

Towards Sustainable Innovation Business Models: The Social Entrepreneurship of Urban Agriculture in Japan

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Abstract:

This research investigates the potential of urban agriculture to create shared value in Japan. Examining the innovative and creative approaches of social entrepreneurs involved, as well as the perceptions of city residents towards urban farming, provides valuable insights into the complex nature of this emerging field. A key finding is the diversity of opinions, involvement, and approaches among urban dwellers, highlighting the complex nature of urban agriculture. The study also demonstrates how both radical and incremental innovation play important roles in addressing social challenges and enhancing stakeholder competencies. Moreover, the study identifies three main factors contributing to the success of urban holdings: exceptional product quality, strong customer relationships, and a commitment to continuous improvement. This comprehensive analysis provides a foundation for understanding the opportunities and challenges associated with urban agriculture in Japan and offers valuable lessons for legislators, advocates, and researchers interested in giving promotion to sustainable and equitable non-rural development.

Keywords: Social Entrepreneurship, Innovation, Urban Agriculture, Sustainability

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Introduction

Urban agriculture (UA) is developing in both advanced and least developed economies. If well-managed, it can significantly benefit both farmers and city dwellers. However, cities sprawling, and traditional urban land used for housing and commerce compete with UA. While central city areas are primarily used for traditional uses, peri-urban zones (areas bordering the city) have been seen as suitable mixed uses, including UA.

Recently, urban agriculture (UA) has gained notable recognition. While international, national, and local initiatives are on the rise, many cities still struggle to convince authorities to see UA as a valuable asset. This creates a need for stimulating examples of fortunate policies and programs. Urban agriculture, as a multifunctional tool for sustainable urban development, can eventually address various city challenges. The key challenge lies in how best residents benefit while adapting it to city development. In modern cities, food is mainly imported and often requires long transport distances storage, and packaging that require energy. UA restores the link between food producing, waste management, and also consumption within a city, reinforcing its resilience to climate change. Social entrepreneurship – an approach that combines business principles with social and environmental objectives - emerges as a promising solution forward. This approach solves social and ecological challenges within the urban farming community.

The crucial goal of UA is to conceptualize models for cooperative initiatives that contribute to positive social and economic functioning, particularly around food security, social cohesion, and income generation.

R.Q. How can social entrepreneurship in urban agriculture contribute to sustainable innovation business models in Japan?

This study fills important research gaps by investigating how social entrepreneurship in urban agriculture can contribute to sustainable

innovation business models in Japan. It addresses the lack of understanding about cooperative initiatives that enhance food security, social cohesion, and income generation in urban agricultural settings. The research specifically explores the complex interplay between social entrepreneurs' innovative approaches and city residents' perceptions of urban farming. Moreover, it fills a knowledge gap regarding the factors contributing to successful urban holdings, identifying three critical elements: product quality, customer relationships, and continuous improvement practices. The study also addresses the limited research on how both radical and incremental innovation contribute to addressing social challenges in Japanese urban agriculture.

Given the exploratory nature of this research, a qualitative research design is conducted. This approach allows for a deep understanding of the complex social and environmental factors influencing urban agriculture social enterprises in Japan.

Conceptual Framework

1.1 Entrepreneurship as a Tool to Build Sustainable Social Enterprises

In recent years, social entrepreneurs have appeared to be a powerful force in tackling social issues. Charity and philanthropy are becoming less sustainable and less impactful alternatives than innovative approaches. At its core, entrepreneurship is fundamentally about finding creative solutions to create value. The concept of **Corporate Social Entrepreneurship (CSE)** allows companies to move beyond solely maximizing profits for shareholders. Rather, CSE aims to deliver value to all stakeholders, i.e. the individuals and groups affected by a company's activities.

According to Austin & Reficco (2009), CSE can be defined as "the process by which a company uses its both internal and external resources, in innovative ways to create value for society and financial gains." Even though they recognized CSE's potential for enhancing a

company's Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) efforts, but paid attention primarily on how CSE can drive innovation within a corporation.

