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**ONDOKUZ MAYIS UNIVERSITY**  
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**DEPARTMENT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND INNOVATION**



**THE ROLE OF WOMEN AND NON GOVERNMENTAL  
ORGANIZATIONS IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND  
THE CHALLENGES THEY FACE: CASE OF SAMSUN  
BUSINESS WOMEN ASSOCIATION (SAMİKAD)**

Master's Thesis

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2023

## ACCEPTANCE AND APPROVAL OF THE THESIS

The study entitled “**THE ROLE OF WOMEN AND NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE CHALLENGES THEY FACE: CASE OF SAMSUN BUSINESS WOMEN ASSOCIATION (SAMİKAD)**” prepared by **Gulara HASANOVA**, and supervised by **Prof. Dr. Kürşat DEMİRYÜREK** was found successful and unanimously accepted by committee members as Master thesis, following the examination on the date 26.9.2023

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Gulara HASANOVA

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## ÖZET

### SOSYAL GİRİŞİMCİLİKTE KADINLARIN VE SİVİL TOPLUM KURULUŞLARININ ROLÜ VE KARŞILAŞTIKLARI ZORLUKLAR: SAMSUN İŞ KADINLARI DERNEĞİ (SAMİKAD) ÖRNEĞİ

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Kadınlar ve Sivil Toplum Kuruluşları (STK), sosyal girişimciliğe yön vermekte ve olumlu sosyal değişim yaratmak için çok önemli olmaktadır. Sosyal girişimcilik, serbest meslek için fırsatlar yaratarak kadın girişimcilerin sosyal girişimcilikte güçlenmesini teşvik etmektedir (Datta and Gailey, 2012; Aldawood, 2020). Ancak, sosyal girişimciliğin potansiyel faydalarına rağmen, kadın girişimciler ve STK'lar çeşitli zorluklarla karşılaşmaktadır. Bu sorunlara odaklanarak çalışma, kadın girişimcilerin ve STK'ların sosyal girişimcilikteki rolünü analiz etmeyi, karşılaştıkları zorlukları tespit etmeyi ve olası çözümler vermeyi amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmada kullanılan yöntemlerden bahsederken, öncelikle kadınların ve sivil toplum kuruluşlarının (STK'lar) sosyal girişimcilikte rolü ve karşılaştıkları engelleri incelemek için bir literatür taraması yapıldığını vurgulamak gerekmektedir. Çalışmada, araştırma sonuçlarını analiz etmek için nicel araştırma yöntemleri kullanılmaktadır. Bu amaçla Türkiye'nin Samsun ilinde bulunan Samsun İş Kadınları Derneğinin (SAMİKAD) 54 kadın girişimcisine çevrim içi bir anket uygulanmıştır. Elde edilen verilere dayanarak, Çevresel Faktörlerin (ÇF) Kadın Girişimciler (KG) ve Sosyal Girişimcilik üzerindeki etkisi ve STK Yönetim Uygulamalarının (YUU) STK'ların Karşılaştığı Zorluklar ve Sosyal Girişimcilik üzerindeki etkisi analiz edilmiştir. Analiz sonuçlarına göre Çevresel Faktörlerin Kadın Girişimcilerin sorunları üzerinde, Kadın Girişimcilerin Karşılaştıkları Zorlukların Sosyal Girişimcilik üzerinde ve STK Yönetim Uygulamalarının Sosyal Girişimcilik üzerinde etkisi olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonunda çalışma konusuna ilişkin çeşitli önerilerde bulunulmuştur. Çalışmanın bu konuda literatürdeki boşluğu dolduracak pratik bir kaynak olması beklenmektedir.

**Anahtar Sözcükler:** Girişimcilik, Sosyal girişimcilik, Kadın girişimciliği, Sivil toplum kuruluşları (STK).

## ABSTRACT

### THE ROLE OF WOMEN AND NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE CHALLENGES THEY FACE: CASE OF SAMSUN BUSINESS WOMEN ASSOCIATION (SAMİKAD)

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Women and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are driving social entrepreneurship and are crucial for creating positive social change. Social entrepreneurship promotes women's empowerment in social entrepreneurship by creating opportunities for self-employment (Datta and Gailey, 2012; Aldawood, 2020). However, despite the potential benefits of social entrepreneurship, women entrepreneurs and civil society organizations face various challenges. According to these issues, the study aims to analyze the role of women entrepreneurs and NGOs in social entrepreneurship, identify their challenges, and propose possible solutions. First, it is necessary to emphasize that a literature review was conducted to examine the role and barriers faced by women and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in social entrepreneurship. In the study, quantitative research methods were used to analyze the research results. For this purpose, an online survey was applied to 54 women entrepreneurs of the Samsun Business Women Association (SAMİKAD) based in Samsun, Turkey. Based on the data obtained, the impact of Environmental Factors (EF) on Women Entrepreneurs (WE) and Social Entrepreneurship and the impact of NGO Management Practices (NMP) on Challenges Faced by NGOs and Social Entrepreneurship were analyzed. Based on the results of the analyses, it was determined that Environmental Factors impact the Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs impact Social Entrepreneurship, and NGO Management Practices affect Social Entrepreneurship. At the end of the study, various recommendations were made regarding the subject of the study. The study is expected to be a practical resource that will fill the gap in the literature on this subject.

**Keywords:** Entrepreneurship, Social entrepreneurship, Women entrepreneurship, Non-governmental organization (NGOs).

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Since my youth, I have observed that the women around me lacked support to work and take initiative and could not escape this situation. NGOs' limited number or lack of capacity was insufficient for women to pursue their ambitions and gain independence. These conditions accelerated my decision to embark on a research endeavor focusing on social entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurship can be a powerful tool to empower women and create opportunities for their development. By combining business principles with a social mission, we can address the systemic barriers that prevent women from advancing and provide them with the resources and support necessary to break out of this cycle of dependency.

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## SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

|           |                                                                      |
|-----------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| AKAD      | : Akademik Arařtırmalar ve alıřmalar Dergisi                        |
| AKUT      | : Akut Arama Kurtarma Derneęi                                        |
| ALV       | : Ascending Lumbar Vein                                              |
| ANOVA     | : Analysis of Variance                                               |
| BASİFED   | : Batı Anadolu Sanayici ve İř İnsanları Dernekleri Federasyonu       |
| İřKUR     | : Türkiye İř Kurumu Genel Mdrlę                                  |
| ILO       | : International Labor Organizations                                  |
| KOSGEB    | : Kk ve Orta lekli İřletmeleri Geliřtirme ve Destekleme İdaresi |
| NGOS      | : Non-governmental Organizations                                     |
| OEA       | : Oregon Education Association                                       |
| OESD      | : The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development         |
| OKA       | : Orta Karadeniz Kalkınma Ajansı                                     |
| ORKASIFED | : Orta Karadeniz Sanayi ve İř Dnyası Federasyonu                    |
| OSCE      | : The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe           |
| SE        | : Sicial Entrepreneurship                                            |
| SES       | : Social Entrepreneurship ScaleI                                     |
| SPSS      | : Statistical Package for the Social Sciences                        |
| TABIT     | : Tabit Akıllı Tarım Teknolojileri                                   |
| TESDA     | : The Technical Education and Skills Development Authority           |
| TRKONFED | : Trk Giriřim ve İř Dnyası Konfederasyonu                          |
| EU        | : Eurpean Union                                                      |
| EN        | : European Nations                                                   |

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Social entrepreneurship is a rapidly growing field which aims to address social problems through innovative and sustainable business models. It is a process by which individuals or organizations develop, fund, and implement innovative solutions to social problems, with the aim of improving the well-being of communities and society as a whole. Social entrepreneurship “involves seizing the opportunity for the market-changing innovation of a social purpose” (Luke and Chu, 2013: 765). Social entrepreneurs are comparable to commercial entrepreneurs in discovering and pursuing possibilities, starting and operating new companies, and meeting client needs/demands (Nikina et al., 2015; Short et al., 2009). However, it is the explicit goals and embedded social purpose of the social entrepreneurship being pursued (Austin et al., 2006). Thus, according to Terjesen and Dees (1998), social entrepreneurship is about business and contributing to society (Terjesen and Dees, 1998).

Researchers, talents, and investors have been particularly interested in social entrepreneurship in recent decades. There is an increasing interest in social entrepreneurship reflected in the growth of nonprofit organizations over the last decade, which has exceeded the rate of business formation (The New Nonprofit Almanac and Desk Reference, 2002; Aldawood, 2020). Non-governmental organizations produce social benefits and fill a critical void by operating in many areas the government, and private sector cannot reach. NGOs are non-governmental organizations that frequently originate with volunteers. They cover many activities and work in various fields worldwide (Reibaldi and Grimard, 2015; Lukaszczyk and Williamson, 2010). Sahasranamam and Nandakumar (2020) explain several SE concepts, such as those that aim to meet non-commercial social needs (Petrella and Richez-Battesti, 2014), foster social change through creative approaches (Ney et al., 2014), meet social needs (Zaki, 2012), and create social value through market-based interventions (Facca-Miess and Nicholas, 2014; Saebi et al., 2019). The most appropriate type of entrepreneurship to achieve the goals of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) is social entrepreneurship (SE). By employing state-of-the-art management strategies through social entrepreneurship, NGOs will become sustainable if they are prepared for business strategy, more comprehensive projects, human resources management, investor relations, and client relationship management

(Norman and Carmen, 2020; Naderi et al., 2022).

The increase in social entrepreneurship is likewise evidenced by the escalating participation of women in the realm of social enterprise. According to Croson and Gneezy (2009), there is a prevailing perception that women possess greater social awareness and compassion than men. Additionally, Ardrey (2006) argues that women's involvement in business endeavors has positively impacted both the community and the social standing of women. Increasing female engagement in entrepreneurial activities has been related to better status for women, family and community well-being, and economic progress (Haugh and Talwar, 2020). Especially in recent years, the role of women in social entrepreneurship has become increasingly important (Aldawood, 2020).

Despite the potential for social entrepreneurship to create positive social change, women and NGOs often need help in this field. According to the literature, the most critical challenges include general, cultural-social, economic, educational, infrastructure, communication-information, management, psychological, legal-policy, and supportive barriers (Naderi et al., 2022).

To illustrate the nature of women entrepreneurs' and NGOs' participation and the challenges they face in social entrepreneurship, this study explores a social entrepreneurship model. The primary objective of this research was to evaluate the involvement of women and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in the realm of social entrepreneurship and identify the primary obstacles they encounter. The recognition of women's entrepreneurial endeavors by businesses and society has been insufficient. The partial attribution for this phenomenon can be attributed to the tendency of women engaging in social entrepreneurship, particularly in resource-constrained countries, to operate within the informal economy (de Bruin, Brush, and Welter, 2007). Insufficient acknowledgment and tactical backing for women in social entrepreneurship by corporate entities and societies have necessitated a deeper examination of the domain of social entrepreneurship, with a specific emphasis on female entrepreneurs. Therefore, it is imperative to enhance women's involvement in social entrepreneurship and create viable measures to augment their participation in leadership roles within this domain (Aldawood, 2020).

Non-governmental organizations can benefit from social entrepreneurship. Implementing social entrepreneurship models within NGOs can lead to sustainable

employment opportunities and reduced social harm and control. NGOs may assist social entrepreneurs in expanding their influence and fulfilling their social missions (Hussain et al., 2023). Numerous non-governmental organizations have effectively utilized social entrepreneurship to accomplish their social objectives. Many NGOs have successfully leveraged social entrepreneurship to achieve their social missions. For example, Ashoka, as a worldwide community of social entrepreneurs, assists in solving social issues. Due to limitations in mainstreaming and orientation in social activities for fostering social values and becoming a fortune for economic concerns, women entrepreneurs and NGOs require assistance establishing and growing SE.

As a summary of the abovementioned information, the study draws inspiration from the role of women entrepreneurs and NGOs in social entrepreneurship and bases its findings on their activities and issues. Because both women social entrepreneurs and NGOs work for the benefit of society and take an active part in economic development. On the other hand, although there are studies in the literature on women's entrepreneurship and the problems faced by women in entrepreneurship (İlter, 2008; Sayın, 2011; Hakkias, 2011; Rahim et al., 2017; Aldawood, 2020) and problems faced by NGOs (Jamali, 2003; Bromideh, 2011; Batti, 2014; Güvendi, 2017; Naderi et al., 2020; Göz, 2022), the lack of these studies draws attention. Furthermore, there are limited resources on women's entrepreneurship in social entrepreneurship and NGO operations. At the same time, no other research on the issue in the literature demonstrates the study's originality.

Additionally, linking women's entrepreneurship, NGOs, and social entrepreneurship in a model adds another unique value to the study. It is also aimed at contributing to studies on social entrepreneurship. Based on the primary purpose and importance of the study, the study questions were formulated as follows:

1. What role do women entrepreneurs play in social entrepreneurship?
2. What role do NGOs play in social entrepreneurship?
3. What are the critical problems women entrepreneurs face in the social entrepreneurship process?
4. What are the challenges that NGOs in social entrepreneurship face?
5. Are environmental factors influential on the problems faced by women entrepreneurs?
6. Do environmental factors affect social entrepreneurship?

7. Are NGO management practices effective in solving the problems non-governmental organizations face?
8. Do NGO management practices have an impact on social entrepreneurship?
9. From which institutions and organizations do women entrepreneurs receive support in the social entrepreneurship process?

In order to find an answer to the research questions, research was conducted on the Samsun Business Women Association (SAMİKAD) women entrepreneurs operating in Samsun, Turkey. SAMİKAD is a non-profit, non-governmental organization established in Samsun in 2012 under the chairmanship of Münevver Uğurlu. The association has supported many women to receive vocational training and find a job. The answer to the research was found to be in line with the responses received from women entrepreneurs who are members of the association.

Since the research was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic and due to restrictions, it was obligatory to reach the participants through an online survey voluntarily. At the same time, the study is limited to Samsun province. However, the data contributes to the literature by identifying the role of women entrepreneurs and non-governmental organizations in social entrepreneurship and the obstacles they face. Therefore, it is hoped that this study will contribute to the literature on social entrepreneurship to promote gender equality, women's empowerment (Kawamorita et al., 2020), and social welfare.

## **2. THE CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP**

Entrepreneurship, which emerged in the medieval ages and previously by different branches of science, has evolved and entered the fields of many branches of science until it is employed in today's business world. The notion of entrepreneurship has transformed and evolved over time as various fields of study have taken an interest in its conceptualization. Its origins can be traced back to the medieval period and earlier, and it has since been subject to diverse disciplinary perspectives. Today, entrepreneurship is a widely utilized concept in the realm of business (Gümüšoğlu and Karaöz, 2014).

### **2.1. Entrepreneurship through the Ages**

Various activities, including hunting, farming, animal husbandry, trade, etc., that people have engaged in since the dawn of history to meet their needs reveal that they have been entrepreneurs since ancient times (Aşkn et al., 2011). Historically, people have traded goods and services since prehistoric times, when the first forms of entrepreneurship were pioneered. Barter systems were created as a result of the specialization of individuals in various trades brought about by agricultural expansion. As society became more complex, merchants emerged to facilitate exchange. Developments in entrepreneurship went through various phases until modern production and management techniques were reached. It is possible to understand the effect of entrepreneurship in the world primarily by examining the stages of economic endeavors (Aşkın et al., 2011). Emile Durkheim classified societies into four groups according to his Genetic Evolution Classification (Gümüšoğlu and Karaöz, 2014): primitive societies, the first land-based societies engaged in agriculture; feudal societies; advanced societies.

Although the things humans have done to survive and take care of their necessities from the beginning of human history may be classified as entrepreneurship, it is impossible to discuss entrepreneurship in the true sense at this time since there was no production (Durkheim, 1982: 78). In that case, it is not possible to talk about entrepreneurship in the real sense since there was no productivity in this period (Durkheim, 1982: 78). As people began to produce more than they needed during the time of the first land-settled societies, a trading system predominately based on

bartering emerged. These activities are the most important examples of entrepreneurship in that period (Aşkın et al., 2011:56). The contemporary understanding of entrepreneurship can be traced back to feudal societies characterized by a theocratic monarchy with monotheistic beliefs, which were organized into feudal lordships and empires and involved in both agricultural and commercial activities. As a result of the industrial revolution, machines developed and began to be used more widely, encouraging entrepreneurship (Gümüsoğlu and Karaöz, 2014).

Hisrich and Peters (1998: 6-8) recommended earlier categorizations to clarify the nature and evolution of entrepreneurship (Göker, 2019):

*The earliest period:* was the time when Marco Polo, to create a commerce channel with the Far East, sought to sell his commodities by signing contracts, much like the middlemen who are now known as venture capitalists.

*Middle Ages:* The term entrepreneur originated in the Middle Ages to describe people and actors who managed large projects.

*17th Century:* Since the 17th century, risk and entrepreneurship have become more closely connected. The prominent name in this period was the economist Richard Cantillon.

*18th Century:* Owners of capital and those who required money were separated in the 18th century. In other words, the notion of entrepreneurs and the person who gives funds (in today's parlance, a venture capitalist) were separated.

*19th and 20th Centuries:* The entrepreneurial community was often considered from an economic perspective in the late 19th and early 20th centuries (Hisrich ve Peters, 1998: 8).

In the 21st century, new business strategies emerged, such as exploiting the potential for new technology to improve productivity or combining diverse production lines into vertically integrated firms. New technologies and the emergence of smart machines have significantly affected entrepreneurship (Gümüsoğlu and Karaöz, 2014).

Today, entrepreneurs are seen as agents of change who provide creative, innovative ideas for business enterprises. Digital technologies and the internet have

given entrepreneurship a new dimension. Online businesses and e-commerce have created a new breed of entrepreneurs who leverage technology.

