

# Innovative Business Models with Social Impact: An Analogous Study of India and Japan

**BANERJEE Sharmistha\***

**ASAMIZU Munehiko\*\***

## Introduction

Social entrepreneurship (SE) has existed in various forms across the globe under many labels for hundreds of years. However, in the past 30 years, it has gained momentum as a field of scholarship (Alvord, Brown, & Letts, 2004; Thompson, 2002). With this academic interest has come a call for a definitive definition of the social entrepreneurship and related constructs of social entrepreneur and social enterprise. While no singular definition exists to date, consensus exists on general features of entrepreneurial businesses that focus on its mission and social impact. A lack of definitional unity does not signal a lack of significance for the concepts or the work being done.

On the contrary, social entrepreneurship's influence on society is hard to ignore. Santos summaries: "Social entrepreneurship has profound implications in the economic system: creating new industries, validating new business models, and allocating resources to neglected societal problems," (2009). This final idea, that social entrepreneurship focuses on neglected problems and marginalized populations is of the utmost relevance to business in the globalised world, because it has been accepted that sustainability of business is closely related to its socially responsible behaviour.

Social entrepreneurs build organizations (i.e., social enterprises) that address neglected societal problems, and challenge conventional wisdom (i.e., the status quo) through innovative business models that empower people to deliver sustainable solutions with scalability and replicability to achieve positive multiplier impact in people's lives.

This paper studies four cases of social entrepreneurship that have been widely recognized as successful, particularly because its scope has been in the field which is traditionally considered to be the exclusive responsibility of the state sector, education and health for underserved and marginalized groups which makes them potentially excluded. The attempt is to identify characteristics associated with successful social entrepreneurship, and generate propositions about core innovations, leadership and organization, and pathways of scaling up in social

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\*Professor, Department of Business Management, University of Calcutta, India

\*\*Associate Professor, Faculty of Economics, Yamaguchi University, Japan

entrepreneurship that produces societal transformation. The study area is India and Japan: an academic scratch in the iceberg of cross country study on SE, that may lead to further deep-seated research. The primary areas covered in global studies touches upon cultural differences, developmental issues as factors in analysing SE in different countries. This set of four case studies does not look for patternistic similarities but some propositions that arise from natural analysis are submitted here.

The term “social entrepreneurship” is said to be created by Bill Drayton of Ashoka Innovators for the Public in the 1990’s (Dees, 1998; Drayton, 2002). Social entrepreneurship is a process of recognizing opportunities to solve problems in society and utilizing entrepreneurial concepts to create, organize, and manage an enterprise to make improvements to social conditions (Rowe & Conway Dato-on, 2012). Social entrepreneurs adopt a mission to create and sustain social value (Dees, 2001) and operate in a variety of organizations: large and small; new and old; religious and secular; non-profit, for-profit, and hybrid. A social enterprise is an organizational entity that aims to create (either exclusively or predominantly) social value and pursue that goal through a combination of means, such as acknowledging and utilizing available opportunities to generate social value. The most crucial dimension that distinguishes a social enterprise from other types of enterprises (i.e., commercial) is its dedication to creating social value (Peredo & McLean, 2006). The spirit of a social enterprise is based on principles of voluntarism, ethical conduct and a social cause mission (Diochon & Anderson, 2011).

The social entrepreneurship literature is replete with discussions multiple methods and challenges of measuring the outcome of value creation emanating from social enterprises (e.g., McLoughlin et al., 2009). Even if a measurement method is agreed upon, comparative studies of social enterprise outcomes, in the form of greater applications by way of replicability and scalability, such as the one undertaken here, are limited because organisations and societies in which social programs are located have their own histories and customs (Weiss, 1997), thus empirical models and resulting comparisons offer limited generalizability. This is true in case of this paper which dissects the four cases of SE, two from India and two from Japan. Therefore, in alignment with this study’s methodology for exploratory case analysis, we rely on stories told by the social entrepreneurs via personal interviews, news articles, and organizational websites to assess the social value (i.e., outcomes) of the featured organisations. This within method data triangulation (Brannen, 1996) offers a manner of reducing overreliance on one informational source in order to “decrease, negate, or counterbalance the deficiency of a single strategy, thereby increasing the ability to interpret the findings” (Thurmond, 2001). This method of reporting outcomes is also in accordance with a qualitatively focused research undertaking such as this one.

## **Social Entrepreneurship in Asia**

Social innovation practices have had considerable success in the West. But it is imperative for Asian scholars in this field to suggest that there is a need for redefining social innovation in developing or less-developed countries. The complexity is two-fold: social innovation is a multi-layered, practice-led field. At the same time, Asia is not a homogeneous region. Asia's diverse paths to democratisation and industrialisation add to the complexity (The Hope Institute). There are economically advanced countries (e.g. Japan, Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong and South Korea), but at the same time many other countries are still suffering from severe poverty and an underdeveloped political or social system, such as dictatorship or unbalanced democracy. The diversity of the region is also reflected in both the social problems and their possible solutions.

