A conceptual framework of tourism social entrepreneurship for sustainable community development

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Abstract

The continuous search for responsible and sustainable practices in the tourism industry paves the way for alternative approaches to tourism development. Often, local communities are at the foreground of these innovative tourism entrepreneurship and development strategies. The emergence of social enterprises operating in tourism refocuses the agenda of engaging and developing disadvantaged and underdeveloped communities sustainably through the industry. Tourism social entrepreneurship (TSE) is suggested as a market-based strategy to address social problems whilst maximising the benefits and minimising the negative consequences that tourism may provide to host communities. To date, there is limited understanding of how TSE can be a catalyst for sustainable community development. The purpose of this paper is to address this gap in knowledge by conceptualising TSE as a more holistic strategy for sustainable community development. By critically analysing the literature, this paper situates TSE within and for community development. A conceptual framework that incorporates community development concepts, generic social entrepreneurship and TSE principles, and community capitals perspectives, is proposed. This conceptual paper contributes to the emerging literature on TSE and may assist the actors in the TSE system as they establish new community-centric social enterprises.

Keywords: community capitals framework; community development; conceptual framework; social enterprise; social innovation; tourism social entrepreneurship

1. Introduction

Communities, particularly those located in less-developed countries, are continuously faced with various social problems. The potential for tourism to drive economic growth makes it a relevant tool for developing low-income and underserved communities, and places these localities at the centre of tourism development (Scheyvens, 2002). Previous work implies that communities in need possess the necessary tourism assets, provide the local experiences that

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tourists seek and construct the spaces that they consume (Beeton, 2006; Dolezal & Burns, 2014). This leads to the goal of developing communities holistically and sustainably, often through community-based and pro-poor tourism initiatives (López-Guzmán, Borges, & Cerezo, 2011) that are aimed at providing regenerative economic and social wealth, including environmental benefits.

Tourism relies on various enterprises to mobilise the industry (Solvoll, Alsos, & Bulanova, 2015); this gives tourism businesses a critical role in delivering desired community development outcomes. Consequently, the orthodox tourism entrepreneurship and development models are squid towards a capitalist approach that weakens the intended benefits of the industry, especially for host communities (Brookes, Altinay, & Ringham, 2014; Pollock, 2015). Dredge (2017) depicts that there is little indication that tourism delivers these outcomes sustainably, challenging the traditional business models employed in the tourism and hospitality industry. By creating social value and inducing societal transformation at large, 'social entrepreneurship' practiced in tourism has the potential to counter these negative externalities (Altinay, Sigala, & Waligo, 2016; Newbert & Hill, 2014; Sheldon, Pollock, & Daniele, 2017).

Widely adopted since the 1980s, *social entrepreneurship* promotes an alternative business model established from non-profit ventures, also known as social enterprises, having the goal of eradicating various social problems such as poverty, lack of education, poor public health, unemployment, and other social needs unmet by the public and private sectors (Bornstein & Davis, 2010; Johnson, 2000). Apart from having social aims, social entrepreneurship is directed at eliminating the negative consequences or externalities that may arise from commercial operations, while distributing positive and sustainable outcomes to local communities and beneficiaries (Newbert & Hill, 2014; Shaw & Carter, 2007). In recent years, the application of social entrepreneurship in tourism, or *tourism social entrepreneurship* (TSE), has been emerging given the fact that tourism is one of the first industries to incorporate sustainable development in its agenda (Sloan, Legrand, & Simons-Kaufmann, 2014; von der Weppen & Cochrane, 2012).

The scale of tourism social enterprises operating worldwide is not well-documented. This may be due to the varying recognition and legitimacy status of these ventures in their respective country context (e.g. de Lange & Dodds, 2017). Many academic case studies show that these tourism social enterprises exist in and for marginalised communities, often in developing countries (e.g. Biddulph, 2017; Laeis & Lemke, 2016; Stenvall, Laven, & Gelbman, 2017). Likewise, tourism social enterprises are usually micro, small or medium-scale organisations (Dredge, 2017; Porter, Orams, & Lück, 2015), and have been depicted as industry outliers that are aimed to positively transform the tourism system (Smith, 2017). By looking at the context of its operations, social missions, beneficiaries and geographic settings, TSE can be viewed as a catalyst for developing host communities. The scant academic literature shows no previous attempt that frames sustainable community development as the primary aim for TSE.

Against this backdrop, the purpose of this paper is to conceptualise TSE as a more holistic strategy for the sustainable development of communities. This paper responds to the call to theorise social entrepreneurship through tourism and how TSE can be a community-centric form of social innovation (e.g. Dredge, 2017; Mottiar & Boluk, 2017; Wang, Duan, & Yu, 2016). Through critically analysing the literature, this paper initially provides a brief review of

what social entrepreneurship is. Thereafter, this paper situates social entrepreneurship in tourism, describes some of the schemes applied in TSE, and locates TSE within and for community development. By adopting a systems perspective, a conceptual framework based on the integration of community development concepts, generic social entrepreneurship and TSE principles, and community capitals perspectives is proposed. The conceptual framework illustrates how TSE can serve as a vehicle for sustainable community development, and in doing so, adds to the developing literature on this topic.

