



Evangelische Hochschule
Darmstadt

University of Applied Sciences
eh-darmstadt.de

Björn Schmitz und Andreas Schröder

How Giants Learn to Dance: Towards Conceptualizing the Social Intrapreneur

Arbeitspapiere aus der
Evangelischen Hochschule Darmstadt
Nr. 21 – Juli 2016
ISSN 2193-6501

Impressum

Evangelische Hochschule Darmstadt
University of Applied Sciences
Zweifalltorweg 12
64293 Darmstadt

Telefon: +49 (0)6151 8798-0

E-Mail: forschung@eh-darmstadt.de

Internet: www.eh-darmstadt.de/forschung

Redaktion: Verena Kümmel

ISSN 2193-6501

Intro	1
1. Social Intrapreneurship: Status quo in research and practice	1
2. Tracing the social intrapreneur	3
2.1 Social Innovation	3
2.2 Social Entrepreneurship.....	5
2.3 (Corporate Social) Intrapreneur	6
3. Constructing the (nonprofit) social interpreneur	8
4. Discussion.....	14
5. Conclusion	17
6. References.....	18
Abstract.....	24

„Not all innovations come from new organizations. Many come from existing organizations learning to renew themselves“
(Mulgan et al. 2007: 16).

INTRO

One important role of nonprofit organizations in welfare states is to innovate (Anheier 2005). Given their flexibility compared to governments, nonprofit organizations are able to experiment and develop services for social needs (Hammack and Young 1983). In the last two decades the role of social innovators was mostly ascribed to social entrepreneurs, who create new organizations which act as change agent of the social sector. But innovation in the field of social services in traditional welfare states such as Germany also depends upon the ability of big and established social welfare organizations to overcome inertia and to engage in entrepreneurial processes. However “much social innovation research has explored the entrepreneurial establishment of new social organizations, much less is known about the ability of already established organizations to innovate continuously” (Seelos and Mair 2012: 5). Based on the literature on social innovation, social entrepreneurship and corporate social entrepreneurship, this paper explores the role of entrepreneurs within organizations, who support organizations in creating social innovation. This paper argues to strengthen entrepreneurial perspectives on innovation in mature organizations, and to understand the creation of new practices or new business models as entrepreneurial practice ‘within’. Our research results in an indicator-based characterization of social intrapreneurs as individual “innovators” within existing organizations.¹

1. SOCIAL INTRAPRENEURSHIP: STATUS QUO IN RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Intrapreneurship is a well-researched topic in the for-profit sector. The initial research in intrapreneurship focused on the formation of new ventures by existing corporations, and the focus on the entrepreneurial individual inside a corporation — this focus was then extended to include entrepreneurial characteristics at the organizational level. According to Antoncic and Hisrich (2003) intrapreneurship research has centered on three main topics. The first topic is the individual intrapreneur (Souder 1981; Luchsinger and Bagby 1987; Ross 1987; Lessem 1988; Knight 1989; McKinney and

¹ This paper was presented at the International Society for Third Sector Research Conference Münster (Germany) in July 2014

McKinney 1989; Jones and Butler 1992; Jennings et al. 1994), emphasizing the intrapreneur's individual characteristics, as well as the entrepreneurs recognition and support in organizations. The second topic has been the formation of new corporate ventures (Hlavacek and Thompson 1973; Cooper 1981; Fast and Pratt 1981; Hisrich and Peters 1984; MacMillan et al. 1984; Szypersky and Klandt 1984; Vesper 1984; Burgelman 1985; Carrier 1994; Krueger and Brazeal 1994), with an emphasis on different types of new ventures, their fit with the corporation, and their modes of enabling corporate internal environment.

The third topic is the entrepreneurial organization (Hanan 1976; Schollhammer 1981; Kanter 1984; Drucker 1985; Duncan et al. 1988; Rule and Irwin 1988; Stevenson and Jarillo 1990; Kuratko et al. 1993; Stopford and Baden-Fuller 1994; Muzyka et al. 1995, Birkinshaw 2000), which mainly emphasizes characteristics of such organizations. Stopford and Baden-Fuller (1994) for example identify three types of corporate entrepreneurship. One is the creation of new ventures within an existing organization. Another is associated with the creation of new organizational routines and procedures. The third type is called frame-breaking change, i.e. when the changes in one organization change the rules of competition within that organization's industry or field. Whereas Birkinshaw (2000) differentiates between Corporate venturing and Intrapreneurship. Venturing is based on the assumption that entrepreneurship and management are fundamentally different processes that require different organizational modes to be effective. Therefore new initiatives are placed in a new venture division. Intrapreneurship is based on the assumption that all individuals in the company have the capacity for both managerial and entrepreneurial acts. The entrepreneurial capability is driven by the actors' personal involvement and dispersed throughout the organization.

Although it can be argued that the characteristics of intrapreneurs depend upon the type of entrepreneurial organization or the kind of formation of a new corporate venture, it still seems possible to identify a few core characteristics of intrapreneurs in the business administration literature (for an extensive list see Antoncic and Hisrich 2003). Those are the capability to create new products (Miller and Friesen 1983), and services (Schollhammer 1981), to create innovation in production procedures and techniques (Covin and Slevin 1991), the capability of self-renewal in the sense of strategy reformulation and organizational change (Vesper 1984), risk-taking (Lumpkin and Dess 1996), pro-activeness as pioneering and initiative taking (Stopford and Baden Fuller 1994) and competitive aggressiveness (Miller 1987).

Overall the business administration literature identifies two types of intrapreneurship:

a) adaptation of general entrepreneurial attitudes within inert or bureaucratic organizations; b) the implementation of start-up practices (such as business model generation) within large organizations.

In comparison to the business administration literature on intrapreneurship, little is known about the specifics of intrapreneurship in the nonprofit sector (Zimmermann 1999). This paper intends to start filling this gap by consulting with three neighboring discourses. First we will screen the social innovation literature in order to find references on specific characteristics of actors which drive social innovation. Second we canvass the literature on social entrepreneurship for cues on the specific characteristics of entrepreneurs within nonprofit organizations. Finally we review the literature on corporate social intrapreneurship.

2. TRACING THE SOCIAL INTRAPRENEUR

Social Innovation theory qualifies the “social” in innovative processes, which helps to distinguish the specifics of intrapreneurship in social or nonprofit organizations. Entrepreneurship theory identifies the intrapreneur in innovation processes as individual actor involved in the daily operations of an organization. Corporate social intrapreneurship theory on the other hand, describes shared-value oriented innovators in the corporate world as counterparts to our group of interest, the nonprofit social intrapreneurs.

2.1 SOCIAL INNOVATION

The literature on social innovation rarely is about describing the social innovator, it rather explains why social innovations are important, need more funding or includes definitions (Mulgan 2012; Nicholls and Murdoch 2012). As enabling conditions, environmental factors as well as organizational features are discussed (Schmitz et al., 2013). The unit of analysis in social innovation research is the organization or the innovation itself as an object. A single person, the social innovator, is rarely mentioned directly (for an exception see Mulgan 2006). Drivers of social innovation are often social entrepreneurs or social intrapreneurs (see below). Nevertheless from rare descriptions of social innovators and the descriptions on enabling conditions for social innovation we derive some characteristics of social innovators.

