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**Defining Social and Environmental Entrepreneurial Activity at the
Individual, Business Model and Concept Level**

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a three stage evaluation of social and environmental entrepreneurial activity from an individual, business and conceptual perspective. It adopts a broad conceptual level before considering an emerging markets context, especially with regard to 'Base-of-the-Pyramid' communities. The paper utilises over 130 different definitions across these three perspectives to present a synthesis of the literature and some suggested directions for future research.

INTRODUCTION

The 'base of the pyramid' (BoP) literature (see Prahalad and Hart, 2002; Hart and London, 2005) stresses that approximately half the world's population exist on an income of less than \$2 per day. Development through enterprise is a key component of the BoP and subsistence marketplace approach (Prahalad, 2004; Kandachar and Halme, 2008; Sridharan and Viswanathan, 2008). Essentially the BoP approach considers 'market based and entrepreneurial activity aimed at poverty alleviation and development' (Kandachar and Halme, 2008:1). Hall, Daneke and Lenox (2010) describe a 'Panacea Hypothesis' which posits that entrepreneurial activity will fuel societal transformation by addressing social, economic and environmental issues. This is reflected in the sustainable development SEED initiative, founded by the IUCN, UNEP and UNDP, which examines entrepreneurial approaches to locally-led sustainable development, as a means to improve incomes and strengthen livelihoods; tackle poverty and marginalisation; and manage and conserve natural resources and ecosystems (SEED & IISD, 2009). This initiative focuses on promoting environmental and social enterprises as a mechanism to deliver sustainable development within developing countries (Creech and Paas, 2008).

However, much of the antecedent theoretical constructs considering the social and /or environmental context of entrepreneurial activity have emerged from western-centric sources. Whilst case examples exist on enterprises located in the developing world, especially those profiled by development charities, NGOs and Aid Agencies, they have emerged in a practitioner focused, pre-paradigmatic, exploratory fashion with little concrete theoretical development. There are multiple definitions presented by practitioners, theorists, policy documents and research studies, which suggest variation between social and environmental organisations, but also variation from an intra-organisational perspective. For instance within the typology of environmental enterprises definitions range from those which 'treat environmental issues as central to their core business because their economic success is strongly linked to their environmental performance' (Schaltegger, 2002: 49) to

those where the environmental 'mission' was the basis of the original business start up model and all aspects of the business are aimed at presenting a system-transforming, socially committed and technologically up-to-date breakthrough venture (Walley and Taylor, 2002). In terms of social enterprises, given the diversity of their mission statements and geographical location there is a similar lack of consensus on the nature of a social enterprise, the entrepreneur and the concept (Chell, Nicolopoulou, and Karatas-Ozkan, 2010; Cohen and Winn, 2007; Short, Moss and Lumpkin, 2009) For instance social enterprises are defined by the OCED (1999:10) as:

"Any private activity conducted in the public interest, organised with an entrepreneurial strategy but whose main purpose is not the maximisation of profit but the attainment of certain economic and social goals, and which has a capacity of bringing innovative solutions to the problems of social exclusion and unemployment"

Yet other definitions of social enterprises also include environmental goals, for instance the definition proposed by Leadbeater (2007:2) as those that:

"Trade products and services to further social and environmental goals. They are led by a sense of social purpose and aim to show that businesses and markets can deliver social benefits and tackle intractable social problems"

Neck, Brush and Allen (2009) also considers environmental issues as a societal problem and therefore include 'environmental' enterprises as part of the social entrepreneurship literature. Yet Hall et al. (2010) specifically exclude social entrepreneurship from their discussion of entrepreneurship and sustainable development, stating that social entrepreneurs focus on meeting special 'needs' rather than focussing on sustainable development. This intermingling of economic benefits as well as social and environmental has a 'double' or 'triple' bottom line impact considered key to sustainable development, especially in developing world environments (Creech and Paas, 2008:6)

This paper argues that the development of effective policy and practice in this domain will be hindered by the absence of robust definitions around which to articulate the understanding of these enterprise types, in their different geographical and cultural contexts. This is especially pertinent when considering the increasing emphasis on BoP initiatives as a mechanism for development through enterprise. Creative business models, especially those focused on delivering social benefits

are the focus of many developing countries' development initiatives. Yet fundamental questions on the nature of these businesses, their entrepreneurial leaders or founders, and the very concept of social and environmental entrepreneurship remain unanswered, or are predicated on a western-centric view.

Accordingly, this paper presents a detailed analysis of the framing of social and environmental entrepreneurial activity within the practitioner and academic literature, utilizing over 130 different definitional statements. We consider three levels of analysis, focussed respectively on (a) the nature of the social or environmental entrepreneur as represented in these definitions, (b) the concept of the social or environmental enterprise, in particular the representation and articulation of the business model(s) involved, and (c) the concept of social and environmental entrepreneurship itself as represented in these definitions. The comparative analysis this allows is used to present a conceptualisation of the social and environmental entrepreneurship literature¹ to consider the framing of entrepreneurial activity at the individual, enterprise and conceptual level across socially and environmentally-focused discourse.

THE INDIVIDUAL ENTREPRENEUR

Firstly our attention turns to the consideration of the characteristics of the individual social entrepreneur, in terms of their generic qualities, skills, knowledge and motivations. In many ways social entrepreneurs are considered to share the same characteristics of traditional entrepreneurs, as evidenced by Table 1, and much of the recent literature echoes the earlier extensive debate over the traits and characteristics of the 'entrepreneur'. Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern (2006) consider that the principal difference between social and traditional entrepreneurs lies in the context and environment that social entrepreneurs operate in. This context is reflected in the values-led positioning of social entrepreneurs and the restrained resources they experience when developing business models that are characterised by value creation that is social rather than economic, such as focusing on a strong commitment to help others in some way (Thompson, 2002), or addressing a social problem (Ashoka, 2011).

¹ This work contributes to the conceptual basis of the Trickle Out project, that explores social and environmental enterprises across the 19 countries of Southern and Eastern Africa (see <http://trickleout.net>).