2. Literature review

2.1. What is social entrepreneurship?

Since its emergence, social entrepreneurship has received a multitude of overarching yet complementary definitions. Social entrepreneurship is simply described as a business activity with a central social purpose (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006). This activity is led by *social entrepreneurs*, individuals who are championed as society's 'agents of change' viewing social problems as opportunities (Dees, 1998). In this light, social entrepreneurship is defined as "the process of identifying, evaluating and exploiting opportunities aiming at social value creation by means of commercial, market-based activities and of the use of a wide range of resources" (Bacq & Janssen, 2011, p. 374). Social entrepreneurship is conceptualised as a market-based approach for generating social impacts.

Social entrepreneurship has been portrayed as an instrument for countering the undesirable costs that traditional (solely) for-profit entrepreneurship brings to society. It is designed to minimise the negative effects or externalities that commercial businesses can have on actors employed in their operations (Newbert & Hill, 2014). This can be achieved through social entrepreneurship ventures or *social enterprises*, which adopt business models designed to create social value whilst generating economic benefits. Social enterprises can engage and operate in different industries, just as traditional enterprises do. Engaging in some form of trading, social enterprises create surpluses that are used to deliver both economic and social outcomes to their beneficiaries. Furthermore, social enterprises are usually found at the intersections of the work of cooperatives and non-profit organisations (NPOs), tend to operate in the social economy, and work by taking higher financial risks to fund their social causes (Defourny, 2001; Defourny & Nyssens, 2006).

Conversely, the goal of social enterprises is to distribute social and economic wealth more evenly among the individuals involved in their processes and the wider community (Shaw & Carter, 2007; Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009), unlike traditional commercial enterprises that are primarily aimed at increasing personal or shareholder wealth (Abu-Saifan, 2012). Given this, social entrepreneurship is also asserted as a form of 'social innovation', or the adoption of creative ideas that have the potential to positively impact people's quality of life (Pol & Ville, 2009). In other words, social entrepreneurship employs a high degree of inclusivity and creativity in dealing with societal problems, whilst considering the population's adaptive capacity (Zeyen et al., 2013). This idea is often linked with social entrepreneurs' ability to innovate, make sound decisions, remain pro-active amidst complex situations and

challenges (such as lack of funding and resources) and engage local communities (Mort, Weerawardena, & Carnegie, 2003; Okpara & Halkias, 2011; Shaw & Carter, 2007). These propositions set a high importance on the concept of innovation in social entrepreneurship.

Continuous innovation is linked with inducing the wider sustainable societal transformation that is engendered by social entrepreneurs (Alvord, Brown, & Letts, 2004; Choi & Majumdar, 2014). Others suggest this as the concept of achieving 'total wealth', which is the economic and social benefits delivered by social enterprises to enhance society's wellbeing (Zahra et al., 2009). It has been explored that social entrepreneurship can foster societal transformation that can be economic, political or cultural in nature (Alvord et al., 2004). Nevertheless, it has been explicated that this envisioned positive and sustainable societal change should flow through to the community level, placing these localities at the heart of the social entrepreneurship agenda (Defourny & Nyssens, 2006; El Ebrashi, 2013). Given the many social problems that people face today, opportunities for social entrepreneurship can be found in many levels and sectors of society, and tourism is regarded as an industry where social entrepreneurs can find opportunities to fulfil their societal responsibilities.

2.2. Situating social entrepreneurship in tourism

The critical concepts that surround social entrepreneurship include social value creation, social innovation, and sustainability; these also encapsulate the significance of social entrepreneurship in the tourism industry. Based on this argument, TSE is defined as:

> a process that uses tourism to create innovative solutions to immediate social, environmental and economic problems in destinations by mobilizing the ideas, capacities, resources and social agreements, from within or outside the destination, required for its sustainable social transformation. (Sheldon et al., 2017, p. 7).

Governments and development agencies promote tourism as a tool for development (Messerli, 2011). This rationale alone demonstrates the overarching goal of social entrepreneurship and tourism: addressing societal problems and delivering social benefits through market-based activities (Altinay et al., 2016; Porter, Orams, & Lück, 2018). Since the industry is led by enterprises that can be found across the tourism value system, it can be asserted that the potential of TSE to deliver economic and social benefits will be heightened if these establishments place a greater emphasis on creating social value.

Responding to this challenge are the growing number of mainly for-profit tourism enterprises that have embedded corporate social responsibility (CSR) in their agenda. This is partly because businesses with a more meaningful, corporate social mission lean towards producing higher profits than those that are solely 'for-profit' (Pollock, 2015; Tamajón & Font, 2013). Yet many tourism enterprises are still primarily commercial and profit-oriented, and tend to disregard the social aspects of doing business (Altinay et al., 2016).

On the one hand, these traditional tourism enterprises can deliver direct benefits from their operations, which are perceived as playing pivotal roles in destinations' local development. For example, the tourism industry relies on many businesses that require human resources, thus providing income and employment for the local population (Sheldon et al., 2017). On the other hand, these tourism enterprises are also revealed to produce undesirable effects on the

individuals that they employ and the communities that host them (e.g. poor remuneration and unhealthy working conditions). Often, these negative externalities are drawn from the irresponsible business and entrepreneurial practices that traditional tourism enterprises implement (Brookes et al., 2014; Daniele & Quezada, 2017). Therefore, even though the tourism industry is positioned towards producing positive outcomes in host destinations, negative consequences can also be generated by such tourism business models.

