

Kruse, Philipp; Kamau, Pauline Wangari

Article

Looking through the entrepreneurial kaleidoscope: Examining stereotypes against commercial, social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs in Kenya and Germany

Administrative Sciences

Provided in Cooperation with:

MDPI – Multidisciplinary Digital Publishing Institute, Basel

Suggested Citation: Kruse, Philipp; Kamau, Pauline Wangari (2024) : Looking through the entrepreneurial kaleidoscope: Examining stereotypes against commercial, social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs in Kenya and Germany, Administrative Sciences, ISSN 2076-3387, MDPI, Basel, Vol. 14, Iss. 11, pp. 1-24,
<https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci14110302>

This Version is available at:

<https://hdl.handle.net/10419/321108>

Standard-Nutzungsbedingungen:

Die Dokumente auf EconStor dürfen zu eigenen wissenschaftlichen Zwecken und zum Privatgebrauch gespeichert und kopiert werden.

Sie dürfen die Dokumente nicht für öffentliche oder kommerzielle Zwecke vervielfältigen, öffentlich ausstellen, öffentlich zugänglich machen, vertreiben oder anderweitig nutzen.

Sofern die Verfasser die Dokumente unter Open-Content-Lizenzen (insbesondere CC-Lizenzen) zur Verfügung gestellt haben sollten, gelten abweichend von diesen Nutzungsbedingungen die in der dort genannten Lizenz gewährten Nutzungsrechte.

Terms of use:

Documents in EconStor may be saved and copied for your personal and scholarly purposes.

You are not to copy documents for public or commercial purposes, to exhibit the documents publicly, to make them publicly available on the internet, or to distribute or otherwise use the documents in public.

If the documents have been made available under an Open Content Licence (especially Creative Commons Licences), you may exercise further usage rights as specified in the indicated licence.



<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Article

Looking Through the Entrepreneurial Kaleidoscope—Examining Stereotypes Against Commercial, Social, Environmental, and Community Entrepreneurs in Kenya and Germany

Philipp Kruse *  and Pauline Wangari Kamau

Faculty of Psychology, School of Science, Technical University Dresden, 01069 Dresden, Germany

* Correspondence: philipp.kruse@tu-dresden.de

Abstract: For the greater part of entrepreneurial history, entrepreneurship's primary target was commercial, i.e., money generation for the entrepreneur and his or her stakeholders. However, starting in the 1980s, hybrid forms of entrepreneurship fusing the creation of non-financial value with entrepreneurial means have gained traction. Currently, several conceptually different forms, e.g., social, environmental, and community entrepreneurship, exist. Research yields various differences comparing commercial and hybrid entrepreneurship, particularly in the stereotypical perceptions of different entrepreneurs. Notwithstanding notable insights, entrepreneurial stereotype research suffers from three major shortcomings. First, stereotype differences are primarily examined by comparing commercial to hybrid entrepreneurs, neglecting stereotype differences *inside* hybrid entrepreneurship. Second, the scope of stereotypes investigated (e.g., warmth and competence) remains vague and lacks entrepreneurial specificity. Third, the robustness of entrepreneurial stereotypes under different institutional circumstances, e.g., in economy and culture, is unclear. The current study addresses these three shortcomings. Analyzing two samples from Kenya and Germany ($N_{total} = 286$) with repeated-measures analyses of co-variance, we find notable stereotype differences (i) inside hybrid entrepreneurs; (ii) regarding warmth, competence, and entrepreneurship-specific success indicators; and (iii) under different institutional circumstances. Despite acknowledgeable limitations, our work extends previous stereotype research by highlighting the necessity for a more fine-grained, specific, and inter-country perspective on entrepreneurial stereotypes.

Keywords: hybrid entrepreneurship; stereotypes; Germany; Kenya; empirical



Citation: Kruse, Philipp, and Pauline Wangari Kamau. 2024. Looking Through the Entrepreneurial Kaleidoscope—Examining Stereotypes Against Commercial, Social, Environmental, and Community Entrepreneurs in Kenya and Germany. *Administrative Sciences* 14: 302. <https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci14110302>

Received: 18 October 2024

Revised: 10 November 2024

Accepted: 12 November 2024

Published: 15 November 2024



Copyright: © 2024 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

1. Introduction

Entrepreneurship is considered a major driver of innovativeness, economic growth, and societal wealth (Cao and Shi 2021; Stephan et al. 2016; van Praag and Versloot 2007). Ever since Cantillon (1756) outlined the first scientific conceptualization of entrepreneurship as an activity of buying goods at a certain price and selling them at a higher price, financial profit for entrepreneurs and their stakeholders was seen as the dominant force behind entrepreneurial activity (see Murphy et al. (2006) for a historical overview). However, starting in the 1980s and 90s, the restricted, purely monetary scope of entrepreneurship was widened, and new entrepreneurial forms blending money-making aspirations with a non-financial mission emerged (Anderson and Leal 1997; Johannisson 1990; Young 1983). Such forms, broadly referred to as mission-driven entrepreneurship (Komatsu Cipriani et al. 2020; Stephan et al. 2016), combine the traditional creation of financial value through entrepreneurial behavior with aspirations to achieve a second form of value (Tracey and Phillips 2007), e.g., social (social entrepreneurship; SE), environmental (environmental entrepreneurship; EE), or community value (community entrepreneurship; CE). To exemplify, social entrepreneurs are driven by a social mission like poverty reduction or the empowerment of marginalized and disadvantaged groups (Austin et al. 2006;

Kruse et al. 2021). Environmental entrepreneurs address environmental degradation and related market failures like pollution or overfishing, aiming to contribute to the preservation of our natural environment (Dean and McMullen 2007; Keogh and Polonsky 1998). Community entrepreneurs create commercial, social, and/or environmental value by mobilizing resources and residents of local communities. Thus, their entrepreneurial activities and impacts are linked to a specific community of operation (Johannisson 1990). Thereby, CE emphasizes mutual community commitment sparked by the community entrepreneur (Buratti et al. 2022). Whereas all these forms share notable aspects with traditionally commercial entrepreneurial activity like opportunity recognition, risk-taking, and the aspiration to generate profit, SE, EE, and CE are hybrid, as they pursue a double bottom line combining financial interests with a mission (Austin et al. 2006; Buratti et al. 2022; Vedula et al. 2022).

The evolution of entrepreneurship from a purely commercial to a more versatile concept not only showcases today's kaleidoscopic nature of entrepreneurship but also kick-started related research (Kaushik et al. 2023; Sassmannshausen and Volkmann 2018; Volery and Mazzarol 2015). In the last two decades, a rich variety of studies concerned with the exploration of similarities and differences between various forms of entrepreneurship emerged (Kaushik et al. 2023; Saebi et al. 2019; Vedula et al. 2022). Common topics cover the person level, e.g., the exploration of personality and motivational differences comparing nascent commercial and social entrepreneurs (Bacq et al. 2013; Chipeta et al. 2020; Wach et al. 2023), and the enterprise level, e.g., various scaling and impact strategies in different entrepreneurial forms (Bloom and Chatterji 2009; Kruse et al. 2024; Rawhouser et al. 2019). What is more, recent studies offered the first insights into the interplay of personal and enterprise-level variables, particularly how the business model chosen can affect the perception of entrepreneurs by relevant stakeholders through stereotypes (Gupta et al. 2019; Kruse and Rosing 2023).

Stereotypes, i.e., mental shortcuts in the form of shared beliefs that individuals depend upon to make sense of the world's complexities (Leyens et al. 1994; McCauley et al. 1980; Schneider 2005), are widespread in several domains, including entrepreneurship. In fact, convincing evidence outlining the substantial impact of stereotypes in several entrepreneurial contexts exists (see Jennings and Tonoyan (2022) or Küssbauer and Baum (2023) for examples). To illustrate, entrepreneurship is considered a stereotypically male career path (think-entrepreneur-think-male, cf. Laguía et al. (2019)), and it has been shown that such gender-related biases can negatively impact female entrepreneurs' access to funding (cf. Malmström et al. (2024)). Furthermore, the first indications exist that there are also stereotypical beliefs held against hybrid entrepreneurs. Gupta et al. (2019) could show that features attributed to social entrepreneurs cover male and female stereotypes, and a study by Kruse and Rosing (2023) indicates significant differences in perceived personality and leadership stereotypes comparing commercial and social entrepreneurs.

Notwithstanding this notable progress, through a hybrid entrepreneurship lens, three central gaps remain:

First, no comprehensive investigation of stereotypes held against different forms of hybrid entrepreneurship exists. So far, pertinent studies focus on one form of hybrid entrepreneurship (mostly SE) and compare related stereotypes to stereotypes held against commercial entrepreneurs (see Menke (2020) as an example). However, this bears the risk of underestimating the variety of different forms of hybrid entrepreneurship. Thus, to date, it remains unclear whether and to what extent differences in stereotypical beliefs *inside* hybrid entrepreneurial forms exist.

Second, the scope of stereotypes examined in the entrepreneurial context remains vague and unspecific. Most studies exploring stereotypes against entrepreneurs build on the integrative Stereotype Content Model (SCM; Cuddy et al. (2008)) focusing on warmth stereotypes, i.e., perceived friendliness and competence stereotypes, i.e., perceived abilities, or explore female and male stereotypes held against (hybrid) entrepreneurs (Berry and Sanchez 2019; Menke 2020; Oo et al. 2022). However, these largely overlap with

warmth (female) and competence (male). While previous work yields notable and valuable insights, we take the view that the *specificity* of stereotypes explored should be increased to complement broad SCM-insights. A promising candidate can be stereotypical beliefs held regarding different criteria of entrepreneurial success (Wach et al. 2016).

Third, research remains surprisingly silent on how *robust* the content of entrepreneurial stereotypes is in the face of varying institutional circumstances in different countries. Following Institutional Theory (North 1991), institutions, i.e., deep-level structural aspects in society, may alter cognition and behavior. Thereby, informal institutions like culture are “soft” socio-cognitive norms, while formal institutions encompass “hard” political and economic factors. Previous research suggests culturally triggered differences in some stereotypes (Cuddy et al. 2009; Stanciu et al. 2017; Wilde and Diekmann 2005). However, it is unclear whether these general insights can be applied to (hybrid) entrepreneurial stereotypes.

Our study addresses all three shortcomings in one comprehensive empirical study analyzing a total sample of $N = 286$ participants ($N_{Kenya} = 155$; $N_{Germany} = 131$). Taking a look *inside* different forms of hybrid entrepreneurship, we compare stereotypes held against social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs (i) to stereotypes held against commercial entrepreneurs and (ii) with each other in order to map differences and similarities. Second, we add to the *specificity* of stereotype research in (hybrid) entrepreneurship by exploring SCM-based warmth and competence stereotypes and stereotypes regarding entrepreneurial success based on the criteria identified by Wach et al. (2016). Third, to investigate the *robustness* of entrepreneurial stereotype content, we explore stereotypes in Kenya and Germany, two countries with notable differences in informal and formal institutions.