### **2.1.1. The Development of The Concept Over Time**

The concept of entrepreneurship has developed over time and is still evolving today. Throughout history, entrepreneurship has had different definitions and interpretations depending on the time and cultural context. However, the notion gained prominence once commercial markets infiltrated society (Hébert and Link, 2009). The phrase has been applied to a wide variety of activities, including venture conception, foundation, adaptation, and management (Stevenson, 1988; Cunningham and Lischeron, 1991). Since the beginning of entrepreneurship theory, scholars have used various classifications over the years.

The concept dates to the earliest days of human civilization. Before the development of economics, the idea of an entrepreneur occurred only sometimes. Entrepreneur, an older version of the term, first appeared in the fourteenth century. (Hoselitz, 1960). It is a French term with a popular, if vague, meaning, as confirmed by Savary's *Dictionnaire Universel de Commerce* (1723), which defines an entrepreneur as one who starts a project; a manufacturer; or constructs buildings (Hébert and Link, 2009).

Most frequently, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the term referred to a government contractor involved in military fortifications or public works. An entrepreneur of the Middle Ages, usually a clergyman, was the "leader" of the principal architectural works, including castles and fortresses, public buildings, abbeys, and cathedrals (Hoselitz 1960: 237; Hébert and Link, 2009).

While the historical evolution of the notion of entrepreneurship is being advanced, the weight of economic thought is notably felt on the route taken by academics. (Göker, 2019). Among the early economists, Richard Cantillon was the first to recognize entrepreneurs' crucial role in economic theory (1680? –1734). Cantillon argues that an entrepreneur is a person who buys goods at a price that is fixed and takes the risk of selling them at an undetermined, variable cost in the future (Ko and Hatten, 2002; Küçükaltan, 2009). It has been suggested that entrepreneurial activity is equated with risk-taking activity inside the economy by Richard Cantillon (OECD, 13.; Howard, 2010). He did not give a deep study of the nature of risk and

uncertainty; instead, he simply linked the entrepreneur's function to ambiguity and, by extension, threat, giving the idea economic meaning.

Entrepreneurs, according to Cantillon's (1680?-1734) economic theory, function as intermediaries between different economic agents, with the goal of profiting by purchasing commodities or services at a set price and selling them at an indeterminate price. As a result, Cantillon has argued that arbitrage activities are always fraught with uncertainty. An entrepreneur should be a visionary individual capable of taking risks, while he can be more innovative to qualify as an entrepreneur (Van Praag, 1999 :313).

Many researchers have focused their attention on entrepreneurs since the Cantillon. Anne Robert Jacques Turgot (1727–1781) was one of the most prominent representatives of physiocratic thought, stressing capital's importance. Turgot's ideas differed from those of the physiocratic system in every respect. By establishing the ownership of money as a separate economic function within the business world, he extended the theory of entrepreneurship to encompass the entire industry (Grebel, 2004; Göker, 2019). Cantillon did not envisage the concept of a "pure" entrepreneur. Consequently, Turgot's entrepreneur stands out not for his capital but his labor (Hébert and Link, 2009).

Another economist, Abbé Nicolas Baudeau (1730-1792), portrayed the agricultural entrepreneur as a risk-taker in the style of Cantillon, but with a very contemporary twist. He promoted the idea that entrepreneurs are innovators who develop and apply new ideas to their operations to reduce costs and thus increase their revenues (Greder, 2004; Döm, 2008; Güleç, 2011). Baudeau emphasized the necessity of "intelligence," or the entrepreneur's capacity to gather and comprehend knowledge and information. In contrast to Cantillon's theory of entrepreneurship, Baudeau's theory is more general (Hébert and Link, 2009).

When the Industrial Revolution was just about to begin (1830), a French economist named Jean-Baptiste Say contributed to defining entrepreneurship as we know it today (Say, 1880: 99; Güleç, 2011). In the early 1800s, Say utilized the notion of entrepreneurship (Say, 1880:99). A fundamental tenet of Say's (1767-1832) economic philosophy is that the entrepreneur should assume a managerial role in the system (Sikalieh et al., 2012). Based on Cantillon's concept, he (1803) broadened the notion of a successful entrepreneur even further (Van Praag,1999; Hébert and Link, 2009; Sikalieh et al., 2012; Bozkurt et al., 2012).

Say coupled Cantillon's idea of an economic risk taker, which he used to describe an entrepreneur, with Adam Smith's concept of an industrial (Göker, 2019). A business entrepreneur has been described as "a person who shifts economic resources from a low-productivity sector to a high-productivity sector and possesses some particular characteristics such as the ability to take financial risks and analytical experience (Dees, vd., 1998:2; Friel, 2014; Kılıç, 2020). Say identifies specific characteristics of entrepreneurs, including the ability to estimate market demand, create sales potential, and calculate production costs accurately (Aytaç and İlhan, 2007).

Anne-Robert Jacques Turgot (1727-1781), one of the most prominent figures in physiocrat thinking, described the entrepreneur as a capitalist who receives interest on his investments and rent on the labor he performs. He generated a theory on value and money and, finally, a theory on capital, savings, and interest, which had a striking impact on his concept of the entrepreneur (Grebel, 2004).

Entrepreneurship first appeared in British literature through Adam Smith (1723-1790), who portrayed himself as "an adventurer in search of danger, plotting the future, and taking risks on a rational level. As a pioneer of political economy and a representative of the classical school of economics, Adam Smith identified entrepreneurship as the action of establishing an organization to be operated for commercial purposes. He also attributed the task of becoming an industrialist to the entrepreneur (Altuntaş, 2010: 8).

Jeremy Bentham (1748-1832), a British classical economist, attached more importance to entrepreneurship in classical theory than his contemporaries (Grebel, 2004: 9). He developed a detailed philosophy of entrepreneurship. It was his intention to define "business managers" as well as "entrepreneurs" ("projectors") (Trincado and Santos-Redondo, 2017). Bentham saw The entrepreneur as an agent of economic progress (Hébert and Link, 2009).

The idea of entrepreneurship took hold in English literature with another economist, William Stuart Mill (1806-1878), who made a significant contribution to the theory of entrepreneurship with his work "Principles of Political Economy" (1848) (Özkul, 2007). According to Mill, "an entrepreneur is simply one who uses his funds to pay the wages of employees, or to maintain them during the duration of their employment; to furnish the required structures, materials, equipment, or machinery; and to whom, under the ordinary conditions of the contract, the result is to be disposed

of at his discretion (Rima, 2002; Özkul, 2007). Unlike Adam Smith, John Stuart Mill emphasized the importance of individuals using their imaginations and creativity to contribute to the development of a nation (Er, 2012: 18-19).

Alfred Marshall, one of the influential neoclassical economists, defined an entrepreneur as a person who assumes full responsibility and control in the enterprise and is both manager and employer (Marshall, 1930: 598; Van Praag, 1999: 318-319). Entrepreneurs find original ideas and develop them, innovating for efficiency instead of effectiveness (Sciascia, 2004: 5). Marshall later defined innovation as "new ways of serving the interests of society" (Marshall, 1930:598). Nevertheless, he failed to adequately explain the role of entrepreneurs in the economy (Sciascia, 2004: 5).

Von Thünen (1783-1850) subsequently revealed the innovative aspect of entrepreneurs, defining entrepreneurs as individuals who both take risks and innovate (Özkul, 2008: 351; Kılıç, 2020). Thünen is best known for his contributions to location theory in economic history. His explanation of profit, however, clearly distinguished the returns of entrepreneurs and capitalists. Furthermore, Von Thünen clearly appreciated the difference between managing and entrepreneurship. He believed that, even if they have the same knowledge and competence, the effort of an entrepreneur working on his own account differed from that of a hired substitute (i.e., "manager") (Hébert and Link, 2009).

Leon Walras (1834-1910) is regarded as the most important 19th-century economist, both for his general equilibrium theory and entrepreneurship theory. With significant contributions to the entrepreneur's function in economic theory, Walras, the entrepreneur factors of production (land, labor, and capital) and finished the purchase of products on the market, is one of the first researchers to detect accurately as a tool that performs trades (Edgeworth, 1889: 435-436). Walras views entrepreneurs as consumers who seek out production services to maximize utility at the expense of profit (Walker, 1987: 853; Anıl, 2019).

Although these entrepreneurship theory pioneers focused mainly on the role of entrepreneurs in economic growth, their study established the framework for subsequent entrepreneurship theories. Throughout the centuries, many economists have taken a different approach to defining entrepreneurship (Küçükaltan, 2009).

Entrepreneurship theory was studied formally in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Joseph Alois Schumpeter (1883-1950), the most prominent figure of the German Historical School, developed the concept of "creative destruction," which focuses on the idea that the entrepreneur is an innovator and creator of wealth (Burnett, 2000: 2; Azumah, 2019). Schumpeter synthesized elements from Marx, Weber, and Walras and his Austrian forefathers, such as Menger, von Weiser, and his master von Bohm-Bawerk. He merged these components into something new and different (Hébert and Link, 2009). In addition, Schumpeter (Schumpeter, 1934) argued that entrepreneurship consists of innovation and that the status of the entrepreneur is acquired through innovation (Schumpeter, 1934; Küçükaltan, 2009; Dorin and Alexandru, 2014). The term becomes more widely used by Schumpeter as it spreads into economics, business, and politics (Howard, 2010). The progress in understanding entrepreneurship is mainly due to Schumpeter (Toma et al., 2014). However, Schumpeter rejected the risk-taking trait as inherent in entrepreneurs, instead allocating it to capitalists (Hébert and Link, 2009).

As far as entrepreneurship is concerned, Frank Knight (1885-1972), Harvey Leibenstein (1922-1994), and Israel Kirzner (1930) are the most well-known theorists outside continental Europe after those who studied entrepreneurship in Neo-Classical theory. Frank Knight (1921) was the first American to contribute to entrepreneurship. According to Knight, an entrepreneur bears all uncertainties and makes decisions for which he takes responsibility (Sciascia and De Vita, 2004). Considering Cantillon's old idea about risk and entrepreneurship, most early writers did not associate it with entrepreneurship. Knight (1885-1972) was the person who brought risk back into the picture (Hebert and Link, 2009). According to Bewley(1989), Knight(1921) viewed the entrepreneur as a person with a low level of uncertainty aversion (Bull and Willard, 1993). In other words, while Knight demonstrated that risk, by definition, does not produce profit, he also stated that the uncertainty suffered returns to the entrepreneur as profit (Johansson et al., 2006: 85; Özkul, 2007: 359).

According to Leibenstein (1968), the entrepreneur develops and markets a product that offers to meet a market deficiency (Bull and Willard, 1993). He emphasizes that entrepreneurs endure uncertainty, describing them as managers who realize the human effort factor (Toigonbaeva and Eser, 2011).

Kirzner was the next entrepreneurship scholar after Liebenstein and coupled creativity with market situations (Toigonbaeva and Eser, 2011). Kirzner suggests the entrepreneur is one who perceives opportunities others have overlooked or sees inefficiency and initiates action to fill them. Rather than just spotting opportunities others missed or noticing inefficiencies, Kirzner believes entrepreneurs are proactive problem solvers. (Bull and Willard, 1993; Ghosh et al., 2021).

After Kirzner, Mark Casson has made significant contributions to the broad definition of entrepreneurship that has been adopted since then. Casson describes entrepreneurship as an all-encompassing process that involves risk-taking, chasing opportunities, recognizing opportunities, and innovating to achieve a desired outcome. It could be argued that entrepreneurship encompasses establishing a company and creating new products and services (Aytaç, 2006; Hassan, 2022).

Peter Drucker was one of the scientists who conducted fundamental entrepreneurial research after Casson. The most crucial aspect of entrepreneurship, according to Drucker, is innovation; the entrepreneur is the one who recognizes changes in the industry and uses these to develop opportunities for his business (Drucker, 1985; Gümüsoğlu and Karaöz, 2014). Drucker (1985) defines entrepreneurship as identifying and exploiting new, unique, and valuable resource combinations. This is similar to Kirzner's (1983) definition of entrepreneurship as identifying profit possibilities and taking measures to meet currently unfulfilled market demands or accomplishing what is already being done more effectively (Sikalieh et al., 2012).

Entrepreneurship writers are somewhat preoccupied with defining the word "entrepreneur." Bygrave (1989) noted that scholars continue to disagree on a functional definition of the entrepreneur, and some argue that the lack of specificity of the concept may result in the absence of workable models of entrepreneurship. A study by Hebert and Link (1988) examined the development of the term "entrepreneur" and its numerous meanings throughout history (Bull and Willard, 1993). Also, a neo-Austrian economist, Friedrich von Hayek (1899-1992), made an important contribution to studying entrepreneurship through his works. The neo-Austrian economist Friedrich von Hayek (1899-1992) also made an important contribution with his works on entrepreneurship. According to von Hayek, entrepreneurship entails a "finding process" (Swedberg, 2002; Dorin and Alexandru, 2014).

Entrepreneurship, according to Hisrich and Peters (2001: 9), is the process of producing something of value by dedicating the required time and effort, incurring financial, mental, and social risks, and gaining both financial and personal satisfaction from it (Hisrich, 1990: 209; Küçükaltan, 2009). They later added to this definition the processes of creating new knowledge, finding opportunities, or creating opportunities (Hisrich ve Peters, 2002; Karabulut, 2009).

Shane and Venkataraman (2000) define entrepreneurship as finding, evaluating, and exploiting opportunities to create goods and services (Shane et al., 2003: 259). In addition, Shane and Venkataraman view entrepreneurship as a process of identity change in product and service opportunities (Hassan, 2022). "Entrepreneurship is the discovery, appraisal, and exploitation of chances to introduce new goods, services, processes, organizational structures, or markets" (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000: 219). Entrepreneurship is vital because it is the economic mechanism that identifies and reduces inefficiencies in economies (Baum et al., 2007; Toma et al., 2014).

Because entrepreneurship is fundamentally human, it is researched not just in economic domains but also in psychological and social fields (Gümüšoğlu and Karaöz, 2014). From the psychological perspective, the entrepreneur is an individual who needs to achieve something, experiments, reaches it, and assumes authority over others. Sociologists believe that an entrepreneur has earned a name for himself in society and a reputation as a reliable individual. Sociologists think that an entrepreneur has made a name for himself in the community and has a reputation as a loyal individual (Özkul, 2008).

Reviewing entrepreneurship evolution and its definitions, a summary description can be put together. It is common to all of these definitions that entrepreneurs always "see possibilities that others do not" and turn them into business ideas (Patir and Karahan, 2010; Azumah, 2019). The historical literature on economics provides no fewer than twelve identities for entrepreneurs (Hébert and Link, 2009):

1. An entrepreneur assumes the risk associated with uncertainty.
2. An entrepreneur supplies capital to companies.
3. An entrepreneur is an innovator.
4. An entrepreneur makes decisions.
5. An entrepreneur is an industrial leader.
6. An entrepreneur is either a manager or a superintendent.

7. An entrepreneur coordinates and organizes economic resources.
8. An entrepreneur is an enterprise owner.
9. An entrepreneur is an employer of factors of production.
10. An entrepreneur is a contractor.
11. An entrepreneur is an arbitrageur.
12. An entrepreneur allocates resources among alternative uses (Hébert and Link, 2009: XVIII).

In short, entrepreneurship is a challenging and complex activity or mindset to understand (Héber and Link, 2009). Creating an innovative economic organization while navigating risk and uncertainty is what entrepreneurship entails. However, it is essential to note that every enterprise begins with a simple business idea (Scarborough, 2012). Therefore, an entrepreneur takes financial, social, and psychological risks to achieve personal satisfaction by making money and creates value by spending the necessary time and effort (Hisrich et al., 2014; Aydin, 2020).

In its most basic sense, entrepreneurship refers to the use of limited resources to create innovative processes through leveraging existing opportunities (Karabulut, 2009; Mitchell et al., 2002). Entrepreneurs manage their resources to the best of their ability in order to produce value for their stakeholders (Coulter, 2003; Hassan, 2022).

Entrepreneurship may be a helpful instrument in preventing unemployment or underemployment in economies, mainly when college or university graduates cannot find work (Brownhilder, 2014). By focusing on entrepreneurship, companies could increase productivity and the division of labor, thus increasing the division of labor (Holcombe, 1998).

Finally, the main conclusion in the review is that, over time, entrepreneurship research has gained academic legitimacy and become more institutionalized in the educational system (Landström, 2020).

### **2.1.2. Entrepreneurial Characteristics**

Numerous disciplines, including economics, management, and psychology, have studied entrepreneurship as a complex phenomenon (Çolakoğlu and Gözükar, 2016). As previously said, entrepreneurship can create new career areas. Because of this feature, entrepreneurship might be one of the ways to lower the unemployment rate. In this way, entrepreneurs, regardless of their size, are hoped to expand and sustain the

development and sustainability of their firms, thus contributing to economic development. To attain success and business continuity, an entrepreneur needs also to exhibit specific attributes. In order to do development and sustainability, a strong entrepreneurial character is one of the prerequisites (Cahayani et al, 2016). They are personal traits and skills which constitute the competency of the entrepreneur (Abdulwahab and Al-Damen, 2015).

There have been several studies undertaken about the characteristics of entrepreneurs in various settings (Bezzina, 2010; Abdulwahab and Al-Damen, 2015; Nitu-Antonie and Feder, 2015). Research and model ideas on these traits stretch back to the 1960s. According to these studies, the persons we define as entrepreneurs are people of all ages, genders, ethnicities, educations, experiences, and backgrounds, with striking shared personality qualities that serve as the foundations of their entrepreneurial motivation (Gupta and Muita, 2013). Entrepreneurs, according to prior studies, are required to possess the entrepreneurial trait (Ziyae, 2016; Riani et al, 2019).

