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Doing Good by Doing Deals: Embedding Impact Objectives into Loan Agreements
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Lectured by

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Impact Investing Trends
Evidence of a Growing Industry
Impact Investing Trends: Evidence of a Growing Industry

About the Global Impact Investing Network (GIIN)

The GIIN is a nonprofit organization dedicated to increasing the scale and effectiveness of impact investing. Impact investments are investments made into companies, organizations, and funds with the intention to generate social and environmental impact alongside a financial return. The GIIN builds critical infrastructure and supports activities, education, and research that help accelerate the development of a coherent impact investing industry. For more information, see www.thegiin.org.

Acknowledgements

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Sponsors
This report was produced using data from the 2013-2015 Annual Impact Investor Surveys and their corresponding reports. All three of these reports were produced with the generous partnership and support of JPMorgan Chase & Co. The 2016 report (using data from 2015) was also funded with UK aid from the UK Government through the Department for International Development’s Impact Programme.

Interviewees
This report includes insights from interviews with five impact investors about recent changes and future developments in the impact investing market: Sandeep Farias from Elevar Equity, María Victoria Gonzalez from Adobe Capital, Huib-Jan de Ruijter from FMO, Ommeed Sathe from Prudential Financial, Inc., and Evita Zanuso from Big Society Capital.

DECEMBER 2016
Respondents grew their impact assets from USD 25.4 billion to 35.5 billion from 2013 to 2015.
Letter from the CEO
Dear readers,

“Study the past if you would define the future,” Confucius

The above quote is a personal favorite. To me, it is an important reminder that there can be great value derived from reflecting on and understanding the past, especially if you are trying to change the future.

The market for impact investing is no longer nascent, but it is also far from being fully formed or matured. As such, the impact investing industry is at a perfect moment for reflection. By looking closely at data from the past few years of impact investing, we can better direct the industry’s trajectory so that this powerful practice can reach its full potential—and faster. That is why I am thrilled to present Impact Investing Trends: Evidence of a Growing Industry, the very first GIIN report speaking specifically to trends in the market over time.

At the GIIN, I have the daily privilege of hearing how members are leading the way to finance innovative solutions to pressing global issues in areas such as affordable housing, climate change, and healthcare. Given these conversations and findings from industry research, such as the GIIN’s Annual Impact Investor Survey, I have long been confident that this industry has been developing steadily. However, with the data presented in this latest report, we now have compelling evidence that the impact investing industry is growing, both in terms of size and maturation.

I am delighted to share that the data show many encouraging signs for the industry, including the following key trends:

1. Impact investors are demonstrating strong growth, with assets under management growing by 18% compounded annually from 2013 to 2015;
2. Impact investments are made across the world, in a diverse range of sectors and using various financial instruments, reflecting the wide variety of impact theses and strategies pursued by impact investors;
3. Impact investors are consistently satisfied with both impact and financial performance;
4. The industry is making progress against several key indicators of market growth, despite there being certain barriers remaining to industry development.

I’d like to reflect in particular on why the last highlighted trend is just as encouraging as the other findings. In fact, I find this trend to be the most reassuring, for it indicates room for (and hope for) more: more improvement, more investors entering the market, more impact. We have come a long way in building this market, but we have further to go, as the amount of available impact investment capital does not yet come close to matching the scope of the pressing social and environmental problems we face today. This brings me back to the importance of the research contained in this report.

If you are already an active impact investor, I hope this research will be useful in guiding future investment decisions and helping to increase your impact. If you are looking to enter the space, I hope this research helps support a case for getting involved in this growing market. If you are not a professional investor, but you are a curious and active citizen of the world, I hope you are encouraged by these trends, and will continue to look for ways to align your own assets with your values.

Impact investing’s time has come. Many investors around the world have led the way and have laid a strong foundation for this movement. With this strong foundation, we now have the opportunity to build an even stronger future for impact investing, and, thus, a stronger future for the world.

How do you wish to define this future?

Amit Bouri
CEO, Global Impact Investing Network
abouri@thegiin.org
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Methodology

This report captures data from 62 impact investors that have completed the Global Impact Investing Network’s (GIIN) Annual Impact Investor Survey each of the past three years (2014–2016), answering questions regarding their activities for the year prior to data collection, plans for the following year, and general perceptions of broader market trends and topics. Thus, although these surveys were administered at the beginning of each year 2014–2016, the collected data refer to the years 2013–2015, which will be the years referenced in this report.

Inclusion criteria

All respondents represent impact investing organizations, not individual investors. In an effort to ensure that respondents had meaningful experience managing impact investments, survey-eligibility criteria each year required that respondents had either: (a) committed USD 10 million to impact investments since their inception and/or (b) completed at least five impact investing transactions.\(^1\) The GIIN provided its definition of impact investing (see Appendix 2), which respondents used to determine their eligibility.

Analysis included

While many questions have been repeated in the survey instrument each of the past three years, several questions have changed over time, and others have been removed or added. For this report, the GIIN research team analyzed only those questions with comparable data from each of the past three years. For some questions with multiple choices, certain available answer choices have been modified, added, or deleted over time; in these cases, only comparable options were analyzed.

Investor insights

Additionally, the research team conducted brief interviews with five individuals at select repeat respondent organizations in order to gather perspectives on both recent changes in the impact investing market and the forward-looking trajectory of the industry. The interviewees were selected to reflect a range of organizational types, investment geographies, and asset classes in the impact investing space.

Data accuracy

The individuals representing each organization and responding to each respective survey may change from year to year, which can lead to subtly different interpretations of some survey questions. Each year, the GIIN research team conducted basic checks during data cleaning, processing, and analysis, clarifying with respondents as appropriate to improve accuracy. Further, in the process of analyzing changes over time, the GIIN research team conducted additional data checks and sought additional clarification to ensure year-on-year consistency.

Exchange rate fluctuations

Respondents report key numeric figures each year in USD, such as assets under management (AUM) and capital committed. This report does not attempt to analyze any potential exchange rate fluctuations.

\(^1\) In 2013, investors were required to have committed at least USD 10 million to impact investments in order to qualify for the survey. In 2014 and 2015, the survey included a second, alternate criterion to qualify, namely that investors may have made at least five impact investment transactions.
Analysis by sub-group

In addition to aggregate analysis of the full sample of 62 respondents, this report also highlights certain notable differences in responses by particular sub-groups of respondents, for example by investors with a substantial majority of their capital allocated to a particular geography. Table i presents a full list of these sub-groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-group</th>
<th>Description of the category</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EM-focused investors</td>
<td>Respondents that allocated ≥75% of their AUM to emerging markets (EM) every year</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DM-focused investors</td>
<td>Respondents that allocated ≥75% of their AUM to developed markets (DM) every year</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market-rate investors</td>
<td>Respondents that principally targeted risk-adjusted, market-rate returns every year</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below-market investors</td>
<td>Respondents that principally targeted below-market-rate returns every year; some targeted closer to market-rate and some targeted closer to capital-preservation returns</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD-focused investors</td>
<td>Respondents that allocated ≥75% of their AUM to private debt (PD) every year</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE-focused investors</td>
<td>Respondents that allocated ≥75% of their AUM to private equity (PE) every year</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Region and sector codes

For brevity, regions and sectors referenced in the report are given shorter names, codes which are shown in Tables ii and iii. The Annual Survey instruments did not provide precise region or sector definitions, so responses reflect respondents’ interpretations of each region or sector boundaries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Name of region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DM</td>
<td>Developed Markets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>United States and Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WNS Europe</td>
<td>Western, Northern, and Southern Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>Oceania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM</td>
<td>Emerging Markets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSA</td>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAC</td>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean (including Mexico)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>South Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESE Asia</td>
<td>East and Southeast Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MENA</td>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EECA</td>
<td>Eastern Europe, Russia, and Central Asia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Name of sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>Energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fin services (excl. microfinance)</td>
<td>Financial services (excluding microfinance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; ag</td>
<td>Food and agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare</td>
<td>Healthcare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>Housing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and communication technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microfinance</td>
<td>Microfinance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASH</td>
<td>Water and sanitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introduction

Since 2011, the GIIN has conducted a rigorous annual survey of the growing community of impact investors. The resultant reports have provided the most comprehensive view of market activity and industry development worldwide.²

Each year, as much as is possible, practical, and relevant, the survey maintains a core set of questions regarding investor activity and perspectives. Over the last three years, the survey has also captured detailed information on investors’ portfolio allocations. The respondent sample has also grown steadily over time (see Table iv) and includes 62 respondents that have completed the survey each of the last three years.

Table iv: Total number of respondents to each year’s Annual Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of data</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examining these detailed survey responses over time allowed the GIIN to produce this first-ever industry-level trends analysis on global impact investor market activity. This data is complemented by qualitative insights from five impact investors on how the market has changed in recent years and how it will continue to evolve. The GIIN hopes that insights from this research will further the impact investing industry’s reach and effectiveness, enable data-driven decision-making, and improve transparency of this growing market.

² Conducted as a joint partnership between the GIIN and J.P. Morgan for the first five years (2011 to 2015), in 2016, the GIIN produced the survey entirely in-house, with J.P. Morgan remaining involved as an anchor sponsor. The UK Department for International Development also provided generous support for the 2016 survey.
Executive Summary

Sample characteristics
The 62 respondents included in this analysis represent a range of geographies, organization types, and returns philosophies.

- Approximately 80% of respondents are headquartered in developed markets.
- Over half of respondents identify as fund managers (56%) and one-fifth identify as foundations (20%). The remaining organization types are banks/diversified financial institutions, development finance institutions, family offices, and pension funds/insurance companies.
- Roughly half of the respondents in the sample are market-rate investors—with some slight fluctuations from year-to-year—and the rest are below-market investors.

Key findings
Several key themes emerged from these three years of data:

1. **Respondents have demonstrated strong growth**, collectively increasing their impact investing assets under management (AUM) from USD 25.4 billion in 2013 to USD 35.5 billion in 2015 (n=61), a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 18%. The volume of capital raised by fund managers also increased at a compounded rate of 18% each year, growing from USD 1.7 billion in 2013 to USD 2.3 billion in 2015 (n=26).

2. **Respondents have maintained a steady pace of activity**, committing a total of USD 7.1 billion, USD 9.2 billion, and USD 9.1 billion in 2013, 2014, and 2015 respectively, across over 3,000 transactions each year (n=62).

3. **Certain key geographies, sectors, and instruments are particularly common among impact investors.**
   a. Geography: Over 60% of AUM was allocated to emerging markets each year.
   b. Sector: The top three sectors receiving the highest proportions of AUM were microfinance, other financial services, and energy, respectively. Collectively, these three sectors accounted for the majority of AUM every year.
   c. Instrument: Approximately 70% of AUM was allocated through private debt and private equity each year.

4. **The industry continues to progress across various indicators of market growth, but consistent challenges remain.** Respondents reported seeing significant progress in terms of the number of intermediaries with successful track records, levels of government support for the market, and the availability of exit options. Notwithstanding this progress, respondents consistently cited ‘lack of appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum’ and ‘shortage of high-quality investment opportunities with track record’ as the top challenges facing the industry.

5. **Respondents report broad overall satisfaction with their impact and financial performance, as compared to their expectations.**
   a. Each year, 98% of respondents indicated impact performance in line with or exceeding their expectations, and 85% to 95% of respondents indicated financial performance in line with or better than their expectations.
   b. ‘Business model execution and management risk’ ranked first among the risks to impact investing portfolios considered.

---

3 One respondent declined to provide information regarding its assets under management.

4 Twenty-six fund managers responded to this question each year; a handful planned and/or reported USD 0 capital raise for one, two, or all three years.
Sample Characteristics

This section contextualizes the analysis with background information on the respondent sample of 62 organizations.

Headquarters locations

As shown in Figure 1, most respondents are headquartered in developed markets, with 45% of organizations based in North America, 35% based in WNS Europe, and 2% based in Oceania. Meanwhile, 13% of organizations are based in emerging markets.5

Figure 1: Location of headquarters by number of respondents

n = 62

Source: GIIN

Organization type

Among respondents, 34 organizations (56%) identify as fund managers, followed by 12 organizations (20%) identifying as foundations (Figure 2).6 The remainder comprises a mix of banks/diversified financial institutions, development finance institutions (DFIs), family offices, and pension funds or insurance companies.

Figure 2: Organization type by number of respondents

n = 61

Source: GIIN

5 The remaining 5% of respondents have no single headquarters location.

6 One respondent in the sample underwent a structural change between 2013 and 2015 and was thus excluded from this part of the analysis. In conjunction with respondents, the research team recoded some respondents’ organization types to correct inconsistent answers from year-to-year on the Annual Survey.
Target returns sought

Each year, respondents are asked to describe the type of financial returns they principally seek with their impact investments (Figure 3). From 2013 to 2015, the proportion of respondents that primarily targeted ‘risk-adjusted, market-rate returns’ grew from 47% to 53% (albeit with a slight dip in 2014). ‘Below-market returns’ were captured by two categories: ‘closer to market rate’ and ‘closer to capital preservation’. The proportion of respondents primarily targeting ‘below market-rate returns, closer to capital preservation’ decreased steadily from 27% in 2013 to 21% in 2015. Interestingly, two respondents targeting ‘market-rate returns’ in 2013 targeted ‘below-market-rate returns’ in 2015, while six respondents that targeted ‘below-market-rate returns’ in 2013 targeted ‘market-rate returns’ in 2015.

Figure 3: Target financial returns principally sought by percentage of respondents

Source: GIIN
Indicators of Growth

Assets under management (AUM) and investment activity in the sample of respondents grew steadily from 2013 to 2015.

Assets under management

From 2013 to 2015, impact AUM for 61 respondents grew from USD 25.4 billion to USD 35.5 billion (Figure 4),\(^7\) an 18% compound annual growth rate (CAGR) likely reflecting a combination of growth from capital raised for impact investments and growth in the value of existing investments. Overall, 42 out of 61 organizations increased their impact investing AUM over this three-year time period.

![Figure 4: Total AUM by year](source: GIIN)

Each year, the average AUM was substantially higher than the median AUM reported by respondents because a handful of respondents manage a large portion of all impact investing assets reported to the GIIN’s Annual Survey. In fact, the three largest respondents each year accounted for roughly 45% of all AUM in the sample. Table 1 shows the distribution of AUM, which is relatively consistent across the years.

![Table 1: Distribution of AUM by year](source: GIIN)

The Asset Allocation section of this report (page 16) presents further analysis of impact investment AUM by subgroup, geographic focus, sector, instrument, and stage of business.

\(^7\) One respondent declined to provide AUM information in all three years.
Prudential Financial, Inc., a financial services company based in the U.S., has managed an impact investing portfolio since 1976. Prudential invests in a range of sectors, including education, housing, and financial services, primarily in the U.S.

In recent years, Prudential identified significant growth in demand for impact investing capital, both at the enterprise and fund manager levels. As the number of potential investments has increased, the prospective impact objectives have become more diverse and targeted. As a result, Prudential has become more specific about the types of investments it pursues, selecting investments based on the investee’s impact orientation, impact measurement practice, and co-investment potential. Prudential’s own impact measurement practice also reflects this increasing specificity, with metrics chosen and monitored according to their corresponding impact objective.

Looking forward, Prudential has committed to growing its impact investment portfolio from approximately USD 500 million in 2016 to USD 1 billion by 2020. Achieving this target will require that Prudential maintain a robust investment platform that can effectively and efficiently deploy capital into a wide range of strategies. Additionally, Prudential expects to develop in two key areas:

• It intends to manage its impact investments as a portfolio rather than a collection of individual deals. Through this strategy, Prudential will review and manage portfolio-level risk and volatility on an ongoing basis, in order to build a portfolio that balances high-risk, pioneering investments with more stable investments.

• It expects growing collaboration between its impact investment practice and its broader asset management practice. This collaboration will include shared deal sourcing and due diligence, particularly as investments that originated in the impact space become more attractive to other investment arms within Prudential.

Prudential anticipates that the impact and non-impact investing industries will begin to converge as traditional investors develop impact offerings and impact investors raise funds that increasingly resemble mainstream offerings in terms of their structure and management. As this convergence occurs, Prudential will rely on impact intentionality, measurement, and management as key differentiators to distinguish attractive investment opportunities.
Investment activity

Capital committed and number of deals

In total, 62 respondents committed USD 7.1 billion to 3,332 deals in 2013, USD 9.2 billion to 3,726 deals in 2014, and USD 9.1 billion to 3,096 deals in 2015 (Figure 5). Notably, two organizations accounted for over half of all capital committed in each of the three years. While capital committed grew significantly from 2013 to 2014, it flattened from 2014 to 2015. Meanwhile, the number of deals fluctuated, increasing by 12% in 2014 and falling by 17% in 2015 (see discussion in box below).

Fluctuation in activity

Several different factors can influence capital committed from one year to the next, including:

- Investors often commit capital to be drawn down over several years, a practice that can cause a spike in the figure one year even though the commitment is actually deployed over several years.
- Investment pipelines are generally unevenly distributed in terms of both number and sizes of deals over a given period of time, and length of time to close also varies significantly.
- Certain instruments have defined investment periods, after which there may be a lag before managers make new investments.

Table 2 below shows how respondent activity fluctuated at the individual level from one year to the next. Overall, more respondents increased in both capital committed and number of deals than decreased. Further, more respondents increased in both measures in 2014 than in 2015. Finally, 15 respondents increased capital committed both years, and 13 respondents had more deals in both years.

Table 2: Number of respondents that increased, decreased, or maintained capital committed and number of deals from year to year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Capital committed</th>
<th>Number of deals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased by &gt;5%</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stayed within ± 5%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased by &gt;5%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Average deal size

Overall, average deal size increased from USD 2.1 million in 2013 to USD 2.5 million in 2014 and USD 3 million in 2015 (Figure 6). Among the sub-groups, market-rate investors had the highest average deal size, which also increased each year. The average deal size for DM-focused investors also nearly doubled from USD 1.1 million to USD 2.1 million.\(^8\) Meanwhile, the deal size of PE-focused investors fluctuated, increasing in 2014 and decreasing in 2015.

\(^8\) Average deal size was calculated by taking the sum of the capital committed each year and dividing by the sum of the number of deals each year.
Planned vs. reported activity

In addition to reporting investment activity for each year prior, respondents shared their plans for capital committed and number of deals in the year ahead. In 2014 and 2015, a majority of respondents exceeded their targets for capital committed and number of deals, although many also fell short of their targets (Table 3). In 2014, the aggregate amount of reported capital committed exceeded the target by USD 550 million while falling short of the target by USD 1.2 billion in 2015 (Figure 7). Notably, two organizations accounted for 40% of this discrepancy. In aggregate, the reported number of deals fell short of the target number in both years.

Table 3: Number of respondents that exceeded, met, or fell short of planned capital committed and number of deals each year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Capital committed</th>
<th>Number of deals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exceeded target by &gt;5%</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met within ±5% of target</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fell short of target by &gt;5%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Figure 7: Planned vs reported capital committed and number of deals

n=62. Left chart: capital committed in USD millions. Right chart: number of deals.

Source: GIIN
FMO

FMO, the Dutch development finance institution (DFI), has been investing for social and environmental impact since 1970. FMO has identified three noteworthy changes in both its own impact investing practice and the wider industry during the last three years, as well as corresponding forward-looking opportunities:

1 **Ongoing refinement of impact measurement practice:** With the help of an external consultant, FMO has developed an impact measurement model that captures both direct and indirect outcomes from an investment. The model considers external, macro-level data, investee performance metrics, and other indicators of impact. Looking forward, FMO hopes the market will move toward auditable, integrated impact reporting with higher-quality impact data.

2 **Growing importance of its catalytic role:** It is widely recognized that private capital and partnerships are needed to realize the Sustainable Development Goals. In recent years, FMO has increasingly played a catalytic role e.g. by taking a second loss position in several of its investments, thus mitigating risk for private investors. Through FMO Investment Management and syndicated loans, FMO has catalyzed and channeled capital from institutional investors and high-net-worth individuals to emerging markets. Looking forward, FMO sees further opportunity to facilitate public-private partnerships and to crowd in private capital, for instance for green bonds in emerging markets.

3 **An increasingly specialized intermediary market:** FMO noted the emergence of more funds focused on specific geographies and impact themes. Funds have expressed greater interest in forestry, renewable energy and women-owned SMEs, for instance. Further, FMO has found more funds with a liability structure built to accommodate both public and private capital. In addition to funds, ‘platforms’ and holding companies are gaining importance. For example, the Arise platform invests in financial inclusion in Africa with a longer term horizon than is typical with closed-ended funds and also provides other, non-financial support.
State of the Market

Progress on indicators of market growth

Every year, respondents were asked to assess industry progress against several indicators of market growth.\(^9\) Notwithstanding some fluctuation from one year to the next, between 2013 and 2015 growing proportions of respondents reported seeing ‘significant progress’ on several key indicators, including ‘number of intermediaries with a growing and successful track record’, ‘level of government support for the market’, and ‘availability of suitable exit options’ (Table 4).

Table 4: Percentage of respondents that reported ‘significant progress’ on indicators of market growth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of intermediaries, including fund managers, with growing, successful track records</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of research and data on products and performance</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of government support for the market</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of impact investment capital across the risk/return spectrum</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of suitable exit options</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The phrasing of indicators of progress was the same in 2013 and 2014, but changed slightly in 2015. In 2013 and 2014, two indicators of progress included ‘number of intermediaries, including fund managers, with growing, successful track records’ and ‘availability of investment opportunities at the company level’. In 2015, the answer choice was rephrased to ‘high-quality investment opportunities (fund or direct) with track records’. For the sake of comparison, we have combined both answer choices in 2013 and 2014.

Source: GIIN

Challenges to the growth of the impact investing industry

Respondents also shared their perceptions of the top challenges facing the impact investing industry (see box on next page for scoring methodology). Consistently from one year to the next, ‘lack of appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum’ and ‘shortage of high-quality investment opportunities with track records’ were the top-ranked challenges, and their relative scores have converged slightly (Figure 8).

Figure 8: Challenges to the growth of the impact investing industry

- Lack of appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum
- Shortage of high quality investment opportunities with track records
- Difficulty exiting investments
- Lack of common way to talk about impact investing
- Lack of innovative deal/fund structures to accommodate investors’ or portfolio companies’ needs
- Lack of investment professionals with relevant skill sets
- Inadequate impact measurement practice
- Lack of research and data on products and performance

Notes: Respondents ranked their top challenges from a choice of options. Scores for each option are calculated by weighting each rank by the number of respondents selecting it and summing those weighted totals. In 2013 and 2014, respondents ranked challenges from a choice of eight options. In 2015, ‘government support for the market’ was added as a ninth option and received a score of 13.

Source: GIIN

\(^9\) The wording of some indicators of progress included in the Annual Survey instrument has changed from year to year; original phrasing for each year may be found in Appendix 3. Other indicators of progress have been added or dropped over time and are therefore not included in this analysis.
Scoring Methodology

Throughout the survey instruments, some questions request respondents to rank a given set of options relative to each other. This report presents a weighted score for each answer choice, calculated by weighting each rank by the number of respondents that selected it and summing those weighted totals. In this case, respondents ranked the top three challenges, so the score for each option equals (number that ranked it first x 3) + (number that ranked it second x 2) + (number that ranked it third x 1).

It is important to note that since respondents rank each answer choice, the data only reflect the perceptions of each challenge in relation to the others, but may not capture an absolute increase or decrease of the significance of each challenge.

By score, the ‘lack of investment professionals with relevant skill sets’ and ‘inadequate impact measurement practice’ rose the most as perceived challenges. This first challenge may reflect growing demand for professionals with particular skills, which could stem from an increasingly specialized and segmented market. The second challenge may indicate growing expectations for increasingly sophisticated impact measurement practice and reporting. Conversely, ‘lack of research and data on products and performance’ and ‘lack of innovative structures to accommodate investors’ or portfolio companies’ needs’ showed the greatest decrease in score over time, thus indicating relative improvement in these indicators. These improvements may have resulted from a growing volume of high-quality research, including recent studies of the financial performance of impact investments.

Overall, the prioritized challenges remained relatively consistent across the three-year period (Figure 8), though respondents have, at the same time, consistently indicated improvement in terms of various measures of progress (Table 4). Taken together, this suggests that, although certain barriers to growth remain, the impact investing industry continues to move forward.

10 In 2015, respondents ranked their top five challenges because the list of options was expanded. Only the top three are considered in the score presented here.
Adobe Capital

Adobe Capital is a fund manager headquartered and investing in Mexico. Since Adobe Capital was established in 2013, it has observed growing activity in Mexico among both local and international impact investors. Additionally, Adobe has noted increasing flow of capital from investors new to impact investing and rising participation in the annual Latin American Impact Investment Forum, which will host its seventh convening in 2017.

This growing focus on investment for social and environmental stewardship is mirrored in the emergence of more impact-oriented entrepreneurs. Looking ahead, Adobe perceives growing opportunities in three key sectors: clean energy, financial inclusion, and healthcare. However, while the number of potential investment opportunities has increased, their quality and track records remain unproven. It also believes that accelerator programs will play a significant role in developing quality investment opportunities.

Currently, Adobe is raising its second fund and beginning to divest from its first. One of the primary learnings from the first fund has been a strategic evolution in impact measurement and management. Specifically, Adobe regularly reviews the set of IRIS\(^\text{12}\) metrics reported by its investees to ensure that they generate value and reflect on-the-ground impact. It also requires that all of its portfolio companies pursue a GIIRS\(^\text{13}\) rating within six months of receiving investment capital. These steps, Adobe feels, have begun to offer greater clarity around each company’s impact intentions and impact management practice.

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12 IRIS is the catalog of generally accepted performance metrics managed by the GIIN that impact investors use to measure the social, environmental, and financial results of their investments. For more information, see [iris.thegiin.org](http://iris.thegiin.org).

13 GIIRS Ratings provide comparable ratings of a company or a fund’s social and environmental impact.
Asset Allocations

This section reviews impact investing AUM, breaking down respondents’ AUM from 2013 to 2015 by sub-group, geographic focus, sector, instrument, and stage of business. More detailed discussion of trends in AUM can be found in the Indicators of Growth section of this report (page 8).

Assets under management

From 2013 to 2015, impact AUM for 61 respondents grew from USD 25.4 billion to USD 35.5 billion (Figure 9), an 18% CAGR. Overall, 42 out of 61 organizations increased their impact investing AUM over this time period.

![Total AUM by year](source: GIIN)

It is also instructive to look at trends in AUM by various segments of investors (Table 5).

- AUM grew in all respondent sub-groups, both overall and at the median (with the exception of below-market investors, for whom the median AUM remained flat).
- Total AUM grew notably faster for EM-focused investors (24% per annum) than for DM-focused investors (13% per annum).
- AUM of market-rate investors also grew much faster than did AUM for below-market investors (20% vs. 12% per annum).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-group</th>
<th>Median AUM</th>
<th>Total AUM</th>
<th>CAGR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM-focused</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DM-focused</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market-rate</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below-market</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD-focused</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE-focused</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

14 One respondent declined to provide AUM information every year.
AUM allocations by geography

Respondents make impact investments all over the world. With the exception of North America, where allocations remained relatively flat, AUM grew robustly across all geographies. The total AUM allocated to emerging markets increased from USD 15.1 billion in 2013 to USD 23.0 billion in 2015, representing 67% of total AUM in 2015 compared to 63% in 2013 (Figure 10). There was also significant growth, in relative terms, in MENA and Oceania (albeit from low bases). Market-rate investors saw robust growth across geographies, with the exception of North America. Notably, below-market investors saw allocations to WNS Europe grow (38% CAGR), while their allocations to South Asia contracted (~40% CAGR). PD-focused investors’ allocations to emerging markets grew, specifically SSA, MENA, LAC, and South Asia (by 25%-50% CAGR). PE-focused investors’ allocations grew considerably to ESE Asia (159% CAGR from a base of USD 35 million) and to South Asia (25% CAGR).

For the most part, the number of respondents with any allocation to a particular region remained fairly steady over the three-year period, especially for the more commonly targeted regions such as sub-Saharan Africa, LAC, South Asia, and North America (Figure 11). There were some notable areas of increasing focus, however, with the number of respondents with any allocation to ESE Asia growing from 22 to 28, to WNS Europe growing from 14 to 20, and to MENA growing from 10 to 18 in 2013 and 2015, respectively. These increases may reflect a desire by respondents to diversify across geographies or may be in response to emerging opportunities in previously untargeted regions.
Impact investors allocate capital to a wide variety of sectors (Figure 12), with the most commonly targeted sectors including microfinance and other financial services. However, while allocations to microfinance and financial services increased in absolute terms from USD 11.6 billion to USD 13.4 billion, their combined share of total AUM fell from 46% in 2013 to 38% in 2015, perhaps reflecting diversification away from these historically very popular sectors. The next three largest sectors were energy, housing, and food & ag, each of which experienced roughly 30% CAGR in AUM. Notably, total allocations to education and to ICT grew by nearly 60% and by just over 40% per year, respectively, although both started from low bases in 2013.

Note: In 2014 and 2015, ‘Arts & Culture’, ‘Habitat Conservation’, ‘Infrastructure’, and ‘Manufacturing’ were added to the survey as sector options, but these are classified under ‘Other’ for this analysis to ensure comparability with 2013 data.

Source: GIIN
By sub-group, EM-focused investors saw noteworthy growth in education, energy, and healthcare (all >50% CAGR). DM-focused investors’ allocations to housing grew by 33% CAGR, while allocations to financial services fell slightly. Market-rate investors grew their allocations to food & ag, education, and healthcare, while below-market investors grew their allocations to energy and housing.

Consistently across the three-year period, the highest number of respondents had allocations to food & ag, healthcare, and financial services (Figure 13). However, food & ag and healthcare accounted for just 6% to 8% of AUM each (Figure 12), suggesting that investors typically make small allocations to these sectors. These two sectors also showed the greatest increase between 2013 and 2015 in terms of the number of respondents with any allocation, which may indicate a growing number of attractive investment opportunities in these sectors.

![Figure 13: Number of respondents with any allocation to a sector](image)

Note: In 2014 and 2015, ‘Arts & Culture’, ‘Habitat Conservation’, ‘Infrastructure’, and ‘Manufacturing’ were added to the survey as sector options, but these are classified under ‘Other’ for this analysis to ensure comparability with 2013 data.

Source: GIIN

**AUM allocations by instrument**

Proportionally, asset allocations by instrument remained quite steady overall from 2013 to 2015. There was, however, a notable increase in allocations via public equities and real assets, while allocations to equity-like debt and public debt remained fairly flat (Table 6). Overall, most impact investment capital was deployed each year through private capital markets, with private debt and private equity combined accounting for roughly 70% of total AUM.

![Table 6: Total AUM by instrument](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>CAGR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private debt</td>
<td>11,740</td>
<td>14,428</td>
<td>15,899</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private equity</td>
<td>5,675</td>
<td>7,346</td>
<td>8,601</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity-like debt</td>
<td>2,450</td>
<td>2,915</td>
<td>2,595</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public debt</td>
<td>2,019</td>
<td>2,166</td>
<td>2,364</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real assets</td>
<td>899</td>
<td>1,274</td>
<td>1,979</td>
<td>48.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public equity</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>1,418</td>
<td>126.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deposits &amp; cash equivalents</td>
<td>893</td>
<td>920</td>
<td>1,198</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay-for-performance instruments</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1,369</td>
<td>1,498</td>
<td>1,356</td>
<td>-1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>25,385</strong></td>
<td><strong>30,826</strong></td>
<td><strong>35,514</strong></td>
<td><strong>18.3%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN
Sub-groups demonstrated some slight variations over the three-year period, with DM-focused investors increasing their allocations to real assets from USD 455 million to USD 1.4 billion (73% per annum) and below-market investors increasing their allocations to private equity from USD 849 million to USD 1.9 billion (50% per annum).

All said, the consistency of allocations from year to year suggest that, in aggregate, respondents have not diversified their activity significantly by instrument, perhaps due to their familiarity with or existing firm infrastructure to handle certain instruments.

**AUM allocations by stage of business**

Respondents allocated capital to businesses at various stages, from seed/startup stage to mature companies (Figure 14). The largest share of AUM over the three-year period was allocated to growth-stage and mature, private businesses. Allocations to venture, growth-stage, and mature, publicly traded businesses grew by over 30% per year from 2013 to 2015. By contrast, allocations to seed/startup-stage companies and mature, private businesses grew by less than 10%.

**Figure 14: Total AUM by sector**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total AUM</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21,612</td>
<td>2,358</td>
<td>2,358</td>
<td>2,358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26,987</td>
<td>11,565</td>
<td>12,753</td>
<td>12,753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31,160</td>
<td>21,612</td>
<td>26,987</td>
<td>31,160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Four organizations did not respond to this question in all three years of the survey and were therefore removed from this analysis.

Source: GIIN
Elevar Equity is an impact fund manager that invests in early and growth-stage businesses focused on low income communities in emerging markets such as India, Latin America, and South East Asia. Elevar manages three funds: a first fund at USD 24 million (vintage 2006), a second fund at USD 70 million (vintage 2008), and a third fund at USD 74 million (vintage 2014).

Elevar identified the following developments over the last three years:

• There was a shift in the types of investors interested in investing via its funds from primarily HNWIs to an increasing number of institutional investors. Elevar credits this change both to a gradual evolution in the market and its own growing financial return and impact track record.