The remainder of this article is structured as follows: First, we conceptualize SE, EE, and CE as hybrid forms of entrepreneurship. Second, we review existing research on entrepreneurial stereotypes, particularly regarding hybrid entrepreneurial forms, outline three central shortcomings in current research, and derive our hypotheses. Third, the sampling and methodological details are summarized, and our statistical analysis methods are outlined. Fourth, after presenting our results, we discuss them and derive implications, policy recommendations, and limitations of the current study.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Social, Environmental, and Community Entrepreneurship as Forms of Hybrid Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurial thoughts and activities have been omnipresent throughout human history. Dating back to the origins of mankind and the first basic forms of trade in tribal communities, forms of entrepreneurship could be remarked upon in almost all fields of living, like farming or even warfare (see Murphy et al. (2006) for a comprehensive overview). However, it took until the 18th century for the first formal scientific conceptualization of entrepreneurship (Cantillon 1756). This conceptualization encompassed basic characteristics of entrepreneurial behavior like opportunity recognition and risk-taking, emphasizing entrepreneurs’ aspirations to earn money by buying and selling goods. In the next 200 years, the entrepreneurial scope widened by identifying entrepreneurs’ contributions to the economy as a whole (Menger 1871), their disruptive and innovative power (Schumpeter 1934), or their psychological properties (McClelland 1961). What remained largely unchanged, however, was the commercial focus of entrepreneurial activity. In the 1980s, the first formal conceptualizations of entrepreneurial impact beyond financial value creation emerged, exemplified by Young’s pioneering work “*If not for profit, for what?*” Young (1983), dealing with possibilities to create non-financial value through entrepreneurial means. This paved the way for the development of different forms of hybrid entrepreneurship.

Social entrepreneurship (SE) is a form of hybrid entrepreneurship driven by a social mission (Kruse 2020a; Kruse et al. 2021). Social entrepreneurs target the creation of positive social change, for example, by issuing microcredits to disadvantaged debtors (Yunus 1999) or integrating marginalized groups like former drug addicts or prisoners into the labor market (Devlin and Wight 2021; Perrini et al. 2010). In contrast to NGOs, however, hybrid

social enterprises operate based on an elaborated business plan generating their own income (Austin et al. 2006). This way, social enterprises aim to remain independent from private donations or political funding. The main criterion distinguishing SE from Corporate Social Responsibility (see Aguinis and Glavas (2012) for a comprehensive overview of the concept) lies in the social mission. For social enterprises, social value creation is fundamental, and social entrepreneurs are prepared to accept lower revenues for the sake of their mission. In contrast, commercial enterprises engaged in Corporate Social Responsibility apply such measures instrumentally, for example, to attract socially minded customers (Stephan et al. 2016).

Environmental Entrepreneurship (EE) can be defined as ‘the process of discovering, evaluating, and exploiting economic opportunities that are present in environmentally relevant market failures.’ (Dean and McMullen 2007, p. 58). The core assumption of EE is rooted in market economics, more specifically, market failure (Anderson and Leal 1997). Market failure encompasses the failure of an economy to promote and sustain desirable actions while discouraging and preventing from performing undesirable actions (Bator 1958). Applied to the environmental context, market failure encompasses failure to prevent environmentally harmful actions like pollution, overfishing, or clear-cutting. However, following Shane and Venkataraman (2000), these environmentally harmful market failures can be seen as opportunities and have the potential to spark entrepreneurial actions targeting an alleviation of environmentally harmful actions and/or their consequences. Thereby, environmental entrepreneurs fuse the creation of financial value for themselves and their stakeholders with environmentally beneficial activities (Dudin et al. 2019). This makes EE a specific form of the more general concept of sustainable entrepreneurship (Dean and McMullen 2007; Vedula et al. 2022).

Community Entrepreneurship (CE) is a form of hybrid entrepreneurship ‘that engage[s] in commercial activity and operate[s] for the development of a local community by bringing economic, social, and environmental benefits.’ (Buratti et al. 2022, p. 376). While this definition posits a notable overlap with elements of SE and EE, especially regarding the kind of non-financial value created, CE is largely seen as a distinct concept, as it has a higher focus on a specific community and the promotion and involvement of community members (Pierre et al. 2014; Tracey et al. 2005). In many cases, CE is a bottom-up form of entrepreneurial activity initiated by community members and sustained by local institutions (Johannisson 1990; Kawharu et al. 2017; Peredo 2003). These activities can appear in a rich variety of different forms and are particularly widespread in Latin America, usually as community co-operatives and, in many cases, initiated by indigenous populations (see Peredo (2003) and Dana and Dana (2007) for examples). Thus, CE is not only considered a versatile tool to improve living conditions in impoverished communities but can also be seen as a way of empowering marginalized social groups (Giovannini 2015; Kawharu et al. 2017).

As the three different forms of hybrid entrepreneurship outlined above show, “entrepreneurship” has not only become an umbrella term for many different entrepreneurial forms but also, as it turns out, its “hybrid wing” has become increasingly diverse. While notable overlaps of SE, EE, and CE exist like a non-financial mission targeting the creation of positive societal change and the pursuit of a double-bottom-line, the form’s scope of action (social, environmental, community) and, thereby, also the opportunities spotted by hybrid entrepreneurs differ. This underscores the kaleidoscopic nature of hybrid entrepreneurship. Consequently, as SE, EE, and CE are constituted as conceptually distinct forms of hybrid entrepreneurship, it seems reasonable to believe that they are also *perceived* differently by stakeholders and the general public, for example, with different stereotypes (Kruse and Rosing 2023).

2.2. Stereotypes in the Entrepreneurial Context

In social psychology, stereotypes are defined as mental shortcuts in the form of shared beliefs that individuals rely upon to make sense of the world’s complexities (Schneider

2005). While, depending on the discipline, notable conceptual differences can be remarked upon (see Kanahara (2006) for a review), mutually shared attributes of stereotypes exist. Hogg and Vaughan (2010) summarized these attributes into five broad dimensions. First, stereotypes are seen as simplified images of groups. Hence, they are used disparagingly on members of the outgroup and indicate apparent differences between outgroups and in-groups. Second, due to their simplified nature, they are readily available on memory to allow the perceiver to make quick impressions of others. Accordingly, they are referred to as mental shortcuts as they shorten the judgment process when an individual is confronted with a social stimulus. Third, they are cognitively adaptive, making them rigid and slow to change. Nevertheless, stereotypes are contextual, meaning that they differ from one group to another depending on the motives, objectives, and needs of different groups. Fourth, some stereotypes are learned during early childhood, while others form later. Consequently, with time, those discovered at an early age become firmly imprinted on the perceiver's mind, thus explaining their rigidity further. Fifth, the authors stipulated that stereotypes become more distinct and antagonistic during intergroup tensions and conflicts. For instance, tribal stereotypes have been, in the past, used to fuel anger and hatred in Kenya (Kuppens et al. 2018). It can, therefore, be concluded that stereotypes have significant functions in social interactions.

While, in general, stereotypes can and do exist regarding every distinguishable social group, gender stereotypes are one dominating stream in the stereotype literature. As bibliometric analyses show, gender stereotype research has been gaining traction since 2005, resulting in an annual increase in research output (Jennings and Tonoyan 2022). However, notable insights about national stereotypes also exist. These include perceptions of attributes and behavior considered “typical” of individuals with a certain nationality. These national stereotypes can differ notably. To exemplify, Germans are stereotypically considered punctual, effective, and competent on the upside but stiff, lacking in humor, and hard to socialize with on the downside (Allen 2016; Burns et al. 1995). In contrast, Kenyans are stereotypically perceived as generous, loyal, and supportive on the upside but superstitious or even violent on the downside (Naituli and King'oro 2018; Situma et al. 2018).

Reviewing the literature investigating stereotypes in the entrepreneurial context also yields a clear dominance of gender-related stereotype research (Jennings and Tonoyan 2022). The most frequent topics in this research stream encompass female and male stereotyping of entrepreneurs (Bruni et al. 2004; Gupta et al. 2008), biases (e.g., “think-entrepreneur-think-male”; Laguía et al. (2019)), or discrimination (e.g., of female entrepreneurs in funding decisions; Malmström et al. (2024)). Through a hybrid entrepreneurship lens, one core theme evolved around the attribution of stereotypical attributes to social compared to commercial entrepreneurs and potential effects on entrepreneurial intentions (see Gupta et al. (2008) and Gupta et al. (2019) for examples). Another yet significantly smaller stream takes a more integrative view and investigates competence and warmth stereotypes held against (hybrid) entrepreneurs based on the Stereotype Content Model (SCM).

SCM, widely acknowledged as the most universally applicable model in the realm of stereotype research (Cuddy et al. 2008, 2009; Fiske 2018), postulates two cardinal dimensions of stereotype content. Warmth, comprised of traits like friendliness, honesty, sincerity, amiability, and morality, indicates the subjective belief of persons that a certain group (e.g., entrepreneurs) has favorable (high warmth) or unfavorable (low warmth) intentions towards them. Competence encompasses skills, confidence, creativity, and intelligence as main traits and describes whether a certain group has high (high competence) or low (low competence) abilities to actually carry out an intention. Thus, social groups can be clustered into four main categories: high warmth/high competence (e.g., professionals), high warmth/low competence (e.g., elderly), low warmth/high competence (e.g., rich people), and low warmth/low competence (e.g., homeless people). Several empirical studies back SCM assumptions in various contexts and cultures (cf. Luna Cortes 2024), and its suitability

has been demonstrated in the entrepreneurial context (see [Berry and Sanchez \(2019\)](#) for an example). Also, in hybrid entrepreneurship, the first studies applying SCM (or its assumptions) can be remarked on. [Menke \(2020\)](#) examined differences in warmth and competence perceptions of commercial and social entrepreneurs in the German population and found significantly higher levels of perceived competence for commercial and significantly higher levels of warmth for social entrepreneurs. Similarly, [Kruse and Rosing \(2023\)](#) could show that social entrepreneurs are perceived as more agreeable, benevolent, and altruistic. This largely corresponds to the warmth dimension outlined in SCM. While similar research explicitly covering EE and CE does not exist, we take the view that similar effects occur also for these two forms of hybrid enterprises. Thus, we derive the following hypothesis:

H₁. *Social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs score higher on warmth but lower on competence stereotypes compared to commercial entrepreneurs.*

2.3. Central Gaps in Research on Hybrid Entrepreneurship Stereotypes

Notwithstanding notable progress in the exploration of stereotypes in hybrid entrepreneurship, central gaps remain. We take the view that three of the most pressing ones are (i) the negligence of potential differences in stereotypes *inside* hybrid entrepreneurship, (ii) lacking *specificity* in the kinds of stereotypes investigated, and (iii) an underdeveloped examination of stereotype *robustness* in the light of different institutional circumstances in different countries.

(a) Stereotype Differences *Inside* Hybrid Entrepreneurship

Whereas convincing evidence regarding differences in perceived warmth and competence comparing social and commercial entrepreneurs exists, research remains surprisingly silent on (potential) differences in stereotypes regarding different forms of hybrid enterprises. As previously outlined in Section 2.1, notable differences in the kind of value created besides financial value exist. While SE focuses on social value, EE's main purpose is the creation of environmental value. In CE, mutual value creation in a specific community through collective action is the key criterion. Going beyond the conceptual level, the first empirical insights indicate differences in comparing different forms of hybrid entrepreneurship. A Global Entrepreneurship Monitor data analysis by [Hörisch et al. \(2017\)](#) suggests that, in contrast to SE, higher age is a significant predictor for EE activity. What is more, several "typical" socio-demographic features linked to SE activity are not present among environmental entrepreneurs. This can also be relevant for the evolution of different stereotypes, as socio-demographics are one important source of stereotypes.

