to help family members break free from poverty circles by paying debts; to improve housing conditions, or to purchase some basic tools with which to work on their own. These actions represent the process through which the participants are seeking ways to overcome poverty.

Thus, young people's agency involves the following actions: developing economic resilience through building savings; developing a positive outlook; building aspirations and optimism based on confidence in their market-oriented skills and knowledge. The increased agency is inferred from the narratives of lived experiences that speak of attempts to withdraw from social security systems, decisions to use the resources to buy physical assets, and decisions to help their families improve their living conditions. In these ways, described below, the young participants were empowered to overcome challenges that had previously rendered them economically poor and incapable.

Economic resilience through making savings

Participants interviewed in this research indicated that when they gained employment they could begin to save. The data showed that most young men and women were practising some form of savings. A deposit of NPR500–1,000 (USD5–10) per month is found to be commonly practised by the interviewees, mainly by women. One participant shared her experience:

> I am earning about NPR6, 000–7,000 (USD60–70) per month. I make savings
> in two places. I save around NPR500 per month in a cooperative. Six of our

friends have formed a group, and we make small savings in it. I save about NPR1, 000 (USD10) in our group as well in each month. (Ms. Ghahtane)

However, the small savings raises the question of to what extent these young men and women would be able to meet their living requirements. A continued vulnerability was expressed by the young women who were working in the waged employment sector. Most of the female participants with a lower income (less than USD60–80) talked repeatedly about their vulnerability because of financial insecurity, for example saying "I do not have much savings," in response to the question, "How do you manage your money?"

Even within the limited income situation, one of the first uses of this additional income was an investment in order to create stable and growing income sources. For instance, this involved investing in life insurance and other savings plans. This suggests that participants also see investment as a means of spreading risk and securing their future. The comment above illustrates this, and similar experiences are shared by another participant:

> Out of my total earnings, I contribute NPR1, 100 to personal insurance; NPR2, 500 in the investment company for a personal share and I also pay 10 per cent tax on my income. (Ms. Chaudhary)

Several young women said that a rising income enabled them to be able to "give back" to their family, as in:

> I earn NPR9, 000 per month and am supporting myself and my mum. I regularly send money home at NPR2, 000–3,000 per month. I spent NPR1, 200 per month for school fees and pay room rent of NPR2, 000 per month, and other expenses like food take all my earnings. (Ms. Tamang)

And:

> Till now I have not made any savings. I occasionally send money home. I transfer about NPR10, 000–15,000 in about 3 to 4 months. I just feel that I am part of the home and I want to help my parents. (Ms. Oli)

These practices show that the young women are sharing with their parents either on a monthly basis or on a periodic basis, contributing to the overall household income. The priority to contribute to the household income reflects a strong social relationship with the

household members. The prioritisation of contributing to the household income denotes a social relationship with the household members and reflects a sense of bonding of young girls with their families, thus strengthening the family relationship.

This cultural shift resulting from the young girls' contribution to their family income is not well-documented. From a cultural perspective, for young women, the decision to work is being influenced by men and cultural practices. Moreover, the actions of women are directly or indirectly linked to the social norms (Marit & Aasland, 2015). The attitude of families to consider young women as economic burdens still persist in many social castes of Nepal (Leone, Matthews, & Zuanna, 2003). Similar to cultural practices in neighbouring India, the view of young women as a family 'burden' is related to customary practices of marriage where the young girl as the bride is provided with cash and in-kind gifts for the family of the groom (Robitaille & Chatterjee, 2014). Although the extent of such burden differs among different social strata in Nepal, these practices sometimes surpass the capacity of the bride's parents. Instead, most of the young women mentioned that they do not perceive there to be any difference compared to the young men of their family, or any difference compared to their lives before they were earning money from the social enterprise organization.

These findings, therefore, challenge the social viewpoint of considering young girls as a family burden (Das Gupta et al., 2003). One of the respondents indicated that she assumed that her family would be happy that she was sharing her income with them. One of the other participants described her experience as "…I have not heard specific comments from any family member" (Ms. Maharjan).

Documenting the cultural shift resulting from the contribution of young women to the household income could expose the new ways of young women's involvement in their families. For a young person, especially young women living within the traditional cultural practices and social norms, it is not clear if these relationship-building processes are leading to greater liberation or not (Hangen, 2007; Simkhada et al., 2015; Upreti & Müller-Böker, 2010).

Increase in material capital

The purchase of physical assets like gold, jewellery or livestock is commonly discussed in livelihood studies (Shephers et al., 2014). Cultural material assets such as land, housing, cash, and livestock are considered very important for young people in Nepal.

Accessing these types of assets, or accumulating these either through inheritance or from their own earnings, plays a role in determining the poverty status of young people (Moore, 2005). Some of the participants were able to pay debts, improve their housing by changing the brick roof to a galvanised roof, or purchase livestock such as buffaloes. One of the participants described what he was able to do with the extra income and savings as follows:

> I was able to pay off the family loan and got back my parental land that was put as collateral. I also paid loans which we had taken out during the marriage of my elder brother. I shared the wedding expenses of another brother as well. Now I am making real savings as well. (Mr. Mahara)

Another participant commented that:

> I transformed the roof of my home from tali[73] to tin, and I also bought two buffaloes. Thirdly, I started to build some foundations and pillars for constructing a permanent home. I also bought gold ornaments for my wife. I am sending my kid to a good school. (Mr. Mehata)

Others indicated that they were able to buy basic tools to start small enterprises, for example:

> I used money from the loan and my own savings in buying basic tools and to manage raw materials and pay rent. I have to pay the loan money on a four instalment basis with 12 per cent interest rate. (Mr. BK)

One of the young men mentioned that, with the extra income generated, he was able to improve his relationship with the members of his household:

> Before, when there was no money or little money, my wife used to be angry with me, and we used to have a fight over small things as I was not able to fulfil all their needs. Now there is peace at home, and everybody is happy at home. (Mr. Miya)

In contrast to the engagement of male participants in paying off family debts, buying physical assets like buffaloes, improving housing conditions and generally taking care of

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[73] Roof type made up of brick-like material.

family members, the young female participants more typically mentioned buying small assets such as mobile phones and small gold ornaments. Yet, their wellbeing is dependent on their ability to make more income, to have ownership rights and to have the capacity for decision-making within the household as well as outside the household (Sen, 1993). Since the opportunities to escape poverty are limited for both disadvantaged males and females, enhancing their marketable skills can be seen as an attempt by the social enterprise organisations to bring about changes in the status quo regarding the process of social and economic empowerment.

Positive changes: Changes in attitude and behaviour

Positive changes were found to be different for men and women. A number of the young men suggested that they were experiencing changes in their personal attitudes and behaviour. For instance:

> Before, I was very much on my own. I did not listen to my family and was spending my time with a friend only, enjoying a lot. When I was not working, I used to argue at home with my family members. Since the training, I have changed a lot. (Mr. Awale)

All of the four men, out of total 17 interviewed also mentioned that they had previously attempted to go overseas to work. Some of them were rejected because of their age; others were frustrated by the time and effort required to process the documentation and to find comparatively well-paid jobs.

Examples of changes in individual perceptions, thoughts, and feelings include the following:

> Half of my friends [8 friends out of 14] went to foreign employment. I was also tempted to go overseas for a job. I do not plan to go overseas now but will continue in this shop. Not all of my friends have succeeded. Those who have earned enough have bought land and built houses. I am confident that I can also earn enough in the future. (Mr. BK).

Another participant described his experience as:

I hear stories of both success and failures. I have grown the capital investment in my shop. I am going to expand it and continue to work in this shop. I feel I can make a similar amount of earnings if I work hard in my local area. Now I have given up on the idea of going overseas. (Mr. Miya)

Out-migration has become a national trend in Nepal (ILO, 2015a), particularly to countries in the Gulf and to Malaysia, but frequently results in hardship for the workers as a result of risky, unsecured and inadequately paid employment(Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Mehran, & Ritter, 2003). Therefore, a decision not to go overseas, but instead to continue with their present job, is important not only to the young people but also to society.

In contrast to the situation for males, the triggers for positive change processes were found to be different for young female participants. The social and cultural practices of limiting the physical mobility of females is a reflection of existing cultural practices that determine how women should live in a family and society in Nepal. These practices still continue today (Poudel & Carryer, 2000, p. 5). This kind of social role assigned to women limits young women's access to various job and skills-development opportunities (Chavan & Kidwai, 2006; Hennink & Simkhada, 2004; Posner et al., 2009).

For the women participants, therefore, the opportunity to leave the house, face strangers and to talk with them with confidence, are some of the positive changes mentioned. As one woman explained:

The job has brought many changes in me. I was frightened to talk to strangers, and I still feel shy and scared of talking with people whom I do not know. I have gained some confidence but not so much. I guess I have improved interpersonal skills as well, and I have made many friends. (Ms. Tamang)

With the increase in market participation, women appear to be feeling confident in moving around as well. The freedom to move around felt by the young women is an indication of success in overcoming the social and cultural practices that dominate women in different ways. Although this kind of change generally does not seem relevant nowadays in the Western context, these changes have a value in Nepal not only to individuals but also because women serve as a role model in society, thus acting as a trigger for broader social change:

Before I joined his job, I was confined to my home. I was just doing household core activities (and) I had limited mobility as well. Now things have changed. I work with farmers as well. We buy farm produce, and I look after packaging, the quality of the produce and its supply as well. (Ms. Dangole)

The ability to challenge social norms such as young women's mobility within the community, together with improved confidence, connections with family, peers, and community, are deemed relevant to young people (Pittman, Irby, & Ferber, 2001, p. 8). These findings on the positive changes among young men and women also reflect the changing perceptions of what is considered the 'right' behaviour or desired qualities and aspirations for achieving more in life. But the participants reported the fact that these changes in personal attitudes are not usually given the same weight in comparison to achieving academic excellence, getting a job, and making a good income.

The traits of positive attitude and life changes are linked to the autonomy of youth transiting to adulthood. At this life stage, young people seek independence from a parental authority (Bynner, 2005; Evans, 2002). As such, increased confidence, capability and capacity to be part of the market can be argued to be an expression of individuals wanting to prepare themselves for the future by identifying and planning for their aspirations and goals (Ni Ógáin et al. 2013).

With positive changes in their attitude and behaviour, and by articulating personal expectations, a pathway to a positive future is expressed by the participants. The personal aspirations are voiced by one participant as:

I am illiterate, but I have not given up hope in life. I believe in myself, and I am confident that I can find a job similar to this, which can make a good payment for making my living. (Ms. Tamang II)

These changes in individual thinking, which are characterised by a new confidence in being able to manage life, reflect the personal determination of individuals. Such emotional resilience has been found to contribute to an individual's long-term successful career outcomes, despite failure and adversity (Plimmer & Copps, 2013).

