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The congruence of the social and conventional entrepreneur: An examination of goal split distribution, emergence by age, and antecedent model congruence

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The Congruence of the Social and Conventional Entrepreneur: An Examination of Goal Split Distribution, Emergence by Age, and Antecedent Model Congruence

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Dedication

For Aidan and Mason, my continuous sources of joy and wonder.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables and Figures

Abstract

Defined social and conventional entrepreneurs enjoy very different levels of support and educational offerings in the United States and abroad. With the launch of more and more nonprofit organizations being spurred on by the entrepreneur, the extent to which those that seek a distributed bottom line for their intended organization differ from those with economic goals becomes an important line of inquiry.

The study of the entrepreneur began, in many ways, with Schumpeter in that late 1930's, and the echoes of his economic background remain implicit in the definition of the breed to this day. This work seeks to determine the extent to which the defined social and conventional entrepreneur share a common process, predeliction, and mind set, in an effort to determine if their commonalities warrant generally congruent classification and treatment.

This work examines the extent of congruence through a study of the goal splits, emergence levels by age, and classification rates of antecedent composites of both defined types of entrepreneur. It uncovers interesting similarities that bring about an alternate conceptualization of what it means to be an entrepreneur, and challenges how they should be best educated and incubated.

Introduction

> How do we know the dancer from the dance? When we view entrepreneurship from a behavioral perspective we do not artificially separate dancer from dance, we do not attempt to fashion a reassuring simplicity. The behavioral approach challenges us to develop research questions, methodologies' and techniques that will do justice to the complexity of entrepreneurship. The creation of an organization is a very complicated and intricate process, influenced by many factors and influencing us even as we look at it.
>
> (W. B. Gartner, 1988)

In the literature, one of the benchmarks cited of a highly productive and flourishing economy is the emergence of entrepreneurial activity in highly developed nations (Acs & Szerb, 2007). Entrepreneurs as economic actors have convincingly been given credit for the productivity boom that the United States has enjoyed from the early 1950s through present day. They are risk takers and problem solvers. They solve humanitarian issues and employ millions across the country. They impact the way we communicate, travel, recreate, work, and nearly every other facet of our lives. The entrepreneur is the engine of innovation, operates in the market and nonprofit sectors to many ends, and is driven by multiple motivations. These actors in our society are often considered economic or social heroes, and their talents viewed with a certain awe and reverence. The unique combination of skills and abilities that make the entrepreneur who she is are certainly not mystical. To quote Drucker, “The entrepreneurial mystique? It’s not magic, it’s not mysterious, and it has nothing to do with the genes. It’s a discipline.” (1985).

The Importance of Entrepreneurial Understanding

The conventional, profit-seeking entrepreneur has been convincingly correlated with economic growth in much of the literature. To quote Wennekers and Thurik (1999), "Entrepreneurship Matters. In modern open economies it is more important for economic growth than it has ever been" (51). While the specific dynamics that link the efforts of the singular entrepreneur to economic growth continue to elude scholarly consensus, it is widely believed that the capable entrepreneur coupled with a welcoming environment can drive economic success (Wennekers & Thurik, 1999; Mankiw, 1995; Porter, 1990).

In many ways, the accumulation of a nation's social wealth is of no less importance than it's economic success, however the relative value of one over the other is certainly up to the evaluation of the individual (Mair & Marti, 2006). This said, in many cases social entrepreneurship has the ability to solve social problems that are not addressed by the market or public sector, or address them in new or novel ways through a more efficient combination of resources. They have the ability to gestate ventures that deliver services and goods to those in need, in ways that benefit society as a whole. These include reductions in crime, promotion of overall well-being, and the creation of a more capable workforce, and are frequently accomplished through solving emergent problems at a lower societal cost than previously offered solutions. The application of innovation and creativity to solve social problems is not new, nor is their study, but a deeper understanding of the drivers of the defined social entrepreneur will almost certainly lead to the adoption of policy that can better support and educate them. In short, the education of the conventional entrepreneur may benefit the recipient (and the economic base to a lesser extent), but the support and

education of the social entrepreneur has the potential of benefitting society as a whole in a more distributed way.

The Struggle for Definition

The definition of entrepreneurism and the related constructs in the literature is fractured and inconsistent. This is due in large part to the lack of agreement as to the scope of the field and the related inclusion of those who participate. Academia has struggled with a unified definition, however most individuals within academia (and the general public) can identify entrepreneurial activity when they see it. Most broadly, the field of entrepreneurship is defined as a study of sources of opportunities; the process of discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities; and the set of individuals who perform those actions (Shane & Venkatarman, 2000). In this context, the entrepreneur is the actor, and entrepreneurism is the action that defines any venture or process as entrepreneurial. Mars and Rios-Aguilar take the definition of the process a step further by defining it as creating and sustaining economic or social value through the development and deployment of innovative strategies and solutions that require the three major steps of; identification of opportunity, mitigation and taking of risk, and resource allocation and mobilization (2010). Implicit in this definition is *opportunity*, which is further defined as the identification of a chance to fill a need, be it social or market based (Ardichvili, Cardozo, & Ray, 2003). Combining the concepts, entrepreneurship is when the actor (entrepreneur) meets opportunity, be it perceived or actual, and acts upon it, resulting in the development of a venture. Kuratko and Hodgetts (2004) have framed the phenomena well,

> "Entrepreneurship is a dynamic process of vision, change, and creation. It requires an application of energy and passion towards the creation and implementation of new ideas

> and creative solutions. Essential ingredients include the willingness to take calculated risks—in terms of time, equity, or career; the ability to formulate an effective venture team; the creative skill to marshal needed resources; and fundamental skill of building a solid business plan; and finally, the vision to recognize opportunity where others see chaos, contradiction, and confusion" (30).

Schumpeter began much of the framing of the entrepreneur through an examination of the manifestation of the personality type (1939). This groundbreaking work positioned entrepreneurs as those that "earn out innovation" and while the treatment is narrowed to Schumpeter's academic purview, the social entrepreneur performs this task as well (Dees, 2007). It can be argued that the only differentiating dynamic between the defined social entrepreneur (SE) and their conventional counterpart is the desire to not earn for themselves solely, but rather the pursuit of a more distributed bottom line. The social entrepreneur certainly does not share the completely profit seeking disposition of those who are considered by academic definition to be conventional entrepreneurs. This said, it is not the orientation of academics that should be used to group disciplines, but rather the similarities in dynamics based on the anchors of the seminal literature. To highlight the arbitrary nature of the schism, an attorney who provides their services pro bono is not excluded from the defined ranks of their field.

The field of entrepreneurship was first identified and explored in the context of those pursuing economic gains, generally by business scholars. It is because of this that the majority of the literature views the pursuit through the business lens. The field of nonprofit study has also addressed the entrepreneur in her manifestation as one pursuing social ends. Through the examination of hybrid ventures such as social enterprises, the legitimacy of the

social entrepreneur as a market actor has received limited attention (Dart, 2004). This work will explore the congruence of the two defined types of entrepreneurs to determine if a more unified definition is warranted.

Types of Entrepreneurial Study

Mair and Marti (2006) present an important distinction between the types of entrepreneurial study. Specifically, the differences between the study of *entrepreneurship*, the study of the *entrepreneur*, and the study of *entrepreneurial enterprises*. Their framing posits the study of *entrepreneurship* as characterized by the study of the behavior of the individual. This would be congruent with Gartner (1988) in that it uses the definition of the observable behavior of venture launch as the defining behavior of the entrepreneur. More deeply, it positions the structure of venture launch as "both a product of and a constraint upon human action (40)." The second type of study, that of the *entrepreneur*, focuses on the founder of the organization, and keeps well with many of the predominant theories of entrepreneurial emergence, including Bandura's Social Cognitive Career Theory, Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior, and Shapero's Theory of the Entrepreneurial Event. This type of study positions the entrepreneur as a type of individual uniquely suited to launch ventures to address what they see as problems, be they economic or social in nature. The third type of study is conceptualized as that of *entrepreneurial enterprises*, and focuses on firm-level behavior (Mair and Marti, 2006).

This current work focuses on the second type of study, the *entrepreneur* as an individual, while giving deference to their role in the process of *entrepreneurship* as an an important actor in the larger process of venture creation.

Entrepreneurs as Problem Solvers

Inherent in the conceptualization of the entrepreneur is their own perspective that positions as *opportunities* what many would see as *problems*. In this respect, the entrepreneur is a problem solver, regardless of the context of the problem itself. Some focus on problems that can be solved in a way that would increase personal wealth, while others tend to turn their energies toward solving societal problems with less regard to capital accumulation. Perhaps the most interesting for study are those who pursue both, with the launch of different types of ventures whose legal and organizational manifestations are designed to best solve both of the the problem types identified.

Nonprofit Structures and the Defined Social Entrepreneur

The nonprofit corporate structure in the United States is a natural housing agent for the social entrepreneur, as it is the operational and legal manifestation of a dispersed bottom line. Its organizational orientation does not benefit from the simplicity and focus of purely financial objectives, as the overall mission is of more importance (Drucker, 1989). Many enlightened nonprofits are overcoming their distaste for the taint of commercialism in favor of the practices of professional leadership (Drucker, 1989). Moving the nonprofit field toward training its leaders in relevant organizational best practices developed in the various business disciplines, the social entrepreneur then shares most of the qualities of their conventional counterparts save a pure bottom-line orientation. This begs the question, if they are more similar that not, should they not be conceptualized, educated, and incubated similarly?

Scope of Work

This work will examine the similarities between social and conventional entrepreneurs through a quantitative inspection of three important dynamics. The first is the entrepreneur's propensity to attach economic or social goals to their coming venture. The extent to which the purity of goals is attached to either the person or the venture will shed light on the extent to which the entrepreneur is either durably social or conventional, or if they are simply an entrepreneur, with the ability to move between the different legal business manifestations. The second dynamic of note is the extent to which the defined social and conventional entrepreneurs show similar trends in rates of emergence over time. This dynamic will determine if they respond to societal dynamics similarly, pointing to either congruence or differences. The third examination will focus on the theoretical antecedents that have been widely accepted to explain the emergence of the entrepreneurial personality. These antecedents will be used to model the nascent state emergence of both defined conventional and social entrepreneurs to determine congruence.

It is the overall intention of this work to examine the congruence between the two types of entrepreneurs through these five quantitative examinations of their similarities, pointing to the need for a more inclusive conceptualization of the entrepreneur.

Problem Statement

Overview

The issue that this work intends to address is rooted in the evolution of the field of entrepreneurial research. The body of literature addressing the social entrepreneur is growing, however a commonly accepted conceptualization of the congruence with their conventional counterpart remains elusive. This lack of scholarly agreement leads to many issues related to the support and incubation of the social entrepreneur, primarily a lack of inclusiveness into training and incubation programs that would help bolster her rate of success.

The number of social enterprise practitioners is robust, with 5% of respondents to the GEM survey indicating that they were currently running, or intending to start a social venture (Terjesen, Lepoutre, & Bosma, 2012). These unique social actors are responsible for behavior that results in a growing number of solutions to societal issues that have yet to be addressed by the public or market sectors. The support of profit-focused ventures is a simple proposition to communicate due to the correlation between their launch and the growth of economic activity. The support of social ventures does not benefit from this simple correlation because the resulting externalities are far more challenging to quantify. Simply put, social ventures, launched by social entrepreneurs, pursue a distributed bottom line that pays off in ways best measured through metrics found in the civil society literature. These include, but are not limited to, decreases in human suffering and crime rates, as well as increases in educational attainment, and overall personal health (Edwards, 2009). The social entrepreneur seeks to solve problems related to the overall well-being of community, and while the effects of these efforts can be more challenging to trace back to positive

results, they can be argued to be no less important than economic ends. This growth and prominence has caused academia to rethink the way that the social entrepreneur is trained and incubated, although to a limited degree. In general, the SE is excluded from entrepreneurial training programs housed in the business schools of institutions of higher education, as well as the community and university-based incubators designed to accelerate the growth of new ventures. This is particularly true of those with intentions of gestating nonprofits, as education and incubation tend to be offered based on the arbitrarily defined orientation of the individual, rather than the need (Dees, 2001). This phenomenon of non-inclusion is likely due to the evolution of the entrepreneurial literature by business-oriented academics, and the relatively recent emergence of social entrepreneurship research.

The social entrepreneur, while likely sharing the majority of the antecedents drawn from the conventional literature with their conventional counterparts, do not generally benefit from the same inclusion in academic programs that would best prepare them for development of successful social ventures (Dees, 2001). As the volume of nonprofit organizations gestated by social entrepreneurs increases dramatically, their potential to *earn out innovation* to a public end scales with their activity level and success. The education and support offerings currently available to the conventional entrepreneur are slowly becoming inclusive of those that seek a distributed bottom line, however a persistent, Shumpeter-driven view of the entrepreneur as only an economically motivated actor persists.

The amount of educational courses in institutions of post-secondary education that are designed to foster the social entrepreneur have increased in the US from 5 to 92 between

1998 and 2011 (Mirabella & Young, 2012), however the housing departments frequently offer inconsistent education that may not address the needs of the individual.

It is the goal of this work to empirically address the congruence of the two types of entrepreneur in an effort to converge their disparate treatment into one unifying model that frames the entrepreneur as a unique type of actor, irrespective of the goals they maintain for the particular organization they plan on launching. It is the hope of the author that if evidence of congruence is found, a more comprehensive model will foster fresh policy initiatives that affect the scope and inclusion of entrepreneurship education and incubation activities to include activities driven by the social entrepreneur.

Educating and Incubating the Entrepreneur

The link between both the education and incubation of the entrepreneur, as well as their emergence and requisite success has been convincingly argued in much of the literature (Souitaris, Zerbinati, & Al-Laham, 2006; Gorman, Hanlon, & King, 1997). Perhaps through an arbitrary conceptualization, the potential social entrepreneur is excluded from many programs that would foster their growth at the majority of both higher educational institutions and entrepreneurial incubators across the United States and the world.

Mirabella and Young (2012) present interesting evidence to the lack of a cohesive pedagogy across university housing departments with regards to social entrepreneurial education. The study found that business schools which housed educational offerings designed to train the budding social entrepreneur leaned heavily toward the teaching of "market skills", or business fundamentals, while programs housed in schools of public administration emphasized a more balanced curricula including market, political, philanthropic, management, and leadership skills (Mirabella & Young, 2012). This schism

of educational offerings points to a lack of specific definition of the social entrepreneur as either a philanthropic or business actor.