Taking the view that due to conceptual differences and first indirect empirical evidence, warmth, and competence stereotypes differ (*inside* forms of hybrid entrepreneurship, we formulate the following hypothesis:

H₂. *Stereotypes regarding warmth and competence differ when comparing social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs.*

(b) Towards more *Specificity* in Hybrid Entrepreneurship Stereotype Research

One central strength of SCM lies in its integrative nature. The SCM components warmth and competence comprise different stereotypical attributions and, as a result, are considered universally applicable aspects, allowing a relatively easy categorization of social groups ([Cuddy et al. 2008](#)). However, this bird's eye perspective bears the risk of oversimplification and overgeneralization for some specific social groups like entrepreneurs. To illustrate, for decades, economic rationalism suggested that monetary gain and respective performance indicators serve as the sole criteria for enterprise success ([Parker 2018](#)). Only slowly, a broader community of researchers started realizing that economic performance alone cannot fully explain the subjective evaluation of success by an entrepreneur ([Fisher et al. 2014](#); [Gorgievski et al. 2011](#); [Jayawarna et al. 2013](#)). In the end, broadening success criteria resulted in a more nuanced and, ultimately, more accurate assessment of entrepreneurial success ([Angel et al. 2018](#); [Manzano-García and Ayala-Calvo 2020](#)). In line

with this reasoning, Wach et al. (2016) identified five criteria of subjective entrepreneurial success, three of which we reckon are particularly suitable for a more nuanced view of stereotypical beliefs held against entrepreneurs. First, firm performance encompasses economic indicators of enterprise success, including stability and growth of the enterprise. Second, workplace relationships are defined as the quality of relations with stakeholders outside (e.g., investors or customers) and inside the enterprise (e.g., employees). Third, community impact captures the positive non-financial impact of the enterprise, e.g., social or environmental effects of entrepreneurial action. The two remaining criteria (personal fulfillment and personal reward) encompass aspects like personal preferences for work-life-balance or personal income growth that are highly individualistic and, thereby, rather unsuitable for the assessment of business model stereotypes in our study.

The proposed scale by Wach et al. (2016) emerged as psychometrically sound, valid, and inter-culturally robust. Furthermore, it has already been used in the context of SE (Kruse et al. 2024), therefore underscoring its applicability in the hybrid entrepreneurship context. In contrast to objective indicators like return on investment, the scale by Wach et al. covers subjective assessments of entrepreneurial success. We take the view that these subjective indicators mirror the conceptual differences between commercial entrepreneurship and the three different forms of hybrid entrepreneurship better and allow a more fine-grained examination of potential stereotypes driven by these apparent conceptual differences. As a result, we hypothesize the following:

H₃. *Stereotypes regarding firm performance, workplace relationships, and community impact differ when comparing commercial, social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs.*

(c) Exploring the *Robustness* of (Hybrid) Entrepreneurship Stereotypes under Different Institutional Circumstances

Stereotype contents can vary between countries (see Grigoryev (2022) for a summary). According to Institutional Theory, institutions as deep-level aspects of society are responsible for these differences by shaping individual and organizational behavior via two institutional forms (North 1991). On the one hand, informal institutions encompass socio-cognitive norms and values. They are conceptualized as “soft” as they are implicit and not formalized. Culture, defined as the collective programming of people’s minds (Hofstede 1984), is such an informal institution. On the other hand, formal institutions encompass objective and formalized circumstances exerting an influence on all actors in a society. One example of a formal institution is the stage of economic development. Formal institutions are explicit, measurable, and “hard” institutional factors.

Previous research shows that informal and formal institutions can have a notable impact on entrepreneurship (Hayton and Cacciotti 2013). To exemplify, Stephan and Pathak (2016) show that cultures endorsing self-protective and charismatic leadership values show higher levels of entrepreneurship. What is more, García-Cabrera and García-Soto (2008) outline that the degree of individualism in a culture may impact the propensity to become an entrepreneur. From a hybrid entrepreneurship perspective, cultural values have been shown to foster certain forms of hybrid compared to commercial entrepreneurship. As GEM-based evidence by Stephan et al. (2015) points out, post-materialistic cultures provide a more supportive environment for social entrepreneurs than materialistic cultural values. Regarding economic differences, a systematic review by Cao and Shi (2021) yields that, depending on the level of economic development, different forms of entrepreneurship emerge due to differences in promoters of and barriers to entrepreneurial activity. To illustrate, detrimental circumstances like poverty, a bad social welfare system, and weak formal institutions are largely considered a burden for commercial entrepreneurial activity. However, some scholars argue that such circumstances boost hybrid enterprises as they find more opportunities for mission-driven entrepreneurial activities (Turker and Altuntas Vural 2017).

While increasingly solid evidence of the impact of institutional differences on entrepreneurial activity exists, insights regarding the effects of entrepreneurial stereotypes

are scarce. As a notable exception, a recent work by [Gupta et al. \(2022\)](#) in which gender stereotypes held against entrepreneurs in the US and India were compared yielded ‘significant cross-national variation’ (p. 1073). However, due to the study’s focus on gender stereotypes, the scope is limited.

To investigate the robustness of (hybrid) entrepreneurship stereotypes under different institutional circumstances in a more comprehensive manner, we chose Kenya and Germany, two countries with obvious differences in (i) informal and (ii) formal institutions, and explore cross-country differences in commercial and three forms of hybrid entrepreneurship:

(i) Kenyan culture is characterized by strong hierarchies and low levels of individualism. Furthermore, Kenyans typically strive for short-term goal fulfillment, discounting long-term goals. German culture encompasses flat hierarchies, participation, and co-determination in which joint decision-making is preferred over authority decisions. Germans are highly individualistic, and they prefer long-term over short-term goals (cf. [Hofstede 2011](#)).

(ii) Kenya is a country with a relatively low level of economic development. However, this can spark entrepreneurial activity in two ways. First, due to the scarcity of other job opportunities, entrepreneurial activity can be driven by necessity. Second, high levels of socio-economic problems in Kenya can spark mission-driven entrepreneurship ([Ciambotti et al. 2021](#)). Germany is one of the leading and most resilient European economies and offers a rich portfolio of job opportunities ([Audretsch and Lehmann 2016](#); [Dustmann et al. 2014](#)). Thus, entrepreneurship is driven by opportunity rather than necessity, and, in general, entrepreneurship levels in Germany are low. Furthermore, due to the high level of social welfare, poverty, and social problems are at a low level, which could hinder the evolvement of mission-driven enterprises ([Turker and Altuntas Vural 2017](#)).

Despite differences in the official languages spoken in Kenya and Germany, Germany was preferred over the UK for one central reason. Kenya was a part of the British Empire from 1920 to 1963 ([Powell 2002](#)). During this time, a large number of British colonialists and settlers immigrated to Kenya. This had a notable influence on the Kenyan economy and culture. Furthermore, Kenya is still a member of the British Commonwealth. Thus, we expected notable similarities between informal and formal institutions ([Coombes et al. 2019](#); [Cullen 2017](#)). For checking the robustness of entrepreneurial stereotypes under different institutional circumstances in a more unbiased way, we selected Germany as it has no colonial or other major historical relations to Kenya. Given these notable differences in both institutional forms and as institutions may shape the cognition of individuals, we propose that institutional differences in Kenya and Germany impact entrepreneurial stereotypes and derive the following hypothesis:

H₄. *There are cross-country differences in stereotypes against commercial, social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs comparing Kenya and Germany.*

3. Methodology

3.1. Sample Acquisition, Sample Size, and Sample Composition

The targeted sample for our study was determined based on the two central purposes of the current work:

Purpose one was the examination of stereotypes. Thus, in order to gain broad and unbiased insights, we decided not to limit our acquisition to a certain group, like university students. Instead, we used wide-ranging social media platforms and communication tools to capture participants with different backgrounds and increase variety. The primary social media platform used was Facebook, as one of the most popular platforms worldwide ([Kruse 2024](#); [Vitak 2017](#)). In addition, LinkedIn and WhatsApp were used for study advertising and recruiting participants. As will be outlined in Section 3.2. in more detail, digital advertising tools were preferred as the study was conducted in an online format. As a sampling technique, convenience sampling was used. This sampling method was considered suitable, as (i) no pre-knowledge of the participants was required, as all participants received detailed descriptions of the hybrid entrepreneurial forms (cf. Section 3.2),

and (ii) stereotypes, particularly competence and warmth, are common, universal, and relatively stable heuristics used to judge people in all parts of the society (Cuddy et al. 2008). Thus, no restrictions in sample selection were made.

Purpose two encompassed the exploration of stereotype robustness under different institutional circumstances. Thus, we recruited samples from Kenya and Germany, two countries with notable cross-country differences regarding informal and formal institutions (cf. Section 2.3c). The decision to compare these two countries was driven by two central reasons. First, comparisons of European and African countries were frequently conducted in hybrid entrepreneurship contexts (see Chipeta et al. 2020, 2022; Kruse et al. 2019 for examples). This allows us to embed our findings and draw from a more solid theoretical and empirical basis. Second, the study authors originated from Kenya and Germany, respectively. This helped to avoid language misunderstandings in the case of item selections and adaptations and facilitated access to local and national networks in the subject recruitment process.

Regarding sample size, we calculated a power analysis to determine an adequate number of participants using G-Power (Faul et al. 2007). This analysis is based on two main parameters. First, our targeted statistical analysis procedure (F -value-based analysis of co-variance; see Section 3.4. for more details) was entered in the calculation. Second, we needed an a priori, i.e., expected effect size. Drawing from the stereotype literature, especially the literature on the effects of warmth and competence stereotypes, effect sizes usually range between 0.30 and 0.35. (cf. Canton et al. 2023; Swim 1994). Thus, we calculated two separate power analyses for each a priori effect size. As can be seen in Figure 1, the results yielded a sample range of $109 \leq N \leq 147$. This was our target range for participant recruitment.

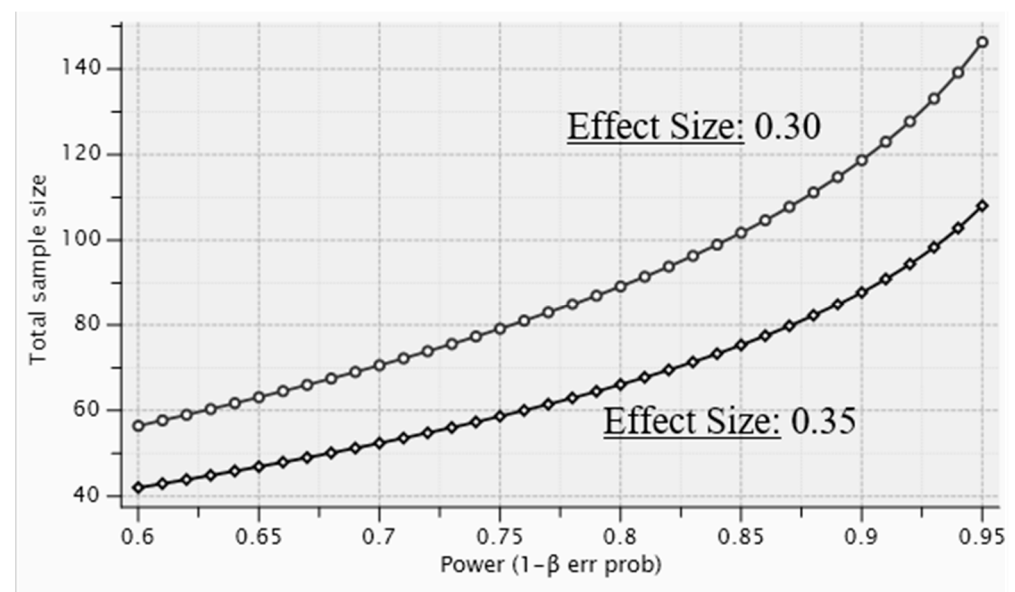


Figure 1. Results of power analysis for a priori effect sizes of 0.30 and 0.35 using G-Power.

The Kenyan sample is composed of 155 individuals with a mean age of 34.32 years ($SD = 4.76$ years). The age range covered was 18 to 60 years. Moreover, 44.50% of the sample were female. The German sample consists of 133 participants with a mean age of 24.60 years ($SD = 6.04$ years). Subjects' age ranged between 18 and 60 years. Moreover, 67.70% of the sample were female. Both N s are within the sample size range calculated by our power analysis.