Income is both an important resource which facilitates agency and one which enables an individual to overcome some of life's problems. The experiences of one of the respondents are presented below:

After the training, I bought a sewing machine worth about NPR10, 000. I borrowed from my father and promised him that I would return (it). However, I could not make real money as the people in the village do not sew many clothes. My father always blamed me for wasting his money… The earthquake destroyed my entire home and killed my two young nephews. Now I am earning about NPR8, 000 a month regularly. I occasionally send about NPR5, 000 over two to three months to my parents. I am satisfied with what I am doing… If I did not work here, I would have been in my village. (Mr. Tamang)

These experiences of young people exemplify how they are managing various uncertainities in their lives, despite their limited income. In the absence of their ability to manage their condition of poverty, it is likely that such a situation would be passed on to the next generation, thus continuing the poverty cycle through the generations.

Market-oriented skills, in the context of poverty and a subsistance economy, are also empowering the participants to build power within (Rowlands, 1995) in order to overcome market-related challenges. This process of empowerment has also extended the association of the participants outside of family and friends (Kabeer, 1999) to improve their market participation by developing networks and associating with other stakeholders. The removal of inequalities related to economic development, the social domination by forceful social groups or systems, and factors that limit the individuals from acquiring knowledge (Redclift, 1991, p. 37), enables the target groups to make life choices (Conway & Barbie, 1988, p. 653). Furthermore, the development of self-sufficiency to improve individuals' livelihoods (Chambers & Conway, 1992, pp. 4–5) is leading to a process of sustaining sources of income (Lele, 1991, p. 609). Evidence of empowerment leading to sustaining income sources is revealed in the participants' accounts of increasing work efficiency and building self-confidence.

Overcoming the status quo through improved work efficiency

The individual participants were found to be delivering quality products and services by engaging in a knowledge-building process as a result of either improving employability or entrepreneurship traits or a mix of both of these qualities. One interviewee reflected this in the following statement:

I can make a wide variety of items like the grill, gate, bed, furniture, truss (for putting a roof on) and people are happy about my work. I have received a lot of praise for my job. (Mr. Mahara)

Another participant said:

the quality of the products has helped me continue my work for many years. Sometimes, outsiders also come and place their orders. So I just take up any orders that I receive to make different types of purses. (Mr. Pariyar).

Other participants shared their experience as:

I have increased my work efficiency (and) increased work knowledge. It has helped my growth by improving the quality of work, thus increasing my self-confidence. (Ms. Maharjan).

Developing business and life skills through work efficiency has also been found to empower young people. The experiences resulting from such capacity-building activities are described by one participant as having provided many benefits:

In addition to the technical skills, I also learned how to do measurements, and received health, and outreach-related information… and I think all the inputs on life skills are most helpful. (Ms. Silwal)

Another participant shared his experiences as:

I gained a lot of practical field experience in the microfinance area. I also learned about practising economic activities by myself and investment in productive activity to make more income. I am helping people to make income, and I am practising myself as well. (Mr. Miya)

Thus, market particiation was found to be increasing. Such an improvement, in the context of Nepal where the young people, as well as those receiving basic skills, struggle to participate in the competitive market, demonstrates the ability to overcome market-related challenges. These benefits resulting in the enhancement of knowledge, skills, and work experience can be seen as an attempt to build power among these groups. Moreover, being

able to deliver goods and services efficiently as per market demand also satisfies the development need to participate in the market (ILO, 2015b; Lee, 2013).

Improved self-confidence in market participation

In discussing desirable youth-related outcomes, scholars argue that even if the individual acquires skills competence, skills alone are not sufficient to guarantee employment (Benson & Pittman, 2012; Benson et al., 2007b). Self-confidence is a trait considered imperative for young people regarding their employment. Research has demonstrated that self-confidence is found to be linked with an increase in "degrees of independence in their decision-making processes" (Rudd & Evans, 1998, p. 54). Great emphasis has been put on the need to improve self-confidence among young people (Lerner, 2005; Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005; Pittman, Irby, & Ferber, 2001).

The participants mentioned that learning new skills and increased work experience developed a deeper knowledge of the specialist subject, added more information about the working sector and added to the confidence-building process of the individuals. The participants also mentioned that they are very confident about making products and providing services responding to market demand. Increased confidence is evident among those who are highly skilful in their work. Increased self-confidence is also related to the increase in an individual's capability and capacity to be part of the market. The participants were able to relate their increased self-confidence to the growth in their capability and in their capacity to continue to be part of the market, as refelcted in this statement:

> I have real work knowledge. I can produce the quality of work. This
> contributes to increasing my self-confidence. I plan to open my small retail
> shop that can sell locally. I do not aim for the big market but a local market
> where I can sell garments like trousers, jackets. (M.s. Dangole)

Participants also mentioned that they could make products and provide services responding to market demand, for example:

> The most important thing is that I have gained confidence on my own. I have
> gained experience and confidence in managing acafé and also in knitting. (Ms.
> Dangole)

and:

I have increased my work efficiency, increased my work knowledge. It has

helped my growth in quality of work and has thus contributed to increasing

my self-confidence. (M.s. Maharjan)

In contrast to those having increased self-confidence, low confidence was expressed by the participants who revealed that, because of their low level of skills, they could not meet the demand of their clients:

Since I have received only the basic course, I am not very confident. I need to

undertake an advanced course to be able to serve the client's demand.

Therefore, the present job is moderately satisfying because sometimes we fail

to provide the higher level of services demanded by customers. We feel sad

about that. We look forward to receiving more advanced courses. (Ms. Suwal)

In this way, disadvantaged young people are empowered to overcome the constraints that are linked to the market and to hope for economic changes in the future. These findings also align with previous research that has found that sustaining the source of income is essential to sustaining the growth of individuals (Redclift, 1991, p. 37). Thus, the self-confidence expressed by the participants is likely to help sustain their sources of income by enabling them to continue to work.

Social change: Creatinga a new identity

Together with the enhanced capability to participate in the market, the lived experiences of the disadvantaged young men and women revealed that they were able to reposition themselves within society and friendship groups:

In our caste, young girls usually do not work. Young girls working outside the

home is a new practice in our society. After I have started to work, it has

increased respect also for my father in the community. I have increased my

self-confidence. I have gained much life experience working with very poor

households and know how people manage their lives. Moreover, I also got the

chance to visit more places and meet more people. (Ms. Chaudhary)

The increased recognition of young people in society and acknowledgment that they have begun to work and earn suggests a social acceptance of such activities, especially for

young girls. This social acceptance and recognition provides a greater sense of respect and self-confidence for the young men and women as individuals, as well as for the family. Thus, the construction of personal identity appears to be emerging from the interaction of society and an individual's personal commitment to establish him/herself as a successful person by participating in the market activities. Côté (2005, p.1) recognises identity as a new form of capital that generates an individual's distinctivness, especially for young people. The type of personal identity developed from market-related traits differs from identity marked by the life phase, transitioning from adolescence to adulthood (Bynner, 2005, p. 368).

Changing relationship with the social enterprise organisations

In addition to establishing a new identity in the society and strengthening the social relationship with the family and society, young people also built a social relationship with the social enterprise organisations, different from that of family or friends. Individuals with high work efficiency were found to be either employed or to sell their products to the organisation. The respondents who work as micro-entrepreneurs or in group-based production units were found to be engaged in a relationship where there is a system of buy-back guarantees for their products, giving them income security. These micro-entrepreneurs were also able to mobilise technical advice in order to refine or upgrade their products. In other cases, the partnership was developed in activities such as organising skills-training activities or using the participant as a resource person during capacity-enhancement activities.

These changing relationshps with people, structures, and institutions are viewed as sites of power (Townley, 1993). These gradual changes in social relationshps with different actors are seen as contributing to a social empowerment process and highlight the role of the market in changing the social relationship-building process. Thus the role of organisations in empowering young participants by providing marketable skills is seen as a powerful drive towards social inclusion, with the process of social change leading to chances of improving their life conditions. These findings align with Haugh and Talwar (2016), supporting the market-based approach of social enterprises as one of the most effective ways to generate positive social impact, especially in a resource-poor society (Haugh & Talwar, 2016).

Assessing satisfaction

In addtion to social changes, the value of job satisfaction (Kant et al., 2015) was also found to confirm the probability that young people are beneftting positively. Figure 10 below shows that 22 of the participants expressed satisfaction in their jobs, five were moderately

satisfied, two were not happy and one of the respondents was not sure of their job satisfaction.
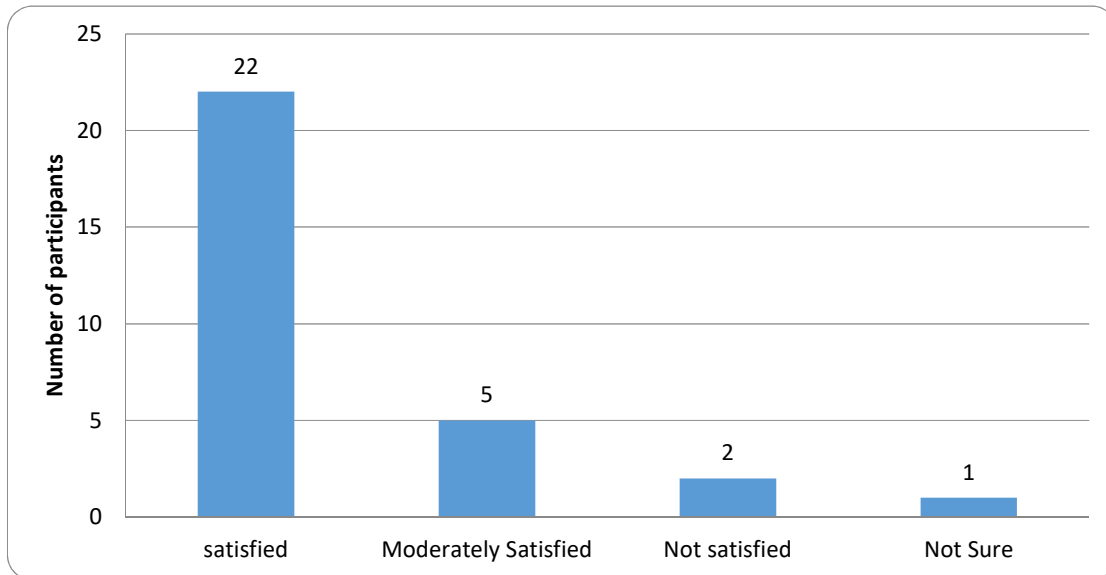
Figure 10. A verbal measure of job satisfaction