Industry-specific negative externalities are often rooted in the capitalist approach adopted in the conventional 'mass tourism' development model. In this development scheme, investors are prompted to exploit local resources for their profit-driven activities, which may deprive the wider local populations of access to these assets (Boluk, 2011; Dredge, 2017). This orthodox tourism development approach weakens the envisioned multiplier effect of the industry. Because social entrepreneurship is also positioned to eliminate negative externalities (Newbert & Hill, 2014), TSE is therefore proposed as a need, an opportunity, and a timely strategy for dealing with the injustices of tourism, and a response to the capitalist destination development strategies that most governments adopt (Pollock, 2015; von der Weppen & Cochrane, 2012). Moreover, through TSE, the power of tourism as a social force is emphasised (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006), revolutionising the way in which the industry works for various destinations.

A way to positively disrupt the tourism industry is through continuous innovation, which, as mentioned earlier, is an integral aspect of social entrepreneurship. At the same time, innovation is imperative, particularly for destinations aiming to advance in a competitive tourism industry (Quandt, Ferraresi, Kudlawicz, Martins, & Machado, 2017). The concept of innovation underpins the propositions outlined in the earliest work integrating social entrepreneurship in local business and tourism development (Tetzschner & Herlau, 2003). It has been asserted that for destinations to generate competitive advantage, local tourism businesses should follow a social enterprise model that employs innovation strategies related to product and services offerings, organisational structure, operational processes, logistics and marketing. It should be noted that this competitive advantage, built on innovation, should not only produce better financial returns but also deliver social value.

The early decades of tourism scholarship have uncovered the social and environmental costs associated with the industry. Since then, innovative forms of and approaches to tourism have emerged. Some of these have fully or partially adopted the principles and concepts of social entrepreneurship, including ecotourism (Sakata & Prideaux, 2013), cultural heritage tourism (McCarthy, 2012), social tourism (Hunter-Jones, 2011) and volunteer tourism (Coghlan & Noakes, 2012; Mdee & Emmott, 2008). It can also be argued that these niche tourism forms are the result of the vision to foster innovative and, more importantly, sustainable tourism practices that balance the economic, social, cultural and environmental outcomes for host communities.

Through these alternative approaches employing social entrepreneurship, more desirable impacts throughout the tourism value chain can be generated (Boukas & Chourides, 2016), making TSE a form of social innovation. In an exploratory study that investigated the role of social enterprises in the tourism and hospitality industry, Ergul and Johnson (2011) found social entrepreneurship practices to be intertwined with fostering environment-friendly and sustainable business practices. Apart from providing economic opportunities, Porter et al. (2018) emphasise social entrepreneurship in tourism as an instrument through which to
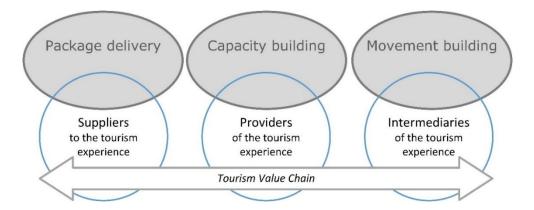
conserve the natural environments that some communities depend on. Linking TSE with sustainability, de Lange and Dodds (2017) assert that the adoption of social entrepreneurship in tourism:

- stimulates the sustainability of the industry, because social entrepreneurship offers tourists alternative yet sustainable tourism products and services;
- places pressures on existing traditional tourism enterprises to follow responsible tourism practices;
- serves as a foundation for other entrepreneurial activities for local development;
- enables the instigation of policies and regulations that can induce positive environmental and social outcomes; and
- promotes the development of local economies and draws global interest.

Thus, because of its continuous search for sustainable ways to mobilise the tourism system, social entrepreneurship is a relevant strategy for achieving a more sustainable tourism industry (de Lange & Dodds, 2017; Mottiar & Boluk, 2017). This paper argues that, since social entrepreneurship is designed to facilitate social value creation, social innovation and sustainability, the tourism industry is a rich ground for social entrepreneurs.

2.3. Tourism social entrepreneurship typologies

The diverse tourism value chain requires social enterprises that offer a variety of products and services while also implementing social innovation strategies. Sigala (2016) categorises tourism social enterprises into five types based on service offerings, namely: "intermediaries, accommodation providers, destination – [and] community-based tourism operators and tourism institutions" (p. 1272). Resonating with similar logic, Day and Mody (2017) suggested another tourism-focused TSE typology based on enterprises' functions, roles, contributions and product offerings within the tourism value chain. Through a critical analysis of these categorisations, convergences between this TSE typology (Day & Mody, 2017) and generic social entrepreneurship models based on social innovation strategies (Alvord et al., 2004) were delineated.

Fig 1. Tourism social entrepreneurship typology based on social innovation models (Alvord et al., 2004) and role in the tourism value chain (Day & Mody, 2017).

As shown in Figure 1, the first type pertains to a 'supplier-package delivery' model, encompassing tourism social enterprises that offer tangible products (e.g. food, souvenirs) to tourists (Day & Mody, 2017). Often, this model adopts a social innovation scheme where technical expertise is transferred to community beneficiaries in order to develop the local skills and knowledge to produce such goods (Alvord et al., 2004). This can be observed in the work of Pila in Spain, a production enterprise that employs people with disabilities as souvenir-makers, giving these individuals opportunities to be employed (Alegre & Berbegal-Mirabent, 2016).