3.2. Study Procedure

Data in both samples were acquired using the online survey tool Lime Survey. After being invited to the study, participants were familiarized with the purpose, structure, and

approximate duration of the questionnaire. Also, they were informed about data protection, study anonymity, and the solely scientific purposes of data acquisition. After giving their informed consent for participation, subjects were presented with four written statements in a random order. These four written statements offered information on the business models examined in our study (commercial entrepreneurship, SE, EE, and CE) by explaining the main features of each entrepreneurial form and describing an example enterprise. The written statements for commercial and social entrepreneurship were sourced from Wach et al. (2023). The written statements for EE and CE were self-constructed based on pertinent conceptualizations and featured an enterprise example from the country in which the written statements were presented. A pilot test before the study yielded a very good intelligibility of the two newly constructed written statements. These can be found in Appendix A. After each written statement, participants indicated their rating on warmth, competence, and the indicators of subjective entrepreneurial success. As all participants rated every entrepreneurial form, the study features a within-person design. In the last section of the questionnaire, subjects indicated their sex and age and were thanked for their participation. Incentives were not provided.

3.3. Measures

To capture participants' stereotypes, we measured warmth and competence based on SCM (Cuddy et al. 2008) as universal stereotype dimensions. The items originate from the scale proposed by Fiske et al. (2002). Furthermore, we used three indicators of subjective entrepreneurial success (firm performance, workplace relationships, and community impact) to assess more specific stereotypes. Items were taken from the scale by Wach et al. (2016). Items were presented in English for the Kenyan sample and in German for the German sample. In both cases, a 5-point Likert Scale, where one indicated a low score while five indicated a high score, was employed.

Warmth, i.e., the extent to which good intentions like friendliness, good-naturedness, and honesty are attributed to a certain social group, was measured with four items. As an example, participants were asked to rate the degree of 'sincerity' ($\alpha_{\text{Kenya}} = 0.92$; $\alpha_{\text{Germany}} = 0.90$).

Competence, i.e., the perceived ability of certain social groups to actually enact their intentions was measured with five items. To illustrate, subjects were asked for a rating of 'intelligence' ($\alpha_{\text{Kenya}} = 0.95$; $\alpha_{\text{Germany}} = 0.94$).

Firm performance, i.e., economic indicators of enterprise success, was measured with four items. Participants indicated, for example, how they rated the 'profit growth' of the enterprise ($\alpha_{\text{Kenya}} = 0.93$; $\alpha_{\text{Germany}} = 0.82$).

Workplace relationships, defined as the quality of enterprise relations with external and internal stakeholders, was assessed with three items. As an example, subjects rated 'strong customer relationships' of the enterprise ($\alpha_{\text{Kenya}} = 0.91$; $\alpha_{\text{Germany}} = 0.72$).

Community impact, which can be described as the positive non-financial impact of the enterprise, was measured with three items. To exemplify, participants rated the 'social contribution' of the enterprise ($\alpha_{\text{Kenya}} = 0.92$; $\alpha_{\text{Germany}} = 0.77$).

3.4. Statistical Analyses

To gain an overview of the data and investigate our hypotheses, we employed a four-step procedure. First, we checked important pre-conditions for our analyses to secure data quality and suitability for further calculations. Second, means and standard deviations for all stereotype ratings were computed separately for the Kenyan and German sample. Third, we applied repeated-measures multivariate analyses of co-variance (ANCOVA) to identify an overall difference in stereotype ratings based on the business model. The repeated-measures approach was necessary, as every subject rated every written statement (within-design, see Field (2018)). As co-variables, we controlled for age and gender, as both variables have been shown to affect stereotypes in previous work (Gupta et al. 2013; Kornadt et al. 2017). Fourth, in case an overall business-model-related difference was found

based on ANCOVAs' *F*-value, a post hoc test was conducted to identify exactly where the significant differences originated from.

4. Results

4.1. Pre-Analysis and Data Overview

In our pre-analysis, we checked the data regarding common method bias and sphericity. Common method bias is seen as a notable problem in business research and can occur when all data are acquired by one method only, e.g., questionnaires (Fuller et al. 2016). To examine the degree of common method bias in our data, we followed the recommendations by Kock (2020) and conducted Harman's single-factor test, in which all items captured are included in a factor analysis. If the variance explained by one single factor (the common method factor) does not exceed the threshold of 50%, common method bias is no fundamental problem in the data. In both samples, Harman's single factor test yielded values well below 50% (Kenya: 32.18%; Germany: 20.08%). Sphericity is a central assumption of repeated-measure AN(C)OVAS. It signifies that the variances between all levels of independent variables (in our case, the different business models) are equal (Lane 2016). If this pre-condition is not fulfilled, corrections need to be applied. As recommended by Field, we checked sphericity before each ANCOVA with Mauchly's sphericity test. In the case of non-sphericity, we applied a suitable correction based on ϵ -values. If $\epsilon > 0.75$ occurred, we used a Huynh–Feldt correction. If $\epsilon < 0.75$, a Greenhouse–Geisser correction was used (Girden 1992).

As AN(C)OVAs have been shown to be robust regarding violations of the normality assumption (Blanca Mena et al. 2017), normality was not tested. Also, we refrained from examining variance homogeneity, as this is no longer a universal recommendation and dispensable in the case of groups with equal sample sizes as in our study (see Zimmerman (2004) for a comprehensive discussion).

To gain an overview of the data, we calculated the means and standard deviations of all stereotype ratings. A summary of each business model can be seen in Table 1 (Kenya) and Table 2 (Germany). As both tables yield notable mean differences on a descriptive level, we continued calculating ANCOVAs in the next steps. In doing so, the mean scores in each stereotype will be used to determine the direction of significant differences, as AN(C)OVAs and post hoc tests only indicate the existence of a significant effect.

Table 1. Overview of means and standard deviations for the Kenyan sample ($N = 155$).

Underlying Concept	Stereotype Dimension	Entrepreneurial Form	M	SD
Stereotype Content Model (Cuddy et al. 2008)	Warmth	Commercial	3.66	1.10
		Social	4.02	1.02
		Environmental	3.81	1.06
		Community	4.05	1.05
	Competence	Commercial	4.26	0.96
		Social	3.94	1.06
		Environmental	3.77	1.05
		Community	3.84	1.00
Subjective Entrepreneurial Success (Wach et al. 2016)	Firm Performance	Commercial	4.29	0.83
		Social	3.72	0.96
		Environmental	3.50	0.97
		Community	3.55	0.98
	Workplace Relationships	Commercial	3.88	0.92
		Social	3.83	0.92
		Environmental	3.75	0.86
		Community	3.78	0.90
	Community Impact	Commercial	3.67	1.02
		Social	3.93	0.89
		Environmental	3.97	0.88
		Community	3.70	1.06

Table 2. Overview of means and standard deviations for the German sample ($N = 131$).

Underlying Concept	Stereotype Dimension	Entrepreneurial Form	M	SD
Stereotype Content Model (Cuddy et al. 2008)	Warmth	Commercial	2.29	0.65
		Social	4.38	0.57
		Environmental	4.00	0.70
		Community	4.21	0.68
	Competence	Commercial	4.17	0.56
		Social	3.40	0.64
		Environmental	3.69	0.62
		Community	3.37	0.67
Subjective Entrepreneurial Success (Wach et al. 2016)	Firm Performance	Commercial	4.50	0.54
		Social	2.70	0.77
		Environmental	3.09	0.70
		Community	2.73	0.76
	Workplace Relationships	Commercial	3.02	0.68
		Social	4.19	0.63
		Environmental	4.12	0.66
		Community	4.20	0.57
	Community Impact	Commercial	2.41	0.69
		Social	4.44	0.54
		Environmental	4.41	0.60
		Community	4.21	0.69

4.2. Hypotheses

Hypothesis H_1 predicted that compared to commercial entrepreneurs, social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs score higher on warmth but lower on competence. As can be seen in Table 3, we find evidence for a significant difference in competence ($F(3, 456) = 2.87, p < 0.05, \eta^2 = 0.02$). The post hoc test yielded that this is rooted in a higher level of competence attributed to commercial entrepreneurs compared to entrepreneurs with a hybrid business model (cf. Table 1). This is in line with hypothesis H_1 . However, no significant differences for warmth stereotypes occurred ($F(2.76, 405.91) = 0.64, p = 0.58$), disconfirming our hypothesis. These results yield mixed evidence for hypothesis H_1 in the Kenyan sample. In the German sample, we find full support for our hypothesis. As Table 4 shows, significant general business model differences for warmth ($F(2.60, 309.20) = 33.64, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.22$) and competence ($F(2.79, 332.18) = 5.13, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.04$) emerged. Both significant effects originated from higher levels of warmth and lower levels of competence attributed to hybrid entrepreneurs (cf. Table 2).

Regarding H_2 on differences in warmth and competence stereotypes comparing social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs, we find no such differences in the Kenyan sample. However, in the German sample, social entrepreneurs' warmth was rated higher compared to environmental and community entrepreneurs (cf. Table 2).

H_3 proposed differences in stereotypes regarding firm performance, workplace relationships, and community impact by comparing commercial, social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs. In the Kenyan sample, a significant difference in firm performance ratings emerged ($F(3, 456) = 6.54, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.04$; Table 3). Going into more detail, the post hoc test yielded a significantly higher level of firm performance attributed to commercial vs. all other hybrid entrepreneurs (cf. Tables 1 and 3). Furthermore, among hybrid entrepreneurs, a significantly higher firm performance was attributed to social compared to environmental entrepreneurs (cf. Tables 1 and 3). For workplace relationships ($F(2.94, 446.84) = 0.78, p = 0.50$) and community impact ($F(2.68, 407.06) = 2.26, p = 0.09$), no significant effects were found. This confirms hypothesis H_3 for firm performance but not for the other two success components in the Kenyan sample. The German sample featured stereotypical differences in all three indicators of subjective entrepreneurial success. The difference in firm performance ($F(2.90, 345.21) = 26.04, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.18$)

was rooted in a significantly higher level attributed to commercial entrepreneurs compared to all other hybrid entrepreneurs (cf. Tables 2 and 4). Business model effects in workplace relationships ($F(2.58, 306.86) = 22.94, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.16$) originated from lower ratings for commercial entrepreneurs vs. all other hybrid entrepreneurs. Inside the category of hybrid entrepreneurs, significantly higher scores for social compared to environmental entrepreneurs could be noted (cf. Tables 2 and 4). For community impact ($F(2.41, 287.12) = 37.27, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.24$), significantly lower scores were attributed to commercial entrepreneurs in relation to all other hybrid entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurs scored higher than community entrepreneurs (cf. Tables 2 and 4). Thus, in the German sample, hypothesis H₃ was supported for workplace relationships and community impact but not for firm performance.

Table 3. Summary of repeated-measures ANCOVA results for the Kenyan sample ($N = 155$).

Underlying Concept	Stereotype Dimension	Entrepreneurial Form Difference (General)	Entrepreneurial Form Differences (Post hoc)
Stereotype Content Model (Cuddy et al. 2008)	Warmth	$F(2.76, 405.91)^{\dagger} = 0.64, p = 0.58$	No post hoc test conducted, as no significant general difference was found.
	Competence	$F(3, 456) = 2.87, p < 0.05, \eta^2 = 0.02$	COE higher than SE, EE, and CE (each $p < 0.01$)
Subjective Entrepreneurial Success (Wach et al. 2016)	Firm Performance	$F(3, 456) = 6.54, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.04$	COE higher than SE, EE, and CE (each $p < 0.01$) SE higher than EE ($p < 0.05$)
	Workplace Relationships	$F(2.94, 446.84)^{\dagger} = 0.78, p = 0.50$	No post hoc test conducted, as no significant general difference was found.
	Community Impact	$F(2.68, 407.06)^{\dagger} = 2.26, p = 0.09$	No post hoc test conducted, as no significant general difference was found.