Certainly a more generalizable and cohesive definition of the social entrepreneur will provide more focus and effectiveness to the educational offerings available to her. The result may be a better society as a whole, with the spillover benefits of the efforts of effective and efficient social entrepreneurs being for society as a whole to enjoy.

Research Question

Research Question

Central to this work is a desire for a deeper understanding of the congruence between the personality types of conventional and social entrepreneurs. Specifically, is the current disparate categorization and subsequent gestational treatment of the two warranted, given their similarities? Supporting this question are the answers to three main topics of inquiry that will question the appropriateness of the widely accepted classification schema.

Of key importance is the extent to which the entrepreneur attaches goals to a specific enterprise manifestation. If the individual starts a conventional venture purely to make money, or a social venture purely to make good, then the disparate classification is warranted. Is the individual's orientation accurately represented by the eventual intended corporate structure they seek, or do they tend to carry more distributed intentions despite being categorized by a company type? A deeper understanding of the extent to which individuals display a purity of either profit or social intentions when gestating a venture will underpin a more robust understanding of the nature of the conventional/social classification model drawn from academia.

Of secondary importance is the extent to which the defined social and conventional entrepreneurs follow dissimilar or similar patterns with regards to launching new ventures. Do the individuals present similar rates of emergence at different ages, and if so, is the overall pattern congruent?

Perhaps of most importance when considering a unified reconceptualization of the entrepreneur is the extent to which the defined social and conventional individuals share levels of the antecedents proffered in the literature explaining the emergence of the

conventional entrepreneur. If the emergence of both defined types of individual is predicted to similar levels, should they not be reconceptualized as similar people for the purposes of training?

Hypotheses

The stated goal of this work is to provide for a better understanding of the congruence between those identified as social entrepreneurs and their conventional counterparts. Five hypotheses will be explored to this end.

Hypothesis 1: Individuals who self-identify as being in the nascent state of launching a conventional venture will present a significant percentage of their goal splits as being in pursuit of social outcomes for that venture.

Hypothesis 2: Individuals who self-identify as being in the nascent state of launching a social venture will present a significant percentage of their goal splits as being in pursuit of economic outcomes for that venture.

Hypothesis 3: A comparative inspection of rates of nascent state entrepreneurs launching either type of venture by age will uncover congruent trends of emergence.

Hypothesis 4: The goal disposition profile statistics of individuals in the nascent state of starting both social and conventional ventures concurrently will present at different levels as related to each venture.

Hypothesis 5: A composite of independent variables based on the antecedents of entrepreneurial disposition will correctly classify both social and conventional entrepreneurs to similar levels.

Objectives and Aims

Overall Objective

As previously stated, the overall objective of this work is to develop a deeper understanding of the congruence between social and conventional entrepreneurs. It is the belief of the author that this will lead to a more accurate and realistic framework from which to view the phenomena of the entrepreneur through inclusion of those that gestate social ventures.

Specific Aims

The examination of quantitative data from the 2009 survey initiative presented by the GEM Consortium will lead to three main goals that underpin the previously stated overall objective. All three, if accomplished, would provide evidence of the congruence (or lack thereof) between the two types of defined entrepreneur drawn from the literature.

The first goal is to empirically establish the distributed nature of desired organizational outcomes on behalf of the entrepreneur when in the nascent stage of venture launch. The displaying of an affinity to not only a social or financial objective, but rather to a mix, would support an argument for the complexity of the entrepreneur's motivations, further defying arbitrary categorization. Secondarily the study of those with intentions to start both, and the requisite goal splits associated to each, will provide an important piece of information. If, at a given point in time, the entrepreneur is starting both a conventional and social venture, and their goal splits for each is different and distinct, is the goal split tied to an organization not more a function of the organization than the individual working toward launching it?

The second goal of this work is to examine the rates of entrepreneurial emergence of individuals working toward launching either a social or conventional over time. If

congruent trends are found, they may point to a congruence of the defined two types of individuals as they encounter various life events. More specifically, a mirrored rise or fall of rates of emergent entrepreneurs over time may provide evidence of similarities in the way the individual approaches the prospect of launch, irrespective of launch type.

The third goal is to determine to what level of similarity the antecedents of entrepreneurial emergence drawn from the conventional literature can predict the emergence of both conventional and social entrepreneurs. A similar level of prediction would provide evidence of congruent personal traits, pointing to overall congruence.

Background and Significance

In order to better understand the entrepreneur, we must bound the field of study through definition and support many of the important concepts from the seminal literature.

Who is an Entrepreneur?

As previously mentioned, the definition of an entrepreneur in the academic literature is inconsistent. It has recently been found that in a sample of forty-four scholarly articles sampled at random on the topic of entrepreneurialism, none of them provided an explicit technical definition of the topic (Mars & Rios-Aguilar, 2010). For the purposes of this study, the *nascent state* of the entrepreneur will be used to encompass the wide range of entrepreneurial activities that are possible in various societal contexts. More specifically, the nascent state is defined as an individual who is actively working toward the launch of a venture, and will be used as the primary indicator of forthcoming organizational launch.

On a macro level, entrepreneurship can be described as innovative asset and strategy mobilization to create or sustain economic or social value (Mars & Rios-Aguilar, 2010). The entrepreneur sees a need, be it social or economic in nature, and seeks to solve it as motivated by their personal disposition mix. In the context of this work, the theoretical constructs that underpin entrepreneurial behavior will be examined in order to provide background information as to the drivers of the individual who becomes an entrepreneur. The theory, placed in context, could readily be applied to both those labeled as conventional and social entrepreneurs if they emerge similarly. While the field of entrepreneurship can be challenging to define, especially in the scope of its actors in the nonprofit sector, the majority of the literature identifies the entrepreneur by a certain mix of characteristics. It is these characteristics that can separate them from the general population in their ability to

launch ventures, be they conventional, social, or civic in nature. Most importantly, the entrepreneur can identify, and is willing to act upon, opportunity (Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2004). The entrepreneur has the ability to see a need in the market or social realm, and the motivation to pursue and provide the solution to that need through an innovative combination of inputs.

The Entrepreneur from the Nonprofit Literature

The nonoprofit literature tends to view the social entrepreneur as having more similar characteristics as their conventional counterparts (Child, Witesman, & Braudt, 2014; Dart, 2004; Handy, Bhagyashree, & Meenaz, 2007). This tends to be based on an assumption of congruence rather than the opposite perspective found in much of the conventional literature. This difference in perspective provides for an interesting schism, leading much of the nonprofit literature on the topic to seek out differences in the dynamics involved between the two defined types of individuals (Handy et al., 2007; Dart, 2004), while much of the conventional literature assumes incongruence and fails to address the topic.

Interesting concepts come to light when viewing the entrepreneurial process and the decisions made regarding which type of venture to launch. Child et al. (2014) provides a look into the choice of the housing institution of 55 fair trade entrepreneurs. The study found four major criteria at play when the decision to incorporate as either a nonprofit or for-profit was made. These were; weighing the costs and benefits, the institution as an expression of personal values, envoropnmental embeddedness, and personal history (Child et al., 2014). The work highlights the ability of an individual to make the *institutional choice* based on criteria of appropriateness of fit, rather than choosing based on durable disposition.

Hybrid organizations are also addressed in the scope of the nonprofit management literature. The most prevalent of these is the *social enterprise*, or organization that leverages business mechanisms to pursue both social and economic goals (Dart, 2004). These hybrids point to the nature of the distributed goal split of the entrepreneurs who launch them, providing a housing agent for those with impure goal motivation. The existence of social enterprises are discussed in the context of the findings of this study in the discussion section of this work.

A link between the success of nascent entrepreneurs and previous nonprofit work experience was recently found by Hopp (2015). The study found that nonprofit experience was a statistically significant predictor in the success emergence of conventional entrepreneurial ventures, generally more so than labor market experience (Hopp, 2015). These results may indicate a link between the experience of an individual in the frequently resource-poor environment of nonprofits and the similar environment inherent in business start-up.

The Entrepreneur as Problem Solver

An important perspective from which to view the entrepreneur is that of the previously mentioned *problem solver* or *opportunity seeker*. The entrepreneur is conceptualized in many ways in the current literature. Most common is defining them by what they have done, rather than who they are (Gartner, 1988). The behavioral antecedent literature on the topic points to the entrepreneur as having durable constructs that are independent from any current venture. This can be conceptualized as leading to a personality type that gravitates toward the innovative solving of problems. The individual approaches what most would view as obstacles to an optimal state with a type of determined optimism. The commonly

defined conventional entrepreneur will identify and seek to solve problems to a financial end, while the social entrepreneur will perform the same operation in pursuit of a more distributed goal set. Academia commonly separates these two types of individuals based on the manifestation of their current ventures for many reasons despite this commonality shared by all entrepreneurs. This frequently manifests not as an overt definition of independence, but rather as an underlying assumption of separateness that excludes the possibility of congruence despite some evidence to the contrary. The possible reasons for this schism will be addressed at a further point in this work, however the commonalities between the social and conventional entrepreneur can convincingly be conceptualized when exploring the congruity between the notions of *problem* and *opportunity*. Much of the literature addressing the conventional entrepreneur's predisposition positions them as one who recognizes and seeks opportunity (Shane & Venkartarman, 2000; Ardichvili, et al, 2003). Those defined as conventional entrepreneurs have the ability to identify as an opportunity what most would recognize as a problem, or not notice at all. Conversely conceptualized, yet similarly performed, do those defined as a social entrepreneur not perform the same function, although in a different context? When viewed through the lens of this congruity of definition, the similarity of the entrepreneur can be framed despite the arbitrary difference between the dynamics of a *problem* and an *opportunity* (Dees, 2001; Drucker, 1989).

Stages and Events of the Entrepreneurial Process

The important and definable stages of the entrepreneurial experience are subject to as much, if not more, debate than the definition of the entrepreneur themselves. For the purposes of this work, broad and inclusive definitions will be employed of both the theoretical and practical periods present in the entrepreneurial process. It has been argued

by Gartner (1988) that for the purposes of simplicity and agreement on the scope of entrepreneurial study, only those who have launched an organization and continue to control its growth should be considered an entrepreneur. This perspective is useful in its bounding effect on the field, and is congruent with what Mair and Marti (2006) would consider the study of *entrepreneurship,* or the positioning of the entrepreneur as a component of the proces of venture creation. Of additional note are stages of the development of the entrepreneurial disposition when considering the broader perspective of the study of the *entrepreneur,* as well as the events and requisite stages present when considering the the impact on the process by the structured events associated with venture launch. It is important to note that this work does not intend to imply that the entrepreneur involved in the process exists in any sole way as tied to the procedural progress. It could be argued that the entrepreneur's disposition is durable, and that the individual continues to seek additional opportunity outside of their current endeavor. Additionally, an individual in the operational stage of one venture could very well be in the nascent stage of another. This process could be running in parallel many times over at separate or similar stages for additional ventures, although the process is seen to be generally linear as the entrepreneur pursues any one opportunity.

Intention and disposition development. Many of the widely accepted theoretical frameworks developed to model the emergence of the entrepreneur build upon the notion that the individual's development fosters in them the propensity to launch organizations (Bandura, 1986; Ajzen, 1987; Ajzen, 1991; Shapero & Sokol, 1982). There is a general lack of consensus on the bounds of this period, however only its theoretical existence is of importance in the context of this work as it bounds the periods of note for this study. For

the purposes of this study, this period will be considered disposition development, or OD. The period will be considered to have terminated when the individual begins to exhibit behaviors that are designed to result in the launch of a venture.

Display of pre-launch behavior. The event that will be considered to begin the nascent state of the entrepreneur will be the beginning of an outwardly observable display of behavior that is designed to result in the launch of a venture. It is at this point that the individual will be considered to be "working toward" organizational launch, rather than simply envisioning themselves as one who would like to launch a venture.

Nascent state. The nascent state entrepreneur is exemplified by the individual displaying behaviors that are designed to lead them to the launch of an organization (Arenius & Minniti, 2005; Katz & Gartner, 1988). This state has been seminally conceptionally bounded by Katz and Gartner to include the pursuit of the four major organizational properties of *intentionality*, *resources*, *boundary*, and *exchange* (1988). The nascent entrepreneur is then defined as the individual who is actively in pursuit of at least one of these organizational benchmarks, with the ultimate goal of pursuing definition of them all. This framework will not be contested within the scope of this work, however employing a strict academic definition when surveying non-academic practitioners on a topic would cause comprehension issues and affect data. Due to this dynamic, the nascent entrepreneur will be defined for the purposes of this work as an individual who would self-identify as currently working toward the launch of an organization, regardless of the lack of precision of definition. This period of the entrepreneurial process begins when the individual exhibits behavior that is intended to result in the launch of an organization, and terminates upon the venture launch.

Venture Launch. This event will be defined as the combination of the legal and operational beginnings of the company. The organization performs its first external-facing task that satisfies its mission. In the case of most conventional ventures, this event would be a sale of goods or services. In the case of social ventures, this definition can be more complex. A social venture employing an entirely fee-for-service/goods model will also be defined as launching through the combination of legal presence and operational beginnings, while an organization employing a model that allows it to accomplish its mission through means other than fee-for-service/goods

Operating state. The operating stage of the entrepreneurial process is easier to define due to the legal processes of venture launch and closure. When legal operations begin, the stage begins, when legal operations end or the entrepreneur demits from involvement, the stage ends. The termination of the stage can be defined broadly as either the legal terminus of the company, or from the perspective of the entrepreneur, when they halt involvement by selling or abandoning controlling interest and terminating involvement. The division of the period between these two benchmarks is a topic of discussion by entrepreneurial scholars. The *early stage* of business operations is frequently characterized by involving more entrepreneurial activity, while *late stage* operations are frequently seen as involving less innovative and therefore less entrepreneurial activity. This work will not make a distinction between the two academically contested divisions, but will simply focus on the event that begins the operating state.

Termination of involvement. At some point, the entrepreneur terminates involvement in the operations of the organization. This can happen in many ways, including a sell-off of controlling interest in the case of a conventional venture, or a requisite passing of control in

the case of a social one. For the purposes of this work, this event will be broadly defined to include the moment when the entrepreneur no longer controls the venture.