The fundamental belief is that expanding more customer base can lead to a more sustainable business. This broader focus, sometimes referred to as a "double or triple bottom line" or "blended value," means the organization aims to achieve both financial success and positive social impact (Emerson, 2003). A key objective of Corporate Social Entrepreneurship (CSE) is to identify solutions for companies to generate financial returns that work in tandem with, and even amplify, their social impact, rather than competing against each other (Sánchez, 2003). This approach views social value creation as separate or accidental for organizations. This is a fundamental part of a more broader and transparent performance measurement system. As a result, this system informs both internal staff and external stakeholders about the organization's social impact.

1.2 Urban Agriculture

The United Nations forecasts a significant rise in global population. Their report estimates the globe's current population of 8.1 billion will reach 9 billion by 2037 and hit 10 billion by 2058. (Worldometer, 2024). Greater than fifty percent of the world's inhabitants, approximately 56%, currently lives in in urban areas. This trend continuously shows unabated signs – projections indicate that by 2050, over 70% of people will be urban dwellers. In other words, the residents in urban cities are expected to duplicate in size (The World Bank, 2023). Since 2007, a critical milestone has been reached: grater than half of the globe's population resides in urban cities. This rapid urbanization in developing countries often brings a host of challenges, including rising urban poverty, environmental pollution, food insecurity, and unemployment. These challenges disproportionately impact dependent groups such as children, having a baby women, and lactating mothers, who are more susceptible to malnutrition (Orsini, Kahane, Womdim, & Gianquinto, 2013). As cities rapidly expand,

their materials demands became the defining characteristic of human impact on the planet. This dramatic shift is fundamentally altering our relationship with the planet and its natural systems (Deelstra & Herbert, 2000).

During the 19th and 20th centuries, faster and cheaper transportation made machines more profitable on farms. This results in a decline in small, local farms that depend on human labor. In their place, large industrialized farms emerged in rural areas, with the utilization of this new technology (Turner, 2008). As a result of several factors, urban farming declined. Lower taxes, improved transportation efficiency, and cheaper land increased the profitability of operating large-scale farms in rural areas. This led farm ownership to a shift from small local municipalities to large businesses, who found rural settings more attractive. This shift, despite efforts by city planners to encourage urban agriculture, resulted in the disappearance of farms within city limits (Vitiello & Brinkley, 2014). Eating locally has gained significant prevalence in recent years. Consumers are increasingly drawn to local food for a variety of reasons, including boosting their local economy, protecting the environment, gaining transparency into the food production process, and ultimately, ensuring a more reliable food abundance (Peterson, Taylor, & Baudouin, 2015). Reintroducing agriculture back to urban areas can be costly for farmers. They need innovative strategies to generate income. This could involve focusing on specialty markets or products, adopting social enterprise models, or finding affordable land closer to urban consumers.

The increasing reliance of modern cities on imported food has required long supply chains and significant energy-intensive storage, refrigeration, and packaging. This highlights the need for urban agriculture initiatives. As De Zeeuw et al. (2011) emphasize, it can foster food production, waste management, and consumption within urban cities. This not only shortens food supply chains but also increases cities' ability to adapt to climate change and become more resilient. Traditionally, cities have been seen as consumers only.

However, cities now can become producers as well. This concept of proximity benefits not only food production but also local businesses, artisans, and service providers. By integrating productive spaces with residential areas, cities can create vibrant and self-sufficient neighborhoods. Residents, both local and visitors, can participate in these activities, enriching the community life (Arroyo, et al., 2017).

UA encompasses a diverse scope of practices related to food and other product cultivation in and around cities. These practices seek to utilize and replenish local resources to address the evolving needs of city residents, serving numerous social, economic, and environmental goals. (FAO, 2022). Consequently, it can be a composite endeavor to define urban agriculture globally.