Note: ANCOVA = analysis of co-variance; COE = commercial entrepreneurship; SE = social entrepreneurship; EE = environmental entrepreneurship; CE = community entrepreneurship; F = F -value; η^2 = effect size. † = corrected for sphericity violation. Figures shown are controlled for sex and age. In case the assumption of sphericity was violated, the adequate correction recommended by Field (2018) was applied.

Table 4. Summary of repeated-measures ANCOVA results for the German sample ($N = 131$).

Underlying Concept	Stereotype Dimension	Entrepreneurial Form Difference (General)	Entrepreneurial Form Differences (Post hoc)
Stereotype Content Model (Cuddy et al. 2008)	Warmth	$F(2.60, 309.20)^{\dagger} = 33.64, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.22$	COE lower than SE, EE, and CE (each $p < 0.01$) SE higher than EE ($p < 0.01$) and CE ($p < 0.05$)
	Competence	$F(2.79, 332.18)^{\dagger} = 5.13, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.04$	COE higher than SE ($p < 0.01$), EE ($p < 0.05$), and CE ($p < 0.01$)
	Firm Performance	$F(2.90, 345.21)^{\dagger} = 26.04, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.18$	COE higher than SE, EE, and CE (each $p < 0.01$)
Subjective Entrepreneurial Success (Wach et al. 2016)	Workplace Relationships	$F(2.58, 306.86)^{\dagger} = 22.94, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.16$	COE lower than SE, EE, and CE (each $p < 0.01$) SE higher than EE ($p < 0.05$)
	Community Impact	$F(2.41, 287.12)^{\dagger} = 37.27, p < 0.01, \eta^2 = 0.24$	COE lower than SE, EE, and CE (each $p < 0.01$) SE higher than CE ($p < 0.05$)

Note: ANCOVA = analysis of co-variance; COE = commercial entrepreneurship; SE = social entrepreneurship; EE = environmental entrepreneurship; CE = community entrepreneurship; F = F -value; η^2 = effect size. † = corrected for sphericity violation. Figures shown are controlled for sex and age. In case the assumption of sphericity was violated, the adequate correction recommended by Field (2018) was applied.

Hypothesis H₄ dealt with cross-country differences in stereotypes held against commercial, social, environmental, and community entrepreneurs. Reviewing Table 3 (Kenya)

and Table 4 (Germany), our results for the other hypotheses yielded several differences. In the SCM dimensions, significant warmth differences occurred in Germany but not in Kenya, whereas no differences could be found in the competence dimension. Concerning the three indicators of subjective entrepreneurial success, differences in stereotypical attributions for workplace relationships and community impact only emerged in Germany but not in Kenya. Regarding firm performance, commercial entrepreneurs were given the highest scores in both countries; however, only in Kenya, social entrepreneurs' ratings were significantly higher compared to environmental entrepreneurs. Nonetheless, more significant differences in hybrid entrepreneurship occurred in Germany compared to Kenya (3 vs. 1). Thus, as we find several cross-country differences, hypothesis H_4 was confirmed.

5. Discussion

The current study explores to what extent stereotypical beliefs held against entrepreneurs differ depending on different entrepreneurial business models. Investigating commercial and three forms of hybrid entrepreneurship (SE, EE, and CE), we use two samples to empirically examine warmth and competence stereotypes. Furthermore, stereotypes regarding entrepreneurship-specific success indicators are included. Our work puts particular emphasis on differences in stereotypes, comparing the three forms of hybrid entrepreneurship and their robustness under different institutional circumstances in Kenya and Germany.

Hypothesis H_1 received full support in the German sample. Thus, commercial entrepreneurs have been attributed significantly lower levels of warmth but higher levels of competence compared to all hybrid entrepreneurs. This is in line with previous findings in which commercial entrepreneurial stereotypes encompassed more competent, agentic, and masculine attributes (Gupta et al. 2019; Kruse and Rosing 2023; Menke 2020). Furthermore, our results yield evidence that this difference is not limited to the comparison of commercial and social entrepreneurs (as in previous studies) but is broader and covers multiple forms of hybrid entrepreneurship. In the Kenyan sample, the same pattern regarding competence stereotypes emerged. However, no differences were found for warmth stereotypes, which disconfirms previous findings. Comparing the mean ratings of warmth stereotypes in Kenya and Germany, it becomes apparent that commercial entrepreneurs were attributed notably higher scores in warmth in Kenya (cf. Tables 1 and 2). One reason for this could be that, in general, entrepreneurial activity in Germany is relatively low (Kalden et al. 2017; Kuckertz et al. 2020), which could lead to a small probability of actually getting in touch with real entrepreneurs. As exposure is a major influence on stereotype strength (see Olsson and Martiny (2018) for a review) and entrepreneurship levels in Kenya are higher (GEM 2023), exposure to entrepreneurs is more likely. This personal exposure could have had a positive effect on general warmth attribution.

Hypothesis H_2 on warmth and competence stereotype differences *inside* hybrid entrepreneurship yielded no such differences in Kenya. This indicates a relatively uniform rating of hybrid entrepreneurs. While, to the best of our knowledge, no previous work has explored stereotypes against different forms of hybrid entrepreneurship, our result corresponds to the thematically close study by Kruse and Rosing (2023). This paper compared perceptions regarding leadership and personality attributes of commercial entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs, and leaders of non-profit organizations. While several significant differences occurred comparing the two forms of entrepreneurship, no such effects emerged comparing social entrepreneurs and leaders of non-profit organizations despite apparent conceptual differences. The authors deduce the existence of a 'social halo effect' (p. 100), i.e., a relatively uniform perception due to a social mission. A similar pattern could explain our result. However, as warmth stereotypes were higher for social compared to environmental and community entrepreneurs in German, this potential effect does not seem to be universally applicable.

Examining stereotypes regarding entrepreneurship-specific success indicators in Hypothesis H_3 offers additional evidence for a more nuanced picture contradicting the existence of a generalizable social halo effect. In Kenya, one difference among hybrid

entrepreneurs occurred (social entrepreneurs received higher firm performance ratings than environmental entrepreneurs), and in Germany, differences in workplace relationships and community impact emerged—but not for firm performance. This indicates a rather scattered picture of differences. One commonly shared aspect, however, lies in the finding that social entrepreneurs received a higher rating than the other two forms of hybrid entrepreneurship when significant differences occurred. While reasons for this could be manifold, two possible explanations evolve around a potentially higher familiarity with SE and the clear focus on a social mission. First, compared to other forms of hybrid entrepreneurship, SE is a more institutionalized hybrid entrepreneurial form (Kaushik et al. 2023; Sassmannshausen and Volkmann 2018; Vedula et al. 2022), and social enterprises are more visible in the economy and everyday life for most people (Kruse 2024; Terjesen et al. 2010; Thompson and Doherty 2006). This could increase familiarity with this form of entrepreneurship, triggering positive stereotypes (cf., mere-exposure effect; Harrison (1977); Montoya et al. (2017)). Second, as outlined by Battilana et al. (2018), the clear focus on a social mission in SE could result in the assumption that not only the goals of social entrepreneurs and their impact but also their means (e.g., good work design and workplace relationships) are considered social. This could be less pronounced in the case of environmental (EE) or “mixed” (CE) goals.

Finally, regarding hypothesis H_4 , examining the robustness of stereotypes under different institutional circumstances, we find apparent differences comparing Kenya and Germany. While differences in warmth emerge in Germany, no such effects can be noted in Kenya. This pattern persists for workplace relationships and community impact. Furthermore, social entrepreneurs are attributed higher scores in firm performance compared to environmental entrepreneurs in Germany but not in Kenya. However, there are notable similarities like higher competence and firm performance stereotypes for commercial compared to all forms of hybrid entrepreneurs. In general, more stereotypical differences between entrepreneurial forms emerge in Germany. This could be rooted in intercultural differences in the individualism–collectivism dimension, i.e., differences originating from informal institutions. Germany is one of the most individualized countries worldwide, while Kenya scores high in collectivism. Consequently, Kenyans could see the social group “entrepreneur” more collectively, i.e., in a uniform way. In contrast, Germans could be more focused on inter-individual differences inside this social group (Liñán et al. 2015; Tiessen 1997). This would also explain the lower share of stereotypical differences inside the category of hybrid entrepreneurs in Kenya (1) compared to Germany (3). However, also the stage of economic development as a formal institution could explain these results. As Kenya is a country with a lower economic and social status, entrepreneurs who found their enterprise and, thereby, create jobs could be seen as a benefit for the economy and society regardless of their explicit orientation. This could result in more uniform ratings of warmth, community impact, and enterprise-specific indicators in Kenya. The more nuanced picture regarding entrepreneurial stereotypes in Germany could be affected by a better economic situation in which commercial entrepreneurs are rather seen as economic than social, environmental, and community agents unless they explicitly target a social, community, or environmental mission (Kruse and Rosing 2023; Kuckertz et al. 2020, 2023).

5.1. Implications for Theory and Practice

The current study has several implications for researchers and practitioners:

First, we confirm the existence of stereotype differences comparing commercial and social entrepreneurship. Furthermore, we extend this finding by showing that several differences persist also for other forms of hybrid entrepreneurship. Future research can build on these insights and extend them, for example, by including other new forms of entrepreneurship like e-entrepreneurship (Al Halbusi et al. 2023).

Second, our study shows significant differences in hybrid entrepreneurship stereotypes in some dimensions, e.g., warmth or workplace relationships. Thus, we contribute to a

more nuanced picture in entrepreneurial stereotype research and encourage future studies to consolidate our findings.

Third, we add *specificity* to the current landscape in entrepreneurial stereotype research as we theoretically proposed and empirically tested firm performance, workplace relationships, and community impact as entrepreneurship-specific stereotype dimensions. Several significant findings in both samples demonstrate the viability of these dimensions in the stereotype context.

Fourth, our analyses yielded apparent differences in stereotypes held against entrepreneurs comparing Kenya and Germany. Thus, informal and formal institutional differences can affect the *robustness* of stereotype contents. Future studies should take this finding into consideration, particularly regarding the transferability of stereotypes found in one country to another.

Fifth, for policymakers aiming to boost national entrepreneurial activities, our findings have two main implications. On the one hand, negative stereotypes against hybrid entrepreneurs, for example, lower competence or firm performance attributions, should be challenged to avoid a negative societal picture of a career as a hybrid entrepreneur. On the other hand, positive attributions regarding hybrid entrepreneurs, like warmth, could be used to attract people to this career option, especially individuals with the impression of entrepreneurship as a rather “cold” and money-centered career path.

Sixth, entrepreneurial educators should take the existence of stereotypes regarding entrepreneurship and related careers into consideration when designing entrepreneurship syllabi. By explicitly including stereotypes in the curricula of entrepreneurship courses, (nascent) entrepreneurs can be made aware of the different stereotypes they might face. Ultimately, this will help future entrepreneurs to be prepared to face stereotypical assumptions in their lives as entrepreneurs and think of effective and efficient solutions to address these.

5.2. Policy Recommendations

Our study features two main recommendations for policymakers who are concerned with entrepreneurial and business activities:

First, on a theoretical level, the current study highlights that the entrepreneurship landscape is manifold and evolved beyond a singular focus on financial value generation. Hybrid entrepreneurship, in its various forms, has the potential to create social, environmental, and community value. Thus, promoting hybrid entrepreneurship as a means to contribute to positive social change can complement governmental activities in this area and, ultimately, help to achieve the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) like Reduced Inequalities (SDG No. 10), Sustainable Cities and Communities (SDG No.11), and Decent Work and Economic Growth (SDG No. 8) (Howard-Grenville et al. 2019).