Mulgan (2006) emphasizes several characteristics of social innovators, such as persistence in striving for the goals, dedication to social change, in combination with empathy regarding a social group in need. “They are often good at talking and

listening, digging below the surface to understand peoples' needs and dislocations, dissatisfactions, and blockages [...]" (Mulgan 2006: 150). Furthermore social innovators are highly motivated and impatient. They cannot wait for bureaucratic institutions like the government to react or even adopt their solutions (Mulgan 2006). Social innovators are connected to social movements and have a direct link to the community they address (Zald 2004; Dees 1998; Mulgan 2006).

Mulgan et al. (2007: 11) differentiate between effective supply and effective demand conditions that enable social innovations. Characteristics of social innovators can be derived from effective supply conditions. Mulgan et al. state that it is necessary to match the innovation with the demand conditions. "Before ideas have any chance of being put into practice, they need to be developed and evolved. Most ideas begin half-formed and imperfect and it is rare for the first version of an innovation to be the one that ultimately achieves success" (Mulgan et al. 2007: 13). Thus, it needs skills to continuously develop an idea with a consequent focus on actual demand and stakeholder interest. Successful innovators need to be engaged with others and keep up the dialogue with them. As a consequence, communication skills, networking skills and persuasive power are ingredients of social innovators.

Another emphasis on necessity of networks and openness for generating innovations is the distinction between various enabling conditions, such as liquid networks, slow hunches, serendipity, noise, exaptation and emergent platforms. Collaboration, broad networks (mainly with people of other fields) and openness for unusual ideas generate the new, not necessarily the one genius person. Dawsom and Daniel (2010: 16) find "collective idea generation, selection and implementation" to be important processes in the context of social innovation. These findings are well aligned with research results, which emphasize the general importance of collaboration in the social sector (e.g. Kasper and Clohesy 2008; Vernis et al. 2006).

Another reference point for characterizing social innovators is the design thinking approach. Brown (2009) emphasizes collective ownership of ideas in design thinking projects. Ideas need to be shared to generate something common in the collaborative process. Innovators need to be open and not restricted by constraints like feasibility and available resources. Thus, out of the box thinking is a necessity in design thinking processes what is most often challenging the deeply rooted habits of the participants. Other much mentioned skills include empathy, value diverse perspectives, learning from failure, research skills and the ability to implement (Curedale 2013).

2.2 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Until today there is no common definition of social entrepreneurship (Mair and Martí 2006; Hill et al. 2010). While some authors focus on the impacts of social entrepreneurs (Alvord et al. 2006), others understand social entrepreneurship as a process (Mair and Marti 2006). Others critique the mystique of the concept, since its meaning seems to depend entirely on the person who is using the term. In addition to the multitude of definitions, the social entrepreneurship literature provides numerous personal characteristics of social entrepreneurs, the change agents of the social sector. According to Dees (2001) influential definition, a social entrepreneur has a social mission to create social value, recognizes and relentlessly pursues and exploits new opportunities, continuously innovates, adapts and learns, acts boldly and holds himself accountable to the community.

Pro-activeness, innovativeness and risk-taking are three core social entrepreneurial characteristics derived from the literature on entrepreneurship (Mort, Weerawardena and Carnegie 2003; Helm and Andersson 2010). Those three characterizations correlate with most of the traits mentioned in the literature, such as the entrepreneur's willingness to self-correct, to share credit, to break free of established structure, to cross disciplinary boundaries, work quietly and its strong ethical impetus (Bornstein 2004). Social entrepreneurs are relentless (Dees 2001) in pursuing their mission. Within this stream of research – characterized as the social innovation school (Dees and Anderson 2006; Defourny and Nyssens 2010) –, the social entrepreneur is described as a special breed or even a hero, which includes characteristics like leadership, ambition, persistence, opportunistic behavior, ethical fiber, resourcefulness, results-orientation, pragmatism, vision, passion, and risk-taking (Nicholls 2010).

Leadbeater (1997) also uses the research on entrepreneurship as reference point to define the social entrepreneur. For him, social entrepreneurs are entrepreneurs with a social goal orientation. They “identify a needs gap and a related opportunity – which they understand, inject imagination and vision into their answer, recruit and motivate others to the cause in question and build essential networks, secure the resources that are needed, overcome obstacles and challenges and handle the inherent risks, introduce proper systems for controlling the venture” (Thompson 2002).

Related to that, another heavily discussed characteristic in the entrepreneurial behavior literature as well as in the social enterprise school of thought (Nicholls 2010) is opportunity recognition and exploitation (Singh 2001; Shane and Venkataraman 2000). Opportunity recognition and exploitation is closely related to generating profits and seek for economic value. In terms of social entrepreneurship, economic value creation is at least supplemented by social value creation (Dees, Emerson and Economy 1998;

Emerson 2004). That means, that opportunities are not “exploited”, rather than explored and recognized “to create better social value for their clients” (Mort, Weerawardena and Carnegie 2003: 82) or to recalibrate an unjust equilibrium (Martin and Osberg 2007). Social entrepreneurs are characterized as navigators and negotiators in between different sectors (Young and Grinsfelder 2011; Alvord, Brown and Letts 2004).

In some of the literature this balance between social and economic value or behavioral elements is pushed aside by overrating economic means. Emphasized especially in the social enterprise rooted literature is the “use of business acumen to address social goals” (Crofts et al. 2003). Social entrepreneurs act business-like (Dart 2004) and seek for business solutions that solve social problems (e.g. Thompson and Doherty 2006). In more detail this business-like paradigm is described by characteristics like responsiveness, sustainability, scaling, earned income, and sustainability professional (Nicholls 2010).

In sum social entrepreneurship characteristics are broad and multifaceted. To get some grip on the main characteristics it needs some clusters or meta-analysis. E.g. Young and Grinsfelder (2011) distinguish between market skills, political skills and management skills to underline this point. Furthermore, there are some meta-analysis of social entrepreneurship definitions. Schmitz and Scheuerle (2012) analyzed the 30 most relevant definitions of social entrepreneurship. They found that 27 of them mention social goal orientation as a key followed by 17 mentioning innovativeness, 15 mentioning creating social change, 10 stressing effectiveness and improvements and 9 respectively mentioning entrepreneurial traits and entrepreneurial means as important in social entrepreneurship. Hill et al. (2010) conducted a broad literature review on social entrepreneurship, and came up with words and pairs most often found. But this review does not reveal the traits of the social entrepreneur as their attempt is also broader. Thus, what is missing is an analysis of social entrepreneurship traits across the body of literature available.