In various parts of Asia, there has been growing interest in the processes of European and North American social innovation. Many successful social innovation cases and practices in the West have been contents of academic and practioner discourse. However, few studies have explored SE in two different Asian countries and attempted an inference.

The two countries— India, and Japan—were selected as regional representativeness, being at two different levels in their economic development, Japan being a homogenous block and India being the diverse in socio-cultural and perceptions about money and finance. India was selected for having relatively rich examples of and studies on its social innovation in addition to its leading role in the region in terms of social innovation. Academia and international studies are rich with Indian cases.

Japan was a comparative new comer in the field. Also, because a variety of cases were visible in Japan countries, but had so far received little attention from researchers. Literature provides that SE are influenced by national culture. Studies show that India's national culture is more encouraging towards formation of SE than Japan.

## **National Cultural influence on Social Entrepreneurship: Hofstede (Kedmenec, 2015)**

A study conducted with secondary data from 40 countries on SE formation and comparing it with the different parameters of Hofstede index, it was observed on the basis of correlation analysis that was controlled for the countries' level of economic development, there appears to be a negative association between the national power distance level and social entrepreneurial activity. The power distance measure for India is 77 and that of Japan is 54, which explains the higher power distance in India may have an influence of formation of more inequalities between castes and classes. As a result, the social divide being wider resource sharing is unequal. Thus, consequent social problems may call for SE formation. Again, Waldman et al. (2006)

showed that cultures with stronger power distance values may encourage managers to show very little concern for stakeholders such as employees, environmentalists and customers.

In addition, power distance is strongly negatively associated to the level of innovation (Rinne, Steel, & Fairweather, 2012). Since one of the distinguishing characteristics of social entrepreneurship is innovation (Lepoutre et al., 2011), it may be argued that power distance influences social entrepreneurship through different channels, including both tolerance of social inequality level and innovation acceptance level. In factor-driven economies, like India, lower levels of masculinity appear to support the development of social entrepreneurship. The score of India on the masculinity scale is 56 in comparison to 95 of Japan, which substantiates the findings that India is a home to SE more than Japan. (Kedmenec, 2015)

## **National Context of Case Studies**

Prior to discussing each organization and entrepreneur in the case studies, a brief overview of the national context and the emergence of social entrepreneurship within it will frame the discussion and provide a deeper understanding for why the particular issues addressed by each entrepreneur are important.

### **India**

The origins of social entrepreneurship, in the Indian context may be traced to philanthropy of kings, which reinforced the gap of the haves and have-nots by the rulers providing social solutions with the tax payers' money. Post-independence, this has probably been the root of the Indian mindset of presuming that the state is responsible for providing solutions to social problems. As the country developed, inequality did not decrease, on the contrary, caste and class distinction continued to persist and exacerbate social inequalities. The areas that remained unaddressed by the state sector, were taken up by missionaries (especially in the field of education and health) and also gave rise to the non-government sector. These have been donor aid dependant and few were ever self-sustainable.

Both of these organisational types, NGOs and missionaries, had a parallel agenda besides social development, which could be traced to the source of funds. Missionaries were preachers of a religious sect and had other agendas in addition to development. NGOs were set up by the wealthy, foundations, which were mostly run by elite families, businesses as a philanthropic arm, foreign funding agencies, or even political parties. Some may have charitable status, while others may be registered for tax exemption based on recognition of social purposes, some others may be fronts for political, religious or other interest groups. Though it will be improper to generalise because India also pioneered the social entrepreneurship model in illustrious activities of Vinoba Bhave, founder of the land gift movement, and many such noble individuals. However, the NGO sector in India has remained the primary organ for social impact and

development work.

The rationale behind the existence and functioning of NGOs has been cause of much debate. Some have questioned the role of state: what is the reason for the NGO sector to provide the welfare that the state is responsible for? Civil society has on the other hand sometimes appreciated the role of NGOs acting along with the government sector, just facilitating the reach of the state resources and ensuring there are no slips in the delivery channel. The NGOs have often played the role of the vocal conscience in public policy discourse. Another view criticising the development NGOs is that they are dependent on foreign funds for support and on the government specifically in the issues of approvals, control-reporting in order to get public appreciation and acceptance (Kilby, 2011).

There is also a view that NGOs, often have had problems with accountability to their funding agency or their internal and external stakeholders. Their short-term vision and project based activities have deprived the NGOs of strategic growth, professional management and succession planning, thus their lives have been short and often faced a natural death after a very enterprising founders demise. (Lissner 1977; Brown and Kalegaonkar 2002). These weaknesses, Brown and Kalegaonkar argue, lead to a demand for the development of specialist support organizations that share NGO values but whose primary task is to “...provide services that strengthen the capacities of [NGOs] to accomplish their mission” (Brown and Kalegaonkar 2002).