Second, our finding that, compared to commercial entrepreneurs, all hybrid entrepreneurs are rated lower in competence and firm success in Kenya and Germany reveals that both societies need to be made aware of hybrid entrepreneurship’s potential to fuse business success and a second mission. Hybrid entrepreneurial success stories and role models (Kruse 2020b; Laviolette et al. 2012) and programs promoting the visibility of hybrid entrepreneurs in public (like exhibitions or open house days) have the potential to make more people aware of the fundamental change that can be initiated by hybrid entrepreneurship. This increased exposure to hybrid entrepreneurship and hybrid entrepreneurs would also contribute to a reduction in stereotypical beliefs and a more unbiased perspective on this career option.

5.3. Limitations

Our study has the following limitations:

First, while both samples in our study were not restricted to specific social groups like university students, they were sampled using convenience sampling. Thus, they are not representative of the Kenyan or German population, limiting the generalizability of our results.

Second, we decided to present all four written statements to every participant. Despite randomizing their order to avoid biases, a between-subject design in which every subject only rates one written statement would further reduce potential order effects (Perreault 1975).

Third, we only investigated individuals from two different countries. Thus, our results cannot be generalized or transferred to the comparison of other countries, as the kind and degree of institutional differences are various and depend on the countries selected.

Fourth, as informal *and* formal institutional differences exist in Kenya and Germany, we cannot determine which form of institution was the main driver of inter-country differences. Thus, we cannot disentangle the underlying effect sizes and/or mechanisms. Furthermore, as formal and informal institutions are manifold, our main focus on culture as an informal and the economy as a formal institution could be too narrow and neglect other elements of the two institutional forms.

Fifth, while cultural dimensions are frequently employed in several research streams, they are criticized as too general and overly simplistic, as they do not take *intra*-cultural variations into account (McSweeney 2002; Yoo et al. 2011). Thus, also in our study, intra-cultural differences are not adequately mirrored when using the individualism–collectivism dimension as an explanation for our findings.

Sixth, the current study controls for age and gender but does not take other potentially relevant variables like entrepreneurial family members or own entrepreneurial experiences into account (Zellweger et al. 2011). This could have biased our findings.

6. Summary

Since the 1980s, new forms of entrepreneurship have emerged blending the traditional entrepreneurial aspiration of generating income for the entrepreneur and his or her stakeholders with a second mission like the creation of social and/or environmental value. These new forms are hybrid and include social entrepreneurship, environmental entrepreneurship, and community entrepreneurship. While the literature shows that, in addition to conceptual differences, perceptual differences comparing commercial and hybrid entrepreneurs exist, e.g., regarding entrepreneurial stereotypes, current research remains vague and unspecific. Our study advances the scientific knowledge base on stereotyping in hybrid entrepreneurship in three ways. First, we explore largely neglected stereotype differences *inside* three forms of hybrid entrepreneurship. Second, we add *specificity* by examining entrepreneurship-specific stereotype dimensions in addition to the universal warmth and competence dimensions. Third, we investigate the robustness of stereotype content in the face of inter-country institutional differences. Analyzing two samples from Kenya ($N = 155$) and Germany ($N = 131$) with repeated-measure analyses of co-variance yields (i) notable stereotype differences between social, environmental, and community entrepreneurship, (ii) the viability of entrepreneurship stereotypes as an addition to warmth and competence dimensions, and (iii) apparent inter-country differences in stereotypical perceptions. Despite acknowledgeable limitations like non-representative samples, notable research and practical implications arise from the current study. Future research can build on our results, for example, by investigating stereotypes against other new forms of entrepreneurship or extending them by testing other countries. Policymakers and entrepreneurship educators are encouraged to make themselves aware of stereotypes in order to promote entrepreneurial careers or prepare (nascent) entrepreneurs to efficiently and effectively react to stereotypical beliefs in their careers.

Author Contributions: The two authors contributed as follows: Conceptualization, P.K. and P.W.K.; methodology, P.K. and P.W.K.; software, P.K. and P.W.K.; formal analysis, P.K. and P.W.K.; investigation, P.W.K.; data curation, P.W.K.; writing—original draft preparation, P.K.; writing—review and editing, P.K.; visualization, P.K.; supervision, P.K.; project administration, P.K. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research received no external funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement: Ethical review and approval were waived for this study as participation was voluntary, included an informed consent of every participant, and non-intrusive.

Informed Consent Statement: Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study. All study data included in our analysis were fully anonymized.

Data Availability Statement: Data associated with this study can be obtained from the first author upon reasonable request.

Acknowledgments: We would like to acknowledge the wonderful contribution of Carolin Segger and her invaluable help in data collection and management.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Appendix A

The written statements used for the description of environmental and community entrepreneurship can be found below (English and German versions).

Written Statements for Environmental and Community Entrepreneurship

(a) Kenya

Environmental entrepreneurship is concerned with the preservation and restoration of our environment. Environmental entrepreneurs realize that there is a need to reverse the negative effects caused on nature by both natural and man-made activities. They, therefore, engage in income-generating activities that help in the reduction of environmental pollution and destruction. This way, they earn profits while being conscious of the environment.

A good example is *Burn Design Lab*, an organization in the USA that partners with *Burn Manufacturing* in Africa. They produce charcoal stoves that reduce charcoal consumption by more than 50% and reduce harmful emissions by more than 60% compared to the traditional open fireplace that has dominated rural Africa. The charcoal stoves contribute to the reduction of indoor air pollution, which in turn leads to reduced respiratory diseases and itchy eyes. The stoves are also faster and save charcoal, leading to the preservation of forests and biodiversity.

Community entrepreneurship exploits the assets and resources of the community as a force for economic, social, and/or environmental development. Community entrepreneurship is, therefore, concerned with capacity-building, co-operation, engagement, and resource mobilization. Community entrepreneurs bring people together, encourage mutual trust, and forge a clear understanding among the different stakeholders. The proceeds from community entrepreneurship, therefore, are divided among the members. This is to say, entrepreneurship does not only happen at the individual level but also at the group level.

A good example of community entrepreneurship is *Chama*, an informal co-operative society common in East Africa. *Chama* is Swahili for a group of people with a common interest in coming together. These can be neighbors, colleagues at work, former classmates, friends, and even family. They can be classified into a few categories: self-help groups, merry-go-rounds, or investment groups in which members contribute a certain amount of money weekly, fortnightly, or monthly. The money is then re-distributed (in turns) among the members or used by the group to invest, for example, in property, advance credit to members, or pay them monthly dividends from their micro-savings. The profits are divided equally among the members or re-invested.

(b) Germany

Ökologisches Unternehmertum befasst sich mit der Wiederherstellung, dem Erhalt und Schutz unserer Umwelt. Ökologische Unternehmer*innen erkennen, dass es notwendig ist, die negativen Auswirkungen auf die Natur umzukehren, die sowohl natürlich als auch durch die Menschen verursacht werden. Sie engagieren sich daher mit ihrem unternehmerischen Handeln in Tätigkeiten, die zur Verringerung der Umweltver-

schmutzung und -zerstörung beitragen. Auf diese Weise erwirtschaften Sie Gewinne und achten gleichzeitig auf die Umwelt.

Eines dieser umweltbewussten und nachhaltigen Unternehmen ist die *Werner & Mertz GmbH* aus Mainz. Mit ihrem ganzheitlichen Umweltmanagement setzt sie die ressourcen- und rohstoffschonende Herstellung ihrer Reinigungs- und Pflegemittel um. Bei ihren Marken setzen sie auf umweltverträgliche Inhaltsstoffe und Verpackungen und verzichten schon seit den 80'er Jahren auf den Einsatz von Phosphat. Der Nachhaltigkeitsgedanke zeigt sich nicht nur in ihren Produkten, sondern auch in etlichen Projekten, die vom Unternehmen betrieben werden. So schaffen sie mit einer ihrer Initiativen eine Plattform für das branchenübergreifende Entwickeln innovativer und ökologischer Ansätze für die Wirtschaft und forschen an neuen Wegen für das Recyceln von Kunststoffen zur Herstellung von Verpackungsmaterialien.

Das **gemeinschaftsbasierte Unternehmertum** nutzt die Vorteile und Ressourcen der Gemeinschaft als Kraft für die wirtschaftliche, soziale und/oder Umweltentwicklung. Es befasst sich mit dem Aufbau von Kapazitäten, der Mobilisierung von Ressourcen sowie dem Engagement und der Zusammenarbeit einer gemeinschaftlichen Gruppe. Diese Art von Unternehmen bringt die Menschen zusammen, fördert gegenseitiges Vertrauen und schafft ein klares Verständnis zwischen den verschiedenen Interessengruppen. Die Erlöse aus dem Gemeinschaftsunternehmen werden daher unter den Mitgliedern aufgeteilt. Somit findet unternehmerisches Handeln nicht nur auf der individuellen Ebene, sondern auch auf einer Gruppenebene statt.

Ein klassischer Vertreter dieses Unternehmensmodells ist die *VG Verbrauchergemeinschaft* aus Dresden. Sie betreibt sechs Bio-Märkte sowie einen Naturwarenladen und unterstützt mit ihrem unternehmerischen Handeln vorwiegend regionale, faire und umweltgerechte Wirtschaftskreisläufe. Angeboten werden regionale und überregionale Bio-Lebensmittel, Kleidung, Kosmetik sowie Waren des täglichen Bedarfs. Das Unternehmen ist gemeinschaftliches Eigentum aller Mitglieder, die einen monatlichen Betrag bezahlen und dafür zu einem vergünstigten Genossenschaftspreis in den Läden einkaufen und die VG demokratisch mitgestalten können.

References

- Aguinis, Herman, and Ante Glavas. 2012. What we know and don't know about corporate social responsibility: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management* 38: 932–68. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Al Halbusi, Hussam, Pedro Soto-Acosta, and Simona Popa. 2023. Analysing e-entrepreneurial intention from the theory of planned behaviour: The role of social media use and perceived social support. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal* 19: 1611–42. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Allen, Julie K. 2016. Sexy Danes, tipsy Germans: The use of positive cultural stereotypes in nation branding efforts. *Linguistik Online* 79: 215–30. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Anderson, Terry Lee, and Donald Leal. 1997. *Enviro-Capitalists: Doing Good while Doing Well*. Lanham: Rowman and Littlefield.
- Angel, Pablo, Anna Jenkins, and Anna Stephens. 2018. Understanding entrepreneurial success: A phenomenographic approach. *International Small Business Journal* 36: 611–36. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Audretsch, David B., and Erik Lehmann. 2016. *The Seven Secrets of Germany: Economic Resilience in an Era of Global Turbulence*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Austin, James, Howard Stevenson, and Jane Wei-Skillern. 2006. Social and commercial Entrepreneurship: Same, different, or both? *Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice* 30: 1–22. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Bacq, Sophie, Chantal Hartog, and Brigitte Hoogendoorn. 2013. A quantitative comparison of social and commercial entrepreneurship: Toward a more nuanced understanding of social entrepreneurship organizations in context. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship* 4: 40–68. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Bator, Francis. 1958. The anatomy of market failure. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 72: 351–79. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Battilana, Julie, Michael Fuerstein, and Michael Lee. 2018. New Prospects for Organizational Democracy? How the Joint Pursuit of Social and Financial Goals Challenges Traditional Organizational Designs. In *Capitalism Beyond Mutuality?: Perspectives Integrating Philosophy and Social Science*. Edited by S. Rangan. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 256–88.
- Berry, James W., and Janice Sanchez. 2019. Perceiving entrepreneurs: Job title comparisons in warmth and competence. *Journal of Business Venturing Insights* 12: e00145. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Blanca Mena, M. José, Rafael Alarcón Postigo, Jaume Arnau Gras, Roser Bono Cabré, and Rebecca Bendayan. 2017. Non-normal data: Is ANOVA still a valid option? *Psicothema* 29: 552–57.