In this context, there are many views focusing on the personal characteristics of entrepreneurs. For instance, Gartner (1990:15) defines the entrepreneur theme as entrepreneurship as involving certain characteristics and abilities that are unique to the entrepreneur. According to Westhead et al, the presence of specific personality traits predisposes an individual to entrepreneurial action (Westhead et al, 2011; Chavez, 2016). Likewise, Thomas and Muller assert that entrepreneurs are motivated individuals who have certain psychological traits, attitudes, attributes, and values (Thomas and Muller, 2000: 291; Turan and Kara, 2007: 26, Akyol, 2016). It is essential to acknowledge that entrepreneurs do not universally exhibit identical traits, and a uniform definition of an entrepreneur is not applicable.

Most of the research that is conducted focuses on psychological traits. Psychological traits play an essential role in entrepreneurial studies (Carland and Carland, 1997: 35; Chavez, 2016). The psychological approach to entrepreneurship was pioneered by McClelland's work at Harvard University. Studies have focused on qualities such as the need for accomplishment, internal locus of control, propensity to take risks, ambiguity tolerance, self-confidence, and innovativeness (Setiawan and Raharjo, 2017). These characteristics were commonly mentioned in prior similar investigations. McClelland's studies, for example, connected the need for

accomplishment to entrepreneurial traits. He observed that entrepreneurs had a greater demand for accomplishment than non-entrepreneurs. He also discovered that those who ventured into entrepreneurship tended to take calculated risks (Chavez, 2016). According to Yunus and Kauer et al., managers with high motivation and unambiguous business goals make choices more swiftly (Kauer et al., 2007). Furthermore, managers with a more significant internal locus of control are more likely to be practical and inventive (Govindarajan, 1989; Bahari, 2018).

Dollinger (1995) listed the need for achievement, the locus of control, and the risk-taking propensity as the most discussed personality traits of entrepreneurs (Dollinger 1995: 48-49; Chavez, 2016). Chell, like Dollinger, defines the "Big Three" qualities as the need for achievement, locus of control, and risk-taking propensity (Chell et al., 2008: 88). A case study by Hodgetts and Kuratko (2007) shows that the individual approach to entrepreneurship consists of factors such as the locus of control, need for achievement, risk-taking propensity, former work experience, job satisfaction, entrepreneurial parents, age and educational background (Hodgetts and Kuratko, 2007: 45). According to Westhead et al, several extensive academic studies have emphasized the qualities of need for accomplishment, locus of control, willingness to take risks, need for autonomy, inventiveness, decisiveness, self-confidence, initiative, and trust (Westhead et al., 2011: 59). The subsequent passages concisely outline eight key attributes that are integral to the makeup of an entrepreneur. These include the need for achievement, the locus of control, the risk-taking propensity, innovativeness, the tolerance of ambiguity, self-confidence, the need for autonomy, and proactiveness.

#### **2.1.2.1. Need for Achievement**

McClelland's idea that the need for achievement is a primary psychological motivator of human behavior has long been cited as a factor affecting entrepreneurial activity (Dollinger 1995: 48-49; Hansermark, 1998; Akyol, 2016). Several authors have posited that entrepreneurs exhibit a competitive nature and possess a fervent drive to attain success (Pendergast, 2003; Burns, 2005, Westhead et al., 2011, Fine et al., 2012). According to Smith (2013), one of the psychological characteristics of entrepreneurs is the need for achievement. He noted that this trait represents a person's desire to achieve a certain level of personal achievement and satisfaction (Smith, 2013: 29; Abdulwahab, 2015). Similarly, Abdulwahab and Al-Damen (2015) describe the

need for accomplishment as a psychological attribute that motivates entrepreneurs to meet high criteria contributing to success (Setiawan and Raharjo, 2017). Individuals with a strong desire to achieve often find their way to entrepreneurship and have a higher success rate than other business owners.

Moreover, the literature has widely documented the relationship between the need for achievement and entrepreneurship (Akyol, 2016). The motivation to achieve success influences the entrepreneurial spirit of entrepreneurs, which allows youths to become more prepared for entrepreneurship and to succeed with startups (Ismail et al., 2015; Olugbola, 2017). It is connected to people's desire to attain their goals quickly and flawlessly. This ambition drives the individual to overcome obstacles that stand in the way of achieving the goals (Terjesen and Hessels, 2016).

#### **2.1.2.2. Locus of control**

As early as the 1960s, Rotter developed the theory of the locus of control (Chell et al., 2008: 98). The idea is no longer considered an essential part of psychology, but it is still relevant to entrepreneurship studies (Westhead et al., 2011: 61; Chavez, 2016). Locus of control refers to an individual's opinion about whether they control their actions and accomplishments. The characteristic can be categorized into two distinct classifications: the internal locus of control and the external locus of control (Setiawan et al., 2017). The concept of internal locus of control pertains to the belief that an individual is accountable for regulating the occurrences in their life. In contrast, the external locus of control refers to the notion that chance and fate, as well as other external factors, have an impact on one's life events (Akyol, 2016). Entrepreneurs often exhibit a robust internal locus of control, believing that their actions and decisions can significantly impact their success or failure. A greater sense of control makes them more practical and inventive (Bahari et al., 2018). The locus of control is a significant distinguishing factor between individuals who engage in entrepreneurship and those who do not, as well as between prosperous and unsuccessful entrepreneurs (Ahmad, 2010: 205).

#### **2.1.2.3. Risk Taking Propensity**

Several definitions of entrepreneurship contain the idea of risk, whether in financial, social, or psychological aspects. Therefore, many believe that risk-taking is a crucial trait for successful entrepreneurs, and it is often cited as a defining

characteristic in the academic literature on the subject (Bezzina, 2010; Rani and Tih, 2013; Bux and Honglin, 2015; Herdjiono et al., 2017). Brandstätter's research indicates that entrepreneurs take more risks than managers. This is because entrepreneurs are willing to bet on their ideas and take calculated risks to succeed (Brandstätter, 2011). It has also been found by Ziyae that this character is essential to the performance of employees (Ziyae, 2016; Riania et al, 2019). Risk-taking is viewed as a differentiating attribute of entrepreneurs as compared to non-entrepreneurs and managers (Ahmad, 2010: 205). Risk-taking is viewed as a differentiating attribute of entrepreneurs as compared to non-entrepreneurs and managers (Setiawan, 2017). Risk-taking is also related to an entrepreneur's age, education, motivation, business experience and the number of years in business. (Westhead et al., 2011: 60-61). An entrepreneur's age, business experience, education, motivation, and number of years in business also influence risk-taking (Akyol, 2016).

#### **2.1.2.4. Innovativeness**

Innovativeness has been the subject of considerable interest and debate over the past few years (Venkatraman and Price 1990; Wood and Swait, 2002; Im et al. 2003; Yang, 2005; Tajeddini and Mueller, 2008). Drucker (2000) maintains that innovation is the primary instrument of entrepreneurship. It is proposed that innovation is a characteristic of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial orientation (Entrialgo et al, 2000; Gürol and Atsan, 2006). Successful entrepreneurs devise and execute competitive strategies to improve their market positions. Such strategies may involve launching innovative products and services or introducing new production methods, as well as identifying and exploiting new sources of supply or markets (Gürol and Atsan, 2006; Che Embi, 2019). To successfully implement such strategies, the potential entrepreneur must, however, possess creativity and innovation traits that show creativity and innovation (Akyol, 2016). Innovativeness is also an important feature of self-starting since self-starting is not the same as following what others have done Setiawan and Raharjo, 2017). Thus, entrepreneurs are continually seeking for new possibilities by definition (Zacharakis, 1997; Gürol and Atsan, 2006).

#### **2.1.2.5. Tolerance of Ambiguity**

The concept of ambiguity in the context of new or complex situations is one referring to uncertainty related to an outcome or result due to a lack of sufficient convictional information, knowledge, or data. Ambiguity tolerance can be defined as

a person's tendency to take risks in decision-making (Gürol and Atsan, 2006). According to Budner (1962), ambiguous stimuli are those that lack sufficient clues for the perceiver to correctly structure or categorize them. An individual is classified as having a high tolerance for ambiguity if he finds ambiguous situations difficult yet strives to overcome uncertain conditions in order to perform effectively. Jonassen and Grabowski (1993) found that people with a high level of tolerance should perform well in novel and challenging learning situations (Tajeddini and Mueller, 2009). Due to the less structured environment, uncertain possibilities, and ultimate responsibility for decision taking that entrepreneurs face, they are perceived to tolerate ambiguity better than other individuals (Entrialgo et al., 2000; Che Embi, 2019). Since entrepreneurs' judgments result in inventive and original activities, risk and uncertainty are characteristics of entrepreneurial activity (Teoh and Foo, 1997; Cromie, 2000). They view failure as a learning opportunity rather than a personal tragedy (Gürol and Atsan, 2006; Tajeddini and Mueller, 2009).

#### **2.1.2.6. Self Confidence**

Confidence derived from extensive experience refers to a sense or knowledge of one's abilities or dependence on one's circumstances (Tajeddini and Mueller, 2009). Self-confidence is faith in one's capabilities to attain desired results (Setiawan et al., 2017). It is one of the qualities entrepreneurs require (Riani et al., 2019). This trait helps them stay focused on their goals and pursue their dreams with resilience and persistence. According to Koh (1996: 17), self-confidence is a crucial entrepreneurial attribute (Abdulwahab, 2015). Cromie suggests that perhaps self-confidence is an outcome rather than a cause of entrepreneurship (Cromie, 2000; Gürol and Atsan, 2006). Additionally, self-confidence motivates people to perform appropriately and successfully to achieve success (Setiawan et al., 2017). Self-confidence is a characteristic that is typically associated with entrepreneurs (Che Embi, 2019). Entrepreneurs have the confidence to tackle any goal they set for themselves and the ability to overcome setbacks and succeed where others may fail (Tajeddini and Mueller, 2009). Furthermore, studies in the entrepreneurship literature indicate that entrepreneurs have a greater level of self-confidence than other people (Gelaidan and Abdullateef, 2017; Che Embi, 2019).

#### **2.1.2.7. Independency (Need for Autonomy)**

Depending on the context, various meanings are associated with the need for autonomy. However, the most accurate definition of the personal need for autonomy is a preference to work and make decisions independently, without outside interference (Setiawan et al., 2017). Autonomy denotes a person's responsibility and capacity to make decisions independent of conformist ideals (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Autonomy refers to pursuing and achieving personal objectives, values, and interests (Assor et al., 2002; Gelderen, 2010). Pritchard and Karasick (1973) discovered that people with a strong demand for independence prefer self-directed work, care less about other people's opinions and norms, and prefer to make decisions independently. Specifically, Barrick and Mount (1993) found that when autonomy was high, the relationships between conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness were more optimistic (Tajeddini and Mueller, 2009).

#### **2.1.2.8. Proactiveness**

One of the most important prerequisites for the success of an entrepreneur is to have a proactive personality and be able to transfer this to management (Göçmen, 2007). According to Lumpkin and Dess (2001: 431), proactiveness is the ability to anticipate and act ahead of future demands and introduce new products ahead of the competition. Al-Dhaafri et al, described proactivity as the willingness and ability of organizations to anticipate future developments. Proactivity is the capacity of the entrepreneur to start motivating others to do something useful, which adds value to himself, his organization, and society (Al-Dhaafri et al, 2013: 74). Entrepreneurs must be able to grasp possibilities quickly and precisely; they cannot rely on luck. Entrepreneurs need not only be dedicated and capable of seeking possibilities, but also of anticipating and overcoming obstacles that may occur as a result of those opportunities (Setiawan et al., 2017). Furthermore, unlike typical managers, entrepreneurs with a proactive mentality consider not only the operation of their everyday operational job but also the measures they will take in the future (Yeniçeri, 2005: 449; Göçmen, 2007).

As seen by the traits listed above, the entrepreneur varies from other individuals in numerous ways and stands out in society. Entrepreneurs can achieve success through these attributes, along with human capital and environmental factors (Tonge, 2001; Adegbite, 2007). Individuals with these traits stand out and have a significant

impact on the growth and progress of communities. People in our society can display entrepreneurial qualities, but only those with entrepreneurial characteristics are able to apply all the strategies and approaches to success. An entrepreneur, therefore, is an individual who first accomplishes their personal ambitions and then ensures the country's economic development.

## **2.2. Factors Affecting Entrepreneurship**

More people are establishing enterprises and following their entrepreneurial goals, making entrepreneurship a buzzword. Despite rising popularity, several variables might hinder an entrepreneur's success. Many elements may affect an individual's capacity to start, expand, and maintain a successful company, from personal attributes to economic and social issues. This section examines how financial circumstances, political institutions, cultural norms, and social dynamics impact entrepreneurship.

### **2.2.1. Economic Structure**

Economic organizations coordinate the activities of companies involved in producing goods or services in a society based on industrial production. A branch of science known as economics studies the totality of enterprises or, in short, economic organization (Doğan, 1995: 8). The economic structure, on the other hand, takes into account the economic conditions of their immediate surroundings (Ceylan, 2001: 20; İltar, 2008).

Entrepreneurship drives economic development and employment creation in both developed and developing nations. Due to this, evaluating economic conditions and predicting outcomes is an essential skill for entrepreneurs and business managers (Ceylan, 2001: 20; İltar, 2008). However, starting and sustaining a successful business is not without difficulties, and one of the crucial aspects that might influence entrepreneurship is the overall economic climate.

Globalization, technological disruptions, and political instability have caused turbulence in many countries in recent years, making this topic increasingly pertinent. Entrepreneurship brings chances and difficulties in a complicated, ever-changing economic context. Entrepreneurs must consider economic instability when starting and operating a business at various times. Market circumstances, availability of capital, interest rates, inflation, taxes, and governmental laws may all impact an entrepreneur's

capacity to grow their company. Entrepreneurs confront challenges during the beginning phase owing to bureaucratic barriers across nations and bureaucratic procedures. In general, the more each of these factors develops or strengthens, the more opportunities for entrepreneurship will become available (Aydin, 2020). This part examines how a country's economic systems might affect its entrepreneurship.

#### **2.2.1.1. Taxation**

Government laws and taxation may have a substantial influence on entrepreneurship (Audretsch, 2003; Audretsch and Link, 2019). Taxes pose a significant challenge for entrepreneurs, constituting a major hurdle that must be surmounted. This is because these taxes lower entrepreneurs' income (Hisrich, 1990: 211). Entrepreneurs may need help initiating and expanding their enterprises due to the onerous regulatory framework and substantial tax obligations. Compliance with these rules can be an immense challenge for small enterprises with limited resources (Audretsch et al., 2006; Naudé, 2013). Thus, policymakers must take into account taxation and regulation, as well as make sure that entrepreneurship can prosper.

#### **2.2.1.2. Access to Capital**

Capital is a fundamental component of production. Economic development depends heavily on capital supply. Entrepreneurs require funds to establish and expand their enterprises. Entrepreneurs often need more capital and access to finance. Access to finance is limited in many nations, particularly for entrepreneurs from underprivileged backgrounds. This can hinder entrepreneurship's ability to generate economic growth and development. Entrepreneurs need finance to start and expand their enterprises; without it, they may struggle to get their initiatives off the ground (Aydin, 2020). The inability to obtain finance may impede an entrepreneur's ability to extend their firm (Wickham, 2006; Korkmaz, 2012), since they may need more funds to invest in new equipment, recruit extra workers, or increase their product offerings. The notion of venture capital arises at this point. Venture capital is defined as finance offered to people or businesses with significant development potential (Tikici and Aksoy, 2013: 54). This is the primary option for entrepreneurs who need more funds. Over the past few years, countries have made efforts to increase the number of knowledge-based and technology-oriented companies with growth potential and to enhance the infrastructure for attracting investment to these companies (Westhead and Wright, 2013: 16; Baumol, 1996).

#### **2.2.1.3. Economic Stability**

Economic stability is also essential for fostering an enabling environment for entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs may encounter higher hurdles in launching and developing their enterprises in nations with unpredictable economic situations. They must deal with turbulent markets, uncertain customer demand, and other financial issues that might influence their company operations (Carree and Thurik, 2010; Acs and Audretsch, 2010). Stable economies invest more in research and development, technology, and education. This could lead to the emergence of new businesses, and those with an entrepreneurial spirit could devise original solutions to social issues.

#### **2.2.1.4. Trade Policies**

Trade policies can also have an influence on entrepreneurship. Countries with more open and liberal trade policies offer more prospects for entrepreneurship because they have more access to global markets and a wider pool of clients. Furthermore, countries with more protectionist trade policies may limit growth and innovation by creating additional barriers to entrepreneurship (Acs and Audretsch, 1990; Wennekers et al., 2005; Harrison and Scorse, 2010).

#### **2.2.1.5. Market Demand**

Another economic aspect that influences entrepreneurship is market demand. To fulfill the expectations of their customers, entrepreneurs must comprehend their intended audiences and discover prospects. The demand for a product or service may be low, so entrepreneurs may need help generating revenue. It may be difficult for entrepreneurs to generate revenue, even if they have an excellent idea for a product or service (Knight, 1921; Shane, 2000; Baron, 2007). Entrepreneurs who can discover and capitalize on high-demand areas have a higher chance of success and growth.

#### **2.2.1.6. Government Policies and Regulations**

Policies and regulations enacted by the government may have a substantial influence on entrepreneurship (Audretsch and Link, 2019). Tax incentives and streamlined regulations can encourage entrepreneurship by creating a favorable business climate. Overly restrictive or onerous policies, on the other hand, might hinder entrepreneurship. Excessive rules, for example, might make it harder for entrepreneurs to establish and expand their enterprises because they must devote more time and money to negotiating the regulatory environment (Wennekers et al, 2005).

#### **2.2.1.7. Infrastructure**

Infrastructure, such as transportation, telecommunications, and electricity, can have an influence on entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs in rural areas may face obstacles to entry due to an absence of infrastructure. Inadequate infrastructure can also raise the cost of conducting business since entrepreneurs may need to invest in their own infrastructure to compensate for flaws in public infrastructure (Porter, 1998; Ayyagari et al, 2011; De Mel et al, 2014).