Incorporating some of the concepts of community-based tourism is the second TSE type: the 'provider-capacity building' model (Figure 1), where social entrepreneurs organise and involve the wider community, identify community needs, and develop local capacity to address these needs through human resource development and tourism training (Alvord et al., 2004; Day & Mody, 2017). This model is evident in the development of slum tourism in Manila in the Philippines, initiated by Smokey Tours, where residents are employed and trained to conduct tours and facilitate other operations in the enterprise (Smokey Tours, 2017).

The third TSE type refers to an 'intermediary-movement building' model (Figure 1). This involves travel-market intermediaries (e.g. travel agencies) selling sustainable tourism products (Day & Mody, 2017). They are 'movement building' because they promote and educate travellers in more responsible tourism practices, emphasise the need to change travel behaviour, and support social causes at the respective destinations they 'sell'. These social enterprises exist to influence public views on social issues through their commercial activities (Alvord et al., 2004). This scheme is operationalised by GOOD Travel based in Wellington, New Zealand, by arranging and leading tours with their partner communities to support that latter's development, while promoting and educating for responsible tourism practices (GOOD Travel, 2018).

The above typologies illustrate the variety of ways in which TSE can manifest, tourism social enterprises are not limited to adopting exclusively one of these strategies. Also, it appears that the common development schema adopted in TSE can be likened to what Zahra et al. (2009) label as 'social bricolage', where social entrepreneurs eradicate local social problems, often within host communities found in lower socio-economic strata, aiming to enhance community life and well-being. While tourism social enterprises are depicted here as communities' transformative institutions, it is imperative to critically review the related research that links TSE with community development.

2.4. Tourism and social entrepreneurship for community development

Tourism for community development is not a new agenda. Community-based tourism development concepts and approaches are conceptualised as alternative strategies to conventional mass tourism models. These alternative approaches have been designed to create a sustainable tourism industry in various locations worldwide (Lück & Altobelli, 2009; Okazaki, 2008), improve local living conditions, generate lasting impacts and, ultimately, induce sustainable community development (Dodds, Ali, & Galaski, 2016).

Traditional or commercial entrepreneurship has been increasingly viewed as a driver of community development as well. Lyons (2015) believes that commercial entrepreneurship can

alleviate economic disparities within nations if entrepreneurs closely collaborate with local communities. However, Fortunato and Alter (2015) postulate that in doing so, commercial entrepreneurship must not be solely profit and/or growth-oriented; rather, it should foster a development agenda that is holistic and focused on enhancing community well-being.

These propositions have long been argued in the social entrepreneurship discourse. For example, some social entrepreneurship perspectives specifically locate communities at the heart of their missions (e.g. Defourny & Nyssens, 2006; Martin & Thompson, 2010). Social enterprises can be the links between host communities and other businesses, with the goal of creating sustainable livelihoods and improving local economies (Laeis & Lemke, 2016). Considering TSE as one of these alternative strategies emphasises its potential as a catalyst for social change and transformation at the community level.

The limited TSE literature empirically shows the strong link between TSE and community development (see Appendix). Generating positive and sustainable development outcomes for local communities was found to be one of tourism social entrepreneurs' primary motivations (e.g. Porter et al., 2015, 2018). The most commonly identified positive TSE outcomes for local communities are job creation, increase in income, patronising local suppliers of materials for utilisation in TSE, and generation of funds for educational programmes (Franzidis, 2018; Sakata & Prideaux, 2013; Sloan et al., 2014; von der Weppen & Cochrane, 2012). Non-monetary community benefits can also be created according to these establishments' social missions, such as livelihood and skills development, increased environmental awareness, community pride enhancement, and peace-building (Laeis & Lemke, 2016; McCarthy, 2008; Peredo & Wurzelmann, 2015; Stenvall et al., 2017). Conversely, TSE ventures may face challenges that can impede the creation of desirable impacts. Some of these are business-related such as lack of profitability and marketing issues (Laeis & Lemke, 2016). Also, most of the reviewed TSE businesses were established by outsiders (see Appendix), where in some cases, unfitting training programmes, over-reliance on external funders, competing visions, power imbalances and poor transfer of leadership can challenge community-centric TSE development (Laeis & Lemke, 2016; Peredo & Wurzelmann, 2015).

In addition, it can be criticised that without its social purpose, social entrepreneurship somewhat follows a capitalist agenda. This was depicted in the case of an accommodation social enterprise established in a surf-riding tourism destination in the Philippines (Porter et al., 2015). With the goal of promoting eco-friendly budget travel and local economic development, the establishment subsequently tapped into local resources and suppliers, and encouraged residents to become entrepreneurial, as demand for tourism services increased. This development model did not only spur 'intrapreneurs', but also 'outsider' tourism entrepreneurs to operate in the locality (Porter et al., 2015). Thus, TSE may also unintentionally catalyse the capitalist tourism development that it intends to oppose.

In marginalised localities with less tourism orientations, it has been explicated that top-down tourism development approaches can be more favourable than community-based tourism strategies alone (e.g. Porter et al., 2015, 2018). Still, successful TSE projects illustrate the value of grassroots community involvement in terms of positive impact generation (e.g. Sakata & Prideaux, 2013) and efficient mobilisation of resources (e.g. Altinay et al., 2016). Theorisations on how to view and implement TSE as a more inclusive and holistic sustainable community

development strategy are scarce; this paper proposes a conceptual framework to address this gap, in the following discussion.