- Bloom, Paul N., and Aaron K. Chatterji. 2009. Scaling social entrepreneurial impact. *California Management Review* 51: 114–33. [CrossRef]
- Bruni, Attila, Silvia Gherardi, and Barbara Poggio. 2004. Entrepreneur-mentality, gender and the study of women entrepreneurs. *Journal of Organizational Change Management* 17: 256–68. [CrossRef]
- Buratti, Nicoletta, Cécile Sillig, and Massimo Albanese. 2022. Community enterprise, community entrepreneurship and local development: A literature review on three decades of empirical studies and theorizations. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development* 34: 376–401. [CrossRef]
- Burns, Paul, Andrew Myers, and Andrew Kakabadse. 1995. Are national stereotypes discriminating? *European Management Journal* 13: 212–17. [CrossRef]
- Cantillon, Richard. 1756. *Essai sur la Nature du Commerce*. London: Fletcher Gyles.
- Canton, Emily, Darren Hedley, and Jennifer R. Spoor. 2023. The stereotype content model and disabilities. *The Journal of Social Psychology* 163: 480–500. [CrossRef]
- Cao, Zhe, and Xianwei Shi. 2021. A systematic literature review of entrepreneurial ecosystems in advanced and emerging economies. *Small Business Economics* 57: 75–110. [CrossRef]
- Chipeta, Eleanor Meda, Philipp Kruse, and Jhalukpreya Surujlal. 2020. Effects of gender on antecedents to social entrepreneurship among university students in South Africa. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies* 12: 18–33.
- Chipeta, Eleanor Meda, Robert Venter, and Philipp Kruse. 2022. Measuring the Role of Reductive Bias in Social Enterprise Formation: Development and Validation of a Social Entrepreneurial Intention Bias Scale. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship* 13: 164–82. [CrossRef]
- Ciambotti, Giacomo, Andrea Sottini, David Littlewood, and Abel Kinoti Meru. 2021. Business Models for Sustainable Development: The Case of a Kenyan Sustainable Enterprise. In *Responsible Management in Emerging Markets: A Multisectoral Focus*. Berlin and Heidelberg: Springer, pp. 215–42.
- Coombes, Annie E., Lotte Hughes, and Karega Munene. 2019. *Managing Heritage, Making Peace: History, Identity and Memory in Contemporary Kenya*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Cuddy, Amy J. C., Susan T. Fiske, and Peter Glick. 2008. Warmth and Competence as Universal Dimensions of Social Perception: The Stereotype Content Model and the BIAS Map. In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. Cambridge: Academic Press, vol. 40, pp. 61–149. [CrossRef]
- Cuddy, Amy J. C., Susan T. Fiske, Virginia S. Y. Kwan, Peter Glick, Stéphanie Demoulin, Jacques-Philippe Leyens, Michael Harris Bond, Jean-Claude Croizet, Naomi Ellemers, Ed Sleebos, and et al. 2009. Stereotype content model across cultures: Towards universal similarities and some differences. *British Journal of Social Psychology* 48: 1–33. [CrossRef]
- Cullen, Poppy. 2017. *Kenya and Britain After Independence: Beyond Neo-Colonialism*. Berlin and Heidelberg: Springer.
- Dana, L. Leo-Paul, and Teresa E. Dana. 2007. Collective Entrepreneurship in a Mennonite Community in Paraguay. *Latin American Business Review* 8: 82–96. [CrossRef]
- Dean, Thomas J., and Jeffery S. McMullen. 2007. Toward a theory of sustainable entrepreneurship: Reducing environmental degradation through entrepreneurial action. *Journal of Business Venturing* 22: 50–76. [CrossRef]
- Devlin, Alison M., and Daniel Wight. 2021. Mechanisms and context in the San Patrignano drug recovery community, Italy: A qualitative study to inform transfer to Scotland. *Drugs: Education, Prevention and Policy* 28: 85–96. [CrossRef]
- Dudin, Mikhail Nikolaevich, Natalia Pavlovna Ivashchenko, Alexander Georgievich Gurinovich, Oleg Mikhailovich Tolmachev, and Lidiya Aleksandrovna Sonina. 2019. Environmental entrepreneurship: Characteristics of organization and development. *Entrepreneurship and Sustainability Issues* 6: 1861–70. [CrossRef]
- Dustmann, Christian, Bernd Fitzenberger, Uta Schönberg, and Alexandra Spitz-Oener. 2014. From sick man of Europe to economic superstar: Germany's resurgent economy. *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 28: 167–88. [CrossRef]
- Faul, Franz, Edgar Erdfelder, Albert-Georg Lang, and Axel Buchner. 2007. G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods* 39: 175–91. [CrossRef]
- Field, Andy. 2018. *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS*. London: Sage.
- Fisher, Rosemary, Alex Maritz, and Antonio Lobo. 2014. Evaluating entrepreneurs' perception of success. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research* 20: 478–92. [CrossRef]
- Fiske, Susan T. 2018. Stereotype Content: Warmth and Competence Endure. *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 27: 67–73. [CrossRef]
- Fiske, Susan T., Amy J. C. Cuddy, Peter Glick, and Jun Xu. 2002. A model of (often mixed) stereotype content: Competence and warmth respectively follow from perceived status and competition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 82: 878–902. [CrossRef]
- Fuller, Christie M., Marcia J. Simmering, Guclu Atinc, Yasemin Atinc, and Barry J. Babin. 2016. Common methods variance detection in business research. *Journal of Business Research* 69: 3192–98. [CrossRef]
- García-Cabrera, Antonia Mercedes, and M. Gracia García-Soto. 2008. Cultural differences and entrepreneurial behaviour: An intra-country cross-cultural analysis in Cape Verde. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development* 20: 451–83. [CrossRef]
- GEM. 2023. Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2022/2023 Global Report: Adapting to a "New Normal". Available online: <https://www.gemconsortium.org/reports/latest-global-report> (accessed on 17 October 2024).
- Giovannini, Michela. 2015. Indigenous community enterprises in Chiapas: A vehicle for buen vivir? *Community Development Journal* 50: 71–87. [CrossRef]
- Girden, Ellen R. 1992. *ANOVA: Repeated Measures*. London: Sage.

- Gorgievski, Marjan J., M. Evelina Ascalon, and Ute Stephan. 2011. Small business owners' success criteria, a values approach to personal differences [Article]. *Journal of Small Business Management* 49: 207–32. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Grigoryev, Dmitry. 2022. Ethnic stereotype content beyond intergroup relations within societies: Exploring the North-South hypothesis for competence and warmth. *Cross-Cultural Research* 56: 345–84. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Gupta, Alka, Safal Batra, and Vishal K. Gupta. 2022. Gender, culture, and implicit theories about entrepreneurs: A cross-national investigation. *Small Business Economics* 58: 1073–89. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Gupta, Vishal K., Alice M. Wieland, and Daniel B. Turban. 2019. Gender characterizations in entrepreneurship: A multi-level investigation of sex-role stereotypes about high-growth, commercial, and social entrepreneurs. *Journal of Small Business Management* 57: 131–53. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Gupta, Vishal K., Daniel B. Turban, and Ashish Pareek. 2013. Differences between Men and Women in Opportunity Evaluation as a Function of Gender Stereotypes and Stereotype Activation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* 37: 771–88. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Gupta, Vishal K., Daniel B. Turban, and Nachiket M. Bhawe. 2008. The effect of gender stereotype activation on entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 93: 1053–61. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Harrison, Albert A. 1977. Mere Exposure. In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. Edited by L. Berkowitz. Cambridge: Academic Press, vol. 10, pp. 39–83. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Hayton, James C., and Gabriella Cacciotti. 2013. Is there an entrepreneurial culture? A review of empirical research. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development* 25: 708–31. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Hofstede, Geert. 1984. Cultural dimensions in management and planning. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management* 1: 81–99. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Hofstede, Geert. 2011. Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture* 2: 1–26. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Hogg, Michael A., and Graham M. Vaughan. 2010. *Essentials of Social Psychology*. London: Pearson.
- Howard-Grenville, Jennifer, Gerald F. Davis, Thomas Dyllick, C. Chet Miller, Stefan Thau, and Anne S. Tsui. 2019. Sustainable development for a better world: Contributions of leadership, management, and organizations. *Academy of Management Discoveries* 5: 355–66. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Hörisch, Jacob, Jana Kollat, and Steven A. Brieger. 2017. What influences environmental entrepreneurship? A multilevel analysis of the determinants of entrepreneurs' environmental orientation. *Small Business Economics* 48: 47–69. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Jayawarna, Dilani, Julia Rouse, and John Kitching. 2013. Entrepreneur motivations and life course. *International Small Business Journal* 31: 34–56. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Jennings, Jennifer E., and Vartuhi Tonoyan. 2022. Research on Gender Stereotyping and Entrepreneurship: Suggestions for Some Paths Worth Pursuing. *Entrepreneurship Research Journal* 12: 187–212. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Johannisson, Bengt. 1990. Community entrepreneurship-cases and conceptualization. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development* 2: 71–88.
- Kalden, Jan Niklas, James Cunningham, and Alistair R. Anderson. 2017. The social status of entrepreneurs: Contrasting German perspectives. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation* 18: 91–104. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kanahara, S. 2006. A Review of the Definitions of Stereotype and a Proposal for a Progressional Model. *Individual Differences Research* 4: 306–21.
- Kaushik, Vineet, Shobha Tewari, Sreevas Sahasranamam, and Pradeep Kumar Hota. 2023. Towards a precise understanding of social entrepreneurship: An integrated bibliometric-machine learning based review and research agenda. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change* 191: 122516. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kawharu, Merata, Paul Tapsell, and Christine Woods. 2017. Indigenous entrepreneurship in Aotearoa New Zealand. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy* 11: 20–38. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Keogh, Paul Douglas, and Michael Jay Polonsky. 1998. Environmental commitment: A basis for environmental entrepreneurship? *Journal of Organizational Change Management* 11: 38–49. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kock, Ned. 2020. Harman's single factor test in PLS-SEM: Checking for common method bias. *Data Analysis Perspectives Journal* 2: 1–6.
- Komatsu Cipriani, Tamami, Alessandro Deserti, Maria Kleverbeck, Francesca Rizzo, and Judith Terstriepe. 2020. Business models & social innovation: Mission-driven versus profit-driven organisations. *International Review of Applied Economics* 34: 541–66. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kornadt, Anna E., Peggy Voss, and Klaus Rothermund. 2017. Age Stereotypes and Self-Views Revisited: Patterns of Internalization and Projection Processes Across the Life Span. *The Journals of Gerontology: Series B* 72: 582–92. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[PubMed\]](#)
- Kruse, Philipp. 2020a. Can there only be one?—An empirical comparison of four models on social entrepreneurial intention formation. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal* 16: 641–65. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kruse, Philipp. 2020b. Spreading entrepreneurial news—Investigating media influence on social entrepreneurial antecedents. *Green Finance* 2: 284–301. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kruse, Philipp. 2024. Chance to Shine or Heading for Disaster?—Exploring German Social Enterprises' Stakeholder Communication Facing COVID-19-Induced Lockdowns. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kruse, Philipp, and Florian Rosing. 2023. An Experimental Investigation of Perceived Differences in Personality and Leadership Attributes of Social Entrepreneurs Compared to for Profit Entrepreneurs and Non-Profit Organisations Leaders. *The Journal of Entrepreneurship* 32: 75–110. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kruse, Philipp, Dominika Wach, and Jürgen Wegge. 2021. What motivates social entrepreneurs? A meta-analysis on predictors of the intention to found a social enterprise. *Journal of Small Business Management* 59: 477–508. [\[CrossRef\]](#)