#### **2.2.1.8. Labor Supply**

Another economic aspect that influences entrepreneurship is the availability of skilled labor. The need for skilled employees is of the highest priority for many enterprises, particularly in areas such as technology, healthcare, and finance. The absence of qualified staff can pose a challenge for entrepreneurs seeking to expand their enterprises. In contrast, if there are excess workers, the pay could be high, increasing the expense of doing company. However, entrepreneurs in countries with rigid labor laws may have significant difficulty managing their workforces. This might hinder their capacity to adapt to market developments and expand their company (Audretsch and Thurik, 2001).

#### **2.2.1.9. Employment Policy**

Government policies, specifically those about employment, can promote entrepreneurship development indirectly. Reduced unemployment stimulates market demand, so more items are needed, and new ones are offered. According to Méndez-Picazo et al. (2021), this phenomenon facilitates the expansion of development endeavors while creating fresh prospects and market segments that will foster the emergence of novel entrepreneurs. Economic factors can have a considerable influence on entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs and their pursuit of economic growth shape the global economy.

#### **2.2.2. The Socio-Cultural Structure**

Culture and social structure create a person's sociocultural environment. It typically refers to intangible factors humans have created that impact people's actions, beliefs, and ways of life. A person's personality, as well as his attitude, temperament, conduct, choices, and actions, are all influenced by his social and cultural surroundings. Persons' cultural, religious, educational, and social upbringing all

contribute to the beliefs, values, attitudes, habits, forms of conduct, and ways of living that make up a person (Akhter and Sumi, 2014). The social environment has a significant role in encouraging entrepreneurial activity, which must be considered while considering the sociocultural framework. The communities and cultures in which entrepreneurs operate impact them (Méndez-Picazo et al., 2021). Scholars have long argued that entrepreneurship is entrenched in a social framework, emphasizing the significance of sociocultural elements in developing new enterprises (Aldrich and Zimmer, 1986). Although entrepreneurship is an economic activity, it is also a social phenomenon, and scholars maintain that understanding entrepreneurial variations requires considering this (Thornton et al., 2011).

Thus, the social-cultural environment, in relation to entrepreneurship, can be defined as consisting of all the elements of the social system and culture of a people which positively or negatively affect and influence entrepreneurial emergence, behavior and performance, and entrepreneurship development in general. All such elements which condition the values, thinking, and action of an individual with respect to entrepreneurship comprise the social-cultural environment of entrepreneurship (Onodugo and Onodugo, 2015). Social factors include many elements in terms of their impact on entrepreneurship (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Sociocultural factors are factors that influence the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of individuals (Onodugo and Onodugo, 2015; Aydn, 2020). Social factors that affect entrepreneurship include family, educational level, and cultural values.

Family: Societies that contribute to the growth of entrepreneurs or companies influence entrepreneurial behavior (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). The most important structure that makes up society is the family. The way the family raises their child has a significant impact on the shaping of the individual. According to Güvenç (1984), a child who is encouraged by the family to gain experience at a young age will be a more confident individual in the future (Güney and Çetin, 2003). The impact of a person's family background on their values and character is an essential factor in their likelihood to pursue entrepreneurship, as it is a crucial source of influence. It is believed that the home atmosphere and values of an entrepreneurial family can greatly promote and support the development of an entrepreneurial personality or character (Kuratko, 1989). "This reasoning promotes the belief that certain traits developed and nurtured early in life will eventually lead to entrepreneurship and success" (Kuratko

and Hodgetts, 1998; Akhter and Sumi, 2014). For this reason, educational development has become more important in many societies (Kuratko, 1989; Block and Stumpf, 1992). This has gone so far that developing countries tend to enrich their curricula with courses on entrepreneurship. In Turkey, entrepreneurship education has entered public policy, especially in the last two decades, and is now widely offered at universities (Aydin, 2020).

Culture: Another important dimension of social factors is culture. A community of people's shared values and judgments is what Brooks (2003) defines as culture (Brooks, 2003). This particular collection of values and underlying beliefs exerts a significant impact on the mindset and conduct of the collective by establishing a framework for distinguishing between acceptable and unacceptable actions and determining what is considered morally sound or objectionable (Şeşen and Soran, 2014). Cultural differences naturally lead to different personality, self, and character structures. Each culture refers to different measures of meaning, value and norm systems, attitudes, and behaviors (Aytaç, 2006). Cultural structure plays an essential role in forming entrepreneurial motives and behavior patterns. Traces of culture can be seen in many elements, from traditions to family upbringing, moral rules, personality structure, behavior, lifestyle, and social environment. No single culture can be characterized as supporting or rejecting entrepreneurship (Hisrich-Peters, 2001; Aytaç, 2006).

Structural conditions, values, and norms of society can positively or negatively influence behaviors such as entrepreneurship (Aytaç, 2006; Şeşen and Soran, 2014). It is because culture creates a general level of behavior for members of society; it plays a crucial and guiding role in risk-taking, uncertainty avoidance, resistance to change, and attitudes toward innovation. Therefore, entrepreneurship varies across cultures, country to country, and even region to region (Bygrave and Minniti, 2000: 25). Morrison also advocates a close relationship between entrepreneurship and social culture. According to him, culture embodies the impulses and motives that initiate and mobilize entrepreneurship and significantly determines attitudes toward entrepreneurship (Morrison, 2000).

Several studies in entrepreneurship have considered cultural variables in light of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) seminal work showing how culture manifests itself in various ways and how national cultures influence cultural values. This view describes cultural

differences across societies regarding four quantifiable dimensions: uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity, and power distance (Thornton, 2011). Researchers have, in general, hypothesized that entrepreneurship is facilitated by cultures that are high in individualism, low in uncertainty avoidance, low in power distance, and high in masculinity according to Hofstede's (1980) theory of culture (Hayton et al., 2002).

The influence of sociocultural surroundings can significantly propel entrepreneurial activities and foster economic development, thereby providing benefits for individuals, societies, and the economy as a whole. Consequently, comprehending the sociocultural milieu in which entrepreneurship transpires is imperative for efficaciously facilitating and nurturing an entrepreneurial ecosystem.

### **2.2.3. The Legal and Political Structure**

Legal and political structures have a profound impact on entrepreneurship, from determining the ease of starting a business to the level of support available to entrepreneurs. The political structure is an indicator of both the social and economic conditions of a country and is essential both for businesses and for attracting new businesses, as legal regulations support it. Political factors provide a particular framework for the activities of companies. Political factors that affect entrepreneurship include a country's administrative style, government views, lobbying activities, political rights, and civil liberties regulations (Aygün, 2009: 50; Palta, 2019).

The legal system provides the framework for entrepreneurs to operate and protects their interests. The legal requirements often determine the ease of setting up and running a business. A fundamental overhaul of the institutional and legal framework is required in the new market economies in order to reform bureaucratic controls and encourage private ownership and entrepreneurship (Luthans, 2000). Countries with complex and bureaucratic legal systems can make it difficult for entrepreneurs to navigate the legal requirements and obtain necessary permits, licenses, and approvals. It can lead to business delays and increased costs and discourage potential entrepreneurs from pursuing their business ideas (Licht et al., 2007; Naudé, 2013). On the other hand, countries with a streamlined legal system that encourages entrepreneurship can provide a conducive environment for entrepreneurs to flourish (Djankov, 2002). In summary, legal and political structures play a significant role in promoting or hindering entrepreneurship.

## 2.3. Types of Entrepreneurship

This section briefly mentions the commonly recognized and studied topics of "intrapreneurship, corporate entrepreneurship, immigrant entrepreneurship, women's entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship, and eco-entrepreneurship."

### 2.3.1. Intrapreneurship

Intrapreneurship is a form of entrepreneurship that has come onto the agenda, especially in recent years. Intrapreneurship has been described as synonymous with corporate entrepreneurship, intrapreneurship within the organization, intrapreneurship within the organization, corporate entrepreneurship, and firm-level entrepreneurship to refer to individuals with entrepreneurial ideas who operate within existing structures (Güner and Serinkan, 2017). Intrapreneurship is the process of identifying opportunities and creatively organizing transactions between factors of production to create value (Özdevecioğlu and Karaca, 2015). Intrapreneurship, an essential element of economic development and organizational structures, is defined as entrepreneurship in operational organizations (Naktiyok, 2004: 64; Palta, 2019).

For this reason, intrapreneurship indicates an organizational structure that can develop a new product, service, and process. It, therefore, is considered an essential resource for the company's long-term success (Naktiyok, 2004: 36). According to Hisrich and Antoncic (2003: 19), the concept of intrapreneurship has eight dimensions (Table 2.1.).

Table 2.1. Dimensions of Intrapreneurship (Hisrich and Antoncic, 2003: 19)

| DIMENSION                     | DEFINITION                                                                                               |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| New Ventures                  | Establishment of new independent or wholly independent entities or businesses                            |
| New Business Areas            | Pursuit and identification of new business opportunities related to existing products or markets entered |
| Product/Service Innovation    | Production of new products and services                                                                  |
| Process Innovation            | Innovations in production processes and techniques;                                                      |
| Self-renewal                  | Changes in strategy, restructuring, and organizational changes                                           |
| Risk-taking                   | Acting quickly in search of new opportunities                                                            |
| Proactiveness                 | Top management's attitude toward initiative and pioneering                                               |
| Aggressiveness in Competition | Aggressive attitude toward opponents                                                                     |

In business, the effectiveness of intrapreneurship is observed in areas such as increased productivity, the most precise implementation of business activities, the formation of new industries, and the ability to compete in global markets (Naktiyok, 2004: 64, Palta, 2019). Intrapreneurship does come with challenges, such as resistance to change and resource allocation, but organizations that can effectively foster a culture of intrapreneurship can reap significant benefits from it.

### **2.3.2. Corporate Entrepreneurship (CE)**

Corporate entrepreneurship is a type of supra-entrepreneurship that provides organization between large and small companies. It is believed to have emerged with the economic depression of 1929 and then developed because it is economically beneficial (Karaca, 2015; Özdevecioğlu and Karaca, 2015). According to Christen, CE is the entrepreneurial behavior exhibited by an individual or group within the organization by taking a completely new initiative to strengthen or renew the existing organization (Oğüt et al., 2006: 85). Additionally, CE refers to the process of individuals within organizations seeking opportunities regardless of the resources they currently possess (Stevenson et al., 1998; Ramachandran, 2006). Entrepreneurs do not aim to produce everything themselves but to support, encourage, and collaborate with smaller companies to minimize risk and increase benefits (Top, 2012; Oral, 2020). Furthermore, CE may also entail activities that enhance the company's ability to compete and take risks, which may or may not involve bringing new companies into the organization (Phan et al., 2009).

### **2.3.3. Immigrant Entrepreneurship (IME)**

One of the emergent forms of entrepreneurship is migrant entrepreneurship. Migrant entrepreneurship is a concept related to migration (Özkul and Dengiz, 2018). Deniz defines a migrant as an individual who willingly leaves their legally established residence in a country, typically for economic reasons, and legally enters another country with permission from authorities. This individual then abides by the laws of the new country in which they reside (Deniz, 2014: 177). IME can be considered as an entrepreneurial activity that all migrant groups in a country carry out (Nişancı, 2015: 6). In other words, the type of entrepreneurship that is created by migrating from the country of birth or citizenship to another country and engaging in entrepreneurial activities in the country of migration is referred to as migrant entrepreneurship (Kayalar and Yıldız, 2017). Since they have few qualifications, low skills, or earn little,

migrant groups often struggle to obtain employment in their new nation. This situation forces them to become self-employed and prompts them to join new ventures (Özkul and Dengiz, 2018). Research suggests that immigrant entrepreneurs initially start their businesses to meet the needs of migrants from different ethnic or socio-cultural backgrounds and often focus on the lower segments of the labor market (Afewerki, 2015; Oral, 2020). The most crucial impact of IME is its role in solving unemployment among other migrant groups. It also has significant potential for revitalizing the local economy (Afewerki, 2015: 16; Özkul and Dengiz, 2018).

#### **2.3.4. Eco-entrepreneurship**

Kirkwood and Walton define ecopreneurs as owners who focus on environmental responsibility when establishing their businesses (Kirkwood and Walton, 2010; Santini, 2017). As with all entrepreneurship, eco-entrepreneurship is about innovation, business development, and market success. However, three criteria distinguish eco-entrepreneurship from traditional entrepreneurship (Abell, 1980): function (the eco-entrepreneur considers social benefit in addition to personal gain), technology (eco-entrepreneurs choose a model that does not harm the environment in the production method they use or they choose the model that causes the least harm), and customer groups (a specific group of customers who follow their ethical values is the target group (Efeoğlu, 2014)). In the late 1990s, eco-entrepreneurship came into the limelight when many researchers conducted detailed studies on environmentally conscious entrepreneurship (Larson, 2000: 310; Kyrö, 2001: 18). While eco-entrepreneurs were initially viewed as heroes determined to bring a green vision to market, they are now determined business people trying to gain market share in a competitive environment (Santini, 2017).

#### **2.3.5. Digital Entrepreneurship**

The Internet, digital technologies, and social media have created new ways to communicate, new business models, and remodeled entire industries such as music or travel (Porter, 2001; Van Horne et al., 2016). Digital entrepreneurship refers to the practice of starting, maintaining, and growing digital businesses in which the physical aspects of a traditional organization are replaced or digitized using digital technologies and platforms. According to Esmaeeli (2011), digital entrepreneurship is a distinct kind in which much or all of what would be deemed physical in a more conventional business has been transferred to the digital realm (Hull et al., 2007; Van Horne et al.,

2016). Digital entrepreneurship explores commercial opportunities facilitated by digital media and associated information and communication technologies (ICTs) (Davidson et al., 2010). In this sense, "digital entrepreneurship" refers to creating new value through an innovative company model based on digital products or services, digital distribution, a digital office environment, a digital marketplace, or some combination (Esmaeeli, 2011; Hafezieh et al., 2011). Over the past few years, digital entrepreneurs have exerted a noteworthy influence on worldwide business practices by introducing pioneering methodologies that have revolutionized the sector. Companies such as Google, Facebook, Microsoft, and Apple have substantially impacted the business sector and have also influenced our daily interpersonal communication practices.

#### **2.3.6. Female Entrepreneurship**

The Industrial Revolution aided women's departure from conventional home responsibilities and entry into the professional arena when their involvement in commercial activities increased. Reasons such as women's experiences after divorce, dismissal due to pregnancy, health problems of a family member, or dismissal for any reason led women to start their businesses (Tekin et al., 2002: 305; Palta, 2019). Thus, these reasons have given rise to female entrepreneurship. A female entrepreneur is a person who owns her own business and is a housewife, spends time working with the people she employs in her business, plans the future of the business and its investments, and has the savings to evaluate her income (Soysal, 2010). In this context, a woman today is not only a practitioner of a specific profession or a worker in different sectors but also an entrepreneur (Narin, 2006: 69).

#### **2.3.7. Social Entrepreneurship (SE)**

Rapid changes in information technologies and intense competition bring social problems to the forefront. To solve these problems and create social value, a new organization called social entrepreneurship has emerged (Güven and Kaygın, 2015). SE aims to create social value to solve social problems in which the public and private sectors have little or no interest (Özdevecioğlu and Karaca, 2015). Issues such as creating value, providing benefits, creating, capturing, and exploiting opportunities, and using various resources are important for social entrepreneurship. According to Leadbeater (1997), SE is using entrepreneurial behavior to fulfill social goals for the benefit of a disadvantaged group rather than for profit. The main difference between

social and business entrepreneurs is that they are passionate about solving social problems and creating social value (Jain and Gupta, 2006; Kümbül, 2011). According to Martin and Osberg (2007), the main difference between entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurs is that 'money' is the motivational source of entrepreneurs, while 'altruism' or 'philanthropy' is the motivational source of social entrepreneurs (Akgemci and Coşkun, 2021). The goal of social entrepreneurs is not individual welfare but social welfare and social order. For this reason, they are the first to perceive social problems in society, have the courage to take action, and are sensitive (Denizalp, 2007).

#### **2.4. The Concept of Social Entrepreneurship**

Economic systems and business practices have been undermined by the rise of social problems (Bozaykut and Titiz, 2021). Due to this, focusing on value creation rather than value capture has become increasingly critical (Peredo and McLean, 2006). These developments have elevated social entrepreneurship to a significant issue, gaining the attention of academics, corporations, and even governments (Baş, 2022).

Thus, social entrepreneurship is viewed as very important in both developed and developing countries (Yujuico, 2007), which has led to social entrepreneurship taking an increasingly prominent place in the past few years, especially regarding social change. This relevance has enabled social entrepreneurship to take a broader area in various cultures and settings, particularly in light of the current societal upheaval (Biddulph, 2018).

Furthermore, the development of social entrepreneurship has become essential to address social injustices caused by globalization, wars, global warming (Tran and Von Korfflesch, 2016), an increasingly competitive environment, and an ever-scarcer supply of resources (Dees, 2007; Kaya, 2021).

Even though social entrepreneurship is considered a relatively new concept, its logic is quite old (Dess, 2001; Mair and Marti, 2006). Social entrepreneurs have been around since ancient times, but they were not defined by the term social entrepreneurs (Dees, 2001). Since the 18th century, there have been observable initial strides in this direction:

- William Lloyd Garrison founded the American Anti-Slavery Society in 1833;
- Jane Addams established Hull House, a charitable organization, in 1839;

- In 1980, Bill Drayton launched Ashoka to assist social entrepreneurs by providing funding for their projects;
- In Bangladesh, Muhammad Yunus established the Grameen Bank in 1983 based on the belief that credit is a fundamental human right;
- In 1998, Klaus and Hilde Schwab formed the Schwab Foundation to promote social projects (Dees, 2007).

