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Analysing the spectrum of social replication

GETTING OFF THE BEATEN TRACK

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ABSTRACT

Title: Analysing the spectrum of social replication - Getting off the beaten track

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It has been demonstrated in the literature that social replication, defined as "replicating a successful social purpose organisation or project in a new geographical location" (Berelowitz et al. 2013, p. 5), can bring both private and social benefits. However, this process is still widely misunderstood or unknown by social ventures. The lack of consensus on the main concepts of this field of research may have been nourishing this issue.

This dissertation, which adopts a structure mixing academic dissertation and case study, aims at better defining, analysing, and continuing to explore the present spectrum of social replication in order to assist social ventures in finding a suitable replication path according to their characteristics and social objectives.

Based on both the social and the business literatures, potential new replication strategies are sought and defined. Their pros and cons are discussed, as those of the already known paths. The replication paths of two organisations, characterised by their social purpose, are also analysed through case studies.

This analysis indicates that there is no right replication path, therefore confirms the Wei-Skillern and Anderson's (2003) theory. Rather, some social ventures are able to develop tailor-made paths that fall outside the present spectrum of social replication as well as to change them over time in order to improve private and social benefits. Two particular strategies, called "smart collaborative networking" and "social combination", corresponding to the social replication definition, broaden the present spectrum.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CAP	Community Action Program
CASE	Center for the Advancement of Social Entrepreneurship
DOL	Department Of Labor
EPA	Educational Priority Area
HUD	Housing and Urban Development
ICSF	International Centre for Social Franchising
ICTs	Information and Communication Technologies
PCT	Primary Care Trust
RPS	Replication and Program Services
TCV	The Conservation Volunteers
YAP	Youth Action Program

PREFACE

Having supervised a safe drinking water project in India, I know how rewarding, but hard, costly, and time-consuming it is to find and implement relevant and effective solutions to tackle societal issues. The most critical hurdle to overcome, as with so many social projects, was to convince funders. It was a heavy responsibility not to waste the given opportunity when others had been deprived of it while the outcome was not entirely certain. Thus, when my advisor Professor Susana Frazão Pinheiro suggested the topic of the replication of successful social projects, on which the International Centre for Social Franchising works, it greatly aroused my curiosity and sounded like a paradox. Until then, I was better aware of the innovation race in the social sector and I was convinced about the required uniqueness of projects in order to provide the best solutions. My first insights of the literature showed me that social replication could go beyond that and was a field of research under-studied.

Moreover, I am convinced that there should not be any form of frontier when it comes to development issues. Therefore, I was even more interested in social replication as it covers a wide range of actors and is inspired by practices from different horizons. Learning more about different tools to deal with societal problems, especially from the business sector, was one of my main criteria to choose a dissertation topic. I also hope that this dissertation will continue to open prospects for societal solutions. Studying the spectrum of social replication clearly reflects these aspirations.

My first and warmest thanks go to Professor Susana Frazão Pinheiro for her valuable guidance and patience throughout this dissertation, as well as for introducing me to the International Centre for Social Franchising. I also would like to deeply thank the International Centre for Social Franchising's staff for its precious ideas, advice, documents and availability. I also particularly wish to thank The Conservation Volunteers for kindly replying me and providing me all the necessary data. Finally, I would like to extend my special thanks to my family for its support not only moral but also financial during my academic path.

1 INTRODUCTION

The social literature shows that replicating innovations or demonstrated solutions, instead of trying to "reinvent the wheel", can be a means for organisations to obtain both private and social benefits. However, the social replication field of research suffers from a lack of consensus on its main concepts. That is the case, for instance, for the spectrum of social replication. Furthermore, studies have stressed on some of the replication strategies which compose it, while some others may deserve a deeper investigation. The competition for funding as well as the increasing demand for scaling what works in the social sector give additional rationales for social replication. Nonetheless, the social organisations' misperceptions and misunderstandings regarding this practice, stemming from traditional business, remain substantial.

Reflecting these issues, this dissertation aims at better defining, analysing, and continuing to explore the present spectrum of social replication in order to fill in the gap and to assist social ventures in finding a suitable replication path according to their characteristics and social objectives. Aligned with this purpose, this dissertation will address the three following research questions:

1. Can the present spectrum of social replication be extended?
2. What are the pros and cons of each replication model?
3. Can social ventures change their replication strategies over time to improve their replication process?

To answer these questions, a structure mixing traditional dissertation and case study was adopted:

Section 2 – *Literature Review* – will relate the present work to both the social literature and the business literature. It will first explain what social replication is by providing its historical background and discussing its definition. It will then analyse the motivations of social replication, also compared with those of "commercial" replication, and will end with the discussion of the choice of a replication path.

In section 3 – *Case Study: Analysing the spectrum of social replication* –, it will be studied the pros and cons of the strategies of the present spectrum of social replication, based on both the social literature and the business literature. Afterwards, the second sub-section, also based on the social literature and the business literature, will investigate whether this spectrum can be extended with other replication strategies, as well as weigh their advantages and drawbacks. Then, the replication stategies of two organisations, characterised by their social purpose, will be studied in the last sub-section through case studies.

Finally, section 4 and section 5 will be devoted to the *Limitations and Future Research* recommendations and the *Conclusion* of this dissertation, respectively.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 WHAT IS SOCIAL REPLICATION?

2.1.1 Historical background

Replication is not new and covers a wide range of fields. This process viewed by Van Oudenhoven and Wazir (n.d., Sec. 2) as "linking the origin of an innovation, idea or product on the one hand, to a universe of potential users, clients or beneficiaries on the other", was first investigated by nineteenth century anthropology before being studied by medicine, agriculture, sociology, education or marketing. The debate surrounding replication and its application in the social sector arose later in the 1950's and the 1960's with the development of charity shop branch networks, but only began gaining real recognition in the early 1990's (Leat 2003; Higgins, Smith, & Walker 2008). Indeed, the first attempts to replicate social programmes from, for instance, the Community Action Program (CAP) and the Educational Priority Area (EPA) in the USA, ended in a simple mass transfer which did not take into account social heterogeneity within the targeted population, therefore missed the intended social change (Oudenhoven & Wazir n.d., sec. 2). Actually, replication should not be a duplication, a cookie-cutter, or a one-size-fits-all approach (Replication and Program Services 1994; Bradach 2003; Leat 2003; Fleisch et al. 2008).

Replication has been witnessing a return of interest, mainly endorsed by foundations, in Anglo-Saxon countries since the beginning of the 1990s, which may be partly explained by a context of austerity and budget constraints. If there was initially a clear focus on dissemination used as a marketing tool and networking to share practices, other models of replications, such as franchising, were rapidly examined to replicate projects directly (Leat 2003). The social sector expansion, the advent of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), the stricter requirement for impact measurement, as well as the improvement of quality standards in social enterprises have accelerated the formalisation of social replication (Higgins et al. 2008). The field of social replication is currently mainly investigated by institutions, foundations, and consulting organisations specialised in the social sector. However, a lack of consensus on definitions and frameworks can be noticed.

2.1.2 Social replication definition

Despite the growing and demonstrated interest in replication strategies among the different actors constituting the social sector (Berelowitz et al. 2013), no common definition has been established yet. This lack of consensus nourishes the current confusion, misunderstanding, and misconception about this process (Mavra 2011), therefore may hamper the implementation of replication

strategies. Wazir and Van Oudenhoven (n.d., Sec.2) also point out “the little uniformity or consistency in usage in the research literature and in development language”. For instance, the terms “replicating” and “scaling” are too frequently interchanged (Bradach 2003). Furthermore, the deficit of academic papers in the social replication field must also perpetuate this issue. Nonetheless, common elements can be extracted from the present definitions of social replication: the replication of an existing entity, such as an organisation, a programme, or a more specific element of an organisation in another location; a social purpose; the success of the initial entity has to be proved.

One of the most recent definitions put forward by Berelowitz et al. (2013, p. 5) states that social replication corresponds to “replicating a successful social purpose organisation or project in a new geographical location”. This definition shows some evolutions and brings stricter delimitations compared with the former ones. Indeed, it does not only involve to move “a tested program to additional site” (RPS 1994, p. 1), but rather to prove the relevancy of an organisation or a programme, since testing does not obviously mean convincing and positive results. In addition, this definition also specifies the geographic characteristic of the new location and can be applied to a broad range of sectors and business models including commercial models (Berelowitz et al. 2013). The Unltdventures’ definition (2007, p. 4) is closer to the dissemination concept as it “is around the spreading of ideas”, and states that the replication process should also imply to take “the learning and skills that have been developed” within the initial entity. However, this definition does not convey the idea that the replicated entity has to prove its worth.

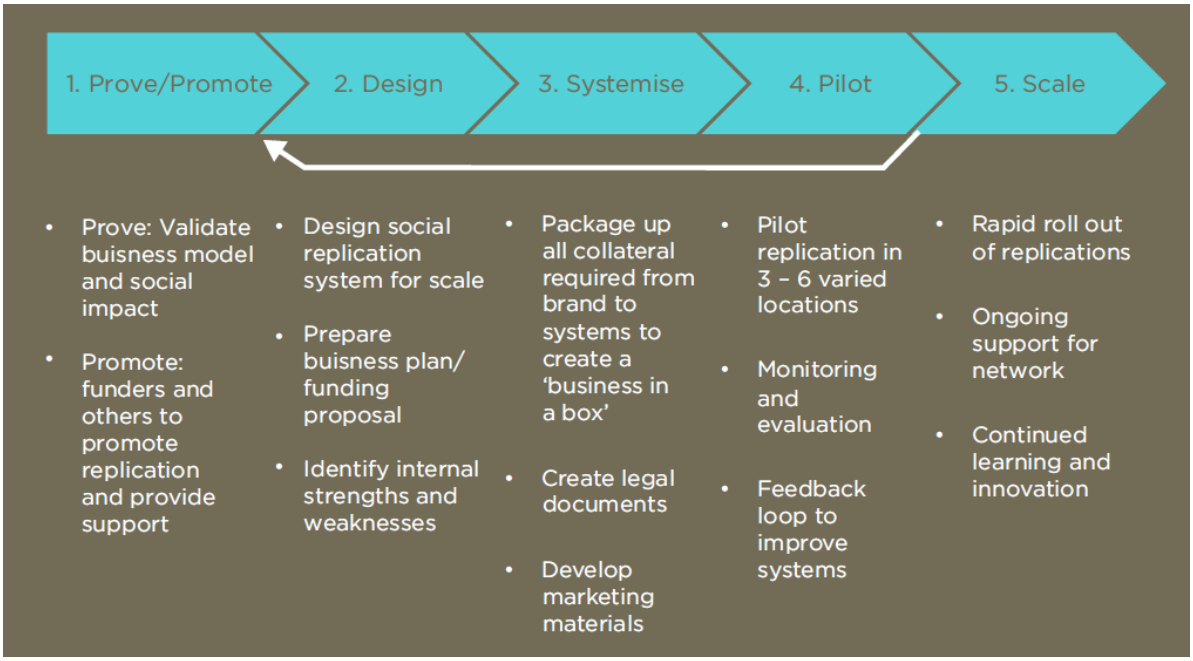
The social replication definition of Berelowitz et al. will be used throughout this dissertation, as it appears the clearest, as well as the most complete and precise.