The Nascent State as an Indicator

Gartner's (1988) work presented compelling arguments for limiting the definition of the entrepreneur in an effort to bring scholarly focus to the field. His conceptualization of the entrepreneur as simply a participant in the event of venture creation certainly has important consequences for the field, although it causes dissonance in some cases (Gartner, 1988). The most important incongruity for this work relates to how the focusing of the field to the study of the organization as the "primary level of analysis" pulls needed effort away from the type of study that is most important to the fostering of the entrepreneur. Namely, work that results in improvements to their education and support. By bounding the primary focus of the field to those who have started an organization, we turn our attention away from those who *will* start a venture, or *would* given the appropriate external environment. It is not the *operating* entrepreneur who would benefit the most from education and incubational support, but rather the *nascent* entrepreneur. The nascent entrepreneur is of particular interest for study because they are the nexus of the internal antecedents presented in trait theory, and the external forces that will ultimately influence the individual to launch or not. Their study is the missing link between the popularly cited theoretical conceptualizations of the entrepreneur as a unique individual, and the observed behavior of the practicing entrepreneur.

The nascent entrepreneur is of particular interest for this study because they are the individual who displays the propensity to launch a venture as built upon such theoretical frameworks as Bandura's Social Cognitive Career Theory, Ajzen's Theory of Planned

Behavior, and Shapero's Theory of the Entrepreneurial Event, and yet haven't been presented with the external roadblocks that would impede their movement toward launch. It is this nascent state that will be used as the benchmark for this study of entrepreneurial emergence because it includes all those individuals exhibiting behavior that moves them toward venture launch, while removing the external effects of context that could keep launch from occurring independent from the entrepreneur, the person.

Current Classification Method

One of the driving reasons for this work is to attempt to move the field of entrepreneurial study toward a more comprehensive and inclusive definition of what it means to be an entrepreneur if compelling evidence of congruence can be found. This being said, a new definition cannot be considered without a deep look at the historical definitions of the social and conventional entrepreneur. The scholarly community remains divided on both terms, however most scholars can agree upon a broad conceptualization of each, based on the manifestation of their current, planned, or recent ventures (Dees et al., 2001; Shane & Venkartarman, 2000; Archidivili et al., 2003; Mars & Rios-Aguilar, 2010). This is problematic in that the majority of generally accepted frameworks used to model entrepreneurial emergence focus on the individual and the opportunity, rather than the legal or corporate manifestation of their current venture. This may very well be one of the sources of variety of definition, in that focusing on this one indicator may provide a simple but confounding method of categorizing the individual. This being said, most entrepreneurial scholars agree that any entrepreneur leverages a unique mix of inputs to provide a solution to a preceived problem, resulting in an organized venture of some type.

This broad definition will be employed in an effort to bound the scope of entrepreneurial activity and yet remain inclusive of most academic arguments on the topic.

The conventional entrepreneur has historically been characterized in the Shumpeterian tradition as an individual who uses their abilities to pursue a bottom line, or 'earn out innovation" (Shumpeter, 1939). To them, the problem is a lack of wealth accumulation, solved by the pursuit of profit. For the purposes of this work, this definition will be employed as it is the basis for the way the entrepreneur is trained and incubated. They are characterized by seeking out and acting upon opportunities to *earn*.

The social entrepreneur has also been historically defined by the manifestation of their current or intended venture. The popular conceptualization of the breed characterizes them by their pursuit of solutions to what they perceive as societal shortcomings through the creative leveraging of inputs to produce their desired output. More simply, they are characterized by seeking out and acting upon opportunities to *help*.

The theoretical frameworks that model entrepreneurial emergence, namely those of Bandura, Shapero, and Ajzen, do not preclude any individual based on the manifestation of their current venture, rather they focus on the individual's entrepreneurial propensity as a durable construct. This perspective is useful because it draws focus away from what may be arbitrary and short-lived differences between the two types of entrepreneur.

Classically Defined Types of Entrepreneur

The strict definition of what it means to be an entrepreneur has classically maintained that their domain has been constricted to the seeking of profit. The scope of the definition has broadened in recent years in much of the literature to include other fields of human endeavor. It has been argued that individuals who display the benchmarks and behaviors of

the entrepreneur in pursuit of goals other than financial are indeed entrepreneurs as well (Dees, Emerson, & Economy, 2001). The arguments for this become compelling when examining the congruence between those that pursue financial gain, as motivated by a profit motive, and those that pursue social change as driven by a social justice motivation (Dees et al., 2001). These are referred to as conventional and social entrepreneurs respectively. While it is precisely the classical definitions of both types of defined individuals that this work hopes to address, it is important to bound the discussion by defining each type of individual as how they are currently conceptualized in much of the literature. It is important to note that assumptions are made when applying these classifications, chief among these is the durability of the labels and the high relative importance of the division when viewed in the grand context of the similarities between the two individuals.

Conventional Entrepreneurs. The most oft studied and best-understood type of classically defined entrepreneur is the conventional entrepreneur, or those that leverage their entrepreneurial predisposition to pursue profit. The conventional entrepreneur manipulates a unique selection of inputs to gestate a venture aimed at producing financial gain (Schumpeter, 1939). There are many ways that this genus of entrepreneur can develop a unique mix, whether it be through the development of a unique product, cheaper manufacturing process, novel marketing strategy, or a variety of other innovations (Schumpeter, 1939). Conventional entrepreneurs are actors in a market economy, filling the needs of consumers in ways that are either new and novel, compete on price, fill the needs of a new market, or market to the consumer in a unique way, among other determinants. Pure conventional entrepreneurs enjoy a simplicity of focus in their efforts (Moss, Lumpkin, & Short, 2008). When seeking the singular goal of financial value creation, these

individuals generally need only serve those stakeholders related to the one goal of an augmented bottom line. This bottom line can be seen to them as leading to increased personal freedom, peer recognition, and a variety of other desirable outcomes. As previously mentioned, the definition of what it means to be a conventional entrepreneur has been convincingly constrained (although perhaps arbitrarily) to those who have launched an organization in pursuit of profit (Gartner, 1988).

Social Entrepreneurs. The field of the study of social entrepreneurs is far newer than that of their profit-seeking counterparts, and implies a different set of organizational goals. Combining inputs in a new and innovative way, the defined social entrepreneur is motivated by social justice rather than profit, and leverages their entrepreneurial talents to solve social issues as viewed through the lens of their own value structure (Dees et al., 2001). Alvord, Brown, and Letts put it most succinctly when referring to the defined social entrepreneur, "…[the social entrepreneur] creates innovative solutions to immediate social problems and mobilizes the ideas, capacities, resources, and social arrangements for sustainable social transformations" (2004, p. 262).

Given the complicated nature of the comparison between the pure and simple bottom line-seeking nature of the conventional entrepreneur, and the more complex social goals of the social entrepreneur, the possible congruence of the antecedent levels between these two types of individual is frequently overlooked. It can be argued that the individual pursuing the launch of a social venture maintains a similar mix of entrepreneurial self-efficacy, intent, goal disposition, and outcome expectations as their for-profit brethren, they simply operate with different motivations and seek different results from the venture. Social entrepreneurs seek remedies for a variety of what they see as social ills, from the feeding and clothing of

the homeless, to providing literacy training in third world countries, to providing funding vehicles to help individuals help themselves. The desired end results can vary significantly, however the social entrepreneur can be conceptualized as the same type of actor as the classically understood one, although generally serving a more dispersed bottom line (Moss et al., 2008). This concept refers to the many goals of the social venture beyond the singular profit motive inherent in the pure conventional entrepreneur. Social entrepreneurs must not only pursue financial gains in order to fund operations, but they must contextualize and subsume these gains within the larger mission of the organization. By definition, this mission places social impact above all others, adding complexity to nearly all facets of the experience of the social entrepreneur as compared to her conventional counterpart. The social entrepreneur generally manifests their venture in the legal form of a nonprofit entity, although the legal frameworks available to them can centainly differ depending upon the country in which they are operating. These entities are characterized by an increased complexity of operations not usually observed in for-profit ventures. This complexity is addressed by Salamon:

> "From the earliest of times, nonprofits have been what sociologists refer to as "dual identity," or even "conflicting multiple identity," organizations. They are not-for-profit organizations required to operate in a profit oriented economy. They draw heavily on voluntary contributions of time and money, yet are expected to meet professional standards of performance and efficiency." (Salamon, 2012).

The social entrepreneur must navigate not only the issues familiar to their conventional counterpart, but also the myriad of additional challenges brought on by the nature of the manifestation of their venture.

The Social Enterprise Hybrid Business/Nonprofit Model

The emergence of the social entrepreneur has also spawned a growth in the amount of ventures that allow the socially conscious entrepreneur to accomplish a mix of social and economic goals. The *social enterprise*, while lacking an entirely converged-upon definition, is considered in much of the literature to be a venture that applies business fundamentals to pursue both financial and social goals (Dart, 2004; Nyssens, 2006). The concept of the social enterprise is important in the context of this work due to its natural ability to house the entrepreneur who presents a distributed goal split. The overall existence and recent prevalence of this hybrid model points to an evolution that has perhaps adapted to house the individual presenting distributed intentions.

Exploration of Differences Between Defined Social and Conventional Entrepreneurs

Handy et al. (2007) tangentially addresses the congruence of the defined individuals through an inspection of women entrepreneurs in India, a country where downward cultural pressures play a large role in the emergence of female-founded organizations. The work focused on the differences between the founders of for-profit and nonprofit organizations. Interesting differences were indeed found, although non-statistically significant results also highlighted similarities between the two defined types of individuals. The study surveyed 40 women from the region of Pune in the state of Maharashtra, India. Twenty one for-profit and nineteen nonprofit founders were surveyed to examine the groups for demographic, environmental, educational, motivational, status related, and experience related differences and similarities.

Demographic differences emerged, such as age (nonprofit founders were over 10 years younger), and class (defined for-profit entrepreneurs were nearly entirely upper-class, while only 7/19 defined social entrepreneurs were).

Previous experience also showed significant differences between the two groups. Nonprofit entrepreneurs, while having a smaller sample, presented with more than three times the amount indicating prior business experience (17), and volunteer experience (19). The differences between the two groups, while important, are likely largely based on the culture in India, a country with a persistently strict caste system and generally low relative opportunities for women.

The goal dispositions for both groups showed significant differences, with for-profit founders and nonprofit founders indicating at eleven and three respectively as intending to make money, and zero and nineteen respectively intending to serve others. Interestingly, sixteen of the twenty one for-profit entrepreneurs indicated encouragement from family and/or friends, while no nonprofit entrepreneurs indicated the presence of that dynamic. This may be a result of the difference in class structure of the two groups, and the emerging gender equality that is becoming far more prevalent in the upper casts in India. Some evidence to this schism may be presented through the indication by nearly all nonprofit founders from the study that "feminist beliefs were held" (Handy et al., 2007). This may be a byproduct of a culture that represses female initiative in the lower casts, while those that enjoy higher status are a product of a more welcoming environment to their efforts.

The similarities between the two were also interesting, although the study was not structured to allow for comparison against the non-entrepreneurial general population. Both groups showed high levels of support and professional modeling, either from spouses,

parents, or both. Additionally, both groups showed similar respondent levels to such motivations as seeking professional or financial independence, to enhance personal reputation or status, and "to try something new." Additionally, both groups indicated much higher levels of endurance, self-confidence, interpersonal skills, and persistence than are found in the general population (Handy et al., 2007; Terjesen et al., 2012).

The work found important differences between the founders of the two types of organizations, but the differences may have been due to the status and economic differences of the groups, rather than the type of organization chosen for launch. Additionally, the cultural view of female organizational initiative in India may limit generalizability as compared to less constrictive cultural environments.

Probable Sources of Disparate Classification

As conventional entrepreneurs are the engines of economic activity, as are their social counterparts the conduit for a better society as a whole. The academic framing of social and conventional entrepreneurs remains generally separate, as are the education and mentorship programs that are offered to each. Conventional entrepreneurs benefit from a variety of incubation and educational support methods grounded in business theory, while their social good-seeking counterparts are trained and assisted based on the charitable goals of their intended organization rather than their emergent needs.

The academic silo. Underpinning this perhaps arbitrary division is a deeply rooted academic culture that views an incongruity between the innovative problem solving nature that all entrepreneurs share, and the charitable disposition inherent in the social entrepreneur (Dees, 2001). The assumptions underpinning this dynamic may be drawn from the specialized nature of academia, more specifically the propensity for those in a field of study

to focus on the dynamics of a phenomenon that fall into their academic purview. This is problematic in the case of the study of entrepreneurial emergence because, while the phenomenon was first noticed and studied in the profit-seeking realm, arguments can be made that the social entrepreneur also fits the profile as defined by predominant theoretical models that predict entrepreneurial emergence. The generally accepted scholarly definition of the entrepreneur provides for a sub-group of those that launch social ventures, but the similarities between the two remain vague enough that the SE is frequently classified as an oddity, due to their lack of pure profit affinity. Perhaps this is drawn from the academic pedigree of conventional entrepreneurial scholars, as their backgrounds generally assume profit disposition as the primary manifestation of self-interest (Andreoni, 2006).

Assumption of financial self-interest. Financial self-interest is almost certainly not the only motivation for venture launch, as many drivers of personal behavior draw from a type of self-interest that is not easily economically quantfiable (Andreoni, 2006). Andreoni (2006) convincingly argues that the giving of one's time or financial assets to produce outcomes not entirely related to financial gain does indeed rationally serve the individual in several instances. Among the specific examples cited are the propensity for individuals to give because they feel they will benefit from the gift in the future, or because they simply benefit from a "warm glow" when they give time, money, or assets (Andreoni, 2006). The self-interest motivation of those that seek outcomes other than the purely financial may also be drawn from resulting community stature enjoyed by the individual. Given that financial gain is not the sole motivator of self-interested behavior, it logically follows that the SE can pursue self-interest, as provided for in the conventional entrepreneurial literature, without displaying goals based entirely on the earning of profit.