## **Japan**

Generally speaking, younger Japanese people aim to work in the national and/or local government nowadays. However, during 1960s, younger people contributed to establishment of newer companies. During bubble economy in the late 1980s, real estate companies expanded their businesses and resort facilities and service industries developed.

However, Japanese government regulated to establish new companies in 1990. Since 1990 (to 2003), when a new incorporated company established, minimum 10 million Yen required as capital stock (Okuya 2013: 2). In the 1990s, however, a lot of entrepreneurs still established IT companies despite the bubble economy of Japan has already gone. Despite depression, due to the contribution by entrepreneurs, IT business expanded in Japan.

Despite the deregulation of the capital stock for establishment of newer incorporated company since 2003, however, tendency of entrepreneurship is low in Japan now. AMWAY researched about entrepreneurship of young people in 2016 (AMWAY 2017). Age was 18 to 29 and the number of sample was 900 people in each country. According to this survey by AMWAY, percentage of people who are interesting in entrepreneur in India is 88%, 75% in the USA and 33% in Japan. The percentage of people who would like to be an entrepreneur is 22.0% in India, 17.0% in the USA and 7.3% in Japan.

On the other hand, volunteer activities became popular in younger Japanese people. In

1995, Hanshin-Awaji earthquake attacked Kobe, Osaka and other areas around western Japan. Especially Kobe was heavily damaged, and volunteers from all over Japan contributed to the recovery. To recover Kobe systematically, a lot of Non-Profitable Organizations (NPO) also established. When the East Japan earthquake attacked Miyagi, Fukushima, and Iwate prefectures in 2011, private companies were also supported NPOs for recovery.

To support volunteer activities sustainably, a lot of NPOs established in Japan as mentioned above. In 1998, NPO Act was initiated in Japan. In addition to disaster recovery, poverty reduction, child care, support for elderly people and other activities also added to these NPOs. However, many of NPOs in Japan were relatively small and relied on financial support from local governments. Due to the development of CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility), companies which already existed also support NPOs financially (Yokozuka 2007).

On the other hand, according to Sawamura and Arimoto (2013), the name of Social Entrepreneur (or Shakai Kigyouka) became popular in 2000s in Japan. NPO and social enterprise are not equal, however, some of the social entrepreneurs utilized NPO scheme as a start-up for his/her newer small business. Some of the NPO made successes financially and enlarged the business as de facto social enterprises.

Many of the social entrepreneurs in Japan start his/her business as a NPO. However, due to the delegation of incorporated company, some of the social entrepreneurs established beneficial Ltd directory. After 2003, establishment of incorporated company deregulated, and 10 million Yen capital stock is no longer existed.

Because of aging, social businesses related to elderly people are easily to be commercialized in Japan. On the other hand, demands for other generations are available. Despite tendency of entrepreneurship by Japanese younger people are low, some of the younger people mainly experiences to live overseas created new business which contribute overseas economically.

## **Methodology**

This study provides a comparative analysis of cases of social entrepreneurship that have been widely recognized as successful. We seek to identify patterns and regularities across these initiatives. It is a proposition-generating rather than a hypothesis testing approach to a complex and not yet well-understood topic.

Comparative analysis of cases has been used to generate new understanding of complex phenomena that involve long-term dynamics (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Yin, 1984). Case descriptions provide rich sources of information that enable recognition of unexpected patterns that might not be captured by more constrained methodologies. The cost of such richness is increased difficulty in making systematic comparisons and drawing unambiguous conclusions.

The selected cases have been widely regarded as successful social entrepreneurship on behalf of poor and marginalized communities; sufficiently described in available academically

published and non-published sources, internet resources, and interviews with organization members and informed observers. There are clearly some drawbacks to this sampling approach. Focusing on few successful cases rather than on a mixed group of successes and failures limits our capacity for comparison. But since this study makes no attempt at generalization or estimation, it doesn't appear to be a major constraint.

This paper rationalises the use of case study method, by suggesting that a case study approach should be considered when: the focus of the study is to answer “how” and “why” questions; (Yin 2003) and is used to accomplish something other than understanding a particular situation. It provides insight into an issue or helps to refine a theory. The case is of secondary interest; it plays a supportive role, facilitating our understanding of something else. The case is often looked at in depth, its contexts scrutinized, its ordinary activities detailed, and because it helps the researcher pursue the external interest. The case may or may not be seen as typical of other cases (Stake, 1995). The case studies used here have enabled development of propositions, which are also based in literature.