Additionally, we can cite examples of social entrepreneurs who existed before the conception of social entrepreneurship, such as Florence Nightingale (the first United Kingdom nursing school and modern nursing pioneer), Susan Brownell (by advocating for women's rights in America, she pioneered constitutional reform), Mahatma Gandhi (The Indian Independence Movement's leader), Maria Montessori (the creator of the Montessori Method, which is used in many countries throughout the world), Vinoba Bhave (The Land Donation Movement in India distributed land parcels to low-income and non-landowners), and Martin Luther King (Leading figure of the American Civil Rights Movement) (Böyükaslan and Kızıldağ, 2017).

The concept of social entrepreneurship is interpreted differently by different scholars. Therefore, there is no single definition of the term in the literature (Ünlü, 2012). As a concept, social entrepreneurship was first coined in 1972 in Joseph Banks' seminal work *The Sociology of Social Movements*, which aimed to tackle social problems with sustainable solutions and emphasized the need for management skills. Practices of social entrepreneurship arose in the 1980s with the formation of Ashoka, the first worldwide organization to assist social entrepreneurs (Ashoka, 2009; El Ebrashi, 2013).

Subsequently, Bill Drayton (1980) and Ed Skloot (at New Ventures, who was assisting NGOs in exploring new sources of income) (Dees, 2007) were essential in introducing the notion into the domain of literature (Çalkın, 2021). Furthermore, Drucker (1990) used the phrase "social innovation" to express the necessity for non-profit organizations to use management methods to enhance the efficiency of delivering social good (El Ebrashi, 2013).

As previously stated, scholars interpret the notion of social entrepreneurship in several ways. In defining the concept, Ashoka founder Bill Drayton focuses on the systemic changes those social entrepreneurs bring to sectors and society: "Social

entrepreneurs are not content with just giving a fish or teaching how to fish; they do not rest until they transform the fishing industry. The Skoll Foundation—another well-known international organization in the field of social entrepreneurship—defines social entrepreneurs as people who create innovations that disrupt the status quo and make the world a better place (Çalkın, 2021).

In general, social entrepreneurship refers to a variety of activities that, even though humankind characterizes several forms of charity and human actions, were dubbed "social initiative" (Mthombeni, 2015; Chinchilla and Garcia, 2017) for a brief time and became popular owing to the emergence of social problems in the global community (Tan et al., 2020). In other terms, social entrepreneurship is the "efforts of persons with social entrepreneurial habits to develop permanent solutions to social issues" (Pathak and Muralidharan, 2018).

Although social entrepreneurship is articulated in a broad context, there is no universally accepted definition. (Norouzi, et al., 2010; Demirtaş, 2020). A specific group of scholars defines social entrepreneurship as a non-profit project seeking alternative funding options or management practices to achieve social benefit (Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006; Austinç et al., 2003; Boschee, 1998; Leadbetter, 1997; Leadbetter, 1997).

Another set of researchers concentrated on the social responsibility practices of businesses that collaborate across sectors (Sagawa and Segal, 2000; Waddock, 1998). The third group believes social entrepreneurship is a way to solve social problems and get communities involved in creating positive change. The third group believes social entrepreneurship is a way to solve social problems and get communities involved in creating positive change (Alvord et al., 2004; Ashoka Innovators, 2000; Mair and Marti, 2006).

Many additional researchers contend that social entrepreneurship is an entrepreneurial activity that results in both economic and social advantages. For instance, according to Mort et al. (2003), social entrepreneurship is the formulation of a social purpose utilizing entrepreneurial abilities, recognizing chances to realize the mission in line with the social and economic context, delivering creative solutions, active engagement, and risk-taking (Kaya, 2021).

In their drive to achieve personal goals, social entrepreneurs are productive through new scenes, industries, technologies, and jobs (Venkataraman, 1997). They form the basis of social development and economic growth that will increase social welfare (Özdevicoğlu and Cingöz, 2009). Social enterprises also have to consider their sources of income. In general, social entrepreneurs can make money from sponsorships, contributions, and other means. Social entrepreneurs need to invest in the right areas at the right time to improve society's well-being and deliver better services (Kırılmaz, 2014).

Numerous definitions of the concept reveal that there is no single definition of a social entrepreneur, despite many similarities. The driving force behind social entrepreneurship is to produce social benefit rather than personal and shareholder wealth (Zadek and Thake, 1997), as well as to create something new rather than replicating existing businesses or practices (Noruzi et al., 2010).

#### **2.4.1. Functions and Characteristics of Social Entrepreneurship**

Inherently, social entrepreneurship focuses on finding solutions to people's problems (İrengün and Arıkboğa, 2015). Social entrepreneurs are accelerators of social change by meeting social needs with social values (Urbano et al., 2010:62). Social entrepreneurs must engage in tasks requiring strong social skills, like organizing teams that value problem-solving and finding sponsors. In comparison to traditional entrepreneurship, the outcomes of social entrepreneurship activities take longer to manifest (Renguel and Arkboa, 2015). Social entrepreneurs are expected to have patience in this regard (Rengül and Arkboa, 2015).

The social entrepreneur's close contact with society and close observation of what is happening around them enable them to develop innovative strategies and systems to solve deep-rooted and persistent social problems (Toktamiş, 2019). They are expected to be motivated not by financial gains due to inequalities in income distribution and social issues but by the process of realizing the ideas and opportunities they define (Martin and Osberg, 2007)

The characteristics of social entrepreneurs are discussed in specific steps (Prabhu, 1999: 144). It was found that some common characteristics are highlighted in the research on social entrepreneurship. In the studies, these characteristics are identified based on personal, values, demographic, cognitive, and motivational

characteristics (Toktamiş, 2019). Entrepreneurs are the source of the "creative destruction" required for major economic advancement, according to Schumpeter (1980), a 20th-century growth economist (Basu, 2012: 391).

According to Hasan (2005: 3), social entrepreneurs do at least five things. They adopt a mission to create and support social values (Hasan, 2005). They pursue new opportunities to serve this mission and try to realize their idea by taking risks (Denizalp 2007: 8). In the studies conducted by Kümbül (2010) and Denizalp (2009), the salient characteristics of social entrepreneurs are optimism, perseverance, fighting spirit and determination, knowledge of their limitations, a strong ability to empathize, and a willingness to improve (Toktamiş, 2019).

Social entrepreneurs are usually very pragmatic and can explain their business plans in detail. They also have a very independent personality. However, not all social entrepreneurs have the same characteristics. Some are charismatic speakers, energetic, polite, and well-dressed. In contrast, others are slow talkers, persistent, and self-reportedly pragmatic (Barendsen and Gardner, 2004: 45-46), accelerating social change by meeting social values and needs (Urbano et al., 2010: 62).

There is still much discussion surrounding the idea of the leadership qualities of social entrepreneurs. According to Basu (2012) and Northouse (2007), leadership is the process through which one person persuades a group to accomplish a shared objective (Northouse, 2007: 3; Basu, 2012). Additionally, social entrepreneurship demands more time and perseverance compared to other forms of entrepreneurship. Because of this, having patience is one of a social entrepreneur's most essential traits (Kırılmaz, 2012). Some researchers have also found that innovation is a characteristic trait of social entrepreneurs (Peredo and McLean, 2006: 56; Shaw and Carter 2007: 421; Özdevecioğlu and Cingöz, 2009). Thus, like commercial entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs create new organizations, introduce innovation programs, and organize or distribute new services (Sharir and Lerner, 2005: 7). Because of this, having patience is one of a social entrepreneur's most essential traits (Kırılmaz, 2012). Additionally, social entrepreneurs have a strong sense of independence. This does not imply that they operate in isolation or find themselves unaffected by market forces. They use knowing exactly how their objectives fit into a bigger picture (Barendsen ve Gardner, 2004).

Accordingly, the main characteristics of social entrepreneurs can be summarized as follows (Dees, 1998: 4; Mort et al., 2003: 82):

- Adoption of a mission to create and improve social value;
- Identifying and tenaciously pursuing new opportunities to further that purpose;
- Pursuing a continual process of invention, adaptation, and learning;
- Acting boldly without being constrained by available resources;
- Demonstrate a high level of accountability for the groups served and the results achieved;
- Exhibit virtuous entrepreneurial behavior by creating social value better than their peers;
- Demonstrate harmonious and balanced behavior between the company's goals and activities;
- Exploring ways to create better social value for its customers.

From all these points, it can be seen that a social entrepreneur can be a person who is aware of the problems in the society in which he lives, takes a critical risk, fights with perseverance and determination, researches, questions these problems, creates lasting solutions, and continuously improves in the process (Ateş, 2018).

#### **2.4.2. Areas of Social Entrepreneurship**

The fact that social entrepreneurship has many visible faces shows that the concept's scope differs depending on many variables (sectors, areas, goals, and measures) (Ertoğrul, 2019).

The definition of social entrepreneurship and its scope has been the subject of many debates and discussions, with different researchers and scholars emphasizing different variables such as sectors, areas, objectives, and measures. Enterprises can operate in different sectors, and the social problems they aim to solve can also be different. The fact that social entrepreneurship has many visible faces leads to numerous debates. The most important of these debates focuses on the field of activity of social entrepreneurship (Güler, 2008). The literature states that the concept's scope of activity differs depending on many variables (sectors, jurisdictions, objectives, and policies) (Ertoğrul, 2019).

Social entrepreneurship by sector: It is divided into various sectors, such as for-profit businesses that donate with the desire to do good, social enterprises established

for social purposes and continued as businesses, and the voluntary sector (Thompson, 2002: 413; Efeoğlu, 2014). Some researchers define social entrepreneurship as activities carried out by nonprofit organizations (Prabhu, 1999; Thompson, 2002; Spear, 2006). Some researchers argue that this would limit the term's meaning and that some commercial enterprises may also be involved in social entrepreneurship because they have a social purpose (Ercan, 2016). Others argue that if the term social entrepreneurship is applied only to the nonprofit sector, it is too narrow and that there may be social entrepreneurial movements that have applications in the private sector (Post, 2006: 27; Naumes et al., 2002: 10; Thompson, 2002)

Thomson (2002) contends that social entrepreneurship can include for-profit companies with social objectives, non-profit groups operating in the marketplace, and volunteer sectors offering social services (Thomson, 2002). Social entrepreneurship combines many social and commercial practices. Social enterprises exist between for-profit commercial organizations and nongovernmental organizations that provide social services managed by volunteers (Ersen et al., 2010; Ercan, 2016). The notion of social entrepreneurship in for-profit entities is associated with tactics such as corporate social responsibility and social innovation. Therefore, relevant to for-profit organizations (Thompson, 2000; Tan et al., 2005; Marshall, 2011; Aslan et al., 2012). Thus, for-profit companies also value social responsibility projects and invest in social projects. These businesses are referred to as social enterprises since the revenues from these endeavors are invested in social causes (Alvord et al., 2004; Austin et al., 2006; Aslan et al., 2012). Figure 2.1 below attempts to position the types of entrepreneurship

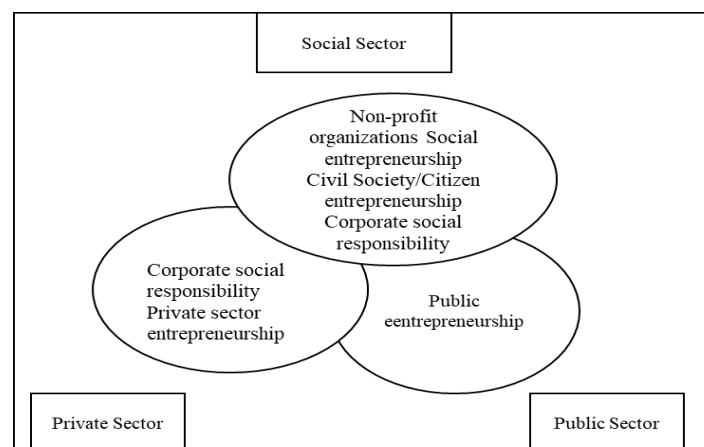


Figure 2.1. Positioning of entrepreneurship types according to sectors (Güven and Kaygın, 2015 :119)

concerning sectors, including nonprofit charities and corporate social responsibility activities (Güler, 2008).

In the model, social enterprises are mainly considered a nonprofit sector, while their relationship with other sectors is presented (Güler, 2008). As can be seen from the figure, there is no clear distinction between sectors. In summary, although social entrepreneurship is mainly specific to the nonprofit sector, it can sometimes be considered within the public sector and sometimes for-profit management that supports nonprofit organizations.

In addition to sectors, jurisdiction also categorizes social entrepreneurship. Economic, political, and social classifications of social enterprises based on their jurisdiction (Mair and Noboa, 2003). Of these three concepts, economic mandate and social mandate are opposing concepts. There is a close relationship between political mandate and social mandate; social mandate, like a political mandate, aims to ensure the welfare of society. Social enterprises have a middle perspective in all jurisdictions (Güven and Kaygın, 2015).

Social enterprises can be classified according to their primary business purpose and entrepreneurship degree. It is possible to analyze enterprises according to their main business purpose by dividing them into "enterprises that want to make profits" and "enterprises that want to make a social impact." There are also many different views on classifying social enterprises according to their objectives. The common point of these definitions is that social enterprises are organizations that pursue social goals and have entrepreneurial activities (Güven and Kaygın, 2015).

Activism is also vital in the fields of activity of social enterprises. When social entrepreneurship is viewed broadly, it gives the impression that it includes social services and activism. Although these three concepts seem similar in content, they have different characteristics. Social activists indirectly solve social problems by mobilizing other target groups, which leads people from this group to be evaluated differently from social workers and social entrepreneurs (Güler, 2008).

#### **2.4.3. Resources for Social Entrepreneurship**

Social entrepreneurs create sustainable enterprises that aim to impact society positively. Social entrepreneurs must garner and deploy resources (Haugh, 2005). The availability of resources is a pivotal determinant for social entrepreneurs, akin to their

counterparts in the conventional business domain. They look for innovative ways to ensure that their ventures have access to resources as long as they create social value (Weerawardena and Mort, 2006). However, social entrepreneurs often need help accessing resources because they focus on creating social impact rather than generating profits.

Discovering funding sources primarily focused on generating social value instead of commercial value is necessary to launch a new social business (Certo and Miller, 2008). Social entrepreneurs rely heavily on various funding sources, including individual contributions, foundation grants, member dues, user fees, and government payments (Austin et al., 2006). An organization's funding sources can be categorized into three main types: market sources, non-market sources, and non-monetary resources. In contrast, non-market sources include funding from government and program funding, as well as independent grants, donations, and philanthropy. Non-monetary resources encompass volunteer labor and social capital (OECD, 1999; Haugh, 2005).

The categorization of social entrepreneurship resources into tangible and intangible resources (Austin et al., 2006: 12) can be classified as financial, human, and social capital if we group them under the term "capital" (Smith-Hunter, 2008: 100-102; Şentürk and Mengü, 2019). This section discusses various types of resources at social entrepreneurs' disposal and how they can obtain them.

#### **2.4.3.1. Financial Resources**

Financial resources are a critical aspect of social entrepreneurship. Most social entrepreneurs require start-up capital to launch their enterprises. However, as the enterprise grows, social entrepreneurs may need to seek additional funding from various sources, including government grants, impact investing, crowdfunding, and social impact bonds. Social entrepreneurs also need access to financial resources that can help sustain their enterprises. They can also explore partnerships with corporations and foundations that support social initiatives. This includes revenue from product or service sales, and other sources of income. Financial resources are analyzed as non-market capital and market capital.

Nonmarket resources can generally be viewed as a large pool that includes contributions nonprofits collect from their members, funds they receive from the

government (Frank, 2002: 18), and donations and aid they receive from other institutions, organizations, and individuals (Haugh, 2005; Güler, 2008). From nonmarket sources, the government's financial contribution to social enterprises can be assessed through the taxes and incentives that these enterprises apply through their marketing activities. Another nonmarket source is venture philanthropy. Venture philanthropists not only financially support the organizations they fund but also provide them with social networks and management support (Zietlow, 2001: 24; Güler, 2008). Social business philanthropy views donations to organizations as investments and provides them with ongoing advice, guidance, and support (Haugh, 2007: 423). After government funding and corporate philanthropy, grants and donations are other nonmarket resources (Frumkin, 2002: 138-139). In the face of increasing competition in the nonprofit sector, all these resources are no longer sufficient for NGOs today, and these organizations need more innovative resources to ensure their sustainability (Güler, 2008).

#### **2.4.3.2. Market Resources: Earned Income**

Every nonprofit has unexplored possibilities for earning money within its current initiatives. Although the opportunities may be small, taking advantage of them can have a big overall impact (Boschee and McClurg, 2003). In the context of social entrepreneurship, earning income refers to income obtained through the sale of goods or services instead of relying on conventional nonprofit fundraising strategies. In other words, it includes all income from the commercial enterprises they founded (Zietlow, 2001: 20). The income generated by the commercial enterprises established, that is, the income generated, provides the organization with autonomy in the decisions it makes to meet the needs of the public served by the organization. It is important to note that commercial activity to generate income should be closely linked to the purpose of the organization (Zietlow, 2001: 21). Therefore, it is critical for the sustainability and future of organizations that social entrepreneurial organizations balance both the social and business aspects in a way that they do not overlap each other (Güler, 2008).

#### **2.4.3.3. Intangible Resources**

Intangible resources hold significant importance in the realm of social entrepreneurship. Intangible resources refer to assets that are challenging to quantify or measure, yet they can substantially influence a business or organization.

Within social entrepreneurship, intangible resources encompass a range of assets such as employees, volunteers, social capital, intellectual property, and many more.

*Employees:* Employees at nonprofit organizations put a higher value on the quality of their work than do those in the commercial sector. They may be willing to work for less money to achieve socially worthwhile goals. Nevertheless, it may be challenging for social enterprises to find and keep highly skilled employees since they often pay less than private companies or the market (Austin et al. 2006: 12; Güler, 2008).