The young participants stated that they were satisfied with: (a) being able to get into local employment; (b) making a good income; and (c) having the confidence to continue in the job. The reasons for satisfaction shared by one participant are as follows:

> I am happy that I could open a shop in partnership with my friend. I am
> confident that I can handle almost all the problems related to motor rewinding.
> I do not think I will have any problem in continuing this job. I want to
> undertake a more advanced course and expand my business. (Mr. Awale)

Another young man shared his satisfaction with having a good stable income:

> I come from a Matwali family. My mother sells homemade alcohol. I grew up
> seeing father work as a goldsmith. He worked in a small workplace at home.
> We do not have a good source of income. I am happy that I own a shop and
> employ one person. I stopped thinking about going overseas. (Mr
> Bishwakarma)

In contrast to their male counterparts, satisfaction for young women was expressed in terms of their ability to move out of the home and make a living, which otherwise was not

possible for them. However, some young women mentioned that they were not happy with their jobs. Among the reasons given were: inadequate skills; limited knowledge as a hindering factor in extending services; limitations on moving out of the home; and limited personal networks. One of the respondents said:

> My limited knowledge, my limited networks, and skills would be my limitations. I cannot work as freely as before marriage. I have more household work to do. (Ms Maharjan)

> Another participant described her situation in the following way:

> We just received the basic course; we are not very confident. We need to undertake the advanced course. Therefore, we can give only essential services. (Ms Phuyal)

Various studies also attribute the outcome of satisfaction to a combination of capability-achievement (Chiappero-Martinetti, Egdell, Hollywood, & McQuaid, 2015, p. 20) and income satisfaction (Burchardt & Vizard, 2011); less turnover; and higher commitment towards the organisation (De Neve et al., 2013, p. 10). These findings on job satisfaction thus provide an opportunity to confirm the social and economic changes shared by the participants discussed above, as their lived experiences. In an environment of social and economic challenges, the satisfaction result thus presents the participants' social change-seeking process.

The findings on changes at the personal and family levels, together with those pertaining to job satisfaction show that these changes lead to the processes of social and economic change. However, the findings did not offer a complete answer if it was only those from the disadvantaged criteria group who contributed to such practices. Further investigation of the ways in which young people are included in the social enterprise's activities indicated the importance of increasing access to market-related information and becoming market potential as equally important processes of creating social changes.

Challenges faced by young people to participate in the job market

Inclusion and participation are identified as key components of empowerment (Geiser, Müller-Böker, Shahbaz, Steimann & Thieme, 2011, p. 317), with an inclusive and participatory approach posing the questions about "who is included" and "how they are

involved and the role played once included" (Narayan, 2005, p. 19). As all the social enterprise organisations employed strategies involving empowerment and participation, selection criteria used by the organisations were examined, along with the ways in which young people accessed this information.

Access to information is a common challenge in developing resource-poor countries (FAO, 2009; UNDP, 2013). This is reflected in the present study where participants noted the difficulty in obtaining information about social enterprises and how to participate in them. Approximately 10 per cent of the interviewees noted that they were informed about the organisations through local media such as FM broadcasting. The majority, however, drew on their personal networks of relatives, friends, and associates in order to obtain information and gain access to the organisations. As in other studies, it seems that social stratification may also have played a role in the ability to access information regarding opportunities. (Hoang, Castella, & Novosad, 2006). Table 15 below summarises the ways in which the participants accessed the organisation.

Table 15

Accessibility of young people to organisations

Sources of Information	Number of Responses
Relatives	9
Friends and their networks	8
Local network (social worker, neighbours)	8
FM, pamphlets	3
Personal approach	1

Note. Information based on interviews conducted by the researcher with young people in Nepal, 2015.

Considering all young people as an emerging social group based on common interest agendas rising above caste/ethnicity, gender, and poverty-based discrimination (Clark et al., 1993), these findings demonstrate that young people in Nepal face structural inequalities in discovering and accessing opportunities such as job search processes.

In addition, it was also found that the challenges were not limited to obtaining access to market-related information but that the young people also needed to present themselves as having market potential. The increasing need for market potential was manifested in different

forms such as organisations looking for young men and women who were able to develop their capabilities in serving the market purpose. The following section looks at who was benefiting from among those having access to market information.

Who is benefiting?

A closer look at how men and women are recruited into each case study organisation's program reveals that the ultimate deciding criteria were the personal commitment and potentiality of the individuals to participate and compete in the market. Table 16 below provides a summary of the selection criteria used by the organisations.

Table 16

Selection criteria used by the organisations to assess the eligibility of participants

Name of the Organisation	Selection Criteria
Maitreya Enterprises	Individuals or groups preferably led by women or women's groups with skills in producing goods; Persons or groups with a business potentiality; Individuals or groups willing to commit to delivering quality products.
Mangala Services	Age group (16-40 years); Out-of-school young people; Priority to youth belonging to economically poor and socially disadvantaged groups; Those with the potential to learn and make a commitment to enter the job market or start own business or enterprises.
Dipankar Organisation	Young men and women with a minimum education qualification of grade 12, without experience, referencing those of local ethnic origin; Those willing to undertake an internship and sit for the exam at the conclusion of the internship.
Paduma Enterprises	Home-based workers with competencies of any type and earning some income.
Gautama Women's Group	Internal migrants, young girls belonging to a 'risk group' (mainly of human trafficking from Nepal).

Note. Information based on interviews conducted by the researcher with five organisations in Nepal, 2015.

These findings reveal that the individuals were required to demonstrate the potential to learn and to develop their capacity to compete in producing services and goods that met the market demand. Although the approach of using an individual's potential as a criterion to enrol in development programs is expanding (Green, 2013, p. 24), the use of market

potentiality is a new practice in the country. These findings indicate the implementation of a neoliberal orientation through the adoption of the free market, free trade, entrepreneurial freedom, deregulation and private ownership, in developing program strategies. The market force is found to have played a critical role in decision-making by being included within the programmatic interventions. These development practices do not align with the traditional ways of targeting poverty but are more aligned to a market-driven approach. Thus, these findings demonstrate that organisations are governed not only by pure social objectives but by a combination of social, economic and market factors.

It appears therefore, that social enterprise organisations do not necessarily aim to include only the poor and most disdvantaged but they equally include also people having market potential, Thus, this research leads to the conclusion that social enterprise organisations not only include the most disadvantaged young people but also incoporate selection criteria based on the market. These findings further confirm the need to improve the provision of market-related access to information, together with the enhancment of market-oriented skills, in achieving social change in the lives of young people.

Summary and conclusions

This chapter presented results generated from the involvement of young people with social enterprises. The results, in the form of immediate outputs, are manifested mainly as: (a) economic resilience-building processes; (b) improved relationships; (c) overcoming the status quo (social and economic changes); (d) creation of a new identity; (e) changes in attitude and behaviour; (f) achievement of satisfaction.

The results suggested that the young men and women are improving their ability to make a regular earning, meet the needs of their families, and to practise small savings in different forms. The income was found to be used not only for household spending but also for improving material assets and fulfilling personal needs. Although the income was not high, the regular sources of income were significant enough to create the potential to withstand economic vulnerability, compared to other non-income young groups and groups with irregular income. The inculcation of a market orientation among the young people is helping them to deliver market-oriented products and services. The young participants were found to be expanding their networks to new markets and to other stakeholders beyond their family and friends. Knowledge of life skills was found to be benefiting them to better understand their own needs, such as sexual and reproductive health needs, as well as social needs such as communication skills and team work skills.

A combination of the ability to meet personal needs, family needs, and to compete in the job market is helping the young people to improve their ability to articulate personal aspirations. The expression of personal aspirations was identified as a sign of the development of more positive attitudes. In particular, the young participants were found to be starting to seek independence from the constraints imposed by the cultural norms that otherwise limited their thinking on what they should be like, and how they should act in Nepali society. Changes in how they think and behave were helping the young people make decisions as to whether they should go to foreign countries for employment. Young girls gained confidence enabling them to challenge the structural cultural practices such as their right to mobility and to choosing the career path of their choice.

Therefore six main qualities were found to be major factors influencing the wellbeing of young people in Nepal: (1) the need to become financially strong; (2) the need for building strong social capital through changes in power relationships with family, society, friends and peers; (3) the ability to challenge the structural practices that limit them in achieving their aspirations; (4) the need to acquire a new identity based on market-competent skills and knowledge; (5) positive changes in their thinking and behaviour; and (6) achieving life satisfaction.   These findings contribute to the discussion on the youth livelihood in Nepal. Most importantly, the findings point to the support mechanisms needed to assist young people to improve and sustain their livelihoods.

Chapter Seven: Discussions and conclusion

There is a growing body of literature on social enterprises (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2016; Carney, 2015; Defourny, Hulgård, & Pestoff, 2014; Galvin & Iannotti, 2015; ISEDNET, 2014; Kant et al., 2015; Nyssens & Defourny, 2016). Social enterprises have been found to addresses social problems such as: improving public service delivery (Barraket & Archer, 2008, 2009); operating in public welfare fields (Harding, 2004); addressing social inclusion (Kernot, 2009); and demonstrating employment pathways (Plimmer & Copps, 2013). However, limited data is available about social enterprises in the context of development from the South Asian countries (Singh, 2016; Hackett, 2010). Additionally, there are several studies that examine young people and their integration into the job market using the social entrepreneurship approach (Dolan & Rajak, 2016; Skattebol et al., 2015; Stryjan, 2004), but few that explore an organisational response to the sustainable employment of young people in the context of a developing society.

This thesis addressed the gap in connecting theoretical knowledge on social enterprises and youth development issues with empirical knowledge about social enterprises and young people in Nepal. The findings challenge the idea that social enterprises and social entrepreneurship provide an easy answer to job creation in circumstances of poverty. Rather, it argues that addressing the condition of disadvantage in bringing about social change demands recognition of several other challenges such as state failure, market failure, development failure, and various cultural challenges. The critical analysis of all of these research gaps and their implications for enhancing the organisational response of social enterprises to disadvantaged young people is presented in the chapter. The chapter starts by providing answers to the three key research objectives outlined in chapter one and presents a conclusion to the main research question. The response to the main research question is followed by the presentation of implications for a conceptual understanding of social enterprises in Nepal, for policy practices, and for future research.