2.1.3 Successful replication

It has been observed in the previous section that the definition of social replication includes the condition that the entity replicated has demonstrated sufficient success (Bradach 2003; Leat 2003; Berelowitz et al. 2013; Massarsky & Gillespie 2013). Indeed, there is no rationale for replicating something which does not properly work, since it would only lead to replicate problems and spread difficulties instead of the social change intended (Unltdventures 2007). The social replication literature provides different frameworks, generally broken down into phases, to assist the replication process. They underline the necessity to conduct a strict readiness assessment of the entity considered for a potential replication as well as a pilot phase before initiating any scaling process (RPS 1994; Berelowitz et al. 2013; Massarsky & Gillespie, 2013). However, there is no agreement on the definition of what a proven organisation or project is, and research (RPS 1994; Leat 2003;

Massarsky & Gillespie 2013) shed light on the critical lack of impact measurement before replicating[1].

Figure 1: The 5 stages of social replication



Source: Berelowitz et al. (2013)

The social replication process shows similarities with the business sector. The Replication Program Services (RPS) (1994) emphasises on the usefulness of following a market-driven approach by conducting promotion efforts and marketing studies to assess the need for replication in other locations. This is endorsed by Wazir and Van Oudenhoven (n.d.) who claim that organisations should draw their inspiration from the business sector to complete replication successfully.

Another key component of successful replication is the adaptation to local environment and targeted populations. As mentioned previously, replication is anything but a duplication, a cookie-cutter, or a one-size-fits-all approach (RPS 1994; Bradach 2003; Leat 2003; Fleisch et al. 2008).

Similarly to the issue of the legitimacy to undertake a replication process, no consensus on the criteria determining a successful replication has been found yet, and there is still large room for improvement as regards impact measurement, which can be partly explained by a lack of skills and financial resources (Berelowitz et al. 2013; Massarsky & Gillespie 2013). This issue may be further complicated due to the different replication objectives of social ventures.

[1] The Massarsky and Gillepsie's survey (2013) reports that only 39% of the US nonprofits scaling have evaluated impact of their work. These figures include organisation which use replication strategies to scale.

2.2 WHY REPLICATING?

"Nearly every problem has been solved by someone, somewhere. The frustration is that we can't seem to replicate (those solutions) anywhere else". Bill Clinton

2.2.1 Main drivers

Three main drivers of the adoption of social replication strategies, frequently interlinked, have been identified in the literature: avoiding to "reinvent the wheel", scaling, and spreading good practices.

Social ventures have been putting increasingly under pressure by donors and policy makers, especially in times of austerity and budget constraints, to better manage scarce funding (RPS 1994; Berelowitz et al. 2013; Wazir & Van Oudenhouven n.d.), as well as to show results (Bradach 2003; Leat 2003; Wazir & Van Oudenhoven n.d.). Replication, as a relevant strategy for social ventures "to deliver social impact to a much greater number of beneficiaries in a cost-effective way" (Berelowitz et al. 2013, p. 5), has been raising awareness. This willingness not to "reinvent the wheel" has entailed concrete actions. For instance, the 2009 Serve America Act and the Obama administration fostered proven and effective initiatives by dedicating them special funds (Summerville & Raley 2009; Bradach 2010). It is rational, and even a "business principle", to replicate what has already demonstrated success (Fleisch et al. 2008; Higgins et al. 2008, p. 6), rather than to start a business from scratch, which is riskier, costly and time-consuming and does not allow for any learning process (Leat 2003; Fleisch et al. 2008; Berelowitz et al. 2013). The cost-effectiveness argument is strengthened by Bradach (2010) who argues that replication enables an increase of impact more proportional to size.

As stated by Berelowitz et al. (2013), replication is not only cost-effective, but also enables to reach a larger population, therefore to scale. There is a significant confusion around the "replicating" and the "scaling" processes in the literature, whereas the former is one of the different existing paths to achieve the latter (Berelowitz et al. 2013). Some authors also add qualitative attributes to the term "scaling" defined as making a "meaningful and sustainable impact by reaching greater numbers of people" (Clark et al. 2012, p. 1), or a means to improve the lives of recipients (Leat 2003). In addition, social replication is also seen as an opportunity to spread good practices as it allows for mutual learning and sharing of experience (Leat 2003; Richardson & Berelowitz 2012, Van Oudenhoven & Wazir n.d.). Therefore, quality and quantity can be non-dichotomous characteristics of social replication.

Among the other benefits achieved through social replication can be cited: quicker implementation, professionalization of operations, improved data collection, better innovation potential due to the need for adaptation to local context, sustainability and income diversification, and fostered partnerships (Bradach 2003; Leat 2003; Mavra 2011; Berelowitz et al. 2013).

2.2.2 Social replication in question

The literature and the social ventures' experiences show that replication may not be a panacea and can be a highly challenging means to achieve greater social impacts.

The Contextualist approach, in opposition to the Universalist approach, asserts there is no room for one-size-fit-all, cookie-cutter approaches or even standardisation to deal with social issues. Each local environment is unique, characterised by special circumstances and expectations, consequently should match with a customised solution developed by its own "receivers" rather than "givers" that establishes an unbalanced relationship (Wazir & Van Oudenhoven n.d., sec. 2), an argument in line with those of RPS (1994), Bradach (2003), Leat (2003), and Fleisch et al. (2008). Wazir & Van Oudenhoven (n.d., sec. 2) also emphasise on the potential incompatibility to apply strategies developed by the business sector to enhance social replication due to the "differences in objectives, guiding philosophy, target groups, values and mission". Besides, Mavra (2011) observes in her study that some social ventures show reluctance and apprehension to use replication strategies because of the conviction of the uniqueness of their community and problems, as well as the connotation of commercial approaches. However, she shows that they can reconcile with social replication by finding a compatible replication model with the parent organisation's business model and social impact. Furthermore, scaling also brings new problems, Waitzer and Paul (2011) draw attention to the complexity of management that increases proportionally more quickly than the number of beneficiaries. Finally, Leat (2003) questions the replication process end-of-life, when the ways to tackle the social issue become irrelevant, an issue broadly under-researched in the literature.

If replication is certainly a vector of social change and multiple benefits for social ventures, it nevertheless remains highly challenging throughout the whole process. The main obstacles mentioned by social ventures to initiate replication are: access to finance, lack of knowledge and information about this option to consider it, lack of structured support, lack of skills and leadership within social ventures, finding suitable partners (Mavra 2011[2]; Berelowitz et al. 2013[3]; Massarsky & Gillespie[4] 2013); while lack of capital, speed, adaptation to local context, unrealistic expectations, maintenance of standards, quality control, and protection of programme identity are other issues to overcome during the different phases of the replication process (RPS 1994; Berelowitz et al. 2013; Wazir and Van Oudenhoven n.d.). Thus, in order to release the full potential of social replication and to facilitate it, Berelowitz et al. (2013) recommend the creation of a social replication ecosystem.

[2] Qualitative survey of 22 UK social enterprises.
[3] Survey of 436 US nonprofits.
[4] Survey of 155 respondents including different types of UK social ventures (charities, social enterprises, for-profit companies, and cooperatives).

2.2.3 Social and commercial sectors: Different purpose and implications

Although the social sector is advised to be inspired by the commercial sector to increase its likelihood of replication success (RPS 1994; Wazir & Van Oudenhoven n.d.), and similarities exist between the two sectors in replication operations and paths (Bradach 2003; Weber, Kröger, & Lambrich 2012), their main replication purposes are nevertheless different with significant implications.

Not surprisingly, as social ventures, compared with their commercial counterparts, are in the first place driven by social benefits (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern 2006; Martin & Osberg 2007), they also tackle replication opportunities in a different manner (Weber et al. 2012). For instance, while the commercial sector is mainly attracted by favourable markets from which they can derive a consequential gain, the social sector turns towards an "unjust equilibrium" (Martin & Osberg, p. 35) or an "inhospitable context" (Austin et al. 2006, p. 9) in order to bring about improvement, even if this choice can be translated in higher costs and risk-taking (Austin et al. 2006). However, this can be facilitated by looser constraints of performances (Austin et al. 2006). Weber et al. (2012) also assert that social ventures do not put at risk their social mission even if they can benefit from the replication process in many other ways. This is endorsed by Austin et al. (2006, p. 7) who claim that social entrepreneurs should sometimes resist the "demand-pull for growth" to better prepare a "long-term impact strategy". In addition, the social sector can voluntarily favour knowledge sharing during the replication in order to achieve its social goal contrary to the social sector, which tends to protect its intangible assets to ensure a competitive position (Austin et al. 2006).

In order to increase their social benefits, social ventures can choose from a wide range of paths frequently borrowed from the commercial sector.

2.3 CHOOSING A PATH TO REPLICATE

After demonstrating its effectiveness, its replication readiness, and a similar social issue needs tackling elsewhere, an organisation has to choose a suitable path to replicate. It is not an easy task due to the lack of agreement on the different models which constitute the spectrum of social replication, as well as on their definitions and characteristics. Both the business and social literatures remark that social ventures can combine different models of replication, nonetheless, this behaviour is not included in the spectra of social replication.

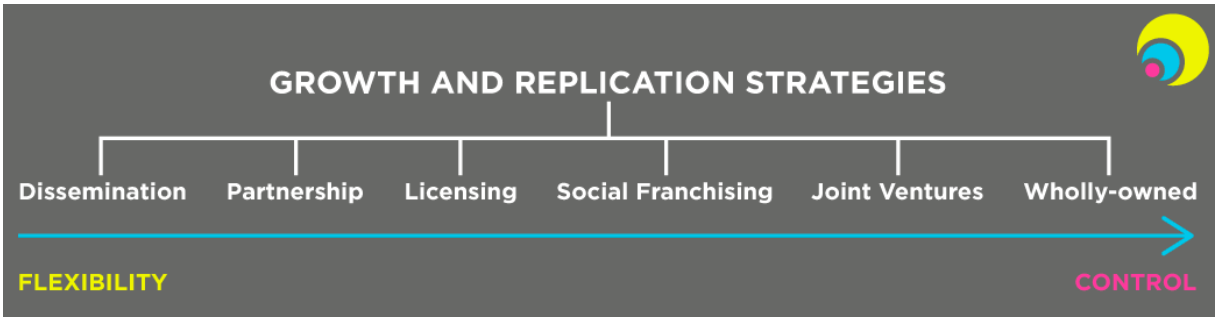
2.3.1 The present spectrum of social replication: A lack of consensus

There is no official spectrum of social replication in the literature, defined in this dissertation as the set of "options open to social purpose organisations that wish to replicate into new geographic areas" (Berelowitz et al. 2013, p. 12). The spectra depicted include a varying degrees of detail.

“Wholly-owned”, most frequently called branching, and franchising have been the most represented and studied models of replication in the literature while dissemination is sometimes not mentioned. For that matter, Mavra (2011, p. 12) points out the “need for clearer definitions of models of replication”. This lack of common definitions may explain the difference between the academic definitions and the organisations’ perceptions of the different replication models, which leads to misconceptions, and confusions about social replication (Mavra 2011).