Urban agriculture encompasses different definitions and purposes. Besides addition to food producing, UA can boost local economies by directly channeling resources toward urban markets (Sanyé Mengual, 2015). Urban agriculture can also provide environmental and social services. The defining factors of UA include intense competition for land, proximity to markets, utilization of urban resources like wastewater and organic solid waste, spatial constraints, low levels of farmer organization, and a high level of specialization. Urban agriculture largely supports rural agriculture by guaranteeing perishable goods like fresh milk, and vegetables, which enhances the effectiveness of national food systems (Veenhuizen, 2006).

Urban agriculture utilizes several cultivation techniques, including drip irrigation, hydroponics, bucket irrigation, background housing, and greenhouse farming. Multi-story gardens, hanging gardens, damp beds, and shade net farming are some other methods. A variety of crops and livestock are frequently grown by farmers, serving as insurance to mitigate the risks of any one business venture as well as a means of diversifying diets. Notably, rainwater is not the only source of nutrition for urban agriculture, UA uses also tap water, wastewater, or water from a borehole, and farmers augment the rain with irrigation (Delbridge & Ngoga, 2021). Similar to the larger conventional

agriculture sector, the urban agriculture subsector involves three phases of vertically integrated processes: pre-production involves resource acquisition and input management; production, includes creating finished goods and raw materials; and post-production encompasses processing, packaging, distribution, marketing, and recycling (Smit, Nasr, & Ratta, 2001). Sustainable Urban Agriculture (SUA) is a promising method to food producing, it is intended for peri-urban and urban cities. It emphasizes several sustainable and efficient initiatives for the producing and distribution of food in these settings. As cities face growing population needs and environmental challenges, SUA is gaining popularity as a vital solution (Saputra, Abdoellah, & Utama, 2024).

Why is UA Important?

This question allows us to discuss more detail about UA's external features. Bakker, Dubbeling, Gundel, Koschella, & Zeeuw (2000) demonstrate that urban agriculture is merely one source of providing for urban food networks and just one of many choices for families to ensure food security. It is also one of many methods for saving or creating income and employment, and more.

Urban farming serves as a crucial tool for integrating underprivileged individuals and social groups, such as immigrants, impoverished or marginalized women, the unemployed, the elderly, and the disabled. By encouraging their integration into the social fabric and providing better living conditions, urban agriculture facilitates the inclusion of these vulnerable populations. Furthermore, UA can possibly improve the durability and flexibility of urban cities by reducing fuel in food transportation for local consumption, thereby providing a climate-friendly carbon economy. It is based in some of the most polluted ecosystems on Earth and is being applied in metropolitan areas. Consequently, care must be taken to prevent the introduction of toxins out of food supply chains (Ferreira, Guilherme, Ferreira, & Oliveira, 2018).

Three primary policy dimensions of urban agriculture are described by Dubbeling & De Zeeuw (2005), which may aid in focusing and differentiating policies related to urban agriculture.

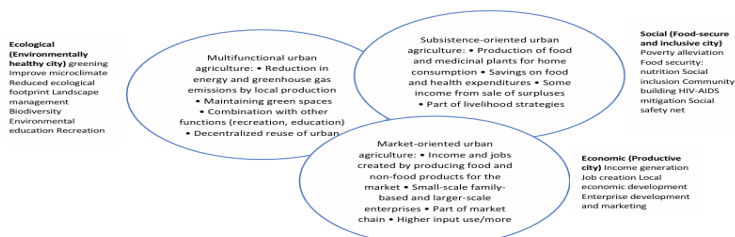
First, *the social policy* dimension primarily focuses on subsistence-oriented UA practices, such as growing food and medicinal plants for personal use. These practices are a part of the livelihoods of the urban poor. By reducing family spending on food and medication, and generating the sales of surpluses, these provide a small amount of financial revenue. For these households to survive, they need additional revenue from areas other than agriculture. Horticulture, low-investment, and micro-scale agriculture gaps are common examples of subsistence UA. Although these systems may not seem to be highly profitable, they have significant social impacts, such as community development, poverty reduction, and social inclusion.