• Elevar’s confidence in its ‘human-centered’ approach to venture capital has increased; this is a method that prioritizes understanding, from a field level view, the experiences of the customers of investee companies, building alignment with entrepreneurs, and delivering returns to its investors.

• As it serves the role of founding investor in many of its portfolio companies, Elevar has observed that the start-up risk of its investments is generally lower than might be expected by other investors. This is especially true when backing seasoned, execution-oriented entrepreneurs who are aligned with the ‘human-centered’ approach described above.

• Scale is critical for Elevar, in terms of number of people reached and the capital raised by its portfolio companies, in order to address the customer’s unmet need for essential services.

Looking to the future, Elevar is focused on growing and scaling as a fund manager, using its commercial approach to impact investing by backing many more entrepreneurs and in multiple sectors. Although a majority of its past investments have been in financial services, it has expanded to healthcare, housing, and education, and will continue to build on this sector diversification strategy.

Reflecting on the progress of the impact investing industry in the last three years, Elevar notes that there are few well-known organizations that have strong commercial and impact results. Elevar believes that strong track records will lead to more co-investment capital, significantly increase investor interest, and grow the industry’s investment pipeline.

Going forward, Elevar hopes to see more impact investors refine their investment methods and orientation to ‘scale smartly’, making the best use of their capital and human resources. Elevar also encourages impact investors to increase the provision of capital to start-up companies. Elevar believes that if the impact investing industry can seize these opportunities and generate real results in terms of both demonstrated impact and financial return, it will continue to prove its value to the world.
Fund Managers

The fund managers in the sample of repeat respondents are analyzed in this section.

Fund manager sources of capital

Fund managers raised capital from a variety of types of investors. Between 2013 and 2015, the highest numbers of fund managers reported having raised at least some capital from family offices or high-net-worth individuals (HNWIs) and foundations (Figure 15).\(^\text{15}\) However, as can be seen in Figure 16, family offices/HNWIs accounted for just 10-15% of fund manager AUM and foundations just 4-6%. Indeed, in absolute terms, the amount of capital raised from family offices/HNWIs and foundations decreased during the time period. Banks/diversified financial institutions and pension funds or insurance companies were also common investor types, and these two categories accounted for significant shares of fund manager AUM. Further, the number of fund managers that reported having raised at least some capital from banks/diversified financial institutions and from endowments jumped over the three-year period, possibly indicating an increased interest in impact investing by these types of investors.

![Figure 15: Number of fund managers that have raised capital from various investor types](image)

Notes: In 2014 and 2015, ‘other’ was added as a source of capital category. This option was not available in 2013. Those respondents that did not select ‘fund manager’ as their organization type each year were not included in this analysis, since they did not answer the survey questions that were specific to fund managers.

Source: GIIN

\(^{15}\) In 2014 and 2015, ‘other’ was added as a source of capital category. This option was not available in 2013.
While retail investors constitute the largest share of fund manager AUM, it should be noted that the three largest fund managers comprised over 60% of AUM, two of which accounted for over 70% of total capital raised from retail investors. Excluding these two large fund managers from the analysis, the portion of AUM raised from retail investors by the remaining fund managers falls to around 2% of total fund manager AUM over the three-year period.

**Capital raised**

The annual volume of capital raised by fund managers increased each year, growing from USD 1.7 billion in 2013 to USD 2.3 billion in 2015. The bulk of this 38% increase occurred between 2013 and 2014 (Table 7). The median volume of capital raised was consistently and notably lower than the annual mean raise, indicating that a handful of fund managers raised large amounts of capital each year.

**Table 7: Capital raised by fund managers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figures in USD millions.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: While 26 fund managers responded to this question each year, several reported raising USD 0 of capital. This table reflects activity among respondents that raised at least some capital in the given year.

Source: GIIN
Respondents also provided information about their plans to raise capital in the following year. In aggregate, fund managers fell short of their plans to raise capital by 7% in 2014 and by 9% in 2015 (Figure 17).

**Figure 17: Fund managers’ planned vs reported capital raises**

n=26; Figures in USD millions.

Eighteen out of 26 fund managers fell short of their target capital raises in 2014 and 17 fell short in 2015, 11 fell short both years (Table 8).

**Table 8: Number of fund managers that exceeded, met, and fell short of capital raise plans each year**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exceeded target capital raise by &gt;5%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Met within ±5% of target capital raise</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fell short of target capital raise by &gt;5%</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN
Big Society Capital

Big Society Capital (BSC) is a financial institution founded in 2012 to help develop the social impact investment market in the UK, both as an investor and a market-builder. It is funded by a combination of public money through dormant bank accounts and investments from four UK banks. In the last few years, the organization has become more proactive in its approach to making investments. It shifted from selecting proposals through an open application process to collaborating with partners to co-develop ideas which aim to address a specific social need.

Since its inception, BSC has observed the following major developments in the UK social impact investing industry:

- Increased deal flow especially in housing, employment, training and education, communities, sports, arts, and heritage.

- Increased variety of social impact investing products that address social challenges, including secured debt, unsecured debt, charity bonds, equity, community shares, and real estate.

- Growing use of social impact bonds to fund innovations and scale evidence-based approaches to issues such as homelessness, youth unemployment, children’s welfare, and long-term health conditions.

A key focus area for BSC has been impact measurement. BSC partnered with social investment financial intermediaries and impact experts, including Investing for Good, New Philanthropy Capital, Social Value International, and Triangle Consulting, to develop the Outcomes Matrix, a tool used by charities and social enterprises to define and measure their impact. Together with the Access Foundation and Power to Change, BSC is delivering the Impact Management Programme which will provide support including online resources and grants.

In 2016, BSC is conducting a major survey of its stakeholders to evaluate its current strategy and inform its future programming. One new initiative seeks to address the ‘poverty premium’, or the concept that people living in poverty pay more for basic goods and services than do those with higher incomes. With a combination of grant funding and investment capital, the program will incubate and scale social enterprises that address this problem.

Looking ahead, BSC perceives opportunities to scale housing-related social impact investments and pay-for-success models and to attract new impact investors, including institutional investors, to the market. BSC notes two major challenges facing the UK and European impact investing market: 1) uncertainty among investors and social enterprises following the UK referendum result in June 2016 to leave the European Union (“Brexit”); and 2) a lack of investors willing to take risk and prioritize social impact, rather than expecting commercial returns on all social impact investments.
Investment Performance

During each of the three years, respondents were asked to report on their financial and impact performance relative to their expectations, as well as on their perceptions of risks to their portfolios.

Gross returns expectations

Respondents reported relatively steady expectations for their gross returns by geography and asset class of investment (Table 9). Since 2013, expectations of gross returns for debt—including both DM and EM debt—have fallen slightly, from 6.5% to 5.2%. Expectations of gross returns for equity investments ranged from 17.6% to 19.1%.

Table 9: Gross returns expectations for each vintage year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Debt</th>
<th>Equity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performance relative to expectations

The majority of respondents reported high levels of satisfaction with their impact and financial performance relative to expectations across the three-year time period (Figure 18). These results were consistent across various segments, including by asset class and geographic focus.

Figure 18: Impact and financial performance relative to expectations

Numbers of respondents are shown above each bar; some respondents chose ‘not sure’, and their responses are not included here.

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16 Excludes one respondent for which data could not be verified in time to draft this report.
Each year, 21-25% of respondents reported that their impact performance exceeded expectations, with the vast majority of the rest reporting impact performance in line with expectations. There was slightly greater fluctuation in terms of reported satisfaction with financial performance against expectations, though each year at least 85% of respondents reported either performance in-line with or exceeding expectations. However, these reported levels of performance relative to expectations do not necessarily reflect respondents’ performance against the gross returns expectations presented above, since expectations of gross returns are specific to vintage years 2013 to 2015 rather than the portfolio as a whole.

While some respondents reported varying levels of satisfaction with their performance from year to year, over half of respondents reported performance in line with their impact and financial expectations in all three years (34 and 31 respondents, respectively). Eight respondents noted outperformance against their impact expectations every year, and two respondents noted outperformance against their financial expectations every year. One respondent fell short of their financial expectations every year, and no respondent consistently reported underperformance relative to their impact expectations.

Risk

Each year, respondents answered two questions regarding risk. First, they shared whether they had experienced any significant risk events in the year prior. Second, they ranked various possible contributors of risk to their portfolios.

Across all three years, most respondents reported experiencing no covenant breaches or material adverse changes (Table 10). Fourteen respondents experienced a significant risk event once during the three-year period, four experienced such events twice, and one experienced a risk event in all three years.

Table 10: Covenant breaches or material adverse changes experienced by year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Overall, the top perceived risks have been fairly steady year-on-year. Among the various types of risks considered, ‘business model execution and management risk’ has consistently ranked first (Table 11). While the score for this risk far exceeds the score of each year’s second-ranked risk, it fell by over 20 points between 2014 and 2015.

Table 11: Contributors of risk to impact investment portfolios

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business model execution &amp; management risk</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country &amp; currency risks</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquidity &amp; exit risk</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing risk</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market demand &amp; competition risk</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macroeconomic risk</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception &amp; reputational risk</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rank 1–2 | Rank 3–5

Notes: Respondents ranked their top risks from a choice of options. Scores are calculated by weighting each rank with the number of respondents selecting it and summing those weighted totals. Scores are weighted based on the top three ranked contributors to risk as reported by respondents each year. Respondents in 2015 cited the top five contributors of risk; for this report, only the top three were included in order to maintain comparability. For the 2015 survey only, additional options included ‘impact risk’ and ‘ESG risk’, which received scores of 14 and 4, respectively.

Source: GIIN

17 For more details on the scoring methodology, see the box on page 14.
At the same time, perceived ‘country and currency risk’ grew relative to other risks, rising from the fifth-ranked risk in 2014 to the second-ranked in 2015, with its score increasing from 48 to 61. This increasing concern relative to other risks may reflect the depreciation of various global currencies against the US Dollar in 2015; indeed, several respondents to that year’s survey expressly pointed to this factor. Consistent with this, EM-focused respondents accounted for most of the ‘country and currency risk’ score (Table 12). Conversely, the score for ‘market demand and competition risk’ decreased from 52 to 42 overall, dropping from the second-ranked risk in 2014 to the fifth-ranked in 2015. This shift was largely driven by EM-focused respondents, whereas DM-focused respondents actually rated this risk more highly in 2015 than in 2013. Respondents similarly diverged in their perceptions of ‘liquidity and exit risk’ and ‘macroeconomic risk’, with EM-focused respondents noting increased relative concern and DM-focused respondents noting decreased relative concern with both of these types of risks over the three-year period.

Table 12: Perceptions of risk among EM-focused and DM-focused respondents

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<td>2013</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>2014 (EM n=30)</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>2015</td>
<td>48</td>
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<td>27</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014 (DM n=21)</td>
<td>48</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>45</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
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Note: Respondents ranked the top risks from a choice of options. Scores are calculated by weighting each rank with the number of respondents selecting it and summing those weighted totals.

Source: GIIN
### Appendix 1

**List of Repeat Survey Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aavishkaar Venture Management Services</th>
<th>FMO*</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adobe Capital*</td>
<td>Ford Foundation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alterfin</td>
<td>GAWA Capital</td>
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<tr>
<td>Annie E. Casey Foundation</td>
<td>Global Partnerships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anonymous 1</td>
<td>Grassroots Capital Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anonymous 2</td>
<td>PBC/Caspian Impact Investment Advisers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anonymous 3</td>
<td>GroFin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anonymous 4</td>
<td>Habitat for Humanity International</td>
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<tr>
<td>AXA IM</td>
<td>Heron Foundation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Big Society Capital*</td>
<td>Hooge Raedt Social Venture (HRSV)</td>
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<tr>
<td>BlueOrchard Finance Ltd.</td>
<td>IGNIA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bridges Ventures LLP</td>
<td>JPMorgan Chase &amp; Co.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Business Partners International</td>
<td>LeapFrog Investments</td>
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<tr>
<td>Calvert Social Investment Foundation</td>
<td>Lundin Foundation</td>
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<tr>
<td>CDC Group</td>
<td>Lyme Timber</td>
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<tr>
<td>Christian Super</td>
<td>Media Development Investment Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>Community Capital Management, Inc.</td>
<td>National Community Investment Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cordaid Investment Management</td>
<td>Nesta Impact Investments</td>
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<tr>
<td>Core Innovation Capital</td>
<td>NewWorld Capital Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>CoreCo Private Equity</td>
<td>Nonprofit Finance Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>Creation Investments Capital Management, LLC</td>
<td>Oikocredit Private Equity</td>
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<td>Credit Suisse</td>
<td>Omidyar Network</td>
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<tr>
<td>Deutsche Bank</td>
<td>Pacific Community Ventures</td>
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<td>Elevar Equity*</td>
<td>PhiTrust</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Prudential Financial, Inc.*</td>
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<td>responsAbility Investments AG</td>
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<td>Root Capital</td>
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<td>Robert Wood Johnson Foundation (RWJF)</td>
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<td>Sarona Asset Management</td>
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<td>SJF Ventures</td>
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<td>The California Endowment</td>
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<td>The David and Lucile Packard Foundation</td>
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<td>The Rockefeller Foundation</td>
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<td>TIAA Global Asset Management*</td>
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<td>Triodos Investment Management</td>
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<td>Vox Capital</td>
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<td>Voxtra</td>
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* Five respondents were selected to provide qualitative information through brief interviews about recent changes and future developments in the impact investing market.

18 Formerly known as TIAA-CREF.
Appendix 2

List of Definitions

General

• **Impact investments**: Investments made into companies, organizations, and funds with the intention to generate measurable social and environmental impact alongside a financial return.

• **Capital committed**: Capital an organization has agreed to contribute to a fund or other investment, rather than capital committed to that organization or fund by another investor.

Instruments

• **Deposits & cash equivalents**: Cash-management strategies that incorporate intent toward positive impact.

• **Private debt**: Bonds or loans placed with a select group of investors rather than being syndicated broadly.

• **Public debt**: Publicly traded bonds or loans.

• **Equity-like debt**: An instrument between debt and equity, such as mezzanine capital or deeply subordinated debt, often a debt instrument with potential profit participation (e.g., convertible debt, warrant, royalty, debt with equity kicker).

• **Private equity**: A private investment into a company or fund in the form of an equity stake (not publicly traded stock).

• **Public equity**: Publicly traded stocks or shares.

• **Real assets**: An investment of physical or tangible assets as opposed to financial capital (e.g., real estate, commodities).

• **Pay-for-performance instruments (e.g., social-impact bonds)**: A form of outcomes-based contract in which public-sector commissioners commit to pay for significant improvement in social outcomes for a defined population. Private investment is used to pay for interventions, which are delivered by service providers. Financial returns to investors are made by the public sector on the basis of improved social outcomes.

Stages of growth

• **Seed/Start-up**: Business idea exists, but little has been established operationally; pre-revenues.

• **Venture**: Operations are established, and company may or may not be generating revenues, but it does not yet have positive EBITDA.

• **Growth**: Company has positive EBITDA and is growing.

• **Mature**: Company has stabilized at scale and is operating profitably.

Contributors of risk

• **Country and currency risk**: Risks which include political, regulatory, local economic, or currency-linked risks.

• **Financing risk**: Risk that the investee will not be able to raise subsequent capital necessary for growth.

• **Liquidity and exit risk**: The risk that the investor will be unable to exit an investment at the desired time.

• **Macroeconomic risk**: Risk that includes regional or global economic trends.
Indicators of progress
2013 & 2014 Answer Choices
• Collaboration among investors
• Number of intermediaries, including fund managers, with growing, successful track records (A1)
• Availability of research and data on products and performance (B)
• Availability of investment opportunities at the company level (A2)
• Availability of impact investment capital across the risk/return spectrum (C)
• Usage of impact measurement standards, metrics, and methodologies
• Level of government support for the market (D)
• Availability of suitable exit options (E)

2015 Answer Choices
• Sophistication of impact measurement practice
• Common understanding of definition and segmentation of impact investing market
• Research and data on products and performance (B)
• Professionals with relevant skill sets
• Appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum (C)
• Innovative deal/fund structures to accommodate investors’ or investees’ needs
• Suitable exit options (E)
• High-quality investment opportunities (fund or direct) with track records (A1 & A2)
• Government support for the market (D)

The phrasing of indicators of progress was the same for 2013 and 2014 but changed in 2015. The parenthetical letters indicate which answer choices were compared in this report. Some answer choices differed significantly from year to year and are not included in analysis.
Challenges
2013 & 2014 Answer Choices
• Inadequate impact measurement practice
• Lack of common way to talk about impact investing
• Lack of research and data on products and performance
• Lack of investment professionals with relevant skill sets
• Lack of appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum
• Lack of innovative deal/fund structures to accommodate investors’ or portfolio companies’ needs
• Difficulty exiting investments
• Shortage of high-quality investment opportunities with track records

2015 Answer Choices
Lack of:
• Sophistication of impact measurement practice
• Common understanding of definition and segmentation of impact investing market
• Research and data on products and performance
• Professionals with relevant skill sets
• Appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum
• Innovative deal/fund structures to accommodate investors’ or investees’ needs
• Suitable exit options
• High-quality investment opportunities (fund or direct) with track records
• Government support for the market

The wording of challenges was the same in 2013 and 2014. The challenges in 2015 were reframed slightly and are in the same order in the list above as those in 2013 and 2014. One additional challenge, ‘government support for the market’, was added in 2015.
More information about the Global Impact Investing Network

This brief is a publication of the Global Impact Investing Network (GIIN), the leading nonprofit organization dedicated to increasing the scale and effectiveness of impact investing. The GIIN builds critical market infrastructure and supports activities, education, and research that help accelerate the development of the impact investing field.

IRIS
IRIS is the catalog of generally-accepted performance metrics that leading impact investors use to measure social, environmental, and financial success, evaluate deals, and grow the credibility of the impact investing industry.
iris.thegiin.org

ImpactBase
ImpactBase is the searchable, online database of impact investment funds and products designed for investors. Fund or product profiles on ImpactBase gain exposure to the global impact investing community.
impactbase.org

Fund Manager Training Program
The GIIN training program offers practical coursework to help fund managers build applied skills to successfully attract, deploy, and manage capital.
thegiin.org/fund-manager-training

Career Center
The GIIN Career Center is a source for job openings from members of the GIIN Investors’ Council and other impact investing leaders.
jobs.thegiin.org

If your organization is interested in deepening its engagement with the impact investing market by joining a global community of like-minded peers, consider GIIN membership. To learn more about membership and to access interviews with leading impact investors, research from the field, and more examples of impact investments, visit www.thegiin.org.

For more information

Please contact Rachel Bass at rbass@thegiin.org with any comments or questions about this report.

To download industry research by the GIIN and others, please visit www.thegiin.org/knowledge-center.

Disclosures

The Global Impact Investing Network (“GIIN”) is a nonprofit 501c(3) organization dedicated to increasing the scale and effectiveness of impact investing. The GIIN builds critical infrastructure and supports activities, education, and research that help accelerate the development of a coherent impact investing industry.

Readers should be aware that the GIIN has had and will continue to have relationships with many of the organizations identified in this report, through some of which the GIIN has received and will continue to receive financial and other support.

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Impact Investing Private Equity Fund Industry

LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS

IN PARTNERSHIP WITH

CLIFFORD CHANCE

INTERNATIONAL SENIOR LAWYERS PROJECT

GIIN

GLOBAL IMPACT INVESTING NETWORK
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

AUTHORS

The primary authors of this report were Jennifer Bolton, Ilomai Kurrik, and Rebecca Pereira of Clifford Chance.

ADVISORS

We would also like to acknowledge the time and inputs of various advisors:

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• Amit Bouri, Jerome Tagger, and Abhilash Mudaliar of the GIIN
• Joshua Mintz, Vice President, and General Counsel for the MacArthur Foundation

ISLP The International Senior Lawyers Project (ISLP) provides the pro bono services of highly skilled and experienced lawyers to promote human rights, equitable and sustainable economic development, and the rule of law worldwide. ISLP assists governments, non-governmental organizations, and other institutions working to build legal capacity and to advance the rights and well-being of their citizens. For more information, please visit www.islp.org.

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Dear reader,

The impact investing market is becoming increasingly prominent. Defined as investments made with the intention to generate social and environmental impact alongside a financial return, impact investments account for at least USD 46 billion assets under management, according to the GIIN and J.P. Morgan 2014 Impact Investor Survey.

Impact investing is unique in so far as it brings together investors that (a) pursue various return expectations (from concessionary to market rate), (b) have a range of risk appetites and (c) are of various legal forms (nonprofit and for-profit). Increasingly, these investors come together when investing in a pooled structure – a fund or vehicle managed by a fund manager.

In such an actively developing landscape, investors and their legal counsel would benefit from a better understanding of the various structural, tax, economic, and governance implications specific to this emerging practice. This brief, authored by the legal team at Clifford Chance, and supported by experts at the International Senior Lawyers Project, is a valuable ready reference that outlines legal issues for investors and advisors to consider when investing in impact investing funds.

The document, which focuses particularly on U.S. law and private equity fund regulation, is the culmination of months of meticulous research into existing legislation and real-world fund structures. While not a substitute for legal advice, it includes a range of general points and considerations that will be of value to for-profit and nonprofit investors as they explore making impact investments.

One of the many ways in which the GIIN pursues its mission of enhancing the scale and effectiveness of impact investing is through publishing research that bridges important information gaps in the market. In this spirit, we hope readers find the presented information useful, and thank our research partners at Clifford Chance and ISLP for their generous time and support in putting this document together.

Sincerely,

Amit Bouri
CEO, Global Impact Investing Network
1. INTRODUCTION

This briefing and related content relates to issues for both investors in and sponsors\(^1\) of impact investment funds when negotiating the terms of making an investment in an impact investment fund. The impact investing sector is highly varied, incorporating various asset classes and instruments, investors and investment vehicles based in numerous jurisdictions globally, as well as investors of varying types, from foundations to DFI\(^1\)s. The focus of this brief is on investors in private equity funds. While the issues raised for consideration may be pertinent to many fund investors and fund sponsors throughout the impact investment sector, this brief primarily references concerns for U.S.-based investors and fund sponsors, and focuses specifically on U.S. regulations of private funds.

Impact investments are investments made with the intention of generating social and/or environmental impact, as well as a financial return to their investors. The impact investing sector is growing exponentially, reported at US$10.6 billion in new commitments in 2013\(^2\) and a total of US$46 billion in impact investments under management in 2013\(^3\) in a 2014 survey by J.P. Morgan and the GIIN of 125 impact investors managing at least US$10 million. One of the keys to such growth is a better understanding of both the tools used to make impact investments, particularly private equity funds (specifically, closed-end, blind-pool investment vehicles). Over a quarter of the new commitments reported in 2013, US$2.8 billion, was raised through funds.\(^4\) Funds reported managing US$16 billion in impact investments in 2013, over a third of total impact investments under management.\(^5\) Impact investment fundraising continues to be on the rise and provides strong potential for increased commitments from a broad range of investors.

Private equity funds globally have the potential to grow the impact investment industry more than other structures currently available to impact investors. The relative longevity of the private equity fund industry, and the standardization and regulation of such funds and fund managers (see Appendix C for an in-depth discussion of U.S. regulatory issues), offer some of the best means for unlocking capital to drive social impact. Moreover, private funds provide the means for impact investors to have the greatest impact, as the pooled capital can expand the financial

\(^1\) Bolded terms appear in the Glossary.
\(^3\) Ibid, p. 21.
\(^4\) Ibid, p. 9.
\(^5\) Ibid.
resources available to address the issue that the investor wishes to impact far greater than most single investors can on their own. Private impact funds that attract non-impact investors are particularly well-placed to do this, since they are able to further grow the pool of capital by which impact investors can see their goals achieved. Furthermore, private funds allow an investor to allocate its budget across a wide portfolio of impact investments, both within a single fund and by investing in multiple funds.

There is a broad range of investors making impact investments, including high net worth individuals, family offices, foundations, endowments, public and private pension plans, DFIs, other governmental or quasi-governmental organizations (such as the IFC of the World Bank), funds-of-funds, insurance companies, and other institutional investors. Not all investors have clarity as to what their fellow investors’ goals are in making impact investments. Though investors may meet at the annual meeting typically held by a fund after they have closed on their investment into the fund, at the point of negotiating the terms of a fund, prior to closing a fund investment, potential fund investors often operate in a vacuum, communicating only with the fund manager and not the other investors or potential investors.

This lack of clarity, combined with the perception of some investors that their fellow investors may have competing goals in making impact investments, may lead to hesitation among certain investors about the impact investing industry or about using private fund vehicles in order to make impact investments. Some industry participants may be concerned that investors have competing aspirations in making impact investments, because they perceive certain investors as being either “impact first” or “finance first” investors. But investors of all stripes may have both financial and non-financial objectives; impact investors and non-impact investors alike may be non-profit or for-profit. Understanding the similarities and differences between various investors’ goals and concerns in investing in private funds is key for the growth of the impact investing industry as a whole, and investors and fund managers alike should strive for such understanding. The focus of this briefing will be on providing that understanding, primarily with respect to investors and funds based in the U.S.

Of course, not all investors, even within the same category or classification, have the same goals or needs when investing in private funds. This is the nature of private equity funds: they are constantly evolving to grow, leverage, or improve different industries, geographical regions, or financial structures that could be sources of profit to investors, and institutional investors frequently reevaluate their investment policies to seek out different opportunities offered by the wide array of private equity fund managers. But investors are themselves pushing to be considered in the aggregate in fund negotiations and are finding strength in numbers.

For much of the 2000s, private fund investors (or as they are often referred to in the industry, “LPs,” i.e., limited partners, because the structure of their investment is typically as a limited partner in a limited partnership vehicle) operated in a vacuum when investing in private equity funds. Although an institutional investor committing
a significant percentage of a fund’s target size, anchoring an emerging manager’s fund or serving some other strategic purpose of a fund manager would have greater negotiating power, smaller investors found that, other than on the margins, fund terms were often “take it or leave it,” especially in the most highly sought after funds.

Following the global financial crisis and the plummeting of investment in private equity funds, certain private fund investors saw an opportunity to press for standards on economic, governance, and information-sharing terms and conditions of funds and established the Institutional Limited Partner Association, a trade organization of institutional investors in private equity funds (ILPA). It released the ILPA Principles, a description of standards for key terms in private equity funds that are generally desirable from an investor’s perspective. Thus, institutional investors became more of a force to be reckoned with and, although the best-performing fund managers continued to attract capital without changing their fund terms, most fund managers increasingly catered to prospective investors.

So in the past decade or more, the pendulum has swung from being somewhat investor-friendly following the tech crash of the early 2000s to being heavily fund sponsor-favorable during the economic boom years to being more investor-friendly again following the global fiscal crisis. The private equity fund industry has benefitted as a result of this evolution, with fund terms becoming increasingly more sophisticated and nuanced with each shift. Moreover, government-imposed regulatory schemes in both the U.S. and the European Union have been on the increase in recent years, ostensibly to provide for greater protection of investors, such as through the provision of better and increased information to investors from fund managers.

Similar to the effect that greater LP unity has had on the alternative fund industry generally, GIIN believes the industry as a whole can benefit if fund managers and investors alike strive to understand other investors’ needs and concerns when investing in private impact investment funds. Public and private pension funds have long dominated the LP universe, but investors such as private foundations and DFIs are a significant presence in private impact investment funds. Appreciating how various investors’ investing goals are both similar and different may be one of the keys to keeping the industry developing and thriving as a whole.

All investors typically have a similar basic approach to investing in private investment funds. Initially attracted to a potential investment based on a variety of factors, including the track record of the fund manager and the fund’s investment sector, strategy, and geographical focus, all investors will want to ensure that the fund is structured in such a way as to provide for limited liability and optimal tax outcome. All investors will also focus on the fees to be paid by the fund’s investors to the fund manager and on the share of the investors’ profits to be allocated to the fund’s general partner. When generally satisfied with the economic terms, most institutional investors will then ensure that the fund’s governance terms and information rights provided to investors are satisfactory. An investor may withdraw from its consideration of the investment at any point during this process, but rarely does an investor do so purely as a result of an impasse on governance and
This is not to say that governance and transparency issues are minor elements of a private fund for investors. Even without a particular term, some investors might be able to take a more holistic view and weigh the risks involved, appreciating that it is content with the terms of the investment. But this approach is frequently not possible for other investors, who cannot take such risks and who must ensure that their standards are met with each investment. Certain non-economic parameters may be so fundamental to investors, having been built into the investor’s charter or otherwise being part and parcel of the investor’s permitted investment thesis, that no balancing of overall terms can satisfy that particular need. For example, non-profit and for-profit investors alike may have adopted the United Nations-backed Principles for Responsible Investments (UNPRI), which are voluntary and aspirational actions for incorporating environmental, social, and corporate governance (“ESG”) issues into investment practices across asset classes. Some investors who have adopted UNPRI may have a “best efforts” standard. Thus, they may be satisfied that the fund investment comports with the investor’s investment parameters even without the fund’s adoption of UNPRI because the investor used its best efforts to cause the fund to adopt UNPRI. Other investors may not have such flexibility. Fund managers—particularly emerging fund managers—may be unaware (and therefore frustrated) that certain investors cannot trade points the way that others sometimes can. Negotiations between investors and funds can suffer as a result, though outside legal counsel can greatly assist in smoothing the way.
Having performed the necessary initial due diligence to determine that it may wish to invest in a particular fund, whether an impact investing fund or otherwise, an institutional investor will wish to review the fund structure in order to ensure the jurisdiction of the organization of the fund (or any parallel or feeder investment vehicle being offered for investment by the investor) provides for limited liability and an optimal tax result.

**LIMITED LIABILITY**

Fund sponsors generally set up their funds with both the investors and the investments in mind. A fund making its investments predominantly in one country may initially consider having its fund vehicles set up in such country, or if not there, then wherever the office of the fund manager is located, in part due to familiarity with such jurisdictions and so as to minimize the legal jurisdictions applicable to deals done by the fund. But some such jurisdictions may not have a developed private fund industry that can provide the fund with clarity on how it would be treated for legal purposes. In particular, investors may not be treated as having the limited liability that they need. Whether located themselves inside or outside of the U.S., fund sponsors particularly catering to U.S. investors might set up a Delaware vehicle (typically a limited partnership) for U.S.-taxable investors and a non-U.S. vehicle for non-U.S. investors and U.S. tax-exempt investors. The non-U.S. vehicle might be set up in the closest possible time zone, such as the Cayman Islands, or if the fund anticipates having a lot of investors in other time zones, in one of multiple jurisdictions in such time zones. Numerous jurisdictions globally provide for limited liability status to passive investors in privately offered investment vehicles, but jurisdictions can vary in approach as to how much a passive investor might engage in fund governance before they are deemed to be participating in the management of the fund and thus lose their limited liability status. Delaware is one of the most clear as far as not ascribing general liability to investors, notwithstanding limited partners’ veto rights over certain investments or participation on advisory committees that have the power to approve certain investments and conflicts of interest; this is one of the reasons it is a popular choice of investment vehicle for funds with a U.S. nexus.
Fund sponsors will also seek to set up their fund, or their multiple parallel and feeder vehicles comprising the aggregate fund, with the tax status of their potential investors in mind. While generally investors that are U.S. taxpayers and those that are treated as tax-exempt for U.S. federal income tax purposes will seek a market return on their investment, specific classes of investors are subject to special U.S. tax rules that may impact the type of investments they may make.

a. U.S. Tax-exempt Investors

Unrelated Business Taxable Income: Generally, U.S. investors that are exempt from taxation (“U.S. tax-exempt investors”) under Section 501 of the U.S. Internal Revenue Code of 1986, as amended (the “Code”), including private foundations, prefer to invest through investment vehicles that are treated as corporations for U.S. federal income tax purposes to minimize the risk of recognizing “unrelated business taxable income” (“UBTI”). Some U.S. tax-exempt investors will manage this risk through internal structuring, but many expect that a fund will provide a feeder fund or some other “blocker” entity for the benefit of U.S. tax-exempt investors. Other U.S. tax-exempt investors are willing to recognize UBTI if they determine that investing in a feeder fund or “blocker” entity would otherwise result in a lower economic return.

A U.S. tax-exempt investor generally will be exempt from U.S. federal income tax on its income and gains. However, this general exemption from tax does not apply to UBTI of a U.S. tax-exempt investor. Generally, UBTI includes income or gain derived from a trade or business (other than a trade or business of trading in securities) the conduct of which is substantially unrelated to the exercise or performance of the U.S. tax-exempt investor’s exempt purpose or function. UBTI also includes (i) income or gain derived by such an unrelated trade or business conducted through an entity treated as fiscally transparent for U.S. federal income tax purposes, (ii) income derived by a U.S. tax-exempt investor from debt-financed property and (ii) gains derived by a U.S. tax-exempt investor from the disposition of debt-financed property.

By investing through a corporation, a U.S. tax-exempt investor’s income derived from an investment should be limited to dividends and gain and should not be treated as UBTI, except to the extent the U.S. tax-exempt investor incurs indebtedness to acquire or own its interest in the corporation. It should be noted that an investment in a non-U.S. corporation that is treated as a “passive foreign investment company” (a “PFIC”), however, could result in materially adverse tax consequences to a U.S. investor (as discussed further below). But unless dividends paid by a PFIC that are allocated to a U.S. tax-exempt investor are characterized as UBTI, the PFIC rules will not apply to a U.S. tax-exempt investor’s investment in such a PFIC.