The International Centre for Social Franchising’s (ICSF) spectrum must be the most recent and complete. It is composed of six replication models organised in increasing degree of the parent organisation’s control over the units created: dissemination, partnership, licensing, social franchising, joint ventures, and wholly-owned.

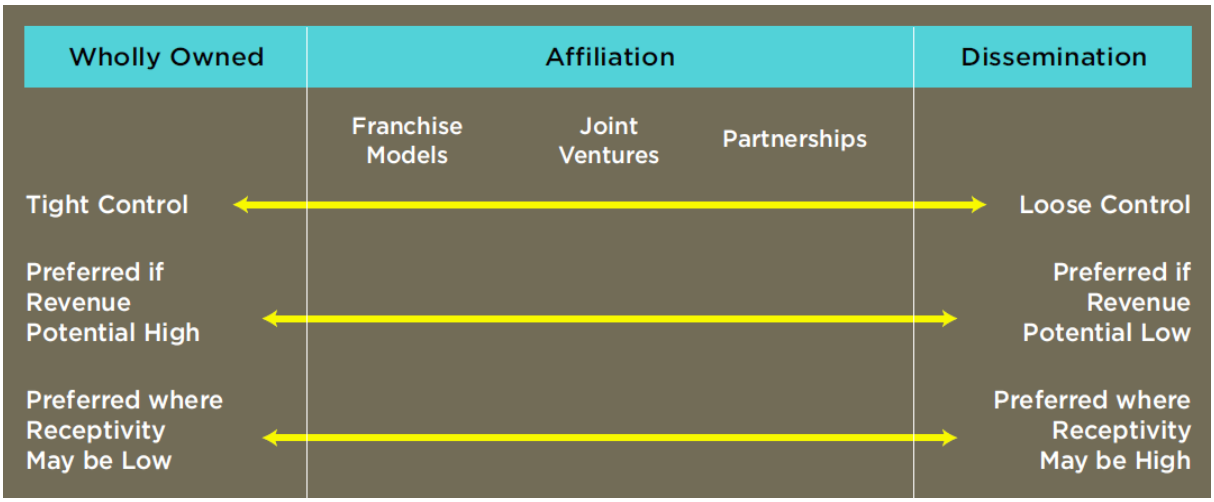
Figure 2: The ICSF’s spectrum of social replication



Source: ICSF

The ICSF’s diagram is inspired by that of McNeill Ritchie, Shine and Hawkins (2011), which shows another continuum of replication options arranged according to the parent organisation’ control and potential revenue, and the degree of receptivity of the targeted beneficiaries. Nevertheless, it can be observed that the latter spectrum positions differently joint ventures and does not mention licensing as a replication model.

Figure 3: The social replication spectrum of McNeill Ritchie et al.



Source: McNeill Ritchie, Shine and Hawkins (2011)

For a better understanding of the social replication spectrum, the definitions of the different replication models are listed below. Three remarks can be made here: they have been selected for their clarity among a very wide choice, since there is no common definition in the social literature, as pointed out by Mavra (2011); the franchising and licensing definitions are very close, the main difference is that the franchisor exercises a strong control over the franchisee's operations whereas the licensing model allows for operational flexibility (Mavra 2011); social and commercial replication share a common language (Mavra 2011).

Table 1: The definitions of the social replication models

Model		Definition
Wholly-Owned/ Branching		""Branch" structure in which the social enterprise creates, owns, and operates the replicated entity." (UnLtd Ventures 2008, p. 2)
Affiliation		"Involving partnerships with entities that are partly or wholly owned by other organisations." (McNeill Ritchie et al. 2011, p. 5)
Affiliation models	**Joint-Ventures**	"Social enterprise joins an outside party to create a new entity; the parties share profits and losses." (UnLtd Ventures 2008, p. 2)
	Franchising	"Social franchising is defined as being where a successful social purpose organisation enables at least one independent franchisee to deliver their proven model under licence." (Berelowitz et al. 2013, p. 5)
	Licensing	"A licensing model is based upon a contractual arrangement between the social enterprise and an outside party (the licensee) in which the licensee purchases a license, usually for a fixed period of months or years, to use a social enterprise's Intellectual Property (IP), its business model, and its operational and managerial processes." (UnLtd Ventures 2008, p. 4)

	Partnership	"Social enterprise creates a loose agreement with an existing organisation to deliver products or services locally." (Unltd Ventures 2008, p. 2)
Dissemination		"Social enterprise makes available information about its business model so that others can implement it." (UnLtd Ventures 2008, p. 2)

2.3.2 Criteria and replication in practice

Different recommendations can be found in the literature to assist social ventures in finding a suitable model to replicate among this wide spectrum. Dees, Anderson and Wei-Skillern (2004) suggest to conduct an assessment following a list of questions based on five R's factors: Readiness, Receptivity, Resources, Risks and Returns[5]. Mavra (2011) also asserts that the choice of strategy depends upon the funding and investment streams. In addition, Berelowitz et al. (2013) advise to identify the organisation's strengths and weaknesses during the replication strategy design phase[6].

Therefore, these assessments can lead to different replication strategies depending upon the organisation's characteristics and external factors, hence the remark of some authors that there is no optimal or right path to replicate (Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003; Mavra 2011). Nevertheless, Higgins et al. (2008) claim the superiority of the franchising model for social enterprises. In practice, recent surveys show that branching is the preferred means to replicate among social organisations followed by franchising and partnership (Berelowitz et al. 2013; Massarsky & Gillespie 2013)[7], and that social ventures can base their choice on their objectives, which can be both practical and philosophical (Berelowitz et al. 2013).

Social ventures can also decide to design more tailor-made strategies, which are not illustrated in the present spectra of replication.

2.3.3 Combining the models

The social and the business literatures show that it is possible to combine different models of replication. "Plural forms" (Bradach 1997; Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003), "plural organisations" (Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003), "plural structures" (Wei-Skillern & Andersonvb2003), "plural systems" (Bürkle & Posselt 2008), or "hybrid" (Shane 1998; Massarsky & Gillespie 2013) are different expressions found in the literature to define an organisational governance that leverages both branching and affiliation. However, there is no specific term to refer to models of replication which combine other types of replication models with branching and/or affiliation in spite of an

[5] For more details see http://www.ssireview.org/articles/entry/scaling_social_impact.
[6] See Appendix 1.
[7] See Appendix 1.

existing practice[8]. The plural forms or their synonyms are of great interest as they can be more effective than their single counterparts, especially due to their potential to both reap the benefits of different organisational models and to avoid some of their pitfalls (Bradach 1997; Shane 1998; Sorenson & Sørensen 2001; Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003). However, if this type of organisational structure has deeply been investigated in the commercial literature, it significantly remains under-studied in the social literature.

The Bradach's (1997) paper, which examines the simultaneous use of company-owned and franchise units in large US restaurant chains, is the main reference in this field of research. According to the author, uniformity and system-wide adaptation are the main benefits provided by "plural forms". Uniformity is achieved through: the imitation of the parent organisation's common practices; the influence and the competition between franchises and branches; and the career paths between the two types of units offered to the employees that allow for shared understanding. Systemwide adaptation is enabled by a better strategy-making process thanks to complementarity of expertise and better innovation potential. "Plural forms" enable to overcome the trade-off between innovation and control, characteristics inherent in franchising and branching, respectively. Indeed, the former mode of replication can play a role of incubator of ideas, particularly due to the incentives related to franchise contracts and the need for adaptation to local context, while the latter can be used to test and spread them more easily. Once new ideas have been demonstrated by branches, franchises are more willing to adopt them. Sorenson and Sørensen (2001) and Wei-skillern and Anderson (2003) confirm the Bradach's findings by asserting that affiliates tend more to experiment, whereas branches exploit existing routines and facilitate knowledge transfer. Therefore, "plural forms" could lead to a certain specialisation of each type of units (Wei-skillern & Anderson 2003). Moreover, "plural forms" or "hybrid" allow to scale-up faster (Shane 1998; Wei-skillern & Anderson 2003) by tackling agency issues related both to franchising and branching (Shane 1998).

Nonetheless, a mix of several organisational structures can be very challenging and resource-intensive to manage and design (Bradach 1997; Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003). Listening to the franchisees' viewpoints and taking them into account can hamper the strategy-making process. In the same vein, Wei-Skillern & Anderson (2003) point out the bureaucracy excess and fundraising coordination issues faced by social ventures. Thus, "plural forms" require a strong leadership to be effective.

[8] The Massarsky and Gillepsie's survey conducted in the USA and published in 2013 found that among the respondents that were replicating to new sites, 18% were using a combination of branching, affiliation and similar models.

3 CASE STUDY: ANALYSIS OF THE SPECTRUM OF SOCIAL REPLICATION

3.1 THE PRESENT SOCIAL REPLICATION SPECTRUM: PROS AND CONS OF THE DIFFERENT STRATEGIES

In this sub-section, it will be discussed the pros and cons of each model of the present spectrum of social replication: branching, joint ventures, social franchising, licensing, partnership, and dissemination. If the social replication literature has already dealt with this issue, it has particularly been focused on some models such as branching and franchising, while others, such as dissemination or joint ventures, have either been less studied or even not mentioned as replication paths. The purpose of this analysis is to fill in the gap by compiling both the findings of the social literature and those of the business literature, which can be applied to social replication in spite of the differences between the two sectors.

3.1.1 Branching

As the parent organisation owns, creates, and operates the replicated entity (Unltd Ventures 2008), the undeniable strength of the branching model, also called wholly-owned (Berelowitz et al. 2013), is the control it provides (Hunt 1973; Oster 1996; Dees et al. 2004; McNeill Ritchie et al. 2011; Berelowitz et al. 2013). Control especially enables to prevent reputational harm (Oster 1996) caused, for instance, by the non-compliance with standards, one of the major issues of the other replication models, underlined by both the social literature and the commercial literature. Brand control in the social sector is as important as in the business sector to maintain customer loyalty, as far as social enterprises are concerned, and beneficiaries' trust to provide them services or products. Moreover, branching may be a suitable path for social ventures to replicate knowledge and activities which cannot be easily blueprint (Dees et al. 2004). Oster (1996) points out that branching also makes easier fundraising coordination compared with the other replication models, of which the replicated units can sometimes compete with each other to get grants. Another significant advantage brought by the wholly-owned model is to prevent legal issues (Hunt 1973), since there is no legal agreement between the parent organisation and the replicated entities, contrary to affiliation.

However, the literature highlights that this model of replication is also the most resource-intensive and requires the highest degree of involvement at each stage of the process (Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003). Indeed, branching is complex to manage (Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003) and implies, for instance, training, administrative, support services (Dees et al. 2004), and logistic costs (Hunt 1973; Mavra 2011). Besides, Hunt (1973) remarks that this model is not suitable for isolated units, due to logistic costs, and for low-profit units of which the profit is absorbed by salaries. Moreover, Oster (1996) and Wei-Skillern and Anderson (2003) underline the poor access to capital and grants compared with the other replication models. In addition to those financial disadvantages,

branching is characterised by the slowest growth of the spectrum (Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003) and the lowest adaptation potential (Weil-Skillern & Anderson 2003; McNeill Ritchie et al. 2011; Berelowitz et al. 2013), which can mainly be explained by the absence of local network and the lack of knowledge of the local environment. Finally, Oster (1996) emphasises on the human resource management issues related to this replication model, which can suffer from the low volunteers' motivation due to a lack of autonomy.