2.3 (CORPORATE SOCIAL) INTRAPRENEUR

The Term Social Intrapreneur is not new, but it is rarely used in the context of mature nonprofit organizations (see Schmitz and Scheuerle 2012 for an exception). More common is the term in the context of mature for-profit organizations that seek out for shared or blended value business opportunities. Social Intrapreneurs are defined as business innovators who integrate profitability and social value while working inside major organizations. Entrepreneurs and intrapreneurs are defined by “applying an entrepreneurial skill-set such as being innovative, proactive, action-oriented, creative,

and courageous to bring about an innovation. Also as they have to facilitate communication and interaction with sponsors, employees, customers and other stakeholders, social skills such as networking, emotional intelligence, working across sectors, boundary-spanning and leadership have been attributed to them” (Brenneke and Spitzeck 2010; see also Hemingway 2005; Moore and Westley 2009).

Pinchot (1985: ix) defines intrapreneurs as “‘dreamers who do’, those who take hands-on responsibility for creating innovation of any kind within an organization; they may be the creators or inventors but are always the dreamers who figure out how to turn an idea into a profitable reality”. Proactiveness, innovativeness, risk-taking and opportunity recognition are central in the body of literature on intrapreneurship (Schoenebeck 2010; De Jong and Wennekers 2008; Covin and Slevin 1991). Innovativeness is the skill of an individual to generate ideas and to realize products, services or processes from these. Risk-taking is the willingness of an individual to take and tolerate the risks associated with an innovative project. Proactiveness is the skill of individuals to explore opportunities and have the own motivation to use these (Lumpkin and Dess 1996). Lumpkin and Dess added autonomy and aggressive competitive orientation to this list. Hornsby et al. (1993) listed five individual characteristics in their intrapreneurship-model: risk-taking propensity, desire for autonomy, need for achievement, goal orientation, and internal locus of control.

In recent years the discourse on intrapreneurship is linked with sustainability issues. Pioneers in that field coined the term social intrapreneur (Grayson, MacLaren and Spitzeck 2011, Grayson, McLaren and Spitzeck 2014). These authors discuss social intrapreneurship within business corporations. Often these authors link their concept of social intrapreneurship with Porter and Kramer’s concept of shared value (Kramer 2011). To distinguish this stream of literature from social intrapreneurship within nonprofits we use the label ‘corporate social intrapreneurs’. For Grayson, MacLaren and Spitzeck (2011) a social intrapreneur is a “person within a large corporation who takes direct initiative for innovation(s) which addresses (address) social or environmental challenges profitably”.

Sustainability (2008: 27) published a field guide for social intrapreneurs that contains criteria of social intrapreneurs in comparison to social entrepreneurs. Both social entrepreneurs and social intrapreneurs “shrug off constraints of ideology or discipline, identify and apply practical solutions to social or environmental problems, innovate by finding a new product, service or approach to societal challenge, focus on societal value creation, jump in before they are fully resourced, have a dogged determination that pushes them to take risks, combine their passion for change with measurement and monitoring of impact, have a healthy impatience”. But additionally to social

entrepreneurs, social intrapreneurs “successfully navigate corporate culture, strategy and process, communicate social entrepreneurship in compelling business terms, build and inspire teams across a multiplicity of corporate divisions” (Sustainability 2008: 27). In addition to general collaboration skills, marketing and communication skills are also essential for social intrapreneurs as they have to “sell” their project to managers and peers (Grayson, McLaren and Spitzeck 2014). Apart from skills, Grayson, McLaren and Spitzeck (2014) also mention three behaviors that characterize social intrapreneurs: persistency and self-belief, learning and outreach. According to their analysis, social intrapreneurs are persistent in their striving to realize their ideas; they have straight learning orientation that includes learning from failure and reaching out to targeted communities and environments. Finally, Grayson, McLaren and Spitzeck (2014) look at how social innovators think: their mind-sets. They point out that nature and social experiences coin the mind-set of social intrapreneurs. They think in terms of shared value. “However, in contrast to many people working in the non-profit sector, social intrapreneurs are able to understand the business value of addressing societal issues and have overcome the dichotomy of either profit or societal value” (Grayson, McLaren and Spitzeck 2014: 79).

Interestingly, risk-taking as a characteristic is mentioned especially in the entrepreneurship literature, while even less prominent in the social entrepreneurship literature (Schmitz and Scheuerle 2012), has little importance in the literature on social intrapreneurship. Maybe this is due to the small risk employed social intrapreneurs having to bear in comparison to a social entrepreneur as an owner and manager of an organization. Social entrepreneurs run their organizations (Sustainability 2008). In short: There is also risk-taking necessary for the social intrapreneurs, as there is the potential for failure, but the individual financial risk is lower for a social intrapreneur being on the payroll of a mature organization commonly also after a failed social innovation attempt within the organization.

3. CONSTRUCTING THE (NONPROFIT) SOCIAL INTERPRENEUR

In the previous chapters we analyzed the literature regarding characteristics of social entrepreneurs, social innovators and corporate social intrapreneurs. The social entrepreneurship literature strongly emphasizes action orientation. Social entrepreneurs do things. In contrast, the social innovation literature is more concerned with relationships and networking skills. Social innovators are portrayed as relationship managers with corresponding communication skills. The corporate social intrapreneurship literature is situated between a shared value perspective and a still

more prevalent profit orientation. These actors revolutionize businesses from the inside by hybrid thinking, integrating social and ecological issues with economic value orientation.

While corporate social intrapreneurs are corporate innovators, who are taking on initiatives that do well for their companies and also do good for society, nonprofit social intrapreneurs are implementing entrepreneurial and start-up strategies in the nonprofit sector in order to improve their organizations with hybrid value models, cost saving innovation, increased efficiencies or the creation of business models for new social services.

According to our research interest in identifying (nonprofit) social intrapreneurs, the following table shows the characteristics distilled from the three analyzed bodies of literature (social entrepreneurship, social innovation and corporate social intrapreneurship). We sorted this list according to similarities between characteristics.

Characteristics	Social Entrepreneur	Social Innovator	Corporate Social Intrapreneur
Goal/Orientation/Direction			
Social Mission Orientation	+++	++	++
Social Value Creation	+++	++	++
Strive for the new			
Visionary	++	+	++
Innovative	+++	+++	+++
Acting against the odds	++	+++	
Willingness to learn	+++	++	++
Vibrant Character			
Dedication	+	++	++
Passionate	+		+
Impatient		++	
Motivated	+	++	++
Persistency	++	+++	++
Ambitious	+		
Risk-taking	+	+	++
Internal locus of control			+
Pro-Activeness	+++	+	+++
Opportunity recognition	+++		++
Action-oriented	++		++
Need for achievement			+
People Relations			
People oriented		+++	
Empathy		+++	
Communicative	+	+++	+++
Convincing		++	++
Listening		+++	+
Networking skills	+	+++	++
Ideas sharing	+	+++	+
Motivator	++		++
Collaborator		+++	++
Knowledge Relations			
Openness		+++	
Boundary-Crossing	++	++	++
Acting boldly	+++		+
Business-acumen			
Business-acumen	++		++
Resourceful	+		
Pragmatic	++		+
Results-oriented	++	+	++