- Kruse, Philipp, Dominika Wach, Sílvia Costa, and Juan Antonio Moriano. 2019. Values matter, don't they?—Combining theory of planned behavior and personal values as predictors of social entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship* 10: 55–83. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kruse, Philipp, Eleanor Meda Chipeta, and Robert Venter. 2024. Do good and measure well!—Examining the validity of two positive social change measurements in South African social enterprises. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies* 16: 1298–1318. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kuckertz, Andreas, Alexander Bernhard, Elisabeth S. Berger, Ondřej Dvouletý, Rainer Harms, Sarah Jack, and Ewald Kibler. 2023. Scaling the right answers—Creating and maintaining hope through social entrepreneurship in light of humanitarian crises. *Journal of Business Venturing Insights* 19: e00356. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kuckertz, Andreas, Elisabeth S. C. Berger, and Alicia Prochotta. 2020. Misperception of entrepreneurship and its consequences for the perception of entrepreneurial failure—The German case. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research* 26: 1865–85. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Kuppens, Line, Armin Langer, and Sulley Ibrahim. 2018. 'A teacher is no politician': Stereotypic attitudes of secondary school teachers in Kenya. *International Journal of Educational Development* 62: 270–80. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Küssbauer, Alexander, and Matthias Baum. 2023. The good, the bad and the uncertain: Employers' perceptions of former entrepreneurs. *Journal of Business Venturing* 38: 106270. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Laguía, Ana, Cristina García-Ael, Dominika Wach, and Juan A. Moriano. 2019. "Think entrepreneur-think male": A task and relationship scale to measure gender stereotypes in entrepreneurship. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal* 15: 749–72. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Lane, David. 2016. The assumption of sphericity in repeated-measures designs: What it means and what to do when it is violated. *Quantitative Methods for Psychology* 12: 114–22. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Laviolette, Eric Michael, Miruna Radu Lefebvre, and Olivier Brunel. 2012. The impact of story bound entrepreneurial role models on self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research* 18: 720–42.
- Leyens, Jacques-Philippe, Vincent Yzerbyt, and Georges Schadrin. 1994. *Stereotypes and Social Cognition*. London: Sage.
- Liñán, Francisco, Juan A. Moriano, and Inmaculada Jaén. 2015. Individualism and entrepreneurship: Does the pattern depend on the social context? *International Small Business Journal* 34: 760–76. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Luna Cortes, Gonzalo. 2024. A systematic literature review of the stereotype content model in the fields of psychology and marketing: Main themes examined in the literature and an agenda for future research in marketing. *Frontiers in Psychology* 15: 1392629. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Malmström, Malin, Barbara Burkhard, Charlotta Sirén, Dean Shepherd, and Joakim Wincent. 2024. A Meta-Analysis of the Impact of Entrepreneurs' Gender on their Access to Bank Finance. *Journal of Business Ethics* 192: 803–20. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Manzano-García, Guadalupe, and Juan-Carlos Ayala-Calvo. 2020. Entrepreneurial Orientation: Its Relationship with the Entrepreneur's Subjective Success in SMEs. *Sustainability* 12: 4547. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- McCauley, Clark, Christopher L. Stitt, and Mary Segal. 1980. Stereotyping: From prejudice to prediction. *Psychological Bulletin* 87: 195–208. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- McClelland, David C. 1961. *The Achievement Society*. New York: Von Nostrand.
- McSweeney, Brendan. 2002. Hofstede's model of national cultural differences and their consequences: A triumph of faith—a failure of analysis. *Human Relations* 55: 89–118. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Menger, Karl. 1871. *Principles of Economics*. New York: New York University Press.
- Menke, Charlott. 2020. The role of entrepreneurial stereotypes for commercial and social startup intentions. In *The Entrepreneurial Behaviour: Unveiling the Cognitive and Emotional Aspect of Entrepreneurship*. Edited by A. Caputo and M. M. Pellegrini. Bentley: Emerald, pp. 113–45.
- Montoya, R. Matthew, Robert S. Horton, Jack L. Vevea, Martyna Citkowicz, and Elissa A. Lauber. 2017. A re-examination of the mere exposure effect: The influence of repeated exposure on recognition, familiarity, and liking. *Psychological Bulletin* 143: 459–98. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[PubMed\]](#)
- Murphy, Patrick J., Jianwen Liao, and Harold P. Welsch. 2006. A conceptual history of entrepreneurial thought. *Journal of Management History* 12: 12–35. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Naituli, Joseph Gitile, and Sellah Nasimiyu King'oro. 2018. An examination of ethnic stereotypes and coded language used in Kenya and its implication for national cohesion. *International Journal of Development and Sustainability* 7: 2670–93.
- North, Douglass C. 1991. Institutions. *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 5: 97–112. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Olsson, Maria, and Sarah E. Martiny. 2018. Does Exposure to Counterstereotypical Role Models Influence Girls' and Women's Gender Stereotypes and Career Choices? A Review of Social Psychological Research [Review]. *Frontiers in Psychology* 9: 2264. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Oo, Pyayt P., Steven A. Creek, and Leah D. Sheppard. 2022. Perceived warmth and competence in crowdfunding: Which matters more and for whom? *Journal of Business Venturing Insights* 17: e00288. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Parker, Simon C. 2018. *The Economics of Entrepreneurship*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Peredo, Ana María. 2003. Emerging Strategies Against Poverty: The Road Less Traveled. *Journal of Management Inquiry* 12: 155–66. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Perreault, William D. 1975. Controlling Order-Effect Bias. *The Public Opinion Quarterly* 39: 544–51. [\[CrossRef\]](#)

- Perrini, Francesco, Clodia Vurro, and Laura A. Costanzo. 2010. A process-based view of social entrepreneurship: From opportunity identification to scaling-up social change in the case of San Patrignano. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development* 22: 515–34. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Pierre, Anne, von Yvonne Friedrichs, and Joakim Wincent. 2014. Entrepreneurship in Society: A Review and Definition of Community-based Entrepreneurship Research. In *Social Entrepreneurship. Leveraging Economic, Political, and Cultural Dimensions*. Edited by A. Lundström, C. Zhou, Y. von Friedrichs and E. Sundin. Berlin and Heidelberg: Springer, pp. 239–57. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Powell, Richard. 2002. Language Planning and the British Empire: Comparing Pakistan, Malaysia and Kenya. *Current Issues in Language Planning* 3: 205–79. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Rawhouser, Hans, Michael Cummings, and Scott L. Newbert. 2019. Social impact measurement: Current approaches and future directions for social entrepreneurship research. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* 43: 82–115. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Saebi, Tina, Nicolai J. Foss, and Stefan Linder. 2019. Social entrepreneurship research: Past achievements and future promises. *Journal of Management* 45: 70–95. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Sassmannshausen, Sean Patrick, and Christine Volkmann. 2018. The scientometrics of social entrepreneurship and its establishment as an academic field. *Journal of Small Business Management* 56: 251–73. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Schneider, David J. 2005. *The Psychology of Stereotyping*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Schumpeter, Joseph Alois. 1934. *The Theory of Economic Development*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Shane, Scott, and S. Venkataraman. 2000. The Promise of Entrepreneurship as a Field of Research. *Academy of Management Review* 25: 217–26. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Situma, Martin, Evelyn Mahero, and Eliud Kirigia. 2018. Gender Based Prejudice and Stereotypes in Ethnic Conflicts: A Case Study in Eldoret Township, Kenya. *Coretrain Journal of Languages, Humanities, Social Sciences and Education* 1: 11–22.
- Stanciu, Adrian, J. Christopher Cohrs, Katja Hanke, and Alin Gavreliuc. 2017. Within-culture variation in the content of stereotypes: Application and development of the stereotype content model in an Eastern European culture. *The Journal of Social Psychology* 157: 611–28. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Stephan, Ute, and Saurav Pathak. 2016. Beyond cultural values? Cultural leadership ideals and entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing* 31: 505–23. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Stephan, Ute, Lorraine M. Uhlaner, and Christopher Stride. 2015. Institutions and social entrepreneurship: The role of institutional voids, institutional support, and institutional configurations. *Journal of International Business Studies* 46: 308–31. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Stephan, Ute, Malcolm Patterson, Ciara Kelly, and Johanna Mair. 2016. Organizations driving positive social change: A review and an integrative framework of change processes. *Journal of Management* 42: 1250–81. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Swim, Janet K. 1994. Perceived versus meta-analytic effect sizes: An assessment of the accuracy of gender stereotypes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 66: 21–36. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Terjesen, Siri, Jan Lepoutre, Justo Rachida, and Niels Bosma. 2010. *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2009 Report on Social Entrepreneurship*. London: Global Entrepreneurship Research Association.
- Thompson, John L., and Bob Doherty. 2006. The diverse world of social enterprise: A collection of social enterprise stories. *International Journal of Social Economics* 33: 361–75. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Tiessen, James H. 1997. Individualism, collectivism, and entrepreneurship: A framework for international comparative research. *Journal of Business Venturing* 12: 367–84. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Tracey, Paul, and Nelson Phillips. 2007. The distinctive challenge of educating social entrepreneurs: A postscript and rejoinder to the special issue on entrepreneurship education [Article]. *Academy of Management Learning & Education* 6: 264–71.
- Tracey, Paul, Nelson Phillips, and Helen Haugh. 2005. Beyond Philanthropy: Community Enterprise as a Basis for Corporate Citizenship. *Journal of Business Ethics* 58: 327–44. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Turker, Duygu, and Ceren Altuntas Vural. 2017. Embedding social innovation process into the institutional context: Voids or supports. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change* 119: 98–113. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- van Praag, C. Mirjam, and Peter H. Versloot. 2007. What is the value of entrepreneurship? A review of recent research. *Small Business Economics* 29: 351–82. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Vedula, Siddharth, Claudia Dobliger, Desirée Pacheco, Jeffrey G. York, Sophie Bacq, Michael V. Russo, and Thomas J. Dean. 2022. Entrepreneurship for the public good: A review, critique, and path forward for social and environmental entrepreneurship research. *Academy of Management Annals* 16: 391–425. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Vitak, J. 2017. Facebook as a Research Tool in the Social and Computer Sciences. In *The Sage Handbook of Social Media Research Methods*. Edited by L. Sloan and A. Quan-Haase. London: Sage.
- Volery, Thierry, and Tim Mazzarol. 2015. The evolution of the small business and entrepreneurship field: A bibliometric investigation of articles published in the International Small Business Journal. *International Small Business Journal* 33: 374–96. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Wach, Dominika, Philipp Kruse, Sílvia Costa, and Juan Antonio Moriano. 2023. Exploring Social and Commercial Entrepreneurial Intentions from Theory of Planned Behaviour Perspective: A Cross-Country Study among Namibian and German Students. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship* 14: 226–47. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Wach, Dominika, Ute Stephan, and Marjan Gorgievski. 2016. More than money: Developing an integrative multi-factorial measure of entrepreneurial success. *International Small Business Journal* 34: 1098–121. [\[CrossRef\]](#)
- Wilde, Annett, and Amanda B. Diekmann. 2005. Cross-Cultural Similarities and Differences in Dynamic Stereotypes: A Comparison Between Germany and the United States. *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 29: 188–96. [\[CrossRef\]](#)

- Yoo, Boonghee, Naveen Donthu, and Tomasz Lenartowicz. 2011. Measuring Hofstede's five dimensions of cultural values at the individual level: Development and validation of CVSCALE. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing* 23: 193–210.
- Young, Dennis R. 1983. *If Not for Profit, for What?* Lanham: Lexington Books.
- Yunus, Muhammad. 1999. The Grameen Bank. *Scientific American* 281: 114–19. [[CrossRef](#)]
- Zellweger, Thomas, Philipp Sieger, and Frank Halter. 2011. Should I stay or should I go? Career choice intentions of students with family business background. *Journal of Business Venturing* 26: 521–36. [[CrossRef](#)]
- Zimmerman, Donald W. 2004. A note on preliminary tests of equality of variances. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology* 57: 173–81. [[CrossRef](#)]

Disclaimer/Publisher's Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.