Response to the research objectives and conclusion about the research findings

This thesis sought to answer three research objectives. The findings are summarised in the following sections.

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Emerging trends of social enterprises in Nepal

The aim of objective one was to collect baseline information about social enterprises in Nepal in order to provide details about their typologies, focus, revenue mix, activities, and challenges. This study concluded that most of the social enterprise organisations were either emerging or existing in a transitional stage in Nepal. Most of the social enterprise organisations were found to be transitioning from NGOs to the business model of social enterprises and profit-making organisations, embracing a range of social equity objectives.

There were found to be eight typologies of social enterprises emerging in Nepal. The typologies include: (1) non-profit NGOs; (2) profit-not-distributing private companies; (3) hybrid models; (4) social businesses; (5) subsidiary units within either NGOs or the private sector; (6) social cooperatives; (7) community-based organisations; and (8) for-profit private organisations. The hybrid models and the profit-not-distributing model of social enterprises are the new forms that are emerging and that reveal the changing landscape of development work in Nepal. However, all of the social enterprise forms were found to be engaged in creating social as well as economic values for both young people and for the organisation itself. A closer examination of the socially-oriented corporate houses also showed that some of them were gradually shifting their corporate social responsibility (CSR) funding from traditional social projects to social enterprise or social venture organisations. The gradual shift of the corporate sector from traditional CSR to new funding areas shows an increasing regard and concern for the sustainability of their investment. This is a new trend and is practised by a limited number of corporations.

In most cases, these types of initiatives were found to be led by social leaders or groups of like-minded people with an interest in social development such as *pro bono* leaders making a commitment to social change. Some of the organisations were found to be working within two legal frameworks, and this fact indicates the challenges faced by the non-profits in Nepal to address public interest activities through profit-making initiatives. Although the legal framework of a profit-not-distributing organisation, as per the Company Act 2006, has come into existence, it does not necessarily clarify the need to encompass all the profit-not-distributing organisations under its umbrella. The new legal provision has not been discussed at a broader level. These company provisions are different from the Community Interest Company (CIC) of the United Kingdom, for example, where CIC limits the distribution of dividends to encourage a wider range of financial investment into a social venture to achieve a social mission (Nicholls, 2008).

Although the social enterprise model is growing in the country, there is a state of confusion in explaining the term 'social enterprise', and developing a common understanding of the term itself. The most commonly used term in describing the social enterprises' activities is the term 'social businesses. 'Social business' emanates from the work of Muhammad Yunus, who won the Nobel Peace Prize in 2006 for founding and managing the *Grameen* Bank and who has had a profound influence in the microfinance sector in Nepal (Bhatta, 2001; Dhakal, 2011).

Although there is no harm in interpreting social enterprises as a social business in Nepal, it is important to understand that the social business way of development does not recognise multiple sources of income (Bacq & Janssen, 2011), thus undermining the forces that could contribute to generating revenue from multiple sources. Acknowledging the term 'social business' without defining the context of Nepal could overlook the existence of hybrid forms of social enterprises (Huybrechts & Nicholls, 2012). Thus, there is a need to contextualise the term 'social businesses for Nepal. Alternatively, country-specific definitions are a common practice in many countries (Defourny, Bidet, & Eum, 2011; Defourny, Laratta, Nakagawa, & Sakurai, 2011; Ip, 2012), so the development of a country-specific definition could also be explored.

The thesis also revealed that there is a reluctance for development organisations to publicise themselves as a social enterprise—a private business-like organisation. This is an indication of a lack of confidence within Nepal to acknowledge a private model for doing public works. This tendency also reflects a persistent and deeply-rooted suspicion about private organisations as profit-making entities in Nepal. A great class divide, together with the influence of a political education based on the Maoist ideology of social class domination, exists in Nepal. These ideological influences maintain the perception that anything to do with business or making revenue and profit is understood to be capitalist, that is, dominating other social groups or benefiting from the social conditions of marginalised groups (Shakya, 2010; Upreti, 2006).

The thesis also highlighted the major working areas as: equitable development activities; increasing participation and representation; engaging in economic activities; exploiting market opportunities through innovative activities; developing staff capacity to be able to compete in the market; and engaging in activities related to generating more revenue and moving towards financial sustainability. These surveyed organisations were found to face multiple challenges such as state failure and market failures, but the most significant

challenge was found to be the need to become self-reliant and self-sufficient, which forms one of the main principles of social enterprises.

The findings highlight the importance of overcoming traditional financing and the urgency to achieve self-sufficiency, similar to that of NGOs in Nepal. In particular, the varied sources of income were found to be likely to make these organisations financially sustainable but to reduce the possibility of becoming independent of grants, unlike ideal social enterprises (Austin et al., 2006; Dees et.al., , 2004; Haugh, 2005; Reis & Clohesy, 2001).

The thesis also raised questions regarding the practice of reinvestment of surplus revenue in order to become self-sufficient. The profit-not-distributing model appears to be too idealistic in the case of Nepal and its widespread poverty, contrary to assumptions that models based on Western experiences also work for Nepal. Therefore, revisiting the appropriateness of replicating the non-profit distributive model in Nepal could provide answers to long-term financial accountability problems.

In summary, it has been argued that most of the social enterprise organisations in Nepal are either emerging or exist in too early a stage of a transitional period. The social enterprises are explained more as a social business, in contrast to the market-oriented ways of addressing social problems. The new legal provision provides hope for assimilating all hybrid forms into a single legal form. Having a financing mechanism to become self-sustainable and grant-independent and to achieve autonomy in decision-making processes remains a major challenge.

Social change creation process: Identifying drivers of change

Objective two was to examine five representative social enterprises in order to document and analyse the practices employed in attaining their social objectives of reducing youth unemployment and disadvantage. The findings revealed seven strategies as drivers of change. These strategies were found to be driving social enterprises to deliver the intended outcome of achieving social objectives as well as the economic objectives of becoming financially self-reliant. The specific drivers of social change were found to be: (1) their social objectives; (2) the role played by the social leaders; (3) their resource generation strategies; (3) their social innovation-related activities; (4) their becoming market-oriented; (5) their moving towards achieving financial self- sufficiency; and (6) policy changes.

The social objectives and the role of social leaders framed the social mission of the organisations. The social mission provided clarity on a number of factors: their intended

contribution to the social cause; the inclusion of the disadvantaged groups; the organisation's own norms, values, and beliefs; and strategies to generate more resources.

The resource generation strategy is related to creating several asset types such as physical assets (including land, workspace, and factory space as the organisation's properties), financial resources, staff capacity–human resources, and social assets in the form of social capital as defined by Willis (2011). All of these resources contribute to the development of the organisation in meeting its aims to be market-competent as well as investing in a social cause to achieve sustainable social changes.

Market orientation-the idea that social enterprises become more efficient and effective through commercial activities (Nicholls, 2010; Nicholls & Cho, 2006) becoming financially sustainable (Harding, 2004; Haugh, 2005) was manifested in a wide variety of forms. The market-orientation characteristics of the social enterprises were also found to meet the needs of the disadvantaged by narrowing the skills-gaps in the job market and integrating the disadvantaged. These findings align with Nicholls and Cho (2006) who identify multiple dimensions of market orientation beyond the commercial purpose (Nicholls & Cho, 2006), thus highlighting the ability of the organisation to fulfil its own commitment to respond to the market needs as well as attain their social objectives.

The market orientation of the organisations was also found to have manifested in their commitment to social innovation-a process of identifying market opportunities to bring about social changes (Cunliffe, 2008). With reference to the several hierarchies of innovations[74] (Cunliffe, 2008), the study demonstrated the existence of a range of innovative activities that were found to bring about improved effectiveness in delivering services, along with a variety of innovative ways of bringing about social change, and the development of numerous strategies to address social and market-related barriers. These types of activities align with social innovation being described variously as a process of innovation (Dees, 1998); an innovative social value creation process (Peredo & McLean, 2006); a social change (Mair et al., 2012; Mair & Marti, 2006); sustainable social transformation (Alvord et al., 2004); a pattern-breaking change (Martin & Thompson, 2010); a social value-creating activity (Austin et al., 2006); the effectiveness of an organisation (Bagnoli & Megali, 2011, pp. 156-157); and a process of inducing social change (Choi & Majumdar, 2014). The emperical evidence

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[74] This includes process innovation (related to production of new methods and systems), product innovation (developing new products), and technical innovation.

revealed that these change processes were taking place when the organisations aimed to balance their social and economic objectives.

In addition to generating assets, exploiting opportunities, and aligning the products and services to market needs, changes in many of the internal policies favoured the inclusion of the disadvantaged into the programs and setting priority areas for investment in delivering the social objectives. An inclusive approach is considered as crucial in addressing the issues of structural challenges in alleviating poverty and empowering the disadvantaged (De Haan, 2012), and in overcoming institutional and policy barriers for the disadvantaged (Rauniyar & Kanbur, 2010, pp. 459–460). The empirical evidence from the research revealed that the policy changes were influencing the market-related structural barriers as well as triggering a process of social change through the progression of increased participation of the disadvantaged into the program activities.

Thus, this study has demonstrated that a combination of strategies is key to the social change process. These strategies relate to the following areas: a social mission; the role of social leaders; resource generation; social innovation; market orientation, financial self-sufficiency, and policy changes. These findings explain the process of achieving the social results, thus the effectiveness of the case study organisations. Although these findings are specific to the context of Nepal, the findings contribute to the discussions in the literature on social value creation processes (Chell et al., 2016).

This section presented the findings on the social change process. The change process aligns with the entrepreneurial model of social enterprises that puts emphasis on social entrepreneurs who leverage political power to lead the organisations, leverage the power of knowledge and skills, and leverage economic activities to bring about social change (Mair et al., 2012). The study findings on the drivers of the change process thus provide comprehensive evidence to measure the effectiveness of social enterprises from a sociological perspective. These findings, however, do not necessarily ignore the long list of traits generating from the management field of study considered as effectiveness measures that create social values.

Creating social impact: Social values created for young people.

Objective three was to conduct in-depth interviews with young participants (18–24 years of age) in the case study enterprises and to examine critically the effectiveness of the strategies employed by each social enterprise in contributing to improved livelihoods for these young people, by integrating them in the job market. The effectiveness of the social

enterprises was revealed as: changes at the personal level, and changes at the household and organisational level. Drawing upon these findings, a social enterprise model of youth livelihood improvement in the Nepali context is proposed.