TABLE 1: Characteristics of Social Entrepreneurs

Generic Qualities	
Vision /imagination	Ashoka, 2011; Catford, 1998; Drayton, 2002; Sharir and Learner, 2006; Social Enterprise Alliance, 2011; Sustainability, 2011; Thake and Zadek, 1997; Thompson, 2002.
Innovative	Ashoka, 2011; Austin et al., 2006; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Leadbeater, 1997; Reis, 1999; Sharir and Learner, 2006; Sustainability, 2011; Weybrecht, 2010
Opportunistic	Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Weybrecht, 2010
Creative/ adaptable/ out of box thinking	Ashoka, 2011; Alvord et al., 2004; Drayton, 2002; Martin and Osberg, 2007; Thake and Zadek, 1997; Social Enterprise Alliance, 2011
Risk taking/ courageous/ seek challenges	Brinkerhoff, 2001; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008, Hemmingway, 2005; Martin and Osberg, 2007; PlaterZyberk, 2005; Reis, 1999; Social Enterprise Alliance, 2011; School for Social Entrepreneurs, 2011; Thompson, 2002; Weybrecht, 2010
Change agents/ driven to change	Ashoka, 2011; Barendsen and Gardener, 2004; Drayton, 2002; Reis, 1999; Sharir and Learner, 2006; Skoll Foundation; Thake and Zadek, 1997; Zahara et al., 2009
Possessed by ideas/ Passionate/ Committed/ Emotional	Ashoka, 2011; Drayton, 2002; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008;
Relentless/ determined/ highly motivated/ persistent/ driven/ hard headed	Ashoka, 2011; Barendsen and Gardener, 2004; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Harding, 2004; Leadbeater, 1997; Martin and Osberg, 2007; Reis, 1999; School for Social Entrepreneurs, 2011; Sharir and Learner, 2006; Weybrecht, 2010
Ambitious (self or society)	Ashoka, 2011; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Leadbeater, 1997; School for Social Entrepreneurs, 2011
Charismatic	Leadbeater, 1997
Bold/ confident	Reis, 1999; Barendsen and Gardener, 2004; PlaterZyberk, 2005;
Energetic	Barendsen and Gardener, 2004
Idealistic	Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; School for Social Entrepreneurs, 2011; Weybrecht, 2010
Resourceful	Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Sustainability, 2011; Weybrecht, 2010
Practical/ realist/ pragmatic	Ashoka, 2011; Brinkerhoff, 2001; Catford, 1998; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; School for Social Entrepreneurs, 2011; Sharir and Learner, 2006; Social Enterprise Alliance, 2011; Sustainability, 2011; Thake and Zadek, 1997; Weybrecht, 2010
Analytical	Thake and Zadek, 1997
Disciplined	Social Enterprise Alliance ,2011
Obstinate/ high minded	School for Social Entrepreneurs, 2011
Controlling / Leader	Hemmingway, 2005; Thompson, 2002
Restlessness/ impatient	Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; PlaterZyberk 2005; Weybrecht, 2010

Do not respect status quo/ unreasonable/ resistant to formal education	Elkington and Hartigan 2008; PlaterZyberk, 2005; Thake and Zadek, 1997
Relentless/ determined/ highly motivated/ persistent/ driven/ hard headed	Ashoka 2011; Barendsen and Gardener 2004; Elkington and Hartigan 2008; Harding 2004; Leadbeater 1997; Martin and Osberg2007; Reis 1999; School for Social Entrepreneurs, 2011; Sharir and Learner 2006; Weybrecht 2010
Unusual/ eclectic/ outsider/ independent/ self-determination	Barendsen and Gardener, 2004; PlaterZyberk, 2005; Thake and Zadek, 1997
Skills, Abilities and Knowledge	
Opportunity recognition ability/ opportunity sensing/ spot dysfunctions	Ashoka, 2011; Catford, 1998; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Harding 2004Hemmingway, 2005; Martin and Osberg, 2007; Reis, 1999; Sharir and Learner, 2006; Social Enterprise Alliance, 2011,Thake and Zadek, 1997; Thompson, 2002.
Balance competing imperatives	Brinkerhoff, 2001; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Weybrecht 2010
Ability to access/ mobilize resources	Ashoka, 2011; Leadbeater, 1997; Thompson, 2002
Ability to recruit and motivate key staff	Ashoka, 2011; Austin et al., 2006; Catford, 1998; Thake and Zadek, 1997
Good at networking/ relationship building	Alvord et al., 2004; Austin et al., 2006; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Leadbeater, 1997; Weybrecht 2010
Can borrow concepts	Thake and Zadek, 1997
Professional/ business skills and knowledge	Catford, 1998; Harding, 2004
Entrepreneurial qualities	Ashoka, 2011; Drayton, 2002; PlaterZyberk, 2005
Motivation/Contributors	
Primary motivation not economic value	Hemmingway, 2005
Feeling of accountability	Reis, 1999
Ethical fibre / Vocal conscience	Ashoka, 2011; Catford, 1998; Drayton, 2002; PlaterZyberk, 2005
Want to transform society	Ashoka, 2011;
Desire for social justice	Catford, 1998
Shared sense of responsibility/ formative influences	Hemmingway, 2005; PlaterZyberk, 2005
Significant social impact of idea	Ashoka, 2011
To serve (god/ society)/ stewardship	Brinkerhoff, 2001; PlaterZyberk 2005

A similar pattern emerges when we consider the characteristics of environmental entrepreneurs. Most studies identify generic qualities, skills and knowledge in the same manner as the social entrepreneur studies (e.g. Beverage and Guy, 2005; Choi and Gray, 2008; Dixon and Clifford, 2006;

Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Linnanen, 2002; Pastakia, 2002; Schaper, 2002, 2005). The difference between traditional entrepreneurs and environmental entrepreneurs is again considered to be the centrality of the mission, in this case environmental (Beverage and Guy, 2005; Schaltegger, 2002) or a combination of social and environmental concerns under the banner of a sustainability orientation (Walley and Taylor, 2002).