3. Conceptual framework of tourism social entrepreneurship for sustainable community development

The proposed conceptual framework of tourism social entrepreneurship for sustainable community development was founded on a systems perspective. The paper suggests TSE as 'implementing mechanisms' and a more holistic process in fostering sustainable community development. In conceptualising these mechanisms, the framework was developed through an integration and adaption of community development concepts (Bhattacharyya, 2004; Matarrita-Cascante & Brennan, 2012), TSE and generic social entrepreneurship principles (Alvord et al., 2004; Austin et al., 2006; Sheldon et al., 2017), and community capitals perspectives (Emery, Fey, & Flora, 2006; Flora, Flora, & Fey, 2004). Furthermore, a critical analysis of these concepts and related literature suggests the various elements and processes that support these mechanisms.

3.1. Systems perspective

Undertaking a systems perspective acknowledges the complexity of and interdependence within communities, hence facilitating more holistic theorisations (Farrell & Twining-Ward, 2004). A system is defined as a group of interrelated elements, acting and performing specific functions over time (Meadows & Wright, 2009). Pollock (2015) supports this argument in advocating a more conscious approach to tourism development and proposes seven shifts from linear 'cause-and-effect' to systems thinking: "from parts to whole, from objects to relationships, from objective knowledge to contextual knowledge, from quantity to quality, from structure to process, from contents to patterns, and from control to disturbance" (p. 21). Stone and Nyaupane (2016) demonstrate that a systems perspective is helpful for analysing tourism development in different contexts. A systems perspective challenges existing tourism development strategies, fits within the goal of portraying TSE as a holistic strategy for sustainable community development, and thus benefits the development of the proposed conceptual framework.

3.2. Community and community development concepts

Adopting a concrete definition of community is vital before any tourism and community development work can be accomplished, especially in this postmodern era where the nature and concept of community is changing (Popple & Quinney, 2002; Richards & Hall, 2000). Theodori (2005) postulates that the concept of community can be either 'territory-based' or 'territory-free'. In this paper, a territory-based definition of community is adopted:

> a locality comprised by *people* residing in a geographical area; the *resources* such people require to subsist and progress; and the *processes* in which such individuals engage to distribute and exchange such resources to fulfill local needs and wants. (Matarrita-Cascante & Brennan, 2012, p. 295).

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This is relevant in tourism, specifically within the notion of destination community, which should not be limited to a geographical area, or the actors and resources in that area, but rather be extended to how its members interact throughout the tourism development process (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Okazaki, 2008). The adopted definition suggests that a community is a system composed of actors (people), elements (resources) and interactions (processes).

This concept of community is also development-centred, suggesting community development as a process where members of a locality work together to achieve a common goal, address their collective challenges, or improve their quality of life by using various resources (Matarrita-Cascante & Brennan, 2012; Theodori, 2005). Since the aim of this conceptual paper is to demonstrate TSE as implementing mechanisms for sustainable community development, the latter notion serves only as a foundational concept. For sustainable development outcomes to be achieved, community development that is based on solidarity and agency, such as espoused by Bhattacharyya (2004), is reinforced in the proposed conceptual framework.
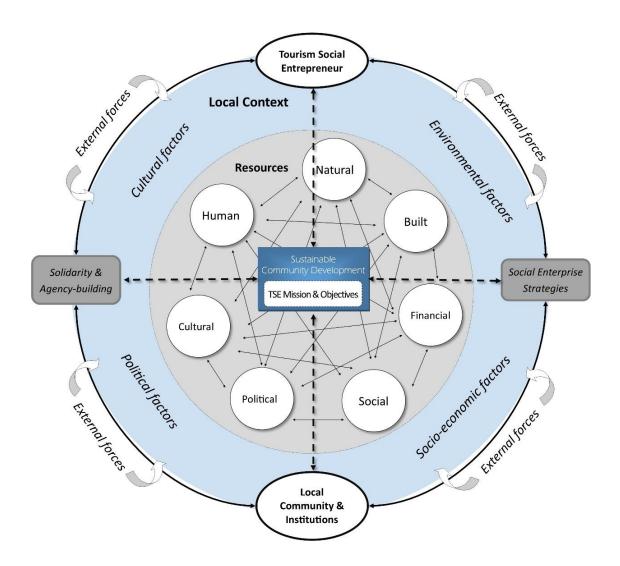
3.3. Elements, functions and processes

Fig 2. Tourism social entrepreneurship conceptual framework for sustainable community development

Figure 2 illustrates the conceptual framework composed of people, resources and processes, shaped by various circumstances in the development of TSE. People are 'enablers' of social entrepreneurship (Austin et al., 2006). These can be individuals or organisations that serve as actors in TSE, including tourism social entrepreneurs, local community, institutions, and other entities and organisations.

Drawing on Dees's (1998) seminal definition of social entrepreneurs, Sheldon et al. (2017) describe *tourism social entrepreneurs* as 'change agents' who utilise their talents and passion to drive the sustainable development of destinations. Previous research demonstrates these individuals as the main 'motors' for local communities to achieve their aspirations through tourism (e.g. McCarthy, 2008; Peredo & Wurzelmann, 2015). Also, according to their role in rural tourism development, social entrepreneurs have been theorised as opportunists, catalysts and network architects (Mottiar, Boluk, & Kline, 2018). By employing their entrepreneurial skills alongside their philanthropic visions, these individuals act as the facilitating entities for destinations to accomplish their tourism and wider community aspirations (Porter et al., 2018).