Program Related Investments: Private foundations, a special class of tax-exempt organizations under Section 501(c)(3) of the Code ("501(c)(3) organizations"), can “invest” in both other 501(c)(3) organizations and for-profit organizations. To avoid the imposition of excise taxes, however, private foundations need to avoid making investments that will jeopardize their ability in both the short and long term to fulfill their charitable purpose, so called “jeopardizing investments.” If a private foundation makes an investment that is a jeopardizing investment, but it does not qualify as a “program related investment” (a “PRI,” as defined below), the private foundation is subject to a 10% excise tax on the amount of the investment. An additional 10% excise tax may be imposed on the manager of the private foundation if the manager has knowledge that the investment jeopardizes the private foundation’s ability to fulfill its charitable purpose. An exception to the jeopardizing rules are investments known as PRIs.

PRIs must meet the following requirements:

• The primary purpose of the investment is to accomplish one or more exempt purposes of the foundation.

• Production of income or appreciation of property is not a significant purpose of the investment.

• No lobbying activity will be supported.

i. Primary purpose of the investment

A private foundation must carefully review its organizational documents and investment restrictions to determine the scope of its exempt purposes and whether a PRI is consistent with such purposes. While a private foundation can make a PRI in a for-profit organization, the private foundation must ensure that an investment significantly furthers the accomplishment of its exempt activities (other than through the generation of income to be used by the foundation for its exempt purposes) and that the investment would not have been made but for the relationship between the investment and the accomplishment of the foundation’s exempt activities. For example, a private foundation whose goal is to promote a society of economically independent and engaged citizens who contribute to the improvement of their communities through programs that advance education and entrepreneurship should be able to invest in a for-profit fund that is organized for the purpose of investing in businesses in low-income communities owned or controlled by members of a minority or other disadvantaged group. An investment by the same private foundation in a for-profit fund that is organized to conserve ecologically valuable forestland, however, would not qualify as a PRI for that private foundation because the fund would not help the foundation achieve one of its charitable purposes.

While a private foundation can make a PRI in a for-profit organization, the private foundation must ensure that an investment significantly furthers the accomplishment of its exempt activities...
Additionally, if a private foundation has broad exempt purposes, it will have greater flexibility in making PRIs, while a private foundation with a narrow exempt purpose will be subject to greater restrictions in making PRIs. For example, a private foundation that has a broad exempt purpose of scientific research may be able to make a PRI in a program aimed at discovering the cure for a specific disease and a PRI in a program aimed at aiding in the scientific education of college students; but, a private foundation with an exempt purpose of finding the cure for a specific disease generally will only be able to invest in a program aimed at discovering the cure for that specific disease.

ii. Production of income or appreciation of property is not a significant purpose

In order to satisfy the requirement that no significant purpose of the foundation’s investment be to generate financial return, private foundations often take the view that their investment must generate little to no return. Guidance from the U.S. Internal Revenue Service (the “IRS”) suggests that this requirement will be satisfied if, at the time the investment was made, the intent to produce income or to recognize appreciation did not constitute a significant reason for the private foundation making the investment. The fact that an investment subsequently generates market or above-market returns will not, on its own, prevent an investment from being treated as a PRI. There are no clear guidelines on how much return an investment can make yet still qualify to be treated as a PRI, and private foundations must carefully consider each investment. An important factor that is relevant to the determination of whether a significant purpose of an investment is to generate financial return is whether an investor investing solely for profit would make the investment on the same terms as the private foundation.

To minimize the risk of making a jeopardizing investment, private foundations generally seek to make investments that have returns significantly lower than returns generated by investments made by an investor solely seeking profit, and some funds will structure a private foundation’s interest in a manner that will cap or limit a private foundation’s return on its investment in some other way. For example, PRIs often take the form of loans bearing interest at below market rates. Private foundations may also consider making investments in hybrid corporations, such as L3Cs, which are organized and operate within the standards for PRIs (discussed further below).

iii. Changes in an investment

Generally, a foundation determines whether an investment qualifies as a PRI based on the facts and circumstances at the time the investment is made and not based on later developments. Once a foundation determines that an investment is a PRI, subject to review by the IRS, the investment
will continue to be treated as a PRI if changes to the form or terms of an investment are made primarily for exempt purposes and not for any significant purpose involving the production of income or the appreciation of property. Generally, a change in the form or terms of an investment for the protection of the private foundation’s investment will not cause the investment to cease to qualify as a PRI. A PRI may cease to be treated as such because of a “critical change in circumstances,” such as serving an illegal purpose or a private purpose of the private foundation or its managers. If an investment ceases to be treated as a PRI, a determination would then be made as to whether the investment is a “jeopardizing investment.” Private foundations should also consider whether a PRI continues to serve one of its exempt purposes after a change in the mission of the PRI.

iv. Proposed Treasury Regulations

In 2012, proposed Treasury Regulations were published providing additional examples of investments that qualify as PRIs. These new examples clarify that:

(i) An activity conducted in a foreign country furthers a charitable purpose if the same activity would further a charitable purpose if conducted in the United States.

(ii) The charitable purposes served by a PRI are not limited to serving economically disadvantaged individuals and deteriorated urban areas.

(iii) An investment can qualify as a PRI if the investment is made in persons that do not themselves qualify for assistance from the private foundation, but which serve as the instrument by which a private foundation’s purpose is accomplished.

(iv) The presence of a potential for a high rate of return should not, by itself, prevent an investment from qualifying as a PRI (e.g., an equity investment in a recycling company that could prevent pollution in a developing country can qualify as a PRI even if there is a high risk associated with the investment and a potential for a high rate of return if the company is successful).

(v) PRIs can take the form of loans with an “equity kicker” (e.g., a loan to a company coupled with stock to induce the private foundation to make the loan), a loan guarantee or a guarantee and reimbursement arrangement.

Excess Business Holdings: Private foundations generally seek to avoid having “excess business holdings” because excess business holdings are subject to a 10% excise tax. Generally, an excess business holding is the portion of a private foundation’s investment in a corporation or other entity conducting a business that is not substantially related to the exempt...
purposes of the private foundation and exceeds 20% of the voting power of such a corporation (or 20% of the beneficial or profits interests in such an unincorporated entity).

The excess business holding rules are not applicable to PRIs. Additionally, the excess business holding rules generally are not applicable to investments in entities that derive more than 95% of their gross income from passive sources. For these purposes, passive income generally includes dividends, interest, payments with respect to securities loans, annuities, royalties, certain rents and capital gains, and certain income from the sale of goods (if the seller of such goods does not manufacture, produce, physically receive, or deliver, negotiate the sale of, or maintain inventories in such goods).

c. U.S. Taxable Investors

Philanthropic Investments: A U.S. taxpayer looking to “invest” its money in organizations that generate positive social or environmental impact is faced with a threshold question from a U.S. tax perspective: whether to donate its money via a charitable contribution to an organization that qualifies as a 501(c)(3) organization, for which the U.S. taxpayer generally should be able to take a deduction for U.S. federal income tax purposes, or to invest in a fund that allows the taxpayer to receive a return on its investment, for which the U.S. taxpayer cannot take a deduction for U.S. federal income tax purposes.

While several states are creating new hybrid organizations including L3Cs (Low-profit Limited Liability Companies), Benefit Corporations, and Flexible Purpose Corporations that allow an organization to both have a philanthropic purpose and to generate a return to investors, the U.S. tax rules do not yet recognize these organizations as tax-exempt. Like an investment in a fund organized solely to generate profit, a U.S. taxpayer is not entitled to a deduction for U.S. federal income tax purposes for amounts invested in such a hybrid organization, even if the investor’s expected return from its investment is below market because of the fund’s emphasis on a social or environmental mission.

Investments in Fiscally Transparent Entities: Unlike U.S. tax-exempt investors, U.S. taxable investors generally prefer to invest in investment vehicles that are fiscally transparent for U.S. federal income tax purposes. Generally, an entity that is fiscally transparent for U.S. federal income tax purposes is an entity that is not subject to tax itself in the United States and would not be if it earned U.S. source income; rather, the income, losses, credits, and deductions of the entity flow through to, and are included in the income of, the equity investors in the entity. Fiscally transparent entities will also not be classified as PFICs or “controlled foreign corporations” (“CFCs”), each as described below, with respect to a U.S. taxable investor; however, U.S. investors will be subject to the PFIC and CFC regimes with respect to PFICs or CFCs held indirectly through a fiscally transparent entity.
Passive Foreign Investment Companies: In general, a non-U.S. entity classified for U.S. federal income tax purposes as a corporation will be treated as a PFIC if it meets either of the following tests for any taxable year: (1) 75% or more of its gross income is “passive income,” or (2) 50% or more of its assets, based on their average value for the year, are held for the production of passive income. For these purposes, “passive income” generally includes, among other things, dividends, interest, rents and royalties not treated as earned in connection with the active conduct of a trade or business, and gains from the disposition of assets producing passive income. Certain distributions received from, and dispositions of the stock of, a PFIC could be subject to materially greater amounts of tax in the hands of a U.S. taxable investor than a comparable investment in a non-PFIC.

Investors may be able to make certain elections that could result in different tax results; however, these elections generally require either that the PFIC be publicly traded or that the PFIC provides certain information regarding its income and assets in each taxable year. U.S. taxable investors often request assurances from a fund that it will undertake to obtain the relevant information to allow a U.S. taxable investor to make such an election. However, the ability of a fund to obtain the relevant information from a portfolio company often depends on the level of control the fund has over the specific PFIC and the cost of preparing such information.

Regardless of whether any of the foregoing elections are made, an investor in a PFIC will also be required to report additional information regarding the nature of its investment in a PFIC to the IRS and U.S. taxable investors will often request assurances from a fund that it will undertake to provide the relevant information to allow the investor to comply with such reporting requirements.

Controlled Foreign Corporations: Generally, a non-U.S. entity classified as a corporation for U.S. federal income tax purposes will be classified as a CFC if greater than 50% of the total vote or value of the non-U.S. corporation is owned (applying certain attribution rules), in the aggregate, by U.S. shareholders that each own (in each case, applying certain attribution rules) 10% or more of the total combined voting power of all classes of stock of such corporation. Such 10% U.S. shareholders (that are U.S. taxable investors) will be required to include certain items in taxable income prior to the receipt of distributions. Gain from the sale of stock of a CFC will also be treated as ordinary income, and not capital gain.

An investor in a CFC will also be required to report additional information regarding the nature of its investment in a CFC to the IRS, and U.S. taxable investors will often request assurances from a fund that it will undertake to provide the relevant information to allow the investor to comply with such reporting requirements.
Other Sources of Phantom Income: In addition to the rules regarding PFICs and CFCs, certain other investments could cause U.S. taxable investors to recognize phantom income (i.e., the recognition of income without the contemporaneous receipt of cash sufficient to pay the corresponding tax liability). Investments directly (or indirectly through a fiscally transparent entity) in certain types of debt instruments (e.g., investments in debt instruments with interest holidays, discount securities, and payment in kind securities) could result in the recognition of phantom income.
3. ECONOMIC TERMS

In addition to considering the jurisdiction of the organization of the fund and the necessary structuring for the best tax result for the investor, all types of investors will review the key economic terms of the fund. The economic terms establish the balance between risk and reward that is perceived to drive the fund towards successful investments and divestments. The following provides a brief overview of the typical terms or ranges of terms that may be found in fund documentation and the concerns investors may have regarding such economic terms. The approach to these terms does not, as a general matter, vary between non-profit and for-profit investors (other than as noted above for private foundations seeking to make program-related investments).

DISTRIBUTIONS

a. *Distribution Waterfall*: In setting out the agreed-on economic arrangement between the sponsor and the investors in a customary private equity fund, a distribution waterfall provides that the income and capital proceeds from investments allocated to each investor are split between the fund sponsor (or more specifically, typically either the general partner of the limited partnership that forms the fund or else an affiliate of the general partner that is a “special limited partner,” sometimes referred to as the “carried interest partner”) and the investor in an order of tiered priority. Unlike hedge funds, which pay the sponsor an “incentive allocation” (or “performance fee”) on a periodic basis subject to a “high water mark” test, private equity funds generally distribute excess cash (net of fund-level expenses, liabilities, and other required reserves) as it is generated, with the lion’s share being payable only upon the liquidation of an investment. At each tier of the waterfall, distributions are made in a specific ratio between the investor and the sponsor until either: (a) that tier is satisfied and the next tier is reached, or (b) the fund is wound up and the remaining assets distributed in a manner that reflects the agreed-on economics. Any amount of an investor’s allocation distributed to the fund sponsor is referred to as the “carried interest” or simply “carry.”

There are typically two types of distribution waterfalls, the whole fund (or return of capital) waterfall and the deal-by-deal (or investment-by-investment) waterfall:
“Whole Fund” Waterfall: In a whole fund waterfall, all capital contributions of investors and a preferred return thereon are distributed to investors before the fund sponsor begins to participate in any of the carried interest. This is by far the preferred structure of investors.

“Deal-by-Deal” Waterfall: In a deal-by-deal waterfall, only the capital in respect of realized deals is returned to limited partners at each distribution and, after the preferred return thereon is distributed to the limited partners, the general partner receives any carry. Fund sponsors prefer this type of waterfall as it accelerates the receipt of carried interest. Because distribution of carried interest is accelerated, investors must be certain to have “clawback” rights through which they can require fund sponsors to return distributions of carried interest if, and to the extent that, when calculating the fund’s aggregate profit the sponsor receives a greater proportion of profits to which it would otherwise be entitled (discussed further below).

i. **Preferred Return/Hurdle Rate**: Whatever the waterfall’s structure, the first step of the waterfall is typically the preferred return (although this is sometimes swapped with the “return of capital step”). The preferred return is the minimum return that must be received by an investor before any carry is paid to the fund manager. Preferred returns encourage fund managers to attain higher returns and force them to forgo compensation for returns at or below the threshold. The amount of the preferred return can vary from fund to fund, asset class to asset class, and year to year, but 8% is a figure commonly seen in private equity fund documentation. Preferred returns are a common feature of carried interest calculations in private equity funds; however, a preferred return can be structured in various ways, such as by using multiple hurdles and, after each hurdle, having a “catch-up” (as discussed below) to the general partner until the general partner has received a certain percentage of the profit.

Perceived gains from a preferred return include that it acts to discourage fund managers from taking excessive risk and motivates fund managers to realize gains in their investments more promptly. These may be counter-balanced, however, by the possible downside to this arrangement, whereby the threat of forgoing compensation may motivate fund managers to make investments that may generate higher returns or faster payouts but that also bear higher risks, which may not be in the best interests of the investors. Also, when the value of a fund declines to such a point that it is unlikely to generate a return in excess of the preferred return, the fund manager may lack incentive to continue managing the fund for the remainder of its term.

ii. **Return of Capital**: Following (or prior to) the preferred return step is the “return of capital” step, whereby the distributions available are applied against: (i) the capital contributions made in respect of the investment generating the distribution proceeds; (ii) the capital contributions...
in respect of any previously realized investments (including written-off investments); and (iii) in a whole-fund waterfall only, all capital contributions previously made, including for unrealized and outstanding investments.

iii. “Catch-up” to General Partner & “Carry” i.e., profit-split: In addition to the return on its monies invested together with the other investors in the fund, the general partner is also entitled to a portion of the profits earned by such other investors, which is the general partner’s performance-based compensation for running the fund. This “carried interest” or “carry” is typically set at 20% (lower for funds-of-funds) and will be payable to the general partner once the investors have received back their original capital contributions and preferred return thereon. This is typically achieved in two steps: first, the “catch-up” step, when the general partner receives either all or a lion’s share of the proceeds until, in effect, carried interest is paid out against the profits received by the LPs as the preferred return; second, profits are divided 80% to the limited partners and 20% to the general partner. Venture capital funds typically do not have a catch-up step to their waterfalls (so the general partner never receives a true 20% of profits, though if the fund is very profitable, it will come close).

b. General Partner Clawback: If earlier carried interest payments to the fund manager in hindsight appear to be overpayments, a “clawback” obligation may be imposed on the fund sponsor. This situation will typically occur when the initial investments of the fund are highly profitable, resulting in carry to the general partner, but subsequent investments are not. Thus looking across all the fund’s investments in the aggregate, investors may not have received adequate distributions to satisfy their preferred return while the general partner received carry, or the investors may have received all their preferred return but the general partner may have received carry in excess of the set percentage (e.g., an amount over 20%). The obligation to return excess distributions to investors may be supported by an escrow of some amount of the carried interest or a guarantee from the individual principals or from the fund sponsor (sometimes the latter being referred to as a “keepwell letter”).

c. Limited Partner Giveback: Any ability of a fund to recycle distributable or distributed proceeds aside, many funds also provide for a mechanism whereby the investors may be required to return distributions to the fund to satisfy any liabilities of the fund, sometimes even after the fund vehicle has terminated and been wound up (though more typically liabilities are limited to indemnification obligations only). Limited partners should ensure that the general partner clawback is re-calculated after giving effect to any limited partner giveback. The focus of negotiations frequently centers upon time limits and caps on the amounts to be returned, as investors want to be able to deploy distributions received for other purposes and not hold cash reserves for potential indemnity claims. It is also important for investors to ensure that the giveback provision

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Many funds also provide for a mechanism whereby the investors may be required to return distributions to the fund to satisfy any liabilities of the fund... Though more typically liabilities are limited to indemnification obligations only...
is not used as a money management tool by the general partner, therefore investors prefer the giveback to be required only for indemnification, rather than fund expenses more generally.

d. **Distributions In-kind & Valuation**: When a fund reserves the right to provide its investors with distributions of securities in lieu of cash, a number of issues arise, most fundamentally surrounding the valuation of such securities. If an investor is allocated freely tradable securities, the general partner may (assuming the return of capital, preferred return, and catch-up steps of the distribution waterfall have been satisfied) distribute the carry in cash to itself. But if the investor liquidates its shares at less than the valuation as of the date of distribution (as the price of the shares is likely to fall with other fund investors similarly attempting to sell their shares), then the general partner will have realized more than 20% of actual profit; however, such excess may not be caught by the clawback. Therefore investors like to ask for a centered trading average, whereby the value of the securities will be determined by reference not only to the value as of the date of distribution, but the five days prior and following as well.

Valuation for securities that are not marketable is even more problematic. Not only is there no liquid market for setting price, but investors invest in private equity funds precisely to access liquidity from private markets, so if they are left with illiquid securities, the fund manager has not accomplished the endgame. Fund managers may use comparable freely tradable securities for valuation purposes (including for determining carry) and apply discounts to those comps, but how much of a discount to apply is a matter of debate. If a fund is permitted to distribute securities other than readily marketable securities, then, assuming the fund has an advisory committee (an “Advisory Committee”), the Advisory Committee may be required to approve any valuation done by the general partner or at the general partner’s behest.

e. **Alternative Returns**: The above economic terms generally relate to all closed-end, blind pool investment vehicles where third-party investors receive equity or equity-like interests in the fund. Some investors may make such a fund investment through a different route, such as acting as a lender to a fund (e.g., the U.S.’s development finance institution, the Overseas Private Investment Corporation (OPIC)), thereby receiving an earlier return on its investment as compared to other third-party investors. Though more rare, other investors may wish to ensure that they receive a portion of the carry and/or the management fee depending on their appetite for risk. Thus, if the fund sponsor so permits, they do not invest directly into the fund; rather, they arrange to invest in the “upper-tier” structure of the fund as a member of the general partner and receive a portion of the general partner’s profits (as well as exposure to the general partner’s unlimited liability). Other fund structures may have a number of alternative terms, particularly in relation to co-investments or other joint ventures for the acquisition or development of identified portfolio companies or other assets, or smaller club deals, in which the participants are few and
FEES & EXPENSES

a. **Management Fees**: The fund will pay a periodic management fee to the fund manager, in order to ensure a steady stream of income to the management team and cover various costs incurred by the principals in the operation of their business prior to receipt of the carried interest, which may be several years after the fund launch. Traditionally, this is set as a fixed percentage of total commitments of the fund during the investment period (or commitment period) and is paid pari passu by each limited partner. Management fees typically are charged at a lower rate and/or on a smaller amount of assets (e.g., aggregate invested capital rather than aggregate capital commitments) upon the termination of a fund’s investment period, the formation of a successor fund, or the extension of the fund’s term. The management fee paid typically reduces investors’ capital commitments, though some funds require investor contributions for the management fee to be paid in addition to capital contributions applied to the capital commitment.

Many funds are offering more competitive management fee structures to investors, however, in the current fundraising environment. For example, rather than charging fees on aggregate capital commitments, management fees may be calculated at one rate for invested capital and a slightly lower rate for unused capital commitments, even during the investment period. Another method of computing management fees that has been in use for many years, but is rebounding in popularity, is charging different fee rates depending on the amount of capital committed (with fewer basis points charged for each incremental increase in an investor’s capital commitment). Some funds are offering investors management fee discounts or rebates if they subscribe to the fund at the first closing.

Investors also like to ensure that any other fees earned by the manager as a result of its role as fund manager offset the amount of management fees payable by the fund. These additional revenue streams may take the form of monitoring fees, director fees, or other fees paid by the portfolio companies. Historically, these fees offsets would range from 50% to 100% of the fee received depending on the type of fee (while the remainder would be kept by the manager or other affiliate), but the current trend is for all such other fees to offset the management fee 100%, dollar-for-dollar (though this may not be the case for certain types of funds, such as real estate funds, with respect to the distinct services that may be provided by affiliates of the fund sponsor). This is less of an issue to the fund manager, which realizes a tax benefit as a result of its management fee basis being lowered and therefore pays less ordinary income tax on such amount.
Management fee waiver programs, which were popular before the credit crunch, have in large measure diminished. These waiver programs allow managers to waive the receipt of management fees and apply the equivalent amount as the general partner’s equity into the fund. The waiver programs depend on there being management fees in excess of what the fund sponsor requires in order to pay its operating costs and expenses, i.e., amounts that can be put at risk and invested rather than expended. These waiver programs have fallen out of favor, as investors think that management fees are meant to cover management operating expenses only, and thus there should be no excess that could otherwise be invested. Excess management fees lead investors to believe that management fees that are too high—a fund sponsor’s profit should come from well-managed investments that produce carry (and profits for all investors), not management fees.

b. Organizational Expenses/Caps: Organizational and offering expenses of the fund are borne by the fund’s investors out of their capital commitments, but are typically capped in the fund’s operating agreement depending primarily on the size and complexity of the fund. The sponsor is responsible for any organizational expenses in excess of the cap. If a fund utilizes a placement agent, placement fees and expenses are often borne by the fund sponsor and carved out of the organizational expenses that may be borne by the fund.

c. Fund Operational Expenses: In addition to the (capped) organizational expenses, the fund typically bears all other costs and expenses relating to the operation of the fund. In addition to the management fee, these include fees, costs, and expenses relating to the purchase, holding, and disposition of the fund’s investments, third-party service providers to the fund (such as the expenses of any administrators, custodians, legal counsel, accountants, and auditors), printing and distributing reports to the investors, insurance, indemnity and litigation expenses, taxes, and any other governmental fees or charges levied against the fund. As with the fund’s organizational expenses, the operating expenses of the fund are borne by the fund’s investors out of their capital commitments. Unlike organizational expenses, however, operating expenses are typically not capped.

d. Borrowing & Guarantees/Credit Facility: A fund’s ability to borrow money, other than short-term loans to cover partnership expenses or to “bridge” capital contributions, is typically restricted depending on the investment program of the fund. LPs do not want funds to become overly-leveraged.

e. Indemnification/Exculpation: The fund documents will invariably include provisions that require the fund to indemnify the principals, the general partner, the manager, and their respective officers, employees, and agents. This is a promise to hold the indemnified persons harmless from any third-party legal action related to the fund against such persons other than actions related to certain specified bad acts of the indemnified person. If a private fund
establishes an Advisory Committee, its members would also be covered by the indemnification provisions. Fund documents will also contain exculpation provisions, which promise not to take legal action against the indemnified persons other than those related to certain bad acts of the indemnified persons. These provisions complement the indemnification provisions by limiting the potential liability of the principals and the other specified persons to the partnership and the partners. Appropriate indemnification and exculpation provisions are regarded as essential because the process of making and disposing of private equity investments involves a certain degree of litigation risk. The specified bad conduct (e.g., fraud, willful misconduct, and gross negligence) for which indemnification and exculpation are not granted is often the subject of protracted negotiation.

f. **Management Expenses**: The fund’s manager is expected to bear the cost of its own ordinary administrative and overhead expenses incurred in managing the fund. These costs typically include the costs and expenses associated with running the business of the manager, such as employee compensation and benefits, rent, and office furnishings, as opposed to specific expenses directly related to the operation of the fund and its investments.
Tax structural differences aside, investors frequently diverge in their approach to negotiating a fund’s governance terms. Impact investment funds, being relatively new to the private fund market, often have governance terms somewhat dictated to them by long-standing institutional investors that subscribe only to funds whose standards are aligned with theirs. Even those impact investment funds that had relative success with a first generation of funds and go on to raise successor funds may find that their re-upping investors may take a harder line on governance as their successor funds target larger pools of capital from a greater number of investors.

One of the primary features of an impact investment fund is its investment policy, which codifies the fund’s objectives for its impact investments. A fund investment policy will include many elements, such as diversification policies, which restrict a fund sponsor from causing the fund to invest more than a certain percentage of capital commitments in any particular investment, and geographical limits, pursuant to which the fund is restricted from investing in companies operating outside of certain states, countries, or regions. A selection of key governance issues in private impact investment funds generally, including investment restrictions, is set forth in Appendix B.

Impact investment funds will also include certain additional investment parameters. For example, the general purpose of an impact investment fund may be to make equity investments in financial services companies that deliver quality products and services to low-income and financially excluded people in certain identified developing countries, with a primary focus on insurance and adjacent products. But such investment policy may be restricted (and may not be waived without the consent of the investors) as to:

(a) the amount of capital commitments invested (i) in any single portfolio company or (ii) in any single country;

(b) the amount of commitments invested outside of the fund’s target countries (e.g., specifically identified developing nations);

(c) the use of debt (other than with respect to guarantees of an underlying portfolio company’s obligations);

(d) the use of bridge investments;

(e) the use of hedging instruments to speculate on currency or interest rates;
(f) investments made in other funds (assuming the fund is not a fund-of-funds) or other investment vehicles that generate double fees payable by the investors;

(g) hostile transactions (i.e., takeovers despite the objection of the portfolio company); or

(h) investments in publicly traded securities.

These types of restrictions are also fairly typical in most private equity funds.

While many non-impact investors would be satisfied with the above investment parameters, impact investors may require approval of the fund’s more detailed investment policy and compliance manual, covering not only anti-money laundering (“AML”), anti-bribery, sanctions, and politically exposed persons policies, but most importantly the monitoring and reporting of social and environmental concerns, including impact measurement and the achievement of target social or environmental metrics and returns, and the fund’s specific methods for establishing and monitoring the implementation of all such applicable policies in the underlying portfolio companies. More recently, certain non-impact funds have developed their own ESG policies in order to cater to their impact investors (particularly European pension plans and funds-of-funds that have promised their own impact investors that they will invest in funds with ESG policies).

One key distinction of note among investors is that some non-impact investors may place a premium on getting their full allocation to a particularly well-regarded fund manager (with a potentially over-subscribed fund), sometimes at the expense of preferred, investor-friendly terms regarding some governance issues. Although non-impact and impact investors alike may have certain governance issues embedded in their constitutional mandates, impact investors are more likely to have a longer such list of requirements with respect to governance issues from which they cannot veer and are therefore often less flexible about governance issues than non-impact investors may be. In addition, certain impact investors such as DFIs, often in the position of being the anchor investors (particularly with respect to impact funds outside of the U.S.), consider it their moral duty on behalf of all investors to take up the mantle of advocating for strong governance terms and therefore put a greater emphasis on such terms. DFIs make up the plurality of impact investors, holding 42% of total reported impact investments. Also, such investors do not have the same underlying time pressure from their own investors to make their investments that most other institutional investors do. Thus, DFIs have a very strong hand when it comes to negotiating governance terms in an impact investment fund, particularly when the fund is new to the market and keen to get the financial backing and imprimatur of a DFI investor. Because such investors play a significant role in a new impact fund’s launch, they typically will be able to win the day on the governance policies of the fund. In addition, some impact investors, having invested in many funds side-by-side, are teaming up and presenting a united front in negotiations with...
impact investment funds. As the impact investment industry grows and the number of investors increases, it may become more difficult for impact investors to present such a united front unless they develop their own set of principles for private impact investment fund terms similar to the ILPA principles, but including the methodology for achieving and measuring impact.

Some of the points negotiated between a fund investor and a fund sponsor may be addressed by revising the fund’s operating agreement. But fund sponsors may prefer to handle some points that are very individual to investors outside of the fund agreement for a variety of reasons. Thus, fund operating agreements typically permit the sponsor to enter into side letter agreements with investors. A side letter entered into by the fund and an investor alters the terms of that investor’s agreement with respect to its investment in the fund and its rights and obligations under the operating agreement. Certain investors require side letters because of their special regulatory or tax needs. Other investors may command additional or special economic, informational, or other benefits as a condition to their investment. Impact investors often have extensive side letters to ensure that the fund follows negotiated policies and procedures if such policies and procedures are not hard-wired into the operative agreement of the fund. Investors may also seek to receive the right to see all such side letters and the right to elect the same terms and conditions as such side letters (referred to in the industry as “most-favored nations” or “MFN” rights, borrowing a term from the World Trade Organization). Fund sponsors may respond to such requests in a variety of ways, including granting them to a limited degree (e.g., only granting the right to see letters with investors of the same or lower commitments as the requesting investor).
5. INFORMATIONAL NEEDS OF INVESTORS

Investors will require varying and sometimes customized information about the fund and its investments, often as a result of promises that they have made with their underlying investors or beneficial owners. Fund managers generally try to limit the amount of bespoke information so provided, as providing such additional information adds to the administrative and operational burden of the fund and increases the fund’s operating expenses to the objection of the other investors in the fund that do not have customized reporting and other requirements. In addition, fund managers and investors (who are not subject to the U.S. Freedom of Information Act (“FOIA”) or other so-called “sunshine” laws) are concerned that information about the fund and its investments may become public, thus jeopardizing their profitability in the event that any of the fund’s investors are subject to FOIA or the sunshine laws of other jurisdictions. These sunshine laws require certain investors, such as public pension plans, to publicize otherwise confidential information about their investments; thus, fund managers try to limit the information provided to such investors or else provide the information to such investors in a manner that makes it difficult for the information to be published.

a. Reporting: Partnership agreements generally provide that the general partner is required to keep accurate books and records and to furnish the investors with various reports, including unaudited quarterly reports (e.g., within 45 days of the end of the quarter) and audited annual reports (e.g., within 90 days of the end of the fiscal year) describing the fund’s investments (including a valuation of the investments). In addition, an investor typically wants the right to obtain any other information about the fund or any of the fund’s investments that it reasonably requests and the right to inspect the books and records of the fund. Impact investors that have the expectation of the fund meeting certain social needs or other targets may, in addition, require funds to ascertain whether or not such targets have been met in accordance with pre-defined parameters and to include all such relevant information in its reports. Investors representing a majority of the equity interests in the fund may have the right to cause an audit of the books of the fund by an independent auditor at any time at the expense of the fund.

Some investors request additional information from the fund about its operations, portfolio, and other matters. A distinction may be drawn between “above the line” information that a sponsor is willing to provide to investors generally and more sensitive information that will not be provided (or that...
will be provided only to those investors that can assure that it will be treated confidentially). Impact investors typically require a much deeper and broader scope of disclosure, particularly in respect of oversight measures taken by the fund of each portfolio company’s adherence to various policies, summaries of particular events at the portfolio company level, and the fund’s own compliance with the various policies and investment directives in place. Most institutional investors require notice of any events that may give rise to potential litigation for the fund; but impact investors may outline for the fund with greater specificity the items that they believe may subject the fund to potential litigation, rather than leaving the decision about notifying the LPs about potential litigation to the reasonable discretion of the general partner.

b. **Valuation**: Investors want to receive copies of any policies referenced in the fund’s operating agreement, which will typically include the fund’s valuation policy. Funds must have in place effective policies and procedures for valuing the investments that they hold. As a result of the lack of appropriate knowledge or controls, errors in valuation can arise that materially affect a fund’s net asset value. In addition to being in accordance with market practice, valuation policies must be consistently and vigorously applied. Funds usually adopt U.S. GAAP (Generally Accepted Accounting Principles) or IFRS (International Financial Reporting Standards) to determine the fair value of any fund investment or interest in the fund.

c. **List of other Investors and Advisory Committee Members**: As the Advisory Committee may have the power to influence key decisions of the fund, investors typically want to know its membership, which may not be fully determined until after the fund’s final closing. Investors may also require a list of other investors invested in the fund to enable them to contact those investors in the normal course or due to an extraordinary event. A few impact investors may request approval rights over any subsequent investors into the fund.

d. **Annual Meeting; Consultation Rights**: Even the smaller funds will normally hold an annual meeting for its investors during which investors have the opportunity to ask all manner of questions regarding the fund in person. Investors may also request any documents provided during the meeting and minutes that may be produced following the meeting. Many investors, but particularly impact investors, will require regular consultation rights with the fund manager so as to ensure the ability to speak directly with the fund principals, particularly if they do not anticipate always being able to attend the annual meeting.

e. **Legal Opinions**: At closing, investors typically request:

i. an opinion that the fund will be treated for U.S. federal income tax purposes, as applicable, as either (i) a corporation or (ii) a partnership that is not treated as a “publicly traded partnership”;

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ii. a securities opinion that the issuance of the investor interest does not require the fund to register under the Investment Company Act of 1940 (as amended, the “Investment Company Act”) or register the fund offering under the Securities Act of 1933 (as amended, the “Securities Act”);

iii. a partnership opinion that the documents are properly authorized; are duly executed and delivered; and are the legal, valid, and binding obligations of the general partner;

iv. if the fund is relying on status as a VCOC (i.e., a venture capital operating company) or an REOC (i.e., a real estate operating company), an assurance that the fund is not treated as holding “plan assets” for purposes of ERISA (the U.S. Employee Retirement Investment Security Act of 1974) and may accept capital from an investor subject to Title I of ERISA (such as a U.S. private pension plan) without being subject to the fiduciary requirements of ERISA, a form of VCOC or REOC opinion; and

v. if the deal contains a side letter and/or guarantee, a legal opinion addressing such agreements.
Private equity funds are excellent sources of capital for impact investments, particularly during periods of economic instability, when banks limit the risk they are willing and able to take. More recently, banks have become subject to higher capital and liquidity requirements, thus limiting the amount of capital that operating companies can seek from them. Moreover, private equity funds can be important to economic growth, especially when governments face their own deficits and are thus unable to fund public projects or otherwise provide for public goods. But in all of the discussions in recent years of the perceived regulatory risks of private funds, what has become somewhat lost is the diversity of private funds and the opportunities that they present for investors, as well as the institutional strength of investors.