The *economic policy* aspect is more closely tied to UA, specifically the market-focused aspect of it. Both larger operations and small-scale family businesses run entrepreneurial farms that are managed by producer companies or private investors. These farms produce both non-food items, such as flowers, decorative plants, medicinal and fragrant herbs, as well as food. They are linked to a network of smaller and larger businesses that provide inputs (compost and fodder), process them, and sell them.

Urban agriculture which encompasses multiple purposes, including food production and income generation, is considered to have an *ecological policy* dimension. In addition, it plays a key role in environmental management and offers additional services that urban residents require, including decentralized composting, wastewater and organic waste reuse, urban greening, improved urban climate, landscape management, suitable chances for time off activities, water reservoir, etc. Achieving these multifunctional benefits, make necessary for UA to adopt agroecological production methods, corporate sustainable waste management and eco-sanitation practices,

and cooperate with parks, nature, and recreation planning and management to enable such a mix of functions.

Figure N° 1. Key policy terms on UA



Source: (Dubbeling & De Zeeuw, 2007)

UA therefore grant the durability of cities with many processes – economically, environmentally, and socially.

Community Building, Empowerment... What's more?

UA has a significant impact on communities by fostering empowerment and community development. UA often aims to address social issues and promote community empowerment through neighborhood encounters. This is facilitated by community-led UA projects that promote social inclusion, self-organization, and cohesion (Teig, et al., 2009; Guitart, Pickering, & Byrne, 2012). UA also has the potential to foster neighborhood and community cohesion by revitalizing cooperatives and organizations that have been lost in cities recently but have a longstanding history. Furthermore, farming and

trading which are low-skilled jobs, can help disadvantaged populations like women, youth, and others become economically included. Farmers and traders can also establish livelihood networks (Delbridge & Ngoga, 2021). Integrating marginalized individuals and groups into the city system, giving them a means of subsistence, and addressing societal concerns, UA can play a notable part in reducing poverty, as well as promoting social combinations of marginalized groups. These groups include immigrants, households touched by HIV/AIDS, challenged individuals, families where no man is present, aged people without pensions, and jobless youngsters (Veenhuizen, 2006).

1.3 Business Channels in Urban Agriculture

The business models of vertical cultivation employ various categories (Van der Schans, 2010). According to Sroka, Sulewski, Mikolajczyk, & Król (2023), a business channel describes how to create value for the clients and the way companies and their stakeholders capture it. Serval studies have recently categorized business models of urban farming depending on typical city adapted agricultural projects and the business channel methodologies:

Diversification: It is a strategic approach for urban farms to expand diversification in their services and products. Urban farmers can differentiate themselves from larger-scale challengers in the agricultural product trade space and the nearby existence of numerous clientele. UA can generate revenue through various services including agro-tourism, social services (education, therapy, health, and caregiving), and other related ones (Zasada, 2011).

Differentiation in Production and Marketing: This strategy concerns farms that aim to stand out in their local markets through differentiation in production and marketing. They often provide a limited range of well-chosen goods and services to specific customer segments, these farms can create a unique value proposition (Pölling, Mergenthaler, & Lorleberg, 2016).

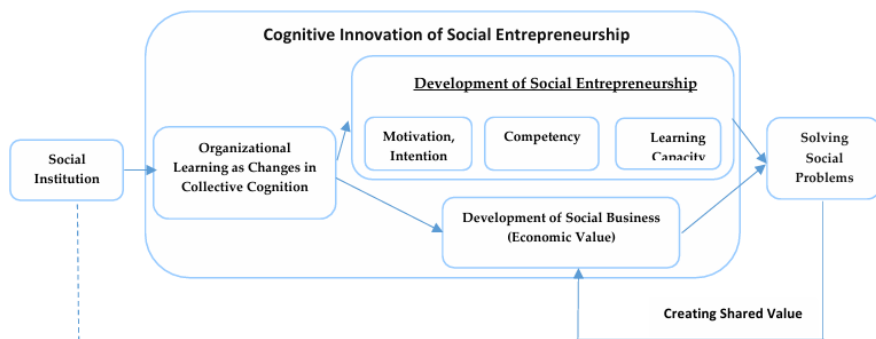
Specialization: Under this strategy, high-value products that have comparatively high transportation costs are prioritized. The concept behind this strategy is to use urban synergies to achieve economies of scale (Pölling, et al., 2017).