Table 1: Comparing main characteristics of social entrepreneurs, social innovators, and corporate social intrapreneurs

Legend

- +++: Heavily emphasized in almost all of the literature
- ++: Strongly emphasized in most of the literature
- +: Mentioned in some literature or an aspect that can be indirectly derived from the descriptions given in the literature
- : Not mentioned in that stream of literature

The table shows six different clusters. Most action theory assumes that human action is goal oriented. All three streams of literature emphasize the social mission of social entrepreneurial action as its main goal. Thus this is our first cluster. Second, in all three strands of literature the innovativeness of actors is a main characteristic. Related to innovativeness are characteristics like visionary, acting against the odds and the willingness to learn. We named this cluster “Strive for the new”. The third cluster is called “vibrant character”. There are many characteristics (most of them traits) that describe a person that is passionate about what he or she is doing, that is very action-oriented and presents a very agile and relentless character. This cluster covers characteristics like dedication, passionate, impatient, motivated, persistency, ambitious, risk-taking, internal locus of control, pro-activeness, or action-orientation. This cluster counts the highest number of characteristics. But there is a strong variation in the appearance and relevance in the literature.

The fourth cluster is about people relations. Especially the literature on social innovators is emphasizing characteristics like empathy, communicative, convincing, listening, networking skills, ideas sharing, or collaborator. Talking, discussing and working with others is an essential ingredient for constructing the social intrapreneur. But not only relations between people are important. Also relations between different fields of knowledge are relevant. This reminds us of Schumpeter’s notion of recombining different elements in the process of innovation. This knowledge relations need openness from the actor as well as boundary-crossing and bold actions. Thus, the fifth cluster is about knowledge relations. The last cluster we build is called business-acumen. With little appearance and emphasis throughout the literature characteristics like resourceful, pragmatic, or results-oriented describe factual mind-sets and actions of businesswomen. This cluster is important to ground the visionary strive for the new. Interestingly, the characteristics of this cluster are less prominent in the social innovation literature.

In sum the literature review leads to the six clusters of indicators:

- (1) social goal orientation,
- (2) business acumen,
- (3) striving for the new,
- (4) vibrant character,
- (5) people relations, and
- (6) knowledge relations.

Those clusters show, not surprisingly so, big overlap with indicators for entrepreneurship. But we want to focus on the question, which characteristics are important for entrepreneurship within organizations. Therefore we draw from first

results of a small empirical study on fostering intrapreneurship, as well as some selected literature on change agency to highlight three important aspects:

- Commitment to the organization
- Having an outside perspective
- Dealing with resistance

In a community based research and development project, which created a social intrapreneurship incubator within an established nonprofit social service provider in Germany, we used the above mentioned characteristics for a selection process. Employees of the organizations were asked to apply to the incubator program with a new social service idea. The incubator program included ten workshops in one year to develop the idea to an entrepreneurial design and a business plan. The best business plans then are about to be implemented and become new business units of the nonprofit organization. Furthermore, the teams having written the business plan are designated to become the managers of this new business unit.

In the beginning we needed to select not only according to the profoundness of the ideas submitted but also on basis of the persons that applied. We tested the applicants in a one day assessment workshop and rated them according the criteria derived from the literature. There were four evaluators that observed the applicants and filled out an evaluation sheet containing the criteria, presented in a bipolar manner. 12 candidates were selected after that workshop. According to our view these are social intrapreneurs. During the process we conducted participative observations to improve our understanding of social intrapreneurship development as well as checking the appropriateness of our selection criteria.

During the incubator workshop program three social intrapreneurs quitted the program for different reasons. One person (A) was unable to participate any further due to health issues. Another social intrapreneur (B) revealed that the person felt unable to keep up with the speed and complexity of the process. Flexibility and willingness to work overtime were seen as problems, which challenges the program's initial evaluation of the candidate's vibrant character (need for achievement, dedication). The third person (C) leaving the program stated that he does not believe in the organization's willingness to really change and innovate, thus he lost confidence in the program as in the organization altogether. In the interview conducted with C after the decision to pull out of the lab, a lack of commitment and loyalty to the organization was missing in C's answers.

Furthermore, over all the participants we found that those committed to the organization performed best in the program. Interestingly, commitment to the organization is rarely mentioned in the intrapreneurship literature. But we found

commitment to be an important characteristic for intrapreneurship, otherwise, potential social intrapreneurs would not reveal their potential or leave the organization and realize their ideas elsewhere.

The second specific characteristic for entrepreneurs within stems from the change literature, particularly Debra Meyerson's concept of change agents of tempered radicals (Meyerson 1995, 2004). Due to their multiplicity of ties and their embeddedness in multiple institutional environments certain change agents are particularly effective. Their involvement in different institutional contexts and therefore the ongoing exposure to competing institutional logics, gives them an outsider perspective in their organization (Meyerson 2004). We think that this is an important characteristic, which also applies to intrapreneurship.

Another aspect of circumstantial influence on intrapreneurial behavior certainly is the resistance to change and innovation in organizations. Out of an exhaustive body of literature we can refer to Malek and Ilbach (2004) as proxies, who present several reasons why existing organizations find it hard to innovate, such as size of an organization, which makes it hard to keep an overview over all employees and activities within the organization; specialization and separation in organizations lead to focus on one's own topic but hinders communication with other departments; internal competition, which leads to knowledge silos instead of knowledge sharing; a culture of failure and rewards in existing organizations, which leads to fear losses in cases of innovation failure; dullness, which means to stay in one's habits and it is hard to change routines; and finally hierarchies, which lead to strict processes with less room for actions outside of daily duties.

Such organizational circumstances are challenges for social intrapreneurs and pose the question, how intrapreneurs can deal with them. We constructed the social intrapreneur as a vibrant personality with a high level of vitality and energy. Social intrapreneurs are driven to do things and to innovative in practice. They need to be able to learn and reflect on external circumstances as well as own habits and experiences, particularly given the obstructive circumstances in many organizations. One could argue that the competency of self-motivation and pro-activeness need to be even higher for intrapreneurs as in entrepreneurs in smaller start up organizations, since the latter are dealing with less internal resistance. This also stresses the necessity of intrapreneurial commitment to the organization. Commitment to the organization helps intrapreneurs to work with resistance and cultural barriers. Otherwise a "lack of support might cause the social intrapreneur to leave the

organization and try to sell the idea elsewhere“ (Grayson, McLaren and Spitzeck 2014: 21).

Thus we complemented commitment to the organization and the outsider-perspective to our model and we stress pro-activeness and convincing skills as elementary aspects of being able to deal with resistance. As a combination of the characteristics derived from the literature and our participative observations and experiences within a social incubator project we build the following social intrapreneur framework.