Funds engage in a variety of strategies, including the impact investment sector. As the landscape of private funds has ballooned over the past decade, such strategies have become increasingly competitive and nuanced. Impact investors that cannot compromise on their fundamental investment principles have had enormous influence on the terms and conditions of private funds in recent years as their appetites for favorable private equity returns (and their willingness to bear the risk that is paired with those returns) have increased. Although impact investment funds collectively constitute a small fraction of the private fund industry as a whole, GIIN expects impact investment funds to balloon in the next six to ten years as impact investors better understand that their capital may be well-deployed via a private fund and as non-impact investors increase their impact investments and put their trust in established impact managers.

The competition for investors’ commitments is ever increasing, putting greater negotiating strength into investors’ hands, which in turn has led to the market-leading principles of ILPA. While the ILPA principles continue to serve as a benchmark for many investors as they negotiate their fund investments, we note an increasing trend in similarly situated investors forming small coalitions to negotiate the terms of their investments. Impact investors have formed many coalitions and associations in recent years and have the opportunity to set certain standards for impact investment funds. While these coalitions can present their own challenges, general partners increasingly appreciate fewer (though longer) negotiations, and investors certainly find strength in numbers.

This trend, for now limited mainly to similarly situated large institutional investors, such as DFIs and non-U.S. pension plans or other private investors, could also
be utilized by smaller institutional investors, such as family offices which may not
normally engage in fund negotiations. Such investors would likely find value in
engaging fund sponsors in such negotiations if their investments were grouped
and they sought the assistance of outside counsel who regularly engage with fund
sponsors and are well-versed in such negotiations. Somewhat counterintuitively, fund
sponsors might additionally encourage greater attention to negotiation and due
diligence by family offices and other smaller investors in order to make their funds
more transparent and attractive to such investors.

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APPLICABLE LAWS AND PROCEDURES.
There are many types of funds generally available for investment, and the economic and other expectations of investors in those funds vary according to the fund type. Furthermore, risk tolerance will vary from portfolio category to portfolio category, depending not only on purpose but also time frame. Non-profit and for-profit investors alike must determine how much risk they are willing to assume for each type of investment product, with investment diversification to manage risk a must for most non-profit investment portfolios and public and private pension funds. Diversification by asset class, asset allocation, and within asset classes is considered prudent.

a. **Growth Equity**: Growth equity funds invest in quickly growing companies with proven ideas/business models to help support further growth. Such funds provide not only financial capital, but also strategic guidance and operational support so as to help the company grow and achieve its full potential. Such funds may make minority equity investments and let the existing management team continue to run the business. The capital injection from such funds may be used for a variety of purposes, such as scaling-up operations, enhancing distribution, expanding geographically, developing a new product, or financing an acquisition.

The majority of investors in these types of funds are institutional investors. There is typically less opportunity for negotiation in the funds with the highest target capital commitments (i.e., the “mega-funds”) because (i) such funds are generally run by the most successful and established fund managers, causing investors to compete with each other to receive their desired allocations to such funds; and (ii) the fund structures of most mega-funds are firmly established in prior funds.

b. **Leveraged Buyout**: Leveraged buyout funds acquire majority control of portfolio companies (almost always 100% ownership of mature firms) using financial leverage. The acquisitions are made using both debt and equity, but the proportions can vary depending on the acquisition target, the market conditions, and the ability of the buyout fund to raise debt. The debt portion typically accounts for 50%-85% of the purchase price. The companies targeted by those funds must therefore generate stable operating cash flows which will be used to make interest and principal payments.

c. **Hedge Fund**: The “hedge fund” definition has come to incorporate any absolute return fund investing within the financial markets (stocks, bonds, commodities, currencies, derivatives, etc.) and/or applying non-traditional portfolio management
techniques including, but not restricted to, shorting, levering, arbitrage, and swaps. There is often little room for negotiation by investors into hedge funds due to their open-ended structure, generally permitting investors to redeem their interests (subject to certain lock-up periods) if they do not agree with the investment platform. Hedge funds thus generally represent a “take it or leave it” approach for investors.

d. **Hybrid Funds**: There are various investment vehicles that are referred to as hybrid structures, but generally hybrid funds can be divided into two categories: fixed-term hybrid structures and evergreen hybrid structures. Fixed-term hybrid structures, like private equity funds generally, will have finite subscription periods, closed-end terms, specific investment periods, and distribution waterfall profit allocations. Unlike traditional private equity funds, which generally have a term of 10 years, fixed-term hybrid structures will typically have a term between 18 months and three years and a much shorter investment period. A fixed-term hybrid structure may include illiquid investments (with a short horizon) as well as liquid investments. Evergreen hybrid structures combine rolling lock-ups and rolling subscriptions with limited liquidity. These vehicles will have initial lock-ups ranging from one to three years during which redemptions are prohibited. A soft lock-up period may follow, whereby redemptions are permitted, subject to an early withdrawal fee. Both types of hybrid vehicles will charge lower fees than traditional hedge funds so as to compensate for the longer lock-up periods.

e. **Fund-of-Funds**: A fund-of-funds is an investment strategy of holding a portfolio of other investment funds rather than investing directly in portfolio companies. Funds-of-funds are a good tool for diversification and often the only route for smaller investors seeking to invest in the most popular funds that have certain minimum commitment requirements. Investors have less control, however, over the underlying fund investments. These types of funds often have longer terms as a result of the types of underlying investments made; therefore, investors have a greater need to negotiate their ability to transfer such investments.

f. **Real Estate Funds**: Private real estate funds may include private direct real estate investments in multiple property types (such as multifamily housing, commercial, retail, or industrial), “REITs” (real estate investment trusts), debt instruments, and derivatives. They are categorized as “core” funds, which generate steady income, and “opportunity” funds, which seek to generate capital appreciation. There is greater attention paid to leverage in such funds. These types of funds often have longer terms as a result of the types of underlying investments made; therefore, there is a greater need to negotiate the investors’ ability to transfer such investments.

g. **Infrastructure/Real Asset Funds**: Infrastructure funds are traditionally interested in lower risk investments such as roads, rail, grid, and waste facilities, which have a longer term investment horizon and lower returns over the period. More recently, institutional investors are seeking to invest in “real assets,” where the
fund’s underlying assets are a combination of physical assets, such as buildings, and essential infrastructure services.

h. **Debt/Credit Funds**: Within debt funds, there is a tremendous variety from which to pick depending on the assets to which the debt held by the fund is linked. Broadly speaking, though, in the private funds context, debt funds acquire debt securities and rely on the interest produced by such fixed income investments. The main investing objectives of a debt fund will usually be preservation of capital and generation of income. The fee ratios on debt funds are lower, on average, than equity funds because the overall management costs are lower. Performance against a benchmark is considered to be a secondary consideration to absolute return when investing in a debt fund. Though investors may be investing in a fund at equity level, capital diversification is offered by the variety of debt in which the debt fund might invest (e.g., senior/mezzanine).

Those funds that themselves originate debt, rather than merely purchasing existing debt, are referred to as “credit funds.” One of the results of the banking crisis has been the growing role of alternative finance providers who have plugged the gaps that traditional banks can no longer meet. These so-called “shadow banking” activities have lately become a focus of various regulators. These regulators acknowledge that shadow banking performs important functions in the financial system, e.g., by creating additional sources of funding and offering investors alternatives to bank deposits, but are concerned that shadow banking may pose potential threats to long-term financial stability.

i. **Venture Capital Funds**: This type of fund manages money from investors seeking private equity stakes in startup and small- and medium-size enterprises with strong growth potential. These investments are generally characterized as high-risk/high-return opportunities. Theoretically, venture capital funds give investors the ability to get in early at a company’s startup stage or in special situations where there is opportunity for explosive growth. While a fund structure diversifies risk, these funds are inherently risky.

j. **Pledge Fund**: In this structure, each investor enters into a separate but identical agreement with the manager, often called a “participation agreement.” Under this agreement, each investor pays a fee to the manager and, in return, the manager undertakes to source and offer all the investment opportunities of a particular type to those investors.

These pledge fund structures have certain perceived advantages for the investor, including greater control for investors over how their commitments are invested, the opportunity to evaluate individual investments to assess their merits and risks and ensure that investments are consistent with the investor’s understanding of the fund’s investment strategy, and the ability to terminate the commitment to fund investments. Multiple vehicles, a greater volume of documentation, and a more active role, however, may make pledge funds less
attractive to many investors. Investor discretion to assess individual investments is only effective if such an investor has sufficient knowledge and experience with relevant assets and sufficient resources to analyze, e.g., reports from the manager and other due diligence documents on each underlying investment.

The manager of a pledge fund retains a guaranteed income from the management fees paid under the participation agreement. This allows the manager to carry on its business in an orderly way (e.g., to rent office premises and hire staff). This type of fund has certain disadvantages for the manager, though: unlike a blind pool fund, the manager has no certainty when identifying and negotiating investment opportunities of the degree to which investors will actually participate in that investment, or indeed if sufficient investors will participate to allow the fund to make the investment at all. This lack of certainty may make it more difficult for the manager to successfully negotiate investments in a short period of time; in particular, it may be more difficult for a pledge fund to obtain exclusivity in a proposed transaction. Confidentiality is also another concern as the manager will have to provide its investors with a considerable amount of information about proposed investments prior to actually making those investments.

k. **Club deals**: This term describes a private equity buyout or the assumption of a controlling interest in a company that involves several different private equity firms. This group of firms pools its assets together and makes the acquisition collectively. The practice has historically allowed private equity firms to purchase much more expensive companies together than they could alone. Also, with each company taking a smaller position, risk can be reduced.

These types of funds are not, however, without their disadvantages. Certain practical issues such as the appointment of multiple advisors and extended multi-dimensional negotiations increase the overall cost associated with club investments. Club investors from different geographies may face difficult decisions on the jurisdiction of the club. And domestic tax laws may treat the club as an “association of persons” depending on the nature of the club arrangement, which may severely impact the returns of the investors.

l. **Co-Investments**: A traditional co-investment is a minority investment made directly into an operating company, alongside a fund, typically in a leveraged buyout, recapitalization, or growth capital transaction.

Through co-investments, the fund manager may make larger, controlling investments without either dedicating too much of the fund’s capital to a single transaction (and creating exposure issues or violating any investment limitations agreed with the fund’s investors) or sharing the deal with competing private equity firms. Compensation to the fund manager with respect to co-investments varies, but co-investors typically do not pay management fees or carried interest on co-investments.
m. **Managed Accounts**: Some investors seek their own customized “managed account” arrangements, which provide for greater control (but eliminate the benefit of risk-sharing that pooled investment vehicles provide). These arrangements may be created either in tandem or independently of any blind pool fundraising, with potentially different economics and different investment criteria. These arrangements frequently provide for the investor to have some participation in investment decisions. This can create significant challenges for their fund managers, not least the articulation to their traditional fund investors of the consequences of such managed accounts, particularly as regards the extent of access to deal flow and allocation of investment opportunities.
a. **Conflicts of Interest**: Often, sponsors of private equity funds manage multiple investment vehicles or otherwise engage in a number of asset management and related services that can potentially give rise to a number of conflicts of interest. The determination of what transactions between related parties may be potential conflicts is of fundamental importance.

Failure to fully address conflicts situations is typically of great concern to investors. In addition, the Investment Advisers Act of 1940 (as amended, the “Advisers Act”) and the rules promulgated thereunder prohibit agency cross transactions and principal trades without specific authorization from their clients, although investors may agree in the fund agreement how such authorization may be effected (in lieu of obtaining such authorization from each and every investor). For example, it may be agreed that the general partner present potential conflicts of interest to the fund’s Advisory Committee, which will consider the terms of the proposed transaction and determine whether or not to provide its consent. Or a fund might utilize an unaffiliated independent representative to make such determinations on behalf of the investors (provided that such independent representative has herself been approved by each investor).

b. **Transfer Rights**: Private equity fund interests are illiquid investments that must be held until the fund terminates and is liquidated. Thus, transfers of LP interests are prohibited unless certain qualifications are met: for instance, assuring that the transferor is not trying to create a market in selling unregistered securities or avoiding the application of ERISA’s fiduciary requirements. Large institutional investors will typically request, and receive, the right to transfer their interests to bona fide affiliates, subject to the affiliate being able to make the standard representations and warranties required of all investors.

c. **Advisory Committee**: Advisory Committees provide limited partners with an ability to better oversee the ongoing operation of a fund during the course of its life. Each partnership agreement may vary slightly the particular responsibilities of the Advisory Committee, but most funds do have them. Recurring roles for the committees are to resolve conflicts of interest that may arise and to consent to certain actions that might otherwise constitute a breach of the partnership agreement (e.g., a waiver of investment limitations that would otherwise prohibit a particular investment). By having a representative on the Advisory Committee, an investor is better placed to influence decisions of the fund. Depending on the
jurisdiction of the fund, however, the role of the Advisory Committee will have to be carefully constrained so as to ensure the retention of limited liability by each investor represented on the Advisory Committee. An investor who seeks but does not obtain Advisory Committee representation may try instead to obtain non-voting observer status to the Advisory Committee or copies of all information that the fund provides to the Advisory Committee.

d. **Term/Termination**: The term of a fund generally consists of an investment period followed by a divestment period. Shorter or longer terms may be required depending on the time it takes to source, acquire, harvest, and exit investments. In addition to a pre-determined termination date where the fund has a fixed life, investors and fund managers must give particular thought to further termination mechanisms, including the early termination of the investment period (preventing the general partner from making further investments, but not shortening the fund’s permitted aggregate term length, which allows the general partner to harvest the fund’s existing investments). Upon a supermajority-in-interest vote of investors, funds may allow for a “no-fault” termination of the fund’s term. The investors’ right to vote to terminate the fund or its investment period early may also be triggered by related provisions, such as the change of control of the general partner (discussed further below under “Change of Control”), a key person event (discussed further below under “Time and Attention; Key Person Event”), the removal of the general partner, and the establishment of a successor fund, each as described below:

i. **General Partner Removal**: The fund’s operating agreement may provide the ability of a certain percentage of investors to elect to remove the general partner in certain very limited circumstances. For example, a majority-in-interest of investors may have the ability to elect to remove the general partner for “cause,” usually with disastrous consequences for the general partner (e.g., by a “haircut” on any carry earned by the general partner). A supermajority-in-interest may have the right to remove the general partner without “cause.” General partner removal is often considered the “nuclear option” that investors use only as a rare, last recourse in any dispute with a general partner. Any removal of the general partner typically triggers fund termination unless the investors decide to appoint a new general partner to continue the fund.

ii. **Successor Fund**: Though this issue is of less focus for investors who think that if they are happy with a fund manager it will not matter if they are investing via the present fund or a successor fund, investors typically prefer successor funds not to invest until the investment period of the prior fund has terminated or some other protection has been built in (such as the reduction or elimination of management fees paid by the existing fund) to ensure that the fund sponsor’s focus remains on the existing fund. Indeed, a successful fund of almost any size is often the foundation for significantly larger successor funds, representing correspondingly larger opportunities for the successful general partner and principals.
e. **Capital Commitments**: Investors typically contribute their committed capital to the fund over time, upon receipt from the general partner of a drawdown notice. Typically, investors have a 10 business day period to provide the fund with the capital contributions requested or be subject to potentially serious default consequences (discussed further below).

i. **Fundraising Periods**: Private equity funds are structured as closed-ended investment vehicles. A fund’s governing documents generally permit the fund to raise capital commitments only during a limited, initial fundraising period (typically 12 to 18 months) after which the fund may not accept additional investor commitments.

ii. **Closings**: A first closing of the fund occurs when the sponsor identifies investors who are ready to commit sufficient capital to the fund (based on the sponsor’s capital raising target). Sometimes a fund is only permitted to hold an initial closing after a minimum amount of capital has been raised. After the first closing, subsequent closings may be held throughout the fundraising period. At each closing, investors become limited partners of the fund by executing a subscription agreement, as well as the fund’s limited partnership agreement, and having such documents accepted by the general partner.

iii. **GP Capital Commitments**: The general partner, together with affiliates of the fund sponsor, traditionally invests a certain amount of money alongside the limited partners in order to ensure that the interests of all partners are adequately aligned. The commitment of the general partner can occur directly through the fund vehicle, which would ensure that it participates pari passu with every investment made by the limited partners, or the general partner may participate via a co-investment vehicle, though investors typically require assurance that the general partner participates in each fund investment on the same terms and conditions of the fund.

iv. **Change of Control**: It is in the investors’ best interest that the general partner remain for the duration of the term of the fund. Thus, the partnership should specify that the general partner may not voluntarily withdraw as general partner, dissolve or liquidate, undergo a change of control, or transfer its interest. The concern here is that the principals will sell their future interests in the fund for immediate cash and withdraw from management of the fund. This is a grave matter for investors whose impetus in making an investment in any given fund is the talent and investment history of the principals who together comprise the general partner. Additionally, such a change of control provision helps to protect the investors from being deserted by the general partner if the portfolio investments that the fund has made have lost value and, hence, the prospects of the general partner ever receiving a carried interest are slim.
v. **Recycling:** The fund’s operating agreement may permit the fund to “recycle” capital that is returned to the investor. Typically a fund may be able to re-deploy: (a) investments yielding a quick return (e.g., bridge investments realized within one year after the investment is made, discussed further below under “Bridge Investments”); (b) returns attributable to capital contributions used to satisfy organizational expenses and other fund expenses; and (c) returns on investments during the investment period. The aggregate amount of capital commitments that the general partner may deploy on behalf of each investor may be limited, however, to some percentage slightly higher than 100% of each investor’s original fund commitment (but rarely greater than 150%).

vi. **Excuse:** Some investors may be excused from making a particular investment because of investment restrictions pre-agreed with the general partner, either as described in the fund’s operating agreement or in a side letter agreement between the investor and the fund. For example, some religious organizations request excuse in the event of certain types of so-called “sin” investments made by the fund, such as investments involving alcohol, pork, prostitution, or firearms. In the event of excuse, investors’ capital commitment may remain unaffected or be reduced by the amount that the fund would have drawn down in the absence of excuse. In other circumstances, there may be regulatory or other reasons why an investor is required to withdraw from a fund completely. Greater attention has been paid to how excuse rights are granted, particularly by impact investors. Impact investors do not necessarily seek excuse rights for themselves; rather, they are concerned that other investors may try to use excuse rights in order to avoid participating in investments that they simply do not want to make, instead of investing blind along with all investors.

vii. **Default:** Capital commitment default provisions may create severe penalties for a defaulting investor, such as: (a) forced sale of the defaulting investor’s capital account to other existing investors at a discount; (b) interest penalties; (c) automatic reduction of the defaulting investor’s capital account to cover owed amounts and penalties; or (d) the loss of all or certain rights as an investor, including participation in future investments or voting determinations.

viii. **Feeder Funds:** Feeder funds are special purpose vehicles formed by a fund to accommodate investment in the fund by one or more investors. Due to the particular jurisdiction of incorporation of the fund, an investor or class of investors may prefer (primarily for tax purposes) to invest in the fund indirectly through an upper-tier entity. One common use of feeder funds is to act as “blockers” for U.S. federal income tax purposes. These types of feeder funds are structured to be treated as corporate taxpayers for U.S. federal income tax purposes so that investors in the feeder funds do not receive direct allocations or distributions of fund income. This ensures that...
non-U.S. investors are not required to file U.S. federal tax returns and pay U.S. income tax in connection with those allocations and distributions. Many U.S. tax-exempt investors also prefer to invest through feeder funds organized as blockers to reduce the likelihood that their investment generates UBTI.

ix. **Parallel Funds**: Parallel funds are parallel investment vehicles generally formed to invest in and divest from the same investments at the same time as the main fund. They are formed under substantially the same terms as the main fund, with specific differences in terms to the extent required to accommodate the regulatory, tax, or investment requirements applicable to the investors in the parallel fund. Parallel funds are often created in jurisdictions other than that of the main fund. For example, a Delaware-based fund may form a Cayman Islands-based parallel fund to accommodate non-U.S. investors who often prefer to invest through a non-U.S. entity to avoid the U.S. tax compliance obligations that apply to investors in U.S. entities. The parallel fund generally invests directly in each investment alongside and in parallel with the Delaware fund, in fixed proportions determined by their respective capital commitments. Additionally, funds formed to invest in specific countries or regions may have separate funds for local and international investors.

x. **Alternative Investment Vehicles**: Alternative investment vehicles are special purpose investment vehicles formed to accommodate the structuring needs of the fund (or its investors) in connection with one or more particular investments. Unlike a parallel fund, which is designed as an umbrella entity for investors to participate as an alternative to the main fund, an alternative investment vehicle is formed so that investors who have subscribed to the main fund (or a parallel fund) can take advantage of efficient structures to hold specific assets if the fund is not the optimal investment vehicle for a particular investment, whether for tax, regulatory, or other legal reasons. Operating agreements typically permit the sponsor to form an alternative investment vehicle through which all (or certain) investors may invest in a fund investment, relieving those investors from the obligation to participate in the investment through the fund itself. The fund agreement generally requires alternative investment vehicles to have substantially the same terms as the fund. The general partner or manager typically has a great deal of discretion under the fund agreement whether to form an alternative investment vehicle for a particular investment and, if it does, whether to form the vehicle for a particular investor or group of investors. For example, a Cayman Islands-based fund seeking to invest in a portfolio company located in a country that imposes a withholding tax on distributions to offshore financial centers may form an alternative investment vehicle in another jurisdiction that is not deemed an offshore financial centre for the purpose of making the investment.
f. **Investment Period; Investment Limitations:**

i. **Investment Period:** The investment period of a fund will often last between four and six years. At the end of this period, any undrawn capital commitments of a limited partner may no longer be used for new investment and will only be subject to drawdowns for existing commitments, expenses, reserves, to repay existing borrowings, or to fund follow-on investments in companies that are already in the fund's portfolio or that otherwise enhance the fund's existing investments.

ii. **Time and Attention; Key Person Event:** Investors frequently make investments in a fund primarily in reliance on the skill and expertise of certain individuals to manage the fund and its investments. Often the operation of the fund is tied to the presence of these individuals, who are deemed to be “key persons.” Key persons will be required to meet certain minimum time commitment requirements to the fund, e.g., substantially all of a key person's business time and attention must be dedicated to the fund and any prior or successor funds. Failure of a certain number of key persons to meet such requirements may trigger a key person event. Key person events vary from fund to fund, but investors prefer a key person event to trigger an automatic suspension of the fund’s investment period. If triggered, the fund is prevented from making new investments until a sufficient number of new key persons are appointed. Often, if the suspension period continues for a long enough period (for example, six months), then the investment period terminates and the fund enters liquidation mode.

iii. **Diversification Limits:** The general partner is generally not permitted to invest more than a certain percentage of the fund's capital commitments in a single portfolio company, including investments in affiliated entities, bridge investments, and follow-on investments in such portfolio company. Depending on the size of the aggregate capital commitments and the investment focus of the fund, such percentage could be between 10% and 35% for any single portfolio company.

iv. **Bridge Investments:** Some general partners will seek flexibility to exceed the diversity cap on a short term basis by having the ability to make a “bridge investment”. Bridge investments may take the form of short-term debt or equity in an underlying portfolio company, although they are usually debt investments which will be refinanced or converted to equity investments within a year. Since a bridge investment is intended to be temporary, a carried interest will usually not be earned on it and consequently a preferred return will not accrue on capital contributed for a bridge investment. For example, a general partner may intend to sell a portion of a portfolio investment soon after it is made to a co-investor, and thus it may make the most sense to the general partner to structure
that part of the investment as a bridge investment so as not to diminish the fund’s investment rate of return (IRR). In addition, capital contributed for a bridge investment that is realized quickly (e.g., within the fund’s investment period) can usually be “recycled” (see “Recycling” above).

v. **Geographical Limits / Restricted Nation Covenant (Iran, North Korea, etc.):** If it is contemplated that investments will be made abroad, investors may seek limitations on the amounts that may be invested in any particular jurisdiction. Any foreign investments should be subject to the general partner’s receipt of legal advice (possibly in the form of an opinion) that such investment will not subject any investor to liability in excess of its capital contribution.

vi. **Ethical Investor Limits / ESG Policy Acknowledgement:** Many investors, for environmental, social, or religious reasons/policies require prohibitions on investments in portfolio companies primarily engaged in certain sectors, such as alcohol, gambling, firearms, prostitution, tobacco, and pork products. Moreover, impact investors may require as a pre-condition of their investment that the fund agree to a responsible investment code that imposes obligations on the part of the fund to ensure that the companies in which it invests adopt and maintain rigorous environmental, social, and corporate governance standards.

vii. **Hostile deals:** Generally, funds are not permitted to engage in any “hostile transaction” (i.e., a transaction that is opposed by a majority of the target company’s board of directors and/or shareholders). Investors generally do not want the negative press that can accompany a hostile transaction, and such transactions are usually expensive.

viii. **Investments generating additional management fees or carry:** A fund is typically prohibited from making a portfolio investment if, as a result, the fund would be obligated to pay any party additional management fees or carried interest, which rules out investments in any other pooled investment vehicles. This addresses concerns that investors will be paying multiple layers of fees.

ix. **Publicly Traded Securities:** Investors generally request, subject to certain caveats, that the fund not invest in any publicly-traded companies. The general purpose of private equity funds is to make private investments that investors may not otherwise have access to, not to invest in the public markets. Certain exceptions may be made for private equity-like investments, such as taking a controlling stake in a publicly-traded company in a “going private” transaction or purchasing privately offered securities from a public company. The fund may nonetheless provide a cap of 5% to 10% on such investments.
g. **Amendments**: The partnership agreement may typically be amended only with the written consent of the majority-in-interest of the investors. An amendment to the allocation and distribution sections or an amendment requiring the investors to increase their capital commitments, however, usually requires the unanimous consent of the investors. Notwithstanding the above, the general partner may amend the partnership agreement without investor consent in order to reflect the admission of an additional investor or an increasing investor pursuant to the terms of the partnership agreement, comply with applicable law, or correct a typographical error.

h. **Voting**: Fund voting (e.g., with respect to amendments) is based on the proportion of the investors’ capital commitments held by each investor and not on a “one-partner, one-vote” basis. Any interests held by the general partner and its affiliates are typically excluded from any voting by the investors.

i. **Governing Law**: Delaware is the most popular jurisdiction for formation of U.S.-domiciled private equity funds sponsored by U.S.-based general partners. In addition to funds formed in Germany, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, France, and the UK, common “offshore” jurisdictions for funds formed outside the United States that are nonetheless marketed to U.S. investors include, among others, the Cayman Islands, Bermuda, the British Virgin Islands, Jersey, Guernsey, Ireland, Gibraltar, Malta, Cyprus, and Mauritius. The best choice for a non-U.S.-domiciled fund will depend on tax and regulatory considerations. Often, the same sponsor will choose to operate a fund strategy using parallel vehicles formed in different jurisdictions (for example, a Delaware limited partnership and a parallel Cayman vehicle) to address the needs of different types of investors. The sponsor will typically seek to cause the documentation for these multiple funds to be as similar as possible; however, due to differences in local law, achievement of identical fund terms may not be possible.

j. **Disputes**: To address disputes among the principals, arbitration is a dispute resolution method that is often required by the governing documents of general partners and management companies due to its speed and confidentiality. However, it is somewhat less common in fund documents governing the relationship between sponsors and investors. Indeed, some U.S. public pension plans require that disputes be resolved in courts of such plans’ jurisdictions.

k. **Power of Attorney**: The partnership agreement and the subscription agreement typically contain powers of attorney, granted by the investor to the general partner. Some investors require that any grant of a power of attorney be narrow and extend only to ministerial actions such as corporate filings and amendments thereto. Certain institutional investors may be prohibited from granting a power of attorney altogether, but then typically agree with the general partner to expedite delivery of any required signatures.
A private equity fund is at its core a set of corporate transactions to acquire securities. Prior to the Wall Street Crash of 1929, there was little regulation of securities. During the Great Depression, President Franklin D. Roosevelt’s New Deal programs included the first piece of legislation to regulate the offer and sale of securities, the Securities Act, followed by the Securities Exchange Act of 1934 (as amended, the “Exchange Act”), the Investment Company Act, and the Advisers Act. These four statutes, each as amended, form the core of U.S. federal regulation of the private fund industry to this day. The four aspects of fund investing that U.S. securities laws attempt to address are fund offerings and sales, fund marketing, fund ownership, and fund management.

Historically, the private fund industry in the U.S. has avoided registration under these four statutes (with the exception of the Advisers Act, which regulates fund managers, and which recently has been amended to extend its registration requirements to even more fund managers, as discussed further below). Broadly speaking, the purpose of registration under the U.S. securities laws is to protect average members of the investing public by requiring the funds to provide to the Securities and Exchange Commission (“SEC”) and/or such investors fulsome disclosures regarding their investments, the sales process surrounding those investments, and those who sell and manage those investments. These disclosures take a substantial amount of time to prepare and are generally very costly, requiring significant legal expenses, which of course limits the returns available to investors. Private funds and those who manage and sell them may be deemed to fall outside the purpose of the regulation for the reasons described further below and thus are exempt from the registration requirements of the U.S. securities laws. Other than with respect to the Advisers Act, most private funds would not be able to bear the burden of the registration requirements. Even the large-scale funds that could administer such registrations would find their expenses relating to registration to be so onerous as to fundamentally change their business model, causing a loss of interested investors and principals and thus a collapse of their business.

a. **Fund offerings and sales**

The foremost concern of the U.S. federal government when they began creating these centralized laws regulating securities was adequate disclosure to investors of the terms and conditions of the securities being offered. Thus, the primary securities law affecting U.S. and non-U.S. offerings alike, the Securities Act,
requires all offers and sales of securities to be registered with the SEC, which registration requires a complex (and issuers would say onerous) level of detail of the securities being offered for sale to be submitted to the SEC. Private funds have traditionally been exempt from the Securities Act’s registration requirement because private fund interests are not available for sale to the general public and thus their investors do not require the protection of the Securities Act’s disclosure requirements. Fund sponsors ensure that their fund offerings are deemed exempt from the registration requirement of the Securities Act and qualify for this so-called “private offering” exemption by utilizing the safe harbors provided by Regulation D and Regulation S promulgated under the Securities Act. Furthermore, recent changes to Regulation D as a result of the Jumpstart Our Business Startups Act of 2012 (the “JOBS Act”) permit public offerings without registration under the Securities Act under certain circumstances discussed further below.

The primary tenet behind Regulation D has long been that, so long as fund investors are relatively sophisticated, financially astute, and have a substantive relationship with the fund issuer (or its placement agent) that pre-dates the offering of fund interests to those investors, they do not need the protections offered by the Securities Act’s registration requirements. Issuers both within and outside of the U.S. may rely upon Regulation D; Regulation D is the primary safe harbor relied upon by fund sponsors globally, wherever their funds may be based, who intend to offer fund interests to U.S. investors and thus fall under the purview of the Securities Act. The Regulation D safe harbor (found in Rules 501 to 508 under the Securities Act, including the Preliminary Notes thereto) allows issuers to offer interests to an unlimited number of “accredited investors” and up to 35 non-accredited investors (though in effect, issuers utilizing the Regulation D safe harbor only offer interests to accredited investors due to additional regulatory burdens that would ensue from offering interests to non-accredited investors). “Accredited investors” may be individuals, trusts, corporations, pension plans, and other entities who satisfy stipulated income or net value tests, typically entities with total assets greater than $5 million and individuals with net worth in excess of $1 million.

The “private offering” exemption, however, no longer requires that the offering be private. The JOBS Act uprooted the notion that accredited investors need to have a substantial, pre-existing relationship with fund sponsors (or their placement agents). The regulations promulgated under the JOBS Act that came into effect as of September 23, 2013 have eliminated the requirement that issuers relying on Regulation D must ensure that the interests are not sold by means of “general solicitation or general advertising.” Thus interests offered under the Regulation D safe harbor may now technically be offered to the general public, although virtually all investors must still be able to satisfy the “accredited investor” standards and, in addition, other applicable regulations may nonetheless require that such offerings continue to be private. The JOBS
Act has thus provided for increased flexibility—issuers may continue to offer fund interests in the traditional manner without relying on general solicitation, or they may engage in general solicitation.