Purity of goals. The arbitrarily classification of the social and conventional entrepreneur also presupposes the purity of the goals of each, by assuming that the manifestation of the entrepreneur's current venture identifies the individual as either one or the other. The founders of for-profit ventures such as Grameen Bank and Tom's Shoes can be agrued to have a predominantly social motivation, while the manifestation of their ventures would classify them as conventional entrepreneurs. These types of ventures, defined as social enterprise, present an interesting hybrid that allows the entrepreneur to leverage business fundamentals in pursuit of both social and economic goals (Dart, 2004). More likely than a pure motivation on behalf of the entrepreneur for either financial gain or social good is a split desire that presents on a continuum. This split goal motivation, if empirically established, would also be strong evidence of the arbitrary classification system that dominates scholarly thought, and percolates down to the separate and not equal levels of support and education offered to the the two types of classically defined entrepreneur. An additional assumption of the current classification system is that the propensity of an individual to launch one or the other type of venture is static and durable. When defining an individual as one or the other, do we not preclude the possibility that the entrepreneur should not be categorized in a mutually exclusive manner? Most entrepreneurial scholars contend that the definition of the entrepreneur encompases all who perform the actions defined by the field, independent from any organizational goals (Dees et al., 2001; Shane & Venkartarman, 2000; Archidivili et al., 2003; Mars & Rios-Aguilar, 2010). If evidence of the propensity of the entrepreneur to launch both types of ventures is found, either around the same time or alternating over a temporal period, it may provide more support for a unified definition of the person, rather than an arbitrary categorization.

Classification through behavior. The arbitrary classification may also be due to how what it means to be an entrepreneur is academically bounded. In an effort to develop a more precise, yet comprehensive definition of the entrepreneur, Gartner (1988) encouraged the field of study to move away from viewing the entrepreneur as an individual who consisted of a specific composite of traits, rather focusing on the act of venture creation as the defining benchmark. This framework is useful in that it focuses the field, bringing it toward a more unifying definition of what it means to be an entrepreneur, yet it creates several issues related to the categorization of the individual.

Perhaps arbitrarily, Gartner's definitional methodology has been further adapted to force an eventual categorization of individuals into further groups based on the type of venture they have produced. This posits the social and conventional entrepreneur as separate individuals based on the type of venture they have created, without taking into account the split goal split at the time of launch, changes in goal split over time, the opportunity profile available to them at time of launch, and the lack of perfect fit that legal manifestations of ventures have with the motivations of the entrepreneurial founder. It also presupposes that the label of the individual should be tied not to the individual themselves, but rather to the organization they have (or will) launch. While this was most likely not the original intention of the definitional scheme, the manifestation of it causes an artificial categorization that affects the treatment of the social and conventional entrepreneur as they are educated and incubated. Defining the entrepreneur as only such if they have launched a company forces the academic framing of the individual to focus on the manifestation of the venture, rather than on the person involved in the effort.

Considering Drucker's convincing arguments that both defined types of entrepreneurs need similar types of training (1989), it follows that the arbitrary classification that leads to disparate treatment may cause fundamental issues while simply seeking to bound the field of study.

Theoretical Antecedents of Entrepreneurial Predisposition

Much has been studied about the ways in which entrepreneurs differ from the general population. Colloquially they are seen as industrious, creative, and enigmatic in that they are frequently capable of solving social or economic issues in ways that others struggle to explain. When viewed broadly, both types of entrepreneurs create value by recognizing opportunity, a skill underpinned by a series of complicated constructs. There are many oft-cited theoretical bases for explaining and predicting entrepreneurial behavior. Among the most widely accepted are *Social Cognitive Career Theory*, developed primarily from Bandura's (1982, 1986, 2001) general Social Cognitive Theory, the *Theory of Planned Behavior*, drawn from Ajzen (1987, 1991), and Shapero's *Model of the Entrepreneurial Event* (1982). While many more recent theories have built upon these three frameworks, their simplicity and subsequent validation have established them as influential in the academic pursuit of knowledge, and effective as tools upon which to base practical policy.

The most important role that all three will play in this work is their ability to model the emergence of the nascent state entrepreneur, or the purposeful psychological construct that spurs the individual toward the initiation of an enterprise characterized by their ability to earn out their innovation (Gartner, 1985; Schumpeter, 1939). Each draw on a subtly different set of antecedent factors to model the emergence of the nascent entrepreneurial,

and their commonalities are suggestive of a multi-disciplinary convergence of theory that is encouraging to scholars in the study of nascent entrepreneurship.

Social cognitive career theory. The first of the salient theory schools is that of Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Bandura, 1986). SCCT grew out of the discipline of psychology as an effort to explain both the antecedents of the intention to perform a certain action and the causality link to the action itself (Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G., 1994). Specific to the study of entrepreneurial intentions, the three psychosocial constructs of *self-efficacy*, *goal disposition*, and *outcome expectations* have been used to model the psychological processes present in the development of the intent to operate as an entrepreneur. Implicit in this theory is the concept of triadic reciprocal causation, or a latent interaction between the three constructs of note. More specifically, self-efficacy, goal disposition, and outcome expectations are dynamically interacting on each other as an individual matures to a stable post-adolescent, and pursues vocational options (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Self efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to the belief of the subject that they have the abilities to perform a certain task in a specific context (Wood & Bandura, 1989). This antecedent of not only entrepreneurial emergence, but also of many other types of human endeavor, differentiates those who succeed in a given task from those who have access to similar resources, but are unsucessful. This antecedent can be more colloquially referred to as *contextual confidence*. Self efficacy is posited as a durable human construct, but one that can be swayed by external stimuli, particularly in the formative years of development (Wood & Bandura, 1989). To better understand the antecedent of self-efficacy in the context of entrepreneurial emergence, it is useful to explore it's source. Wood and Bandura

(1989) posit four sources of self efficacy beliefs, *mastery experiences*, *modeling*, *social persuasion*, and *physiological states*. Mastery experiences are successes in a particular context that strengthen the self belief in capability, or the ability to persevere in a pursuit despite difficulties. To gain what Wood & Bandura (1989) call a "resillient sense of efficacy", the individual must experience overcoming obstacles through perserverant effort. It is after these successes over true obstacles are realized that the individual gains a realistic contextual confidence. The second source of self efficacy posited by Wood and Bandura (1989) is modeling, or the observation of successful strategies to overcome obstacles displayed by others. This source also bolsters self efficacy by comparative success observation, or the growth of the belief in one's own success by the observation of the success of others. Social persuasion is also posited by Wood and Bandura to underpin the antecedent of self-efficacy. This can most appropriately be seen as *realistic encouragement,* or encouragement of the individual through appropriate emotional support that allow them to persevere through self-doubt. The final source of self efficacy as posited by Wood and Bandura (1989) is physiological states, or emotional mastery. Individuals view their inability to maintain emotional mastery as a blow to their ability to perform in a given context. Lowering stress levels and enhancing physical status is believed by Wood and Bandura (1989) to enhance self efficacy.

Goal orientation. Goal orientation is the propensity for an individual to believe in long-term objectives despite setbacks, and pursue those goals. Wood and Bandura further elaborate on SCCT theory through the positing of goals as a method for the individual to pursue self satisfaction. Heavily tied to self efficacy, goals are a product of personal

standards for achievement, and their pursuit is a human mechanism for bringing personal behavior in line with these personal standards.

Outcome expectations. Outcome expectations refer to the belief by the subject that if they perform a certain action, a certain result will occur (Lent, et al., 1994). This antecedent is also heavily tied to self efficacy, however presents differently in different contextual situations. More specifically, outcome expectations are more relevant to context than overall self-efficacy can be (Bandura, 1989).

Theory of Planned Behavior. The second theory that will inform this work will be that of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB). The theory was developed by Ajzen (1987) to explain the emergence of intentions based on attitudinal antecedents. The theory has evolved into a robust and valid form that has experienced wide practical use in the prediction of intended actions (Krueger, Reilly, & Carlsrud, 2000). Inherent in the theoretical structure are three antecedents grouped into two major constructs.

The first two antecedents reflect the individual's perceived desirability of performing a specific behavior. The first sub-construct, *attitude toward performing behavior*, addresses the perceptions of the individual with respect to the emergent intended behavior. Validity of this construct is based on the "expectations and beliefs about personal impacts of outcomes resulting from the behavior" (Krueger, et al., 2000). The second theoretical antecedent grouped by perceived desirability of behavior is *perceived social norms*, or the perception of what those with heavy social influence in the life of the subject will think of the intention in question (Krueger, et al., 2000). In a decision-making context, the opinions of those who exert influence are theorized to be an important driving factor toward intentions. The final antecedent included in this manifestation of the TPB model is a composite of perceived

behavioral control and perceived self-efficacy (Krueger, et al., 2000; Bandura, 1986). This antecedent is a commonality with Bandura's SCCT framework (1986), and refers to the belief of the person in question that they can accomplish the intended action (Krueger, et al., 2000; Bandura, 1986). This final antecedent is influenced heavily by activities such as hands-on experience, vicarious learning, and physiological/emotional arousal (Krueger, et al., 2000; Bandura, 1986). The composite of all three antecedents is a widely used tool in the prediction of entrepreneurial intentions.

Model of the Entrepreneurial Event. The third theory that has been used to explain the emergence of Entrepreneurial Intentions (EI) is based on the work of Shapero, and called the Model of the Entrepreneurial Event (1982). The model, referred to as SEE, is designed to be singly contextually relevant, and positions the emergence of EI as driven by forces both external and internal to the subject. Additionally implicit in this model is the existence of a disruptive event that changes the psychosocial relationship between the individual and their environment (Krueger, et al., 2000). This displacing event changes the perceived field of opportunity available to the subject, and leads the individual to weigh the merits of alternatives and determine intentions. The choice of the individual is driven by the antecedents of the *credibility of the option relative to other intended choices*, and *the propensity to act of the subject* (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). Driving the relative beliefs of the credibility of an intended behavior are the perceived *desirability* (culturally driven) and *feasibility* (driven by self-efficacy) of it as an option (Kreuger, et al., 2000). The theory also further holds that the composite of credibility of the intended behavioral option must develop over time and exist before the disruptive event, while the propensity to act must exist temporally between the event and the emergence of the intended behavior (Krueger, et

al., 2000). The prominence of the event as a driver for the development of intended behavior is of primary importance in this conceptualization. It differentiates SEE from the previous two frameworks in that it provides for the importance of context at the moment of the conception of intentions. Implicit in SEE is the notion of the impermanence of the individual's view of the field of opportunities, meaning that what they would tend to act upon can change over time, given disruptive events.

Entrepreneurial Intentionality

All three of the preceeding models posit the entrepreneur as imbued with durable constructs that predispose them to displaying the outwardly observable manifestation that defines them through Gartner's view, the launching of a venture (Gartner, 1985). This action, while an important indicator in identifying the entrepreneur, is of little use in defining the breed in situations where the event has not yet happened or is unobservable. Certainly the individual who succeeds in launching a venture can be considered an entrepreneur. Their actions provide clear evidence that include them in the definable ranks. Independent from those who have completed the action of venture creation, of particular importance for study are those with unrealized intentions to perform such an action (Krueger, et al., 2000). The literature is inconsistent on the precise reasoning for indiviuals to begin a venture, however some agreement has been formed around the presence of a disruptive event that increases the perceived viability of venture launch (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). The Theory of the Entrepreneurial Event highlights the presence of those with the predisposition to launch, but who dwell in the period before the event has caused action that leads to the nascent state. The individual who maintains entrepreneurial intentions but has yet to perform actions that will result in a venture is important to identify in that they are

likely the ones that would most benefit from educational and incubational opportunities. Kreuger et al. (2000) argue convincingly that intentions to start a venture are the single most important predictor of this planned behavior. They base their argument, in large part, on the work of Bagozzi, Baumgartner & Youjae (1989). Bagozzi et al. (1989) found that intentions mediated all of the impact of attitudes on actions. This positions intentions as an interesting and durable culmination of experiences, a stopping point, when viewing them in the context of entrepreneurial actions. For those who have not been presented externally with the opportunity to start a venture, or conversely with obstacles which have prevented launch, intentions to do so would beg for their inclusion into the defined ranks of the entrepreneur (Krueger et al., 2000). While intentions provide an important view into the future behaviors of the individual, they are not as accurate of an indicator of the generation of a defined event as behavior on behalf of the individual that works toward such an event. In the context of venture launch, this work acknowleges the development of entrepreneurial intentions as important in the development of the entrepreneur, however positions the nascent state as a far more accurate predictor.

Theory Informing Congruence

All three of the included theoretical frameworks employ interestingly similar antecedents. The construct of self-efficacy, pioneered by Bandura (1986), is included in all three models (personal behavioral control from TBP, and personal feasibility from SEE). The effect of cultural conditioning on the intention building process in also present as manifested by its effect on outcome expectations (SCCT), perceived social norms (TPB), desirability, and the event (SEE). As previously mentioned, the congruence between these

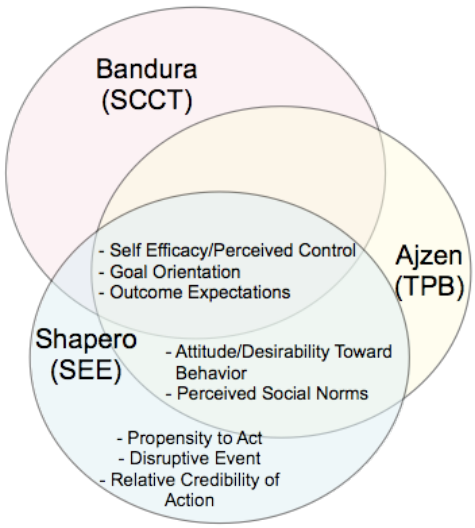
three models is encouraging, and gives the researcher a reasonable understanding of the antecedents present in this adolescent field.

It is important to note that none of these theoretical frameworks include any inherent profit-seeking motive on behalf of the intended entrepreneur. All three theories were developed to explain the emergence of the conventional entrepreneur and have been widely validated in much of the literature, while the intended manifestation of the venture of the individual has emerged as the method of their classification.

The Models as a Composite

All three models point to a largely consistent group of antecedents that underpin the emergence of the entrepreneur. Through Bandura and Ajzen, the model builds on psychological and attitudinal antecedents, while the addition of Shapero brings in the importance of the external environment as a criteria for the emergence of the entrepreneur. This work focuses on the importance of the development of the psychological and attitudinal constructs which drive entrepreneurial emergence, while giving deference to the importance of environmental factors necessary for an individual to move from the disposition state to the launch of an organization.