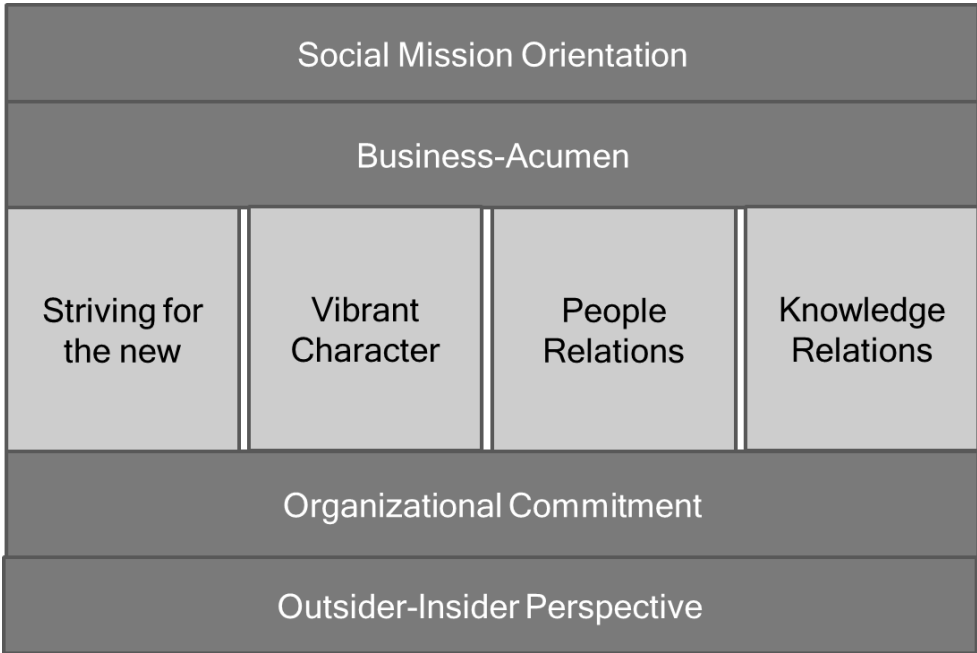


Figure 1: Social Intrapreneur Framework

4. DISCUSSION

Our research had several limitations. Our model is mostly based on a literature review. Its empirical testing is based on a small scale qualitative study, including participatory observation of the workshops and qualitative exit interviews, with participants leaving the program. Although the research team had intensive contact with the participant of the study, we only observed 24 individuals in the first phase of the project, after the first selection process 12 participants remained.

This paper builds the basis for future research, operatizing the seven clusters in a questionnaire, which can be used as an instrument to select intrapreneurs in nonprofit organizations. Such a selection questionnaire can be tested in quantitative ways more easily.

In our view on the debate on social entrepreneurship and social intrapreneurship, the term “social” remains somewhat ill-defined. The most consistent conceptualization can be found in the social innovation literature, which ties the social of the innovation to its connection to an existing social need and the public acknowledgement of this need as legitimate (Mulgan 2012). Both need-base and necessary legitimacy of this need as one that not the individual, but the society has to account for, seem to be valuable aspects of further attempts to conceptualize (nonprofit) social intrapreneurship.

However, the problem with defining the social part of social intrapreneurship by outputs or outcomes is that social intrapreneurship can only be detected after the fact. Schmitz (2014) argued that for a complete picture of the social, we also need to think of social processes and social inputs. In terms of inputs we need to reconsider the characteristics distilled from the literature for our framework. Some of these characteristics may appear in a different light when bringing them into the nonprofit context. E.g. opportunity exploitation, what is a characteristic central to entrepreneurship discourse, needs to be adopted because exploitation has the connotation to create profit maximization opportunities. In the context of social intrapreneurship, it needs to be framed in terms of social value maximization. Thus, opportunity recognition or opportunity detection in regard to social needs appears to be the right frame.

Another example might be risk-taking. Not so prominent in the social entrepreneurship and social intrapreneurship literature (Schmitz and Scheuerle 2012), risk-taking is also important in the context of social intrapreneurship but in different terms. Risk-taking in the entrepreneurship literature is more about financial risk and this risk is taken because of future high margin expectations. In the social intrapreneurship context, risk-taking is less about generating high margins in the future, and more about risks related to legitimacy issues. In case an innovative project fails (e.g. because the social value could not be generated), the organization has to account for the money spend on this endeavor to external stakeholders.

Finally it needs to be discussed if social intrapreneurship in nonprofit organizations can be construed as a phenomenon on the individual level. We agree with Dacin’s assessment that “...defining social entrepreneurship by individual-level characteristics and processes and activities will inevitably lead to yet more discussion and debate about what these characteristics should be; it is a debate which can never be resolved, because it is unlikely that a definitive set of characteristics can be applied to all kinds of social entrepreneurial activity across all contexts” (Dacin et al. 2010: 41). It is convincing that the decision to act as an intrapreneur „occurs as a result of an interaction between organizational characteristics, individual characteristics, and some

kind of precipitating event. The precipitating event provides the impetus to behave intrapreneurially when other conditions are conducive to such behavior (Hornsby et al. 1993: 33).

This argument is even stronger in the current literature on change agents. Battilana and Casciaro (2013: 64) demonstrate the importance of networks for change agents. In their research they found: “1. Change agents who were central in the organization’s informal network had a clear advantage, regardless of their position in the formal hierarchy. 2. People who bridged disconnected groups and individuals were more effective at implementing dramatic reforms, while those with cohesive networks were better at instituting minor changes. 3. Being close to “fence-sitters,” who were ambivalent about a change, was always beneficial. But close relationships with resisters were a doubleedged sword: Such ties helped change agents push through minor initiatives but hindered major change attempts.”

Another stream of literature contributes to the conceptualization of change agents, namely social movement theories. Zald and Berger (1978) demonstrated the similarities between change processes in organizations and those in social movements. However change in social movements is not conceptualized as planned or subject to managerial control (Kling 1995). Social movement theorists emphasize the important role of ‘organizers’, who have a strong network of people and are able to mobilize a critical mass of people to start collective action (Marwell et al. 1988). Networks and communities of practice are seen as important ways of mobilizing resources for change and to develop a shared vision for the change process and facilitate peer learning (Campell 2002). Leaders in social movements are most likely to create change, when they are able to frame conversations (Snow and Benford 1988), strategize (Fendrich 2003), mobilize and unite (Croteau and Hicks 2003). They also need to engage in storytelling (Kling 1995).

Battilana’s research and social movement theory strongly suggest a collective concept of change agent. Promoter of change in their perspective is not an individual alone, but a collective of individuals, who mobilize, lead and implement change by collective learning. This very same argument can be made for social intrapreneurs.

It was however our goal to contribute to the current management requirement to be able to identify individuals, who could take on entrepreneurial projects in existing nonprofit organizations. Although we are aware of the necessity to select teams with complementary characteristics, it still seemed necessary to identify overall characteristics of entrepreneurial individuals within organizations.

In the light of those arguments in favor of understanding intrapreneurship as collective phenomenon, it is worthwhile to propose to go beyond individual characteristics and

applying the practice turn in organization theory (Schatzki 2000) for future conceptualizations of intrapreneurship. Intrapreneurship could then be understood as collective practice instead of individual behavior. The term practice emphasizes that acts are situated in social and organizational contexts, and are relational by nature (Wilkinson 2010). Practice can be understood as consistent routine-based patterns of behavior, which are not tied to one individual.

5. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to develop a theory-based framework to identify social intrapreneurs in the nonprofit sector. Intrapreneurship literature shows that intrapreneurship is conceptualized as entrepreneurial behavior within existing organizations, which can refer to a more general adaptation of entrepreneurial attitudes and behaviors inside inert organizations or more specifically the implementation of start-up practices (business model generation) within large organizations.

Whereas much research exists on establishing new social entrepreneurial ventures little is known about continuous innovation in existing social service organizations. Since the focus of our analysis is on intrapreneurs, we wanted to understand the specifics of intrapreneurship in the nonprofit sector. Given scarce research in this field, we looked at three adjacent fields of research: social innovation, social entrepreneurship and corporate social intrapreneurship.

Social innovation literature describes the focus of innovators in actual demand or emerging social needs and the capacity of actors to connect to stakeholder interests. It also emphasized collective processes of idea generation or implementation. Intrapreneurship from a social innovation point of view occurs rather as a collective process.

Social entrepreneurship literature identifies innovative change agents in the social sector and emphasizes individual behaviors like innovativeness and opportunity recognition, which are often linked to personal traits such as an ethical fiber of the entrepreneur or her willingness to self-correct and learn. As common ground in the literature we find the necessary social goal orientation of social entrepreneurs.

Corporate social intrapreneurship literature describes shared value oriented innovators in the corporate sector and emphasizes entrepreneurial behaviors like pro-activeness, innovativeness, risk-taking and opportunity recognition. But the literature also points to the specific behaviors of people working within organizations, such as communicative skills persistency, self-belief and outreach, which are essential particularly in dealing with resistance in slowly changing organizations.

Derived from those three discourses and a small scale qualitative research project, we constructed a list of key intrapreneurial behavior or characteristics of social intrapreneurs for the nonprofit sector, which now awaits further empirical testing.

A next step in intrapreneurship research needs to be a conceptualization of social intrapreneurial teams, since social intrapreneurs are just one actor in an ensemble.

6. REFERENCES

- Alvord, S. H., Brown, L. D. & Letts, C. W. (2004). Social Entrepreneurship and Societal Transformation: An Exploratory Study. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 40(3): 260-282.
- Andersson, F. O. (2012). Social entrepreneurship as a fetish. In *Nonprofit Quarterly*, online available at: <https://nonprofitquarterly.org/2012/04/11/social-entrepreneurship-as-fetish-2/>.
- Anheier, H.K. (2005). *Nonprofit organizations. Theory, management, policy*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Antoncic, B. & Hisrich, R.D. (2003). Clarifying the intrapreneurship concept. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 10(1): 7-24.
- Birkinshaw, J. (2000). *Entrepreneurship in the Global Firm*, London: Sage.
- Brenneke, M. & Spitzeck, H., Social Intrapreneurship. Online available at: <http://www.eben.gr/site/Papers/Spitzeck%20Heiko%20Social%20Intrapreneurship.pdf>.
- Brown, T. (2009). *Change by Design – How Design Thinking Transforms Organizations and Inspires Innovation*, New York, NY: Harper Business.
- Burgelman, R. A. (1985). Managing the new venture division: research findings and implications for strategic management. *Strategic Management Journal*, 6(1): 39-54.
- Campbell, J. L. (2002). Where do we stand? Common mechanisms in organizations and social movements research, Paper presented at conference on 'Social Movements and Organization theory', Ann Arbor, Michigan.
- Carrier, C. (1994). Intrapreneurship in large firms and SMEs: a comparative study. *International Small Business Journal*, 12(3): 54-61.
- Cooper, A. C. (1981). Strategic management: new ventures and small business. *Long Range Planning*, 14(5): 39-45.
- Covin, J. & Slevin, D. (1991). A Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurship as Firm Behavior. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16(1): 7-25.
- Crofts, P., Gray, M. & Healy, K. (2003). Social Enterprise: Is it the business of social work?. *Australian Social Work*, 56(2): 141-154.
- Croteau D. & Hicks L. (2003). Coalition Framing and the Challenge of a Consonant Frame Pyramid: The Case of a Collaborative Response to Homelessness. *Social Problems*, 50(2): 251-272.
- Cummings, T. G. & Worley, C. G. (2005). *Organization Development and Change*, Mason, Ohio: Thomson/South-Western.
- Curedale, R. (2013). *Design Thinking – Process and methods manual*, Topanga, CA: Design Community College.
- Dacin, P. A., Dacin, M. & Matear, M. (2010). Do we need a theory of social entrepreneurship?. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 24(3): 37-57.

- Dacin, T. M., Dacin, P. A. & Tracey, P. (2011). Social Entrepreneurship: A Critique and Future Directions. *Organization Science*, 22(5): 1203-1213.
- Dart, R. (2004). Being "business-like" in a nonprofit organization: A grounded and inductive typology. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 33(2): 290-310.
- Dawson, P., & Daniel, L. (2010). Understanding social innovation: a provisional framework. *International Journal of Technology Management*, 51(1): 9-21.
- De Jong, J. & Wennekers, S. (2008), Intrapreneurship: Conceptualizing Entrepreneurial Employee Behaviour, online available at: <http://www.entrepreneurship-sme.eu/pdf-ez/H200802.pdf>.
- Dees, G. J. (2001), The Meaning of Social Entrepreneurship, online available at: http://www.caseatduke.org/documents/dees_sedef.pdf.
- Dees, J. G & Anderson, B.B.(2006). Framing a theory of social entrepreneurship: Building on two schools of practice and thought. *Research on social entrepreneurship: Understanding and contributing to an emerging field* 1(3), 39-66.
- Dees, G. J., Emerson, J., Economy, P. (Eds.) (1998), *Enterprising Nonprofits – A Toolkit for Social Entrepreneurs*, New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons.
- Defourny, J. & Nyssens, M. (2010). Conceptions of social enterprise and social entrepreneurship in Europe and the United States: Convergences and divergences. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1(1): 32-53.
- Drucker, P. F. (1985), *Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Duncan, J. W, Ginter, P. M., Rucks, A. C. & Jacobs, T. D. (1988). Intrapreneurship and the reinvention of the corporation. *Business Horizons*, 31(3): 16-21.
- Emerson, J. (2004), *The Blended Value Map: Tracking the Intersects and Opportunities of Economic, Social and Environmental Value Creation*.
- Fast, N. D. & Pratt, S. E. (1981). Individual entrepreneurship and the large corporation. In Vesper, K. H. (Ed.), *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, Wellesley, Mass.: Center for Entrepreneurial Studies, pp. 443-450.
- Fendrich, J. M. (2003). The forgotten movement: the Vietnam antiwar movement. *Sociological Inquiry*, 73(3): 338-358.
- Grayson, D., McLaren, M. & Spitzack, H. (2011), *Social Intrapreneurs: An Extra Force for Sustainability Innovation*, Doughty Centre Occasional Paper; Bedford, UK: Cranfield University, School of Management, Doughty Centre for Corporate Responsibility, online available at: <https://www.networkedcranfield.com/doughty/Document%20Library/Occasional%20papers/Social%20intrapreneurs%20an%20extra%20force%20for%20sustainability%20innovation.pdf>.
- Grayson, D., McLaren, M. & Spitzack, H. (2014), *Social Intrapreneurism and all that Jazz – How business innovators are helping to build a more sustainable world*, Sheffield: Greenleaf.
- Hammack, D.C. & Young, D. R. (eds) (1983). *Nonprofit organizations in a market economy*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hanan, M. (1976). Venturing corporations — think small to stay strong. *Harvard Business Review*, 54(3): 139-148.
- Helm, S.T & Andersson, F. (2010). Beyond taxonomy. An empirical validation of social entrepreneurship in the nonprofit sector. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*. 20(3), 259-276.
- Hemingway, C.A. (2005). Personal Values as a Catalyst for Corporate Social Entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 60(3): 233-249.
- Hill, T. L., Kothari, T. H. & Shea, M. (2010). Patterns of Meaning in the Social Entrepreneurship Literature: A Research Platform. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1(1): 5-31.