Changes at the personal level

The social values created by the case study organisations demonstrated that immediate social and economic changes at the personal level were limited. But the positive aspects of engagement in the process of social and economic change were found to be the development of a steady source of income and social recognition, thus providing a new identity for the participants. A more crucial role was found to be played by the market-oriented skills imparted by the organisations in the process of creating social change. The acquisition of these skills resulted in an increased capability to participate in the competitive and changing job market.

A combination of income, enhanced market-oriented skills, knowledge, work experience, and social recognition at the society and organisational level helped the young individuals become more confident, to develop a sense of determination, and to make positive changes in their attitudes and behaviour. These changes, in turn, helped to develop a positive outlook on future employment prospects to foster personal aspirations for further growth and to plan for the future, thus demonstrating the increasing power from within to make life choices and to commit to engaging in market-related work.

The resulting changes in the lives of young people included positive emotions (Park, 2004), life satisfaction (Diener, 2000; ILO, 2015b, p. 52), and improved social relationships and networks (De Neve et al., 2013, p. 3). These changes align with the definition of subjective wellbeing, which differs from an understanding of the wellbeing of young people as being limited to physical and mental aspects only (Hoyt, Chase-Lansdale, McDade, & Adam, 2012; Keyes, 2012).

These findings demonstrate how the involvement of social enterprises contributes to the development of agency among the participants. Moreover, the increased decision-making capacity of participants was found to have manifested in ways such as: the ability to exercise their rights against unequal power relationships; overcoming the cultural limitations place on their physical mobility; the ability to increase access to other resources like physical assets; and the capacity to determine for themselves how to make use of their limited income. This

potential to shift power relationships contributes to the process of empowerment among the disadvantaged (Rowlands, 1995).

The ability to make changes at the individual level points to the ways in which livelihoods are undergoing change. This is evident through the following activities: assets-building via material and social resources; increased access to resources; increased opportunity for capability-building; changes in power relations; and changes in structure and agency. The impact of livelihood-improvements on capability, equity, and sustainability (Chambers & Conway, 1992), surpass the livelihood discussions that limit the understanding of livelihood improvement to overcoming various poverty measures, employment creation, increase in income and production improvement.

Changes at the household level and organisational level

The changes at the household level and at the organisational level manifested in the form of changing social relationships and a pattern of benefits both for the households as well as as for the organisation.

The changes at the household level can be linked to the discovery of opportunities to contribute to the household income. In the pursuit of helping the family by sharing the limited income, the individuals seized opportunities to meet the economic needs of the households. Other changes experienced at the household level included: improving the physical living condition by enhancing the roofing; adding physical assets such as a television set; sending the children to a better school; and paying off the family debts. These changes contributed to an improved standard of living (UNDP, 2013).

The study revealed that, despite the financial contribution of the participants to their respective households, they did not receive reciprocal benefits. The participants confirmed to the interviewer that they had not received recognition from their families in return for their contribution to the household income. Irrespective of this failure to be acknowledged for their support of the households, the opportunity for reciprocity offers a pathway that empowers young people through strengthening their agency to make decisions regarding whether or not they want to be part of such a change process at the household level. The changes at the organisational level are also related to the changing social relationships. The change from network and trust types of social relationships with the organisations (Coleman, 1990; Putnam, 2001), to social relationships that are mutually beneficial to both the parties making economic gain (Lin, 1999), demonstrates the alternative empowerment process in which the

social relationships lead to the increased production of commodities or services that are in demand. Although the process of measuring empowerment is not clear (Kabeer, 1999; Mosedale, 2005; Rowlands, 1995), consistent with the case study results shared by Haugh and Talwar (2016), the relationships outside the family itself provide an advantageous position in challenging the unequal social positions of young people (Haugh & Talwar, 2016). These mechanisms in engaging with external institutions in the market are leading towards further refinement and shaping of their livelihoods by undermining the social and economic norms that influence the lived realities of young people. These are demonstrated by the fact that young people are starting their own enterprises, participating in service provision to the organisations, and supplying products to the market, eventually leading to the changing of social norms that limit their mobility, and the challenging of social taboos that consider young women to be limited to household activities. Moreover, the change in social relationships to those which benefit young people by improving income opportunities and strengthening their agency to make use of resources (financial, knowledge, and skills) signals the likelihood of long-term and transformative social and economic changes in their lives.

However, it is possible that the market orientation strategies of the organisations, the small size and focus of the organisations, and the challenging of social, economic and political conditions of the country, are likely to benefit only a small group of young people by alleviating their condition of poverty. The market-orientation strategy favours those having market-compliant skills and points to the existing market-related challenges for young people preparing to enter the employment market for the first time. These experiences are shared by all young people around the globe and in different contexts. Therefore, the challenge remains to reposition the youth of Nepal, putting them at the centre of the development agenda.

Revisiting the conceptual framework for developing a Social Enterprise Model in the Nepali context

A social enterprise model of youth livelihood improvement in the Nepali context is proposed. This model forms the basis for discussions in improving livelihoods of young people in Nepal. The model presented in Figure 11 is developed based on the cross- case findings and the analytical framework presented in Chapter Two.

The model identifies the critical role of the social leader, along with appropriate strategies and the cultural orientation necessary to facilitate the inclusion of disadvantaged young people in Nepal by increasing their chances to participate in various livelihood opportunities. However, the development interventions and the support mechanisms designed by individual organisations play a critical role in the process of actually making an impact in the lives of youth.

The model demonstrates that a group of strategies within the organisation is making differences in the lives of young people. Among various strategies, the mission to have a specified 'social objective' is also enabling the disadvantaged young people to increase their market participation. The economic objectives, together with a strategy to diversify the resources, play a key role in generating more income and other resources. The additional financial and other resources serve to strengthen an organisation's own capacity to become market-oriented. The market-oriented strategy, in turn, enables the social enterprise to deliver the product and services that are in demand or needed by the service recipient. This part of the study findings explains the structural changes within the organisations creating a development space.

At the individual level, the market-oriented model explains that enhanced market-oriented skills and knowledge are providing adequate confidence to continue in the competitive job market. The market-oriented traits, although resembling business-related qualities, are preparing the disadvantaged to compete with others in the similar areas of work. Furthermore, the ability to continue in the job market is playing a critical role in the enhancement of several other asset types including financial, social, material, and physical assets together with sets of subject-specific knowledge and skills. In line with various livelihood improvement theories, the interaction of these various assets is resulting in social and economic transformations among young people.

The other changes evident include increased economic resilience through savings, improved relationships (networks with family and others), and strengthened social capital.

Most importantly, the young people were able to change social norms; to develop positive changes such as changes in personal attitudes and behaviour; to acquire agency in making career decisions and in planning for the future. These livelihood qualities are helpful for young people not only to participate in the job market but also to sustain positions in the competitive job market and to make progress in their career.

This model thus presents social transformation processes for young people as a combined result of work by institutions and individuals. This new way of unfolding the social transformation process not only provides information on the impact at the individual level, but it also provides information on the support mechanisms needed for young people to enter the job market for the first time. The model demonstrates that the social enterprises are in the process of creating opportunities for young people, by engaging both organisations and the young people themselves.

Consideration of external factors such as socio-economic, political, and geographical influences, provided important insights into the external environment guiding the results both at the organisational level as well as that of the individual.

Provider level (Strategies)

Having a social leader, social and economic objectives

Strategies to balance social and economic objectives

Strategy to diversify the financial resources

Strategies to generating other resources (physical, human resource capital, network & social capital (networks and social capital)

Market orientation strategy: preparing to deliver market oriented product and services, CB, follow up support

Entrepreneuring marketing

Making policy changes helping them use the resources according to priority needs such as meeting social and economic objectives.

Process level changes

Increase in access, participation and opportunity to improve capability to resources like skill training opportunities

Developing activities to manage and respond to the changing environment

Achieve financial self- sufficiency

Generating resources (financial, physical, human resource capital, network and social capital) Building networks and social capital

Fulfilling market/ demand and supply skill gaps
Developing products and services that is in need of the market and capacitating the individuals with broad skills, knowledge and work experiences

Sustainability of the organization being market competitive and financially sustainable

Results at the organizational level

Inclusion of the disadvantaged for their access, participation and improving equal capabilities (ability to achieve)

More financial resource allocation promoting enhancement of activities for achieving social changes in terms of quality and quantity. Creating employment opportunities

Enhancing staff capacity, physical resources, strong social capital and network

Enhanced market oriented skills and knowledge product and services
Re-positioning of the organisation within the peer groups

Immediate outcome- young people

Increase employment

Jobs with work knowledge and efficiency

Generating Steady income

Generating material capital

Improved self-confidence in market participation.

Long term outcome- Young people

Economic resilience through savings

Improving relationship, networks with family and others
Social capital

Overcoming status quo (social and economic changes)