Figure 1
The Antecedent Composite



Research Design and Methods

Overview

The design and methods for this work are intended to be an initial step into a deeper analysis of the congruence (or lack thereof) between social and conventional entrepreneurs. This will be accomplished through four data analysis strategies. The first will explore the dual nature of the individual through the inspection of the goal split of the organization they are working toward launching. Of those that intend to launch both types of organizations, an additional analysis will be held to determine the mean goal splits associated to each type of organization to determine if differences exist. The second strategy will examine the emergence of the entrepreneur over time, and examine trends for congruence. The final strategy will explore the ability for the antecedents drawn from the conventional entrepreneurship literature to predict the existence of the nascent state of both defined conventional and social entrepreneurs. More specifically, to what level of similarity can both types of defined individuals be modeled using an antecedent composite.

Population and Study Sample

This work is based on the data set compiled by the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Consortium, the world's leading research effort dedicated to understanding the relationship between entrepreneurial activity and economic development (Terjesen et al., 2012). GEM is a combined effort between the London Business School and Babson College that has pioneered the massive, longitudinal study of entrepreneurial activity across the world. The effort is unique because it focuses on the individual behaviors and attitudes that drive entrepreneurial activity (http://www.babson.edu/Academics/centers/blank-center/global-research/gem/Pages/home.aspx). GEM was initiated in 1999, employing a survey that has

been in use since 1997. It conducts its survey annually and publishes the findings in the year following data collection. To date, the initiative has compiled survey data from over 80 countries across the globe. The GEM Consortium is comprised of national teams, which are tasked with gathering data in their respective countries, among other duties. An annual meeting is held, generally at the beginning of the year, during which the teams discuss the results from the previous cycle (Terjesen et al., 2012).

The GEM Survey Initiative. Most of the core survey questions have remained the same since 2001 and are designed to uncover cross-country and longitudinal trends. The surveys are conducted between May and August of each year by telephone or face-to-face, and in the participant's native language. In countries where telephone surveys are used, random calls are placed to prospective participants. Face-to-face interviews are also conducted randomly, through methods ranging from a "random walk method", to "cluster sampling." In countries with dense pockets of homogenous populations, every effort was made to geographically disperse the data collection efforts. Each country involved for that year is represented by at least 2,000 respondents (Terjesen et al., 2012). Demographic information such as gender, age, and household conditions are also collected from the respondents. In addition to its core group of survey questions, the initiative adopts an annual special topic of international interest. These have included *Women in Entrepreneurship*, *Entrepreneurship Education and Training*, and *High Growth Entrepreneurship*.

The GEM 2009 Survey. In 2009, the special topic was *Social Entrepreneurship*, making the study unique because the results were harmonized with questions addressing conventional entrepreneurship (Terjesen et al., 2012). The definition of SE can vary based on country and culture, so the GEM Team set off to measure it indirectly. This was done by

asking questions that gauged the respondents' outcome motivations rather than the desired legal manifestation of the venture. Inherent in this approach is a broad conceptualization of social entrepreneurial activity, designed to capture the nascent state of every type of venture oriented at creating social value. The data from this initiative is compelling for the purposes of this study because the survey questions resulting from this broad perspective are congruent with those measuring conventional entrepreneurial intentions. This allows for the congruence between the intended social and conventional entrepreneur to be tested across a variety of cultural and political contexts.

Collection of Data

The data from the GEM set represent responses from over 150,000 individuals in 51 countries, and were collected between May and August of 2009. Each country was represented with a minimum of 2,000 respondents, with the United Kingdom receiving the most with 30,003. The data collection method varied due to each country's unique challenges, but all were conducted through either phone interviews or face-to face in the language native to the respondent. This was accomplished through a two phase translation of the survey by the national team representing the country (Terjesen et al., 2012).

Country Selection. Fifty one countries were selected representing three different economic development stages. The first type, factor driven economies, represents countries in which basic requirements such as infrastructure were critical for further development. The second type, efficiency-driven economies, represents countries which require efficiency enhancements to progress. The final type of economy represented, innovation-driven, represented countries in which conditions related to innovation and entrepreneurship were

crucial for economic performance (Terjesen et al., 2012). Each economy type had a minimum of ten countries represented.

Respondent Selection and Sample. Respondents were interviewed through one of two methods. The first method employed random telephone interviews, while the second entailed random in-person interviews at different times during the day. In both cases, care was taken to ensure the generalizability of the study through careful sampling. The resulting GEM sample is of 185,093 respondents from fifty one countries from around the world. The respondents were 46.8% male, 52.1% female, between the ages of 18 and 64 (Terjesen et al., 2012). In order to perform the analyses for this work, the data were restricted to individuals who answered Q1A1 (the indicator of conventional nascent state), Qi1-Qi8 (the independent variables as drawn from theory), and Q6A1 (the social nascent state indicator). Additionally, those who indicated in question Q6A3 that the two businesses were the same venture, were excluded from consideration as being involved in a conventional startup. The specific questions asked are included in Table 3.

Data Constriction for this Study

For the purposes of this study, it was necessary to constrict the original data set gathered by GEM to those individuals who answered all of the questions necessary to provide the full analysis. To this end, only those who responded to Q1A1 (related to the nascent state of launching a conventional venture), Q6A1 (related to the nascent state of launching a social venture), and Qi1-Qi8 (related to the theoretical antecedents of entrepreneurial emergence) were included. This narrowed the data to 51,344 respondents.

Sub-Sample Descriptive Statistics

The overall GEM sample was limited to include individuals who answered the previously indicated questions, with a resulting n of 51,344. The sample was 56% male, with a mean age of 40.06 years (sd = 13.24 years). The age range was from 16 to 99 years. Fifty one countries were represented in the restricted sample. The largest sample was from Spain, with 18,345 respondents. The smallest was from Russia, with 134. An exhaustive listing of the country sub-populations is included in Table 3, found in Appendix C.

Data Analysis Strategies

Several data analysis strategies were employed to bring about an understanding of the similarities of those defined as a social or conventional entrepreneur. In preparation for this work, initial t-tests were held to determine to what extent those claiming to be in the nascent state of each type of venture differed from each other, as well as from the general population. This method of determining areas of interest for study is commonly, and not uncontroversarily, used (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007; McLean & Ernst, 1998). The goal of this significance testing was not to determine the overall congruence (or lack thereof) of the defined social and conventional entrepreneur, but rather to provide an initial point of reference from which to begin analysis. In keeping with the issues associated with the use of significance testing in the statistical literature, the results were considered in the context of their practical importance regarding the overall study, and led to no conclusions on their own (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2007, McLean & Ernst, 1998).

Conventional vs. social goal split. In a further effort to understand the congruence between the individual who intends to launch a social or conventional venture, the purity of their goal split was examined. Preliminary t tests were held to determine the extent to

which those working toward starting social and conventional ventures differed on the percentage of value they gave to the economic goals of their coming venture. To prepare, individuals who were working toward only one or the other type of venture were inspected. Not surprisingly, the two differed greatly, and the significance test returned a statistically significant result. There were significant differences in scores for nascent conventional ($M = 63.902$, $SD = 24.269$) and nascent social ($M = 34.357$, $SD = 28.016$) entrepreneurs, $t(4998) = 26.874$, $p = .000000$) leading to the conclusion that the individuals launching either social or conventional ventures maintained different goal splits. As mentioned, this result was not surprising, given that the legal manifestation of a venture is designed to maximize the benefit of launch as related to the goals of the founder (Child et al., 2014).

The GEM survey included several questions that asked respondents to weight their split of disposition with regards to starting the new venture. For those who indicated that they intended to start either type of organization, questions were asked as to what extent their goals were economic, social, or environmental. The respondents were asked to allocate 100 points among the three categories to best represent their goals profile split in developing the new venture. Only individuals who responded in the affirmative to questions Q1A1 or Q6A3 were offered this followup question. In keeping with the broad conceptualization of the social entrepreneur, the points indicated for social and environmental goals were aggregated. The percentage of economic goals for those who identified as launching conventional organizations was then grouped into deciles to display the relative amount of individuals in the sample who maintained that goal split. The same analysis was also performed for those working toward launching a social venture, and the deciles were compared. Means were also drawn for economic point values from those who intended to

launch a capital-seeking venture and those who intended to launch a social one. Additional analyses were performed on the group identifying as being in the nascent state of launching both types of organizations (n = 231). The mean economic goal split as attached to the type of venture was examined, and a t-test was performed to indicate group differences.

Classification examination through rates of nascent state by age. The second data analysis strategy included in this study entails a comparison of the self-reported rates of nascent entrepreneurship in both types of ventures as related to age. By examining the emergence of nascent state individuals at different ages at a specific moment in time (May-August of 2009), trendlines could be drawn that approximate the propensity of a single individual to display the same over time. Examining the similarity of the trends provided more information into the congruence between the individuals. To accomplish this, the total rates of self-identified nascent state entrepreneurs starting both social and conventional ventures are were parsed by age and graphed to allow for an inspection of trends of congruence. In preparation for this section of the study, preliminary significance tests were also performed (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007; McLean & Ernst, 1998). The preliminary test proved a significant result for group differences between defined nascent conventional ($M = 36.43$, $SD = 12.441$) and defined nascent social entrepreneurs ($M = 38.20$, $SD = 12.997$), $t(9491) = 5.507$, $p = .004$). This difference, while statistically significant, provided little evidence to a lack of congruence when placed in context. When examined under the grand research question of this work, a mean difference of 1.76 years between the ages of those working towards starting either a social or conventional venture is so close as to be unimportant as evidence to the incongruence of the individuals, and close enough to perhaps

provide evidence to similarity. The results prompted a deeper look into the similarities in age trends that could point to congruence of the defined individuals.

Congruent classification through modeling. The final data analysis strategy consisted of a comparison between the intended emergence of the social and conventional entrepreneurs as predicted by theoretical antecedents drawn from the conventional entrepreneurial literature.

In preparation for the congruence examination, t-tests were conducted to determine the extent to which nascent social and conventional entrepreneurs differed on the four independent variables that comprised the antecedent composite (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). Statistically significant differences were found for all the variables that comprised the composite and are displayed in Table 1, although the practical implications were slight when placed in context (McLean & Ernst, 1998).

Table 1

t Test Results for Group Differences on Composite Antecedent Variables

Variable	Launch Type	M	SD	t	df	*p*
KNOWENT				5.507	9474	.003
	Conventional	.62	.485			
	Social	.66	.475			
OPPORT				3.788	9639	.000153
	Conventional	.56	.497			
	Social	.51	.500			
SUSKILL				6.847	9639	.000000
	Conventional	.84	.364			
	Social	.78	.416			
FEARFAIL				7.042	9639	.000000
	Conventional	.28	.447			
	Social	.36	.479			

Because the main goal of this work is to determine how similar the individuals who are in the nascent state of launching either a conventional or social venture are to each other as compared to how similar they are to the non-venture-starting public, t-tests were also conducted to determine the group similarities between both the defined nascent conventional and social entrepreneurs, and those who were not starting ventures. The results are displayed in Table 2, and presented an interesting component of the overall dynamic. While the initial t-tests did present slight group differences between those in the nascent state of launching a conventional or social venture, the secondary t-tests presented significantly higher differences between both defined types of entrepreneurs and the non-venture-starting public. As presented in Table 2, with the exception of the fearfail variable (to be discussed later in this work), the mean differences between the two defined types of entrepreneur and their non-entrepreneurial counterparts were much larger than the differences between each other. This provided evidence that, while there were small differences between those working toward launching social and conventional ventures, the two types of entrepreneurs were likely far less different from each other than they were from the general public. The addition of context to the interpretation of the first t-test led to a measure of practical importance of the results, paving the way for a more robust examination of the relationship between the theoretical antecedents of entrepreneurial emergence and the nascent state of both defined social and conventional entrepreneurs.

Table 2

t Test Results for Nascent Social and Conventional Entrepreneurs Compared to Nonstarters

Variable	Launch Type	M	SD	t	df	*p*	% Greater Diff
KNOWENT				31.611	50905	.000000	574.01%
	Conventional	.63	.484				
	Nonstarters	.44	.497				
KNOWENT				18.113	50905	.000000	328.91%
	Social	.67	.472				
	Nonstarters	.47	.499				
OPPORT				41.435	50905	.000000	1093.85%
	Conventional	.56	.497				
	Nonstarters	.33	.469				
OPPORT				15.955	50905	.000000	421.20%
	Social	.53	.499				
	Nonstarters	.36	.480				
SUSKILL				36.557	50905	.000000	533.91%
	Conventional	.84	.367				
	Nonstarters	.64	.480				
SUSKILL				12.322	50905	.000000	179.96%
	Social	.80	.402				
	Nonstarters	.67	.470				
FEARFAIL				21.967	50905	.000000	311.94%
	Conventional	.28	.451				
	Nonstarters	.41	.492				
FEARFAIL				4.416	50905	.000010	62.71%
	Social	.34	.475				
	Nonstarters	.39	.488				

After examining the t-tests, a logistic regression was conducted for both those who intend to launch a conventional and social venture. The independent variables were responses to questions drawn from the literature that are generally accepted to represent antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions. The specific questions represented the constructs of self-efficacy, goal disposition, outcome expectations, perceived social norms, and expected

values, and represent a composite of Social Cognitive Career Theory (Bandura), Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen), and Theory of the Entrepreneurial Event (Shapero). The dependent variable in each was the classification of the individual's nascent state regarding planning to start the enterprise or not. The use of concurrent logistic regressiona was necessary due to the nature of the variables and overall data structure. Table 3 displays the questions asked in the GEM 2009 survey and the antecedents drawn from SCCT, TPB, and SEE to which they are linked.

Table 3

Theoretical Antecedent Composite Questions

Question	Theory	Sub-construct(s)
Qi1. Do you know someone personally who started a business in the past 2 years? (KNOWENT)	SCCT	Self Efficacy, Outcome Expectations, Goal Disposition
	SEE	Feasibility
Qi2. In the next six months, will there be good opportunities for starting a business in the area where you live? (OPPORT)	SCCT	Self Efficacy, Outcome Expectations
	TPB	Attitude Toward Behavior
	SEE	Feasibility
Qi3. Do you have the knowledge, skill and experience required to start a new business? (SUSKILL)	SCCT	Self Efficacy, Outcome Expectations
	SEE	Feasibility
	TPB	Attitude Toward Behavior
Qi4. Would fear of failure prevent you from starting a business? (FEARFAIL)	SCCT	Self Efficacy
	TPB	Attitude Toward Behavior

Ethics and Human Subjects Issues

The data used for this work were gathered previously by the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor per their standards. The author used only compiled, publicly accessible data to complete the study.