## **The illustrative cases**

### **Case 1: Planet Read**

Brij Kothari has set up PlanetRead, a non-profit engaged in Same Language Subtitling (SLS) and BookBox Inc, a for-profit social venture which produces children's animated stories in more than 25 languages.

#### **Innovation:**

The unusual aspect in this effort is to infuse reading practice into entertainment. The power of SLS lies in the fact that it is covertly educational. No extra time, transport, and money needs to be set aside, as reading becomes a home-based experience complementing other reading and literacy work. The most cost-effective part is the creation of a technological tool devoid of any major infrastructural inputs and hence easily replicable. SLS refers to subtitles on film song programs, in the “same” language as the audio. Thus, Hindi (regional Indian language) programs are subtitled in Hindi, Tamil (regional Indian language) programs in Tamil, and so on in every vernacular. The basic idea is, what you see (text) is what you hear (audio), and the two reinforce each other.

#### **Operation:**

The project has introduced Same Language Subtitling (SLS) program to make reading practice an incidental, automatic, and subconscious part of popular TV entertainment, at a low per-person cost. Approach uses television to introduce reading practice in a non-intrusive manner. The subtitles are simply hitched on to the regular programming by the state-owned television channel. Since the technical cost is very low and SLS can be implemented nationally without any additional infrastructure associated with schools.

**Leveraged Asset:**

The SLS leveraged the ubiquitous presence of television in rural India and the billion-strong Indian population's voracious appetite for film songs. Kothari has identified that a love for film songs is one thing common to all Indians.

**Outcome:**

SLS achieves three different objectives for three different populations: subconscious reading practice for millions of early-literates, motivation for non-literates to become literate, and enhanced entertainment for literates. Songs subtitled in the same language as the audio, subtly motivate the non-and early-literates to rapidly improve their reading skills.

**Replicable and scalable:**

This strategy is not limited to improving literacy through popular culture or animated books—it may be used for subtitled folk song recordings to spread social awareness messages on issues such as women's health, human rights, sustainable agriculture, etc. These programs are more interactive and hook the viewers through contests; helping them to thoroughly imbibe the social message.

**Collaborators:**

Sir Ratan Tata Trust, Development Marketplace (World Bank), Google Foundation and Dell Giving have, over the years, given sizable grants to advance SLS operations, research and policy advocacy. National television channel has been an important partner allowing SLS on its song-based programmers.

**Case 2: ZMQ Software Systems**

Hilmi Quraishi is co-founder and the Chief Learning Technology Officer of his organization ZMQ Software Systems, incorporated in 1999. ZMQ Software Systems is a "Technology for Development" social enterprise, which designs and implements mobile technology solutions to empower BoP (Bottom-of-the-Pyramid) and enable sustainable development.

**Innovation:**

ZMQ's innovation lies in using entertaining games and messages to disseminate important public health and social communications and in linking these games to mobile phones that are widely used in Indian society. The idea is relevant to generations of youth not only as technology, but that it incorporates sensitive interactive messages contextually adapted for culture, religion, regional needs, and social moves, through mobile text messages and games.

**Operation:**

The systems pioneered by ZMQ use mobile technology to promote health and safety, increase access to health services, and influence behaviour-change for the rural communities, and reaches out to the last mile by developing solutions for grass-root, under-privileged, semi-literate, and marginalized communities through text messages (SMS).

The project uses mobile telephones, considered to be more powerful than television and



radio, as the medium to inform and educate people about health initiatives and awareness issues. In addition to text messages, mobile games are designed as simple to operate, affordable, and are highly engaging, addictive, intellectually stimulating, adventurous, and appealing to a varied audience, addressing these issues of health and lifestyle in an entertaining and not sermonising way.

**Leveraged Asset:**

The initiative-use mobile telephones communication which has a wide reach and often touches areas where the primary school and health centre does not. In addition, SMS through mobile telephones are private and have a long shelf life, since it can be stored and then read by a user before it is deleted, unlike radio and television. The initiative capitalised on the high number of mobile users in India and leveraged existing human networks of village women.

**Outcome:**

Focussing on some of the key social issues like health, basic literacy (girl child education), skills development and livelihood generation, ZMQ through the Women Mobile Lifeline Channel project has created access for essential lifeline services like prenatal care and immunization to over 120,000 women in some parts of India. Using a mobile phone channel, these networks register women from rural and marginalised communities and share their medical profiles. This helps ZMQ assess individual needs and provide suitable and timely information.

**Replicable and Scalable:**

Using a mobile phone service provider as the vehicle, these networks have registered women from rural and marginalised communities and share their medical profiles in many Indian states. The possibilities of scaling up are ingrained in the idea that these low-end games will reach the maximum number of people in the developing world and may be used for dissemination of information on more wider issues like global warming, disaster management and leadership programs. Besides addressing the learning and training needs of the semi-literate masses for multi-lingual, multi-cultural, and multi-regional use, these mobile games can also address HIV/AIDS risk prone sections of society.