*Volunteers:* As a second option, volunteering can be another way to acquire resources without paying. Hiring volunteers can help reduce the cash needed for social impact. Relying on donated resources poses the risk of not being able to acquire what the venture needs in a timely or reliable fashion (Guclu et al., 2002). Volunteers for social entrepreneurship are typically passionate about positively impacting their communities. Volunteers for social entrepreneurship are typically passionate about positively impacting their communities. By volunteering for social entrepreneurship, individuals can develop new skills, make a positive impact on their communities, and contribute to a more just and equitable society (Austin ve diğerleri, 2006).

*Social Capital:* Social capital is a crucial resource for social enterprises, serving as a supplementary asset to their human capital. This resource is of utmost significance to social enterprises. Accessing the resources a social enterprise needs to provide and sustain its services depends heavily on the social capital the entrepreneur at the top of the organization possesses (Sharir and Lerner, 2006: 11; Guler, 2008). Social capital pertains to an individual's interpersonal relationships, affiliations, and networking (Ghalwash and Ismail, 2022). The most important characteristic of social capital is that it is a resource that increases rather than depletes when used and depletes when not used (Stoll, 2002: 6).

Despite all of these resources, social entrepreneurs have a far smaller number of options for getting access to unlimited sources of funding. Social entrepreneurs encounter several challenges, including a lack of access to the best talent, financial institutions, tools, and resources, limited unconstrained capital, and intrinsic strategic rigidities that make it more difficult to mobilize and deploy resources. To overcome some of these constraints, social entrepreneurs may choose a for-profit

organizational structure in order to get access to commercial capital markets and to pay more competitive rewards in order to recruit talent (Austin et al., 2006).

## **2.5. Social Entrepreneurship in the World and Turkey**

The global phenomenon of social entrepreneurship has given rise to many social entrepreneurs in a diverse world. Although these organizations, founded on a social orientation, an entrepreneurial strategy, and leadership by social entrepreneurs, think and act locally, they have acquired recognition as a global movement in the recent decade. Social enterprise models are currently being implemented in various nations, from North America to Russia and from the United Kingdom to India (TÜSEV, 2010: 11).

Social entrepreneurship has created new markets and employment opportunities in Europe and North America. Social entrepreneurs have established businesses that provide eco-friendly products and services, such as renewable energy, organic food, and sustainable fashion. These businesses have contributed to the green economy's growth and created new jobs. The enterprises have significantly contributed to expanding the environmentally sustainable economy and generated fresh employment opportunities. The United Kingdom harbors an estimated 62,000 social enterprises, cumulatively offering job opportunities to about 800,000 individuals and yielding an approximate annual revenue of £24 billion. The North American social enterprise movement has notably spearheaded the establishment of a conducive atmosphere and framework for social enterprise on a global and domestic scale. Dozens of U.S.-based foundations, networks, and centers provide extensive resources for social enterprise development at the national and international levels (Asilsoy, 2016).

In African countries, social enterprises are essential for development and democracy (TÜSEV, 2010: 12). In Turkey, universities are encouraged to produce knowledge about social entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurship is set as the main topic of congresses in universities and is discussed by experts (Asilsoy, 2016). The following sections examine some examples of social entrepreneurship in the world and Turkey.

### 2.5.1. Social Entrepreneurship Examples in The World

Social entrepreneurship is now recognized as a potent agent of societal transformation. There are many examples of social enterprises achieving positive outcomes for society. In this section, a few of them are mentioned.

*Ashoka:* Ashoka, founded in 1980 in Washington, is a non-governmental organization that supports social entrepreneurs and works to spread skills that positively impact society. Ashoka selected the first social entrepreneurs in India in 1981 and is the world's first and most renowned platform for social entrepreneurship. The organization has changed the lives of millions of people with its support (Koçak and Ersin, 2014). In the years Ashoka started its operations, the problem of limited resources in the face of increasing social problems worldwide highlighted the importance of applications for innovation strategies in social enterprises (Koçak and Ersin, 2014).

*Jeff Skoll founded:* the Skoll Foundation in 1999 to ensure peace and prosperity persists in a sustainable world. Since 2001, under the leadership of CEO Sally Osberg, the Skoll Foundation has invested in large-scale change by bringing together innovative leaders and social entrepreneurs to solve the world's most pressing problems. In addition to grantmaking, the Skoll Foundation partners with groundbreaking and innovative organizations like Ashoka and supports them.

*Charity Water:* 2006 yılında New York'ta kurulmuş ve amacı geliştirmekte olan ülkelere temiz ve güvenli su sağlamak olan bir sosyal girişimdir. 29 ülkede faaliyetlerini gerçekleştirmektedir. Charity Water kuruluşundan günümüze kadar 64.081 su projesini finanse etmiştir. Proje maliyetleri özel bağışçılar tarafından karşılanır. Sadece büyük işletmeler değil, sosyal girişimin resmi sitesinden her bir gönüllü 40 dolar bağış yaparak, projelere yardım edebilmektedir. Girişim, 2019 yılında 56 milyon doların üzerinde bağış toplamış ve 10 milyon kişiye projeleriyle yardım etmiştir (Charity Water, 2021; Kati and Toker, 2021).

*TOMS:* TOMS Shoes is a philanthropic enterprise that operates on a one-for-one model, whereby for every pair of shoes sold, a pair is donated to a child in need. Blake Mycoskie started TOMS to aid children after seeing they lacked shoes while on a trip to Argentina in 2006. Since its founding in 2006, TOMS has given over 100 million

pairs of shoes to needy children in 70 countries (Zainea et al., 2020; Kati and Toker, 2021).

*Holy Land Christian:* Holy Land Christian: Holy Land Christian Mission was established in 1936 to distribute food baskets to families, kids, and women in Bethlehem and Jerusalem. A little medical facility was also established to handle minor ailments and infections. Their medical clinic expanded into a full-service hospital in 1970, offering free care to children with polio, club foot, and other bone conditions. Holy Land Christian officially changed its name to Children International (CI) in 1989 to reflect that our top priority is providing child sponsorship for underprivileged children (CI, 2023).

*Plan Puebla:* Founded in Mexico in 1966 by a small group of agricultural researchers. Rather than simply advancing agricultural technology, they improved corn production by supporting small agricultural cooperatives. In the Plan Puebla region, 47,000 Mexican farmers increased maize production by 62% (Alvord et al., 2004: 266; Kırılmaz, 2012).

*The Green Belt Movement (GBM):* GBM was started in 1977 by Wangari Maathai and the National Council of Women in Kenya to encourage planting trees in Nairobi. In order to cultivate, plant, and maintain trees in "greenbelts" on both public and private land, the Movement established small groups of poor community members in rural and urban locations. The Movement has created over 6,000 collectives in underdeveloped urban and rural areas around the country and has grown over 20 million trees. GBM has used a "conscientization" strategy for the past ten years to raise community awareness for self-determination, justice, better living conditions, and environmental preservation (Alword et al., 2004).

*Tateni Home Care Nursing Services:* Veronica Khosa, a nurse in South Africa, realized that the elderly were not receiving health care and that HIV patients were not being admitted and cared for in hospitals. She founded Tateni Home Care Nursing Services and introduced the concept of "home care" in her country (Denizalp, 2007). Veronica and her team initiated a healthcare service that was unprecedented in terms of quality and convenience, as it was delivered in the secure and familiar environment of patients' residences, despite their initial lack of resources (Besler, 2010). Tateni Home Care Nursing Services also provides psychological support (Kati and Toker, 2021).

*Kiva:* Kiva is a San Francisco-based multinational NGO that was created in 2005 with the goal of increasing financial access to assist underprivileged communities prosper. Students can pay for school, women can establish companies, farmers can invest in equipment, and families can afford emergency treatment because to Kiva's efforts. Loans aren't just about money at Kiva; they're also about building connections and relationships (KIVA, 2023).

### **2.5.2. Social Entrepreneurship Examples in Turkey**

The concept of social entrepreneurship has become very popular in Turkey recently. Although the names of Yusuf Ziya Bey, the founder of Darüşşafaka in 1872, Princess Zeynep Kamil, the founder of Zeynep Kamil Hospital in 1862, and Mesut Cemil, the founder of radio in the early years of the Republic, can be mentioned as social entrepreneurs in Turkey's history, the awareness of social entrepreneurship in Turkey began in 2000 (Denizalp, 2009: 22-23). Various institutional structures characterize social entrepreneurship in Turkey. Examples include foundations, cooperatives, associations, non-profit companies, and online activities (Asilsoy, 2016).

At the same time, many examples of successful social enterprises in Turkey exist. Thanks to social business networks that support social entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs can implement their ideas (Ercan, 2016). Among the most important are the activities of Ashoka and Schwab Foundations, which officially started their work in 2004 and are among the foundations that fulfill the function of networking with social entrepreneurs worldwide and providing capital support.

*Ashoka Turkey:* Ashoka in Turkey was officially launched on February 22, 2004. To date, Ashoka Turkey, driven by nearly 30 active Ashoka Fellows, supports social entrepreneurs and develops collaborations and projects that build the capacity of the social entrepreneurship ecosystem in Turkey, working with teachers, parents, and public and civil society organizations to help children develop skills that make a difference. New social entrepreneurs are inducted into the Ashoka Turkey family through annual interviews (Asoka, 2023). For example, Tuelin Akın's social enterprise Tabit, in partnership with Vodafone Turkey, provides 1.4 million farmers in Turkey with knowledge, skills, and access to new markets, enabling better agriculture (Tabit, 2023).

*Nevin Eracar / Autistic Association:* Nevin Eracar, a psychologist, was the first to teach children with intellectual disabilities, who were always hidden and ostracized by society, using a new integration method. By implementing this methodology, which elucidates how to coexist with individuals with dissimilar backgrounds and exhibit disparate behaviors, he instigated a comprehensive transformation. She first became aware of "learning to live with differences" in his work with autistic children (Denizalp, 2007).

*Nasuh Mahruki/Association for Search and Rescue (AKUT):* After a 14-day unsuccessful search for two college students who had vanished in the Bolkar Mountains in 1994, a group of climbers who were familiar with the mountains but had little experience in search and rescue came together and established AKUT in 1995. Under the name AKUT, this group conducted its first rescue mission in Uluda that same year. The organization was formally incorporated on March 14, 1996, under the name "AKUT Search and Rescue Association." With 150 volunteers, AKUT performed crucial work during the 1999 earthquake and helped save more than 200 lives (AKUT, 2023).

*Nebahat Akkoç / Women's Center (KAMER):* Nebahat Akkoç founded the Women's Center (KAMER) in 1997 to respond to women's urgent and critical needs regarding domestic violence while raising awareness of women's rights as citizens, wives, and mothers. Nowadays, The Women's Center operates in 13 eastern and southeastern Anatolia provinces, including Diyarbakır (KAMER, 2023).

In addition to the above associations founded by Ashoka members, many other social enterprises in Turkey cover a wide range of fields. For instance, the microcredit program in Diyarbakir, the province selected as the pilot region for the project, was launched in June 2003, after Muhammad Yunus arrived in Turkey. After working with Grameen Bank consultants, the project was expanded to Siirt, Sanliurfa, Van, and Batman, where 3,300 people received loans totaling YTL 3.3 million. Individuals have launched a wide range of entrepreneurial ventures, including establishments such as hair salons and retail markets. In May 2004, the Banking Regulation and Supervision Agency (BRSA) formulated a draft law on microcredit institutions, subsequently dubbed the "Muhammed Yunus Law" by the Turkish press.

*Tarlabasi Community Center (TCC):* The Tarlabasi Community Center in a socioeconomically disadvantaged area of Istanbul is another outstanding example of

social entrepreneurship in Turkey. A group of social entrepreneurs who saw the need for a community space where locals could get together, exchange ideas, and access resources founded the center. Since 2006, TCC has provided social, psychological and educational support for disadvantaged children, young people and women (Eygören, 2015).

*Başka Bir Okul Mümkün (BBOM)*: The BBOM association (Another School is Possible), founded in 2009, was created in November 2010 to create an alternative school model and open schools where this model is used. BBOM, a network of 25,000 parents, teachers, administrators, and other stakeholders, is the center of Turkey's innovative education movement (Şahin, 2019).

A variety of social organizations and social entrepreneurs are actively addressing the many challenges facing individuals in today's society while promoting global sustainability. The instances mentioned above of social entrepreneurship indicate that the amalgamation of commercial enterprise and societal influence is feasible and can yield innovative solutions to our time's most urgent global challenges. The examples demonstrate the significance of collaborative efforts and partnerships between various stakeholders, including governmental bodies, commercial enterprises, and civil society organizations, to effectuate sustainable transformations.

### **3. THE ROLE OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE CHALLENGES THEY FACE**

While women's entrepreneurship has made significant progress in recent years, essential issues must be understood further to provide valuable and insightful managerial guidance to women social entrepreneurs. In order to address deeply rooted social issues such as poverty, health, sanitation, unemployment, and others, a more comprehensive understanding of women's inclusive strategies is required (Rosca et al., 2020). This chapter analyzes the role of women entrepreneurs in social entrepreneurship and the challenges they face. The first part of the chapter begins with the definition of female entrepreneurship.

#### **3.1. Women Entrepreneurship – Definition**

With the advancement of technology and industrialization, the number of women engaging in the labor force is expanding daily (Bedük, 2005). Women entrepreneurs represent the fastest-growing category of entrepreneurs worldwide and have piqued the attention of many scholars, particularly in recent years. According to the emerging literature, women can contribute substantially to entrepreneurship (Noguera et al., 2013) and economic development (Kelly et al., 2017; Hechevarria et al., 2019; Cardella and Hernandez-Sanchez, 2020) by creating new jobs and increasing GDP (Bahmani-Oskui et al., 2013), thereby reducing poverty and social exclusion (Langowitz and Minniti, 2007; Cardella and Hernandez-Sanchez, 2020).

Being a female entrepreneur enables women to obtain greater autonomy, freedom, and independence from other types of employment, as well as develop abilities in areas such as adopting a creative approach, short- and long-term planning of women's business, and translating experience gained in the job, productive sector, to successful channels (Aklar, 1993; Yağcı and Bener, 2005, Şahin, 2006). Moreover, entrepreneurship allows women to determine their destiny and overcome their dependencies (Şahin, 2009). It has led to women engaging in more and more higher-level professional activities.

Despite the perception that entrepreneurship is primarily a male activity, women increasingly emerge as inspirational and successful entrepreneurs (Jayawardane, 2016). Women's business success is predicated on believing in themselves and taking

risks based on that faith (Şahin, 2009). Schwartz emphasized that women in the twenty-first century are more than just a traditional resource confined to the gendered sphere of the household, but rather an inventive and informed segment of the population contributing to economic progress (Schwartz, 2009 or 1989).

It is well known that different authors attach different meanings to the concept of women's entrepreneurship. Some researchers evaluate the personality of a female business founder as an entrepreneur, while others identify a housewife working at home as an entrepreneur. In some respects, working outside the home is considered an essential entrepreneurial activity (Gökakın, 2000; Demir, et al., 2017).

The definition of a woman entrepreneur differs from one research study to the next. Numerous studies of entrepreneurs, particularly women entrepreneurs, do not comprehensively investigate the various factors associated with defining a woman entrepreneur. These are the criteria (Avolio, 2011) (see Figure 3.1.):

- What proportion of a firm's ownership must be controlled by



Figure 3.1. Criteria to define women entrepreneurs (Avolio, 2011: 12)

women for the company to be labeled women-owned?

- How do the studies account for the number of "women entrepreneurs in the shadows," such as spouses and partners of entrepreneurs who engage in business operation even if their names do not appear as owners?

- Should studies on women entrepreneurs focus on women-owned businesses, or should they also include women-owned firms?

- Should studies on female entrepreneurs include self-employment, or must women be able to create jobs for others to be deemed entrepreneurs?
- Should studies on women entrepreneurs consider the fact that they are actively involved in business management, or can women entrepreneurs be the owners of a firm without being related to the company's administration?
- Should studies on female entrepreneurs consider the company's objectives?
- Should research on women entrepreneurs focus solely on the official sector or also cover the informal sector?

To get acquainted with some definitions that have been developed so far to explain the concept of a female entrepreneur (Öztürk, 2016):

Women entrepreneurs are business owners who own and operate commercial enterprises on their own, typically mindful of the personal financial risk involved. Women-owned businesses are one of the world's fastest-growing entrepreneurial communities. They have significantly contributed to economic advancement, job creation, and enrichment in all fields (Brush et al., 2006).

A female entrepreneur; the employer is a woman who has assumed administrative and legal responsibility for the workplace, is personally in charge of her job and works at work (Küçük İşl. Dergisi, 1995; Bedük, 2005).

According to Ecevit (1993), a woman entrepreneur is a woman who owns a business outside the home, works or collaborates as an owner, works alone or with other people she manages, maintains contacts with various public and private entities, plans for the future of her organization, receives profits, has the right to vote, and assumes all risks on behalf of her business (Ecevit, 1993; Soysal, 2010).

In other words, in a market economy, a "woman entrepreneur" is defined as a woman who runs her own business, works alone or with her employees, produces and sells goods or services, researches credit resources, and is capable of solving urgent issues, adjusting to changing situations, and attempting to gain expertise in this sector (Dhillon and Malhotra, 1993; Yağcı and Bener, 2005).

Medha asserts that a woman entrepreneur is ambitious, has an eye for opportunity, remarkable foresight, business acumen, enormous tenacity, and, most

importantly, is prepared to take risks due to her adventurous spirit (Medha, 1987; Chhabra, 2020 ).

Moore describes them as individuals who utilize their skills and resources to develop or create new business prospects, are actively involved in business management, own at least 50% of the company, and have been in operation for more than a year (Moore et al., 2011).