Creating New Identity

Changes in attitude and behavior

Becoming satisfied

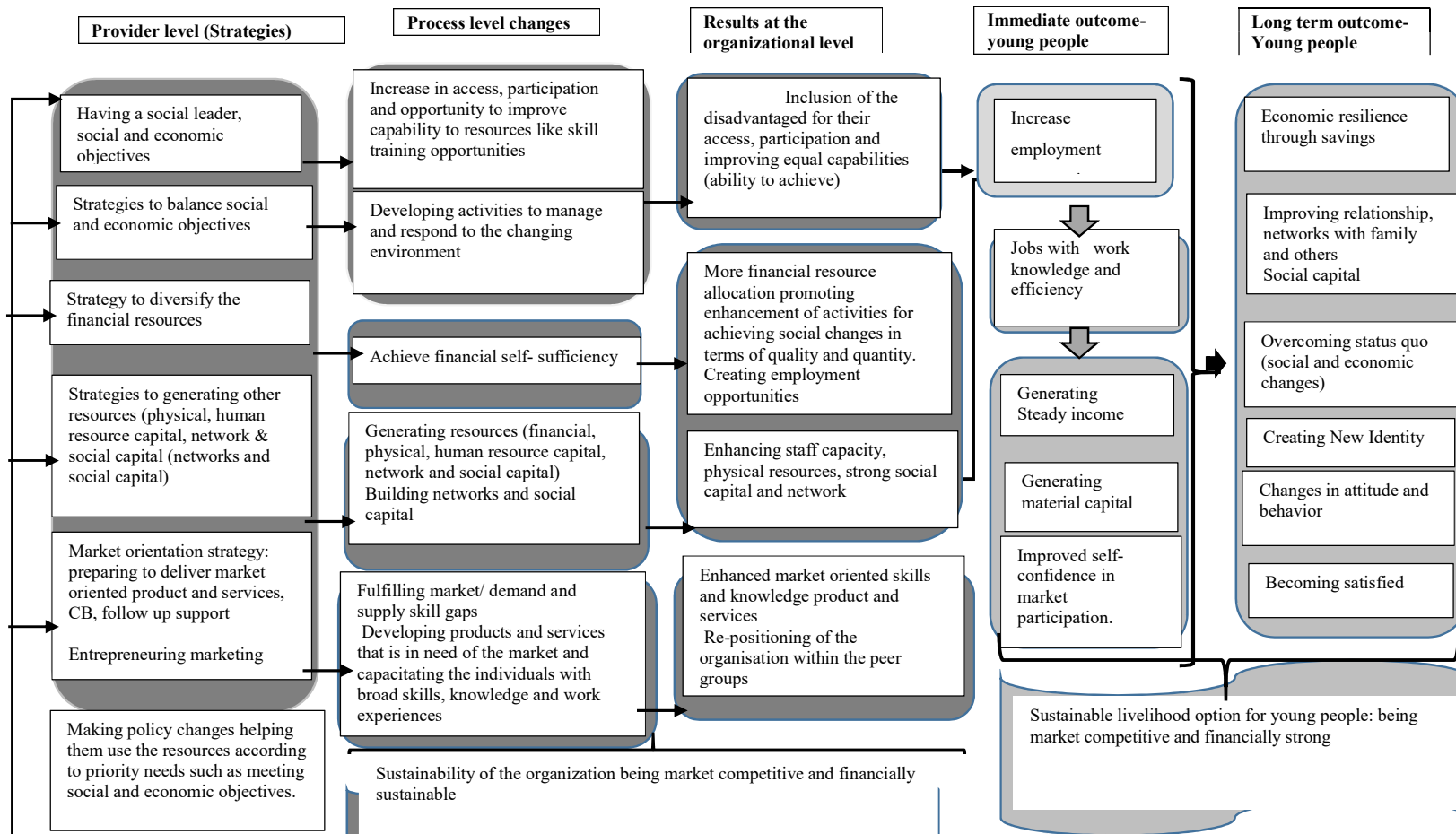Sustainable livelihood option for young people: being market competitive and financially strong

Figure 11. Social Enterprise model for the improvement of the livelihood of young people in Nepal

Conclusion about the main research question

The main research question that guided this dissertation was:

What is the contribution of social enterprises to improving the livelihoods of young people in Nepal?

The overall conclusion of the thesis is that the contribution of social enterprises is unfolding in two distinct ways. The first level of contribution is revealed in the form of organisations attempting to become financially self-sustainable and market-competitive. The second level of contribution is demonstrated by limited social and economic change as immediate outcomes, and chances of significant and sustainable social change in the longer term.

Analysis of the findings regarding relationships between the entrepreneurship approach of the organisations and the different perspective of livelihoods of young people revealed that there is a conceptual gap in the addressing of employment concerns of young people in Nepal. The gaps including human resources, physical assets, and market-oriented knowledge, skills-training by the organisations, cultural practices, social norms, personal beliefs, and aspirations, together with context-specific limitations of young people are not discussed adequately in the process of addressing the unemployment concerns of young people. The study contributed to this gap by identifying the strategies for creating social changes used by the organisations, and through verification of the effectiveness of such progressions by focussing on changes at the personal, household, and organisational levels investigated the process of social value-creation and social changes within conditions of poverty. In addition, the study documented change within organisations as they become resourceful in order to sustain their achievements.

These processes of creating social changes also highlight the role of institutions in providing opportunities for young people to be integrated into the competitive job market, in contrast to those who are able to make pragmatic choices by themselves (Wyn & Dwyer, 1999). By creating the opportunity to participate in the process of the market-oriented approach to development, the young women, emerging from a patriarchal culture, were able to overcome social taboos such as mobility and making an income of their own. In contrast, the young men were found to be fulfilling the social expectation of generating income that not only satisfies their personal needs

and the needs of the family but also generates a sense of change in social status personally, as well as for the family.

Limited income, despite overcoming such social and market-related challenges, may weaken the newly-achieved sense of empowerment, thus raising risks of becoming marginalised again. If the young men and women are unsuccessful in continuing to participate in the competitive market, there are risks of different kinds to both genders. Both young men and women are likely to live without any support mechanism, thus exposing them to other social vulnerabilities and the likelihood of diverting their participation that may, in turn, give rise to social unrest. In the five case studies, the organisations provided skills and knowledge to an extent that led the young people to experience self-confidence and changes in attitudes and behaviours, and to be able to think positively about continued participation in the job market despite limited income as an immediate outcome. The improved network relationships outside the family also created hope for their continued participation in the job market. Thus, the study also contributed to the explanation of the social sustainability aspect of the social change process in addition to the importance of the financial sustainability of the social enterprise organisations.

By demonstrating the change process at an organisational level as well as at the participants' level, the study concludes that social enterprise is working both at the demand side as well as the supply side of creating employment. In ideal conditions, the government would make policy changes and provide adequate resources to overcome market-related structural challenges and would include the disadvantaged into the mainstream development activities, thus addressing the demand side of employment. In practice, these changes are undertaken by the case study organisations through several measures such as: ensuring participation of the disadvantaged by following social inclusion criteria; allocating adequate resources; building market-oriented skills among the target groups; and making policy changes that favoured the social change process. The supply side of employment concerns, such as improving employability, creating employment opportunities, and improving work efficiency (Skattebol et al., 2015), are discussed above.

The social enterprise style of development following social entrepreneurship principles can thus be seen to be contributing to the limited but sustainable social and economic transformational process of improving the livelihood of young people in Nepal. Understanding the local context, and identifying the local problems in relation

to local culture, poverty, institutional norms, and policies, thus explains the contribution of social enterprises in improving the livelihood of young participants.

Implications

Theoretical implications

This research presents a new pathway for addressing youth livelihood in Nepal. The research has implications for development theories related to the livelihood improvement of young people in Nepal using social enterprises as a way of development.

The research has contributed to the meaningful explanation of a social enterprise model of development in the Nepali context, in creating employment for young people. The model concurs with the capability-building theory of development. Capability theory explores the combined role of agency (freedom of making a choice by an individual) and structure (defined as the input from organisations at various levels, such as national and local) in the process of young people's transition from education to employment (Rudd & Evans, 1998, p. 2). Thus, in a broad sense, the social enterprise model presents possibilities of addressing development challenges inherent in improving the livelihood of young people.

The research has also contributed to the theory of social enterprise literature by highlighting the process perspective of explaining social values/impacts. The findings underline the potential role of social leaders and institutions such as the social enterprise's own function, agency, and structure; that is, it is important to explain how the results/impacts are not only the result of development intervention. The research has also highlighted the impact of change processes within the institutional system. This process perspective on achieving development results demonstrates linkages among the inputs, activities, output, and outcomes. The findings align with previous research which argued that impact can happen at any level of the organisational process: input, activities, outputs, outcome, and impacts (McLaughlin & Jordan, 1999).

The research also contributes to discussions on the livelihood improvement of young people in Nepal. Although there is a strong geographical, cultural, social and economic dimension to understanding youth in Nepal, the findings point to a need to consider the additional dimension of the market as well as that of subjective wellbeing. The additional dimensions needed to be considered are those suggested under the

Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (Hussein, 2002; Tacoli, 1999), as well as dimensions of the market, external factors and personal aspirations that lead to meeting personal goals and achieving personal satisfaction in participants' lives.

Conceptual implication 1: Defining social enterprises in Nepal

Social enterprises are viewed as development strategies in addressing several developmental challenges (Barraket & Archer, 2009; Dees, 1998; Defourny & Nyssens, 2009; Harding, 2004; Di Domenico, Tracey, & Haugh, 2009). Consistent with this viewpoint, defining social enterprises as a development strategy used in balancing the social and economic objectives of an organisation in order to achieve sustained social, economic and environmental outcomes could be a starting point in in the context of Nepal.

The proposed definition provides a broader scope to accommodate organisations which aim to achieve social and economic objectives, without any confusion related to legal provision. The proposed definition does not necessarily highlight how this is achieved, and profit distribution and profit reinvestment concerns are left to the respective organisations to determine. This definition also suits the poverty environment where social entrepreneurs are not necessarily resourced, wealthy people.

Policy implication 1: The need to prioritise young people from the social and market-needs perspective

The findings reveal a need to recognise young people as a social group, rather than considering them solely within other criteria of disadvantage. Therefore, a targeted approach is needed, focussing on young people (18–24 years) in order to meet their dynamic needs.

Additionally, there is a need to view employment concerns as a measure of livelihood improvement from a broader prospective by considering the subjective and objective wellbeing of young people. This viewpoint contrasts with a narrow definition of employment as only a means of generating income.

Research implications: Areas of further study

Based on the discussions presented above, several research areas are proposed. Some pertinent areas of research interest could be: (a) further assessment of the social enterprise approach in Nepal, beyond the concept of non-profits; (b) further assessment of the youth empowerment approach in Nepal, considering the dimension of social sustainability; (c) establishment of a definition of social enterprises in Nepal at the national level; (d) tracking of social enterprise activities; and (e) development of a common platform for sharing and reporting.

Summary and conclusion of the thesis

This chapter presented conclusions of the findings at three different levels: the macro-level, being the orgnisational survey; the meso-level, being the social enterprise organisations as case studies; and the micro level, being the young participants. The conclusions relate to three specific research objectives that presented a context for understanding the entrepreneurial activities of social enterprises in response to the unemployment concerns of young people in Nepal-strategies used by the organisations with the intention of making social changes and actual social impacts in the lives of the participants. Although these empirical data are limited to five selected organisations, the thesis shows the association between social enterprise organisations and hard-to-reach groups of young men and women in explaining the role of social order and institutional norms in achieving the intended social and economic objectives.

The thesis also elaborated on a holistic account of the social enterprises, demonstrating social change as a combination of several processes and approaches. By revealing the youth empowerment process through social, economic, cultural changes and changes in structure and agency, the thesis has presented a process-oriented framework for assessing the social values created by social enterprise organisations. These dimensions of explaining the context of social enterprises emerging in Nepal and the social change process in improving the livelihood of young people are contributing to the body of empirical literature on social enterprises from Nepal. The thesis thus makes a contribution by providing a sociological perspective of the social change process.

Finally, the conceptual, policy-related and research implications were identified as emerging directly from the study to further discover the areas that are strengthening the enhancement of the social enterprises' work and improving the livelihoods of young people in Nepal.

Specifically, the study focussed on expounding the importance of including disadvantaged young people and enhancing their capabilities for achieving social and economic empowerment objectives, as well as increasing their participation in the market. The immediate change was the steady but limited sources of income. The intermediary outcomes, however, were the changes in personal attitudes and behaviours and a positive approach towards engagement in the local employment market with the prospect of long-term sustainable social and economic changes in the lives of young people.