This expansion has been taken overseas to eastern and southern African countries such as Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Malawi, Mozambique, and Namibia. Game versions are available in three languages in Africa: English, Swahili, and Shen.

For further expansion, under a new initiative Mobile for All, Hilmi is advocating for “Universal Right to Connectivity” as a ‘Right to Life’, for delivering lifeline services that is disaster information, and emergency services to people especially unreached, under-privileged, rural and women.

**Collaborators:**

To ensure sustainability of the project, it collaborates with the National AIDS Control Organization of India, Women Mobile Lifeline Channel program, Confederation of India Industries (CII) to reach out to multi-faceted stakeholders.

### **Case 3: NPO Florence**

Mr. Hiroki Komazaki, as the CEO of NPO Florence, creates solutions for nursing of sick children. Florence, a Japanese social enterprise with annual turnover of US\$ 8 million and a staff of 324, has been generating social innovation through business to solve a social problem (Shibuya 2016). In 2004, Komazaki established NPO Florence which attends to the sick children of working parents (Nishida 2014) at affordable costs.

#### **Innovation:**

The objective of the NPO was providing support to children of working people, especially when the children are sick. It recognises the arduous challenge of working couples that is typical in Japanese society: both working and raising children. In Japan, 98% of regular nurseries or day care centers cannot take care of sick children. Even though there are few such facilities where parents may leave their sick children, the working mothers have to devote long hours to their jobs, which becomes difficult when the children are sick. Most Japanese companies do not allow parents to be absent from work in order to take care of them. And moreover, even if parents were allowed to leave work, they would not be treated fairly after coming back. With the number of nuclear families increasing, countless parents are now at a loss of where to leave their sick children. To sustain the income, Komazaki also introduced monthly membership fee, which is kind of medical insurance. His business is suitable for the families who have children and have succeeded mainly in Tokyo and surroundings (Yoon 2010). His other innovation is a day care service for children with disabilities.

#### **Operations:**

Nuclear families with double income are typical in Japan nowadays and employees in many of Japanese private companies are expected to serve long working hours. Usually, without national healthcare, medical facilities and services are very expensive Japan. To reduce such costs without compromising on the health of the children, Komazaki initiated a system to send nannies to customers (sick children who need medical support) and/or to send customers' children to nannies home.

#### **Leveraged asset:**

Hoikuen is childcare centres in Japanese. Governmental licenced childcare centres are called Kyoninka Hoikuen, however, shortage of these facilities is serious problem in Japan.

To address the problem of children on waiting lists for day care, Florence started Ouchi Hoikuen (daycare house), a small-scale daycare business using vacant houses, in 2010, which has grown to operate nine daycares in Tokyo. This initiative has been adopted by the Japanese government as a measure to reduce the number of children on waiting lists (JFS 2013).

#### **Replicable and scalable:**

Komazaki's vision is to create "a society where all parents can successfully work and raise children by providing them trustful nursing and caring." Honoring his achievements, he received "Prime Minister Encouragement Award" in June of 2006, as well as the "Social Venture

Business Award” from the Microsoft.

Aiming to help create a society where balancing child-raising and work is common practice, the grand prize winner, Florence, was the first in Japan, since 2005, to provide a care service for sick children. It not only sends nursing staff to the homes of children who have come down with a sudden fever or other sickness to provide childcare on a one-on-one basis, but also takes sick children to their doctors on behalf of their parents or even, in the 23 wards in Tokyo and cities of Kawasaki and Yokoyama in Kanagawa Prefecture, dispatches doctors to the children’s home. Florence currently provides support to about 2,000 working families in 23 wards and four cities in Tokyo, Kawasaki, and Yokohama cities in Kanagawa Prefecture, and Urayasu and Ichikawa cities in Chiba Prefecture (JFS 2013).

#### **Collaborators:**

After Hanshin-Awaji earthquake, volunteer activities became popular in Japanese people. According to Shibuya (2016), the volunteer efforts are the most important support in running this Florence nursery successfully. Truly a case of social entrepreneurship may be cited here. The concept of collaboration and not competition was faced by Komazaki. He failed in launching his first start-up in 2004. In Japan, opening a nursery facility as Kyoninka Hoikuen requires local government approval. But without local government support, he needed to create a new business model that would not rely on government approval. Then, he created subsidies: non-facility-based or home-based sick child care service (Shibuya 2016).