Table 2: Summary of the pros and cons of branching

Pros	Cons
• The highest degree of control of the spectrum • Prevents reputational harm • Facilitates tacit knowledge and expertise spreading • Better fundraising coordination than the other replication models • Prevents legal issue	• The most resource intensive model of the spectrum • Complex management • The lowest potential of adaptation • Hard to maintain a close-knit culture • The highest degree of involvement of the spectrum at every stage of the replication process • Slower growth than the other replication models • Difficult access to capital and funding • Lower motivation of the volunteers and managers compared with the other models of the spectrum

3.1.2 Joint ventures

Despite the multiple advantages provided by a joint venture, this replication model remains under-researched in the social literature. A significant strength of joint ventures is that they enable each party to get complementary assets as well as expertise and knowledge, especially tacit knowledge (Kogut 1988). Indeed, thanks to the creation of a new entity, the two parties can "transfer knowledge that cannot be easily packaged or blueprint" (p. 319). Therefore, it is necessary for them to join to learn from each other. The author also affirms that, in spite of the creation of a new entity, the capabilities of both organisations are maintained. Furthermore, as the organisations pool their resources and share risks, both are equally incited to reveal information, share technologies and guarantee performance. In addition, the ownership control rights establish superior monitoring mechanisms. These arguments can be applied to the social sector, where agency theory is also an issue. In the same vein, Unltd Ventures (2008) argues that this type of agreement allows for a high degree of operational control. Vickers (1985) adds that joint ventures are relevant strategies to

guarantee the entry-deterring investment for small innovations thanks to the organisations' complementarity. Again, these affirmations can be also pertinent for social enterprises, which also have to compete in markets. However, in case of failure, the advantage of this replication model is that its finite life span limits organisations' exposure and commitment (Kogut, 1988). As far as local adaptation is concerned, joint ventures bring a high level in this area, enhanced by the credibility brought by the joint venture partner (Unltd Ventures 2008).

Unfortunately, joint ventures are also characterised by disadvantages and risks. For instance, some social ventures may not be able to bear the costs of this replication model (Unltd Ventures 2008; McNeill Ritchie 2011) while its centralised control may hinder local initiatives (Unltd Ventures 2008). If joint ventures facilitate the transfer of tacit knowledge, a knowhow appropriation risk also exists for the smaller partner, an issue which can increase the risk of instability between the two parties (Pearce 1997). One of the other main weaknesses of this replication model, which appears in the literature, is that the difference between the two organisational cultures can sometimes be highly challenging. Furthermore, Unltd Ventures (2008) argues that the projects related to a joint venture can compete for attention and resources with the anterior projects of the two parties. Finally, this organisation also underlines a substantial brand dilution risk.

Table 3: Summary of the pros and cons of joint ventures

Pros	Cons
• Brings complementary knowledge and expertise • Brings complementary assets • Increases capacity • Facilitates tacit knowledge spreading • Maintains the organisations' capabilities • Good adaptation potential to local environment • Credibility within the community • Shared risks • Limited commitment and business exposure • Monitoring mechanisms • Better alignment of incentives than the affiliation models • For "small" innovations, JV is an effective mechanism to guarantee the entry-deterring investment	• Resource-intensive • Centralised control may hinder local initiatives • Knowhow appropriation risk for the smaller partner • Instability risk • Cultural fit challenge • Risk of competition with anterior projects • Brand dilution risk

3.1.3 Social franchising

In both the social literature and the business literature, franchising is often directly compared with branching. The former replication path can be preferred to the latter for its faster growth potential (Shane 1996; Fleisch et al. 2008). Franchising is also characterised by a better likelihood of survival due to its capacity to reach quickly a minimal size (Oster 1996; Shane 1996). One of the main attributes of franchising, described in the business literature, is its ability to prevent agency problems, adverse selection and moral hazard, issues which can arise with the branching model and looser affiliation models (Shane 1996; Shane 1998). Therefore, the risk of non-compliance and brand dilution is reduced (Unltd Ventures 2008). This replication model also provides numerous financial advantages. Although Wei-Skillern and Anderson (2003) find that the gains in economies of scale are lower than expected due to an increased need for coordination (Blau 1970), franchising is distinguished by a powerful fundraising, especially thanks to the presence of local networks (Oster 1996; Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003; Fleisch et al. 2008), as well as a good access to capital (Oster 1996) and reduced monitoring costs (Shane 1998). As explained in the sub-section focused on branching, Hunt (1973) adds that franchising is a relevant replication path for isolated and low-profit units. Moreover, franchising makes easier human resources management, particularly for leader identification (Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003) and the recruitment of volunteers (Fleisch et al. 2008), who can have a strong feeling of ownership (Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003). Managed by people with a better knowledge of the local environment, franchises have a high level of local adaptation. At last, thanks to its structure, franchising facilitates feedbacks and transfer of explicit knowledge (Fleisch et al. 2008; Unltd Ventures 2008).

Franchising also shows weaknesses. Oster (1996) points out that a risk of fundraising competition can arise between the different units, especially if the areas in which they operate are not well delimited. However, some mechanisms exist to counter this issue. In addition, standardisation and the mechanisms to prevent the intrinsic weaknesses of franchising can be resource-intensive (Unltdventures, 2008), especially in the short-run compared with the wholly-owned model (ICSF, 2013). Besides, a too strong centralised control and the reporting requirements may reduce local initiatives and innovation, and cause tensions between the franchisor and its franchisees (Unltd Ventures 2008).

Table 4: Summary of the pros and cons of social franchising

Pros	Cons
• Fast growth potential • Better survival likelihood • Prevents agency problems, adverse selection and moral hazard • Financial gains:	• Resource intensive in the short-run (e.g. standardisation, control mechanisms) • Fundraising competition risk • Centralised control may hinder local initiatives and innovation

- Fundraising power - Capital access - Economies of scale • Human resource management easiness • Local adaptation • Knowledge transfer • Relevant for isolated and low-profit units	• Reporting requirements can be a source of tensions between the franchisor and its franchisees

3.1.4 Licensing

As licensing and franchising are close models, they also reveal similar advantages and disadvantages. Franchising is a valuable model for its "speed to market" (Wei-Skillern & Anderson 2003; Perlman 2005), and it requires less capital than branching or franchising to replicate in a new geographic location. As it is a less binding contract than franchising, it may be easier to convince potential licensees (Berelowitz et al. 2013). For instance, in case of failure or non-compliance, the agreement can be ceased quickly and easily. Like franchising, licensing provides financial benefits, such as economies of scale and additional incomes with minimal investment through the licence (Unltd Ventures 2008). Moreover, Perlman (2005) argues that licensing is easier to manage than branching and tighter affiliation models, may prevent legal problems as it avoids being responsible for product liability, and can generate knock-on effects by improving brand awareness and popularity, even for another service or product area. As this model is flexible, he also adds that licensing can be used to test a "market", especially if the organisation is unsure how the product or service will be perceived.

The lower level of control, compared with branching and tighter affiliation models, can lead to quality management issues and harm the organisation's reputation (Perlman 2005; Unltd Ventures 2008). Perlman (2005) also underlines the licensee's dependency on the parent organisation, which may generate different issues when the licence has to be renewed, notably if the licensor fails to maintain or update the licensed technology, product or service. Moreover, he affirms that it may complex to find the right balance between IP control and the licensee's autonomy.

Table 5: Summary of the pros and cons of licensing

Pros	Cons
• "Speed-to-market" • Flexible agreement • Economies of scale • Additional source of income	• Quality management • Trade-off between IP control and the licensee's autonomy • Licensee's dependency on the original social organisation, which may lead to

• Requires less capital than branching and other affiliation models • Can be used to test a "market" • Management easiness • Improves brand awareness and popularity	different issues when the license has to be renewed.

3.1.5 Partnership

This "sustainable form of intervention involving long-term commitments to communities" (Tracey, Phillips & Haugh 2005, p. 327), is an opportunity to create a tailor-made agreement between two organisations(Unltd Ventures 2008). Highly flexible (Unltd Ventures 2008), the partnership model is also easy to implement, since it is characterised by few formalities and a simple tax treatment[9]. Tracey et al. (2005) underline its great potential of adaptation to the local environment as both partners can profit from each other's local network. Besides, the need for local adaptation improves innovation. According to them, a strategic selection of the partners is also a means to get complementary skills and to learn from each other, which enables to "broaden the appeal and scope" (p. 327) of each party. Another substantial advantage of this replication model is the sharing of responsibilities and risks with the partner[10].

The tailor-made advantage of partnership is also compensated by a resource-intensive design and management, as well as its difficulty to develop standardisation mechanisms, therefore the number of replicated units through this model may be limited (Unltd Ventures 2008). This issue underlines the low control of this replication model mentioned by McNeill Ritchie et al. (2011). Business cultural gaps and the loose agreement may also increase the risk of conflict between the two parties (Unltd Ventures 2008). Hence, the importance of selecting the partner organisation which fits. Moreover, Unltd Ventures affirms that this replication model exposes to the partner's risk of failure, and does not bring additional incomes, contrary to the other affiliation models and branching.

Table 6: Summary of the pros and cons of partnership

Pros	Cons
• Sustainable form of intervention involving long-term commitment to communities • Tailor-made agreement • Flexibility • Easiness • High level of local adaptation	• Limited potential in terms or replicated units • Low control • Resource-intensive management and design • Significant risk of conflict • Exposes to the partner's failure

[9] Part Time CFO, http://parttimecfo.ca/2013/11/partnerships/, accessed January 2014.
[10] Part Time CFO, http://parttimecfo.ca/2013/11/partnerships/, accessed January 2014

• Good innovation potential • Broadens appeal and scope • Mutual learning • Gives complementary skills	• No additional income

3.1.6 Dissemination

The dissemination model reveals many benefits for social ventures. It is the simplest, generally the least resource-intensive, and can spread very quickly (Dees et al. 2004). In case of failure, it is also the least risky in terms of reputational harm, since the replicated units do not convey the initiator's brand image (Dees et. 2004). Nonetheless, the authors underline that it still implies some resources related to a pro-active approach required to overcome the "not invented here syndrome", and to target and reach the chosen audience. Indeed, dissemination can require to spread the word, to publicise the model and to provide support (e.g.: information packs, guides). Another advantage, highlighted by Dees et al., is that making a business model available enables to reach many locations and a very large number of beneficiaries. Moreover, the absence of control over the replicated units allows for a high level of local adaptation and leaves room for innovation (Berelowitz et al. 2013).

If this model is less resource-intensive and less risky, it is also less likely to capture some of the benefits of other replication models, such as economies of scale, organisational learning, or brand awareness (Dees et al. 2004). Furthermore, there is a significant risk, due to the lack of control, that replicators may implement the "business model" or the programme improperly, misunderstand it, or even reinterpret it (Leat 2003; Dees et al. 2004). In addition, these authors argue that this replication path may not be able to reach the targeted population. Therefore, the impact is not ensured.