- Hisrich, R. D. & Peters, M. P. (1984), Internal venturing in large corporations. In Hornaday, J. A. et al (Eds.), *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, Wellesley, Mass.: Center for Entrepreneurial Studies, pp. 321-346.
- Hjorth, D. (2001), *Rewriting entrepreneurship – enterprise discourse and entrepreneurship in the case of re-organising ES*, Växjö: Växjö University Press.
- Hlavacek, J. D. & Thompson, V. A. (1973). Bureaucracy and new product innovation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 16(3): 361-372.
- Hornsby, J., Naffziger, D., Kuratko, D. & Montagno, R. (1993). An Interactive Model of the Corporate Entrepreneurship Process. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 17(2): 29-37.
- Jennings, R., Cox, C. & Cooper, C. L. (1994), *Business Elites: The Psychology of Entrepreneurs and Intrapreneurs*, New York, NY: Routledge.
- Jones, G. R. & Butler, I. E. (1992). Managing Internal Corporate Entrepreneurship: An Agency Theory Perspective. *Journal of Management*, 18(4): 733-749.
- Kanter, R. M. (1984), *The Change Masters: Innovation and Entrepreneurship in the American Corporation*. A Touchstone book, New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Kaspar, G. & Clohesy, S. (2008), *Intentional Innovation: How getting more systematic about innovation could improve philanthropy and increase social impact*, Battle Creek: Kellogg Foundation.
- Kling, J. (1995), Narratives of possibility: social movements, collective stories and the dilemmas of practice.' Paper presented at the 'New Social Movement and Community Organising Conference', University of Washington School of Social Work, November 1-3, 1995.
- Knight, R. M. (1989). Technological innovation in Canada: a comparison of independent entrepreneurs and corporate innovators, *Journal of Business Venturing*, 4: 281-288.
- Kramer, M. R. (2011). Creating shared value. *Harvard business review*, 89(1/2), 62-77.
- Krueger, N.F. & Brazeal, D.V. (1994). Entrepreneurial potential and potential entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18(3): 91-104.
- Kuratko, D. F., Hornsby, J. S., Naffziger, D. W. & Montagno, R. V. (1993). Implement entrepreneurial thinking in established organizations. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 58(1): 28-33, 39.
- Leadbeater, C. (1997), *The Rise of the Social Entrepreneur*. London: Demos.
- Lessem, R. (1988), *Intrapreneurship*, Aldershot: Wilwood House.
- Lewis, L. L. & Seibold, D. R. (1998). Reconceptualizing organizational change implementation as a communication problem: a review of literature and research agenda. *Communication Yearbook*, 21: 93-151.
- Luchsinger, V. & Badby, D.R. (1987). Entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 52(3): 10-13.
- Lumpkin, G. & Dess, G. (1996). Clarifying the Entrepreneurial Orientation Construct and Linking It to Performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(1): 135-172.
- MacMillan, I. C., Block, Z. and Narasimha, P. N. S. (1984). Obstacles and experience in corporate ventures. In Hornaday, J. A. et al. (Eds.), *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, Wellesley, Mass.: Center for Entrepreneurial Studies, pp. 280-93.
- Mair, J., & Martí, I. (2006). Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1): 36-44.
- Malek, M., & Ibach, P. K. (2004), *Entrepreneurship: Prinzipien Ideen und Geschäftsmodelle zur Unternehmensgründung im Informationszeitalter*, Heidelberg: dpunkt-Verl., pp. 105-113.

- Martin, R. L., & Osberg, S. (2007). Social entrepreneurship: The case for definition. *Stanford social innovation review*, 5(2): 28-39.
- Marwell G, Oliver P. E. & Prahl R. (1988). Social Networks and Collective Action: A Theory of the Critical Mass. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94: 502-534.
- McKinney, G. & McKinney, M. (1989). Forget the corporate umbrella — entrepreneurs shine in the rain. *Sloan Management Review*, 30(4): 77-82.
- Meyerson, D. & Scully, M. (1995). Tempered Radicalism and the Politics of Ambivalence and Change. *Organization Science*, 6(5): 585-600.
- Meyerson, D. (2004). The Tempered Radicals, *Stanford Social Innovation Review, Fall*: 14-23.
- Miller, D. & Friesen, P.H. (1983). Strategy-Making and Environment: The Third Link. *Strategic Management Journal* 4(3): 221-235
- Miller, D. (1987). Strategy making and structure: Analysis and implications for performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 30: 7-32.
- Moore, M. L., & Westley, F. (2011). Surmountable chasms: networks and social innovation for resilient systems. *Ecology and society*, 16(1): 5.
- Mort, G. S., Weerawardena, J. & Carnegie, K. (2003). Social entrepreneurship: Towards conceptualization. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 8(1): 76-88.
- Mulgan, G. (2006). The Process of Social Innovation. *Innovations: Technology, Governance, Globalization*, 1(2): 145-162.
- Mulgan, G. (2012). The theoretical foundations of social innovation. In A. Nicholls, & A. Murdoch (Eds.), *Social innovation - blurring boundaries to reconfigure markets*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 33-65.
- Mulgan, G., Ali, R., Halkett, R. & Sanders, B. (2007). In and out of sync: The challenge of growing social innovations, online available at: www.nesta.org.uk/sites/default/files/in_and_out_of_sync.pdf.
- Muzyka, D. F., de Koning, A. J. & Churchill, N. C. (1995). Entrepreneurial transformation: a descriptive theory. In Bygra, W. D. et al. (Eds.), *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, Babson Park, MA: Center for Entrepreneurial Studies, pp. 637-651.
- Nicholls, A. (2010). The Legitimacy of social entrepreneurship: Reflexive isomorphism in a pre-paradigmatic field. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(4): 611-633.
- Nicholls, A. & Murdoch, A. (2012). The nature of social innovation. In Nicholls, A. & Murdoch A. (Eds.), *Social Innovation - blurring boundaries to reconfigure markets*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 1- 30.
- Pinchot, G. III (1985). *Intrapreneurship*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Ross, J. (1987). Corporations and entrepreneurs: paradox and opportunity. *Business Horizons*, 30(4): 76-80.
- Rule, E. G. and Irwin, D. W. (1988). Fostering intrapreneurship: the new competitive edge. *The Journal of Business Strategy*, 9(3): 44-47.
- Schatzki, T.R. (2000). *The Practice Turn in Contemporary Theory*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Schmitz, B. (2014). Social Entrepreneurship, Social Innovation and Social Mission Organizations: Towards a Conceptualization. In Cnaan, R. A. & Vinokur-Kaplan, D. (Eds.), *Cases in Innovative Nonprofits*, Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Schmitz, B. & Scheuerle, T. (2012). Founding or transforming? Social intrapreneurship in three German christian-based NPOs. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship Perspectives*, 1(1): 13-36.
- Schmitz, B., Krlev, G., Mildemberger, G., Bund, E. & Hubrich, D. (2013). Paving the Way to Measurement – A Blueprint for Social Innovation Metrics. A short guide to the research for policy makers. A deliverable of the project: "The theoretical, empirical and policy foundations for building social innovation in Europe"