Finally, the present study concludes by acknowledging the challenges faced by young people as well as by the social enterprise organisations in including more disadvantaged young people; the limitations in overcoming the social, cultural, economic and market-related structural barriers; and other limitations that challenge young people as they move towards a more advantageous position. Therefore, a new commitment to helping the more disadvantaged young people belonging to the age group of 18 to 29 years; to improving the subjective and objective wellbeing of young people in Nepal; as well as to making policy changes to support organisations to upscale best practices, should make a significant contribution in all aspects of the work of social enterprise organisations in Nepal.

Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics approval letter

From: Kylie Pashley <Kylie.Pashley@acu.edu.au> on behalf of Res Ethics
Res.Ethics@acu.edu.au
Sent: Monday, December 15, 2014, 3:34 PM
To: Tim Scrase [Tim.Scrase@acu.edu.au]; Rojee Joshi
Cc: Res Ethics [Res.Ethics@acu.edu.au]
Subject: 2014 312N Ethics application approved!

Dear Applicant,

Principal Investigator: Prof Timothy Scrase
Co-Supervisor: Dr. Jen Couch
Student Researcher: Ms. Rojee Joshi
Ethics Register Number: 2014 312N
Project Title: Improving Livelihoods of Nepali Youth: The Contribution of Social
Enterprises.
Risk Level: Low Risk
Date Approved: 15/12/2014
Ethics Clearance End Date: 31/12/2015

This email is to advise that your application has been reviewed by the
Australian Catholic University's Human Research Ethics Committee and confirmed as
meeting the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human
Research.

This project has been awarded ethical clearance until 31/12/2015. In order to
comply with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research, progress
reports are to be submitted on an annual basis. If an extension of time is required
researchers must submit a progress report.

Whilst the data collection of your project has received ethical clearance, the
decision and authority to commence may be dependent on factors beyond the remit of
the ethics review process. The Chief Investigator is responsible for ensuring that
appropriate permission letters are obtained, if relevant, and a copy forwarded to ACU
HREC before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. Failure to
provide permission letters to ACU HREC before data collection commences is in
breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the
Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research. Further, this approval is
only valid as long as approved procedures are followed.

If you require a formal approval certificate, please respond via reply email and one
will be issued.

Decisions related to low risk ethical review are subject to ratification at the next available Committee meeting. You will be contacted should the Committee raises any additional questions or concerns.

Researchers who fail to submit a progress report may have their ethical clearance revoked and/or the ethical clearances of other projects suspended. When your project has been completed please complete and submit a progress/final report form and advise us by email at your earliest convenience. The information researchers provide on the security of records, compliance with approval consent procedures and documentation and responses to special conditions is reported to the NHMRC on an annual basis. In accordance with NHMRC the ACU HREC may undertake annual audits of any projects considered to be of more than low risk.

It is the Principal Investigators / Supervisors responsibility to ensure that:
1. All serious and unexpected adverse events should be reported to the HREC within 72 hours.
2. Any changes to the protocol must be approved by the HREC by submitting a Modification Form prior to the research commencing or continuing.
3. All research participants are to be provided with a Participant Information Letter and consent form unless otherwise agreed by the Committee. For progress and/or final reports, please complete and submit a Progress /Final Report form:
http://www.acu.edu.au/research/support_for_researchers/human_ethics/forms

For modifications to your project, please complete and submit a Modification form: http://www.acu.edu.au/research/support_for_researchers/human_ethics/forms

Researchers must immediately report to HREC any matter that might affect the ethical acceptability of the protocol eg: changes to protocols or unforeseen circumstances or adverse effects on participants.

Please do not hesitate to contact the office if you have any queries.

Kind regards,
Kylie Pashley
on behalf of ACU HREC Chair, Dr. Nadia Crittenden
Ethics Officer | Research Services
Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Research)
Australian Catholic University

Appendix B: Participant consent form

Improving Livelihoods of Nepali Young People: The Contribution of Social Enterprise.

STUDENT RESEARCHER: Rojee Joshi
SUPERVISOR: Professor Tim Scrase

I _____ have read and understood the Participant Information Letter. I agree to be involved with this research and I have received adequate answers to any questions I have asked. I agree that the information I provide can be used in the researcher's Ph.D. thesis and possibly one day be made available to others through publication or teaching in a way that will not identify me. All data will be audio recorded and stored anonymously in a secure location. I understand that every effort will be made to ensure confidentiality, however, I acknowledge that anonymity cannot be guaranteed. Finally, I understand that my involvement in the research is voluntary and can be withdrawn at any time, without giving a reason.

NAME OF PARTICIPANT: ....

SIGNATURE: ....

DATE: ....

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCHER: ....

DATE: ....

Appendix C: Participants' information letter (Interviewing young people)

PROJECT TITLE: Improving Livelihoods of Nepali Youth: The Contribution of Social Enterprise
SUPERVISOR: Professor Tim Scrase
STUDENT RESEARCHER: Rojee Joshi
STUDENT'S DEGREE: Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)

Dear Participant,

You are invited to take part in the above research. The research project aims to explore how social enterprises are addressing youth unemployment in Nepal. The study has been carried out at two levels. A survey of the organisations is the first level of the study and this will be followed by detailed case studies to examine the contribution of such social enterprises in addressing the problems of youth unemployment in Nepal. The input and responses provided by the organisations are expected to contribute to and help identify, different types of social enterprises working with young people and the unemployed by providing information about their number, focus, activities, revenue mix, and challenges. This information will also serve as baseline information about such social enterprises in Nepal.

The research aims to explore how social enterprises are contributing to the issues of youth unemployment in Nepal. It will allow gathering information on social enterprises working with youth and employment areas. On a broader scale, this research will assist in filling a distinct gap in social enterprise and youth in Nepal.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to agree to participate in a 1 hour interviewed by the researcher, on one occasion for approximately 60 minutes. The location, date and time for the interview will be mutually agreed upon and it will be audiotaped, and later transcribed. With your agreement, the researcher may also take field notes during the interview.

The interview will create the basis for the investigation, providing key themes that the interviews will further explore. The topics that will be discussed during the interviews will include your introduction, positive outcomes of the programme affecting your life and impacts felt by you at personal, family and community level.

All young men and women who agree to participate in the research project will be renumerated for their time. The participants interviewed will receive a cinema voucher and all individual interviewees will receive $50.

If you agree to participate, every effort will be made to ensure that any personally identifying information you provide will be treated confidentially. However, due to the small sample size of participants, confidentiality cannot be guaranteed. A pseudonym chosen by participants will be used to record their contribution. Moreover, all data will be kept in anonymous form in a locked filing cabinet at ACU premises. After seven years this data will be destroyed.

Your participation in the research is voluntary, and you can choose to stop the interview at any time without giving a reason. All data contributed to the research by that person would be destroyed and not used in the final project.

Following the conclusion of the study, participants can opt to receive appropriate feedback on the results of the project. In addition to this, the research data may one day be made available to others through publication or teaching.

Any questions regarding this research can be directed to:

Professor Tim Scrase
Email: Tim.Scrase@acu.edu.au
Faculty of Education and Arts
Melbourne Campus
115 Victoria Parade, Fitzroy 3065 Australia
Telephone: +61 3995 3842

Or:

Rojee Joshi, Phone: 015537448
This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at the Australian Catholic University. If, for whatever reason, you choose to make a complaint or concern, it will be treated confidentially, fully investigated and you will be informed of the outcome. Should you have a complaint or concern regarding the way you were treated during the study, or if the researcher is unable to adequately reply to your questions, please contact:

Manager, Ethics
C/o Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Research)
Australian Catholic University
North Sydney Campus, PO Box 968 NORTH SYDNEY, NSW 2059
Ph.: 02 9739 2519; Fax: 02 9739 2870

If you agree to participate in this research, please sign both copies of the consent form, retaining one copy for your records and return the other copy to the student researcher.

…………………………………   …………………………………
Supervisor   Student researcher

Appendix D: Organisation survey questionnaire

Name of the organisation:	
Role of the respondent:	
Organisation website:	
Email address:	
Address of organisation:	
Survey completion date:	

Q1   What is your organisation's stated primary goal? ....
....
....

Q2   What year was your organisation established? ....

Q3   What is the legal basis of your organisation? (For example, NGO, Private Ltd., Company, Cooperative, Sole Proprietorship, etc.) ....
....
....

Q4   How would you characterise your organisation? (You may tick more than one if applicable.)
☐ Association
☐ Voluntary organisation
☐ Foundation
☐ Social enterprise
☐ Informal (CBOs…)
☐ Other (please specify) ....

Q5   Who founded the organisation?
☐ An individual
☐ A group of citizens
☐ Other (please specify)...

Q6   What is the age profile of the client group? (You may tick more than one box.)
☐ 0–15 years
☐ 16–24 years
☐ 25–40 years
☐ 41–60 years
☐ above 60 years

Q7   What is the basis for the selection of your client group? (Please choose more than one, if applicable.)
☐ income level
☐ education level
☐ geographic location
☐ caste or ethnicity
☐ gender
☐ other (please specify) ....

Q8   What is the composition of staff in your organisation?
....   paid staff (in number)
....   full-time volunteer staff (in number)
....   part-time volunteer staff (in number)

Q9   What is the main social problem addressed by your organisation? ....
....
....
....

Q10   How is your organisation addressing the above-mentioned social problem? ....
....
....
....

Q11   How would you describe trends in your net income over the last five years?
☐ increasing
☐ decreasing
☐ variable
☐ steady

Q12   Please provide the main sources of income for your organisation. Please select up to three
options, if applicable, and rank 1 to 3.
☐ government
☐ private donors
☐ business organisations
☐ self-funded (through own enterprise)
☐ NGO/INGO
☐ other (please specify) ....

Q13   Does your organisation generate funds through enterprises/business:
☐ to cover operational costs only
☐ to support NGO or parent organisation or another organisational network it belongs to
☐ for reinvestment in the organisation and expansion of its activities
☐ to generate profit for limited distribution to shareholders
☐ other (please specify) ....

Q14   If your organisation is reinvesting in the organisation, what is the percentage of investment
from yearly net income?
☐ less than 10%
☐ 10–25%
☐ 26–50%
☐ more than 50%
☐ not applicable

Q15   What would describe the greatest challenges for up scaling of program activities? ....
....
....
....