Table 7: Summary of the pros and cons of dissemination

Pros	Cons
• The simplest model • The least resource-intensive • The least risky, financially, and in terms of reputational harm • Very fast growth potential • Can reach a high number of locations and beneficiaries • High local adaptation potential • High innovation potential	• Impact is not ensured • The lowest control over quality and location • Risk of not reaching the targeted beneficiaries • Less likely to capture some of the benefits of replication compared with other replication models: - Economies of scale - Organisational learning - Brand awareness

3.2 BEYOND THE PRESENT SPECTRUM OF SOCIAL REPLICATION

"Social entrepreneurs have always been people who can see over the horizon" (Waitzer & Paul 2011)

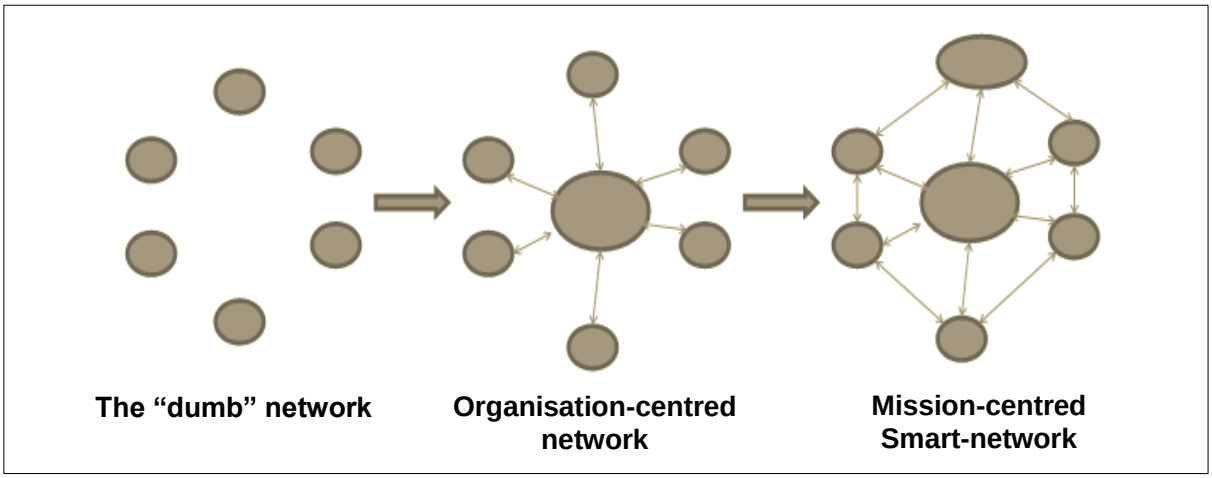
This sub-section proposes to investigate whether the present spectrum of social replication can be extended with other strategies able to replicate "a successful social purpose organisation or project in a new geographical location" (Berelowitz et al. 2013, p. 5), as well as to analyse their strengths and weaknesses. It will be first studied a model of social replication based on "smart" collaboration, then another model mixing different replication paths will be defined and analysed. Finally, a new representation of the social replication spectrum, including the findings, will be suggested.

3.2.1 Smart collaborative networking and the example of Streetfootballworld

Bradach (2003, p. 24) defines a network as "a relationship among local affiliates and between affiliates and the national office" which "can range from tight to loose" depending on the differing extent of involvement from the "centre". Waitzer and Paul (2011) assert that a single entity is no longer able to cause social change and that some networks have a higher potential to scale than others. Thus, they suggest an interesting new type of networks, which they describe as "smart", since they leverage or collaborate across them "in ways that are greater than the sum of their parts" (pp. 151-152) instead of "relying too much on one central member". Therefore, these "smart" networks differ from traditional networks, which are characterised by their juxtaposition. In the same vein, Wei-Skillern and Marciano (2008) argue that nonprofit networks are more effective, efficient and sustainable than single organisations. These better results are mainly made possible thanks to the initiating organisation, who plays a role of catalyst or "node", rather than "hub", as a result

the mission becomes the priority and all the members are considered as equals (Wei-Skillern & Marciano 2008; Waitzer & Paul 2011).

Figure 4: From "dumb" to "smart" networks



Source: adapted from Waitzer & Paul (2011)

That "smart' collaborative networking can be considered as a model of social replication, as the study of Streetfootballworld by Waitzer and Paul (2011) illustrates it. Indeed, all the components of the definition of social replication of Berelowitz et al. (2013) are found in this case.

Streetfootballworld is a non-profit network of more than 80 organisations bringing social change through the power of football. More specifically, football is a means to attract disadvantaged young people with the final goal of making them participate in development programmes to tackle social issues such as HIV/AIDS, education, peace building, employability and gender equality. This network finds its grassroots in 1994, when Jürgen Griesbeck, the current CEO of Streetfootballworld, decided to develop a youth project called Fútbol por la Paz (Football for Peace), to combat violence and gang violence in Medellín (Colombia) after he was shocked by the murder of Andrés Escobar, a Colombian national team player, because of an own goal. Successful, the project was replicated in Germany in 2002. Aware of the multiple similar organisations around the world, and the need to connect them, Jürgen Griesbeck established Streetfootballworld in 2004, which was designed as an international platform for organisations to improve their impact through shared knowledge and collaboration. At the beginning, the platform played a role of hub as it was driving the flow of information to spread the proven Football for Peace concept which could be then freely adapted locally. However, it evolved quickly to enable direct exchanges between all the members in order that each could profit from and build on the experience and knowledge of each other, including Football for Peace. It is clear in this case that a successful project, Football for Peace, characterised by its social purpose, has been replicated in new geographical locations, through a social replication model corresponding to the Waitzer and Paul's definition of a "smart network". Therefore, "smart collaborative networking" can be added to the spectrum of social replication.

Smart collaborative networks can be more efficient, effective, and sustainable than organisations composed of a unique unit. They do not only provide a better access to resources, such as information or funding, but also enable to focus on its expertise as well as to improve social impact with existing resources (Wei-Skillern & Marciano 2008; Waitzer & Paul 2011). As Streetfootballworld shows it, smart collaborative networks are a formidable opportunity for mutual assistance, as well as experience and expertise sharing. Their capacity to connect an unlimited number of members from various horizons both improves the quality of programmes and increases the likelihood to innovate (Wei-Skillern & Marciano 2008; Waitzer & Paul 2011). Wei-Skillern & Marciano (2008, p. 42) remark, for instance, that members "work together to establish minimum performance standards". Waitzer and Paul (2011), strengthen these characteristics by affirming that the members' participation is even better as open collaboration is based on the members' natural motivation. These networks could not perform so well without platforms of collaboration as Streetfootballworld show it. Nambisan (2009) describes their functioning and details three types of platform for collaboration:

- The ***exploration platform*** where the members of a network define problems;
- The ***experimentation platform*** used to test the solutions found together;
- The ***execution platform*** through which solution templates and "portfolios of success metrics" can be diffused to be adapted locally.

Each social replication model has its drawbacks, and smart collaborative networking is no exception in that regard. Putting the mission at the centre means the initiator has to be extremely "modular" (Nambisan 2009, p. 49) and give up many organisational benefits such as control over programme implementation, funding and recognition (Wei-Skillern & Marciano 2008, p. 41). However, the authors argue that the trust and shared values, which characterise these collaborative networks, minimise the control issue as all members tend to work similarly and towards the same direction. Moreover, making a successful network focused on mission requires a significant financial commitment from the initiator (Waiter & Paul 2011). Human and financial resources are especially necessary to coordinate these complex networks and "to ensure that the members put pressure on each other" (p. 153), one of the main components which makes a network "smart". The other members also have to demonstrate engagement, and develop skills and resources to understand and take part in the platform (Nambisan, 2009).

Table 8: Summary of the pros and cons of smart collaborative networking

Pros	Cons
• Effectiveness • Efficiency • Sustainability • Focus on mission • Stretches organisational boundaries • Accelerator of innovation • Mutual assistance • Shared values can minimise the importance of control	• Abandonment of the initiator's organisational benefits • Low control • Implies a high commitment of each unit to be the most effective • Can be resource-intensive for the initiator • Complex coordination • Long process

3.2.2 Social combination

It has been observed in the literature review section that social ventures can mix different strategies in order to replicate. The use of affiliated units and branches in the social sector is called "plural form" by Wei-Skillern and Anderson (2003), a term they borrowed from Bradach (1997) who remarked similar organisational structures in US restaurant chains. However, no expression has yet been created to define a model of replication allowing for a mix of any models of the replication spectrum in spite of an existing phenomenon in the social sector. Indeed, the Massarsky and Gillepsie's (2013) survey conducted in the USA found that among the respondents that were replicating to new sites, 18% were using a combination of branching, affiliation and similar models. Aravind Eye Care also provide an excellent example of such a practice, as "the largest provider of eye care in the world"[11], characterised by a social purpose, has combined three different models, branching, affiliation, and dissemination to replicate all over the world.

Thus, to fill in this gap in the social replication literature, it will be called "social combined model" or "social combination" throughout this dissertation, a replication strategy composed of at least two modes of social replication. The replication strategies associating affiliation and branching, most frequently called "plural forms", are therefore embedded in the social combined model.

The table below summarises the pros and cons of the combined model found in the business and social literatures that have previously been detailed in the literature review section. A deeper

[11] See more in Sezgi, F., & Mair, J. (2010), 'To control or not control: a coordination perspective to scaling', in P. N. Bloom, E. Skloot (eds.), Scaling Social Impact: New Thinking, pp. 29-44, Palgrave Macmillan, New York.

analysis of the social combined model will be done further through the Green Gym case, and to a lesser extent through the YouthBuild USA case.

Table 9: Summary of the pros and cons of social combination

Pros	Cons
• Potentially more efficient than single replication models • Systemwide adaptation • Uniformity across the different units • Better strategy-making process • Complementarity of expertise • Better innovation potential than single replication models • Allows for specialisation at what each does best	• Complex management • Resource-intensive management and design • Bureaucracy excess • Difficult fundraising coordination

3.2.3 A new representation of the social replication spectrum

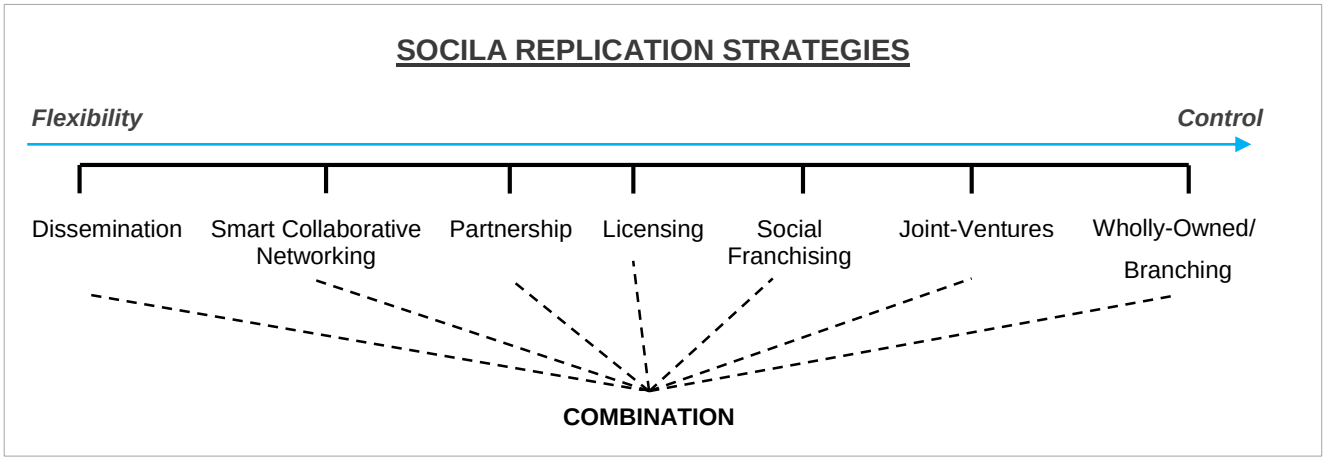
Having demonstrated that social ventures have developed replication strategies such as “smart collaborative networking” and “social combination”, which have not clearly been referenced in the literature yet, the purpose of this sub-section is to suggest a new representation of the social replication spectrum based on that of ICSF.