Some studies appear to use the term ecopreneur and social entrepreneur interchangeably (Choi and Gray, 2008). Whilst some studies do distinguish specific differences between social and environmental entrepreneurs, such as Dixon and Clifford (2006), others consider these as all part of one value-led continuum (Pastakia, 2002) (see Table 2 for an overview of the different definitions). Anderson and Leal (1997) consider many enviro-capitalists are just normal entrepreneurs working in the emerging eco niches. There is some suggestion that many environmental entrepreneurs are more business focused than social entrepreneurs (Fischetti, 1992; Gerlach, 2001), and that they sit at the for-profit end of the business spectrum (Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Gerlach, 2001). This theme of commercialisation emerges in the work of Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum and Shulman, (2009) who consider that commercial entrepreneurs are largely driven by profit, and measure success in financial terms, whereas social entrepreneurs espouse both social and economic goals in pursuing an opportunity. Within the literature there is little consideration of this variation within each group at a definitional level, with the exception of the work by Zahara et al. (2009) who define social entrepreneurs within a typology of Social Bricoleurs (small scale local needs), Social Constructionists (exploiting opportunities and market failures across broader society), and Social Engineers (focused on evolutionary change across social systems). This variation in type at the intra-definitional level relates in the main to the scale of issue addressed by the entrepreneurial activity. This is in contrast to the argument of Barendsen and Gardener (2004), who suggest differences occur between traditional entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurs based on differences in personality, life history and ethical values. This would suggest that perhaps given the different formative experiences of entrepreneurs in developing countries to those in western societies, that there may be differences within groups of social entrepreneurs from different geographical regions or economic environments.

TABLE 2: Defining social and environmental entrepreneurs

Social Entrepreneurs	
Practitioner/ Association Ashoka (2011); Leadbeater (1997); School	A social entrepreneur is someone who works in an entrepreneurial manner, but for public or social benefit, rather than to make money. Social entrepreneurs may work

<p>for Social Entrepreneurs (2011); Schwab Foundation (2011); Skoll Foundation (2011); Social Enterprise Alliance (2011); SustainAbility (2011); Thake and Zadek (1997).</p>	<p>in ethical businesses, governmental or public bodies, quangos, or the voluntary and community sector (School for Social Entrepreneurs, 2011)</p> <p>Social entrepreneurs are individuals with innovative solutions to society’s most pressing social problems. They are ambitious and persistent, tackling major social issues and offering new ideas for wide-scale change. Rather than leaving societal needs to the government or business sectors, social entrepreneurs find what is not working and solve the problem by changing the system, spreading the solution, and persuading entire societies to take new leaps. Social entrepreneurs often seem to be possessed by their ideas, committing their lives to changing the direction of their field. They are both visionaries and ultimate realists, concerned with the practical implementation of their vision above all else (Ashoka, 2011)</p> <p>A leader or pragmatic visionary who (1) achieves large scale systematic and sustainable social change through a new innovation, a different approach, a more rigorous application of known technologies or strategies, or a combination of these (2) focuses first and foremost on the social and/ or ecological value creation and tries to optimise the financial value creation (3) Innovates by finding a new product, a new service, or a new approach to a social problem. (Schwab Foundation 2011)</p>
<p>Journal : Austin et al. (2006); Catford (1998); Dees (1998); Defourny and Borzaga (2001); Drayton (2002); Harding (2004); Hemmingway (2005); Martin and Osberg (2007); Sharir and Learner (2006); Thompson (2002). Zahara et al (2009)</p>	<p>Social entrepreneurs are driven by a desire for social justice. They seek a direct link between their actions and an improvement in the quality of life for the people with whom they work and those that they seek to serve. They aim to produce solutions which are sustainable financially, organizationally, socially and environmentally” (Thake and Zadek 1997 20)</p> <p>“Social entrepreneurs make significant and diverse contributions to their communities and societies, adopting business models to offer creative solutions to complex and persistent social problems (Zahara et al., 2009: 519)”</p> <p>There are many creative, altruistic, ethically good people with innovative ideas. However, only one in many thousands has the entrepreneurial quality to engineer large-scale systemic social change. Natural born entrepreneur. someone who has a very special trait, someone who, in the core of her or his personality, absolutely must change an important pattern across her or his whole society (Drayton, 2002:124)</p>
<p>Other: Alvord et al. (2003); Barendsen and Gardener (2004); Bornstein (2007); Brinkerhoff (2001); Elkington and Hartigan (2008); Plater-Zyberk</p>	<p>Creates innovative solutions to immediate social problems and mobilizes the ideas, capacities, resources and social arrangements required for social transformations (Alvord et al., 2004)</p> <p>Social entrepreneurs are individuals who approach a social problem with entrepreneurial spirit and business acumen. Whereas business entrepreneurs create businesses, social</p>