In developing their visions, it is critical for tourism social entrepreneurs to understand the *local context*. Like in setting up commercial enterprises, situational factors such as socio-economic, environmental, cultural and political factors are important to assess in social entrepreneurship too (Austin et al., 2006). These factors, together with external or macro-environmental forces, such as tax regulations, regional policies, or national/regional tourist flows (Stone & Nyaupane, 2016), are asserted to influence local community settings as well as their social problems. For example, policies should be examined by tourism social entrepreneurs as these provide the facilitating circumstances for TSE (Dredge, 2017) and should be influenced by tourism social entrepreneurs to enhance the legitimacy of TSE. Market failures such as industry-specific negative externalities and public goods unmet by both the government and commercial sectors can be shaped by such contextual factors, too. These social problems and market failures are considered social entrepreneurship opportunities, specifically, 'market opportunities' aimed to be capitalised by tourism social entrepreneurs (Mottiar et al., 2018; Sigala, 2016); these issues are emphasised as the drivers of social entrepreneurship (Austin et al., 2006). Hence, market opportunities are depicted as embedded in the *TSE mission and objectives,* which are located at the core of the framework, synergising the interactions, processes and resource mobilisation in TSE.

For their visions to be realised, tourism social entrepreneurs need to engage, interact and forge meaningful relationships with *local community and institutions* (e.g. local government) and other organisations and socio-civic groups (e.g. NPOs, cooperatives); this task is often challenging. Encouraging the latter's participation, their involvement and cooperation, is important, because the local communities are identified here as the main beneficiaries of TSE. More importantly, these localities provide the necessary resources, and those local governments and their agencies create an institutional environment that supports tourism social enterprises (Dredge, 2017). As with any tourism development initiative, the collaborative effort of these actors is pivotal in TSE.

In this case, the development approach executed by tourism social entrepreneurs plays a major role. Ideally, many community-based tourism development concepts advocate the implementation of bottom-up development approaches. However, Matarrita-Cascante and Brennan (2012) recognise that community development initiatives can also be 'imposed' or

'directed' from above. As discussed earlier, tourism social entrepreneurs may exercise top-down approaches too, wherein tourism social enterprises are established in a destination, from the outside, without prior community consultation.

In this regard, Bhattacharyya's (2004) community development theory, which proposes community development as a *solidarity and agency-building* activity, is incorporated into this framework. 'Solidarity' demonstrates communities as having specific social structures and collective identities. 'Agency' pertains to their autonomy over resources and the use of these assets. This conceptual framework asserts that highlighting solidarity and agency-building in TSE augments the meaningful inclusion of communities in delineating and fulfilling community goals. In the context of TSE, this means that tourism social entrepreneurs should understand and embed their visions within the communities' social fabric, raise the identification and awareness of individuals' collective challenges and needs that may be addressed by TSE, and nurture local capacities, skills and knowledge of tourism (e.g. Altinay et al., 2016; Bryant, 2010; Peredo & Wurzelmann, 2015; Sakata & Prideaux, 2013).

The next important activity is the creation of *social enterprise strategies*. These processes are implied to be shaped by the circumstances and elements discussed above (e.g. local contextual factors, external forces). While a multiplicity of strategies for social enterprises are available, two major aspects, namely social innovation approaches and market orientation of tourism social enterprises for guests and hosts, are described in this framework. 'Social innovation' strategies refer to the practical tactics used to promote the inclusion of marginalised individuals in the community development process and to eradicate the identified social problems. These strategies also entail realising social goals, establishing new profit streams, or a combination of both (Coghlan & Noakes, 2012), through involving beneficiaries and the wider community in tourism activities. Social innovation strategies should influence tourism social enterprise 'market orientation' that entails the tourism product offerings and income-generating activities that these enterprises can offer and facilitate in exchange for consumer expenditures. In other words, market orientation generates tourism social enterprises' value proposition for tourists (guests), while social innovation strategies form the social value proposition of TSE for local communities (hosts).

Irrespective of their situational contexts, communities contain a variety of resources. As reviewed in the foundational definitions of social entrepreneurship and TSE, these resources need to be mobilised and capitalised on (Altinay et al., 2016; Alvord et al., 2004; Sheldon et al., 2017). To illustrate the stocks and flows of resources in community-centric TSE, the elements of the community capitals framework (CCF), which is an expanded sustainable livelihoods approach (Flora et al., 2004), are embedded in the proposed conceptual framework. Sustainable livelihood approaches underscore the importance of considering local community contexts and households in tourism development (Shen, Hughey, & Simmons, 2008) and have been widely applied in analysing community-based tourism projects as well as, more recently, community-focused TSE ventures (Laeis & Lemke, 2016). More than a theoretical framework, CCF serves as a practical community development planning framework that extends the sustainable livelihoods approach to community development (Gutierrez-Montes, Emery, & Fernandez-Baca, 2009). Particularly, CCF suggests assets that need to be further invested in and transformed into seven community capitals (Emery et al., 2006).