Experience: Peri-urban agriculture with higher value-added can provide a variety of experiences instead of only production (Van der Schans, Lorleberg, & Pölling, 2015). Customers can assist with farm tasks such as feeding hens, grinding grain, gathering eggs, etc. This approach prioritizes experiences over output (Sroka, Sulewski, Mikolajczyk, & Król, 2023).

Shared economy: According to Asian, Hafezalkotob, & John (2019), this paradigm requires involving the community in planning and even agriculture production. Concerning sufficient payment before the season's growth, an agricultural promoter works with a set of consumers who participate in the collecting and get produce at predefined time.

The business model can both describe potential benefits and explain how values are obtained at the operational level. Classifying the business model helps to reduce complexity and diversity.

Figure N° 2. Primary model for generating shared value in UA



Source: (Kiminami, Furuzawa, & Kiminami, 2022)

The figure appears to illustrate a conceptual framework for social entrepreneurship development, highlighting the interconnected relationships between cognitive processes and business outcomes. The diagram shows a progression from initial motivation and intention through organizational learning capacity and social learning processes. These elements feed into collective cognition development, which ultimately leads to social business development focused on creating economic value and shared value.

The framework emphasizes how cognitive innovation plays a fundamental role in solving social problems through entrepreneurial approaches. The arrows indicate a sequential flow, suggesting that each component builds upon and influences the others. The inclusion of both social and business elements demonstrates how social entrepreneurship bridges the gap between social impact and economic sustainability.

2. The Social Entrepreneurism of UA in Japan

Japan demonstrated both environmental strengths and obstacles in the twenty-first century. The government and business community aim to preserve prosperity while transitioning to renewable energy and emphasizing conservation. The Japanese government has implemented several environmental initiatives and programs at local and national levels, including consumer awareness campaigns and green purchasing practices (Holroyd, 2023). In 2017, some changes were made to the Green Production Land Law. In 2018, the leasing of urban farmland law passed to support business growth and UA (Kiminami, Furuzawa, & Kiminami, 2022). The social entrepreneurship landscape in Japan will continue to grow and rise to the challenge as the country deals with social issues such as its aging population, and the environmental challenges like the effects of climate change.

Japan is a special example of offering a unique perspective on urban agriculture. Despite the increasing industrialization, agricultural land use is a common sight in the metropolitan environment of the

country. Surprisingly UA produces roughly one-third of the country's agricultural production. Similarly, 25% of farmers in Japan constitute the country's farming households (Moreno-Peñaranda, 2011). The profitability of UA is approximately 10% higher than that of rural agriculture and twice that of rural agriculture. In Tokyo, local agriculture manages to grow as many vegetables as possible, despite the city's complex network of highways, infrastructures, and buildings. This UA can provide support for the feeding of approximately 700,000 city people (Agri Farming, 2022). The city's urban farmers are pioneering creative distinctive farming methods that are exclusive to the city, such as creative community farms that generate modest amounts of produce and multiproduct goods that directly sell to customers.

Characteristics of Urban Farmers

Japanese urban agriculture entrepreneurs are pioneering a movement that extends far beyond food production. By combining social mission with business acumen, they are creating sustainable solutions to urban challenges while building more resilient communities. Their success offers valuable lessons for social entrepreneurs worldwide, demonstrating how agriculture can be a powerful tool for social change in urban environments. In Japan, conventional agricultural techniques are harmoniously integrated with modern urban lifestyles. For example, many farmers in major cities like Tokyo frequently combine farming with other businesses. This dual-business strategy is a reflection of the unique challenges and adaptability of UA (Clavecilla, 2023).