As defined by Toemen and Sarvan (2015), the female entrepreneur profile includes those women who live with their families in rented houses, have difficulty buying basic foodstuffs, engage in handicraft production at home with the aid of microcredit, or sell ready-made products (Tömen and Sarvan, 2015).

Karaman and Ay (2017) suggest that women entrepreneurs are single women who open a business to realize their ideas, gain support from their families, and gain self-confidence (Karaman and Ay, 2017).

Rouda (2008) describes women entrepreneurs as individuals who can blend their passions with their professional skills and have a unique ability to handle multiple tasks at once (Rouda, 2008).

According to Shettar (2020), women's entrepreneurship refers to the process of starting a business, gathering resources, taking risks and facing challenges, creating employment for others, and managing the business independently (Shettar, 2020).

From the authors' definitions of a woman entrepreneur, it can be concluded that an entrepreneur is a woman who is at the head of a business, who takes the initiative to start a new business, who takes on the risks involved, and who is responsible for the day-to-day activities (Chinomona, 2015).

### **3.2. The Importance of Women Entrepreneurship**

Female social entrepreneurs have exhibited a notable commitment to advancing social transformation, tackling issues of gender parity, and fostering inclusivity for marginalized populations. It was believed in business circles for many years that women, many homemakers made 80% of all purchases and that spending was considered a social event. However, today's situation is entirely different. Because working women have new and distinct requirements, but limited time to fulfill them, they represent a significant group of consumers (Bayraktar,1995; Bedük, 2005).

Social, technological, and industrial changes have encouraged more women to participate in business today. Since the development of information technologies and the increasing number of females acquiring training, women have become more prevalent in all areas of working life (Güney, 2006).

In parallel with adapting to economic life and becoming more involved in the processes of development and growth, as well as contributing to the improvement of their social status and general economic prospects (Ilkay et al., 2012), women entrepreneurs and enterprises play different roles at different stages of creation (Demir et al., 2017).

Sarfaraz et al. (2014) argue that women may contribute to economic growth and entrepreneurship. Thus, women entrepreneurs are crucial to a country's economic and social progress. In this regard, creating women entrepreneurs who will effectively shape the business world of the future will be hugely beneficial to the development of local economies and the economies of countries as a whole (Sarfaraz et al., 2014). Furthermore, women's participation in the labor force boosts their status in society, impacts the level of development in communities, and helps prevent income disparities.

Women entrepreneurs not only create jobs for themselves but also for the people they employ elsewhere. (Yeşim and Karataş, 2007). Therefore, female entrepreneurs play a prominent role in the knowledge economy by opening new business areas (Onay, 2013; Öztürk, 2016).

Most women today hold prominent positions in almost all professions and business sectors (Narin et al., 2006; Güven, 2015). They can create value by offering new products and services to customers by receiving training in fields that were once considered men's professions (Coughlin and Thomas, 2002; Arıkan, 2004; Güven, 2015).

Women's employment and entrepreneurship are also critical from a socio-economic development perspective. Various surveys show that women spend most of their income on their families. Hence, as women's incomes increase, they spend more of this income on their families than on personal consumption (Göküş, 2013).

Increasing income boosts expenditure while also allowing for savings. In contrast, studies show that when women's employment rates grow, so does their

savings rate. Because according to the studies, the savings rate increases with the employment rate of women (Goldman, 2009; Inciroğlu, 2012). Therefore, assisting women in raising their income benefits the entire family (Baltacı, 2011). With this context in mind, increasing the number of working women will positively contribute to better education and a healthier upbringing for the next generation (Incioğlu, 2012).

Furthermore, female social entrepreneurs contribute to growth leadership, management, innovation, job creation, competitiveness, productivity, and the emergence of new industries (Nxopo, 2014).

Women entrepreneurs represent a readily accessible source of potential social entrepreneurial activity that countries can use to boost their economies (Minniti and Arenius, 2003).

### **3.3. Women's Role in Social Entrepreneurship**

Women and social entrepreneurship have proliferated in recent years as fields of entrepreneurship study. Researchers have found that women are better suited to lead social enterprises in the context of social entrepreneurship. Despite the progress made in women's entrepreneurship, significant issues still need to be explored further so that women social entrepreneurs can be provided with valuable and insightful managerial information (Rosca, 2020).

Women entrepreneurs can become an economic engine and major contributor to today's economy. Their unique role in society makes them a key players in social entrepreneurship, reinventing markets, creating innovative business models, and driving social change, all of which are reshaping the commercial environment in the province. (Anggahegari et al., 2021).

Furthermore, it is pretty remarkable to learn from the motives and characteristics of female entrepreneurs who are willing to explore the conditions of their environment. There are several issues and opportunities that may be viewed as gaps that must be adequately addressed. However, this contradictory situation has resulted in the domestication of the female role. It is evident not just in society but also in the economy and other fields. Since it is associated with feminine features and situations, these circumstances contribute to the choice of social entrepreneurship (Anggahegari et al., 2021).

Women play a unique position in society. Through rethinking markets,

developing new creative business models, and promoting social reform, they are transforming the business environment. (Tian et al., 2015; Murphy et al., 2011).

With social projects, women are becoming social power with the ability to shape economies, foster sustainability, and increase welfare. (Altınay and Altınay, 2018). The majority of their motivation comes from social causes they are passionate about. They are primarily motivated by social reasons they closely relate to. Like Lindert et al. (2017), personal networks and family support play an essential role in predicting their performance (Lindvert et al., 2017; Rosca et al., 2020).

Numerous theoretical approaches have been presented to examine the process of female business formation (Brush, 1992; Greene et al., 2003) and social entrepreneurship (Short et al., 2009; Dacin et al., 2010; Choi and Majumdar, 2014). In this context, there is a growing body of literature indicating the applicability of institutional economics (North, 1990, 2005) for assessing environmental factors impacting women's business formation (Alvarez et al., 2012; Baughn et al., 2006; Brush et al., 2009) and the growth of social entrepreneurial activities (Mair and Marti, 2009; Urbano et al., 2014).

A considerable number of papers in the existing literature on female entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship are written in the context of emerging and developed countries (e.g., Carr et al., 1996; Gimmon and Spiro, 2013; Kirby and Ibrahim, 2011; Mair and Shoen, 2007; Salamzadeh et al., 2013). Several authors have emphasized the importance of women in (social/commercial) entrepreneurial activities in this manner (Harding and Cowling, 2006; Verheul et al., 2006; Noguera et al., 2013).

The research by Van Ryzin et al. (2009) points out that social entrepreneurs are likelier to be non-white, young, college-educated females who reside in big cities and have some commercial experience.

Legis (2020) stated that social entrepreneurship enhances women's empowerment. They must get regular training, embrace a culture of continual development and innovation, and join professional associations that give them a chance to network and exchange resources with others (Ciruela-Lorenzo, 2020; Legis, 2020).

Training and education are important ways for women to develop

entrepreneurial skills (professional skills such as business planning and capital options, which have traditionally been the realm of men) (Belasen and Frank, 2012). Appropriately, whether dispositional or acquired, these roles and abilities predict women's capacity to commence and nurture social entrepreneurship.

According to Levie and Hart (2011), a low income cannot match the requirements of males; hence women become social workers. Additionally, several other research papers have also examined women social entrepreneurs as changemakers (Sudarmanti et al., 2015; Maas et al., 2014; Foss, 2010). In addition, some others are on ways of their involvement in social entrepreneurship (Maestripieri, 2017; Shah and Saurabh, 2015).

Women have maintained a high percentage of jobs in social work over the decades, and their employment in initiative jobs has increased considerably, especially in recent years (Levie and Hart, 2011). Similarly, women's engagement in social entrepreneurship and their participation in business start-ups have also risen (Brush et al., 2009; Langowitz and Minniti, 2007). Therefore, governments at all levels in both developed and developing nations have been designing and implementing a variety of instruments to encourage female entrepreneurial involvement (Urbano et al., 2014).

Using primarily cross-sectional approaches, scholars have studied women's entrepreneurship primarily through cross-sectional research from many different angles, e.g., growth strategies, networks, social capital, and performance (de Bruin et al., 2007), as well as based on other theoretical frameworks such as entrepreneurial desire, opportunity recognition, and execution. (Rosca et al., 2020).

Women are categorized as the 'other' type of entrepreneur in most studies on social entrepreneurship. Although women are discussed in the literature, most researchers focus on the physiological and psychological distinctions between men and women. It was not perceived that they had contributed more to the creation of social values that have grown out of their social entrepreneurship involvement. (Anggahegari, 2021). However, they are conscious that by allowing women more significant social and economic engagement, they contribute to their nation's economic prosperity and are protagonists in the search for the required peace. (Ciruela-Lorenzo, 2020).

Studies conducted by scholars in the fields of gender, diversity, and

entrepreneurship have also shown that, due to feminine traits such as compassion, empathy, and emotionality, women are in a better position to lead social enterprises (Clark Muntean and Ozkazanc-Pan, 2016). Regarding socioeconomic development and poverty reduction, such female entrepreneurs are key agents of change (Kimbu and Ngoasong, 2016; Rosca, 2020).

Compared to men, women are more likely to encounter low wages, jobs without labor rights or formal contracts, and minimal social protection. Unleashing women's leadership and empowering them through social entrepreneurship is an inimitable way to address some of the challenges women face (Montok, 2016). Through training, mentorship, networking, and financial support, women social entrepreneurs can accomplish this (Gupta, 2016; Legis, 2020).

Women have the edge over males in implementing the significant responsibilities of social entrepreneurship due to their emotional client orientation, caring, and responsible attitude. Usually, social entrepreneurship, for men, becomes more of a hobby they pursue after they've built a successful career. However, for women, it is a means to become independent and take control of their lives and jobs. The fundamental distinction of this style of entrepreneurship is its emphasis on solving severe social problems and maximizing public usefulness through typical commercial organization procedures (Kashina and Utkina, 2015).

Female social entrepreneurs are more likely than men to emphasize social worth over financial gain. Women consider social entrepreneurship to assist others in accomplishing their goals (Terjesen, 2017).

In the context of international social work, it is crucial to investigate the possibility of women's social entrepreneurship having a long-term impact on community sustainability. Women's social entrepreneurship is within the realm of social work for two main reasons. As a first benefit, being involved in social entrepreneurship empowers and supports a vulnerable and marginalized group (women) in society. Second, social entrepreneurship helps relieve social problems by recognizing a community's needs and harnessing several resources that can affect social development and increase community sustainability (Connor, 2014).

In many cases, women social entrepreneurs are motivated by personal experience to solve an urgent problem. Therefore, like traditional entrepreneurs, they

start with a clear motivation to solve a specific problem. Unlike conventional entrepreneurs, female social entrepreneurs in emerging nations seized every opportunity by employing the effectuation principle. They begin with a restricted set of resources, focus on affordable losses, enter into strategic alliances and partnerships to produce and sell the product, exploit environmental variables and attempt to govern an unpredictable future (Perry et al., 2011).

Often, women entrepreneurs are more socially involved since the entrepreneurship of one victim may inspire another to take on an activity, thus creating a chain of help. Entrepreneurship would become a movement in their surroundings for these women, in addition to personal and familial subsistence. For instance, these are the words of one of these women:

“For me, work with the community and social work are essential. I employ women from the community; I give them the opportunity to work because that is what we need, opportunity. People don't want to be given things, no, and people want to be given the opportunity to grow, the opportunity to be able to serve other people. I do that too, so it favors; we work together, generating employment, wealth, and links. In addition, we work respecting the environment and Pachamama, unlike many companies in Colombia. Working for the community is also working to preserve where we are. I live in the field; I need the field to be good. It must be a sustainable development” (Ciruela-Lorenzo et al., 2020).

Women's empowerment in initiating and mobilizing support for social entrepreneurship as a venue to solve problems affecting them and their communities is vital within this context. Many challenges might impede the success of women entrepreneurs (Belasen and Angiello, 2018).

The entire community can suggest strategies for expanding the number of female entrepreneurs, particularly those involved in social entrepreneurship, rather than emphasizing women as objects of empowerment. In today's society, several non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and non-profit organizations (NPOs) are dedicated to empowering women in community and promoting women's entrepreneurship (Anggahegari et al., 2021).

We present two non-profit organizations formed by and for women in this context: the CIMA and the ADEPMA. ADEPMA and CIMA are two instances of pure

social entrepreneurship with an apparent and exclusive social objective: to enable women to access historically male-dominated industries such as cinema and other audio-visual activities (CIMA); and, more broadly, to allow women to be involved in leadership positions in business and politics (ADEPMA) (Benavides-Espinosa and Mohedano-Suanes, 2012).

These NGOs play an essential responsibility in empowering disadvantaged women, assisting them in capacity building through programs such as vocational training, socio-economic projects, and other empowering interventions (Benavides-Espinosa and Mohedano-Suanes, 2012).

As a kind of enterprise, social entrepreneurship allows women to blend their confidence in their professional relevance with socio-cultural notions about women's societal roles, reducing many subjective barriers to their entrepreneurial activities (Levie and Hart, 2011). Regarding social entrepreneurship, women have played a much more significant role in distinguishing themselves from men, and they are almost as likely to be social entrepreneurs as men (Belasen and Angiello, 2018).

### **3.3.1. Characteristic Traits of Women Entrepreneurs**

Most of the previous research on entrepreneurs' characteristics was focused on male entrepreneurs. Studies on women's entrepreneurship have generally concentrated on issues related to women's age, marital status, education, and management skills (Hodgetts and Kuratko, 1995). In contrast, contemporary research approaches women's entrepreneurship from a broader sense by expanding the spectrum of topics. These studies have mainly explored female entrepreneurs' characteristics (Arıkan, 2013).

Today, it has become vital for women to improve their careers for themselves and society. An educated, determined, ambitious, and steadfast attitude saves women from being dependent on men and helps them strengthen their social position and economic independence (Seylan, 2013).

Women entrepreneurs have unique qualities that give them power. These women have found a way to use their wits, business acumen, and imagination to build outstanding businesses. The factors that give women the ability to grow their businesses are that women are not afraid of challenges and are restless. They are creative and believe in themselves.

Different scholars classify women as entrepreneurs with other characteristics. It is more likely for insistent, innovative, restless, and adventurous women to establish their businesses (Krueger, 2000). Specific features of female entrepreneurs include previous work experience, confidence in their talent, and the ability to take on a leadership role (Lee-Gosselin and Grisé, 1990; Belwal et al., 2014). Women entrepreneurs have an entrepreneurial spirit because they have a sense of responsibility, a preference for moderate risk, confidence in their abilities, a high level of optimism and energy, a desire for immediate feedback, a focus on the future, organizational skills, and a commitment to the success of their business (Thomas et al., 2007; Belwal et al., 2014).

In her article on the rise of women entrepreneurs in business, Susanne Jalbert identified the following characteristics of women entrepreneurs (Jalbert, 1999; Güleç, 2011): a high energy level, social skills, financial competence, interpersonal skills, and general business management capabilities.

Women entrepreneurs, by Shettar (2020), have to possess self-confidence, ambition, passion, perseverance, humility, willingness to learn, hard work, clarity of thinking, and determination. Zhao (2005) also describes female entrepreneurs as qualities such as ambition, risk-taking, and autonomy over their enterprise (Zhao, 2005). Turan and Hepkul (2016) found that income is the primary motivating factor for both genders, followed by family business continuation for men and independence for women.

To be successful, women entrepreneurs must possess certain personal qualities. In part because women's personality traits influence entrepreneurial careers. Women entrepreneurs cited self-confidence, courage, communication skills, patience, and modesty as their most important personal characteristics. Entrepreneurial women emphasized self-confidence, boldness, communication skills, patience, and humility as the most significant aspects of their personality (Ufuk, 2001).

Research performed by Lee-Gosselin and Grise (1990) found female entrepreneurs needed personal qualities such as stability, energy, dynamism, diligence, and communication skills (Lee-Gosselin and Grise, 1990). Several other studies have found that women entrepreneurs possess a rich talent pool and creativity, which can be developed for their self-actualization and that of society (Kikwasi, 2005; Hodginkson, 2006, Sospeter, 2014).

Furthermore, a great deal of research has been conducted on women entrepreneurs and the psychological characteristics, motivations, and sources of inspiration they possess. Dhillon and Malhotra found that women entrepreneurs' desire to succeed and follow their interests is the chief motivation for starting a business (Dhillon and Malhotra, 1993; Güney, 2006) (see Tablo 3.1.).

Table 3.1. Motivations for women entrepreneurs (Güney, 2006: 35)

| <b>Motive</b>                  | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
|--------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Ambition                       | 11               | 27.5              |
| Self-interest                  | 11               | 27.5              |
| Independence                   | 5                | 12.5              |
| Financial challenges           | 4                | 10.0              |
| Comfortable standard of living | 4                | 10.0              |
| The desire to engage           | 2                | 5.0               |
| Comfortable dual position      | 1                | 2.5               |
| Investment                     | 1                | 2.5               |
| Drive to create jobs           | 1                | 2.5               |

In contrast, women entrepreneurs possess entrepreneurial characteristics related to socio-cultural values such as being respected in their environment, evaluating resources and relationships well, nurturing and protective, cooperative, and gaining family support (Yetim, 2008).

Studies examining gender differences in women entrepreneurs indicate that men's entrepreneurial experience is dominated by economic expectations, while personal expectations influence women entrepreneurs. (Kutanis, 2003; Narin et al., 2006; Gül, 2016). According to a 2006 study, female students exhibited more sympathetic abilities and better social skills and were perceived as more responsible than male students (Halıçınarlı ve Bender, 2006; Göküş, 2013).

Female entrepreneurs can also bring their emotional intelligence to their business, with the sensitivity and difference that comes from being a woman, and they usually find favorable outcomes as a result (Şahin, 2006: 41).