(TEPSIE), European Commission – 7th Framework Programme, Brussels: European Commission, DG Research, available at: <http://www.tepsie.eu/images/documents/D2.5%20final.pdf>.

- Schoenebeck, G. (2010), *Intrapreneurship: Eine empirische Analyse der Barrieren und Widerstände im Unternehmen*, München: AVM.
- Schollhammer, H. (1981). The efficacy of internal corporate entrepreneurship strategies. In Vesper, K. H. (Ed.), *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, Wellesley, Mass.: Center for Entrepreneurial Studies, pp. 451-456.
- Seelos, Ch., Mair, J. (2012) *Organizational Capacity for Continuous Innovation-Outline of a Research Agenda*. PACS Report to the Rockefeller Foundation.
- Shane, S. & Venkataraman, S. (2000). The Promise of Entrepreneurship as a Field of Research. *Academy of Management Review*, 25: 217-226.
- Singh, R. P. (2001). A Comment on Developing the Field of Entrepreneurship Through The Study of Opportunity Recognition and Exploitation. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(1): 10-12.
- Snow, D. A. & Benford, R. D. (1988). Ideology, Frame Resonance, and Participant Mobilization. *International Social Movement Research*, 1: 197-217.
- Souder, W. E. (1981). Encouraging entrepreneurship in the large corporations. *Research Management*, 14(3): 18-22.
- Stevenson, H. H. & Jarillo, J. C. (1990). A paradigm of entrepreneurship: entrepreneurial management. *Strategic Management Journal*, 11: 17-27.
- Stopford, J. M. & Baden-Fuller, C. W. F. (1994). Creating corporate entrepreneurship. *Strategic Management Journal*, 15: 521-536.
- Sustainability (2008). *The Social intrapreneur. A field guide for corporate changemakers*.
- Szypersky, N. & Klandt, H. (1984), An empirical analysis of venture-management activities by German industrial firms. In Hornaday, J. A. et al. (Eds.), *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, Wellesley, Mass.: Center for Entrepreneurial Studies, pp. 347-357.
- Thompson, J. L. (2002). The world of the social entrepreneur. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 15: 412-431.
- Thompson, J. L. & Doherty, B. (2006). The diverse world of social enterprise. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 33(5/6): 361-375.
- Thompson, J. L., Alvy, G., & Lees, A. (2000). Social entrepreneurship: A new look at the people and the potential. *Management Decision*, 38(5): 328-338.
- Vernis, A., Iglesias, M., Sanz, B., & Saz-Carranza, A. (Eds.) (2006), *Nonprofit organizations: challenges and collaboration*. New York, N.Y.: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Vesper, K. H. (1984). Three faces of corporate entrepreneurship. In Hornaday, J. A. et al. (Eds.), *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, Wellesley, Mass.: Center for Entrepreneurial Studies, pp. 294-320.
- Wilkinson, J. (2010). Is it all a 'game'? Analysing academic leadership through a Bourdieuan practice lens. *Critical Studies in Education*, 51(1): 41-54.
- Young, D. R. & Grinsfelder, M. C. (2011). Social Entrepreneurship and the Financing of the Third Sector Organizations. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 17(4): 543-567.
- Zald M. N. & Berger M. A. (1978). Social movements in organizations: coup d'etat, insurgency and mass movements. *American Journal of Sociology*, 83: 823-861.
- Zald, M. N. (2004): *Making Change – Why Does the Social Sector Need Social Movements?*. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, 2(3): 24-34, online available at: <http://www.civicventures.org/network/files/ZALD.pdf>.

Zimmermann, H. (1999). Innovation in Nonprofit Organizations. *Annals of Public and Cooperative Economics*, 70(4), 589-619.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to develop a theory-based framework to identify social intrapreneurs in the nonprofit sector. Whereas much research exists on establishing new social entrepreneurial ventures little is known about continuous innovation in existing social service organizations. The focus of our analysis is on intrapreneurs, we want to understand the specifics of intrapreneurship in the nonprofit sector. Given scarce research in this field, we looked at three adjacent fields of research: social innovation, social entrepreneurship and corporate social intrapreneurship. Derived from those three discourses and a small scale qualitative research project, we constructed a list of key intrapreneurial actions or characteristics of social intrapreneurs for the nonprofit sector. Our study shows that in the field of social intrapreneurship further empirical research is necessary.

Key words: Social innovation, Entrepreneurship, Intrapreneurship, Nonprofit Organization, Literature review

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Das Ziel dieser Studie ist es, einen theoriegeleiteten Rahmen zu entwickeln, um soziale Intrapreneure im gemeinnützigen Sektor zu identifizieren. Während viel zu neuen sozialen unternehmerischen Vorhaben geforscht wurde, ist wenig über fortlaufende Innovation in bestehenden sozialen Einrichtungen bekannt. Der Fokus unserer Analyse liegt auf Intrapreneuren, wir wollen die Besonderheiten des Intrapreneurship im gemeinnützigen Sektor verstehen. Angesichts knapper Forschung auf diesem Gebiet haben wir uns mit den drei benachbarten Forschungsbereichen beschäftigt: soziale Innovation, soziales Unternehmertum und Corporate Social Intrapreneurship. Abgeleitet aus diesen drei Diskursen und einem kleinen qualitativen Forschungsprojekt, bilden wir ein Schema der wichtigsten intrapreneurialen Aktionen oder Merkmale der sozialen Intrapreneure für den Non-Profit-Sektor. Unsere Studie zeigt, dass im Bereich des sozialen Intrapreneurship weitere empirische Forschung notwendig ist.

Schlüsselbegriffe: Soziale Innovation, Unternehmertum, Intrapreneurship, gemeinnützige Organisation/Nonprofit Organisation, Literaturanalyse/Literaturbericht.