<p>(2005); Reis (1999); Weybrecht (2010)</p>	<p>entrepreneurs create change (Barendsen and Gardener, 2004)</p> <p>“Social and environmental entrepreneurs lead by example. They attack intractable problems, take huge risks, and force the rest of us to look beyond the edge of what seems possible. They seek outlandish goals, such as economic and environmental sustainability and social equality, often aiming to transform the systems whose dysfunctions help to create or aggravate major socioeconomic, environmental or political problems. In so doing they uncover new ways to disrupt established industries while creating new paths for the future” Elkington and Hartigan, 2008.</p>
<p>Environmental Entrepreneur</p>	
<p>Practitioner: Creech and Pass, 2008; SustainAbility, 2011</p>	<p>“these entrepreneurs recognise a social (and or) environmental problem and use entrepreneurial principles to organise, create and manage a venture to make social (and/or) environmental change” (Creech and Pass, 2008:28)</p>
<p>Journal: Beverage and Guy, 2005; Choi and Gray, 2008; Dixon and Clifford, 2006; Gibbs, 2009; Linnanen, 2002; Pastakia, 2002; Schaltegger, 2002; Volery, 2002; Walley and Taylor, 2002</p>	<p>Individuals and organisations that, in various forms, combine the drive imagination and impact of the conventional entrepreneur with a concern for the environment usually associated with environmental activists” (Beverage and Guy: 2005: 667 “the way in which ecopreneurs view and assess the potential of resources and opportunities is filtered through their lenses of environmental commitment” (Dixon and Clifford, 2006: 328)</p> <p>“Ecopreneurs destroy existing conventional production methods, products, market structures and consumption patterns and replace them with superior environmental products and services. They create the market dynamics of environmental progress” (Schaltegger, 2002:46)</p>
<p>Other: Andersen and Leal, 1997; Elkinton and Hartigan, 2008; Fischetti, 1992; Gerlach, 2001; Isaak, 1998; Schaper, 2005; Schuyler, 1998; Weybrecht, 2010</p>	<p>“Sustainable entrepreneurs identify market opportunities for innovations concerning sustainability, successfully implement these innovations and create new products or services” (Gerlach, 2001:3)”</p> <p>“enviro-capitalists are entrepreneurs using business tools to preserve open space, develop wildlife habitat, save endangered species and generally improve environmental quality” Anderson and Leal 1997:3)</p> <p>a person who seeks to transform a sector of the economy towards sustainability by starting up a business in that sector with a green design, with green processes and with a life-long commitment to sustainability in everything that is said and done... ideal of sustainability gives meaning to everything the ecopreneur does on the Earth (Isaak, 1998)</p>

Equally, few studies consider the variation within the types of green/ environmental/ ecopreneurial entrepreneurs except the work of Walley and Taylor (2002). In their study they propose four types: Innovative Opportunists- financially orientated spotting a green niche; Visionary Champions - who

embrace transformative sustainability orientation to 'change the world'; Ethical Mavericks – influenced by peers they set up alternative business models sitting at the fringe of society rather than on the high-street; and Ad Hoc Ecopreneurs who are accidental green entrepreneurs. Again there is a variation suggested between the centrality of the green mission, or whether this is an opportunistic leap into an innovative market space that just happens to have an environmental dimension.

Entrepreneurial activity is considered a key component of sustainable economic growth (Anderson 1998), but entrepreneurs have been characterized as optimizing, selfish and materialistic individuals (Casson, 1995: 3). Yet Anderson (1998:136) comments that whilst entrepreneurship is primarily an individualistic economic action, it can be driven by moral attitudes, and that the social shifts which are the basis of modern sustainability discourse may also be the basis for new entrepreneurial opportunity (Anderson, 1998), and offer the opportunity for individuals to reflect wider societal concerns (Grannovetter, 1985).

Anderson (1998) argues entrepreneurs produce internal value associated with concepts such as satisfaction, for instance a 'moral' satisfaction that develops from the synergy of environmental, societal and entrepreneurial values of the individual. Thus environmental (and societal) values form a basis for entrepreneurial opportunity recognition (Lumpkin, Hills and Shrader, 2004) and the internal value that entrepreneurs may gain may have more to do with meeting their own societal (environmental and/or social) motivations and expectations, than a purely economic metric. Arguably social entrepreneurs are seeking to maximise their internal value, whilst at the same time maintain some economic return although that may not be provided by 'profit' but by donations from others. Evidence from studies of environmental entrepreneurs in the USA in 1990 suggest that this group also gain a form of internal value, the difference is perhaps the extent to which this is traded off against economic returns when compared to a social entrepreneur (Holt, in press).

All the definitions of social entrepreneurs refer to some aspect of social value and it is perhaps this aspect that most distinguishes between social and traditional entrepreneurs. The centrality of the social mission to the business model is a key difference (Social Enterprise Alliance, 2011). But the vision and commitment of a traditional entrepreneur may differ little from the passion demonstrated by social entrepreneur. Martin and Osberg (2007:34) suggest that traditional entrepreneurs are not exclusively driven by profit.

“both the entrepreneur and the social entrepreneur are strongly motivated by the opportunity they identify, pursuing that vision relentlessly, and deriving considerable psychic reward from the process of realizing their ideas”.

However they do note that traditional entrepreneurs expect some eventual personal financial gain. Whereas the anticipated value expected by a social entrepreneur is measured in less tangible terms related to the primacy of social benefit through ‘mission-related impact’. Therefore it might also be argued that an environmental entrepreneur who is developing a business model based on a perceived opportunity arising from a focus on more sustainable societal behaviour, might be motivated towards both of these extremes, as either a for profit model or as a form of environmental advocacy as a hybrid social entrepreneur who considers sustainability as addressing a society need

The studies that refer to the characteristics of social and environmental entrepreneurs are typically conceptual or limited case studies. There is little evidence of any consideration of large scale survey work, especially from a comparative cultural basis across diverse economic and geographical settings. The limited studies that consider BoP case do suggest that commercial, social and environmental entrepreneurs all share similar qualities, with the exception of the mission/ vision (Creech and Pass, 2008; Elkington and Hartigan, 2008; Gibbs, 2009; Pastakia, 2002; SustainAbility, 2011). However there are a number of research questions that emerge when considering BoP communities and the nature of the entrepreneurs in these locations, especially in terms of the opportunity recognition and the characteristics of the individual entrepreneur.

Firstly whilst all the literature supports opportunity recognition as a key factor, there is little discussion of the nature of opportunity recognition in developing countries. In the BRAC ultra poor project in Bangladesh individuals are offered a support package to run a small enterprise (given a stipend and the start up equipment), but the business model they chose is one offered from a ‘set menu’. Initial findings are very positive in terms of poverty alleviation (see Bandiera, Burgess, Gulesci, Rasul and Sulaiman, 2011), with emerging evidence that the mentoring aspect of the programme is helping these individual entrepreneurs to develop skills and competencies to support their entrepreneurial development. In this context the business model is not conceived by individual entrepreneurs, they are offered a choice from a set list. Yet at an individual level they may demonstrate many of the entrepreneurial qualities described in Table 1, thus the opportunity recognition may come from a facilitating third party like an NGO or faith-based charity.