Table 1

Community capitals able to be utilised in tourism social entrepreneurship (TSE)

Capital	Descriptions[a]
Natural capital	Geography, natural environment and resources of a place, including its landforms, plants and wildlife, which in many cases compose the core tourist attractions at a destination
Built capital	Made physical structures such as buildings, roads and other facilities that support the mobilisation of TSE
Financial capital	Monetary resources required to develop a community's infrastructure and capacity to fund TSE projects
Political capital	Power dynamics and relations between institutions within a community, including tourism social entrepreneurs' ability to influence local decisions
Social capital	Social structures and networks within a community as well as tourism social entrepreneurs' networking abilities
Cultural capital	Totality of a community's way of life including their customs and traditions that impact their worldview and actions, influencing the design and delivery of tourism experiences
Human capital	Community's talents, education and skills that will enable them to utilise and improve their assets, outsource resources that are not present in their locality, and perform specific roles in TSE

[a]Adapted from Flora et al. (2004) and Emery et al. (2006)

Table 1 shows how these assets can be utilised in the context of TSE. In general, these include tangible assets which can be the bases of tourism product development (e.g. natural, built and financial capitals), and intangible assets that support the delivery of these products, and the functions and processes of elements in the tourism system (e.g. political, social, cultural and human capitals). Still, it should be taken into account that host communities may not possess all the necessary assets required for TSE; this requires TSE actors to outsource capitals from outside the community (Sheldon et al., 2017).

In this circumstance, tourism social entrepreneurs' role as 'network architects' (Mottiar et al., 2018) needs to come into play, as they will rely on their networks and networking abilities to secure such resources (e.g. funding). Imbued in their market orientation, networking abilities will aid tourism social entrepreneurs in developing market structures, engaging with other TSE actors and organisations, and building the market pictures (Sigala, 2016) that are required for delivering social value and sustainable development outcomes. Nonetheless, it can be assumed that the interactions of TSE actors and processes may affect the utilisation and outsourcing of community capitals. These processes may also affect the state of community resources. It is implied that when these assets are utilised, a number of outcomes may result, either in the same or in the rest of the capital domains (Emery & Flora, 2006; Flora et al., 2004).

Finally, also located at the centre of the framework is the aim of TSE to foster *sustainable community development*; this involves producing sustainable economic, social and environmental outcomes for the destination communities (de Lange & Dodds, 2017; Flora et al., 2004). Although goals should manifest within these aspects of community life, the ultimate aim is to create independent and empowered communities that can manage and address their own problems and needs through social entrepreneurship (El Ebrashi, 2013). This vision encapsulates the real essence of community development, which is based on community solidarity and agency (Bhattacharyya, 2004), and of sustainable community development that promotes social justice and transformation (Manteaw, 2007). Integrating solidarity and agency-building maximises the potential of TSE to generate sustainable community development outcomes (e.g. economic, social and environmental). Thus, this conceptual framework demonstrates TSE for sustainable community development as a process and activity led by tourism social entrepreneurs engaging with local communities, institutions and decision-makers, shaped by local contextual factors and external (macro-environmental) forces, facilitated through social enterprises implementing social innovation and market-based strategies, mobilised by the utilisation and outsourcing of community capitals, and founded on building solidarity and agency amongst host communities.

4. Conclusions and implications

The purpose of this paper was to conceptualise TSE as a more holistic strategy for sustainable community development. Social entrepreneurship through tourism was exemplified as a market-based strategy that can act as a viable tool for alleviating societal problems whilst maximising the benefits, and minimising the negative consequences, that the industry may generate for host communities. In an era where innovative and sustainable tourism industry practices are continuously researched and developed, TSE exhibits a timely alternative to conventional tourism entrepreneurship. Yet there is a considerable lack of understanding on how TSE can be a catalyst for sustainable community development. The main contribution of this paper lies in alleviating this gap in the literature by proposing a conceptual framework which exemplifies a possible, and to some extent an ideal, mechanism for TSE to support sustainable community development. This conceptual framework uses a systems perspective, within which the important actors, contextual factors, processes, necessary resources, use of community capitals, and the fundamental principles of community development are all integrated.

The importance of social entrepreneurship for tourism lies in the potential to create social value whilst generating profit, implement social innovation activities that encourage society's active participation, and foster sustainable development outcomes. These propositions are implied to create a more inclusive and sustainable tourism industry. However, the complexity of the tourism system is fuelled by multiple actors/sectors and their dynamic interactions. The proposed conceptual framework prompts tourism social entrepreneurs to the idea that both social entrepreneurship and tourism are context bound. As 'social capitalists', they should first obtain a good grasp of these complexities, by involving, partnering with, and learning from host communities (e.g. residents, government, and other public or private institutions), when

drafting and implementing their social missions. By investing on solidarity-building within host communities, TSE may increase the likelihood for marginalised communities to have meaningful participation in tourism, and for their needs and aspirations to be heard and actioned upon by local governments which usually possess the power of implementing tourism development initiatives. This may be achieved through social entrepreneurs' leadership and ability to influence and educate local tourism actors (e.g. Mottiar et al., 2018). In enhancing community agency, the conceptual framework emphasises the need to nurture not just residents' social and political capitals, but also their human capital (e.g. practical tourism skills and knowledge). Apart from these, the continuation of value creation and entrepreneurial activities is vital for TSE in achieving sustainable community development. The challenge rests on TSE actors (including researchers) in evaluating the impacts of tourism social enterprise initiatives, which is important in re-assessing potential subsequent changes in wider community aspirations that need subsequent attention.