The diagram of McNeill Ritchie et al. (see figure 3) cannot be used as a basis to map out the replication models. The main reason is that the arrangement suggested by these authors may change according to the criterion on which the smart networking model is assessed: control, resource intensity, or receptivity. The cost of smart collaborative networking and its suitability according to the targeted population’s receptivity deserve a more careful analysis. The expenses related to this model may vary depending on various factors: for instance, the commitment of both the initiator of the replication and the replicated units, the number of members participating in the network, or the quality and the complexity of the platform. Regarding the receptivity criterion, the smart collaborative network may be closer to the partnership and the dissemination models as it allows for a high local adaptation by the replicated units. However, further research may be required for a comparison based on this criterion. The most objective criterion, which can be used to represent the spectrum of social replication, is the degree of the initiator’s control over the replicated units. Besides, based on that one, the position of the joint venture model in the diagram of McNeill Ritchie et al., seating between social franchising and partnership, can be criticised. Indeed, joint-ventures may allow for more control than social franchising, especially as strategic decisions are taken conjointly with the other party in a joint venture. Therefore, the diagram suggested by ICSF

(see figure 2), which displays the replication models as a continuum of options according their degree of control, will be preferred as a basis.

Smart collaborative networking has been put between dissemination and partnership. Indeed, this replication model enables more control over the replicated units than dissemination, since it is characterised by peer pressures, exchanges between the initiator and the replicated units as well as common solutions, and also allows for the incorporation of control mechanisms. In the dissemination model, even if training and advice can be provided by the parent organisation, there is no control over the management of the replicated business model or programme. Compared with a partnership, the initiator of the replication process has less control in a smart collaborative network. It is the purpose of the latter replication model to leave room for adaptation by the members, and even if agreements can be implemented, there are more used "to define roles and responsibilities rather than to enforce rules" (Wei-Skillern & Marciano 2008, p. 42). As far as social combination is concerned, this model cannot directly be incorporated in the diagram, since its degree of control depends on the different replication models which compose it.

Figure 5: A new spectrum of social replication



3.3 EXAMPLES

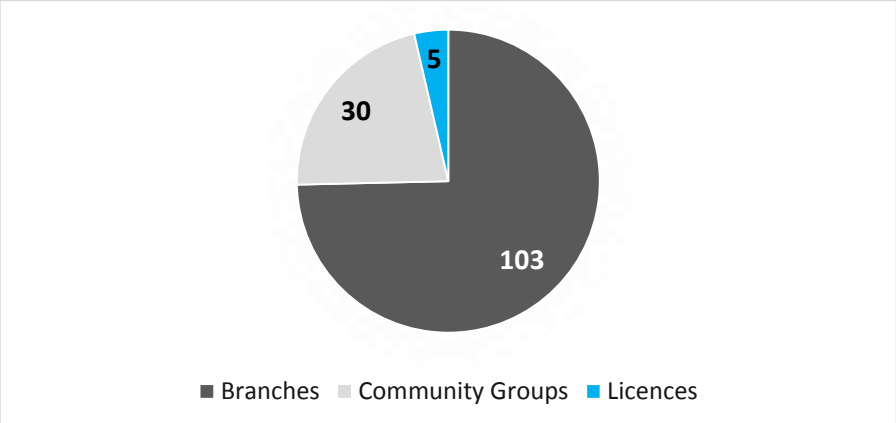
In this sub-section, two short case studies dealing with social replication will be presented. The first one, based on primary data obtained through an in-depth interview, will discuss the replication of the Green Gym, a UK programme implemented by The Conservation Volunteers (TCV). The second one, based on secondary data, will specifically focused on the evolution of YouthBuild USA across the spectrum of social replication over time.

3.3.1 Green Gym: A social combined model

The Green Gym is a programme run by a national charity, The Conservation Volunteers. It aims at promoting fitness and health while at the same time improving the environment through conservation activities in rural, urban and inner city areas such as gardening and allotment work. The Green Gym can also pride itself on breaking the isolation of people resulting from unemployment or particular health conditions. Besides, the socialisation process is facilitated by refreshment breaks during the sessions. In 2013, the Green Gym managed to help around 150,000 people to get outdoors and active 120 minutes a week, a major part of the 150 minutes targeted by the UK government. Therefore, this widely spread programme has received the support from central government, and its multiple physical and psychological benefits have been recognised by The School of Health and Social Care of the Oxford Brookes University.

Launched in 1998 in cooperation with Dr William Bird of Sonning Common Health Centre in Berkshire, and first replicated in 1999, TCV has now 138 Green Gyms in place across the UK and has succeeded in moving beyond borders by establishing a unit in Germany. Most Green Gyms are set up and run by staff at TCV and funded by central or local government. Nevertheless, the Green Gym programme is also replicated through licensing and an original model, which looks like a loose branch, as the replicated entities are created and fully owned by TCV, but operated by community groups composed of local volunteers instead of TCV staff. These former replication models are self-sustaining. Their main sources of income are grants, but also small charges they make to the landowner who benefits from the environmental work. Moreover, to prove sufficient capital is one of the criteria to get a Green Gym licence.

Figure 6: Types of Green Gym units



All Green Gyms run similar programmes of practical environmental volunteering on the ground. However, they can adapt their activities according to the location and the audience as well as promote their scheme differently. In spite of this certain flexibility, all Green Gyms are required to attend the training and follow the manual provided by TCV, in order to ensure that all units operate

in a similar way and to the same standards which particularly stress health, safety and insurance cover. Although new ideas are usually tested within the organisation, TCV also welcomes the ideas, knowledge, and experience of its community groups and licenses. Then, TCV adapts its Green Gym training and manual, and uses e-mail and its website to spread any change, so that uniformity is maintained between the different kinds of units.

Taking into account the enthusiasm of other organisations for Green Gym, TCV decided to licence the programme 5 years after the first Green Gym opened. The main rationale for this organisational shift was to earn additional income to reinvest in the programme as well as to expand it more widely than TCV could on its own. Indeed, apart from the annual fee ranging from 600 to 800 pounds, the licensing model allows TCV to avoid hiring more staff and incurring logistical expenses relative to distant units. The licence agreement sets out clear expectations by defining the rights and the obligations of both parties: in addition to the training and the manual, it includes the right to use the Green Gym trade mark, evaluations and consulting services. However, in spite of this agreement, TCV's staff remarks that the main issue, with which it has to deal, is the lower control over the licensed units compared with their wholly-owned counterparts. Regarding the adaptability of this replication model, it is greater where the licensee is a community group or a local authority. For instance, some Primary Care Trusts (PCTs)[12] have purchased a Green Gym licence and enhanced their patients to join the programme.

The setting up of the Green Gyms run by community groups is also mainly demand driven, since they often decide on their own to contact TCV. The loose partnerships formed with many authorities and organisations, especially in the health sector, help to raise the awareness of the Green Gym's activities locally resulting in a stronger sense of community. The low cost and the high adaptability associated with this replication model have incited TCV to convert some of their branches into community groups. The time necessary to prepare volunteers to take over the running of the Green Gym from a member of staff is approximately two years. Some of the Green Gym groups have now been running for over 10 years, a sign of correct functioning for this replication model.

[12] UK National Health Services

Table 10: Pros and cons of the Green Gym's replication models

Model	Pros	Cons
Wholly-owned	• Quality and brand control • Brings income (e.g. through grants) into TCV	• More resource-intensive than licences and community groups, especially in terms of human resources
Licensing	• Expansion beyond the organisation's boundaries • Possibility to reach new locations • Additional income resources • Lower cost option for TCV than the wholly-owned model • Good adaptation potential: easiness to target and reach potential beneficiaries	• Lower quality control than the wholly-owned model
Establishment of Community groups	• Low cost • Local adaptation • Feeling of ownership • Sense of community	• Lower quality control than the wholly-owned model
Combination	• Possibility to pursue different objectives • Possibility to replicate beyond the organisations' boundaries and to reach new locations • Better local adaptation by using the relevant replication model • Exchange of good practices • Better innovation potential	• Expenses related to the mechanisms to maintain uniformity between the different units

3.3.2 YouthBuild USA: An evolving replication path

YouthBuild USA[13] is a non-profit organisation, which develops multiple programmes[14] targeting low-income young people aged between 16 and 24 years. The main purpose of these programmes is to assist their personal development, especially by supporting their education, as well as equipping them with professional skills and conveying them values through the building of housing in their communities "to contribute to the well-being of others". With 273 programmes across the United States, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands, YouthBuild USA succeeds in reaching 10,000 youths per year. Since its creation, the organisation has been awarded many times for its benefits, notably by receiving the Skoll Award for Social Entrepreneurship[15].

A laborious start

Disappointed by the public school system and shocked by the death of one of her former students, a symptom of the street violence affecting many young people outside the system, the teacher Dorothy Stoneman, assisted by teenagers living in East Harlem, NY, set up the Youth Action Program (YAP) in 1978. Together, they rebuilt disaffected buildings in their neighbourhoods. Supported by different funds, the programme was then replicated in other areas of New York City by spreading the word, as well as expanded with other activities during the 1980s. However, poorly implemented due to an absence of guidance, most of these initiatives to replicate failed. In response to this setback, a handbook setting standards and providing technical assistance was written in 1988, quickly followed by successful replications. Then, in 1990, Dorothy Stoneman, with the Leroy Looper[16]'s help, decided to create YouthBuild, an organisation separated from YAP, in order to coordinate and assist the replication of the programmes at a national level.

Toward an assisted and coordinated replication

With the aim of reaching the "largest number of young people", YouthBuild first offered assistance to the autonomous replicators of its network, through limited funds, advice about training, and the sharing of best practices, in addition to the YouthBuild manual, and allowed for the use of its brand without any fee and agreement. Nonetheless, the replicated units quickly requested a better

[13] Center for the Advancement of Social Entrepreneurship (CASE) (2004), "The growth of YouthBuild: A case study", CASE SE-02, http://caseatduke.org/documents/youthbuilddec2003case.pdf, accessed January 2014. The Bridgespan Group (2004), "YouthBuild USA: Achieving significant scale while guiding a national movement", http://www.bridgespan.org/getmedia/a1d0ddf6-fd79-4db8-9874-4cf81c0e8dc1/Youth-Build-USA-pdf.pdf.aspx, accessed January 2014.