Green Farming

Green innovation in UA is flourishing especially in technologically advanced countries like Japan. It involves many innovative urban farming practices such as edible green curtains for public building insulation; computer-based indoor plant growth and rooftop gardens

that involve urban residents in agriculture. Japan might be a leader in UA innovation by fusing its technological prowess with sustainable agriculture principles rooted in traditional farming and food cultures. This approach inspires other nations to do the same (Agri Farming, 2022).

Table N° 1. The scale of Agricultural Cultivation Operations within Urbanization Promotion Spaces

	Major metropolitan spaces	Other spaces	Total
<i>High-yielding Green area</i>	19.4% (12,387 ha)	4.372 million (2020)	8,894 billion yen (2020)
<i>Other farmland within UPA</i>	16.4% (10,461 ha)	Total: 64,000 (2019) (of which PGS is 12,000)	622.9 billion yen (2019)
<i>Total farmland</i>	35.7% (22,848 ha)	1.5% (Productive Green Space: 0.3%)	7%

Source: (Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism, 2019; Japanese Government Statistics, 2020)

The table provides a breakdown of agricultural cultivation operations within urbanization promotion spaces in Japan. It highlights the significant contribution of high-yielding green areas and other farmland within Urban Planning Areas (UPA) to the total farmland. While the percentage of farmland in other spaces is relatively low, it still contributes to the overall agricultural landscape. The table also indicates the economic value of these agricultural operations, with high-yielding green areas generating the highest revenue. This data suggests that urban agriculture, particularly in high-yielding areas, plays a crucial role in Japan's food production and economy.

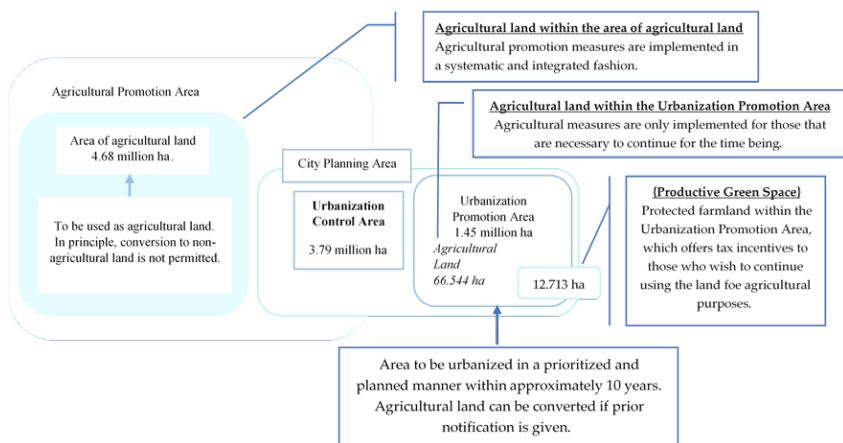
Urban Farming Policy under the Government of Japan

Urban farmland in Japan is primarily defined in the basic policy law as agricultural farmland on the promotion of urban farming. Still, the MAFF has designated fewer than 2 percent of Japan's total agricultural area as "urban farmland". Some areas of agricultural land in the UPA may not be productive green space (PGS), a protected area. The national government encourages landowners and farmers by offering tax benefits to foster the long-term preservation of cultivated areas land in PGS. However, the land must be farmed for at least 30 years after the original position, and the property owners must sell the property on a 10-year basis following the 30-year completion of requirements (Agri Farming, 2022).

To motivate the landholders of productive PGS to farm the land or hire underutilized farms, MAFF adapted laws in 2018 to extend tax advantages for a further 10 years. This action was taken since the 30-year tax incentives for the majority of Japan's PGS would expire in 2022. The majority of agricultural leasing is renewed with strong protection for tenants' rights to avoid possibly unending lease cycles. According to the contract on Urban Farmland Lease Facilitation (2018), urban cultivated land located inside PGRs is exempt from the usual contract agreement.

according to a survey conducted in April 2021 by Nikkei, Landowners of approximately 80% of PGS in Tokyo and nearby prefectures (Chiba, Saitama, and Kanagawa) applied for and were accepted for a 10-year augmentation of their tax incentives running out in 2022 (USDA, 2021).