Overall, this conceptual paper has addressed the lack of theoretical understanding of TSE as part of responding to the call for developing community-based social innovation strategies through tourism. The conceptual framework applies a 'territory-based' idea of community and is relevant for social enrepreneurs aiming to follow 'provider-capacity building' and 'intermediary-movement building' TSE types presented in Figure 1. In practice, the proposed framework can be adopted by social entrepreneurs as they embark on new community-focused tourism social enterprises, or by tourism administrators that plan to adopt the TSE model in their localities. Researchers may also operationalise the framework in investigating how TSE can be implemented for community development, monitoring the outcomes of TSE for host communities, and examining whether and how TSE induces the sustainable development of host communities.

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Appendix

Tourism social entrepreneurship studies in the context of community development

Authors	Research Aim	Tourism Social Enterprises	Methods	Key Findings
McCarthy (2008)	Explore the business model adapted by an artists' retreat.	Cill Rialaig (Ireland) • Artists' retreat • Advocates social, economic and artistic aspects of community development	Exploratory qualitative case study • Interviews	Art fairs and exhibitions became accessible to residents. Enhancement of residents' art skills and young adults' preparation for art degrees.
Sakata and Prideaux (2013)	Explore the governance of a social enterprise in a small-scale community-based ecotourism project.	Waluma Guesthouse (Papua New Guinea) • Accommodation • Initiator of a wider community-based ecotourism project	Qualitative case study • Participant observations • Semi-structured interviews	Guesthouse income was distributed in the community. Increase in residents' environmental awareness from environmental education and economic incentives. Local community agency was strong, providing residents a high level of control over decision-making. Private ownership was preferred over community (multiple or collective) ownership.

Sloan, Legrand, and Simons-Kaufmann (2014)	Analyse the applicability of community-based social entrepreneurial management systems in the context of developing countries where indigenous populations are involved in the entrepreneurial initiatives.	Seven accommodation-type tourism social enterprises involving indigenous populations located in developing countries were surveyed: 1. Rainforest Expedition Lodges (Peru) 2. Periyar Tiger Reserve Lodges (India) 3. Roteiros de Charme Hotel Association (Brazil) 4. Turtle Conservation Project Village (Sri Lanka) 5. Uakari Lodge (Brazil) 6. The Racha Hotel (Thailand) 7. Thimp Tourist Centre (Bhutan)	Multiple case studies • Analysis of written reports guided by research questions.	Increase in employment opportunities, income, education and quality of life improvement in their host communities. Challenges related to employing residents due to cultural factors, depending on the location. Cultural and behavioural changes such as locals' adaptation to westernised behaviour, were reported.
Peredo and Wurzelmann (2015)	Review the establishment and development of a community tourism social enterprise.	Takana Indigenous Community (Bolivia)	Mixed methods case study • Participant observation • Focus groups • Interviews • Surveys • Economic analysis	Economic benefits in forms of employment generation and increase in income, and non-monetary benefits such as improved social cohesion, community pride, local capacities and local leadership, were found.

		- Indigenous community-based ecotourism social enterprise - Address community economic, social, and environmental challenges		Improper implementation and management of training and technical assistance from external sources, difficulties in destination marketing, ensuring long-term profitability, and poor leadership transition, challenge the community.
Altinay, Sigala, and Waligo (2016)	Identify the resource needs of a tourism social enterprise and evaluate the means by which these resources are mobilised (p. 404).	Guludo Beach Lodge (Mozambique) - Accommodation-type tourism social enterprise - Advocates local sustainable development that incurs minimal costs to the environment, and minimum developmental and organisation costs (p. 407).	Qualitative case study Interviews	Stakeholder involvement and collaboration, and networking with and empowering communities are important strategies in mobilising resources for TSE.

Laeis and Lemke (2016)	Analyse the dynamic interactions between social entrepreneurs, host communities' livelihood assets and related transforming structures and processes, using the sustainable livelihoods framework.	Grootbos Foundation (South Africa) • Biodiversity conservation agency advocating sustainable livelihoods through ecotourism • 'Growing the Future'(GTF) project - educating marginalised women in agriculture and other skills, and…producing organic food for the tourism lodge to cater to an increasingly eco-minded clientele (p. 1081).	Qualitative case study • Participatory action research • Interviews • Site observations	Overdependence on external funding, lack of profitability, contradicting visions, and power imbalances amongst stakeholders, challenged and failed the GTF initiative.
Stenvall, Laven, and Gelbman (2017)	Investigate how TSE can deliver societal benefits in a disadvantaged Arab village in Israel.	Juha's Guesthouse (Israel) • Arab-Jewish accommodation-type social enterprise partnership • Stir local economy, initiate volunteer programmes in the community by welcoming guests	Qualitative case study • Participant observations • Interviews	TSE was found as a market-based peace-building mechanism in an Israeli-Palestinian locality. The guesthouse facilitated subsequent tourism and business development in the area.

Franzidis (2018)	Explore the business model adopted by a successful tourism social enterprise in Nicaragua; and evaluate the ways on how the establishment addresses the barriers to residents' participation in tourism.	Hotel con Corazon (Nicaragua) • Accommodation-type tourism social enterprise • Supports local educational programmes	Qualitative case study • Interviews • Field observations • Photographing • Document collection/analysis	The host community benefits from the social enterprise through job creation, supplying resources to the business, and educational funding. Generating shared value amongst stakeholders determines the success of the tourism social enterprise.