YouthBuild International, http://youthbuildinternational.org/, accessed February 2014.

YouthBuild USA, https://youthbuild.org/, accessed February 2014.

[14] For more details, see appendix 2.

[15] For more details, see http://www.skollfoundation.org/about/skoll-awards/.

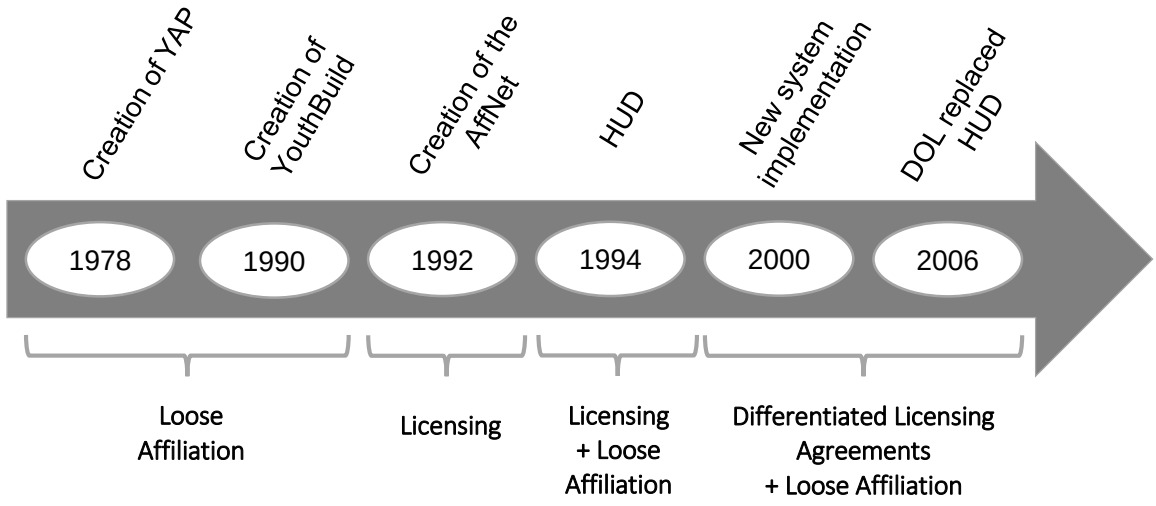
[16] The founding chairman of the board of directors of YouthBuild USA. He held this position from 1990 to 2004

protection of the YouthBuild brand in order to ensure that all the existing and future programmes using it complied with the standards and requirements defined by the national organisation. As an answer to the local YouthBuild directors, the YouthBuild USA Affiliated Network, also called "AffNet" or "Affiliated Network", was created in 1992. To join the Affiliated Network and get the right to use the YouthBuild brand, the applicants had to respect the new licence agreement. The Affiliated Network also developed a data collection system, through which the units could compare their performances with both each other and the standards of the YouthBuild manual.

HUD involvement

In 1994, YouthBuild was awarded 31 implementation grants and 105 planning grants by the US Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD), which led to an acceleration of the replication process: between 1994 and 1996, the number of sites increased from 15 to 108 sites. The insertion of HUD was also translated into a loss of control for YouthBuild over the management of its development. Indeed, HUD selected the sites benefiting from the grants while YouthBuild was in charge of providing them training and technical assistance. The funded sites were not required to join the Affiliated Network but encouraged to do it due to the related benefits. Thus, the HUD programme led to three types of replicated units: some only accountable to YouthBuild, which were not funded by HUD; some only accountable to HUD, which did not join the Affiliated Network but were funded by HUD; and some accountable to both HUD and YouthBuild, which joined the Affiliated Network and were funded by HUD. In 2006, this grant programme was transferred to the US Department of Labor (DOL)

Figure 7: Replication process of YouthBuild USA



An incentive system

In 2000, the Affiliated Network evolved into an incentive system, which is still in force. Indeed, the "AffNet" allows for different types of affiliation by distinguishing four membership categories defined according to the degree of the organisations' match with the design and performance standards. The members are thus incited to meet those standards, since YouthBuild prioritises the tighter affiliated members to allocate grants and provides them more support. This flexibility enables YouthBuild to extend its network by allowing its members to follow a step-by-step process adapted to their capacities. In July 2013, 195 programmes were attached to the Affiliated Network.

4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The social replication literature is characterised by its dispersion and a lack of academic published papers. It is essentially composed of reports written by institutions or consulting organisations. This issue may explain the lack of consensus on its main concepts, therefore may limit the scope of this dissertation. The definitions of the different replication models of the present social replication spectrum were also selected on a personal viewpoint and may be subject to criticism, as those of the smart collaborative networking and social combination models.

The spectrum of social replication suggested in the literature is completed by additional replication strategies: “smart collaborative networking” and “social combination”, however the spectrum drawn up is still non-exhaustive, and is an area for future research, especially to take into account potential innovations in replication paths. In addition, the representation of the social replication spectrum put forward in this dissertation[17] does not include the slight variations in the specified replication strategies which can be observed through both the Green Gym and YouthBuild case studies.

Another substantial limit, which can be noticed, is that the present analysis does not distinguish between the different types of organisations constituting the social sector. Therefore, this pitfall can lead to further research on the differences which may exist, for instance, between NGOs and social enterprises or the main social sub-sectors, regarding the pros and cons of the different replication models as well as their replication paths.

Besides, the pros and cons listed are non-exhaustive and not ordered according to any criteria. It can thus be investigated whether some have a greater weight than others. Notably, the costs of the different replication models need calculating precociously and can be compared. In addition, it can be pointed out that the sustainability of the different replication paths is not discussed. As such, this issue may be another avenue for research. Furthermore, some of the pros and cons based on the business literature may deserve a deeper study in order to confirm whether they can be applied to the social sector context.

As far as the social combination model is concerned, this was not the purpose of this dissertation to examine how the proportion of the different types of replicated units evolves over time, or whether there was a desirable proportion to improve social and private benefits. It may thus be interesting to cope with these issues. It has been noticed through the two case studies that combining different replication models can provide both social and private benefits but is also complex to manage. Therefore, it could be thus judicious to compare the performance of combined models with those of their single counterparts through, for instance, an econometric study.

[17] See figure 5.

If this dissertation deals with the change of replication strategies over time through case studies, this topic has clearly been under-researched in the literature, whereas it still raises numerous issues deserving to be explored, such as: the management of change applied to social replication strategies; the replication process end-of-life; the contingencies that may affect a model in place; as well as the potential existence of an evolutionary pattern and its rationales.

It was also underlined that there is a trend towards less funding in the social sector, thus studying in further details how this trend can impact the choice for a replication path may also be appealing.

Finally, this dissertation sheds light on the mutual learning and the uniformity challenge between the different types of replicated units. Through the study of the platforms for collaboration, Nambisan (2009) provides interesting insights into communication, connection, and collaboration tools, a subject which can also nourish the literature in the future.

5 CONCLUSION

It has been demonstrated in the literature that social replication principally enables to avoid "reinventing the wheel", as well as to scale and spread good practices. More generally, social replication can bring both social and private benefits. However, this process is still widely misunderstood or unknown by social ventures. The literature review section points out a critical lack of consensus on the main concepts of this field of research, which may have been nourishing this issue. Especially, the models composing the spectrum of social replication, as well as their definitions, vary from author to author. Moreover, some replication paths, particularly branching and social franchising, have been more favoured and studied than others.

Drawing on this, the purpose of this dissertation was thus to better define, analyse, and continue to explore the present spectrum of social replication in order to fill in the gap and to assist social ventures in finding a suitable replication path according to their characteristics and social objectives. Thus, based on the social literature, new replication strategies were sought and defined. Their pros and cons were also discussed, as those of the already known paths, by extensively seeking arguments in both the social literature and the business literature in order to give a better overview than previous research on similar issues. The replication paths of two organisations, characterised by their social purpose, and selected for their original and evolving replication strategies, were also analysed through case studies.

The definition of social replication, and those of the social replication strategies already identified in the literature, were mainly selected for their clarity and operationality both to provide the analysis a basis and to make up the lack of consensus observed in the literature. This dissertation also extends the spectrum of social replication with two social replication strategies called "smart collaborative networking" and "social combination". Smart collaborative networks differ from "simple" networks, as they are characterised by the absence of the initiator's control over the management of its replicated units, contrary to "simple" networks, which can be composed of different types of affiliated units, including franchises, licenses, and partnerships. To be considered as smart and collaborative, networks also have to leverage or collaborate across them "in ways that are greater than the sum of their parts", a condition borrowed from Waitzer and Paul (2011, pp. 151-152). The social combination model, defined in this dissertation as "a replication strategy composed of at least two modes of social replication", was inspired by the plural forms of Bradach (1997) and Wei-Skillern and Anderson (2003), which only allowed to mix branching and affiliation models, therefore excluded the other strategies of the social replication spectrum: dissemination and smart collaborative networking.

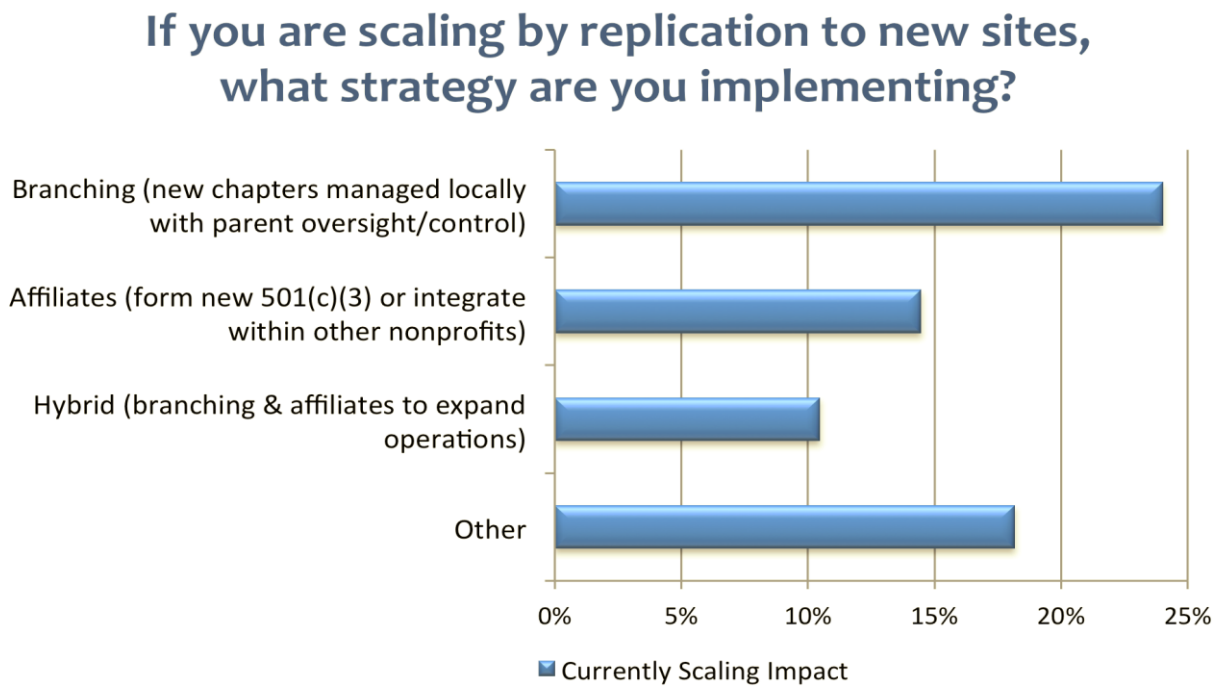
Each replication model presents pros and cons, which are difficult to order and weigh, since each organisation have different characteristics and objectives. Therefore, this dissertation does not

affirm the superiority of any replication strategy. In this respect, it is in line with the Wei-Skillern and Anderson's (2003) finding that there is no right or optimal model of replication. Rather, this dissertation provides social ventures with an analysis and examples from which they can draw their inspiration to design their own replication path with the aim of maximising social and private benefits. The Green Gym and YouthBuild USA cases notably show that it is possible to build effective tailor-made replication strategies.