Q16   Would you like me to supply your organisation a copy of the aggregated results from this
survey?
☐ Yes
☐ No

Q17   If yes, please provide me with the name of a contact person or designated position and the
email address: ....
....
....

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix E: Distribution of surveyed organisations

Geophysical Regions	Central Development Region	Eastern Development Region	Western Development Region	Mid-Western Development Region	Far Western Development Region
Mountain					
Hills	1		2		1
Terai (Flat Lands)	3	1		1	3
Valley	22				

Appendix F: Data code used for survey analysis

Q1		Organisation's goal/objectives
	1	Improving livelihoods
	2	Growth of enterprise and entrepreneurial skills
	3	Creating job opportunities
	4	Research and consultancies
	5	Institutional sustainability
	6	Sustainable use of natural resources
	8	Reconstruction, rehabilitation and reintegration
	9	99
Q7		Selection criteria
	1	Income level
	2	Education level
	3	Geographical location
	4	Caste/ethnicity
	5	Gender
	6	Age
	7	Potential to learn skills
	8	Others
	9	99.
Q9		Social challenges addressed
	1	Social, economic and political empowerment
	2	Addressing social inequality
	3	Affordability/access to information/HR capacity
	4	Social integration, rehabilitation and reconstruction
	5	Issues of unemployment and underemployment
	6	Job market integrations
	7	Inadequate entrepreneurship knowledge and skills
	8	Market demands/marketing of the products
	9	Sustainable use of natural resources
	10	Policy gaps
	11	Innovation in business creation
	12	Enhancement of skills
	13	99

Q10.1	Addressing social problems
1	Engaging in the empowerment process
2	Social integration
3	Increasing knowledge/awareness/accessibility, affordability
4	Expanding income opportunities
5	Creating employment opportunity
6	Enterprise/business creation/growth
7	Addressing marketing challenges
8	Sustainable production, processing practices of natural resources
9	Addressing policy gaps
10	Creating awareness
13	99
Q10.2	**Achievements**
1	Socio-economic empowerment
2	New business model
3	Entrepreneurs/enterprises/entrepreneurial skills developed
4	New business strategies in place
5	Jobs created
6	Employment models
7	The popularity of the concept
8	Responsible CSR growing
9	Environmental friendly plan/ programs in progress
10	New governance model
11	New model emerging
12	99
Q10.3	**Innovations**
1	Service provision
2	Improved communication
3	Technology
4	Production of products
5	Processing of products
6	Meeting/market demands and marketing
7	Business intelligence
8	New business idea
9	Creating an entrepreneurship culture
10	Social integration of the disadvantaged in the market

	11	Common property-based enterprises
	12	Responsible CSR
	13	RRR
	14	New ways of financing
	15	99
Q10.4		**Product and services**
	1	Service provision
	2	Improved communication
	3	Technology
	4	Production of products
	5	Processing of products
	6	Meeting market demands and marketing
	7	Business intelligence
	8	New business idea
	9	Creating entrepreneurship culture
	10	Social integration of the disadvantaged in the market
	11	Common property-based enterprises
	12	Responsible CSR
	13	RRR
	14	New ways of financing
	15	99
Q12		**Sources of revenue**
	1	Government
	2	Individuals
	3	Social business
	4	Business organisation
	5	Own source of income
	6	Institutional support
	7	Venture funding
	8	Charity funding
	9	Others
	10	99
Q13		**Use of revenue**
	1	To cover the operational cost
	2	To support the parent organisation or the organisational network
	3	To reinvest in the organisation for the expansion of its activities

	4	To generate profit for its shareholders
	5	Others
	6	99
Q15		Challenges to up scaling
	1	Market-related
	2	Policy-related
	3	Different conceptual understanding
	4	External factors
	5	Labor-related
	6	Finance-related
	7	Culture-related
	8	Poverty
	9	99

Appendix G: An interview guide for case study of the organisation

      Objective 2: Using a case study approach, examine five representative social enterprises to document and analyse the effectiveness of their practice in attending their social objectives of reducing youth unemployment and disadvantage.

      Process: Interviews will be informal and discursive, to allow exploration of the issues facing the organisations in meeting their social objectives of improving the lives of young people in Nepal. The case study focusses on the social performance of the organisations for assessing their contribution to improved livelihoods of the youths.

Interview Questions

Q1   Please provide with a brief history of your organisation and specific target groups that you are serving.

Q2   What are the social objectives?

Q3   What is the main social problem that your organisation is addressing? *Does the organisation have a clear strategy to achieve its social goals?*

Q4   What are the services/ products/ delivery models and delivery channels of your organisation?

Q5   What activities does the institution undertake to achieve its social mission regarding a) achieving those objectives; b) complain and feedback mechanisms and client protection?

Q6   How does the organisation ensure the products, services, and delivery models are in line with the client's need and preferences?

Q7   How does your organisation ensure the products, services, and delivery models are in line with the client's need and preferences?

Q8   What are the major achievements regarding planned output and activities?

Q9   How do you explain 'sustainability' of your organisation?

Q10   Do you see challenges in implementing SE? What are they?

Q11   What is the motivational factor that has connected you with this organisation?

      Thank you!

Guiding note for the interview with the representative of the organisation

Questions	Reference note used in the interview
Understanding the social context	
Q1. Please provide with a brief history of your organisation and specific target groups that you are serving.	When was the organisation formed? Who initiated the formation of the organisation, what factors motivated to establish the organisation?
	What are the strength and weakness of the organisation, what are the external and internal factors that are affecting the operation of the organisation?
Q2. What are the social objectives?	Check if the social mission of the organisation clearly states the target groups, how the organisation will meet the need of the target groups and the expected outcome. These statements are supposed to be formalised and are available in writing, accessible to all level of staff and management, and all of them understand them well.
Q3. What is the main social problem that your organisation is addressing?	The organisations will have measurable indicators towards achieving social goals with clarity on the type of products/ services, delivery models and channels of delivery. The organisation will have a system of data collection at a disaggregated level regarding gender, age, caste/ethnicity and geographical location (as per organisational goal). For this purpose, the organisation should have a data collection protocol (who collects, who verifies and who approves them).
	The organisation will clearly state the social challenges addressed by them. The organisation should be able to say to them very specifically and clearly.
	The results should show evidence of reaching to the poor and making changes in their lives. The institutions also should have a verification mechanism, preferably through third party/ independent verification.
Understanding social innovation/market orientation	
Q4. What are the services/ products provided by your organisation?	Products/ services offered by the organisation regarding: (a) meeting client's needs; (b) match organisational strategy; delivery mechanism; and (c)marketing,
Q5 What activities does the institution undertake to achieve its social mission regarding: (a) achieving those objectives; (b) complaint and feedback mechanisms and client protection?	The organisation should be able to state the resources and inputs used to generate the outcome and results. All the decisions made are documented as meeting minutes and signed by all of the board members. Clearly state the activities such as inputs, activities, outputs, and outcomes. While collecting the data/information, the organisation ensures representative samples. Satisfaction regarding accessibility, timeliness, ease of use, reliability, satisfaction with the service provider, suggestions for improvements is ensured.

Q6. How does the organisation ensure the products, services, and delivery models are in line with the client's need and preferences?	Regular review, research, new product testing and product development.
	The organisation also ensures that it follows the principle of 'do no harm' as a client protection policy. Moreover, the organisation ensures the products are customer-friendly depending on the age group, gender, literacy and physical ability of the client groups. The organisation shows flexibility towards its clients in adjusting the products/services in meeting the individual needs as well as market demands. Overall, the institution conducts a strategic analysis of its products and services to understand better how the services and products are helping the clients (as per the organisation's objectivity). The organisation also ensures it does not use aggressive approaches to any clients to be part of the program/ project. The organisation will have a feedback and complaint system for each of its products and services. The organisation will also ensure the satisfaction of the clients.

Understanding the outcome and impact

Q7. What are the major achievements regarding planned output and activities?	Describe impacts at the broader level of society and community.

Organisational sustainability

Q8. How do you explain the 'sustainability' of your organisation?	What is the main source of funding? Does your organisation have access to Government funding? If your organisation is making a surplus, how do you use the surplus/profit?
	How is the organisation using the surplus? How much is being reinvested into the program expansion? What are the spending areas of the surplus?
Q9. Do you see challenges in implementing the SE? What are the biggest challenges in implementing the SE?	The organisation should be able to identify at least three challenges categorically.

Understanding the personal aspirations of the social leader/team leaders

Q10. What is the motivational factor that has connected you with this organisation?	The social leader/team leader narrates his/her experience about organisation's goal, objectives, and its belief.

Appendix H: Characteristics of young people selected for an interview

Person	Age Group	Caste and Ethnicity	Occupation	Gender
Participant 1	18–24	Brahmin+Chhettris	Beautician (self-employment)	Female
Participant 2	18–24	Brahmin+Chhettris	Factory worker	Female
Participant 3	18–24	Brahmin+Chhettris	Tailoring (self-employment)	Female
Participant 4	18–24	Janjati	Factory worker	Female
Participant 5	18–24	Janjati	Factory worker	Female
Participant 6	18–24	Janjati	Factory worker	Female
Participant 7	18–24	Janjati	Field assistant	Female
Participant 8	18–24	Muslim	Garment fabricator	Female
Participant 9	18–24	Muslim	Garment fabricator	Female
Participant 10	18–24	Newar	Cashier	Female
Participant 11	18–24	Newar	Coordinator	Female
Participant 12	18–24	Newar	Trainer	Female
Participant 13	18–24	Newar	Weaver	Female
Participant 14	18–24	Newar	Weaver	Female
Participant 15	18–24	Newar	Wood carver	Female
Participant 16	18–24	Newar	Working in a cafe	Female
Participant 17	18–24	BK	Entrepreneur (self-employment)	Male
Participant 18	18–24	Janjati	Mobile technician	Male
Participant 19	18–24	Terai Ethnic community	Solar PV technician	Male
Participant 20	18–24	Terai Ethnic community	Solar PV technician	Male
Participant 21	18–24	Muslim	Field assistant	Male
Participant 22	18–25	Terai Ethnic community	Field assistant	Female
Participant 23	25–30	Janjati	Factory worker	Female
Participant 24	25–30	Newar	Tailoring (self-employment)	Female
Participant 25	25–30	Newar	Tailoring (self-employment)	Female
Participant 26	25–30	Newar	Tailoring (self-employment)	Female
Participant 27	25–30	Newar	Dhaka weaver	Female
Participant 28	25–30	BK	Arc welder (self-employment)	Male
Participant 29	25–30	Newar	Arc welder (self-employment)	Male
Participant 30	above 30	BK	Factory worker	Male

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