When his (Komazaki’s) project was under preparation and closer to being launched, government officials from the Ministry of Health and Labor visited Komazaki, asking about his business. Two months later, the newspaper reported that the government would start an “Emergency Support Network Project,” basically copying the model conceived by Komazaki. This was damaging in spirit for the young entrepreneur. But Ishikawa – his mentor; the founder of Yawaragi, a non-profit pioneer in elder care insurance, advised him that letting others copy an idea is precisely the way to generate systemic change: the spirit of replicability (Shibuya 2016).

By 2007, three years after it launched, Florence was operating as a profitable business with US\$760,000 revenue and US\$50,000 profits (Shibuya 2016). This left a valuable lesson: the membership revenue-based model promoted by Florence was the pillar of financial sustainability that is the mantra of SE is not a mere rhetoric. This is how an SE is different from a non-profit and Florence substantiated the fact.

#### **Case 4: Katariba**

Though society changes rapidly, official education system in Japan does not change very often is unable to reflect the truth of the society. To connect younger students and changing real world, Ms. Kumi Imamura and her colleagues establish NPO Katariba as a talk space for children in 2001. Like East Japan earthquake, Japan often suffers natural disasters. With supports from other companies, Katariba established support schools all over Japan especially around

disaster places, with a special focus on education relating to life. As the beneficiaries are mainly younger students, revenue is raised from membership fees, events revenue, donation from CSR oriented companies and universities (Chushou Kigyou Shindan Kyoukai 2011).

As head of Tokyo-based non-profit organization Katariba, which offers educational programs for high school students, Imamura decided to establish after-school facilities in Tohoku where disaster-hit students from elementary to high school age could study and pursue their dreams.

In April 2011, about a month after the deadly earthquake and tsunami wreaked havoc on the region, Imamura headed north in search of ways to provide aid to the survivors. Reconstruction was a priority amid the destruction, but she realized there was also a vital, immediate need to re-establish a meaningful educational environment (Osumi 2015).

**Innovation:**

Despite the tendency of entrepreneurship is low in Japan now, according to Osumi (2015), Imamura was always puzzled by the apparent lack of ambition among youths (Osumi 2015). To be able to create a possible bright future, Imamura has been performing various education activities.

Children in Japan are busy preparing for exams to enter high schools and colleges, with emphasis on rote memorization. Feeling that the existing educational methods were dulling children's motivation, she (Imamura) lamented that many young people, regardless of the availability of educational resources, fail to broaden their visions for the future. She wanted to provide children with an opportunity to widen their perspectives, to utilize their potential while they are still young and creative.

Katariba is described as a "place of sharing," an opportunity given to high school students to discuss their concerns and listen to the failure stories shared by volunteer university students. Since there is not a large age difference between high school and university students, teenagers can confide in and be counselled by their senior guides as role models (Osumi 2015).

**Operations:**

According to Osumi (2015), Katariba's workshops include classes where college and university students share their experiences. These volunteer staff visits schools and provides career learning programs for younger students. Katariba has other programs which aim students to make career choices through organizing company tours or other events, where students can learn about work life. (Osumi 2015)

The group (Katariba) gets financial support from the central government and local municipalities and runs primarily on donations from individuals and companies that support its ideas. Monthly fees are paid by participants at its Tohoku facilities. In the past 14 years, as many as 180,000 students at around 1,000 high schools nationwide have participated in the Katariba program (Osumi 2015).

**Collaborators:**

The major collaborators of this SE are children and young adults who have direct

understanding about natural calamities and how their lives have been totally shattered by such incidents. The available published records give many examples. A notable one cites: of Yusaku Yoshida, a high school student who seemed “withdrawn and traumatized” after witnessing so many people being swept away by the giant waves. Yoshida has put up a wooden monument on a hill in Otsuchi town on March 11, so the memory will forever remain of the tsunami (Japan Times 2013). As Imamura met other young people during her visit, she became determined to reduce their suffering and help them find the motivation and strength to survive (Osumi 2015).

**Replicable and scalable:**

Imamura established the NPO’s after-school “collaboration schools,” in Onagawa-cho in Miyagi Prefecture, Otsuchi-cho in Iwate Prefecture, Mashiki-machi in Kumamoto Prefecture (suffered from earthquake in 2016) and Futaba-gun in Fukushima Prefecture (Tokyo Metropolitan Volunteerism Navigation Website, n.d.). These schools provide academic and psychological support to children. The facilities help students with their studies, offer project-based workshops and, most importantly, provide mental care to help them deal with their trauma and sorrow (Osumi 2015).

In the initial stage, the Onagawa facility actually became a temporary school for children whose schools had been swept away by tsunami. The second facility was established in Otsuchi, Iwate Prefecture, in December 2011. Through collaboration with local authorities and volunteers willing to help children rebuild their confidence, the schools also engage students in project-based studies to solve social issues in their communities.

What started as a program with only two staff members, including herself, Katariba has grown to an NPO with a staff of 89, including interns, with four regional offices on top of the two Tohoku facilities it runs.