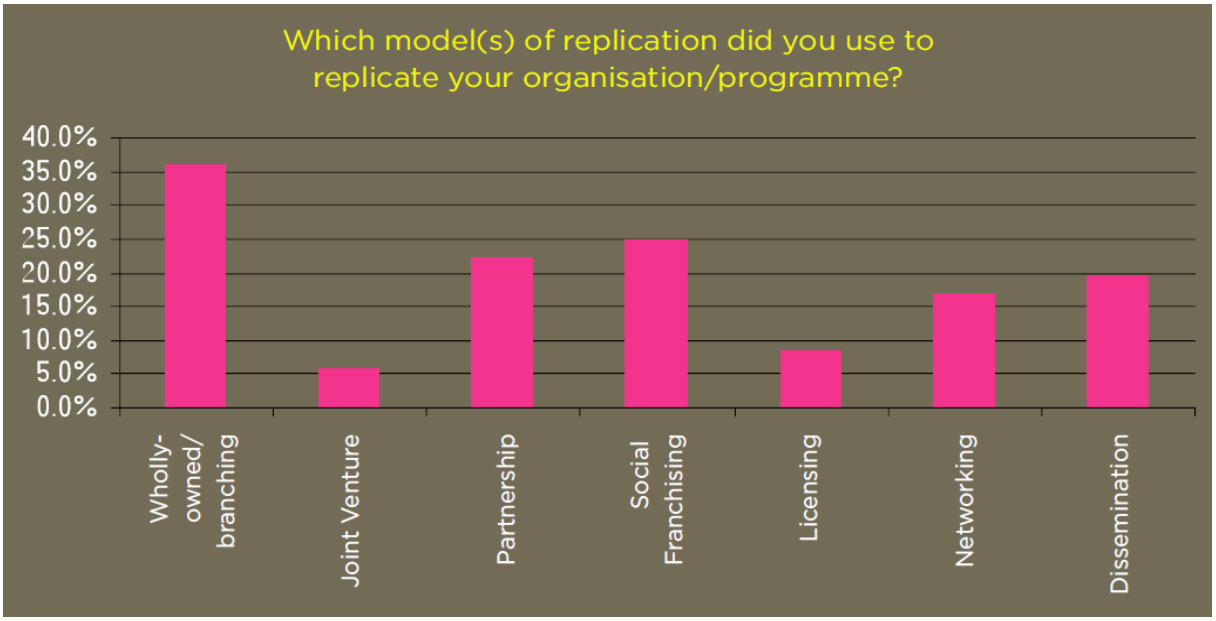
Both case studies highlight the possibility to bring slight variations in the replication models identified in this dissertation, to modify a replication strategy over time, as well as to combine different replication models, in order to capture greater social and private benefits. To replicate, the Green Gym has combined three replication models, branching, a variation of branching, and licensing, while YouthBuild USA has also used different affiliation forms simultaneously. Although these strategies have not been straightforward to implement and have required to face challenges, they have also demonstrated substantial positive outcomes. The main commonalities observed between those case studies are that: both the Green Gym and YouthBuild USA have managed to stretch their organisational boundaries and reached more beneficiaries by evolving across the spectrum of social replication to finally combine different replication strategies adapted to their characteristics, rather than implementing a single model never put into question; control and uniformity have also been major concerns, which have been addressed by specific solutions but also natural knock-on effects as described by the Bradach's (1997) study on plural forms.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. SOCIAL REPLICATION PATHS: SOCIAL VENTURES' PREFERENCES



Source: Massarsky and Gillespie, 2013



Source: Berelowitz, Richardson, and Towner (2013)

APPENDIX 2. MAIN YOUTHBUILD'S PROGRAMMES

Alternative school, in which young people attend a YouthBuild school full-time on alternate weeks, studying for their GEDs or high school diplomas. Classes are small, allowing one-on-one attention to students.

Job training and pre-apprenticeship program, in which young people get close supervision and training in construction skills full-time on alternate weeks from qualified instructors.

Community service program, in which young people build housing for homeless and other low-income people, providing a valuable and visible commodity for their hard-pressed communities.

Leadership development and civic engagement program, in which young people share in the governance of their own program through an elected policy committee and participate actively in community affairs, learning the values and the lifelong commitment needed to be effective and ethical community leaders.

Youth development program, in which young people participate in personal counseling, peer support groups, and life planning processes that assist them in healing from past hurts, overcoming negative habits and attitudes, and achieving goals that will establish a productive life.

Long-term mini-community, in which young people make new friends committed to a positive lifestyle, pursue cultural and recreational activities together, and can continue to participate for years through the YouthBuild alumni association.

Community development program, in which community-based organizations obtain the resources to tackle several key community issues at once, strengthening their capacity to build and manage housing for their residents, educate and inspire their youth, create leadership for the future, and generally take responsibility for their neighborhoods.

Source: YouthBuild USA website

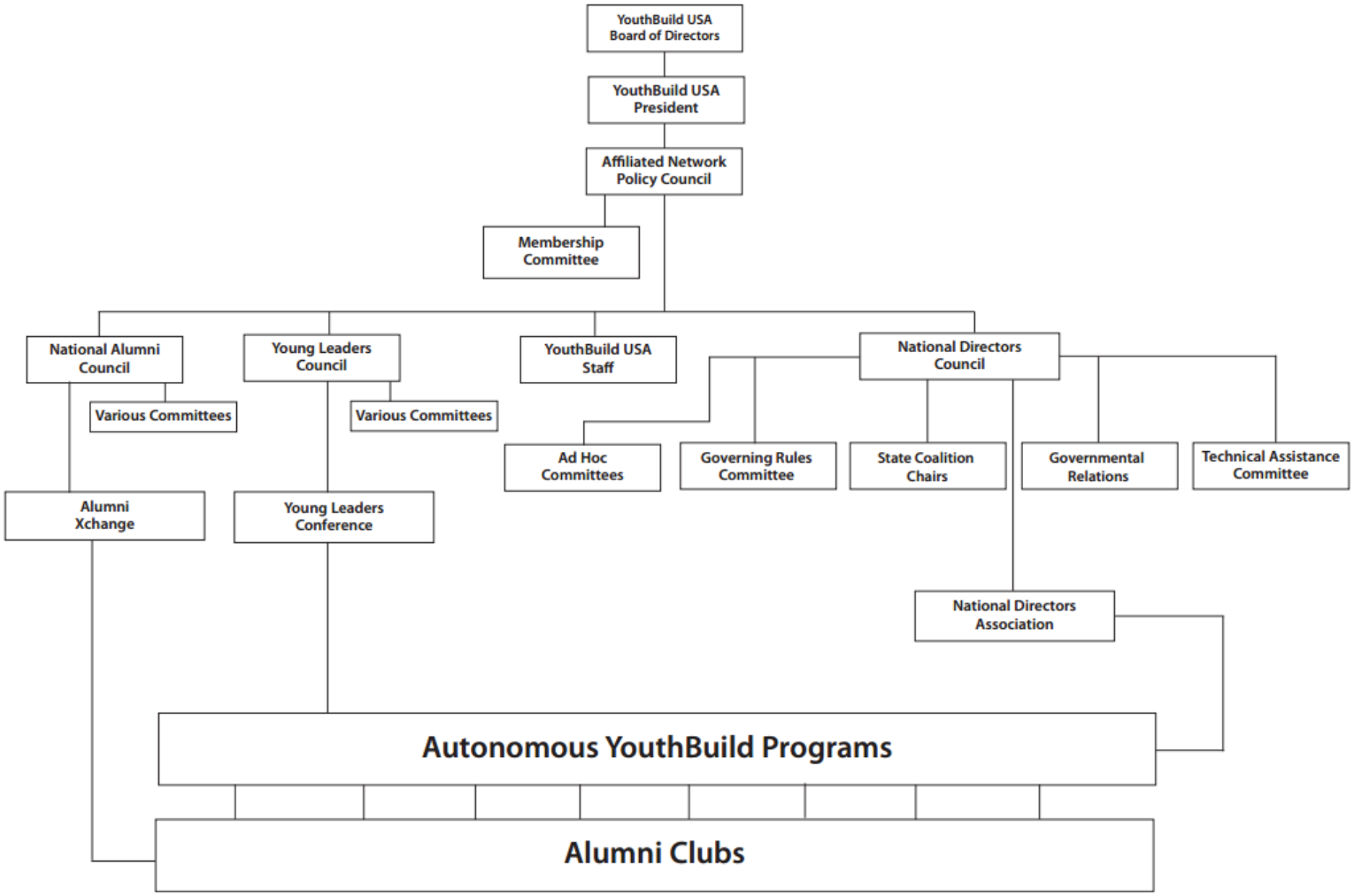
APPENDIX 3. AFFNET'S MEMBERSHIP CATEGORIES

Membership	Definition
Planning Affiliate	Each YouthBuild program accepted into the YouthBuild USA Affiliated Network must start as either a Planning or a Provisional Affiliate. The Planning level is granted to programs that aspire to start a YouthBuild program but are not yet operating.
Provisional Affiliate	Provisional affiliates must be operating, have enrolled students, have a mission in alignment with YouthBuild philosophy, and be committed to working toward the Affiliated Network Program Standards.
Full Affiliate	After completing at least one year as a Provisional Affiliate, a program may apply to become a Full Affiliate member if its outcomes have reached a certain threshold. See

	the *YouthBuild Program Design and Performance Standards* booklet for more information.
Accredited Affiliate	A program that has completed a minimum of two cycles and a comprehensive accreditation process (including an independent verification of the program's ability to meet accreditation requirements for program performance, program design, financial stability, and functional policy) can become an Accredited Affiliate.

Source: YouthBuild USA website

APPENDIX 4. YOUTHBUILD USA AFFILIATED NETWORK ORGANIZATIONAL CHART



Source: YouthBuild website

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