Regulation D has historically required that a fund offer and sell interests only to persons it “reasonably believes” are accredited investors. Private funds have traditionally relied on investor questionnaires in subscription documents to collect information from prospective investors sufficient to establish this “reasonable belief,” and courts have generally accepted this practice. The JOBS Act changed this standard for any fund utilizing general solicitation to offer its interests by requiring not only(i) that an issuer have a reasonable belief that it is selling securities only to accredited investors, but also(ii) that an issuer take “reasonable steps to verify” that it is selling securities only to accredited investors. This second requirement means that private funds engaging in general solicitation must take steps beyond those required to comply with traditional Regulation D private placement. To assist issuers, Regulation D now identifies four safe harbor methods to satisfy the new general solicitation requirements regarding the verification of accredited investors.

The burden of verification, combined with the potential loss of other regulatory exemptions applicable to funds, such as exemption from CFTC registration and state fund offering registration, means that traditional fund issuers are, for the time being, not taking advantage of the ability to rely on general solicitation. This trend may continue, with only new fund managers who do not have the advantage of sufficient pre-existing, substantial relationships with accredited investors taking advantage of the increased access to capital that the JOBS Act regulations are meant to provide. Time will tell if the placement agent industry suffers as a result of general solicitation or if instead investors depend more on placement agents and other resources to distinguish the most reputable funds from all other funds offered publicly.

A fund may rely on the safe harbors of Regulation D and Regulation S concurrently to ensure that its offering and sale is exempt from the registration requirements of the Securities Act. The Regulation S safe harbor is for securities that are offered and sold outside the United States. Offers and sales made outside of the U.S. are not deemed to be subject to the registration requirements of the Securities Act, whether or not the purchasers are U.S. persons or foreign investors, as long as the conditions of Regulation S are met, namely that the transaction is offshore and that there are no “directed selling efforts” (effectively, that there be no general solicitation or general advertising, as referenced in Regulation D). It should be noted that while the JOBS Act changed Regulation D to no longer prohibit “general solicitation,” the “no directed selling efforts” requirement of Regulation S remains intact.

One final note on “general solicitation” and “directed selling efforts”: SEC Rule 135e permits non-U.S. funds to hold non-U.S. press conferences and
meetings discussing a proposed offering of unregistered securities (in reliance on Regulation D or Regulation S) if (i) the intent is to make a bona fide offering outside the U.S. (which can be concurrent with a U.S. offering) and (ii) access is given to both U.S. and non-U.S. press. Such press conferences and the like are not considered “general solicitation” or “directed selling efforts.”

Exempt private placement offerings of securities are still subject to anti-fraud provisions of U.S. federal securities law under Rule 10b-5 of the Exchange Act. Rule 10b-5 promotes full disclosure in connection with offers and sales of securities and prohibits the making of any untrue statement of a material fact and prohibits the omission of any material fact necessary to make the statements not misleading. These anti-fraud rules need to be considered by a fund sponsor in particular when crafting the fund’s private placement memorandum, including any risk factors, offering legends, track record disclosure (particularly net v. gross disclosure), and when disclosing new developments in a supplement to the private placement memorandum.

b. Fund management

Investment advisers (or fund managers) are entities that are in the business of, and are compensated for, giving advice—either directly or through publications—regarding securities. The Advisers Act and the rules promulgated thereunder regulate a fund’s investment adviser and require certain investment advisers to register with the SEC and others to have “exempt reporting adviser” (or “ERA”) status. Many investors will only invest with fund managers who are registered under the Advisers Act, as it gives them comfort that their fund managers are being sufficiently regulated. Both full registration and ERA status subject an investment adviser to certain reporting requirements; but full registration status is more onerous and carries numerous other requirements, including SEC examination of books and records (although ERA status still subjects an adviser to SEC examination for cause). Registered advisers are prohibited from charging performance fees except to “qualified clients” (investors who have at least $1 million in assets under management or a net worth of more than $2 million) and from advertising. All investment advisers, whether registered or not, must comply with the anti-fraud rules of the Advisers Act.

The Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act (the “Dodd-Frank Act”) amended the Advisers Act, most significantly by repealing the private adviser exemption which previously permitted fund managers with fewer than 15 funds under management to claim exemption from registration under the Advisers Act. Now there are two new exemptions: the foreign private adviser exemption (only available to advisers with no place of business in the U.S. and less than $25 million in aggregate assets under management attributable to U.S. investors) and the private fund adviser exemption (a
conditional exemption for advisers who act solely for private funds and who have less than $150 million of AUM in the U.S.). Investors in funds whose managers qualify for such exemptions are less likely to be concerned about the regulation of such fund managers by the SEC. “Pay-to-play” rules have also targeted the practice of investment advisers making or arranging (or being solicited to make) political contributions while also seeking investment advisory business from a governmental body, which has an effect on investment advisers managing assets for US state and local government bodies. These include public pension plans, state college savings plans, or state and local employee savings plans. Advisers are prohibited from providing services to a government entity for two years after the adviser or any covered associate makes a contribution to an official of the government entity. The pay-to-play prohibition also restricts the use of placement agents, solicitors, and finders.

c. **Fund ownership**

A separate securities law statute applies to the fund itself, as opposed to the offer of securities in the fund or to the fund manager. The Investment Company Act regulates the ownership of securities. The Investment Company Act generally requires registration for “investment companies,” i.e., issuers (such as private funds or mutual funds) that hold themselves out as being engaged primarily in the business of investing or trading in securities. While mutual funds generally register under the Investment Company Act, certain exceptions from registration as an investment company with the SEC are made for funds being privately offered with limited numbers of beneficial owners (the “3(c)(1) exemption”) or funds whose owners are all “qualified purchasers” (the “3(c)(7) exemption”).

“Qualified purchaser” status relies on the net value of the individual or entity that is the beneficial owner reaching a certain minimum (a minimum that is much higher than the net value requirements of “accredited investor” status under the Securities Act). “Qualified purchasers” generally refer to natural persons or companies owning $5 million in investments; investment managers investing $25 million in assets; and “knowledgeable employees,” i.e., executive officers and directors of a fund or fund manager and non-clerical employees of a fund or fund manager who participate in investment activities.

Smaller private funds that do not anticipate a large number of investors (subject to certain look-through provisions to an investor’s beneficial owners) and that do not propose to make a public offering of their securities may utilize the 3(c)(1) exemption, but generally the 3(c)(7) exemption is utilized whenever possible as it does not require the fund to concern itself with the 100-beneficial owner limit of 3(c)(1). A fund may rely on both 3(c)(1) and 3(c)(7) concurrently. Furthermore, a non-U.S. fund may rely on either exemption and needs to concern itself only with its U.S. investors to determine compliance with either exemption.
Finally, the Exchange Act (as modified by the JOBS Act) limits private fund ownership to 2,000 persons in total or 500 persons who are not accredited investors. If either such limit is exceeded, funds must register their interests under the Exchange Act. However, funds are generally in the business of making investments rather than marketing their fund to as many investors as possible—marketing is just a means to the end. Thus, in practice, due to the nature of private funds and their typically limited offering periods, ownership does not come close to reaching such limits.

d. **Fund marketing**

Anyone who sells the interests in a private fund (with certain limited exemptions for a fund selling its own securities without the use of a third-party marketer) is also subject to its own securities regulation. The Exchange Act imposes registration requirements on broker-dealers, including placement agents. Under Section 15(a), it is unlawful for any person meeting the definition of “broker” or “dealer” to effect transactions in any security unless registered, though specific safe harbors from broker-dealer registration are recognized. A private fund not utilizing a registered broker-dealer but instead selling its own securities may rely on the issuer exemption. An issuer may sell its own securities as it is not a “broker” (because the securities are not being sold for the account of others) and it is not a “dealer” (because it is not both buying and selling the securities, but rather distributing them directly to investors). SEC Rule 3a4-1 provides a safe harbor exemption for placement activities by a fund’s “associated persons”: namely, natural persons who control, are controlled by, or have common control with the issuer and who (i) do not receive transaction-based compensation, (ii) are not an associated person of a broker-dealer, and (iii) are not otherwise subject to statutory disqualification. In addition:

(a) Securities may only be offered and sold to certain financial institutions and intermediaries.

(b) Only “passive sale” activities may take place.

(c) The associated person must have substantial business duties unrelated to securities sales and participate in placement activities no more than once every 12 months.

Although the focus of this brief has been on U.S. funds, it is worthwhile noting that, although the U.S. securities laws on marketing do not distinguish impact investment funds from other fund offerings, the European Union has established a regime, the Regulation on European Social Entrepreneurship Fund (EuSEF) for marketing sub-€500 million private investment funds at least 70% of the capital commitments of which is invested, via equity or debt structures, in investments that provide services or goods to vulnerable, marginalized, disadvantaged, or excluded persons; employ a method of production of services
that embodies their social objective; and provide financial support exclusively to such social undertaking. EuSEF will permit smaller social-impact fund managers to benefit from the AIFMD passport regime and market their funds throughout the EEA, thereby making it quicker and easier for such fund managers to raise capital, as well as increasing the confidence of investors that wish to make impact investments.

e. The Volcker Rule

The Volcker Rule is a provision of the Dodd-Frank Act that amended the Bank Holding Company Act to prohibit certain banking entities (and their affiliates and subsidiaries) from acquiring or retaining any ownership interest in, or sponsoring, a hedge fund or a private equity fund. An issuer is deemed to be a “hedge fund” or a “private equity fund” for purposes of the Volcker Rule if it would be an investment company under the Investment Company Act but for the 3(c)(1) or 3(c)(7) exemptions discussed above. Thus, most private funds are caught by the Volcker Rule, though the final rules implementing the Volcker Rule have yet to take effect. Some banks have spun out their private fund businesses in reaction to the Volcker Rule, while others are biding their time until the final rules are implemented.

f. FCPA & Anti-Bribery

The Foreign Corrupt Practices Act is not securities law legislation directed at private funds per se, but U.S. fund issuers (and their non-U.S. subsidiaries) need to ensure compliance with the FCPA, particularly when reviewing the qualification of investors subscribing to a fund. The FCPA originated out of the Watergate scandal, following which the government investigated widespread use of improper payments and found that over 400 companies, including about 20% of the Fortune 500, made “questionable” foreign payments to foreign government officials, politicians, and political parties totaling more than $300 million. The FCPA, signed into law in 1977, has two principal provisions: anti-bribery prohibitions, prohibiting bribery of non-U.S. government officials; and books and records requirements, requiring U.S. issuers to maintain accurate books and records and reasonable accounting controls (this latter requirement is actually an amendment to the Exchange Act discussed above). Violations of the FCPA can lead to both criminal and civil penalties, with dual enforcement vested in the U.S. Department of Justice and the SEC.
3(c)(1) exemption | The private investment company exemption from registration as an investment company under the Investment Company Act for issuers conducting private offerings only with limited number of beneficial owners (not more than 100 persons, which includes both natural persons and companies).

3(c)(7) exemption | The exemption from registration as an investment company under the Investment Company Act for issuers conducting private offerings only with owners who are all “qualified purchasers.”

501(c)(3) organizations | Organizations that qualify as tax-exempt under Section 501(c)(3) of the Code.

Accredited investors | Individuals, trusts, corporations, pension plans, and other entities who satisfy stipulated income or net value tests, typically entities with total assets greater than $5 million and individuals with net worth greater than $1 million.

Advisers Act | The Investment Advisers Act of 1940, as amended.

Advisory Committee | A committee to the fund composed of a small number of limited partners, which may have certain consultation and/or approval rights as described in the fund’s operating agreement. See also Appendix B.

AIFMD | The Alternative Investment Fund Managers Directive of the European Union, which entered into force on July 21, 2011, and was due to be transposed into national law within the EEA by July 22, 2013 (although not all EEA member states have done so). AIFMD aims at establishing common requirements governing the authorization and supervision of alternative investment fund managers in order to provide a coherent approach to the related risks and their impact on investors and markets in the EEA. The issues raised by AIFMD must be addressed by all fund managers globally whenever marketing to investors in the EEA.

Anchor investors | Generally, the first third-party investor(s) committing a significant amount of capital to an investment fund, though such investment may not be made until after the first closing of the fund.

AUM | Assets under management.

Benefit Corporation | Generally, a type of for-profit entity, which, in addition to seeking profit, has a social welfare or environmental purpose.
Bridge investments | Short-term investments by a fund in an underlying portfolio company. See also Appendix B.

Capital commitments | The amount of money that an investor agrees to contribute to an investment fund, typically in the investor’s subscription agreement with the fund. See also Appendix B.

Carried interest (or carry) | Any amount of an investor’s allocated profit distributed to the fund sponsor, i.e., the amount of profit that the general partner receives (outside of the profit it makes on its own capital commitment) on the fund’s realized investments.

CFTC | The U.S. Commodity Futures Trading Commission.

Clawback | The amount of carry that a general partner (or carried interest partner, as applicable) must return to the fund, to be re-distributed to the limited partners, in the event that, when fund distributions to date are calculated on an aggregate basis (typically at liquidation, but a fund may provide for earlier, interim clawback calculations), the general partner has received carry but the limited partners have not received their full return of capital and preferred return, or the general partner has received more than its allotted carry percentage (e.g., over 20%).

Closed-end, blind-pool investment vehicles | Issuers of investment (typically equity) securities to third-party investors, who make their commitment for a fixed term and do not know what the specific investments will be that the issuer makes prior to their commitments to the issuer.

Closing | The time at which a fund issues limited partnership interests to investors who have subscribed for investment in the fund. See also Appendix B.


Controlled foreign corporation (“CFCs”) | A non-U.S. entity classified as a corporation for U.S. federal income tax purposes, if greater than 50% of the total vote or value of the non-U.S. entity is owned (applying certain attribution rules), in the aggregate, by U.S. shareholders that each own (in each case, applying certain attribution rules) 10% or more of the total combined voting power of all classes of stock of such corporation.

Critical change in circumstances | A condition, such as serving an illegal purpose or a private purpose of the private foundation or its manager, which may result in an investment ceasing to qualify as a PRI.

Deal-by-deal waterfall (or investment-by-investment waterfall) | Distribution waterfall whereby distributable proceeds are allocated and distributed solely with respect to the investment generating the proceeds, rather than across all prior investments, which structure may permit the general partner to receive carry with respect to an individual investment notwithstanding that investors may not have
received a return of all of their prior capital contributions. Sometimes referred to in Europe as an “American-style” waterfall.

Debt-financed property | Generally, property held to produce income (including gain from its disposition) for which a portion of acquisition cost is financed by borrowed funds.

Default | When an investor does not fund the capital call issued to it by a fund manager, it is deemed to be in default. See also Appendix B.

DFI | Development finance institution.

Distribution waterfall | The fund structure that determines the allocation and distribution as between the investors and the general partner of the distributable proceeds of a fund, including operating income, dividends, and capital proceeds.

Dodd-Frank Act | The Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act.

Drawdown notice | Notification from a fund manager to an investor that a capital call to investors is being made, which typically must be funded either directly or by offset of distributable proceeds within 10 business days.

Economic terms | Refers to all of the economic terms and conditions specified in the limited partnership agreement of the fund, in particular the management fee and the distribution waterfall.

EEA | European Economic Area, which consists of the member states of the European Union and three of the four member states of the European Free Trade Association (Iceland, Liechtenstein, and Norway).

ERA | Exempt reporting adviser under the Advisers Act.

ERISA | The U.S. Employee Retirement Investment Security Act of 1974, which is particularly relevant for purposes of fund investments made by U.S. private pension plans. ERISA imposes stringent fiduciary standards of conduct in furtherance of its primary goal of safeguarding the interests of participants and beneficiaries of employee benefit plans.

ESG | Environmental, social and corporate governance.

EuSEF | European Social Entrepreneurship Fund.

Excess business holdings | Generally, a portion of a private foundation’s investment in a corporation or other entity conducting a business that is not substantially related to the exempt purposes of the private foundation and exceeds 20% of the voting power of such a corporation (or 20% of the beneficial or profits interests in such an unincorporated entity).

FCPA | The Foreign Corrupt Practices Act.

Feeder funds | Special purpose vehicles through which one or more investors invest in a fund, formed to accommodate those investors’ tax or other considerations. See also Appendix B.

Fiscally transparent entity | Generally, an entity that is not subject to tax itself, but whose income, losses, credits and deductions flow through to, and are included currently in the income of, the equity investors in the entity as if the items were realized directly by such equity investors.

Flexible Purpose Corporations | Generally, a California corporation that meets certain requirements and specifies in its charter that it has a “special purpose,” which can include a charitable or public purpose.

FOIA | The U.S. Freedom of Information Act, requiring certain investors (such as public pension plans) to provide otherwise confidential information about their investments.

Fund vehicles | All of the lower-tier entities comprising the fund through which investors invest in the fund and the fund makes its investments in portfolio companies. A simple fund may have only one vehicle, in which all investors invest and through which it makes all of its investments directly. Larger funds, accommodating investors globally and making investments globally, may have more complicated structures, including parallel funds, feeder funds and alternative investment vehicles.

Fund-of-funds | An investment strategy of holding a portfolio of other investment funds rather than investing directly in portfolio companies. See also Appendix A.

Fundraising period | The initial, limited period of time during which a fund offers limited partnership interests to prospective investors. See also Appendix B.

General partner (or GP) | Given that U.S. private equity funds are typically formed as limited partnerships, the “general partner” refers to the sponsor entity, usually a newly formed special purpose vehicle in which the exclusive power to manage the fund is vested (which power the general partner may delegate to the investment manager) and which has unlimited liability with respect to the fund’s debts and obligations.

Giveback (or limited partner clawback (chiefly British)) | The amount of returned capital or other distributions that a limited partner may be obligated to return in order to assist the fund in satisfying its liabilities, often limited to liabilities incurred as a result of the fund’s indemnification obligations. The giveback may be limited as to time (typically anywhere between two years after receipt of a distribution and three years following the fund’s termination) and as to amount (set as a percentage of the capital commitment of the limited partner or the distributions received by the limited partner).
Governance terms | Refers to all of the terms and conditions specified in the limited partnership agreement of the fund, which describe in detail the parameters of what the fund can and cannot do. Colloquially, reference to a fund’s governance does not include its economic terms. Governance may be described, in a modified manner, in the “term sheet” of a fund’s private placement memorandum, but the term sheet may omit many carve-outs and exceptions to the terms and conditions contained in the limited partnership agreement. See also Appendix B.

“High water mark” test | Because investors in open-ended funds (which is how hedge funds are typically structured) may acquire and divest themselves of an interest in such funds at different points in time from each other, hedge funds must rely upon the so-called “high water mark” test to determine whether or not any performance fee to the fund manager is applicable to an investor’s interest. A performance fee may only be paid to the fund manager in respect of any interest held by the investor if the net value of the investor’s interest in the fund has increased since the later of the time of the investor’s contribution to the fund and the time the last performance fee was paid to the fund manager with respect to such interest.

ILPA | Institutional Limited Partner Association.

ILPA Principles | A description of standards for key terms in private equity funds that are generally desirable from an institutional investor’s perspective.

Impact investments | Investments made to generate social and environmental impact as well as a financial return to their investors.

Information rights | Refers to the investors’ rights to all information, particularly financial reports, about the fund and its investments as specified in the limited partnership agreement of the fund.

Investment companies | Issuers, such as private funds or mutual funds, that hold themselves out as being engaged primarily in the business of investing or trading in securities. They are required to register under the Investment Company Act unless an exemption can be utilized.

Investment Company Act | The Investment Company Act of 1940, as amended.

Investment period (or commitment period) | The period of time during which the fund manager may drawdown capital commitments for investment in underlying portfolio companies. See also Appendix B.

IRS | The U.S. Internal Revenue Service.

Jeopardizing investments | Investments that will jeopardize a private foundation’s ability in both the short and long term to fulfill its charitable purposes. Jeopardizing investments could lead to the imposition of excise taxes.

Limited partners ("LPs") | Private equity fund investors, called "limited partners" in reference to the typical structure of their investment in a fund as limited partners in a limited partnership.

Low-profit Limited Liability Companies ("L3Cs") | Generally, a for-profit limited liability company that is specifically organized to further one or more charitable or educational purposes to facilitate PRIs.

Management fee | An annual fee, paid quarterly or semi-annually, either in advance or in arrears, by the fund to the fund manager calculated as a percentage of the fund's assets, to ensure a steady stream of income to the management team and cover various costs incurred by the principals in the operation of their business.

Organizational and offering expenses | Expenses incurred in forming and marketing the fund and any related vehicles, including printing, travel, legal, accounting, and filing fees and costs.

Overseas Private Investment Corporation ("OPIC") | The U.S.'s development finance institution.

Parallel funds | Two or more investment vehicles through which investors subscribe to a private fund, each vehicle being formed to cater to the tax and jurisdiction of the anticipated investors. See also Appendix B.

Passive foreign investment company ("PFIC") | Generally, a non-U.S. entity classified for U.S. federal income tax purposes as a corporation that meets either of the following tests for any taxable year: (1) 75% or more of its gross income is "passive income," or (2) 50% or more of its assets, based on their average value for the year, are held for the production of passive income.

Performance fee (or incentive allocation) | Any profit that a hedge fund or other open-ended vehicle pays to its sponsor on a periodic basis, typically subject to a "high water mark" test.

Phantom income | The recognition of income without the contemporaneous receipt of cash sufficient to pay the corresponding tax liability.

Plan assets | The presence or absence of plan assets is crucial in determining whether the fiduciary standards imposed by ERISA apply to a particular fund. Generally, when a U.S. private pension plan invests in another entity, its assets include the investment, but not any of the underlying assets of the entity. In the case of a U.S. private pension plan's investment in an equity interest of a privately-offered fund that is not registered under the Investment Company Act, its assets include both the equity interest (its LP interest in the fund) and an undivided interest in each of the underlying assets of the fund (the fund's portfolio companies), unless it is established that either the fund is an operating company (the so-called VCOC or RBOC exemptions) or equity participation in the fund by benefit plan investors is not significant (the so-called 25% test).
Preferred return (or hurdle rate) | The minimum return that must be received by an investor before any performance-based compensation is paid to the fund manager.

Private offering | Generally, non-public offers and sales of securities to a limited number of qualified investors. Specifically, non-public offers and sales of securities that are exempt from the registration requirements of the Securities Act through utilizing the safe harbors provided by the rules set forth in Regulation D and Regulation S promulgated under the Securities Act.

Private placement memorandum | The primary marketing document of a private equity fund describing the business purpose of the fund. Though not a legally binding document, it still must accurately describe the fund in compliance with anti-fraud rules.

Program related investment (“PRI”) | An exception to the jeopardizing investment rules. For an investment to qualify as a PRI, it must meet the following requirements: (1) the primary purpose of the investment is to accomplish one or more exempt purposes of the foundation, (2) production of income or appreciation of property is not a significant purpose of the investment, and (3) no lobbying activity will be supported.

Qualified clients | Investors who have at least $1 million in assets under management or a net worth of more than $2 million; defined in the Advisers Act.

Qualified purchasers | Highly sophisticated persons that are able to invest in private investment funds relying on the 3(c)(7) exemption, including: natural persons and family-owned companies with at least $5 million in investments; other companies with at least $25 million in investments; certain trusts in which the trustee and each settler are qualified purchasers; companies owned solely by qualified purchasers; qualified institutional buyers (QIBs), including registered investment companies and similar institutions that own and invest on a discretionary basis at least $100 million of unaffiliated securities; and “knowledgeable employees,” such as executive officers and directors of a fund or fund manager and other non-clerical employees of a fund or fund manager who participate in the fund’s investment activities.

Recycling | The ability of a fund to re-deploy capital that has been or could be distributed to its investors. See also Appendix B.

REOC | Real estate operating company.

SEC | The Securities and Exchange Commission.

Securities Act | The Securities Act of 1933, as amended.

Shadow banking | Non-bank credit activity, which performs many of the same functions but is not regulated in the same way as banking.

Side letters | A separate agreement entered into by a fund and an investor that alters or augments the terms of its investment in the fund.
Special limited partner (or carried interest partner) | A special purpose vehicle through which a fund sponsor will invest in the fund and which, in lieu of the general partner, receives all carry distributions. This structure ensures that any carry received is not subject to the unlimited liability of the general partner.

Sponsor | General term of reference for the investment firm forming a private fund.

Subscription agreement (or subscription deed) | The contract between the investor and the fund pursuant to which the investor commits to contributing a certain amount of money (its capital commitment) to the fund when called; agrees to the terms of the limited partnership agreement or other operative agreement governing the fund; and makes certain representations, warranties, and other undertakings concerning its status in order that the fund may ensure that it complies with various tax, regulatory, and other requirements.

Successor fund | A fund having the same investment purpose as an existing fund of a fund sponsor, but raised because the existing fund’s investment period has terminated and it no longer has the ability to raise new capital and seek new investments. See also Appendix B.

U.S. tax-exempt investors | U.S. investors that are generally exempt from taxation under Section 501 of the Code, including private foundations.

United Nations Principles for Responsible Investment (“UNPRI”) | Voluntary and aspirational actions for incorporating ESG issues into investment practices across asset classes.

Unrelated business taxable income (“UBTI”) | Generally, except with respect to certain categories of exempt trading activity, UBTI for any U.S. tax-exempt investor includes: (i) income or gain derived from a trade or business owned directly or through entities treated as fiscally transparent for U.S. federal income tax purposes, the conduct of which is substantially unrelated to the exercise or performance of such investor’s exempt purpose or function; (ii) income derived by such investor from debt-financed property; and (iii) gains derived by a such investor from the disposition of debt-financed property.

VCOC | Venture capital operating company.

Whole fund waterfall (or return of capital waterfall) | Distribution waterfall whereby distributable proceeds are allocated and distributed with respect to all prior investments, irrespective of the investment generating the proceeds, which structure provides that all capital contributions of investors are returned before the general partner begins to receive any of carried interest. Sometimes referred to in Europe as a “European-style” waterfall.
Annual Impact Investor Survey

2016

THE SIXTH EDITION

GIIN
GLOBAL IMPACT INVESTING NETWORK

JPMORGAN CHASE & CO.

UK AID
THE IMPACT PROGRAMME
2016 Annual Impact Investor Survey

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About the Global Impact Investing Network (GIIN)
The GIIN is a nonprofit organization dedicated to increasing the scale and effectiveness of impact investing. Impact investments are investments made into companies, organizations, and funds with the intention to generate social and environmental impact alongside a financial return. The GIIN builds critical infrastructure and supports activities, education, and research that help accelerate the development of a coherent impact investing industry. For more information, see www.thegiin.org.

Acknowledgements

Sponsors
This year, we begin a new stage of the long and fruitful partnership between the GIIN and J.P. Morgan on this report. In previous years, J.P. Morgan’s Social Finance team has worked side-by-side with the GIIN to shape the survey questions, analyze the data, and draft the report. Their team has played a pioneering role in developing this important research. While this year we are excited to have taken on the execution of the project fully in-house, J.P. Morgan has continued to provide valuable support as an anchor sponsor.

The study was also produced with support from the U.K. Government through the Department for International Development’s Impact Programme.

Research support
The Research Team would like to recognize the contributions of various members of the broader GIIN Team. We thank Rebecca Kurland for desk research on key market developments in 2015. For review and input we thank Susan Balloch, Amit Bouri, Ari Cohen, Giselle Leung, Kelly McCarthy, Kimberly Moynihan, Sapna Shah, and Wen-Hua Yang.

Beta testers

Additionally, several GIIN team members beta-tested the survey instrument and provided valuable feedback: Ari Cohen, Giselle Leung, Kelly McCarthy, Peter Murphy, Annie Olszewski, Sapna Shah, Andrew Siwo, and Brett Stevenson.

May 2016
USD 15.2 billion committed by 157 respondents to 7,551 impact investments in 2015
Letter from the CEO

Dear readers,

We live in a data-driven world. This is certainly true in the investing world. And it is especially true in impact investing, a rapidly growing practice of using investments to drive critical social and environmental change. Impact investing, while deeply rooted in both the heart and the head, is a movement where data can play a key role in guiding us to a better world.

As such, I am pleased to introduce the 2016 Annual Impact Investor Survey. This is the sixth edition of our landmark report, the world’s most comprehensive annual survey of the impact investing market. Each year we look to build on previous surveys, to support those already making impact investments, and help orient those looking to start. This year’s research includes important information around investor perspectives, highlighting respondent views on topics such as impact measurement, liquidity and other key challenges, and investment decision-making processes.

Reflecting momentum that has been indicated in various other forms—interest from multiple governments and global leaders, increased media coverage, and a growing GIIN membership body that now includes over 220 organizations across the world—this research shows significant activity in 2015, as well as investor plans to increase commitments in 2016. While signs of growth are important and encouraging, we want to celebrate more than growth alone; I am particularly excited by this survey’s important data about gains in market sophistication.

The respondents, a diverse and active group of impact investors, noted progress against key areas of development in the impact investing industry. They reported seeing more research and data available, improvements in the availability of trained professionals, and more high-quality investment opportunities. Additionally, as impact measurement is a core component of impact investing, we at the GIIN are especially encouraged to note that 99% of respondents report that they measure impact, with 65% using metrics aligned with IRIS, the GIIN’S catalog of social and environmental metrics.

A key takeaway I’d like to emphasize is that the data show impact investing is no longer a nascent market. Investors around the world have been hard at work to grow and improve this market—demonstrating that investments can and should be directed toward addressing some of the most pressing social and environmental challenges. And with momentous levels of importance being placed on the COP21 climate agreement and the United Nation’s Sustainable Development Goals, impact investing’s coming of age is particularly timely given the clear role impact investors can play in advancing such global efforts. We thank impact investors for their leadership. And we thank you for your readership.

I welcome your thoughts and reactions.

Amit Bouri
CEO, Global Impact Investing Network
abouri@thegiin.org
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Methodology

This report captures data from 158 impact investors collected via a survey distributed between December 2015 and February 2016. Respondents variously answered questions in relation to their activities since inception, specifically in 2015 as well as plans for 2016.

Inclusion criteria

All respondents represent impact investing organizations, not individual investors. In an effort to ensure that respondents have meaningful experience managing impact investments, survey-eligibility criteria required that respondents either: a) have committed USD 10 million in impact investments since their inception and/or b) have closed at least five impact investing transactions. The GIIN provided its definition of impact investing (see Appendix 2), against which respondents self-reported their eligibility.

Sample overlap with previous surveys

The sample for this survey changes to some extent each year, which is important to consider when comparing findings presented in this report with those from previous surveys. Out of the 158 respondents in this year’s sample, 101 also responded in 2015. The Research Team analyzed this overlapping sub-sample to discern changes in activity of the same set of respondents. This analysis is presented where appropriate.

Data accuracy

While the GIIN Research Team conducted basic data checks and sought clarifications as appropriate prior to analysis, all information in this report is based on self-reported data. Respondents were instructed to complete the survey with respect only to their impact investing portfolios. The GIIN provided its definition of ‘impact investing’ as a guide (see Appendix 2), which respondents applied to their portfolios as they saw fit.

Data recoding

A handful of survey questions allowed respondents to provide free-form answers. In order to enable more useful interpretation of responses, where underlying meanings were unambiguous, the GIIN Research Team recoded these free-form responses into more uniform categories or themes.

Role of outliers

As is often the case in research, a handful of outliers in a sample can have outsized influence on aggregate findings. Some respondents to our annual survey manage comparatively large impact investing portfolios. Where appropriate and feasible, this report presents analysis both including and excluding outliers in order to enable more nuanced interpretations of findings.

Scoring method for ranked questions

Throughout the survey, there are several questions where respondents ranked a given set of options relative to each other (e.g., most important challenges or most important reasons for tracking impact). This report presents both the overall rank and a ‘score’ for each answer choice intended to represent how close the rankings are to one another. These scores are calculated by weighting each rank by the number of respondents that selected it and summing those weighted totals. For example, if respondents were asked to rank the top three of a set of options, the score for each option = (number that ranked it first × 3) + (number that ranked it second × 2) + (number that ranked it third × 1). In cases with tied scores, tied answer choices will have the same rank.
Cutting the data by sub-group to extract notable findings

The majority of findings in this report aggregate the responses of all 158 impact investors that responded to the survey. The report also presents notable differences in responses by different sub-groups of respondents—such as, for example, investors with the majority of their capital allocated to a particular asset class or geography. Table i presents a full list of these sub-groups.

Table i: Respondent sub-groups referenced in the report

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-group</th>
<th>Description of the category</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DM-HQ Investors</td>
<td>Respondents headquartered in developed markets</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM-HQ Investors</td>
<td>Respondents headquartered in emerging markets</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fund Managers</td>
<td>Respondents that self-identified as fund managers</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-fund Managers</td>
<td>Respondents that self-identified as any type of organization other than fund manager</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Debt Investors</td>
<td>Respondents that allocate ≥75% of their current impact investment assets under management (AUM) to private debt</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Equity Investors</td>
<td>Respondents that allocate ≥75% of their current impact investment AUM to private equity</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market Rate Investors</td>
<td>Respondents principally targeting risk-adjusted, market rate returns</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Market Investors</td>
<td>Respondents principally targeting below market rate returns, some closer to market rate and some closer to capital preservation returns</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DM-focused Investors</td>
<td>Respondents who allocate ≥75% of their current impact investment AUM to developed markets</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM-focused Investors</td>
<td>Respondents who allocate ≥75% of their current impact investment AUM to emerging markets</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Some investors marked ‘no single HQ location,’ so the total of DM-HQ plus EM-HQ is less than the full sample.
Source: GIIN

Region and sector codes

For brevity, regions and sectors referenced in the report are given shorter names. These codes are shown in Tables ii and iii. The survey instrument did not provide region definitions or lists of countries by region, so responses reflect respondents’ interpretations of each region’s boundaries.