Even before the March 2011 disasters, Imamura’s activities had been recognized by several awards, including Nikkei Woman magazine’s Woman of the Year award in 2008 and the government’s Challenge Award for Women in 2009. In 2014, she won the Nikkei Social Initiative Award for her project in Tohoku.

Through the Katariba program and Tohoku project, Imamura has noticed that a lack of educational opportunities, especially in disaster-hit areas, does not necessarily play a pivotal role in underachievement. She pointed out that even many of those children who have easy access to various resources often find little to stimulate them to acquire or use their knowledge (Osumi 2015).

## **Discussion**

The stories told in these cases show strong evidence of how innovations focus on improving the lives of poor and excluded groups. What is striking, however, is how much of the success can be traced to the ability of the SE on mobilizing existing assets of the country, rather than

delivering services. It also suggests that building upon the existing assets and creating multi-faceted use of unutilized assets often supplement the need for capital of SE. Thus, in the succeeding discussion we have briefly described the extent to which the initiative focused on helping people use their existing network of assets, be it technological or philosophical (television broadcast and mobile technology and encouraging stakeholder volunteerism and stepping in where the state fails), to address basic constraints of everyday life.

Mobilizing existing assets in a manner that is required by these initiatives. Some focus on organizing village people and organisations (like in case of using the SHG and Asha for ZMQ), urban people (like in Florence) and the available resources (urban spaces) and technological network (television and mobile telephone coverage) resources to solve local problems. To a large extent, however, they all use the existing assets and capacities of the private sector or the state for the sustenance, expansion in scope and scale of innovative solutions to address the needs of the underserved groups as vital to the development initiative. The study has led to the suggestions of certain propositions that may enable the interested reader to form an opinion about the phenomenon of Social Entrepreneurship, till more definitions emerge from theory and practice.

To initiate this discussion on innovative actions for a social mission we submit the profiles of the social entrepreneurs behind the four cases studies discussed here. The underlying idea is to place before the reader the presumption that these four brave hearts, chose to be of service to society, with qualifications and trainings that could have fuelled their extrinsic motivations in more fruitful ways.

Brij Kothari was schooled in Sri Aurobindo International Centre of Education (SAICE) in Pondicherry. He is an alumnus of IIT Kanpur, and did his Ph.D. from Cornell University. Hilmi has a Master's degree in Computer Engineering with specialization in educational technology and human performance solutions from Georgian Technical University.

Hiroki Komazaki was born in Tokyo in 1979, Komazaki entered Keio University in 1999, and during his studies he joined Neuron Company as a co-manager in 2001, and eventually took over as CEO. He resigned from the post when he graduated, and in 2004, founded NPO Florence.

The Katariba program, which became the basis of Imamura's Tohoku initiative, goes back to her university years in Tokyo. She grew up in rural Gifu Prefecture and unlike many of her classmates and other young people in the area, she decided to step out of her comfort zone to leave her hometown for Tokyo to enter Keio University. There, she developed the opportunity to learn to analyze and solve problems independently.

Their education grounded in schools of their own country and thereafter in the entrepreneurial academic institutions of the world, probably developed in them the mind set to look beyond the books, scans for solutions within the system and develop grass root level movements.

The case studies analysed here have led us to develop propositions, which have not

been theorised but may lead to avenues for generalization. At the same time the case studies have been dragonised to find the nature, breadth and depth of problems that the Social Entrepreneurs aim to solve, are they policy issues that effect the whole world? Or are they some local problem, specific to a community, or somewhere in between?

## **Social Entrepreneurships solve local problems and generate cooperation among stakeholders**

That SE solves local problems is a well-established fact. However the proposition inferred here paves the way for engagement of stakeholders that may enable the SE to have a more sustainable future.

The local problems that may be found to have been addressed in these case studies are the discontinued reading habits of school drop outs (Planet Read), lack of awareness and absence of monitoring of health issues, with special reference to maternal and child health and AIDS (ZMQ), imbalanced school education (Katariba) and uncared for sick children (Florence), some of the problems may appear to be a routine social malady like that of unrelated school curriculum, school drop outs, long hours at work, unawareness caused health disorder among women.

It may also be inferred here, in the light of the case studies discussed here the SE engage the stakeholders at local levels to plant the seeds of local bondings. In case of Planet Read the involvement of different stakeholders, be it illiterate who would be motivated to learn the alphabet, semi literates who may have lost touch with their reading habits and the literates who would form the movement of watching television programmes and reading at the same time. The covert objective of combining entertainment with education would be achieved through peer involvement and motivation.