The question of the centrality of the overarching 'mission' to the individual entrepreneur and how this affects the nature of the business (for profit/not for profit and all the combinations in between) is the second key consideration that has not really been explored, especially across different cultural and economic contexts. There is an opportunity to look at individual entrepreneurs through the lens of the theories developed in psychology and marketing, especially in terms of the green consumer literature. McGregor (2008) suggests that moral intensity is a key component in the likelihood of a consumer caring about an ethical issue related in part to, the closeness a consumer feels to the issue, the length of time taken for consequences to manifest and the higher the level of agreement in society that consuming in a certain way is unacceptable (see also Robin, Reidenbach, and Forrest, 1996). This influence of moral intensity may be an explanatory factor in determining the nature of the business model an individual entrepreneur adopts. The altruistic choices of a 'green' consumer to consume based not on just purely rational economic criteria but on some other non-tangible quality has many parallels with the choice of an individual to operate their business in a particular way, especially if they have no shareholders to satisfy with economic returns.

THE ENTERPRISE

Next we consider the nature of these mission-led enterprises. We adopt the perspective of considering the two literatures on social and ecopreneurial/green enterprises. We would argue that these two emergent literatures are coalescing, reflecting the way that social and environmental issues are considered as interrelated dimensions of the sustainability debate.

The emergence of the environmental agenda into society after the publication of *Silent Spring* in the 1960s, led to increasing business opportunities for entrepreneurs (see Bennett, 1991; Berle, 1991; Holt, 2011) to develop new products and services to fill these emerging eco-niches. Businesses also transformed their existing operations to consider how their traditional business models could have lower environmental impacts and use resources more effectively. This born green or transformed green leads to Isaak's (1998, 2002, 2005) definitions of 'Green' or 'Green-Green'

Green: A typical 'green business' did not start out that way but, once it was established, managers discovered the cost and innovation and marketing advantages, if not the ethical arguments, for 'greening' their existing enterprise.

Green-Green: "a 'green-green business' is one that is designed to be green in its processes and products from scratch, as a start-up, and, furthermore, is intended to transform socially the

industrial sector in which it is located towards a model of sustainable development”.(Isaak, 2002:82)

Typically early definitions focused on ‘ecopreneurial’ or green business opportunities as part of a for-profit business model exploiting the new niche markets offered in recycling, energy efficiency, alternative lifestyles, alternative energy, organics, natural products and eco-tourism (see Holt, 2011 for examples from the 1990s). Since the emergence of sustainable development as a concept in 1992 after the Rio Earth Summit, a focus on triple bottom line impact has tended to bring in social dimensions, such as ‘socially committed’ (Walley and Taylor, 2002), where the social dimension is a secondary impact. We define the ecopreneurial enterprises as:

Enterprises that have a product or service that is based predominantly on managing or using environmental/ natural capital and consider (to varying degrees) the three aspects of the pillars of sustainability, incorporating environmental, social, and economic criteria.

Whether an enterprise might be considered environmental depends variously on:

- Sector or industrial classification (e.g. Creech and Pass, 2008; Eastwood, Eaton, Guyer and Stark, 2001; Hendrickson and Tuttle, 1997; Schaltegger, 2002; Pastakia, 2002)
- Nature of the product/market (de Bruin and Lewis, 2005; Hendrickson and Tuttle, 1997; Schaltegger, 2002)
- Nature of the ‘mission’ (Hendrickson and Tuttle, 1997; Isaak, 2002; Schaltegger, 2002; Volery, 2002; Walley and Taylor, 2002)
- If born green or transformed (Isaak, 1998, 2002, 2005; Walley and Taylor, 2002)
- Role of profit (Pastakia, 2002)
- If they exceed the environmental benchmark within their sector (Schaltegger, 2002)

An environmental enterprise might exist in any sector because it is the nature of the input, transformation processes, outputs and impact that determines if this enterprise has a lower environmental impact or addresses an environmental concern (like pollution or climate change). Notwithstanding this observation, Eastwood et al. (2001) summarize the main groupings of environmental enterprise ‘sectors’ as:

- Pollution control and treatment
- Waste disposal and collection
- Recycling and reuse
- Energy conservation
- Consultancy and monitoring
- Heritage and eco-tourism

- Research and education
- Forestry and organic farming
- Eco-capital equipment
- Alternative green production

Building on Linnanen (2002) and Creech and Pass (2008) we might cluster these sectors into those that manage ecosystems and natural capital; disseminate knowledge and advice; produce green goods or retail green goods/services.

Addressing environmental concerns is also considered a social issue, and many of the recent definitions of social enterprises incorporate an environmental element as part of the overarching mission of the organisation. The boundary conditions of social enterprises also vary significantly across these various definitions and may depend upon whether social enterprises are 'State' defined, often related to tax status. There is evidence of clear difference across Europe and the USA (Defourney and Nyssens, 2008; Kerlin, 2006; Peattie and Morely, 2006) though there is little consensus on the specificity of these differences. However there is also little explicit exploration of potential differences in boundary conditions in developing and emerging nations. This is especially pertinent given the push towards using value-led enterprise models to promote sustainable development. Development through enterprise is often the basis of economic policy initiatives in developing and emergent economies. The purpose of a social enterprise in a western-context may focus on higher level 'self-actualisation' social issues, rather than meeting the fundamental needs of the ultra poor. Table 2 illustrates some of these different definitions of social enterprises, but a number are quantitatively specific, in the areas of trading income, grant allocation and profit distribution. Often these quantitative criteria tend to be related to tax, or gaining recognition from a funding agency or accreditation organisations

- The company earns at least 50% of its income from trading, or as a new start you pledge to reach this within 18 months (Social Enterprise Coalition, 2011; Social Enterprise Mark, 2011);
- Generates more than 25% of income from trading goods and services (UK Department for Business Innovation and Skills (formerly DTI), 2010);
- Has less than 75% of its turnover derived from grants or donations (Department for Business Innovation and Skills, 2010);
- 50% boundary suggested for grants/donations, those above this might be proto-social enterprises (Munoz, 2009); and
- Does not pay more than 50% of trading profits or surpluses to owners or shareholders (Department for Business Innovation and Skills, 2010; Peattie and Morley, 2006)

There are also a number of networks developing to support social enterprises, such as the East

African Social Enterprise Network. Here such networks tend to have an inclusive approach to membership, with less specific boundary conditions applied, in part driven by the need to promote social enterprise as a concept in regions where such models are less established. In the context of a developing country you might argue that all employment addresses a social need, development, and hence all enterprises are social. The hybrid models emerging in developing countries of trading NGOs, enterprises with philanthropic activities, commercial enterprises that work in partnership with charities to address environmental issues may all self designate themselves as social enterprises in these regions.