Table ii: Region codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Name of region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DM</td>
<td>Developed Markets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>United States and Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WNS Europe</td>
<td>Western, Northern, and Southern Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>Oceania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM</td>
<td>Emerging Markets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSA</td>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAC</td>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean (including Mexico)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>South Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESE Asia</td>
<td>East and Southeast Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MENA</td>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EECA</td>
<td>Eastern Europe, Russia, and Central Asia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Table iii: Sector codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Name of sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; culture</td>
<td>Arts &amp; culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation</td>
<td>Conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>Energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fin Services (excl. microfinance)</td>
<td>Financial services (excluding microfinance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Ag</td>
<td>Food &amp; agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare</td>
<td>Healthcare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>Housing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and communication technologies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microfinance</td>
<td>Microfinance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASH</td>
<td>Water, sanitation, and hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN
Executive Summary

This report presents the findings of the sixth annual impact investor survey. Across years, the survey has maintained a core set of questions on investor activity and perspectives. This year’s report also includes deeper consideration of topics such as the use of social and environmental data, responsible exits, and investment decision-making. Special sections throughout the report highlight notable market developments in 2015 based on secondary research.

Sample characteristics

One hundred fifty-eight organizations responded to this year’s survey. The sample of respondents includes a diverse group of impact investors spanning various geographies, organization types, and return philosophies.

- Most organizations in the sample are headquartered in developed markets, with 44% based in North America and 32% based in WNS Europe. Meanwhile, 20% of organizations in the sample are headquartered in emerging markets.\(^1\)

- Nearly 60% of respondents are fund managers, with foundations the next-largest category at 13%. Other categories include banks (6%), development finance institutions, family offices, and pension funds/insurance companies (2-3% each).

- Six in ten respondents principally target risk-adjusted, market rate returns, while 25% target ‘below market rate returns: closer to market rate’ and 16% target ‘below market rate returns: closer to capital preservation.’

Investment activity

In total, respondents committed more than USD 15 billion to impact investments in 2015 and plan to commit 16% more capital than that in 2016.\(^2\)

- Respondents committed a total of USD 15.2 billion to 7,551 impact investing deals in 2015 (Table iv).

- In 2016, respondents plan to increase capital committed by 16% to USD 17.7 billion and number of deals by 55% to 11,722.

Table iv: Number and size of investments made and targeted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2015 Reported</th>
<th>2016 Planned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of</td>
<td>Capital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>deals</td>
<td>committed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>7,551</td>
<td>15,231</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

- Among 97 organizations that provided complete information in both last year’s and this year’s surveys,\(^3\) capital committed decreased slightly (by 7%), while the number of deals completed increased by 2%.

---

1. The other 3% of organizations have no single headquarters location.
2. This figure excludes one respondent for which data could not be verified in time to draft this report.
3. Four of the 101 repeat respondents did not provide complete information to enable comparison.
State of the market
Respondents indicated continued improvements in the sophistication of the impact investing industry. They also described a range of challenges—as well as progress made to surmount them.

- Areas in which respondents indicated the greatest progress include ‘professionals with relevant skillsets,’ ‘research and data on products and performance,’ and ‘sophistication of impact measurement practice’ (where more than 85% indicated either ‘some progress’ or ‘significant progress’).

- The most significant identified challenges to industry growth concerned appropriate types of capital across the risk-return spectrum—especially early-stage (including seed and venture) capital that does not necessarily require high returns—and high-quality investment opportunities with track record (Table v).

Table v: Challenges to the growth of the impact investing industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Available answer choices: “Lack of…”</th>
<th>Progress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>Appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>High-quality investment opportunities (fund or direct) with track record</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>Suitable exit options</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>Innovative deal/fund structures to accommodate investors’ or investees’ needs</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>Common understanding of definition and segmentation of the impact investing market</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>Research and data on products and performance</td>
<td>87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>Sophistication of impact measurement practice</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>Professionals with relevant skill sets</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>Government support for the market</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Respondents ranked the top five challenges from a choice of nine options. Scores are calculated by weighting each rank by the number of respondents that selected it and summing those weighted totals.
Source: GIIN

Asset allocations
Collectively, as of the end of 2015, 156 respondents to this year’s survey managed USD 77.4 billion in impact investing assets.4 Their allocations reflect the diversity of strategies applied in impact investing and include many different geographies, sectors, and asset classes.

Geography
- Capital flows from developed markets—where organizations managing 92% of sample AUM are headquartered—to emerging markets, where roughly half the assets are allocated.

- More than 50 respondents have impact investing allocations in each of SSA, North America, LAC, South Asia, and ESE Asia.

- The top geographies in terms of amount of capital allocated are North America, SSA, and LAC (Figure i).

- There is strong interest in SSA, with 40 respondents planning to increase allocations there during 2016. Many also plan to increase their capital allocated to ESE Asia (30), South Asia (25) and LAC (23) (Figure ii).

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4 Two respondents declined to provide information regarding their assets under management.
Figure i: Total AUM by geography

Outer circle: Full sample: n = 156; total AUM = USD 77.4 billion  
Inner circle: Excluding outliers: n = 153; total AUM = USD 49.5 billion

Full Sample  Excluding Outliers

- 38%  28% North America
- 15%  19% SSA
- 9%  10% LAC
- 9%  11% WNS Europe
- 8%  9% EECA
- 7%  8% South Asia
- 6%  5% ESE Asia
- 3%  4% Oceania
- 2%  2% MENA
- 3%  4% Other

Note: Respondents that allocated to ‘other’ geographies primarily described investments with a global focus and/or investments that span multiple regions.

Source: GIIN

Figure ii: Planned allocation changes by geography during 2016

Source: GIIN

Sector

- There is diversity in sectors of activity, with at least 60 respondents active in each of food & agriculture, healthcare, housing, energy, education, microfinance, and other financial services.

- The largest sectors by asset allocation are housing, microfinance, energy, and other financial services (Figure iii).

- The sector to which the largest number of respondents plan to increase allocations during 2016 is food & agriculture (53 respondents). Forty-three plan to increase to energy and 41 to healthcare (Figure iv).
Instrument

- Of the 158 respondents, 110 are active in private equity, 89 are active in private debt, 55 are active in equity-like debt, and 27 are active in real assets.

- The largest asset classes in terms of AUM-weighted allocations are private debt, real assets, and private equity, though the size of real assets is driven by a few large investors in that asset class.

- Although only seven respondents currently have any allocation to pay-for-performance instruments, 16 plan to assess allocating to this instrument in 2016.
Stage of business

- One hundred twelve (112) respondents invest in growth-stage ventures, 87 invest at venture-stage, and 72 invest in seed/start-up stage businesses. These three stages of business together account for about half of AUM.

- The majority of capital managed by EM-focused investors is allocated to growth-stage and mature companies. In contrast, for DM-focused investors, there is more of a spread across earlier and later stages.

- Most real assets investors have expectations of cash flows within three years or less from the time of investment (14 within one year, eight within one to three years).

Intermediary market

Fund managers play an important role in connecting impact investing capital with investment opportunities.

Investing via funds

- Fifty-five respondents (35% of the full sample) invest via intermediaries.

- ‘GP expertise in investment selection and management’ and ‘access to opportunities in specific sectors’ were the most important motivations for investing via funds.

- When evaluating fund managers, ‘sector expertise’ and ‘impact potential’ were seen as ‘very important’ by more than 70% of respondents that invest through funds.

Fund manager activity

- Ninety-three fund managers responded to the survey.

- Fund managers raised USD 6.7 billion in 2015 (n=71) and plan to raise USD 12.4 billion in 2016 (n=78; Table vi).

Table vi: Capital raised in 2015 and planned capital raise in 2016, USD millions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016 planned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>6,693</td>
<td>12,434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Sixty-two (62) fund managers have raised capital from family offices/high-net-worth individuals (HNWIs), and 57 have raised capital from foundations. While smaller numbers of fund managers have raised capital from banks, pension funds, and DFIs, these three sources have provided the greatest total amount of capital.

- Apart from demonstrating a track record of performance, fund managers generally did not report significant challenges in raising capital from investors.

- For fund managers who have raised more than one fund, most second funds include some investment from first-fund investors—though these repeat investors tend to contribute smaller proportions of the total capital.

- Median fund sizes for private debt and private equity funds are similar (USD 43 and 40 million, respectively). Median fund size for real assets is larger, at USD 129 million (Figure v).
Targeting and measuring social and environmental impact

Impact investors target a range of social and environmental impact themes. Standardized and customized metrics are often used in combination for measuring progress against impact objectives, and a high proportion of respondents reported using data on social and environmental performance for their decision-making.

- At least half of respondents target each of the following social impact themes: access to finance, employment generation, health, education, income/livelihoods, and entrepreneurship.
- Among environmental themes, the top areas of focus are renewable energy, energy efficiency, and clean technology.
- Most respondents (65%) reported using metrics that are aligned with IRIS\(^5\), and the same proportion reported using proprietary metrics and frameworks. Slightly more than half (56%) reported using qualitative information (Figure vi).

**Figure vi: How social/environmental performance is measured**

Respondents could select multiple options; number of respondents that selected each option shown above each bar.

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5 IRIS is the catalog of generally accepted performance metrics managed by the GIIN. See http://iris.thegiin.org/. Since some standard frameworks and assessments, such as GIIRS, are built using IRIS metrics, the proportion of respondents using IRIS metrics in some form may be even higher than is reflected here.
The most common ways of seeking impact are by selling products/services that benefit a target population (82% of respondents) or by providing employment to a target population (66%). Roughly half of respondents report seeking impact by selling products/services that benefit the environment (54%) and pursuing operational improvements that benefit the environment (48%).

Most respondents integrate responsibility for managing social and environmental performance into their investment teams (56%) or share this responsibility between dedicated staff and investment teams (23%). Only 1% relies on external expertise for measuring impact performance.

Eighty percent of respondents use data on investees’ social and environmental performance for decision-making. Of those who do so, four in five use such data for pre-screening or due diligence, and over 55% use it to improve their investment management and to inform portfolio allocation decisions.

**Investment performance**

Respondents to the survey indicated high levels of satisfaction with their investment performance.

**Performance**

- Average gross return expectations for debt were 5.4% in developed markets and 8.6% in emerging markets. For equity, average gross return expectations were 9.5% in developed markets and 15.1% in emerging markets.

- The vast majority of respondents reported that their investments have performed either in line with or exceeded both impact and financial expectations (Figure vii).
  
  - Eighty-nine percent (89%) reported financial performance in line with or better than their expectations, and 99% reported impact performance in line with or better than expectations.

- While most respondents did not experience any major risk events in 2015, the greatest perceived risk factor remains ‘business model execution & management risk,’ followed by ‘liquidity & exit risk.’

Figure vii: Performance relative to expectations

n = 151; Some respondents chose ‘not sure,’ and their responses are not included here.

Source: GIIN
Private equity exits

- Across last year’s and this year’s surveys, a total of 33 respondents reported on 113 private equity exits that took place between 2008 and 2015.

- Microfinance and other financial services were the sectors with the most exits, with 25 and 14 exits each, respectively. There were also 13 exits in healthcare.

- Most exits took place in North America (29) and South Asia (27).

- Respondents held their investments for an average of 58 months before exiting, and most sold their entire stakes.

- A third of investments were sold to strategic buyers, and a third were sold to financial buyers.

![Figure viii: Sample private equity exits by sector, 2008 - 2015](image1)

![Figure ix: Sample private equity exits by region, 2008 - 2015](image2)

Responsible exits

- Fifty-three percent (53%) of respondents believe that impact investors have a responsibility to try to ensure the continuity of impact after they exit for all types of investments, and a further 29% believe that they have this responsibility for some types of investments.

Investment decision-making

Forty-six respondents allocate capital to both conventional and impact investments. The top reasons these respondents allocate capital to impact investments are commitment as a responsible investor, an efficient way to meet impact goals, and response to client demand. Many of these respondents use either the same or a similar process to make investment decisions for both conventional and impact investments.
Sample Characteristics

In order to better contextualize the analysis, this section provides information on various background characteristics of the respondent sample.

Map of respondent headquarters locations

n = 158

Note: Four respondents did not have a single headquarter location and are not depicted on the map above.
Source: GIIN

Headquarters locations

Headquarters locations are shown in Figures 1 and 2. Most organizations in the sample are headquartered in developed markets, with 44% of organizations based in North America and 32% based in WNS Europe. Meanwhile, 20% of organizations are headquartered in emerging markets.6

6 The remaining organizations have no single headquarters location.
Figure 2: Location of sample headquarters by number of respondents

n = 158

- 44% North America
- 32% WNS Europe
- 6% SSA
- 6% LAC
- 3% South Asia
- 3% ESE Asia
- 2% Oceania
- 1% MENA
- 3% No single HQ

Source: GIIN

Organization type

Among 158 total respondents, 93 organizations (59%) identified as fund managers. A further 21 organizations (13%) identified as foundations (Figure 3). A greater proportion of respondents headquartered in emerging markets are fund managers (77%) compared to the proportion of fund managers among all respondents headquartered in developed markets (53%).

Figure 3: Organization type by number of respondents

n = 158

- 59% Fund manager
- 13% Foundation
- 6% Bank/diversified financial institution
- 3% Family office
- 3% DFI
- 2% Pension fund/insurance company
- 14% Other

Note: ‘Other’ includes non-profit organizations, credit unions, community development finance institutions, and hybrid organizations that cannot easily be classified.
Source: GIIN
Year of first impact investment

Over half of respondents (87) made their first impact investment within the last ten years (Figure 4). Among the remaining 71 respondents, 21 (or 13% of the full sample) made their first impact investment before 1995. Seventy-seven percent (77%) of EM-HQ respondents made their first impact investment during the last ten years, compared to 49% of DM-HQ respondents that did so.

Figure 4: Year of first impact investment

n = 158; Left axis bar chart: Number of organizations that started investing that year; Right axis line graph: Cumulative

Target returns sought

Nearly 60% of respondents primarily target ‘risk-adjusted, market rate returns’ (Figure 5), while a quarter of respondents primarily target ‘below market rate returns: closer to market rate’ and 16% target ‘below market rate returns: closer to capital preservation.’ Later analysis throughout this report will split investors into two categories based on the returns they seek: Market Rate and Below Market respondents.

Figure 5: Target financial returns principally sought by number of respondents

n = 158

Source: GIIN
Notable New Entrants and Activity

In the past few years, major institutional investors,7 such as Zurich Insurance and AXA Group, have entered the impact investing market. That momentum continued to build in 2015, with impact investing gaining traction with additional institutional investors. The examples below reflect growing interest in the impact investing industry from some of the world’s leading investing firms.

- In February 2015, BlackRock Inc.8 announced the creation of BlackRock Impact,9 which will deploy both equity and debt globally into investment solutions that produce measurable social and environmental outcomes.5 The unit will also manage over USD 225 billion already with the firm in values-aligned strategies. BlackRock appointed Deborah Winshel, formerly of the Robin Hood Foundation, as a Managing Director and the first global head of impact investing at the firm.

- In April 2015, Bain Capital, LP10 announced the formation of a new unit focused on impact investing. The unit plans to raise funds from high-net-worth individuals, public pensions, and endowments to invest in companies and projects that promote broader social good. Investments will focus primarily on the U.S. and will span sectors including health, energy, education, environment, and neighborhood development. Former Massachusetts Governor Deval Patrick joined the private equity firm as Managing Director and is tasked with overseeing the new unit.10

- In July 2015, Goldman Sachs Asset Management announced that it would acquire Imprint Capital, an investment advisory firm exclusively focused on impact investing. While Goldman Sachs has been active in impact investing for many years, its acquisition of Imprint will deepen its capacity to deliver environmental, social, and effective governance (ESG) impact and impact investing opportunities.11

- Also in September, Australian Superannuation fund HESTA announced a partnership with Social Ventures Australia to launch the Social Impact Investment Trust. HESTA committed AUD 30 million to the trust, which is one of Australia’s largest impact funds. The fund aims to raise AUD 100 million to invest in opportunities that improve employment, education, housing, and health.12

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7 ‘Institutional investor’ in this context means a large organization, such as a bank, pension fund, or insurance company, that makes substantial and varied investments.
Investment Activity

Capital committed since inception

Respondents collectively reported USD 116.2 billion in capital committed for impact investments since inception, at an average of USD 735 million and median of USD 87 million. Notably, USD 43.8 billion (38% of total capital committed since inception) has been committed by just three respondents.13

Activity in 2015 and plans for 2016

Among the full sample, respondents committed USD 15.2 billion to 7,551 deals in 2015, with a median amount of USD 12 million of capital committed to a median of nine impact investment deals (Table 1).14 (Notably, the four largest respondents accounted for USD 7.0 billion of this total.) These respondents plan to increase their capital committed in 2016 by 16% to USD 17.7 billion and plan to increase their deal volume by 55% to 11,722 deals. Specifically, 110 (70%) plan to increase the number of deals they make in 2016, and 91 (58%) plan to increase the amount of capital committed (Figure 6). Meanwhile, 30 respondents (19%) plan to decrease the number of deals they make in 2016, while 33 (21%) plan to decrease the amount of capital they will commit.

Table 1: Number and size of investments made and targeted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2015 Reported</th>
<th>2016 Planned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of deals</td>
<td>Capital committed (USD millions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>7,551</td>
<td>15,231</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Considering investors by type, there are some notable contrasts between investors primarily using private equity and those primarily using private debt (Figure 7). The median Private Equity respondent completed four transactions and committed USD 10 million in capital in 2015, while the median Private Debt respondent completed 23 transactions and committed USD 28 million during the year.

Survey data indicated less variation by region, with the median EM-focused investor completing nine transactions and committing USD 12 million in capital, while the median DM-focused investor completed nine transactions and committed USD 11 million. These regional figures are close to the numbers reported above for the overall sample.

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13 Readers will note that there may be some overlap in respondents’ financial commitments as some will invest indirectly through fund managers that have also responded to our survey. We note though, that 73% of the capital managed by our respondents is invested directly into companies or projects, and any potential overlap will only relate to the percentage invested indirectly.

14 Excludes one respondent for which data could not be verified in time to draft this report.
Looking at the year ahead, most organization types plan modest growth in aggregate (Table 2). Fund managers and pension funds/insurance companies project the greatest growth in 2016 in terms of the amount of capital they intend to commit. Overall, banks and diversified financial institutions plan to commit less total capital while, conversely, still anticipating an increase in the number of deals they make during the year. Family offices plan a steady level of activity over the next year.

Table 2: Investment activity by organization type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization Type</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>2015 Reported Median</th>
<th>2015 Reported Sum</th>
<th>2016 Planned Sum</th>
<th>2015 Reported Median</th>
<th>2015 Reported Sum</th>
<th>2016 Planned Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fund manager</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7,192</td>
<td>9,463</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,749</td>
<td>8,425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFI</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>978</td>
<td>5,012</td>
<td>4,937</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank/diversified financial institution</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1,609</td>
<td>1,395</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>758</td>
<td>990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pension fund/insurance company</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family office</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>690</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1,464</td>
<td>1,631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>157</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15,231</td>
<td>17,723</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7,551</td>
<td>11,722</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN
Repeat respondents

2014 reported versus 2015 reported

Ninety-seven respondents provided complete information about amount of capital committed and number of deals on both last year’s and this year’s surveys. Among this sample group, capital committed decreased slightly (by 7%), while the number of deals increased by 2% (Figure 8). As shown in Figure 9, nearly half of this sub-group of respondents increased their capital committed (47, 48%) and number of deals (45, 46%), while a similar number decreased their capital committed (46, 47%) and number of deals (43, 44%).

![Figure 8: Reported activity in 2014 and 2015 among repeat respondents](image)

![Figure 9: Number of repeat respondents that increased, decreased, or maintained level of activity, 2014-2015](image)

2015 planned versus 2015 reported

The Research Team also examined how the 97 repeat respondents’ plans for 2015 as indicated in their survey responses last year compared to what they reported in this year’s survey (Table 3). Overall, in 2015, 80% of repeat respondents met or exceeded their planned amount of committed capital and number of deals. However, in aggregate, respondents fell short of their planned amount of committed capital and number of deals by 15% and 14%, respectively.

![Table 3: Capital committed and number of deals in 2015 among repeat respondents](image)

---

15 There were 101 respondents in total across the two years. However, four of these respondents’ surveys had data inconsistencies or inconsistencies in interpretation from one year to the next, so these have been excluded from this analysis.
State of the Impact Investing Market

Progress on indicators of market growth

Respondents were asked to assess progress across a range of indicators of market growth, with high proportions of investors reporting at least some progress on most of these industry-development indicators (Figure 10). In addition, 20% saw ‘significant progress’ in ‘research and data on products and performance,’ and 19% saw ‘significant progress’ in terms of both ‘professionals with relevant skillsets’ and ‘high-quality investment opportunities (fund or direct) with track records’.

Consistent with last year’s survey, the greatest number of respondents saw ‘no progress’ in two areas of market development: government support and suitable exit options. However, even in these two categories, more than half of respondents felt there had been at least some progress over the year.

While one respondent (an investment management firm) commented that local government support has diminished, another felt that governments around the world have awakened to impact investing: “We have seen a significant improvement in the realization by government organizations that development impact can only be achieved in collaboration with the private sector”.

Figure 10: Progress on indicators of market growth

Respondents’ comments on industry progress

“The GIIN/Cambridge Benchmark Report has brought a first example of research on real returns. Often cited as a reference.”
– Foundation

“We have seen a significant improvement in the realization by government organizations that development impact can only be achieved in collaboration with the private sector.”
– Respondent

Source: GIIN
Social Impact Investment Taskforce

In 2014, governments around the world expressed support for impact investing through their support of the Social Impact Investment Taskforce. This task force, established under the UK presidency of the G8, included several working groups and national advisory boards for the countries involved. Respondents were asked how this activity had affected their work in the year since. Among 39 respondents commenting on the task force, about half indicated that the Taskforce has had some positive impact. Fourteen (36%) felt the Taskforce had elevated awareness of impact investing among governments, institutional investors, and the general public. Two respondents (5%) were involved on the advisory board or in local efforts, and two other respondents (5%) had adjusted their impact strategies to reflect the recommendations of the Taskforce. However, 21 (54%) also said they have not yet felt any impact on their activities.

Respondents from three countries noted specific actions taken by their governments in response to the Taskforce: Canada has taken initial steps to develop a DFI, the French Development Agency has established dedicated impact investing facilities, and Israel has issued its first social impact bonds and a “matching fund to support employment of underserved populations.”

Challenges

The two most critical challenges to industry growth identified by respondents this year are the same as have been identified for the past three years: ‘lack of appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum’ and ‘lack of high-quality investment opportunities (fund or direct) with track record’ (Table 4). Nonetheless, as noted above, a majority of respondents also saw at least some progress in these two areas. The area in which the least number of respondents saw at least some progress was ‘suitable exit options’ and this ranked as the third-greatest challenge overall.

### Table 4: Challenges to the growth of the impact investing industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Available answer choices: “Lack of…”</th>
<th>Progress</th>
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<td>Appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum</td>
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<td>High-quality investment opportunities (fund or direct) with track record</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<td>Common understanding of definition and segmentation of the impact investing market</td>
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<td>220</td>
<td>Research and data on products and performance</td>
<td>87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>Sophistication of impact measurement practice</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>Professionals with relevant skill sets</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>Government support for the market</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Respondents ranked the top five challenges from a choice of nine options. Scores are calculated by weighting each rank by the number of respondents that selected it and summing those weighted totals.

### Respondents’ comments on the Social Impact Investment Taskforce

“I have learned a lot from other country’s [sic] experiences and the process has expanded my view of the broader global narrative on impact investing and how it is perceived or interpreted.”
– Foundation

“The taskforce’s work had little to no direct effect on our activities, but it did help raise the impact investing industry’s profile, lending the practice greater credibility in the market.”
– Family office

“[We’ve seen] higher interest from all types of investors, [and] launching of an international community [which is] reassuring for the sector.”
– Fund manager

The two most critical challenges to industry growth are consistent across geographies. However, whereas respondents investing primarily in emerging markets ranked ‘lack of suitable exit options’ as the third-greatest challenge, those investing primarily in developed markets ranked ‘lack research and data on performance and products’ third. As noted above, many investors saw some progress in this area, perhaps indicating an appetite for even more research and data.

16 In previous years, the answer choice regarding high-quality investment opportunities did not specify ‘fund or direct’ in the wording.
The topic of definition and segmentation of the impact investing market attracted several interesting comments from respondents. One investor noted there is a “need to move away from a single definition of impact investing—there are different risk, return, and impact characteristics in different sectors, geographies, and deal sizes.” Another (a non-bank financial institution) noted that “we are still seeing that there is often disproportionate focus on financial returns and social/environmental impact is taken for granted. Whereas some types of impact can be generated without sacrificing financial return, we should avoid the conclusion that it is possible to generate all types of impact without sacrificing financial return.”

Respondents that indicated ‘lack of appropriate capital across the risk/return spectrum’ as a challenge were asked to provide more detail regarding where along that spectrum they saw the greatest gap(s). Of the 39 respondents that provided detailed comments, the highest number identified gaps related to stage-of-business or risk tolerance. In terms of stage, many respondents (31) noted a lack of seed, early-, and venture-stage capital. In terms of risk, respondents identified limited availability of risk-willing capital that would accept higher impact in lieu of higher financial returns (12), opportunities for first-loss capital or loan guarantees (4), and a need for analysis and pricing of emerging-market or forex risk (2). Some respondents also noted there is a lack of market rate, risk-adjusted capital (4), and four respondents noted there is a lack of patient, long-term capital. Further, five respondents identified an opportunity for institutional investors to engage more across the entire risk/return spectrum.
2015 saw two important regulatory updates governing the investment activities of private foundations and federally regulated pension funds in the United States, both of which hold promise for encouraging greater capital flows into impact investments.

**Guidance for Foundations**

In September, the U.S. Treasury Department issued guidance stating that private foundations may invest their endowments with an eye towards their own charitable purposes, even if doing so might sacrifice financial returns.17 “When exercising ordinary business care and prudence in deciding whether to make an investment, foundation managers may consider all relevant facts and circumstances, including the relationship between a particular investment and the foundation’s charitable purposes,” the guidance stated.

It further clarified that “foundation managers are not required to select only investments that offer the highest rates of return, the lowest risks, or the greatest liquidity so long as the foundation managers exercise the requisite ordinary business care and prudence under the facts and circumstances prevailing at the time of the investment in making investment decisions that support, and do not jeopardize, the furtherance of the private foundation’s charitable purposes.”

A 2011 study by the Commonfund Institute found that nine percent of private foundations applied ESG criteria to their investment decisions. In 2015, a study, also by the Commonfund—this time in partnership with the Council on Foundations—found that 19% of private foundations used various types of mission-aligned investing strategies, such as negative screening and direct impact investing.18 Thus, the U.S. Treasury’s guidance provides welcome clarity as foundations seem to be increasingly interested in using mission-related investing to further their charitable goals.

**Guidance for Pension Funds**

In October, the U.S. Department of Labor (DoL) issued new guidance for pension funds interested in pursuing “economically targeted investments” (ETIs), a type of impact investment that seeks certain social or environmental goals alongside a market-rate financial return.19

The new DoL guidance is intended to encourage more ETIs. It states that “fiduciaries may consider social and environmental goals as tie-breakers when choosing between investment alternatives that are otherwise equal with respect to return and risk over the appropriate time horizon.” The guidance also clarifies that “environmental, social, and governance issues may have a direct relationship to the economic value of the plan’s investment,” and thus that these issues “are not merely collateral considerations or tie-breakers, but rather are proper components of the fiduciary’s primary analysis of the economic merits of competing investment choices.”

U.S.-based pension funds have a combined USD 17.9 trillion in assets under management.20 According to a survey by Deloitte, as of 2013 only six percent of U.S. pension funds had made an impact investment, but 64% said they expected to make impact investments in the future. This revised ETI guidance can hopefully spur pension funds towards realizing those ambitions.

20 The new guidance only applies to pension plans that are governed by the federal Employment and Retirement Securities Act of 1974 (ERISA), which covers about half of all pension assets under management in the United States. However, in practice, even pension funds that are regulated at the state and local levels have typically adopted some version of the federal ERISA standards. See John Griffith and Diane Yentel, “New Guidance Opens the Door for More Impact Investments by Pension Funds,” Enterprise (blog), October 22, 2015, http://blog.enterprisecommunity.com/2015/10/administration-investments-pension.
Asset Allocations and Future Plans

This section breaks down respondents’ impact investing assets under management (AUM) by region, sector, instrument, and stage of business, as well as noting planned allocation changes during 2016.

Assets under management

As of the end of 2015, 156 respondents to this year’s survey collectively managed USD 77.4 billion in impact investing assets. The average and median impact investing AUM of these respondents were USD 496 million and USD 75 million, respectively, reflecting the fact that a handful of respondents are managing large pools of impact investing assets (Figure 11).

The three largest respondents account for USD 27.9 billion (36%) of the total sample AUM of USD 77.4 billion. Analysis in this section will both include and exclude these outliers to provide readers with more helpful insights.

Figure 11: Distribution of sample AUM

More specifically, the three largest respondents account for USD 27.9 billion (36%) of the total USD 77.4 billion AUM in the sample. As warranted, this section will present analyses that both include and exclude these outliers in order to provide more helpful insights.

21 Two respondents declined to provide AUM information.
AUM by organization type

The volume of impact investing AUM varies by organization type (Figure 12). Fund managers, which account for 57% of the total respondent sample, manage 58% of sample AUM. DFIs, which make up only 3% of the total respondent sample, account for 18% of sample AUM, while banks account for 9% of sample AUM. Overall, the median AUM for DFIs and pension funds/insurance companies are USD 1,742 million and USD 435 million, respectively (Table 5). Fund managers, family offices, and foundations all manage roughly USD 55-80 million at the median.

Figure 12: Total AUM by organization type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization type</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fund manager</td>
<td>44,758</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFI</td>
<td>13,564</td>
<td>3,391</td>
<td>1,742</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank/diversified financial institution</td>
<td>6,882</td>
<td>688</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>3,364</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family office</td>
<td>2,641</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pension fund/insurance company</td>
<td>1,135</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5,058</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>77,402</strong></td>
<td><strong>496</strong></td>
<td><strong>75</strong></td>
<td><strong>156</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

AUM by geographic focus

Impact investors make investments all over the world. Overall, roughly half of assets under management are in developed markets and half are in emerging markets, even though the investors managing the vast majority of this capital are headquartered in developed markets (Figure 2, in the Sample Characteristics section). Excluding outlier investors, 28% of global AUM is allocated to North America and 19% to SSA, with roughly 10% allocated to each of WNS Europe, LAC, EECA, and South Asia (Figure 13).

It is also instructive to consider the number of investors with any allocation to a specific region (Figure 14). The number of investors having any allocation to SSA, LAC, and South Asia is more-or-less on par with the number that have an allocation to North America. Further, nearly half as many investors have some allocation to MENA as do to North America, even though the AUM allocation to these regions is 2% versus 38%, respectively. This suggests that most investors typically have smaller volumes of capital allocated to various emerging markets than they do to North America.
There are some notable differences in geographic allocations between investors (excluding the three outliers) in different segments (Table 6):\(^{22}\)

- Nearly half of assets managed by Private Equity investors are in South Asia and SSA, whereas Private Debt investors have a strong focus on North America, EECA, and LAC.

- Investors headquartered in WNS Europe and North America account for 92% of total sample AUM between them. Those headquartered in Europe tend to have portfolios diversified across the globe (including in WNS Europe itself), whereas those headquartered in North America have a significant allocation to North America itself.

- Nearly a third of assets managed by respondents seeking risk-adjusted, market rate returns is allocated to North America, while more than a third of assets managed by those principally seeking below-market returns is in SSA.

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22 Although the insights described exclude the three large outlier respondents, the conclusions are largely the same if they are included, except that North America becomes a much larger focus for Below Market respondents.
Looking ahead, emerging markets are a key area of focus for impact investors (Figure 15). Forty investors (25%) plan to increase their allocations to SSA over the coming year, while 23-30 (15-19%) are planning to increase their allocations to each of ESE Asia, South Asia, and LAC. Notably, 16 investors (10%) plan to decrease their allocations to EECA.

Figure 15: Planned allocation changes by geography during 2016

Source: GIIN
Research on Impact Investing in Africa

For the past three years, more investors have indicated that they would like to increase their allocations to sub-Saharan Africa than to any other region. Yet detailed information on impact investing in the region has been sparse, until recently. In 2015 and early 2016, several studies aimed to provide insights to help impact investors and other stakeholders better navigate these markets.