Results

The results of this work supported all five hypotheses and provided a more clear connection between the identities of the defined social and conventional entrepreneur.

Distribution Of Goal Split

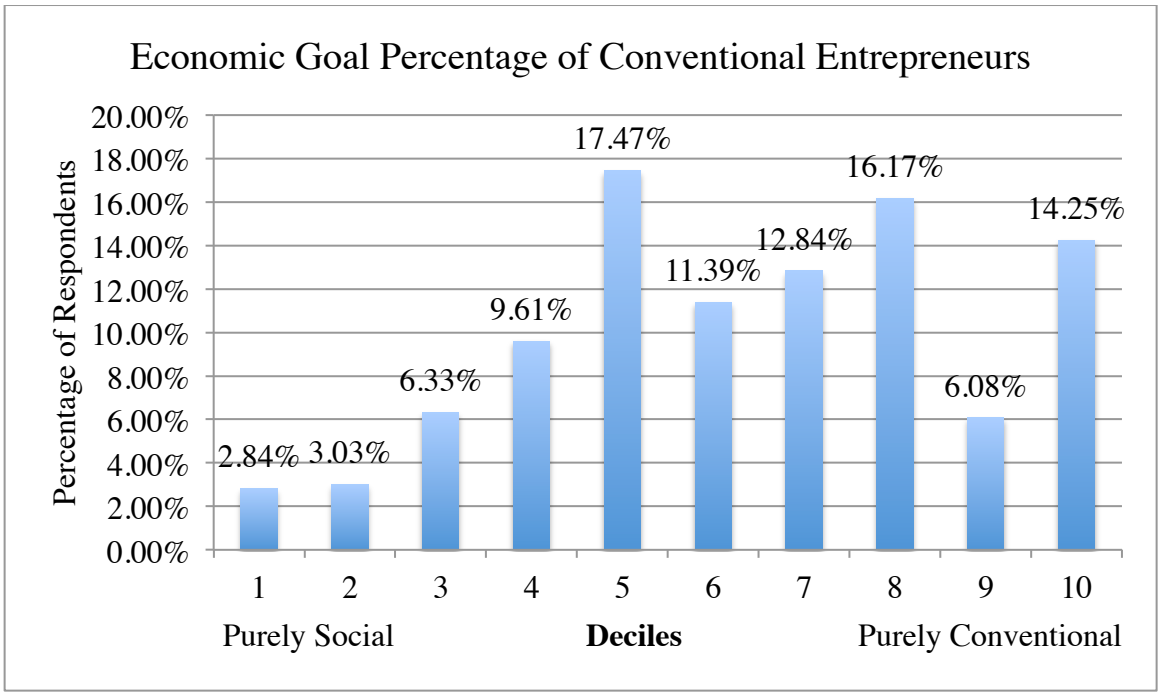
The distribution of the organizational goals of entrepreneurs was examined to determine the purity of their of the leaning of the resulting organization. Respondents to the GEM survey were asked to distribute one hundred points over the three goal categories of impact; economic, social, and environmental. For this analysis, social and environmental were aggregated to represent the broad conceptualization of the social entrepreneur. The extent to which both intended social and conventional entrepreneurs maintain a goal split leaning toward either social or economic goals points to the distributed nature of the goal split.

The goal split distribution of both types of self-identified entrepreneurs was examined to determine the extent to which the goals they had for their coming organizations matched the label of "conventional" or "social."

Goal split of the conventional entrepreneur. Those that identified as working toward launching conventional ventures displayed a mean economic goal split of 64.34 %, and a social goal percentage split of 35.66 %. For further context, those in the sample of nascent entrepreneurs starting conventional ventures reported a mean economic goal of 64.34%. As Figure 2 demonstrates, while a mean goal percentage of over 64% was displayed, 39.29% of the respondents indicated to having less than 50% economic goals with their coming venture. Figure 3 displays the percentage of economic disposition broken down by decile. The complimentary percentage for each decile would represent the percentage of social

goals indicated in that group. It is important to note that the largest group in the sample (17.47%) reported as having 40.01-50% economic goals.

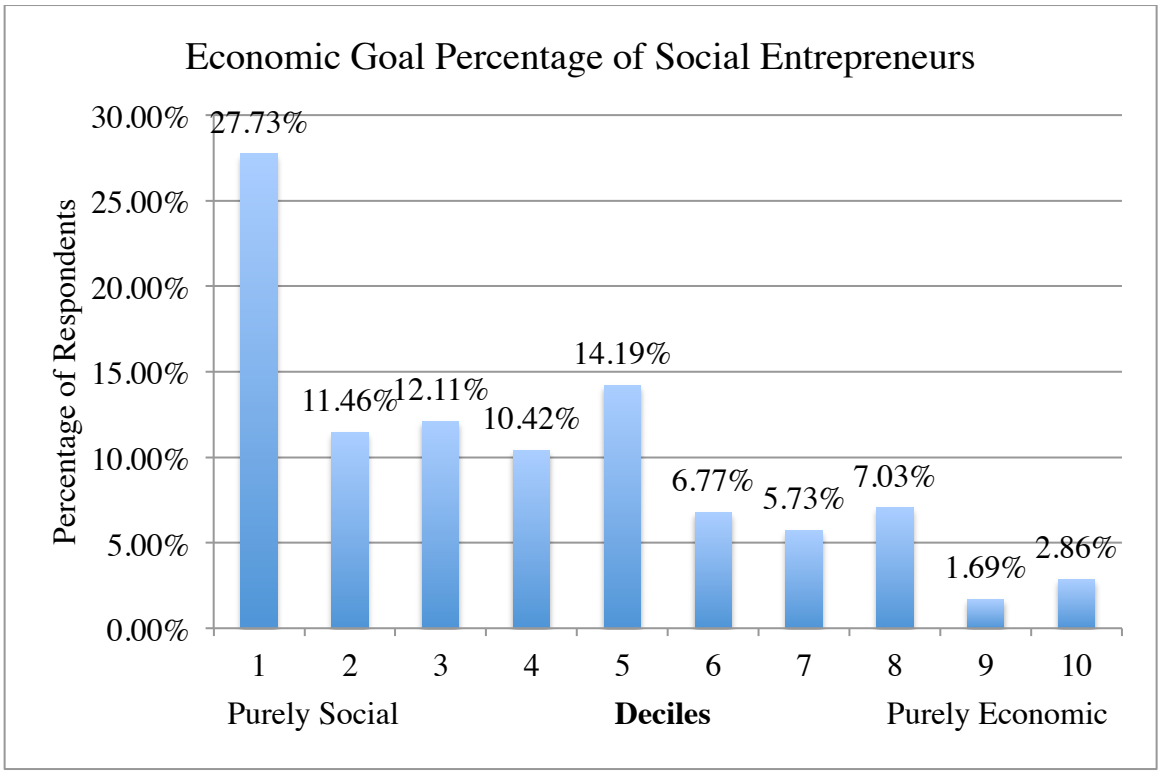
Figure 2



Goal split of the social entrepreneur. Those who self-identified as being in the nascent state of launching a social venture displayed a mean economic goal split of 35.70%, with a requisite social goal split of 64.30%, almost perfectly mirroring those with conventional intentions. The data shows an important dissimilarity between the two groups, namely an inordinantely large group claiming to have zero economic goals with the launch of the new organization. This group represented 5.1% of the total, causing the first decile, or those with 0-10% financial goals, to represent 27.73% of the sample. Outside of this group, the largest was the fifth decile, or group reporting 40.01-50% economic goals (14.19%). As with the previous analysis, the compliment to each decile percentage were those with social goals. For example, to compliment the representatives from decile one, 72.27% indicated a 0-90% social goal disposition with the launch of the current venture. On the other side of the

spectrum, 97.14% of the respondents who were planning on launching a social venture indicated a 0-90% economic

Figure 3



Goal split affinity to launch type. The most interesting group for examination in the scope of this study is those who identified as working towards starting both types of organization. Of the 231 who claimed to be working toward starting both types of organization and answered the economic value questions, the mean goal split showed differences depending on which organization they were referring to. Regarding the conventional venture the entrepreneur was working towards starting, the goals were 57.49% economic in nature and 42.51% social in nature. Conversely, when indicating the goal split tied to the social venture they were working toward launching, the goal split was 33.63% economic and 66.37% social.

This is highlighted in Table 4. An independent samples t-test was undertaken to determine the

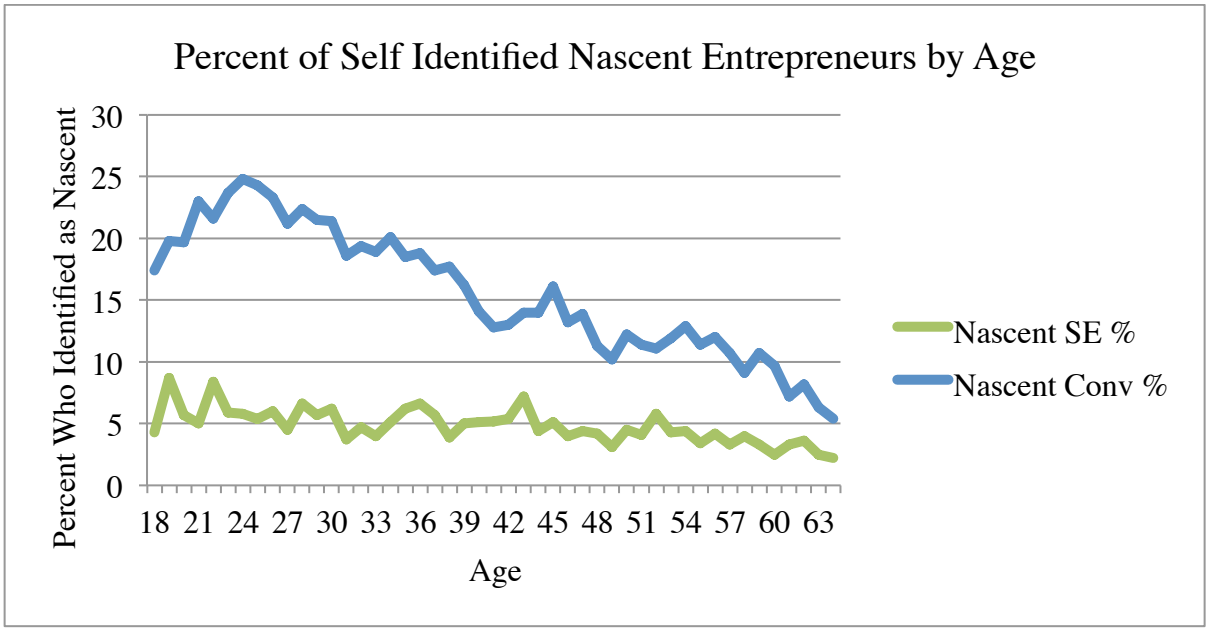
extent to which the mean economic goal percentage differed with regards to the intended social and conventional venture being launched. There were significant differences in the means ($M = 23.865$, $SD = 30.754$, $t = 11.794(230)$, $p = .000000$) leading to the conclusion that the individuals launching both types of organizations maintained different goal split profiles for each one.

Congruence of Classification Through Age Analysis

It is important to note an important dynamic in the study of the entrepreneur that may underpin the possibly arbitrary classification scheme inherently employed in both entrepreneurial literature and support practice. When the notion of a durable state of entrepreneurial disposition and requisite capability is considered, the passing of time should be considered to have less of an effect on the durable entrepreneurial disposition construct than previously conceptualized. The individual can be considered to be an entrepreneur, durably resistant to the external events that they encounter as time passes, although to perhaps different levels. This work does not claim that those with an entrepreneurial disposition will always be so, or that they always were, it simply posits the notion that the construct may be far more durable and universally applied than previously thought. As time passes, events may occur that strengthen or weaken the construct of EO, in addition to the simple effects of age. Figure 4 demonstrates the percentage change over age of individuals who identified as being either in the nascent state of social or conventional launch. An important assumption is made when inspecting this data, namely that the rates of self-

identification are tied more to a natural age progression of the person, and not the state of the economic or social environment in the countries sampled. The data show an important and congruent trend in the rates of nascent state entrepreneurs. Both peak early in life and slowly degrade as years pass. Figure 4 highlights this data.

Figure 4



The peak age for those reporting to be in the nascent state of a conventional venture is 24 years old, with a sample-wide rate of 24.80% at that age. The peak age by percentage for those identifying as being in the nascent state of a social venture was reported as 19, with the percentage of the sample reporting at 8.70%. Those reporting both types of nascent states slowly decreased over time, with conventional and social venture launchers terminating at 5.4% and 2.2% respectively.

Table 5

Peaks of Entrepreneurial Rates For Conventional and Social

	Peak Age	Peak Rate	Minimum Age	Minimum Rate
Conventional	24	24.80%	64	5.4%
Social	19	8.70%	64	2.2%

It is important to note that the data from the GEM data set included individuals as young as 16, and as old as 99, however the samples were so small that the data became erratic and difficult to interpret. The age of 64 was an arbitrary but logical terminus for the analysis because the samples above that age dropped off dramatically.

Congruence of Classification Through Modeling

In order to understand the extent to which the defined conventional and social entrepreneur share personal characteristics as defined by well-accepted theoretical models, two logistic regressions were performed. Both employed independent variables based on SCCT, TPB, and SEE with the dependent variable being nascent state emergence of the defined conventional entrepreneur in the first logistic regression, and nascent state emergence of the defined social entrepreneur for the second. The statistical significance of each model, as well as each variable included were then examined. The classification rates of each model were then examined and compared against each other to determine the similarities in the extent to which the model correctly classified each type of defined entrepreneur.