TABLE 3: Boundary Conditions of Social Enterprises

Primacy of Social Mission and Impact	Dees, 2003; Defourny and Nyssens, 2006; Department for Business Innovation and Skills, 2010; DTI, 2002; Mort et al., 2002; Munoz, 2009; Office of Third Sector, 2006; Peattie and Morley, 2006; Smallbone, Evans, Ekanem, and Butters, 2001; Social Enterprise Alliance, 2011; Social Enterprise Coalition, 2011; Social Enterprise Mark, 2011; Thompson and Doherty, 2006
Participatory governance / stakeholder involvement / citizen involvement/ not managed by State or Public Agency	Defourny and Nyssens, 2006; European Commission, 2011; Langdon and Burkett, 2004; OECD, 2001; Thompson and Doherty, 2006
Income through trading rather than grants/donations/ financial viable	DTI, 2002; Langdon and Burkett, 2004; Munoz, 2009; OECD, 2001; Office of Third Sector, 2006; Smallbone et al, 2001; Social Enterprise Coalition, 2011; Social Enterprise London, 2011; Sustainability, 2011; Thompson and Doherty, 2006
Profits reinvested not necessarily distributed/ limited distribution	Department for Business Innovation and Skills 2010; DTI, 2002; European Commission, 2011; Langdon and Burkett, 2004; Munoz, 2009; OECD, 2001; Office of Third Sector, 2006; Social Enterprise London, 2011
Community orientation	Defourny and Nyssens 2006; OECD, 2001
Company has its own constitution and governing body	Social Enterprise Coalition, 2011; Social Enterprise Mark, 2011
Decision making not based on ownership/ democratic	Defourny and Nyssens, 2006; European Commission, 2011; OECD, 2001
Economic risk	OECD, 2001
Enterprising orientation	Langdon and Burkett, 2004; Thompson and Doherty, 2006
Flexible and innovative	European Commission, 2011
May have subsidies	Defourny and Nyssens, 2006
Minimum number of paid employees	OECD, 2001
Not particularly involved in grant giving or advocacy	Defourny and Nyssens, 2006

Not profit maximising	Defourny and Nyssens, 2006
Accountability	Thompson and Doherty, 2006
Spectrum from Philanthropic to commercial	Dees, Emerson and Economy, 2001P

Table 3 illustrates many of these boundary conditions set by the various definitions of social enterprises in use. The key distinguishing factors appear to be the primacy of the social mission or impact of social activity, the governance structure, income through trading and reinvestment of profits.

Within the many definitions of social enterprises in the practitioner, academic and policy literature, consensus appears to be emerging that the boundaries between social and traditional enterprises is related to the role of commerciality, funding sources and the type and nature of the ‘social’ mission.

- A business with primarily social objectives whose surpluses are primarily reinvested for that purpose in the business or in the community, rather than being driven by the need to maximise profits for shareholders and owners (Department for Business Innovation and Skills, 2010)
- Social enterprises are businesses trading for social and environmental purposes. Rather than maximising private profit, their main aim is to generate profit to further their social and environmental goals (Social Enterprise Coalition, 2011)
- A social enterprise is a revenue-generating venture founded by a non-profit to create jobs or training opportunities for very low-income individuals, while simultaneously operating with reference to the financial bottom-line (Roberts Enterprise Development Fund, 2011)
- Social enterprises trade products and services to further social and environmental goals.
- They are led by a sense of social purpose (Leadbeater, 2007)

There is, however, lack of consensus on some of the other boundary conditions which is in part related to the extreme heterogeneity in their social mission and resultant organisational nature across different political frameworks, levels of economic development and familiarity with the value-led nature of businesses.

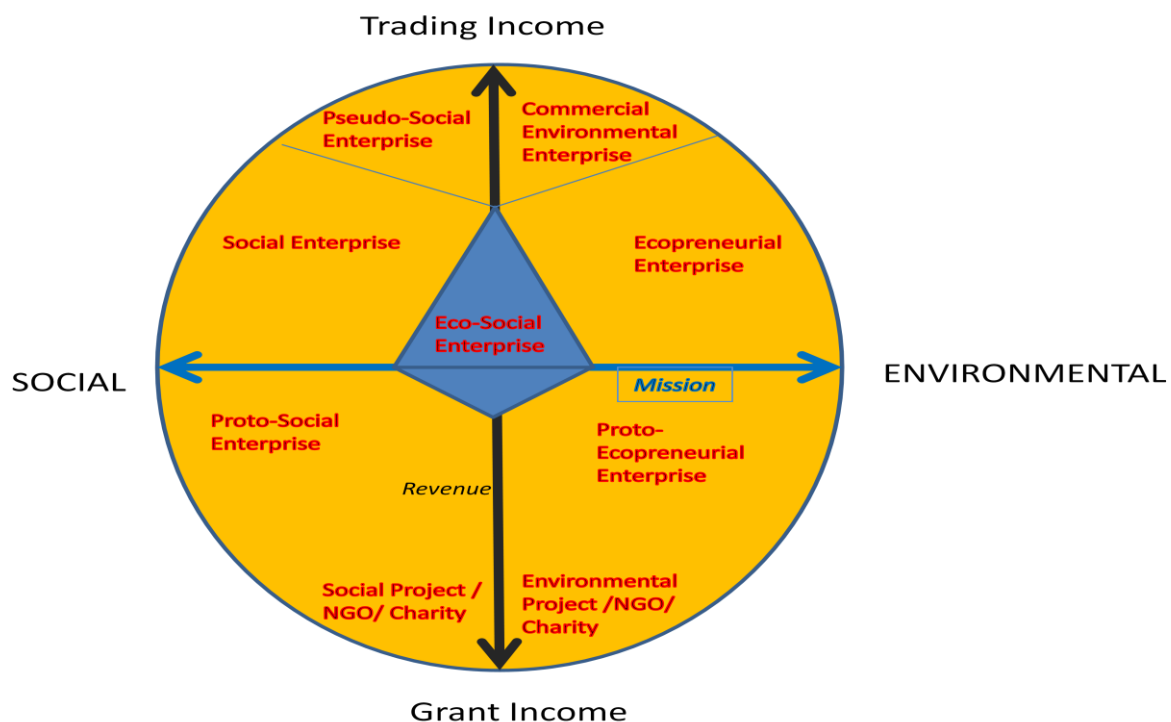
The umbrella term ‘Social Enterprise’ includes a range of organisational types that vary in their activities, size, legal structure, geographic scope, funding, motivations, degree of profit orientation, relationship with communities, ownership and culture” (Peattie and Morley, 2006:7).