Figure N° 3. Linkage between Agricultural Promotion, Urbanization Control, and Urbanization Promotion Areas



Source: (USDA, 2021)

2.1 Japanese Policy Interventions to Promote Social Agricultural Entrepreneurship

The Japanese government has encouraged entrepreneurial spirit to revitalize agricultural areas at risk of disappearing. Since 2009, The Internal Affairs and Communications Ministry has overseen the Community-Reactivating Cooperator Squad. This initiative seeks to enhance interactions between locals and visitors. Community-reactivating cooperators, mainly from urban regions, reside in a rural group for less than 03 years and actively contribute to its revitalization. Participants in this project may receive some entrepreneurship education. 12% of the contributors resided in a nearby village. Although integrating into the group is not always simple, 47% of the participants remained even after their agreements expired in March 2015 (Internal Affairs and Communications Ministry, 2015). Upon the fulfillment of the Community-Reactivating Cooperator Squad initiative, participants who had actively engaged in community issues tended to stay there, especially if they received an invitation from a community member to continue working there. This embeddedness

involves developing an understanding of the locals and the community, trust, compassion, and other aspects of social capital (Haga, 2018).

Preparing Local Human Capital and Generating New Agricultural Projects by civilizing Leadership

In recent years, Japanese city residents have become increasingly interested in agriculture. A research by the MAFF revealed that more than 85% of Tokyo locals would like farms in the city to ensure access to fresh food and green spaces. The two most known citizen participation programs in urban agriculture in Japan are Taiken Nouen, which involves residents in various activities with real farmers, and Shimin Nouen, also known as allotment gardens. Over the past decade, the increasing number of allotment gardens has achieved 67% while remaining stable in rural settings. According to MAFF (2010), demands were 30% surpassing the available number of national gardens. In certain greatly industrialized cities like Nagoya and Kawasaki, application for gardens exceeded by more than 300% (Moreno-Peñaranda, 2011).

In 2007, the shortage of young labor in primary industries like agriculture was one of Japan's biggest issues. Inc., encouraging young people to engage in agriculture projects, making efficient use of farmland, and supporting organic farming. With numerous graduates from its "Agri-Innovation" academy, the company now operates over 100 farms around the country, equipping them with the skills needed to launch their pesticide-free farms and become the next wave of agriculture leaders.

2.2 Common features of innovation processes in Japan

A high degree of human capital in Japan is produced, which has the best literacy and numeracy rates among adult participants in the OECD adult literacy survey among countries worldwide. However, the decreasing students moving to PhD programs in these subjects and the decreasing number of publications in prestigious journals, threaten

the potential of science and technology. The country ranks relatively high among OECD nations for public investment in R&D, although spending growth has slowed. Japan aims to leverage its superior infrastructure in information and communication technology. The government unveiled the "Future Investment Strategy 2017: Reforms toward the Realization of Society 5.0" in June 2017. This plan demonstrates the realization of "Society 5.0," which embraces various innovative technologies, including Artificial Intelligence, the Internet of Thing, Big Data, and robotics, that are essential to medium to long-term economic growth. The effectiveness of the industry relies on the progress of technologies for the analysis and formalization of Big Data, including crop development, meteorological data, market information, food trends, and needs. Many problems in agriculture are expected to be resolved with new forms of innovation, that is stabilizing the food supply, lowering food waste, and increasing food intake (OECD, 2019).

Innovative Finance Mechanisms: Providing financial compensation to support a green economy for the distribution of environmental commodities and services that the market does not sufficiently reward. These payment plans could be used to support the responsibilities that urban farming plays in providing regional biodiversity and ecosystem services and encourage them to move toward clean, environment-friendly production practices. Considering the scope and significance of UA in Japan, as well as the demographic challenges it faces, improving biodiversity and ecosystem services while generating employment could be a mutually beneficial solution (Moreno-Peñaranda, 2011).