In case of ZMQ it may be suggested that the involvement of local health workers appointed by the state in the data collection about pregnant mothers and new borns who would be alerted, reminded and counselled to take up healthy practices is a major stride towards a grass root level movement that is brought about by the Social Entrepreneur's innovative initiatives. The operations of Florence not only provide medical support services to the sick children but also help the parents with long working hours build a network, who can share not only information about nursing and medical services but also promote ways to improve mental health of their children.

In case of Katariba, the children in disaster hit areas are provided a platform to share not only new life skill learnings but also common problems that any trauma may create. The resulting network of students from different areas but victims of natural disasters would give them a shared understanding that will help them support each other in future. Therefore it may be said that it has not only given rise to a social movement but has actually made use of

the already existing bonds that such community movements strengthen.

## **Successful social entrepreneurship uses unique ways of that channelizing existing assets and network of the community**

Innovative thoughts to address common problems in everyday life have been the core of each of the four case studies discussed here. Innovative actions have been taken up by Planet Read using Same Language Subtitling, ZMQ using low cost mobile messaging, Florence using medical services at door step of sick children, and Katariba setting up schools in disaster hit areas. The assumption is that existing assets within the community or the country can be organised to drive the solution to a problem by identifying and mobilising existing (but often unrecognised) assets, thereby responding to and creating an opportunity. The idea SLS has reached a wide audience only because national television was mobilised to broadcast the film songs with SLS, cashing on the very simple entertainment and attraction of Indians to film songs.

At the same time, the use of ZMQ designed software for mobile technology was targeted to meet the needs of women and children's health only by the use of two existing networks: one technological and the other human. Besides the health Care centre workers who recorded the recipients of the mobile messages, the highly penetrative mobile signal network of the VSNL was also put the use. In case of Florence empty urban properties were put to use for setting up day care centres, and in Katariba the University students formed the existing network which was tapped to educate, counsel and provide educational and mental support for the younger children.

As a result it may be observed that the network of the community, the enthusiasm of the volunteers, the technological network of the television programmes may be believed that these lead to the second proposition which states that in order to expand in scale and form, ensure sustainability the Social entrepreneur will have to collaborate with other actors and stakeholders.

## **Conclusion**

Social entrepreneurship has been a topic of research for the last decade but not much scholarly output has appeared in mainstream management and entrepreneurship journals, more so in combined study of two different countries of varied economic, socio-cultural and philosophical standing. It has been observed that the available literature includes mostly conceptual articles outnumber empirical studies, and empirical studies leading to models substantiating formal hypotheses are few. This is no exception; we submit it as a limitation of the study.

This research has sought to identify common patterns across a small set of successful social entrepreneurship initiatives in India and Japan. The information suggests several patterns, which we have framed as premise that can enable further theorization on Social



entrepreneurship. The two general observations, presented in this paper as propositions and are important to further learning about social entrepreneurship and social transformation.

Social entrepreneurship, as an academic discipline is a nascent area in this part of the world. Most research efforts in this field, to date, have been focused on individual case studies and based in the NGO sector or public sector domains, wherein sustainability has not been a key criteria. As a nascent research stream, it suffers from issues common to early strategic management and entrepreneurship research, such as lack of construct legitimacy and undefined theoretical content and boundaries. This strength of this paper lies in the fact that the propositions generated are leads for sustainability of the social enterprises. Such studies will, hopefully enable academia in order to improve generalized understanding and theory building.

Sustainability has been an important constraint in the social enterprises of both the western world and Asia. Since standardised business models with a financial focus are not readily available in practice and for replicability purposes the two propositions generated here suggest the organisational structures for growth, spread and sustainability of social enterprises. The argument is that SE in their attempt to address local problems are not always adopting a very lucrative financial model but are designing business models supported by local organisations (people) and local resources (as an alternate to capital). Therefore since SE operate in the segment where market economics is always not successful, these cases are able to reiterate that existing unutilised resources (be it in the public or private sector) and network of stakeholders effectively substantiate for the low capital base of the SE.

It may not be possible for the SE to attract financial capital for a product or service which does not generate returns immediately, yet creates long term societal benefit. In such cases the direct stakeholders of the issue may often pool in unutilised resources, skills that would not be exhausted by using for the SE and support that will generate mutual returns. Therefore using the four case studies the authors posit that the SE cited here have not been cushioned with high capital but have effectively straddled the available neighbouring resources to identify the immediate social challenge that requires attention.

Alongside the SE has been able to use technological resources in case of Planet Read and ZMQ to address this challenge. Since the network of beneficiaries used to publicise the service, it easily found acceptance and funding. Along similar lines, in case of Florence the felt need of society was identified and the unique business model generated ensured that a network of medical service providers formed the support system, which the state or society did not provide. Katariba, attempted to bring meaningful education to the children who were otherwise deprived, in a novel way of bringing University student volunteers, where in an almost peer level mentoring system was generated and a network of students emerge.

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