The Social Enterprise Alliance (2011) distinguishes two distinct characteristics that they suggest differentiate social enterprises from other types of businesses, nonprofits and government agencies. Firstly social enterprises directly address social needs through their products and services or through the numbers of disadvantaged people they employ. In comparison a 'socially responsible businesses' uses corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities to generate indirect social benefit. Secondly, social enterprises use earned revenue strategies to pursue a double or triple bottom line, or use income as a significant part of a mixed revenue stream that includes charitable contributions and public sector subsidies. This second element of their definition is more akin to the hybrid models emerging in sub-Saharan Africa such as trading NGOs and social enterprises supported in part by donated funds. Often these donations form the vast majority of the income of these organisations. Therefore there is also a case to argue that developing countries have a form of proto-social enterprises (after Munoz, 2009) where a very small component of the revenue stream comes from income-generating activities, as these enterprises establish themselves.

Inglehart, Foa, Peterson and Welzel (2008) argue that Western societies are increasingly reflecting post-material values associated with quality of life concerns. If we consider this in terms of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs then there we could consider whether 'what' a social enterprise addresses in the developed world is fundamentally different to the societal issues addressed in developing nations. So a social enterprise in the UK might be considering issues associated with youth employment or social exclusion, whereas a social enterprise in Africa might be focusing on getting access to lighting and poverty alleviation. In essence are social enterprises in developing countries addressing more fundamental societal needs than those in developed countries, such as absolute poverty rather than relative poverty? In this case would the nature of social enterprise be predicted by GDP and the Human Development Index (HDI). In developing countries where institutional frameworks are weaker, and less regulated, with arguably more fundamental social needs to be met, are we seeking bodies such Churches and NGOs stepping forward into a commercial environment to plug the gap left by the lack of a strong State?

In Figure 1 we map the various types of enterprises discussed in the practitioner, policy and academic literature proposing that all social and environmental organisational models can be mapped according to the centrality of their mission and the revenue stream

FIGURE 1: Mapping the triple bottom line of enterprise types



THE CONCEPT

We now consider this phenomenon at a conceptual level. The environmental dimension of these concepts are typically described as either ecopreneurship (Bennett, 1991; Beverage and Guy, 2005; Isaak, 2002; Schaltegger, 2002; Schaper, 2002, 2005; Schuyer, 1998), green entrepreneurship (Berle, 1991; de Bruin and Lewis, 2005; Schapper, 2002, 2005), environmental entrepreneurship (Anderson, 1998; Henrickson and Tuttle, 1997; Linnanen, 2002; Lober, 1998), or enviropreneurship (Keogh and Polansky, 1998, Menon and Menon, 1997).

Whilst these terms vary, the actual definitions that accompany them are very similar. The majority of the early definitions agree that there is a little difference between environmental and more traditional entrepreneurship, for instance Linnanen (2002) notes that most of the normal entrepreneurial laws, such as the correlation between risk and profit, the right timing for market entry and the need for adequate financial and human capital are valid also in environmental ventures. However the key difference mentioned by many is the ability to tap into the 'green' market. This is encapsulated by Lober (1998:26) who states:

“Environmental entrepreneurship is the creation of new products, services, or organizations to meet environmental market opportunities... participating companies using a proactive environmental stance to define their market niche and help them gain competitive advantage”

Hendrickson and Tuttle (1997:363) describe this even more simply as “entrepreneurial activity that benefits the environment”. Implicit, or explicit, within most definitions is the suggestion that the business model is profit orientated, associated with markets or competitive advantage.

However the nature of the business model adopted to tap into a green market might be driven by different factors. De Bruin and Lewis (2005) consider a multidimensional framework of green entrepreneurship responding to either personal environmental concerns; a business opportunity orientation linked to environmental benefit; or a collective or group eco-response often resulting in a community enterprise. These different motivating factors are driven by different visions or beliefs of the entrepreneurs as discussed earlier (e.g. Beverage and Guy, 2005), leading to very different types of business models. We can see this in the discussion of ‘sustainable entrepreneurship’ proposed by Hockerts and Wüstenhagen (2010) varying based on different organisational types, related to age, size and objective function. They suggest the younger, smaller ‘Davids’ trade off economic goals against social and environmental objectives, with the older, larger ‘Goliaths’ prioritising economic value. They further define this to suggest that only disruptive innovation, rather than incremental innovation, constitutes sustainable entrepreneurship. Incremental innovators might be Bioneers, social bricoleurs or practice some aspect of sustainable management.