Three such studies were published by the GIIN, in partnership with Open Capital Advisors and Dalberg Global Development Advisors, focusing on East, West, and Southern Africa. The figure at right shows the number of active impact investors and relative amounts of capital deployed in all three regions (the majority of activity has been within the past 10 years). In sum, these studies found a total of USD 7.3 billion of private impact investment capital and USD 31.1 billion of capital from development finance institutions deployed across the three regions over the past decade. The studies also break down the deployment of capital by instrument and deal size, along with providing information on the supply of capital, demand for investments, and ecosystem for impact investing in each region.

Additional research published in 2015 about impact investing activity in sub-Saharan Africa reflects broad interest in the region:

- The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) published a report on the trends, constraints, and opportunities for impact investors in Africa. This report explores both the demand and supply of impact investment capital in sub-Saharan Africa and proposes a framework for collaboration between private- and public-sector actors to grow the market.

- The UK Department for International Development (DFID) published a survey of impact investment markets in both sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia as of 2014. The study explored market dynamics, investor perceptions, and recommendations for future investment in both regions.

These studies are important first steps in better understanding impact investment markets at regional and country levels in different parts of the world.

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AUM by sector

Impact investors allocate capital to a wide range of sectors. Microfinance, energy, housing, and other financial services (excluding microfinance) enjoy the greatest aggregate allocations across the sample (Figure 16). Interestingly, however, food & agriculture and healthcare are the sectors to which the greatest number of investors have any allocation (Figure 17), although combined they account for roughly 10% of sample AUM (or 13% excluding outliers). This suggests these sectors have a high number of small allocations.

Figure 16: Total AUM by sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Full Sample</th>
<th>Excluding Outliers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>14%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
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<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>18%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>14%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>14%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
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<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ‘Other’ includes arts & culture, timber, forestry, waste management, pollution control, humanitarian assistance, community revitalization, and childcare.
Source: GIIN

Figure 17: Number of respondents with allocations to a sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Full Sample</th>
<th>Excluding Outliers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Ag</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fin Services (excl. microfinance)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microfinance</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASH</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Culture</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN
There are some interesting contrasts in the sample for various segments:26

- Private Debt investors’ assets are focused in microfinance, with over one-third of their AUM allocated to this sector. By contrast, nearly one-quarter of assets managed by Private Equity investors is allocated to other financial services (excluding microfinance).

- Respondents headquartered in North America have a strong focus on energy and housing, but these respondents have allocated less than five percent of their AUM to microfinance. On the other hand, 43% of assets managed by respondents headquartered in WNS Europe is allocated to microfinance alone.

- Finally, respondents focused on developed markets appear to favor housing and energy, while those focused on emerging markets have a large collective allocation to microfinance.

Table 7: Sector allocations by various segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Asset class focus</th>
<th>Private Debt Investors</th>
<th>Private Equity Investors</th>
<th>Headquarters</th>
<th>Geographic focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>North America</td>
<td>WNS Europe</td>
<td>DM-focused Investors</td>
<td>EM-focused Investors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Ag</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FinServices(excl.microfinance)</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microfinance</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASH</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of Investors: 59 | 45
Total AUM (USD millions): 18,522 | 4,965

Note: Figures in this table exclude the three large outlier respondents.
Source: GIIN

Looking ahead, respondents report a strong interest in increasing their allocations to a range of basic services sectors. Food & agriculture, energy, healthcare, education, and housing are the sectors to which the greatest number of respondents plan to increase allocations (Figure 18).

Figure 18: Planned allocation changes by sector during 2016

Source: GIIN

26 The insights described here exclude the three large outlier respondents. However, the primary conclusions are consistent even for the full sample.
AUM by instrument

Private equity and private debt are the most common instruments used in impact investing, deployed by 110 and 89 respondents, respectively (Figure 20). However, the overall allocation to private debt is much higher than that to private equity, reflecting the fact that some larger investors allocate much more of their capital to private debt. The significant overall allocation to real assets is driven by one very large investor; the adjusted allocation, excluding outliers, is shown in the inner circle of Figure 19.

Figure 19: Total AUM by instrument

Outer circle: Full sample: n = 156; total AUM = USD 77.4 billion
Inner circle: Excluding outliers: n = 153; total AUM = USD 49.5 billion

Source: GIIN

Figure 20: Number of respondents with allocations using an instrument

n = 158

Source: GIIN
It is also useful to examine how allocations by instrument vary with organization type. The figures in Table 8 exclude the three large outlier respondents.27 Of the various asset owners, notably, family offices and pension funds/insurance companies use debt instruments minimally, focusing instead on equity (primarily private equity) and real assets. DFIs and financial institutions, on the other hand, utilize far more debt than equity. Finally, foundations use these two types in roughly equal measure, and fund managers utilize a broad range of instruments, including real assets.

Table 8: Instrument allocation by organization type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bank/financial institution</th>
<th>DFI</th>
<th>Family office</th>
<th>Foundation</th>
<th>Fund manager</th>
<th>Pension fund/insurance company</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>AUM (USD millions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deposits &amp; cash</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>1,597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private debt</td>
<td>78.3%</td>
<td>93.0%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>32.6%</td>
<td>38.8%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>21,585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public debt</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2,964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity-like debt</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private equity</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>40.3%</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
<td>10,442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public equity</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>1,952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real assets</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>42.6%</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay-for-performance instruments</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of investors</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUM (USD millions)</td>
<td>6,882</td>
<td>3,664</td>
<td>2,641</td>
<td>3,364</td>
<td>26,758</td>
<td>1,135</td>
<td>5,058</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures in this table exclude the three large outlier respondents.
Source: GIIN

Looking ahead to 2016, many respondents plan to increase their allocations to private equity, private debt, and equity-like debt (Figure 21). Also worth noting is that 16 respondents (10%) intend to begin to assess pay-for-performance instruments (whereas only seven (4%) currently have any allocation to such instruments). Several respondents also plan to decrease their allocations to cash deposits, perhaps signaling their intentions to redeploy this capital into investments.

Figure 21: Planned allocation changes by instrument during 2016

Source: GIIN

27 The conclusions described are consistent even when the full sample is included.
Real assets investors

This year’s survey took a closer look at the activities of the 27 impact investors that reported having some allocation to real assets. As seen in Table 9, a dozen or so of these investors have real asset investments in each of housing, commercial real estate, and land, and seven have investments in community real estate. Among these top four categories, median AUM is highest in land (which includes investments in areas such as forests, rangeland, and agricultural land) and lowest in community real estate (examples of which include charter schools and health clinics).

### Table 9: Allocations to real assets sectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Housing</th>
<th>Commercial real estate</th>
<th>Community real estate</th>
<th>Land</th>
<th>Equipment</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median AUM (USD millions)</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average AUM (USD millions)</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of respondents</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

### AUM by stage of business

Impact investors allocate capital to businesses across various stages, from seed stage all the way to mature companies.28 One hundred and twelve (112) respondents have some allocation to businesses at the growth stage, while 87 allocate to venture-stage and 72 allocate to start-up-stage businesses; 62 have some capital invested in mature, private companies (Figure 23). When considering AUM-weighted allocations, however, mature and growth-stage companies account for the largest share, most likely because transaction sizes in more mature investees are larger (Figure 22).

### Figure 22: Total AUM by stage of business

Valid sample: n = 123; total AUM = USD 68.8 billion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Full Sample</th>
<th>Excluding Outliers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seed/Start-up stage</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venture stage</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth stage</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature, private companies</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature, publicly-traded companies</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

### Figure 23: Number of respondents with allocations to a stage of business

Valid sample: n = 158

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Full Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Growth stage</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venture stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed/Start-up stage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature, private companies</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature, publicly-traded companies</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

28 For definitions of these business stages, see Appendix 2.
The types of investees to which Private Equity and Private Debt investors allocate capital are notably different (Table 10). Nearly 90% of the AUM of those investing primarily via private equity is allocated to investees in the seed, venture, or growth stages. By contrast, roughly half of the AUM of those investing primarily via private debt is placed in mature, private companies, with most of the remainder allocated to growth-stage companies. In addition, investors focused primarily on developed markets tend to allocate significantly more capital to earlier-stage ventures than do investors focused primarily on emerging markets.

Table 10: Business stage allocations by various segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument focus</th>
<th>Geographic focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private Equity Investors</strong></td>
<td><strong>Private Debt Investors</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed/Start-up stage</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venture stage</td>
<td>26.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth stage</td>
<td>48.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature, private companies</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature, publicly-traded companies</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Number of investors | 45 | 59 | 78 | 61 |
| Total AUM (USD millions) | 4,552 | 14,902 | 20,318 | 13,960 |

Note: Figures in this table exclude the three large outlier respondents.
Source: GIIN

Real assets investors

For roughly one in six respondents, the business-stage categories discussed above are not relevant, as these impact investors invest in projects or real assets rather than in companies. This year, real asset investors were asked to describe how quickly they expected their investments to generate cash flows (at the time of investment). This question is roughly analogous to ‘stage of business.’

Twenty-five respondents (of a total 27 with an allocation to real assets) answered this question. Of these, 14 expected initial cash flow from at least some of their investments within one year, and eight expected initial cash flows in 1-3 years (Figure 24). Only one respondent expected to wait more than 10 years before realizing any cash flows from its real asset investments.

Figure 24: Minimum waiting period for expected cash flows from real asset investments by number of respondents

Source: GIIN
The Intermediary Landscape

Respondents were asked to provide in-depth information about the intermediary landscape in the impact investing industry. This section includes the perspectives of both investors that invest via intermediaries and the fund managers themselves.

Motivations for investing through funds
Fifty-five respondents to this year’s survey (35%) indicated that they invest via funds or intermediaries (regardless of whether they also invest directly into companies or projects), outlining a range of motivations for doing so. The most important factor identified was ‘GP expertise in investment selection and management.’ Access to sector-specific opportunities and diversification benefits ranked overall as the second- and third-most important reasons (Table 11).

Table 11: Motivations for investing through funds/GPs
A weighted ‘index’ is shown for each option, with ‘3’ indicating the highest importance and ‘1’ the lowest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>EM-focused investors</th>
<th>DM-focused investors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GP expertise in investment selection and management</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>2.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to opportunities in specific sectors</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversification/risk benefits versus investing directly</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to opportunities in specific geographies</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deploying capital efficiently / avoiding transaction costs associated with small investments</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Respondents were asked to rank each motivation as either ‘very important’, ‘somewhat important’ or ‘not important.’ The ‘index’ in the above table was calculated by allocating a score of ‘3’ to ‘very important’, ‘2’ to ‘somewhat important’ and ‘1’ to ‘not important.’ The sum of these scores was then divided by the number of respondents. So, if all respondents were to choose ‘very important’ for a particular option, the index would be 3. A range is provided for ‘n’ because some respondents chose ‘N/A or not sure’ for certain options; these responses are not included in the index.

Source: GIIN

Investors focused primarily on emerging markets and those focused primarily on developed markets expressed notably different motivations. EM-focused investors highlighted access to geographically specific opportunities as a particularly compelling reason for investing through intermediaries, while scoring diversification benefits the lowest. DM-focused investors, on the other hand, attached high importance to the benefits of diversification but scored access to geographically specific opportunities the lowest.

29 A few respondents provided additional factors not offered in the answer choices, including ‘GP proximity for portfolio management,’ ‘GP expertise in supporting portfolio companies,’ ‘knowledge of local context,’ and ‘access to networks.’
**Considerations when evaluating fund managers**

Respondents were asked to rate the importance they place on various factors when evaluating fund managers. The findings are illustrated in Figure 25. First, while over 70% of respondents identified impact potential as a ‘very important’ factor in evaluating fund managers, just 20% assessed impact measurement expertise as ‘very important.’ Overall, respondents also placed much greater emphasis on sectoral expertise than they did on geographic expertise. Notably, though, for investors focused primarily on emerging markets, geographic expertise scored marginally higher than did sectoral expertise.30

**Figure 25: Importance of various factors in evaluating fund managers / GPs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Not a factor at all</th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sector expertise</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact potential</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Track record</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographic expertise</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current pipeline</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fund economics (i.e., fees, hurdle rates, carry structures)</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact measurement expertise</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to co-invest alongside GP in direct deals</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

**Assessment of fund manager skills**

Respondents also assessed fund manager skill levels across a range of attributes. Generally, responses exhibited limited variation, with investors noting that a range of skills related to fund structuring, pipeline development, and marketing were strong in some fund managers and weak in others (Figure 26). Overall, the traits that the highest proportion of respondents identified as being ‘strong in most or all fund managers’ (roughly 30% of respondents) were related to fund structuring and fund administration, and the traits that the highest proportion of respondents identified as being ‘weak in most or all fund managers’ (roughly 10% of respondents) were related to pipeline development and portfolio management.

**Figure 26: Assessment of fund manager skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Weak in most or all fund managers</th>
<th>Strong in some, weak in others</th>
<th>Strong in most or all fund managers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structuring of fund</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fund administration</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structuring of investments</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pipeline development</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio management</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing a compelling impact thesis and strategy</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing (e.g., in-person pitch)</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

30 A few respondents provided additional factors not offered in the answer choices. Several of these related to the fund’s management team, such as “team’s history working together”, “team composition” and, simply, “investment team.” Another write-in answer was “commitment to/integration of impact in investment strategy.”
Fund manager activity

Funds managed

In total, 93 fund managers responded to this survey, 90 of which submitted information on the number of funds they manage. These 90 fund managers currently manage 434 impact investing funds. However, it should be noted that two respondents reported managing 182 funds between them. Most fund managers reported that they currently manage one, two, or three funds (Figure 27), with a median of two funds.

Figure 27: Number of current and past funds managed by number of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of funds managed</th>
<th>Current funds</th>
<th>Past funds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One fund</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two funds</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three funds</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four funds</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five funds</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than five funds</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Capital raising

Fund managers raised nearly USD 6.7 billion (n=71) in capital in 2015 and plan to raise USD 12.4 billion (n=78) in 2016 (Table 12). The volumes of funds raised in 2015 by fund managers that primarily target emerging markets and those that primarily target developed markets were more or less equivalent, although about twice as many individual fund managers targeted emerging markets. At the median, EM-focused fund managers raised USD 10 million in 2015, compared to USD 30 million raised at the median for DM-focused fund managers. Fund managers headquartered in emerging markets raised USD 866 million (median USD 5 million; n=17), while those headquartered in developed markets raised USD 5.6 billion (median USD 25 million; n=50).

Table 12: Capital raised in 2015 and planned capital raise in 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>EM-focused investors</th>
<th>DM-focused investors</th>
<th>EM headquartered</th>
<th>DM headquartered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>6,693</td>
<td>12,434</td>
<td>3,055</td>
<td>5,710</td>
<td>2,977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN
Fund managers raise capital from a wide variety of investor types. Roughly 60 fund managers reported raising at least some capital from family offices and foundations, and just under 40 reported raising some capital from banks, DFIs, and pension funds/insurance companies (Figure 28).

Figure 28: Number of fund managers who have raised capital from various investor types

Source: GIIN

Overall, pension funds/insurance companies and banks are the largest sources of capital for fund managers. However, sources of capital do vary by geographic focus and asset class (Table 13).

- Over 20% of capital raised by fund managers primarily focused on emerging markets comes from DFIs, while fund managers primarily focused on developing markets report raising almost no capital from DFIs.31

- Private Equity fund managers raise nearly one-third of their capital from family offices and HNWIs, while Private Debt fund managers raise very little from this segment. Instead, Private Debt fund managers report raising significantly more capital from banks and retail investors than do Private Equity fund managers.

- Last, but not least, fund managers of all types report raising sizeable amounts of capital from pension funds/insurance companies.32

Table 13: Fund manager sources of capital (AUM-weighted)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source: GIIN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of fund managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>EM-focused Investors</th>
<th>DM-focused Investors</th>
<th>Private Debt Investors</th>
<th>Private Equity Investors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bank/diversified financial institution</td>
<td>17.7%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>28.2%</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFI</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endowment (excluding Foundation)</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family office/HNWI</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>30.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fund of funds manager</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pension fund or Insurance company</td>
<td>28.5%</td>
<td>25.7%</td>
<td>40.8%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail investor</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures in this table exclude the three large outlier respondents.

31 Although not shown, fundraising by managers headquartered in EM vs. DM follows a similar pattern.

32 These findings do not differ markedly if outliers are excluded. For both the ‘overall’ and ‘DM-focused’ segments, ‘pension funds/insurance companies’ becomes the top-ranked category, and ‘bank/diversified financial institution’ becomes second-ranked; otherwise, the numbers are the same.
Challenges in fundraising

Fund managers were asked to provide their opinions on the challenges they face in raising capital (Figure 29). Strikingly, a majority of respondents considered most of these factors to be ‘not a challenge.’ The only factor that a majority of respondents considered at least a ‘slight challenge’ was ‘demonstrating a track record.’

**Figure 29: Fund manager challenges in raising capital**

Listed in order of number of respondents selecting ‘significant challenge’. Some respondents chose ‘not sure/not applicable’, and these responses are not included.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>n=89</th>
<th>n=85</th>
<th>n=86</th>
<th>n=91</th>
<th>n=71</th>
<th>n=83</th>
<th>n=85</th>
<th>n=85</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrating track record (of financial performance or impact)</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment size being sought by investor is too large</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment size being sought by investor is too small</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrating viable pipeline of investments</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient GP capital commitment to fund</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investor believes there is too much focus on impact performance management</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fund lacks sector or geographic specialization</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investor believes there is too little focus on impact performance management</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Investor continuity

Fund managers who have raised more than one fund were asked two questions to gauge repeat interest from investors. Out of 41 fund managers who responded to the question, 56% said that ‘most’ or ‘all’ investors from their first funds had invested in their second funds (Figure 30). Only 10% said that none of the investors from their first funds had invested in their second funds.

Respondents were also asked what proportion of capital in their second funds came from investors who had invested in their first funds. Out of 40 responses to this question, 52% noted that the majority of capital in their second funds came from those who had invested in their first funds, while 33% noted that less than 25% of capital in their second funds came from those who had invested in their first funds (Figure 31).

**Figure 30: Proportion of investors in first fund who invested in second fund**

n = 41. Some respondents chose ‘N/A’, and these responses are not included.

Source: GIIN

**Figure 31: Proportion of capital in second fund from investors in first fund**

n = 40

Source: GIIN
Fund landscape

Several respondents provided detailed economic information related to the funds they manage, such as fund size, asset class, fund term, and carried interest. In aggregate, 90 fund managers provided information on over 200 funds, with vintage years ranging from 1987 to 2016 (with the vast majority launched within the past decade; Figure 32).

**Figure 32: Number of funds by vintage year**

Left axis: Number of funds per year; Right axis: Cumulative number of funds.

Respondents provided fund size information on 86 PE/VC funds, 42 private debt funds, 35 real asset funds, and 29 multi-asset-class funds. Real asset funds, not surprisingly, generally tend to be larger than private debt and PE/VC funds (Figure 33). However, whereas the median private debt fund is about the same size as the median PE/VC fund (USD 43 million versus USD 40 million), the average private debt fund is much larger—indicating the presence of a handful of very large private debt funds in the sample.

**Figure 33: Distribution of fund size by asset class**

Respondents also provided information on four public equity funds, three public debt funds, and three equity-like debt funds, but these samples are too small for meaningful analysis.
Respondents also provided information on carried interest, the average of which varies substantially by asset class. Carried interest ranges from 1.7% for private debt funds to 17.4% for private equity funds (Table 14).

Table 14: Average carried interest by asset class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Private debt</th>
<th>Private equity/ Venture capital</th>
<th>Real assets</th>
<th>Multiple instruments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average carried interest</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Fund term

Fund terms vary by asset class. Real asset funds skew longer, with two-thirds of such funds having 10-year or longer terms (Figure 34). PE/VC funds are almost all 10-year funds, with a handful having slightly shorter or longer terms. Forty percent of private debt funds have open-ended terms, but of those with fixed terms, most are in the range of 5-9 years.

Figure 34: Fund term by asset class

Multiple funds

Several fund managers provided information on multiple funds they manage (or have managed). Specifically, 27 fund managers provided information on three or more funds. Interestingly, of these, only 14 (i.e., just over half) maintained the same asset class for all funds they have managed. (The others switched, for example, from PE/VC to private debt or from public debt to real assets.)

Eight PE/VC fund managers provided information on exactly three funds each. Table 15 examines this small, yet relatively homogenous sample more closely. Average fund size grew by 50% from USD 41 million for their first funds to USD 62 million for their third funds. In looking at growth between their second and third funds, however, it should be noted that the average vintage year for their third funds is 2014, so these funds may not yet have finished raising capital.

Table 15: Select fund data for PE/VC fund managers that have managed three funds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fund 1</th>
<th>Fund 2</th>
<th>Fund 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average fund vintage year</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average fund size (USD millions)</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td>61.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average carried interest</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN
Impact Investing and the Sustainable Development Goals

In the year 2000, the UN, along with governments and non-governmental organizations around the world, committed to eight priority goals to achieve by 2015, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In September 2015, the UN and other stakeholders adopted the new Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), building on the momentum inspired by the MDGs. The SDGs comprise 17 social and environmental objectives, ranging from the eradication of global poverty to the conservation of the world's oceans and marine resources, each with targets to be met by 2030. Whereas the MDGs were focused on developing countries, the SDGs apply to both developed and developing countries.

The ambitious nature of the SDGs underscores the critical role to be played by private-sector businesses and investors. Even with the support of governments, NGOs, charities, and foundations, a significant funding gap still exists to support the achievement of the SDGs by 2030. For example, for developing countries alone, the shortfall between current aid flows and the investment needed to finance sustainable development is, it has been estimated, around USD 2.5 trillion per year.

Given this global momentum toward aligned action, impact investors have begun to examine their activities in the context of their contributions to the SDGs.

• **Bank of America** aligned its 2012 commitment of USD 50 billion over the next 10 years to advance a low-carbon economy with SDG 7: Affordable and clean energy. In order to achieve its goal, Bank of America will employ a wide range of financing tools, including lending, equipment finance, capital-market and advisory activity, carbon finance, and advice and investment solutions for clients.

• **Deutsche Bank** has shown interest in pursuing strategies to support the SDGs. Deutsche Bank Asset Management is a member of the Sustainable Development Investment Partnership, which intends to mobilize USD 100 billion of private capital within the next five years. In addition, the firm manages several public-private partnership funds in support of various SDGs, including the Essential Capital Consortium and the Africa Agriculture and Trade Investment Fund. Deutsche Bank also achieved accreditation for the UN’s Green Climate Fund, which allows for joint product development in support of financing SDG 13: Climate action.

• **The Inter-American Development Bank (IDB)** committed to advance partnerships related to the SDGs, particularly to SDG 2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture. The IDB plans to support the development of environmentally sustainable agriculture in Latin America and the Caribbean, a region particularly affected by malnutrition.
2015 MARKET DEVELOPMENT

• **Mkoba Private Equity Fund** committed to assess the impact of its USD 150 million fund on the SDGs. The fund invests in small and medium-sized enterprises engaged in agriculture and agribusiness, manufacturing, innovative technologies, mobile payment systems, and city services in six developing countries. The investment team will also help investees track their contributions to the SDGs at the company level.39

• **Sarona Asset Management** is embedding the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) framework in the way it measures and evaluates the impact of its investments.40 Sarona completed an analysis of how the 49 companies that were in Sarona Frontier Markets Fund 2’s portfolio at the end of September 2015 relate to the SDGs. The firm found that the companies contribute to 16 out of the 17 SDGs, and 105 out of the 169 underlying targets. Sarona shares this analysis with existing and potential investors.

• **Sonen Capital** examined its portfolio’s alignment with the SDGs. Its annual impact report41 describes how its investments in areas such as clean power, sustainable timber, and green real estate contribute to seven of the SDGs. The report also maps Sonen’s three investment strategies—public equities, fixed income, and real assets—to these seven SDGs.

Several resources were developed in 2015 to help investors and businesses that seek to contribute to the new global priorities. Investors and business may, for example, wish to take advantage of new financial structures (such as blended finance) or align with impact metrics (as outlined in the SDG compass).

• **Blended Finance Vol. 1: A Primer for Development Finance and Philanthropic Funders** developed by the OECD and World Economic Forum

• **SDG Compass** developed by the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), United Nations Global Compact (UNGC), and World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD)

• **Investing in Sustainable Development Goals** published by the UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)

• **More than the Sum of Its Parts: Making Multi-Stakeholder Initiatives Work** developed by the Global Development Incubator (GDI), USAID, and the Omidyar Network

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Targeting and Measuring Social and Environmental Impact

Impact goals

Setting impact goals is the first step in measuring and managing the social and environmental performance of impact investments. Nearly half of respondents (48%) report primarily targeting social impact goals, while about the same number (47%) target both social and environmental impact goals. Five percent of respondents primarily target environmental goals (Figure 35). This breakdown is generally similar to last year’s, although a slightly higher percentage indicated ‘both’ this year, with a smaller percentage targeting ‘social’ impact goals alone.

There is some variation by geographic focus of investments. Compared to EM-focused respondents, a higher proportion of DM-focused respondents target primarily environmental impact goals (11%; 45% social and 44% both), whereas just 1% of EM-focused respondents focus primarily on environmental goals (55% social and 44% both).

Figure 35: Primary impact objectives

Source: GIIN
Social impact themes

Respondents shared information on more specific social and environmental themes of focus. The most commonly targeted social impact themes (Figure 36) were access to finance (109 respondents, 68%), employment generation (94, 60%), and health improvement (82, 52%). Education access or improvement and income growth/livelihoods support were each selected by 81 respondents, or 51% each of the full sample.

Figure 36: Social impact themes targeted by number of respondents

Respondents could select multiple options; number of respondents that selected each option shown above each bar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Access to finance</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment generation</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health improvement</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education (access and/or improvement)</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income growth or livelihoods support</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural productivity</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable housing</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community development</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to energy</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food security</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic infrastructure</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to information</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights protection or expansion</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Six respondents selected ‘other’ and indicated themes including arts and culture, youth development, aboriginal housing, property rights, enhanced IT services, and women’s empowerment.
Source: GIIN

Which social impact themes respondents target is generally very consistent across various segments of the respondent set, with the following noteworthy exceptions:

- ‘Community development’ is the most popular theme for organizations primarily focused on developed markets and the second-most popular theme for organizations headquartered in North America.
- Agricultural productivity is the third-most popular theme for organizations primarily targeting emerging markets.
- Access to energy is the third-most popular theme for organizations headquartered in WNS Europe.

Environmental impact themes

In terms of targeted environmental impact themes (Figure 37), the most popular among respondents is renewable energy (74 respondents, 47% of total sample), followed by energy efficiency (66, 42%) and clean technology (61, 39%).

Figure 37: Environmental impact themes targeted by number of respondents

Respondents could select multiple options; number of respondents that selected each option shown above each bar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Renewable energy</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy efficiency</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean technology</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate change mitigation</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable consumption</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land conservation/rehabilitation</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biodiversity conservation</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate change adaptation</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green real estate/green building</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water resources management</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ocean conservation</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Three respondents selected ‘other’ and indicated themes including soil conservation and halting deforestation.
Source: GIIN
A few segments’ top environmental impact themes varied from the overall sample; otherwise, top themes by segment were very similar to the overall sample.

- For EM-focused investors, clean technology was the second-most popular environmental theme, and climate change mitigation was third.

- For respondents headquartered in WNS Europe, climate change mitigation was second-most popular, and energy efficiency was third.

Motivations for investing in climate change themes

Given the increased attention paid to climate change issues in 2015 (see related ‘2015 Market Development’ box on page 39), respondents who selected either ‘climate change mitigation’ or ‘climate change adaptation’ were asked to rank a series of possible motivations for pursuing climate-change-related objectives through their portfolios. Respondents investing in these themes reported being motivated more by their own impact goals than by financing opportunities or the potential for risk mitigation (Table 16).42

Table 16: Motivations for targeting climate-change-related objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>Alignment with my environmental impact goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>Alignment with my social impact goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>Client demand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>Financing opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>To mitigate risk in my portfolio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Respondents ranked all five answer choices. Scores are calculated by weighting each rank by the number of respondents that selected it and summing those weighted totals.

Source: GIIN

Water resources management sub-sectors

To better understand investor interest in water-related themes, the survey asked respondents that target water resources management to provide more specific information about sub-sectors within those targets. The three most common reported sub-sectors (Table 17) were water efficiency technologies, water quality conservation, and wastewater treatment and reuse facilities, each with 27 respondents (77% of the 35 who invest in water resources management). Interestingly, of these 35 respondents, 28 (80%) target both social and environmental impact objectives, and 31 (89%) principally target market-rate returns.

Table 17: Water resources management sub-sectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Percentage of those investing in water resources management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water quality conservation</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water efficiency technologies</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wastewater treatment and reuse facilities</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to clean water</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filtration and desalination technology or infrastructure</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigation</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storage</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water resource use in operations of investees</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water rights</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

42 In early 2016, the GIIN released “Impact Measurement in the Clean Energy Sector,” which demonstrates how social impact goals might drive investment in that sector. An example of a relevant social impact goal is improving access to clean energy for poor or underserved populations. See the full report at: https://thegiin.org/knowledge/publication/network-insights-impact-measurement-in-the-clean-energy-sector.
Impact strategies

Impact investors seek to achieve their impact targets in a variety of ways (Figure 38). The largest number of respondents seeks impact by investing in businesses that sell products or services benefitting a specified target population (129 respondents, 82% of the total sample). Providing employment to target populations is also a common approach (104, 66%).

While these top two strategies are primarily related to social impact, the proportion of respondents applying environmentally oriented strategies this year has decidedly increased compared to last year.43 In particular, the third-most selected option this year was selling products or services that benefit the environment (86, 54%); last year, this option was the least popular of the choices, with 53 respondents out of a slightly smaller total sample of 146 respondents (36%). ‘Integrating our target populations into investee supply or distribution chains’ was third-most popular among below-market-rate investors and fifth for market-rate investors.

Impact management and measurement practices

Impact investors use a range of practices to measure their impact. To better understand these practices, the survey this year collected information about respondents’ motivations, metrics and frameworks, use of data collected, team structure, and challenges.

Motivation

Unsurprisingly, since measuring social and environmental performance is a key feature of impact investing, almost all respondents (95%) expressed that it is ‘very important’ to measure impact because doing so is part of their mission (Figure 39). Many respondents also noted that measurement is important to ‘better understand and improve impact performance’ (81% indicating ‘very important’). Some respondents commented further and in more detail. One fund manager highlighted the importance of measurement for internal communication: “Our internal company culture and morale is driven by responsible investment, and so we are each personally interested in the outcomes of our work. So internal communication of impact should not be underestimated!”

This year, 65% of respondents indicated that contractual commitments were a ‘very important’ reason for measuring social and environmental performance. Nearly six in ten respondents also noted that measuring social/environmental performance was ‘very important’ because doing so can have business value. Business value was an especially important motivator for measurement among the 15 respondents that reported outperforming their impact expectations, 13 of whom identified this motivation as ‘very important.’ Respondents’ use of social and environmental data to inform business decisions is explored in greater depth in the following section.

Respondents’ comments on motivations for measuring impact

“Current data can lead us to future/developing markets/products.”
– Loan fund

“We want to improve and increase our impact and therefore need to measure it.”
– Bank/Diversified financial institution

“Our internal company culture and morale is driven by responsible investment.”
– Fund manager

43 This includes a higher proportion of the 101 repeat respondents, though they do not account for the full increase.
Figure 39: Reasons for measuring social and environmental performance

Number of respondents is shown above each bar. Listed in order of percentage of respondents selecting ‘very important’. Some respondents chose ‘N/A’, and their responses are not shown here.

Source: GIIN

Measurement tools

Many impact investors use a combination of standardized and custom metrics to build a measurement system that fits their goals and investment strategies (Figure 40), with roughly equal numbers of respondents using proprietary metrics and frameworks (103) as those using metrics aligned with IRIS (102, or 65% of the total sample in both cases).44

A higher proportion of DM-focused investors use proprietary metrics (76%) than use IRIS-aligned metrics (54%). By contrast, IRIS-aligned metrics are more commonly used by EM-focused investors (71%) than are proprietary metrics (54%). A high proportion of the overall sample (89, 56%) uses qualitative information to capture the social and environmental performance of their investments.

The Research Team analyzed the proportions that used selected various combinations of these options:

- Fifty-eight respondents (37%) use both IRIS-aligned metrics and proprietary metrics and/or frameworks.
- Sixty-three respondents (40%) use both IRIS-aligned metrics and qualitative information.
- Sixty-six respondents (42%) use both proprietary metrics and/or frameworks and qualitative information.

Other standardized frameworks and ratings mentioned by respondents include GIIRS, Social Return on Investment (SROI), and Social Performance Indicators (SPI4) for microfinance.

44 IRIS is the catalog of generally accepted performance metrics managed by the GIIN. See https://iris.thegiin.org/. Since some standard frameworks and assessments, such as GIIRS, are built using IRIS metrics, the proportion of respondents using IRIS metrics in some form may be even higher than is reflected here.
Use of social and environmental data

As noted earlier, 59% of respondents indicated that the business value of social and environmental performance data is a ‘very important’ reason for measuring impact, and a further 37% indicated this is a ‘somewhat important’ reason. Consistent with this finding, 80% of respondents indicated that they use data on investees’ social and environmental performance to inform their business decisions (Figure 41).