Modeling emergence of the defined conventional entrepreneur. To determine the rate to which the composite model based on the antecedents outlined in entrepreneurial

emergence theory predicts the nascent state of the conventional entrepreneur, a logistic regression was drawn. The method of logistic regression was chosen because of the discrete nature of the variables involved. From the constrained sample of 51,344 individuals from fifty one countries across the world, those who identified as being in the nascent state of conventional venture launch were selected (8,881). A random sample of 8,881 respondents was then taken from those who identified as not currently being in the nascent state, and was matched with those who responded in the affirmative. The combined sample was comprised of 16,622 individuals from fifty one countries. It was 58.8% male, and 41.2% female, with a mean age of 38.2 years old. The mean number of household members was 4.08. The dependent variable which indicates the respondent's nascent involvement in a conventional venture is BSTART. The independent variable composite drawn from entrepreneurial emergence theory is comprised of KNOWENT (Do you know someone personally who started a business in the past 2 years?), OPPORT (In the next six months, will there be good opportunities for starting a business in the area where you live?), SUSKILL (Do you have the knowledge, skill and experience required to start a new business?), and FEARFAIL (Would fear of failure would prevent you from starting a business?). A test of the full model against a constant-only model was statistically significant, indicating that the predictors as a set reliably distinguished between those who were in the nascent stage of business startup, and those who were not (chi square = 1879.635, $p < .0000$ with df = 4). Nagelkerke's R^2 of .143 indicated a weak but present relationship between the prediction and grouping. Prediction success overall was 64.4% (62.3% for nonstarters, and 66.4% for starters). The Wald criterion demonstrated that all of the independent variables made a significant contribution to the prediction, with each indicating $p < .000$. Exp(B) indicates

that when the respondent indicates in the affirmative to SUSKILL, they are 2.361 times more likely to present as being in the nascent state. An affirmative response to OPPORT increases liklihood by 1.999 times, KNOWENT by 1.575 times, and a negative response to FEARFAIL decreases the liklihood by .675.

Modeling emergence of the defined social entrepreneur. To determine the rate to which the same model predicts the nascent state of the social entrepreneur, a parallel logistic regression was drawn. As with previously, the method of logistic regression was chosen because of the discrete nature of the variables involved. From the constrained sample of 51,344 individuals from fifty one countries across the world, those who identified as being in the nascent state of social venture launch were selected (2,552). A random sample of 2,552 respondents was then taken from those who identified as not currently being in the nascent state, and was matched with those who responded in the affirmative. The combined sample was comprised of 5,104 individuals from fifty one countries. It was 55.7% male, and 44.3% female, with a mean age of 39.08 years old. The mean number of household members was 3.97. The dependent variable which indicates the respondent's nascent involvement in a social venture is SESTART. As with the previous model, the independent variable composite drawn from entrepreneurial emergence theory is comprised of KNOWENT (Do you know someone personally who started a business in the past 2 years?), OPPORT (In the next six months, will there be good opportunities for starting a business in the area where you live?), SUSKILL (Do you have the knowledge, skill and experience required to start a new business?), and FEARFAIL (Would fear of failure would prevent you from starting a business?). A test of the full model against a constant-only model was statistically significant, indicating that the predictors as a set reliably distinguished between

those who were in the nascent stage of social startup, and those who were not (chi square = 399.510, $p < .0000$ with df = 4). Nagelkerke's R^2 of .100 indicated a weak but present relationship between the prediction and grouping. Prediction success overall was 62.4% (50.8% for nonstarters, and 73.9% for starters). The Wald criterion demonstrated that all of the independent variables made a significant contribution to the prediction, with the exception of FEARFAIL, with KNOWENT, OPPORT, and SUSKILL indicating $p < .000$, but FEARFAIL indicating $p = .425$. Exp(B) indicates that when the respondent indicates in the affirmative to SUSKILL, they are 1.622 times more likely to present as being in the nascent state. An affirmative response to OPPORT increases liklihood by 1.841 times, and KNOWENT by 1.967.

Discussion

General

Central to this work is a desire to better understand the extent to which the defined social and conventional entrepreneurs differ, as their disparate classification results in disparate treatment in the ways they are educated and incubated. If the differences between the two are arbitrary, would it not be appropriate to call for similar treatment?

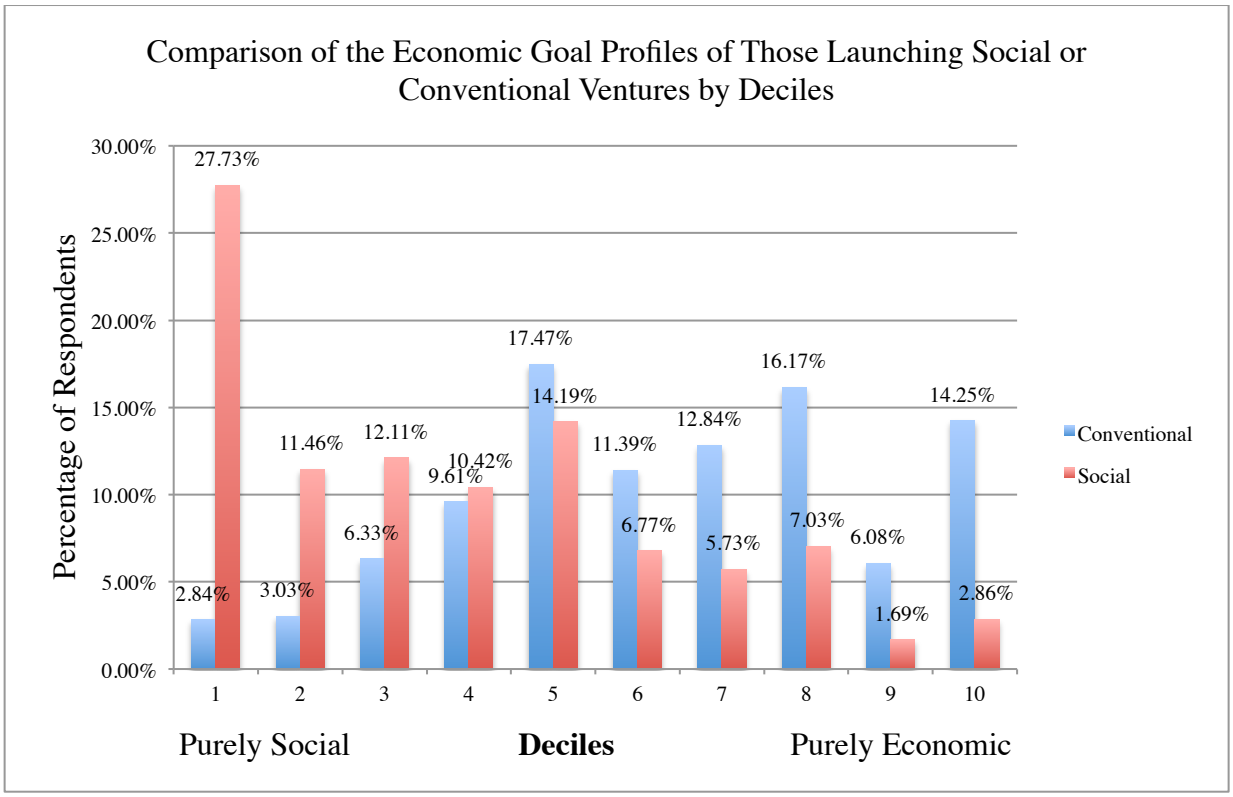
Distribution of Orientation and Goal Affinity

An important assumption made when classifying an individual as either a conventional or social entrepreneur is the purity of the goal split during the nascent period, and through launch and operations. If the individual maintains goals for the eventual organization that are neither purely conventional or social in nature, it would follow that perhaps the classification system used to present them was at minimum less important than other factors, and at maximum, arbitrary. Differences in the goal split between those who indicated a nascent state in either type of organization were indeed found, although there were indications that the goal split of the entrepreneur was not purely related to the type of organization they intended on starting.

Similarities emerge when comparing the goal splits of each type of defined entrepreneur. As displayed in Figure 5, while leaning toward the goal split that one would expect for each type of venture, the results are far from pure in nature. In fact, of those who identified as working towards starting a conventional venture, 51.34% reported a goal split that fell into the middle four deciles. More specifically, 51.34% of the individuals indicated a goal split that was between 30% and 70% social in nature. Similarly, of those identifying as working

toward launching a social venture, 37.11% indicated financial goals making up 30% to 70% of their total goal split.

Figure 5



An examination of the goal split differences assigned to each type of venture by those planning on starting both types uncovers an interesting dynamic. The goal split assigned to a given venture, while done so by the entrepreneur working toward launching it, is more associated with the venture than the individual themselves. This is apparent when examining the differences in goal profile associated with each type of venture, as displayed in Figure 5. The mean economic split of the goal split for an entrepreneur launching a conventional venture was reported as 57.49%, while the mean economic portion of the split for those same entrepreneurs launching a social venture was 33.63%. The t-test was statistically significant, pointing to differences between the the profiles attached by the entrepreneur to

both type of venture. Of the individuals sampled, it is clear that they are less associated as a person to the goals of their intended organizations than the organization type itself is to the goals. This provides evidence that the entrepreneur cannot necessarily be defined as a social or conventional entrepreneur, but rather simply an entrepreneur, independent from the launch of a particular venture. It is the venture to which the entrepreneur ties a given split of social or economic goals, not the individual who maintains the split as a durable construct.

Differences. Important yet subtle differences between those in the nascent state of launching a social and conventional venture. Chief among these was the relative amount of nascent entrepreneurs from each group who maintained a pure, or near pure affinity to economic goals (for the defined conventional entrepreneur) and social goals (for the defined social entrepreneur). Comparatively, a much larger percentage of those working toward launching a social venture maintained splits in the top decile for a social profile percentage split (27.73%) than did conventional with respect to the top decile of economic split (14.25%). This may represent an idealism present in those launching a social venture. Perhaps a much larger percentage of them by comparison claim pure (or near pure) affinity to the the non-economic, social mission of the organization than do their counterparts to a pure financial bottom line.

Congruent Classification Through Age Analysis

The rates of identification of both defined types of entrepreneurs peaked at a young age, and terminated at the end of the period studied at levels near one quarter of their peak. This was not a longitudinal study of individuals, but rather a view into reported rates of a sample split by age. Some liberty is taken through the assumption that using mean rates provides enough distribution to support the trend established. The inference is that examining

individuals' rates split by their age would approximate a time series study of specific individuals. An important assumption that may not be satisfied is that the passing of time would cause the data to present similarly to the age split snapshot of the population. A view of the individuals over age highlights interesting differences, namely the earlier peak of those working toward launching social ventures, perhaps attributable to youthful idealism, however the similarities in nascent rates are irrefutable. This similarity, coupled with those found in classification rates and the existence of crossover tendencies point to a congruence of the entrepreneur that may be more useful as a conceptualization framework than the type of organization they launched, or are working toward launching. If the rates of nascent emergence rise and fall together as years pass, the congruence of the individuals may be tied more closely to the theoretical antecedents than previously thought. If the assumption holds, the congruence of the two defined types of entrepreneur would gather another piece of supporting evidence.

Differences. There were also important differences uncovered between the defined nascent social and conventional entrepreneurs when their emergence rates by age were inspected. Among these was the higher rates of emergence at a younger age of those claiming to be working toward starting a social venture. Bearing in mind that the study was conducted using rates of those claiming to be in the nascent state of venture launch (not yet having encountered the difficulty of final venture launch), this may be a product of a combination of youthful inexperience and idealism, causing the younger individuals to present higher levels of the social venture nascent state without being encountered with the reality of financial concerns that present in the mid-twenties. Another difference uncovered was the relative stability over time of the reported emergence of those in the social venture

nascent state as compared to those reporting the conventional venture nascent state. The peak of reported conventional emergence was relatively much higher, and the decline as the individuals aged much steeper. This may be a product of economic need, as the conventional rates escalate, peak, and taper, making a sharp dive at the retirement age of sixty years. Conversely, the nascent social emergence rates are more stable, perhaps pointing to a vacuum of financial pressure.

Congruent Classification Through Modeling

When employing the antecedents outlined in entrepreneurial emergence theory as a predictor set, those who identified as being in the nascent state of launching a conventional venture were correctly classified at 64.4% and those identifying as being in the nascent state of a social venture were correclty classified at 62.4%. The similarities between these two levels point to a congruence of the individual that may supercede any differentiating classifications made by the type of organization they intend on launching, and are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6

Comparison of Results of Logistic Regressions for Defined Social and Conventional Entrepreneurs

		Prediction Rate	Chi-Square	df	Nagelkerke R^2	*p*	Exp(B)	SE(B)
Conventional	Model	64.4%	1879.635	4	0.143	.000		
	KNOWENT					.000	1.575	0.034
	OPPORT					.000	1.999	0.034
	SUSKILL					.000	2.361	0.040
	FEARFAIL					.000	0.675	0.035
Social	Model	62.4%	399.51	4	0.100	.000		
	KNOWENT					.000	1.967	0.060
	OPPORT					.000	1.841	0.060

SUSKILL	.000	1.622	0.069
FEARFAIL	.425	0.952	0.062

The lack of statistical significance displayed in the social nascent group for the variable FEARFAIL also may provide an important piece of information. Namely, those launching a social venture are less concerned about the failure of that organization, perhaps focusing more on their ability to help than their ability to make the organization a sustainable success.

The overall similarity in the ability of the theoretical model composite to predict the nascent state of both types of entrepreneur points to a congruence of the persons involved that may call for an alternate method of classification. In short, if the individuals maintain similar levels of the theoretical antecedents of entrepreneurial emergence, then would it not follow that they should be classified similarly? A reconceptualization of the way that the social entrepreneur is viewed in the context of the larger field of entrepreneurial study may be called for.

Differences. Differences between the two defined types of nascent entrepreneurs emerged upon inspection of the logistic regressions, namely the lack of statistical significance of the variable FEARFAIL in the model predicting defined social nascent emergence. The lack of fear of failure as a preventative measure for starting a social venture may point to a courage reserved by those in the nascent state of launching a social venture pinned to their belief in what is right that outpaces the fear of financial loss encountered by those in the conventional nascent state. Of all the interesting results uncovered in this work, the fearlessness with which the defined nascent social entrepreneur pursues venture launch is perhaps the most worthy of qualitative inspection.