This recent emergence of ‘sustainable entrepreneurship’ builds on the triple bottom line perspective suggested by Menon and Menon (1997) in their definition of enviropreneurship (in the context of marketing) as integration social, environmental and economic concerns. Hockerts and Wüstenhagen (2010:482) define sustainable entrepreneurship as the:

“discovery and exploitation of economic opportunities through the generation of market disequilibria that initiate the transformation of a sector towards an environmentally and socially more sustainable state”

Again this has a market focus, mirrored in the work of authors (Cohen and Winn, 2007; Dean and McMullen, 2007; Zahra et al., 2009).

Less explicitly market focused is the definition by Creech and Pass (2008) of 'Sustainopreneurship' as a cross-over between social and environmental objectives that consider a social or environmental problem to use 'entrepreneurial' principles to organise, create and manage a venture to make social (and/or) environmental change. Here the definition moves into a cause driven motive more akin to social entrepreneurship, to which we now turn our attention.

From a narrow perspective Social Entrepreneurship is most commonly associated with the development of market-based approaches by non-profits aimed at addressing a social problem (Austin et al., 2006). Definitions of social entrepreneurship typically stress the centrality of a social 'mission' and the role of earned income, alongside other revenue streams, in achieving this mission. Austin et al. (2006) suggests this is an innovative activity with a social objective delivered through three broader routes. Firstly, within a for-profit model such as social-purpose commercial ventures or social entrepreneurship within an existing organisation; secondly, in the non-profit sector; and thirdly in hybrid structural forms which mix for-profit and non-profit approaches. Chell et al. (2010) expand on this further suggesting that CSR initiatives are a form of in-company social entrepreneurship.

If we consider Fowler (2000:649), this further widens the scope of social entrepreneurship to a process or activity associated with "the creation of viable (socio-) economic structures, relations, institutions, organisations and practices that yield and sustain social benefits". This diversity is also reflected by the examples suggested by Dees (1998) such as innovative not-for-profit ventures, social purpose business ventures, such as for-profit community development banks, and hybrid organizations mixing not-for-profit and for-profit elements, such as homeless shelters that start businesses to train and employ their residents.

However Dees (1998) also makes a pertinent point when considering BOP markets where many of these hybrid models are emerging. He stresses that not every new business is entrepreneurial and not every new non-profit is innovative. In BOP markets we can consider both innovative entrepreneurship and 'necessity' based entrepreneurship. These are very different types of business models when comparing the innovation of bringing a new product or service to market, compared with starting up a business like selling food products on a roadside stall because that is the only way to generate income besides options like prostitution or sweatshop labour. This goes to the heart of what we mean by 'entrepreneurship'.

Neck et al. (1999) considers the line of demarcation between traditional and social entrepreneurship is the inputs into the process, such as the source of opportunity and founding mission. They define four basic types of organisations, which exist on their own in combined hybrid forms, suggesting it is forms of the latter two which are part of the domain of social entrepreneurship based on intended mission.

- Traditional Ventures focus primarily on economic mission and economic impact, with financial performance as its primary metric. These ventures have no explicit social mission beyond running a good and profitable business through the exploitation of market-based opportunities.
- Social Consequence Ventures are similar to the traditional venture except that many of their practices have social outcomes, although these social outcomes are not the reason for the firm's existence but an outcome of doing business. Aligned with corporate social responsibility.
- Social Purpose Ventures are founded on the premise that a social problem will be solved, yet the venture is for-profit and the impact on the market is typically perceived as economic.
- Enterprising Nonprofits. Enterprising nonprofits have earned income activities, which very much apply the general principles of entrepreneurship.

To this we might add

- Necessity ventures. Ventures typically associated with the poor or ultra poor which provide a subsistence living to those unable to avail themselves of other economic opportunities.

It is perhaps pertinent to consider mapping these types of ventures across the dimensions of innovative, opportunistic and mission driven (social and/or economic) to consider which might be considered as entrepreneurial, especially across the emerging models in emerging and transitional economies. This may bring some clarity to what entrepreneurial may or may not mean in this context

THEMES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The preceding discussion has suggested a number of emerging themes for future research. At the individual level of the entrepreneurs we might consider:

- If social and environmental entrepreneurs share the same characteristics in terms of personal qualities and competencies as commercial entrepreneurs?
- To what extent to the social conditions in developing countries, especially lack of access to resources, lead to variations in the characteristics of individual entrepreneurs?
- Can entrepreneurs be classified using the centrality of their personal vision/mission for

environmental and social sustainability in terms of an altruistic to profit-maximising scale?

- If the opportunity recognition comes from a third party are you still a social or environmental entrepreneur? In a BOP context is opportunity recognition different?
- Can we use the scales developed to measure green or ethical consumer behaviour to apply to the individual behaviour choices of entrepreneurs?

When consider the nature of these enterprises we might consider:

- Mapping examples of these types of organisations across different cultural contexts to explore the variation that exists across the scale presented in Figure 1 and comparing this within different BOP markets
- Developing a typology that integrates both environmental and social elements as part of the integration of the business model
- Consider the formal versus informal definitions of social enterprises across different regions, especially the use, or lack thereof, within developing country contexts.
 - In particular we consider the use of formal quantitative benchmarks and their applicability in BOP communities
 - The perception of what a social enterprise is across different stakeholder groups and within different countries
 - To gather more detail on the nature of these enterprises in a developing world context

At a conceptual level we need to consider what is meant by 'entrepreneurial' in the general context of these enterprises but also in an emerging economies context. This is at the heart of this conceptual debate and until this is resolved we cannot really fully define environmental, social or sustainable entrepreneurship. Much of the variation between traditional, social and environmental reflects this centrality of a personal mission related to the nature of the social problem and role of profit within the business model. The key difference between these appears to be the nature of the value created. In traditional entrepreneurship is primarily economic, with social and environmental value an indirect consequence. In social it is primarily a form of social capital and environmental appears to fall towards one extreme or another. We might consider this through the lens of the Five Capitals Models (developed by Forum for the Future), consisting of financial, manufactured, natural, social and human capital and to what extent these different concepts prioritise and develop each.

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