2.3 Balanced innovation of social entrepreneurship in UA

Urban agriculture in Japan has emerged as a significant avenue for social entrepreneurship, fostering community engagement, environmental sustainability, and economic resilience. This article explores the mechanisms of social entrepreneurship within urban

agriculture, focusing on how these initiatives create shared value for urban residents and contribute to solving social problems.

According to Kiminami, Furuzawa, & Kiminami (2022), the procedure of the creation of shared value in UA can be classified into three main models:

The first method for generating shared value is the *Virtuous Cycle Model I*. According to this type, social challenges can be resolved by cognitive innovation, the growth of public enterprise, and organizational learning, leading producing a positive feedback loop. UA provides great potential for shared value, and entrepreneurial initiatives can successfully address societal challenges. Moreover, the cognitive transformations among stakeholders' collaborative social entrepreneurship across organizational training can conduct to changes in social organizations.

The second model for generating shared value is the *Virtuous Cycle Model II*. According to this model, organizational training as a shift in collaborative cognition is incomplete, even while slow cognitive transformation is realized, its insight is limited. Additionally, only the latent classes 2 and 1 of urban dwellers are likely to be involved. Consequently, changes in social organizations have not been achieved as a result.

The Stagnant Model of the Creation of Shared Value, on the other hand, is the third model. According to this concept, social entrepreneurs' cognitive creativity and the growth of social business are insufficient to drive significant change.

Upgrading technological innovation in the production/distribution field

The Council of Industry, Academia, and Government Collaboration established a research and development platform" in April 2016. The research aimed to advance production and distribution technologies in sectors like agriculture, fisheries, and forestry. To achieve this, the

agricultural sector and the business community collaborated to put into practice affirmations of recognizing technology that allows field crop growing to be tracked using a camera. Responding to the need for information on the latest technology and research findings, the MAFF released a list of researchers from various disciplines, and the National Agriculture and Food Research Organization created a mechanism that instantly stops grass cutters to avoid mishaps when farming, (MAFF, 2017).

2.4. Case Studies of Successful Urban Agricultural Initiatives

Several notable examples illustrate the impact of social entrepreneurship in Japanese urban agriculture (Kiminami, Furuzawa, & Kiminami, 2022):

Hisamatsu's Organic Farm: Initially struggling with low levels of social entrepreneurship, Hisamatsu gradually built a successful organic farming business by collaborating with local experts and fostering a team-oriented approach. By employing female farmers as managers, he not only stabilized his farm but also empowered local women, creating a model for sustainable community engagement.

Nishitsuji's Training Programs: Nishitsuji launched initiatives aimed at increasing food self-sufficiency and regenerating abandoned farmland. His programs include training courses for aspiring organic farmers, which not only address local agricultural challenges but also promote a culture of learning and resilience within the community .

These case studies highlight how social entrepreneurs can create shared value by addressing specific community needs while promoting sustainable practices.

Conclusion

This study has explored the intersection of social entrepreneurship and urban agriculture in Japan, revealing how these innovative ventures are driving sustainable innovation business models. By

examining the key elements of entrepreneurship as a tool to build sustainable social enterprises, the importance of urban agriculture, and the role of Japanese policy interventions, this research has shed light on the factors shaping the landscape of urban agriculture social entrepreneurship in Japan.

A key finding of this study is the potential of urban agriculture to address pressing social and environmental challenges, such as food security, climate change, and community revitalization. By leveraging innovative business models, social entrepreneurs in Japan are creating sustainable and resilient food systems. Moreover, the supportive policy environment in Japan has played a crucial role in fostering the growth of these enterprises.

However, challenges persist, including limited access to land, financing, and skilled labor. To further advance the field of urban agriculture social entrepreneurship, future research should delve deeper into the impact of technological advancements, the role of consumer preferences, and the long-term sustainability of these enterprises. By addressing these issues, policymakers, investors, and entrepreneurs can work collaboratively to create a more sustainable and equitable future.

In conclusion, this study provides valuable insights into the role of social entrepreneurship in promoting sustainable urban development. By understanding the factors that contribute to the success of these enterprises, policymakers, investors, and entrepreneurs can work together to create a more sustainable future.

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