Respondents reported using these data in a variety of ways (Figure 42), the most common of which were pre-screening and due diligence (101 respondents, 80% of those who use it), improving investment management (73, 58%), and informing portfolio allocation decisions (70, 56%). These top three uses of these data are all related to decisions investors make; uses related to decisions investees make, such as improving operational efficiency, were less frequently identified. This finding is perhaps unsurprising given this survey’s focus on investors rather than investees.

Figure 41: Do you use data on investees’ social and environmental performance to inform business decisions?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Figure 42: How do you use data on investees’ social and environmental performance to inform business decisions?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use for pre-screening or due diligence</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve investment management</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inform portfolio allocation decisions</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design or refine products/services</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inform exit decisions</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve investees’ operational efficiency</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand customer needs/wants</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inform product/service pricing strategy</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Team structure

More than half of respondents (56%) reported that their investment team is principally responsible for managing social and environmental performance, and roughly a quarter (23%) said that their impact measurement and investment teams share equal responsibility (Figure 43). Only 1% of respondents rely on external expertise to manage these aspects of their investments.

Figure 43: Who is principally in charge of managing the social/environmental performance of your investments?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responsible</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our investment team is responsible for this</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact measurement team and investment team share responsibility equally</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have built a standalone team that is responsible for this</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We mostly rely on external expertise</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

“[We] tranche our disbursements; if certain metrics aren’t achieved then we don’t release additional payments.”
— Foundation
Measurement challenges

Respondents were given the opportunity to share their greatest impact measurement challenge in an open-ended question. Forty-five respondents shared comments on this topic, from which the Research Team identified six common themes (Table 18).

Table 18: Measurement challenges
n = 45. Themes reflect the Research Team’s interpretations of open-ended comments. Respondents could address more than one theme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resource constraints at the investee and/or investor levels (including lack of appropriate staff, time, and budget, as well as desire to avoid interfering with day-to-day operations)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggregating metrics from diverse investees and from investors with diverse requirements</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collecting data that is accurate and timely</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moving beyond outputs to measure things like outcomes, impact, and additinality</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selecting relevant metrics to track progress against investment goals (relevance to investors and/or investees)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capturing intangible results that are not readily quantifiable</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

In a comment reflecting some of these common concerns, one fund manager respondent described their greatest challenge as, “Navigating the balance between measuring impact as we, from a bottom-up perspective, understand it for each company and conforming that to industry standards/benchmarks which tend to provide a more ‘surface’-level view of impact.”

Respondents’ comments on challenges in measuring impact

“It can be difficult to get good data from investees; they sometimes don’t have the resources to track, analyze, and report on the range of measures we would like to see.”
– Bank/diversified financial institution

“Truly understanding the impact of an intervention (product or service). Measuring the outcome of the intervention.”
– Fund manager

“Challenging to integrate common indicators across diverse sectors.”
– Fund manager

“Making relative judgments on impact performance, which is challenging both due to lack of track record [and of] benchmarks for impact achievement in the market.”
– Bank/diversified financial institution
Climate Finance

2015 was a landmark year for global recognition of the need to combat climate change. In December, at a historic conference held by the United Nations in Paris, officials from 195 countries signed an agreement committing to action to prevent increases in the earth’s temperature from exceeding two degrees Celsius above the temperature of pre-industrial times.45

A core theme of the Paris summit (known as “COP21”) and its accompanying activities was financing for the range of efforts required to achieve this ambitious goal. The transition to a low-carbon and climate-friendly economy has piqued the interest of both private and public financiers. Many private investors see the coming transition as an opportunity to invest in new technologies, infrastructure, and energy sources. Others are finally seeing broader interest in investments they have already been making for years, such as conservation of forests or wetlands.

Other notable developments in climate finance during 2015 included the following:

• Launch of the Land Degradation Neutrality Fund by the UN Convention to Combat Desertification managed by French asset manager Mirova.46 The fund aims to rehabilitate 12 million hectares of degraded land per year, with the impact goals of mitigating climate change, conserving biodiversity, and improving food security and nutrition. The fund managers estimate there are opportunities for investment through the fund worth more than USD 1 billion.

• Citi’s commitment to a USD 100 billion, 10-year initiative to finance activities that reduce the impacts of climate change.47 Investment areas include renewable energy, energy efficiency, sustainable urban transportation, green affordable housing, and water and sanitation infrastructure.

• Announcement by the World Bank Group that it will increase its climate financing to USD 29 billion per year by 2020.48 This total includes both direct finance for climate-change-related work and leveraged co-financing. The Group’s private investment arm, the International Finance Corporation, deployed USD 2.3 billion in 103 climate-related investments in FY 2015 alone, as well as mobilizing another USD 2.2 billion from other investors. Other multilateral institutions have made smaller annual commitments to the theme, including the African Development Bank, the Asian Development Bank, and the Inter-American Development Bank.49

• Launch of the Breakthrough Energy Coalition by Bill Gates, Mark Zuckerberg, and 20 other billionaires. The multibillion-dollar facility is expected to invest in early-stage clean energy technologies around the world.50

• FMO’s introduction of Climate Investor One to facilitate financing for renewable energy projects in emerging markets. During COP21, the Minister for Foreign Trade and Development Cooperation of the Netherlands announced a EUR 50 million commitment to the instrument, which aims to catalyze a further USD 2 billion in finance from public and private sources.51

Investment Performance

Target financial returns
As noted earlier, 59% of respondents primarily target risk-adjusted, market rate returns. Of the remainder, 25% primarily target below-market-rate returns that are closer to market rate returns, and 16% target returns that are closer to capital preservation. A slightly higher percentage of DM-focused investors seeks market-rate returns compared to EM-focused investors (Figure 44).

Figure 44: Target return type by geography of investment

Table 19 shows gross return expectations of respondents for 2015 vintage investments for both debt and equity in developed and emerging markets. Average expectations are higher for both asset classes in emerging markets.

Table 19: Gross return expectations for 2015 vintage investments, overall sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>DM debt</th>
<th>EM debt</th>
<th>DM equity</th>
<th>EM equity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Excludes three respondents for which data could not be verified.
Source: GIIN
Unsurprisingly, return expectations vary depending on whether the investor is principally seeking market rate or below market rate returns, especially for equity. Across the four segments analyzed (Table 20), mean return expectations are higher for Market Rate investors than for those principally seeking below market returns, and the range of return expectations is generally (though not always) greater for Market Rate investors.

Table 20: Gross return expectations for Market Rate and Below Market respondents for 2015 vintage investments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DM debt</th>
<th>EM debt</th>
<th>DM equity</th>
<th>EM equity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Market Rate respondents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>15.6%</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>8.1%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Below Market respondents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Excludes three respondents for which data could not be verified.
Source: GIIN

Respondents also indicated which external financial benchmarks they use for their impact investments, if any. Responses included numerous different indices and benchmarks; no more than three respondents mentioned any single benchmark. (This variety could be expected given the wide range of strategies in the sample, both by asset class and geography.) Some investors use broad public equity indices, such as the MSCI All Countries World Index, FTSE, S&P 500, or the Russell indices. Several also cited narrower, but still traditional indices, such as US Treasuries, Barclays US High-Yield, and Barclays US Aggregate Bond Indices. Other benchmarks mentioned include private equity benchmarks developed by Cambridge Associates and Preqin, the Symbiotics Microfinance Index, and the NCREIF Timberland Property Index. Several respondents noted that they do not use any external benchmarks, and some pointed to a lack of evidence on performance of their specific investment strategy.

Performance relative to expectations

The vast majority of respondents reported that their investments have either met or exceeded both impact and financial performance expectations (Figure 45). Of the 41 respondents (27%) who reported outperforming their impact expectations, 15 (10%) also reported outperforming their financial expectations. Only one respondent reported underperformance in both categories.

Figure 45: Performance relative to expectations

n = 151: Some respondents chose ‘not sure,’ and their responses are not included here.
Source: GIIN
Variation in financial performance compared to expectations is evident both by geography of investment and by returns principally sought (Figure 46).\(^{52}\) Relative to expectations, higher percentages of DM-focused investors saw both outperformance (24\%) and underperformance (12\%) compared to EM-focused investors (18\% and 9\%, respectively). Elsewhere, while 25\% of Market Rate investors reported outperforming financial expectations, just 11\% of Below Market investors did so. By asset class focus, a larger share of PD investors saw performance in line with expectations than did PE investors. PE investors saw more of both outperformance and underperformance (18\% and 13\%) than did PD investors (8\% and 11\%).

**Figure 46: Financial performance relative to expectations by geography of investment, target returns sought, and asset class focus**

Number of respondents shown above each bar; Some respondents chose ‘not sure,’ and their responses are not included here.

![Financial performance chart](chart_example)

**Source:** GIIN

**Private equity exits**

About two-thirds of respondents to this survey both last year and this year indicated that they make private equity investments (65\% in last year’s survey sample, 68\% in this year’s). In both years, these investors were given the option to report on their five most recent exits. Thirty-three investors reported a total of 113 unique exits across both surveys.\(^{53}\) Twenty of these investors (60\%) primarily seek market-rate returns, and these 20 investors accounted for 76\% of all exits analyzed in this section. The years of these exits range from 2008-2015 (Figure 47).

**Figure 47: Sample private equity exits by year**

![Sample private equity exits chart](chart_example)

**Source:** GIIN

A third of the exits were in either microfinance (25, 22\%) or other financial services (14, 12\%). There were 13 exits (12\%) in the third-largest sector, healthcare. There were also 10 exits each (9\%) in food and agriculture and in information and communications technologies (Figure 48).

\(^{52}\) There were no discernible variations by segment in reported impact performance versus expectations.

\(^{53}\) The 77 exits reported in last year’s survey report, Eyes on the Horizon, are included in this analysis.
**Figure 48: Sample private equity exits by sector, 2008 - 2015**

- **Microfinance**: 25 exits
- **Fin Services (excl. microfinance)**: 14 exits
- **Healthcare**: 13 exits
- **Food & Ag**: 10 exits
- **ICT**
- **Conservation**: 7 exits
- **Energy**: 5 exits
- **Housing**: 4 exits
- **Education**: 3 exits
- **WASH**: 1 exit
- **Manufacturing**: 1 exit
- **Other**: 20 exits

*Note: 'Other' sectors include tourism, hospitality, business services, real assets, and media.
Source: GIIN*

By region (Figure 49), a similar number of exits were reported in North America (29, 26%) and South Asia (27, 24%). The region with the next-highest number of exits was WNS Europe, with 20 exits (18%). All 29 exits in North America were made by investors primarily seeking market-rate returns, as were the majority of the South Asia and WNS Europe exits. By contrast, in SSA, 10 of the 16 exits (63%) were made by below-market-rate investors.

**Figure 49: Sample private equity exits by region, 2008 - 2015**

- **North America**: 29 exits
- **South Asia**: 27 exits
- **WNS Europe**: 20 exits
- **SSA**: 16 exits
- **LAC**: 11 exits
- **EECA**: 3 exits
- **ESE Asia**: 2 exits
- **MENA**: 1 exit
- **Other**: 4 exits

*Source: GIIN*

Among the sample of private equity exits, 73% were minority stake (48% small minority stakes and 25% large minority; Figure 50). The average holding period before exit was approximately 58 months, or just under five years. Respondents seeking primarily below-market-rate returns held their investments an average of 68 months, compared to 54 months on average for market-rate-seeking respondents (27% longer). Figure 51 shows the number of exits in each holding-period bracket.

**Figure 50: Initial ownership stake of sample exits, 2008 - 2015**

- **Small minority**: 48%
- **Large minority**: 25%
- **Majority**: 27%

*Source: GIIN*

**Figure 51: Holding period of sample exits, 2008 - 2015**

- **< 2 years**: 19 exits
- **2-5 years**: 34 exits
- **5-7 years**: 26 exits
- **> 7 years**: 22 exits
- **Unknown**: 12 exits

*Source: GIIN*
Respondents indicated the mechanisms by which they exited their investments. More than a third of exited investments were sold to a strategic buyer, while roughly another third were sold to financial buyers. Management buybacks account for 18% of exits (Figure 52).

When exiting, investors sold their entire stakes in 75% of cases. Selling the full stake was especially common in cases of management buyback or sales to a strategic buyer. Partial exits, on the other hand, were most likely when selling to a financial buyer (Table 21).

![Figure 52: Exit mechanisms, 2008 - 2015](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exit Mechanism</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategic buyer</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial buyer</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management buyback</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPO</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

![Table 21: Exit mechanisms and exit types, 2008 - 2015](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exit Type</th>
<th>Financial buyer</th>
<th>IPO</th>
<th>Management buyback</th>
<th>Strategic buyer</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Partial</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

Responsible exits

The topic of ‘responsible exits’ is much-discussed in the impact investing community. Respondents were asked if they believe impact investors have a responsibility to try to ensure the continuity of impact after they exit an investment. More than half of respondents believe investors have a responsibility to do so for all types of investments (Figure 53). Eleven percent reported their belief that impact investors do not have this responsibility, while another 29% said they believe investors’ responsibility depends on the type of investment. Respondents further commented that this responsibility is not always controllable (e.g., in public markets) and that the degree of responsibility sometimes depends on whether or not the investor can afford follow-up.

![Figure 53: Do you believe impact investors have a responsibility to try to ensure the continuity of impact after they exit an investment?](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, for all types of investments</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, but only for some types of investments</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

“Impact investors should seek reasonable mechanisms to commit investments to ongoing impact and management of ESG. This will deepen the efficacy of the sector and ensure lasting outcomes—who wants their good work to go to waste!?"  
– Fund manager
The most popular approach to ensuring continuity of impact is to select investments in which the mission is naturally embedded in their work (83 respondents). Forty-eight respondents noted that they select acquirers that have explicit impact intent. Other options were related to setting specific objectives with acquirers and staying involved post-exit (24 respondents each). These last two responses, which entail more active involvement, were more commonly selected by below-market-rate investors than by market-rate investors (Figure 54).

Respondents also answered a question about the relationship between impact and financial success at the time of exit. While half of Market Rate respondents indicated that pursuing impact intent tends to lead to better financial outcomes, only 21% of Below Market respondents selected this option (Figure 55). A higher proportion of Below Market respondents compared to Market Rate respondents indicated that there is not necessarily a relationship between impact and financial success at exit (40% versus 22%, respectively) or that there is a tradeoff between these two (15% versus 5%, respectively). Nearly a quarter of each group indicated that the relationship between impact and financial success depends on the investment.

Source: GIIN

Figure 54: How do you try to ensure continuity of impact at exit?
Respondents could select more than one option; total that selected each shown above bar.

Source: GIIN

Figure 55: Relationship between pursuing the impact intent of the investment and achieving the best financial outcomes at exit
Overall n = 148; Market rate n = 86; Below market n = 62

Source: GIIN
Risk

Respondents answered two questions related to risk: first, whether they had experienced any significant risk events in 2015, and second, ranking various contributors of risk in their portfolio. Eighty-four percent of respondents reported that they had not experienced significantly more and/or worse covenant breaches or material adverse changes than they had expected in 2015 (Table 22). Sixteen percent reported having experienced some type of risk event (slightly higher than last year’s 11%, though a different sample). For the sub-group of repeat respondents to both of the past two years’ surveys, these proportions have remained fairly static. Notably, this year 31% of PD investors experienced risk events, compared to just 9% of PE investors. Multiple respondents noted that macroeconomic issues were driving these changes in risk, especially the devaluations of various local currencies against the US dollar.

Table 22: Covenant breaches or material adverse changes experienced in 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

When asked to rank the top five contributors of risk to their impact investment portfolios, respondents ranked ‘business model execution & management risk’ first by a large margin (Table 23), consistent with the past four years of surveys.54 As was the case last year, ‘liquidity & exit risk’ ranked second. ‘Market demand & competition risk’ ranked third, followed by ‘financing risk’ and ‘country & currency risk.’ The risks ranked second through sixth are quite close in terms of their scores, indicating that respondents had broadly similar levels of concern with each of these factors. Two new choices offered on the survey this year, ‘impact risk’ and ‘ESG risk,’ ranked last (see definitions in Appendix 2).

Investors operating in different segments of the market expressed some differences in their assessments of risk:

• For those primarily focused on emerging markets, ‘country & currency risk’ ranked second with a considerably higher score than the next three highest-ranked options, which were ‘financing risk,’ ‘liquidity & exit risk,’ and ‘macroeconomic risk.’

• For investors principally seeking below market returns, ‘financing risk’ ranked a clear second, while ‘liquidity & exit risk’ ranked fifth, reflecting the fact that these investors emphasize the risk of their investees being unable to raise subsequent capital over the risk that the investor cannot exit the investment at a desired time.

Table 23: Contributors of risk to impact investment portfolios

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Answer Option</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>Business model execution &amp; management risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>Liquidity &amp; exit risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>Market demand &amp; competition risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>Financing risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>Country &amp; currency risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>Macroeconomic risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>Perception &amp; reputational risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>Impact risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>ESG risk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Respondents ranked the top five risks from a choice of nine options. Scores are calculated by weighting each rank by the number of respondents that selected it and summing those weighted totals.

Source: GIIN

54 Readers comparing scores from last year’s survey may notice that scores are much higher across all risks this year, because this year respondents were asked to rank their top five risks rather than the top three.
Liquidity

An important consideration for investors of all types, liquidity is an increasingly discussed topic in the impact investing landscape. This year’s survey included two questions on the topic.

Importance of various liquidity features

Respondents offered their opinions on the importance of various ways in which liquidity might be realized in an investment. Overall, respondents expressed similar views on a range of liquidity features they assessed (Figure 56).

Figure 56: Importance of various liquidity features

Number of respondents shown below each bar; Some respondents chose 'N/A or not sure,' and their responses are not shown here.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>n=95</th>
<th>n=95</th>
<th>n=97</th>
<th>n=94</th>
<th>n=59</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guaranteed exit mechanism within a specific time frame</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence that a market exists for secondary sale of my financial assets</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of exits in the market in which I am investing</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular paybacks of small amounts (such as dividends or interest)</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration (for long-term fixed income products)</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

However, investors focused on different asset classes attached greater or lesser importance to certain liquidity features. Unsurprisingly, a large share of Private Debt investors deemed regular payments of small amounts ‘very important’ (50%), while 86% of Private Equity investors felt regular payments are only ‘nice to have.’ Compared to the overall sample, PE investors gave slightly more importance to confidence that a market exists for secondary sales (‘very important’ for 32% of PE investors) and evidence of exits in their market (‘very important’ for 37%).

Interest in tools for enabling greater liquidity

Respondents indicated their interest in various tools for enabling greater liquidity. Close to 40% expressed ‘strong interest’ in ‘gradual redemption over the investment period’ and ‘dividends/interest’ (Figure 57). About a quarter of respondents expressed ‘strong interest’ in each of three other tools offered: fixed-horizon redemptions, straight revenue loans, and convertible revenue loans. Compared to Private Equity investors, a higher percentage of Private Debt investors expressed ‘strong interest’ in ‘dividends/interest’ and ‘fixed-horizon redemption.’ More PE investors than PD investors expressed ‘strong interest’ in a ‘convertible revenue loan.’

Figure 57: Interest in tools for enabling greater liquidity

Number of respondents shown above each option; Some respondents selected ‘not applicable,’ and their responses are not shown here.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tool</th>
<th>n=76</th>
<th>n=75</th>
<th>n=73</th>
<th>n=66</th>
<th>n=75</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gradual redemption over investment period</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dividends/interest</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed-horizon redemption</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straight revenue loan (% of revenue, capped at some level)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convertible revenue loan (% of revenue, capped at some level, convertible to equity)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN
Both current and potential impact investors have increasingly expressed demand for research on the financial performance of impact investments. In 2015, several organizations responded to this demand with studies evaluating the performance of private equity and private debt impact investments.

**Private Equity**

- In June 2015, the GIIN and Cambridge Associates published a report analyzing the financial performance of 51 private equity impact investing funds seeking market-rate returns. Included funds pursue a range of social impact objectives and operate across geographies and sectors with vintage years ranging from 1998 to 2010. The study found that, while competitive market-rate returns are achievable in private equity impact investing, manager selection is critical—just as in conventional private equity investing.

- In October 2015, the Wharton Social Impact Initiative published a study analyzing the performance of private equity funds between 2000 and 2015. The study found that private equity impact investing funds seeking risk-adjusted market-rate returns were able to achieve returns comparable to public-market equivalents.

**Private Debt**

- In June 2015, EngagedX published a study analyzing 426 transactions made between 2002 and 2014 by three social investment financial intermediaries in the UK. Included transactions took place across a range of sectors and did not necessarily target market-rate returns, often prioritizing the provision of appropriate capital to social purpose organizations over and above the making of financial returns. This was reflected in varied performance, with the authors finding greater net losses on funds that might have been more focused on testing the principles of social investment, while those that were set up to be more financially sustainable performed “reasonably well.”

- In July 2015, the Boston Consulting Group published research which considered both the transaction- and fund-level performance of the Futurebuilders England Fund, an early entrant to the UK social investment market that offers repayable finance, grants, and professional support to community-development organizations. The study analyzed data from 148 total transactions made between 2004 and 2010, many of which included both investment and grant components. According to the study, Futurebuilders achieved a high rate of capital recovery, particularly from simple loan products, despite lending to organizations with little prior exposure to loan finance.

These studies represent significant advancement in the effort to bridge information gaps regarding the financial performance of impact investments. However, further research is needed to understand performance across different market segments. Financial performance analysis will remain a priority on the GIIN’s research agenda in the years ahead.
**Investment Decision-Making**

Forty-six respondents allocate capital to both conventional and impact investments. This section provides insights into their motivations and decision-making processes.

**Motivations for allocating capital to impact investments**

Respondents indicated both financial and non-financial motivations for allocating capital to impact investments, with the top three choices reflecting a commitment to responsible investment, a desire to meet impact goals, and response to client demand (Table 24). These were also the top three motivations highlighted by last year’s respondents. The lowest-ranked responses concerned portfolio diversification and regulatory requirements, again consistent with last year’s findings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Available answer choices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>They are a part of our commitment as a responsible investor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>They are an efficient way to meet our impact goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>We are responding to client demand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>They provide an opportunity to gain exposure to growing sectors and geographies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>They are financially attractive relative to other investment opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>They offer diversification to our broader portfolio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>We do so to meet regulatory requirements</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Respondents ranked the top three motivations from a choice of seven options. Scores are calculated by weighting each rank by the number of respondents that selected the option and summing those weighted totals.

Source: GIIN

**Investment committee**

Nineteen respondents offered insights into the similarities and differences between their investment committees for impact and those for conventional investments. Eleven of the 19 respondents (58%) use the same investment committee for both conventional and impact investment decisions. Four respondents (21%) appoint impact investment committees that include some members of their conventional investment committees along with members who serve only on the impact investment committee. These dedicated members are elected for their expertise selecting and managing impact investments.

The remaining four respondents (21%) reported having wholly different investment committees for their impact and conventional investments. One key distinction between the committees is that these impact investment committees must include expertise in social and/or environmental impact in addition to expertise managing investments, whether that is achieved through a mix of individuals having different backgrounds or by including professionals who have both types of experience. Additionally, some impact investment committees include senior investment managers as well as corporate social responsibility managers. Some respondents noted that the composition of their committees differ according to the size of investment under consideration.
Due diligence

Seventeen respondents commented on their due diligence practices for impact and conventional investments. Eight of the 17 (47%) noted that their due diligence practice was the same for both types of investment. Five (29%) commented that their due diligence process is more or less the same for both types of investments but that their due diligence for impact investments includes an additional impact screen to assess and evaluate each investment’s social and environmental characteristics. In such cases, impact viability and impact risk are assessed in tandem with financial due diligence. One respondent noted that, although they collect the same data for diligence of both impact and conventional investments, certain key factors are weighed differently between the two cases.60

The remaining four respondents, three of which are foundations, indicated having substantive differences between their due diligence approach for impact investments and that for conventional investments.61 In practice, these variations emerge in different approaches to assessment of risk and return, use of different consultants, and evaluation of impact. One foundation respondent noted that its impact investments are also reviewed for programmatic alignment. One respondent noted, “Due diligence for impact investments focuses first on program fit, then emphasis is on operational capacity and financial prospects to achieve at least return of capital.” Two respondents also indicated that due diligence for impact investments generally takes longer to complete than that for conventional investments.

Sixteen respondents commented on both their investment committees and their due diligence processes (Table 25). Respondents who used the same investment committee for their impact investments as for their conventional investments were also more likely to apply the same due diligence processes. No respondents used the same investment committee but different due diligence processes, or vice versa.

Table 25: Impact investment decision-making processes compared to conventional investment processes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Due Diligence Process</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Different due diligence</td>
<td>Additional impact screen only</td>
<td>Same due diligence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment Committee</td>
<td>Different committee</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overlapping committees</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Same committee</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN

60 This respondent did not specify how or which key factors might be weighed differently.
61 The fourth respondent identified as a bank/diversified financial institution.

“Every investment our firm reviews on behalf of clients is assessed for its potential to generate impact. However, those identified as impact investments, whether by the investee or our research staff, are evaluated more closely for their social or environmental characteristics.”
– Family office
Use of investment advisors

Among the sample, 52 respondents (33%) reported using investment advisors to support their impact investing work (Figure 58). Of these, 31 (60%) use them to conduct due diligence on their behalf, while others use them to identify specific investment targets of interest (21, 40%), to research and identify market segments of interest (18, 35%), and to locate potential investment opportunities (11, 21%).

Figure 58: How respondents use investment advisors to support their impact investing work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of Investment Advisors</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We use investment advisors to conduct due diligence on our behalf</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We use investment advisors to identify specific investment targets</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We use investment advisors to research and identify market segments</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We use sell-side advisors to surface potential investment opportunities</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GIIN
Appendix 1. List of Survey Respondents

We are grateful to the following organizations for their contributions, without which this survey would not be possible.

3Sisters Sustainable Management/Scarab Funds
Aavishkaar Venture Management Services
Adobe Capital
AgDevCo
Alterfin
Annie E. Casey Foundation
Anonymous 1
Anonymous 2
Anonymous 3
Aravaipa Ventures
Arun LLC
ASN Novib Microcredit Fund
Athena Capital Advisors
Aventura Investment Partners
AXA IM
Bamboo Finance
Bethnal Green Ventures
Big Issue Invest
Big Society Capital
BlueOrchard Finance Ltd.
BNP Paribas
Bridges Ventures LLP
BuildForward Capital
Business Partners International
Caisse Solidaire
California Fisheries Fund, Inc.
Calvert Social Investment Foundation
Capria/Unitus Seed Fund
Capricorn Investment Group
CDC Group
Christian Super
Citizen Capital Partenaires
Community Capital Management, Inc.
Community Investment Management, LLC
Community Reinvestment Fund, USA
Conservation Forestry
Conservation International
Contact Fund, LLC
Contrarian Drishti Partners
COOPEST
Cordaid Investment Management
Core Innovation Capital
CoreCo Private Equity
Craft3
Creas
Creation Investments Capital Management, LLC
Credit Suisse
Cultivan Sandbox Ventures
Développement international Desjardins
Deutsche Bank
Dev Equity
Developing World Markets (DWM)
EcoEnterprises Fund
Ecotrust Forest Management
Elevar Equity
Endeavor Global
Energy Access Ventures
ENGIE Rassembleurs d'Énergies
Enterprise Community Partners
Equity for Tanzania (EFTA)
Finance in Motion
Fledge
FMO
Fondazione Sviluppo e Crescita - CRT
Fonds 1818
Ford Foundation
Forsyth Street
Futuregrowth Asset Management
GAWA Capital
Global Partnerships
Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation
Grameen Credit Agricole Foundation
Grassroots Business Fund
Grassroots Capital Management
PBC/Caspian Impact Investment Advisers
Gray Ghost Ventures
GroFin
Habitat for Humanity International
HCAP Partners LLC
Heron Foundation
Homewise, Inc.
Hooge Raedt Social Venture (HRSV)
Investisseurs et Partenaires (I&P)
ICCO Investments
IDP Foundation, Inc.  
IGNIA  
Impact Community Capital  
Impact First Investments  
Impax Asset Management  
Inveror Fund  
J.W. McConnell Family Foundation  
JPMorgan Chase & Co.  
Kois Invest  
Kukula Capital Plc  
LeapFrog Investments  
LGT Venture Philanthropy  
Lok Capital  
Lombard Odier SA  
Lundin Foundation  
Lyme Timber  
MacArthur Foundation  
MainStreet Capital Partners  
Media Development Investment Fund  
Mergence Investment Managers  
MicroVest Capital Management, LLC  
National Community Investment Fund  
Nesta Impact Investments  
New Forests  
New Market Funds  
NewWorld Capital Group  
Nonprofit Finance Fund  
Northern California Community Loan Fund  
Novastar Ventures  
Oikocredit Private Equity  
Omidyar Network  
Omnivore Partners  
Overseas Private Investment Corporation (OPIC)  
Pacific Community Ventures  
Phatisa Fund Managers  
PhiTrust  
Progression Capital Africa Ltd  
Prudential Impact Investments  
Promotora Social México (PSM)  
Quadia  
Renewal Funds  
responsAbility Investments AG  
Root Capital  
RS Group  
Robert Wood Johnson Foundation (RWJF)  
Sarona Asset Management  
Self-Help Credit Union  
Shared Interest  
Sitawi  
SJF Ventures  
SLM Partners  
Social and Sustainable Capital  
Social Investment Business  
Soneta Capital  
Stichting DOEN  
Symbiotics  
The California Endowment  
The Climate Trust  
The David and Lucile Packard Foundation  
The McArthur Foundation  
The Osiris Group  
The Rockefeller Foundation  
TIAA-CREF  
Treehouse Investments, LLC  
Triodos Investment Management  
Triple Jump  
Truestone Impact Investment Management  
TVM Capital Healthcare partners  
Upaya Social Ventures  
Vermont Community Loan Fund  
VilCap Investments  
Vital Capital Fund  
Vox Capital  
Voxstra  
Working Capital for Community Needs (WCCN)
Appendix 2. List of Definitions Provided to Survey Respondents

General

- **Impact investments**: Investments made into companies, organizations, and funds with the intention to generate measurable social and environmental impact alongside a financial return.

- **Capital committed**: Capital the organization has agreed to contribute to a fund or other investment, rather than capital committed to your organization/fund by another investor.

- **Mission-related investments (MRIs)**: Investments that support a foundation’s mission and programmatic goals while seeking risk-adjusted market-rate returns. MRIs are part of the foundation’s total assets, known as its endowment or corpus.

- **Economically targeted investments (ETIs)**: Investments that are selected for the benefits they create in addition to the investment return to the employee benefit plan investor.

Instruments

- **Deposits & cash equivalents**: Cash management strategies that incorporate intent toward positive impact.

- **Private debt**: Bonds or loans placed to a select group of investors rather than being syndicated broadly.

- **Public debt**: Publicly traded bonds or loans.

- **Equity-like debt**: An instrument between debt and equity, such as mezzanine capital or deeply subordinated debt. Often a debt instrument with potential profit participation. E.g. convertible debt, warrant, royalty, debt with equity kicker.

- **Private equity**: A private investment into a company or fund in the form of an equity stake (not publicly traded stock).

- **Public equity**: Publicly traded stocks or shares.

- **Real assets**: An investment of physical or tangible assets as opposed to financial capital, e.g. real estate, commodities.

- **Pay-for-performance instruments (e.g., social impact bonds)**: A form of outcomes-based contract in which public sector commissioners commit to pay for significant improvement in social outcomes for a defined population. Private investment is used to pay for interventions, which are delivered by service providers. Financial returns to investors are made by the public sector on the basis of improved social outcomes.
Stages of growth

- **Seed/Start-up**: Business idea exists, but little has been established operationally; pre-revenues.
- **Venture**: Operations are established, and company may or may not be generating revenues, but does not yet have positive EBITDA.
- **Growth**: Company has positive EBITDA and is growing.
- **Mature**: Company has stabilized at scale and is operating profitably.

Contributors of risk

- **Country and currency risks**: Risks which include political, regulatory, local economic or currency-linked risks.
- **ESG risk**: Risk derived from noncompliance with environmental, social, or governance criteria.
- **Financing risk**: Risk of the investee not being able to raise subsequent capital necessary to its growth.
- **Impact risk**: The possibility that the investment does not achieve the desired social or environmental benefits.
- **Liquidity and exit risk**: The risk of being unable to exit the investment at the desired time.
- **Macroeconomic risk**: Risk that includes regional or global economic trends.

Exit mechanisms

- **Strategic buyer**: A buyer, usually another company in the same sector, whose reasons for purchasing stake include potential for synergies with their existing company.
- **Financial buyer**: A buyer that is primarily interested in the potential for the company to generate a financial return.
- **IPO**: Initial public offering, or the first sale of stock by a private company to the public.
- **Management buyback**: Management or other executives purchase shares from the investor.
For more information

Please contact Hannah Schiff at hschiff@thegiin.org with any comments or questions about this report.

To download industry research by the GIIN and others, please visit www.thegiin.org/knowledge-center.

Disclosures

The Global Impact Investing Network (“GIIN”) is a nonprofit 501c(3) organization dedicated to increasing the scale and effectiveness of impact investing. The GIIN builds critical infrastructure and supports activities, education, and research that help accelerate the development of a coherent impact investing industry.

Readers should be aware that the GIIN has had and will continue to have relationships with many of the organizations identified in this report, through some of which the GIIN has received and will continue to receive financial and other support.

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