Closing

The analysis offered through an examination of the congruence between the defined social and conventional entrepreneur provides compelling evidence to their similarities as well as lack of differences. The evidence provides a strong impetus for a different classification method of the entrepreneur, pressing for a new, more inclusive conceptualization. Rather than a profit-seeking *conventional entrepreneur*, or social justice pursuing *social entrepreneur*, the individual is better conceptualized as simply an *entrepreneur*. Their emergence can be modeled similarly using the antecedents drawn from the entrepreneurial theory literature, pointing to a similar composition of the personality. They display goals for a specific type of venture that are far from pure, pointing to a lack of complete allegiance to either financial or social orientation. They provide different sets of goal splits associated with different types of organizations to which they are working toward starting, showing an orientation that is tied not to the person themselves, but the organization that will be launched. The person is neither a social or conventional entrepreneur, but rather an entrepreneur, imbued with an ability for and a propensity to, launching organizations. It is their current venture that may be social good or profit seeking, but it isn't purely so.

An alternate conceptualization. The evidence points to a more accurate view of the entrepreneur as neither durably social or conventional, but rather as simply an entrepreneur. The individuals who more frequently pursue social and conventional ventures do indeed maintain differences, but they are contextually irrelevant when compared to the similarities displayed. An alternative conceptualization of the entrepreneur is offered in the context of venture launch. It presents the individual capable of entrepreneurial venture as a product of

the development of the antecedents drawn from entrepreneurial theory. This development results in an *equilibrium ready state*, during which the entrepreneur, while likely maintaining social or conventional leanings, seeks to solve problems presented to them. Problem recognition, coupled with the *equilibrium ready state*, results in the entrepreneur beginning work toward solving the problem uncovered, thus entering the nascent state of the entrepreneurial process. The institutional choice inherent in the venture launch is characterized by personal predisposition, but for both defined social and conventional entrepreneurs, the process is the same. The venture terminus is followed by a return to *equilibrium ready state*, although the process may run concurrently (or in a staggered concurrent fashion) as the entrepreneur enters the nascent state of a second venture while still working on the first. This conceptualization positions the entrepreneur existing in a variable state, rather than a fixed existence, presenting interesting implications for alternate methods of educating and incubating the entrepreneur. The entrepreneur frequently moves between venture manifestations when appropriate, generally maintains split goal splits as associated with each particular venture, self identifies as being in the nascent state at similar proportions over time across fifty one countries, and predicts to similar levels using a composite of antecedents drawn from the conventional literature, regardless of the type of venture they intend on launching. All provide for compelling evidence of distinct commonalities that beg for a common conceptualization.

Implications and Areas for Future Study

The current method of classifying the entrepreneur as either conventional or social, while it has merits due to its simplicity, provides a schism of treatment that is perhaps unwarranted. Defined social and conventional entrepreneurs certainly do maintain differences, however it can be argued that they are minimal and contextually irrelevant as compared to the similarities displayed. This work provides evidence to the congruence of the defined individuals through inpecting their respective goal splits, inspecting and comparing their rates of emergence over time, and comparing models of their nascent emergence. It is believed that this evidence leads to important implications regarding the overall conceptualization, academic classification, and requisite practical treatment of the entrepreneur.

Overall Conceptualization

Perhaps the underpinning reason for the disparate treatment of the social and conventional entrepreneur in academic and educational contexts is the persistent belief that they are different enough to warrant it. This work has provided evidence to the congruity of the individuals through an analysis of their goal splits, congruent trends by age, and the similar rates of classification through the use of a antecedent composite drawn from the conventional entrepreneurial literature. Specific to the study of goal split affinity, the evidence points to a stronger link between the entrepreneur and the organization they plan on launching than simply a specific identity of the entrepreneur as a social or market actor. All three seem to support a conceptual change, namely redefining both defined social and conventional entrepreneurs as simply *entrepreneurs*, rather than propagating a perhaps arbitrary distinction. Additionally, while it is useful to temporally define the entrepreneur

by the launch of an organization, it presupposes that they are further defined by *launch type*. This conceptualization may have implications both in the academic understanding of the entrepreneur, and in their subsequent educational and incubational treatment.

Practical Treatment Implications

Entrepreneurs, whether defined as social or conventional, are educated and incubated in very different ways in the United States and abroad (Mirabella & Young, 2012). This work provides evidence to their congruence, and may merit a second look at the ways in which these important societal actors are fostered.

In education. Perhaps the most emergent implications for the alternate conceptualization presented in this work lie in the academic treatment of the entrepreneur, primarily in the context of postsecondary offerings.

One of the most important goals academia should have with regards to the study of the entrepreneur is a focus on development of better ways to educate and incubate the budding venture creator. To do this, focus must be also directed toward not only those who *have* started a venture, but those who *will*, calling for a focus on the study of the nascent state, in addition to the emergent, functional entrepreneur. By simply defining the entrepreneur as the individual who has started a venture, we lose sight of those who need support most, those who have yet to, but are working toward it, whether cognitively, or through observable actions. The split goal splits uncovered in this work also call for a more multidisciplinary approach to the course offerings presented to the individual. Because the vast majority of those working toward starting either a social or conventional venture claimed to maintain at least 25% of goals attributable to the other type of venture, teaching conventional entrepreneurs the basics of social goal attainment (and vice versa) bears consideration.

Additionally, because most of the skills needed to best foster the professional development of a venture are taught in business schools (Drucker, 1989), an inclusion of the social entrepreneur into complementary coursework currently locked in business schools (namely minors or cognates) that better allow them to grow into effective leaders and managers.

In incubation. When considering the individuals in the context of their training and support, the similarities provide enough evidence to call for similar treatment in how their efforts are incubated. The entrepreneur who launches a venture with a social mission serves society as a whole, while the conventional entrepreneur only offers benefits to themselves, the tax base, and perhaps through the hiring of employees. With the social entrepreneur providing a more distributed benefit profile, should incubator organizations which support venture growth and are funded at a community and regional level also include programs to support their efforts? The congruence between the two defined types of entrepreneur, in addition to the similarities in the process of problem solving may call for a more inclusive treatment in this case as well.

Strengths and Weaknesses of the Study

Strengths

The overall study will be underscored by several dynamics that add strength to its findings. The first several relate to the data gethered by the GEM Consortium. Primary among these are the generalizability of the results due to the size of the data set and the culturally dispersed nature of the respondents. Additionally, the demographic dispersal of the respondents adds strength to the findings. The careful data collection methods of the GEM consortium also add validity to the findings. In addition to factors related to the data and it's collection, the statistical methods employed also underscore the results. Using a composite of the antecedent variables commonly defined in the conventional entrepreneurial literature to classify both social and conventional entrepreneurial intentions will beg for inclusiveness of the social entrepreneur if the levels are found to be similar.

Weaknesses

The general nature of the data create limitations to this study. Additionally, while the sheer size of the data set provides for generalizability, it also may inflate the opportunity for statistically significant results.

Sampling. In order to prepare the data for modeling, certain respondents were excluded who did not answer all of the questions. This may have affected the relative demographics of the study, as different country teams may have provided the survey to different levels of rigor, affecting results. This was apparent when examining the country make-up percentage of the constricted sample. The largest percentage of the overall sample provided by GEM was from Great Britain at 30,003 respondents (16.2%), but in the constricted sample,

respondents from Great Britain only accounted for 7.6 percent of the total. This is evidence that the sample, while carefully taken, may have skewed results.

There is additional evidence of data issues drawn from the overall GEM sample. When frequencies of age are taken, ages at even ten year intervals shows a lack of accuracy. Specifically, at the identified ages of 20, 30, 40, 50, and 60, the sample shows increases in frequency that are indicative of a lack of careful survey administration. The frequencies of respondents at the indicated ages are abnormally high when compared to their surrounding ages. It is believed that many of those administering the survey indicated rounded ages when the true answer was unclear from the respondent.

Preliminary t-tests of group differences. The preliminary tests run uncovered group differences on all four of the composite variables, the age variable, and the economic goal split variable (although this was expected. The presence of quantifiable differences, while contextually slight, calls for the need for more research**.**

Age emergence comparison study. The age congruence portion of this study also had limitations. The data had to be constricted before age 18 and after age 64 because of the dramatically smaller sample sizes found outside of that range. Specific to the age 64 cutoff, it is believed that more interesting inferrences could be made, as the sample extended to age 99, but the respondents for each age group were so small that the data became erratic and uninterpretable.

Congruence through modeling study. Logisitic regression techniques were used because of the dichotomous nature of both the predictor and dependent variables. Data providing for continuous variables would have allowed for the use of more powerful statistical techniques. Additionally, the method of employing two logistic regressions in the

manner of this study, while grounded in statistical theory, is not a common-place practice. This said, while visual inspection of the two results provided similar results, their level of difference could not be tested statistically by any methods known to the author.

Nonprofit Leadership Significance

It is the hope that a broader, more inclusive, and less arbitrary conceptualization of what it means to be an entrepreneur would trickle down through academia and give the social entrepreneur access to the help they need to build stronger ventures. The majority of social ventures operate as nonprofits, and all share a community-based orientation with those from the third sector. The SE is an important actor in the nonprofit sector, much in the same way their conventional counterpart is in the market. They are the creative engines of change that provide innovative solutions to public issues. Giving the social entrepreneur the education they need to most effectively launch and lead an organization will strengthen and professionalize the nonprofit sector as a whole through more effective leadership, more efficient use of funds, and more innovative solutions to social issues that have remained unsolved.

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Appendices

Appendix A: GEM 2009 Survey

The GEM 2009 Survey can be found at http://www.gemconsortium.org/docs/408/gem-2009-aps-questionnaire.

Appendix B: Gen 2009 Data Set

The GEM 2009 data set can be found at http://www.gemconsortium.org/docs/3130/gem-2009-aps-global-individual-level-data.

Appendix C: Restricted Sample by Country

Table 7

Restricted Sample by Country

Country	Frequency	Percent	Country	Frequency	Percent
Spain	18345	35.7	Slovenia	506	1
United Kingdom	3927	7.6	Korea	504	1
Uganda	1445	2.8	Iceland	495	1
Colombia	1319	2.6	Guatemala	492	1
China	1196	2.3	Uruguay	484	0.9
Germany	961	1.9	Belgium	479	0.9
Syria	923	1.8	Algeria	457	0.9
Ecuador	908	1.8	Serbia	440	0.9
Dominican Republic	861	1.7	South Africa	435	0.8
Jamaica	860	1.7	Latvia	406	0.8
United States	819	1.6	Bosnia and Herzegovina	401	0.8
Saudi Arabia	809	1.6	Croatia	398	0.8
Iran	808	1.6	Norway	381	0.7
West Bank & Gaza Strip	785	1.5	Netherlands	366	0.7
Brazil	780	1.5	Panama	366	0.7
United Arab Emirates	754	1.5	Israel	359	0.7
Peru	753	1.5	Shenzhen*	339	0.7
Tonga	745	1.5	Switzerland	323	0.6
Chile	724	1.4	Finland	318	0.6
Yemen	703	1.4	Italy	279	0.5

Morocco	681	1.3	Hong Kong	269	0.5
Lebanon	659	1.3	Denmark	199	0.4
Jordan	657	1.3	Malaysia	197	0.4
Greece	621	1.2	Romania	167	0.3
Argentina	560	1.1	Russia	134	0.3
Hungary	547	1.1			

Appendix D. Correlated Intentions

Important in developing a deeper understanding of the phenomena of the entrepreneur is an examination of their intentions to cross over between the two defined types of venture. Specifically, do those who intend to develop a primarily capital-seeking venture also intend to develop a separate organization that has a more distributed bottom line, or vice versa? The focus and energy required to develop one venture can be substantial, let alone two. Any dual intentions contextually bolster the inherent strength of any correlation found, because the liklihood of intentions to start several organizations at once could be considered low.

In addition to the previously stated studies, a correlation was drawn between two variables from the data set to address possible crossover tendencies. The first question inquired about any startup intentions (Q1A1), while the second specifically asked the respondents to indicate if they were intending to start a social venture (Q6A1).

The first, question Q1A1, asked "Are you, alone or with others, currently trying to start a new business, including any self-employment or selling any goods or services to others?" The responses to this question indicate those individuals with intentions to start any type of venture. Of those who responded, only those who indicated that they were "trying to start", or "no" were included in further analysis. Those who failed to respond, or responded with "I don't know" were excluded. The second question, Q6A1, asked, "Are you alone or with others, currently trying to start or currently owning and managing any kind of activity,

organization or initiative that has a particularly social, environmental or community objective?" This question indicates those individuals with the intentions to start a social venture. To provide comparable data to those who ansered Q1A1, only those who indicated that they were intending to start a social venture, or not, were included. The individuals who intended to start a conventional enterprise were then isolated from the positive respondents from Q1A1. This was done by parsing the data along question Q6A3, which asked individuals to indicate if the social venture was different from the first one indicated in question Q1A1. Those who responded in the affirmative were excluded from those counted as starting a conventional venture in order to accurately differentiate the individual behaviors. A correlation was then drawn to determine crossover tendencies between the two types of venture orientation. Additional analysis of the amount of individuals who identified as starting both was then performed.

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was conducted to determine the relationship between the variables identifying the nascent state of either a defined conventional or social entrepreneur. More specifically, what is the propensity for individuals to be currently launching one type of organization while also currently launching

Table 8

Correlation Between Self Reported Nascent State Indicators for Social and Conventional Enterprises

Venture Type	Conventional	Social
Conventional	-	
Social	0.048*	-

*p < 0.01

the other. The results were

consistent with the hypothesis, displaying a weak but statistically significant correlation between the two nascent state indicator variables. The results show crossover between those identifying as being in the nascent state of starting either a social or conventional venture, and also being in the same state with the other type of venture. To further illustrate the dynamic, of the 51,344 in the restricted study sample, 8,311 identified as being in the nascent state with a conventional venture, 2,552 identified as being in the nascent state with a social venture, and 611 presented as both.

The propensity for the entrepreneur to display intentions to launch both types of organization within the next twelve months can be seen as an indication of the durability and requisite importance of the personality type when classifying the individual as compared to the manifestation of the current organization being launched. While the correllation was small ($R^2 = .048$), the existance of any type of crossover may be viewed as important in the context of the start of a venture. Organizational launch is a labor and resource intensive time, with the entrepreneur being forced to make decisions about which pursuit to which they should dedicate their time and capital. The presence of any propensity to be involved in launching both types of organization simultaneously should be considered as an indicator of the congruency of the personality types of the individuals. Of the 10,863 individuals from the sample who reported being in the nascent state of venture launch, 611 indicated being involved in launching both types of organization.