When examining female entrepreneurs' qualities, it is also essential to underline their demographic traits. Research shows that most female entrepreneurs fall into the 36-45 (33.9%) and 26-35 (28.6%) age categories. The central part of Turkish women operates their businesses between the ages of 35 and 45 (Art, 1993; Decat, 1993;

Çelebi and Sallan, 1997; Ufuk and Özgen, 2001; Yetim, 2004; Spidercu, 2015). Most entrepreneurial women start their businesses beyond 35, after raising their children and completing their duties as mothers and spouses (Bener, 2005).

Consequently, successful female entrepreneur's must-have innovation, caution, adaptation to changing conditions, the capacity to achieve various goals, the ability to discover solutions, coordination, and the courage to assert themselves. Women entrepreneurs who possess these qualities and are capable of leading can be highly successful (Güven, 2015).

### **3.3.2. Factors that Motivate Women to Become Social Entrepreneurs**

Women's desire to be their own boss stems from various reasons. Talking specifically about women, a woman's decision to establish her own business does not usually originate from a single motivating cause. While some of the women with an entrepreneurial spirit resort to this path because they want to gain economic independence, a large part of them direct their work in order to feel psychologically pleasing and to show that they exist in this world (Ar, 2018; Uygun and GünAydin, 2019). Women, in particular, are drawn to social entrepreneurship to address social issues and promote social justice.

Various factors can influence women's choices to engage in social entrepreneurship, including individual attributes, informal organizations, and cultural assumptions. A desire to improve their networks and address social issues that are important to them drives many women. Faced with social actions or inequalities, such as discrimination or destitution, women can often turn to social business ventures to advance civil rights and participate in disparaged gatherings. For these women, engaging in social entrepreneurship provides an avenue to align their skill sets with specific objectives and substantially influence society. Thus, it is valuable first to assess the array of factors that may contribute in varying degrees to “pushing” or “pulling” a woman into business ownership (Stevenson, 1986; Itani et al., 2011). Financial crises around the world, unemployment and divorce rates on the rise, a lack of interest in working for salaries and wages for various reasons, the desire for economic freedom, and other factors encourage women to venture into entrepreneurship (Zeidan and Bahrami, 2011).

Numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the factors that influence the process of business creation by women. As per Nguyen (2005), most ladies go into business to give themselves extra adaptability and life balance in dealing with their customary obligations as spouses and guardians of youngsters (Alam et al., 2011). Hisrich et al. (1997) found that the progress of female business visionaries can be attributed to different elements, including instructive fulfillment, long stretches of involvement, ownership of business abilities, individual objectives, and procedures for assessing execution (Ramadani et al., 2015).

Ascher's (2012) research proposes that ladies in business are propelled by different variables, including the longing to produce pay, invest heavily in their accomplishments, look for change, achieve independence and freedom, and beat snags, for example, the "unreasonable impediment" in their present place of employment or workplace. In addition, Ascher (2012) claims that women may find inspiration in the sense of pride and success that comes with founding and operating their businesses.

Based on their motivators and motivations, Bruni, Gherardi, and Poggio (2004) created a remarkable classification of female entrepreneurs, presented in Table 3.2. (Bruni et al., 2004; Ascher, 2012).

Table 3.2. Typology of profiles of female entrepreneurs (Ascher, 2012: 102)

| Type                    | Incentives                                                                                                                                      |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Aimless                 | Young women who start their own businesses because they are unemployed                                                                          |
| Success- oriented       | Young women see entrepreneurship as a long-term strategy                                                                                        |
| Strong success oriented | Women who perceive entrepreneurship as a chance for self-actualization or as a way to get past the "glass ceiling"                              |
| Dualists                | Females wanting flexibility to reconcile family and work responsibilities                                                                       |
| Return workers          | Women who abandoned their occupations to care for family responsibilities but are still driven to achieve their goals outside of their families |
| Traditionalists         | Women who come from a large family basis in entrepreneurial tradition                                                                           |
| Radicals                | Women who lead the way in promoting more pro-female trends in society                                                                           |

Schwartz (1979) discovered that women established firms mostly out of a drive to achieve, a desire to be independent, a need for job fulfillment, or an economic necessity. Scott's (1986) study reported that women entrepreneurs wanted to be their boss, wanted the challenge, or wanted to make more money (Alam et al., 2012).

In addition to the research, as previously stated, numerous researchers categorized motivations into push and pull components (Kirkwood, 2009; McClelland et al., 2005; Gray and Finley-Hervey, 2005; Orhan and Scott, 2001; Cavada et al., 2017). For example, Orhan and Scott (2001) propose that both "push" and "pull" factors can add to women's inspiration to become business visionaries and that these factors often work together in combination rather than as distinct choices. Walker and Webster (2007) contend that "push" rather than "pull" factors influence women's entry into the business sector (Ascher, 2012).

Women perceive large organizational work environments as hostile, which may have a significant impact on their higher turnover rates, according to another study by Stokes, Riger, and Sullivan (1995). According to "push" factors, women are more likely to choose entrepreneurship than men (Alam et al., 2012). Fielden and Davidson (2005) also noted that women's success in business is influenced by "push" and "pull" (Ramadani, 2015).

According to the study conducted by Al Matroushi et al. (2020), Table 3.3. presents the prevailing factors for entrepreneurship as identified in the scholarly literature (Al Matroushi et al., 2020).

Table 3.3. Pull and Push factors (Al Matroushi et al., 2020: 594)

| <b>Pull factors</b>                         | <b>Push factors</b>                           |
|---------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| Autonomy and independency                   | Lack of higher education                      |
| Personal satisfaction and achievement       | Dissatisfaction with previous occupation      |
| Gaining higher social status                | Unemployment                                  |
| Economic freedom                            | Lack of career prospects                      |
| Use of personal knowledge                   | Lack of support (family, friends, government) |
| Rejecting stereotypical feminine identities | Lack of skills                                |
| Business familial background                | Non-business familial background              |
| Government support                          | Work-life balance                             |

The table shows that the factors contributing to the success of women entrepreneurs in business are varied. Researchers have observed that, in general, pushes relate to adverse factors in an individual's situation, such as low income and dissatisfaction at work, while pulls refer to positive factors, such as potential financial rewards, that encourage individuals to become entrepreneurs (Dimov, 2007b; Haddad,

2017). Thus, in the push-factor framework, the need for power and accomplishment is the pull factor, while a lack of prospects, a decline in income, underemployment, and unsatisfactory working conditions are the push factors for women's entrepreneurship decisions (Naser et al., 2009; Al Matroushi et al., 2020).

Push factors are either personal (e.g., divorce) or social forces that direct a woman towards self-employment (Itani et al., 2011). On the other hand, pull factors include striving for self-satisfaction or maintaining social status and independence (Sarri and Trihopoulou, 2005). Therefore, 'push' factors encourage women to leave their current jobs, whereas 'pull' factors encourage them to become entrepreneurs (Hughes, 2003; Baughn et al., 2006; Ramadani et al., 2015). It is also possible to combine the push and pull methods (Hisrich and Brush, 1986; Scott, 1986; Mustapha, 2016).

Push and pull forces in social entrepreneurship involve a variety of personal, societal, and economic considerations. Most common among the "push factors" that motivate women to become social entrepreneurs are dissatisfaction with their current jobs, discrimination, and passion for social change.

In addition, Alam et al. (2011) and Javadian and Singh (2012), in their findings, argued that strong support from insiders, such as parents and/or husbands, is also very important for women entrepreneurs. Thus, family's emotional or instrumental support is one of the crucial success factors for women social entrepreneurs (Alam et al., 2011). Brindley (2005) stated that the main source of support and assistance came from family and friends during the initial business phase. Women often launch their businesses with the aid of their families and peers, even though they are self-motivated (Mustapha, 2016).

Regardless of these factors, women's education levels are increasing, the cultural structures of societies are changing, and women's willingness to engage in entrepreneurial activity is increasing both because of themselves and because they take successful entrepreneurs as role models (Kaygın and Güven, 2015).

### **3.4. Environmental Factors Affecting Women's Social Entrepreneurship**

The social circumstances and environment that produce and shape entrepreneurial outcomes are also factors in the process of entrepreneurship (Jack and Anderson, 2002: 467). Economic, political, social, technological, cultural, legal, and

international environmental factors support or hinder entrepreneurship. A change in one or more of these factors affects entrepreneurial behavior positively or negatively (Kaygın and Güven, 2015).

Among all the environmental factors, the one that has the most impact on human beings is the culture of a society. The impact of social culture on the level of entrepreneurship within a country is a crucial determinant (Döm, 2008: 39). Since each individual carries the dominant cultural values of the society in which he or she resides (Arkan, 2004: 249). From customs and traditions to family upbringing, morals, behaviors, lifestyles, and the social environment, there are many aspects of community culture. It is in this environment that entrepreneurial motives and behaviors are shaped. The initial impulses and incentives related to entrepreneurial qualities such as success, risk taking, courage, saving, etc. are the result of culture (Aytaç and İlhan, 2007: 107; Kaygın and Güven, 2015). Thus, culture shapes the norms and values of a society, which can affect the role of women in entrepreneurship. Positive cultural elements can help women company owners by fostering an environment that welcomes, respects, and celebrates women's contributions to the business world.

One of the critical social factors contributing to the success of women social entrepreneurs is the presence of supportive networks and communities. Jiatong et al. (2021) found social networking boosted social entrepreneurship and sustainable enterprise development. This assistance increases confidence, motivation, and expertise, which are essential for business success (Bullough et al., 2022). Moreover, through supportive networks, women social entrepreneurs can build valuable relationships that can help them secure funding and partnerships (Aparicio et al., 2022).

Government activities are one of the key determinants of women's social entrepreneurship. Government assistance, encompassing various forms of aid, financial resources, skill development initiatives, and tax incentives, can significantly contribute to the prosperity of women-led entrepreneurial enterprises. Nasser (2012) stated that government support is beneficial to women entrepreneurs. However, strict government policies related to investments and returns for small and medium-sized enterprises adversely influence women entrepreneurs. Świerczek (2007) also argued that the biggest obstacle to business women's success is government-provided capital, including money, equipment, and technology, as well as limited education

opportunities (Umoren-Ehigie, 2003). The government's efforts to encourage women to engage in entrepreneurial activities by funding business startups are beneficial for increasing women's entrepreneurship (Guled and Kaplan, 2018).

Economic factors are critical to promoting women's social entrepreneurship. Access to finance, markets, and resources is a vital factor in the success of women entrepreneurs (Jeni et al., 2021). It has been identified that women social entrepreneurs with access to funding and resources are better able to invest in research and development, marketing, and other areas that can help them grow their businesses and achieve their goals (Bullough et al., 2022).

Regardless of these factors, women's education levels are increasing, the cultural structures of societies are changing, and women's entrepreneurial activities are increasing. Their willingness to engage in entrepreneurship increases because they motivate and take successful entrepreneurs as role models.

### **3.5. Challenges Faced by Women Social Entrepreneurs**

Starting a business has many dimensions, and women and men must deal with many problems. However, women entrepreneurs have to deal with problems other than those related to starting a business (Güney, 2006: 37). There have been numerous studies on the issues that women entrepreneurs face. The standard view of these studies is that women have other problems, such as social norms, a lack of knowledge and experience, a lack of education, role conflict, and general entrepreneurship problems. Another factor that poses as big a problem in women's entrepreneurship as this traditional belief structure is the segregation of business lines between men's and women's work. Today, the glass ceiling barrier is one of the problems for women who are employees of corporate firms or business owners simply because they are women. It is a common problem that women are employed in low positions, and their opportunities for advancement are blocked. A businesswoman who struggles with all these problems at work is also a wife and mother at home. In this case, women also face problems such as role conflict and time constraints (Soysal, 2013: 170).

Starting and operating a business involves considerable risks and effort for any entrepreneur, mainly because of the high failure rate. The risk is elevated for female entrepreneurs, as they often necessitate further education and training in this domain and encounter the obstacles associated with operating within a historically male-

dominated sector (Botha, 2006). Men and women experience personal, domestic, and social problems, but women record more difficulties (Karasi, 2018). Although women's participation in business varies from country to country and from sector to sector at the global level, business life has many advantages for female workers but also difficulties for various reasons (Öğüt, 2006: 57).

According to Stevenson (2010: 287), a challenge is a situation that tests someone's abilities and points out that a challenge is a thing, action or situation that causes an obstruction; it blocks or hinders progress. Nani (2011: 3) is of the view that a challenge is something needing great mental or physical effort in order to be done successfully. For the purpose of this section, challenges will refer to those hurdles that hinder women entrepreneurs in their businesses, requiring them to use great mental effort. Additionally, challenges will be viewed as hurdles that make a woman entrepreneur's business not run effectively and efficiently (Chinomona and Maziriri, 2015).

Women's involvement in business life as entrepreneurs requires consideration of the problems and obstacles that this situation brings. However, women entrepreneurs struggle with problems other than those related to starting a business (Güney, 2006: 37). The degree and intensity of the problems faced by women entrepreneurs are not the same, and the various problems they face are not isolated but interconnected. Overall, women entrepreneurs face challenges like lack of capital, transportation and marketing issues, the perishability of some goods and competing demand from household chores, licensing issues, finding staff with the right skills and willing to work for a small firm, and making sure they have time to update their skills and keep up with industry developments (Mwobobia et al., 2012).

Even though women want to be entrepreneurs, certain conditions sometimes encourage them but often push them to act timidly. It is seen that most of these conditions arise for socio-cultural reasons (Narin et al., 2006). First of all, women's family responsibilities (Arslan and Toksoy, 2017) constitute an obstacle for them to become successful entrepreneurs, and the burden of children, home, and family members causes women to be unable to direct all their energy to their work. The difficulty of reconciling work with family responsibilities is more severe when the family cannot accept the woman as a "businesswoman," which can limit business

success. Complaints begin to arise when there are disruptions in women's roles, which may disturb women entrepreneurs conscientiously (Kutanis, 2006).

There have been numerous studies on the issues that women entrepreneurs face. The literature reviewed, including studies conducted on women entrepreneurs in various geographical, economic, and social contexts, identifies several challenges women entrepreneurs face. Several authors (Valla, 2001; Aslam et al., 2013; Mboweni, 2015) have categorized some of their challenges. These include social and cultural norms, sociocultural elements, social and personal issues, technical and financial considerations, entrepreneurial and economic variables, and infrastructural, educational, occupational, role, and behavioral constraints (Karasi, 2018). Kim et al. (2020) identified two significant challenges women entrepreneurs face: external and internal. External barriers are obstacles that the entrepreneurs faced as a result of the political, economic, and societal contexts in which they were operating. Internal difficulties result from the personality features, training, and prior experiences of the entrepreneurs (Kim et al., 2020).

Mwobobia (2012) found that women entrepreneurs face challenges such as a lack of capital, difficulties in transportation and marketing, the perishability of some commodities, competing demands related to household chores, licensing issues, finding staff with the right skills, being willing to work for a small firm, and making sure they have time to update their skills and keep up with developments in the field (Mwobobia, 2012). According to Makokha (2006), the financial and social needs of female entrepreneurs conflict with the requirements of their businesses, which results in a diversion of money away from the requirements of the businesses. In a study of Western women, Bereni (2009) outlined how gender socialization and a lack of family support prevent women from starting their enterprises (Mwobobia et al., 2012).

In a study by Dhillon and Malhotra (1993: 90), women entrepreneurs reported that one of the biggest problems they faced was related to employees. Family obligations and issues they encountered simply because they were women came after this. According to Kurtsan, women in Turkey need more education and financing problems to become entrepreneurs. Twenty-three out of every 100 women over fifteen are illiterate and lag behind men in terms of schooling rate (Güney, 2006). Thus, according to studies, tradition, custom, and social conditioning, especially in developing economies, inhibit the confidence, independence, agency, and mobility of

women (Karasi, 2018). The challenges women entrepreneurs face is summarized in the following sections of the study under the headings of micro-level challenges, macro-level challenges, and challenges related to market entry strategies

### **3.5.1. Micro-level Challenges**

The most prevalent themes in entrepreneurship research have traditionally revolved around micro-level factors (Nani, 2011). Micro challenges include all those barriers that affect women entrepreneurs as individuals in their capacities. Thus, micro-level problems affecting the entrepreneurial characteristics of women entrepreneurs are defined as problems related to themselves and their immediate surroundings. Valla (2001) categorizes personal challenges into roles and behavioral barriers (Karasi, 2018). According to Kutaisi's research (or Kutaisi), inexperience, lack of knowledge, isolation, inability to participate in the social information network, inability to establish the necessary communication with the customer, family reactions, excessive workload, and negative attitudes in the perceptions of customers and colleagues constitute the problems in the micro dimension (Kutanis, 2006: 65).

How women entrepreneurs are perceived in society also affects their position in society. In addition, good customer and employee interaction is necessary to increase the success of their businesses. However, due to gender, women entrepreneurs also have difficulties in this regard. The fact that men have more entrepreneurial backgrounds and experience than women makes this problem worse (Kutanis, 2003, p. 60; İlter, 2008). In this context, ignorance, lack of experience, weak customer relations, not being included in the social security system, excessive work products, and negative attitudes in the business environment can be listed as micro-level challenges (Kutanis and Alparslan, 2006: 142). Women-specific issues, called micro-level challenges, are described below under the main headings of lack of confidence, role conflict, discrimination, and lack of commercial and managerial experience.

#### **3.5.1.1. Lack of Confidence**

Their self-confidence affects the intuition (perception and comprehension) of entrepreneurs who will make new investments. If an individual is confident, their decision is seen as less risky. However, if an individual has low confidence, he/she has difficulty making decisions and believes they are riskier (Brindley, 2005:148; İlter, 2008). Women's lack of self-confidence is one of the biggest obstacles to decision-

making in entrepreneurship (Balkı, 2022). In the research conducted by Gökakın (2000: 117), it was determined that the main problems women entrepreneurs face are authority and insecurity. Research indicates that some women entrepreneurs spend a long time gaining trust, and some think that no matter how knowledgeable they are, their words are not as valid as men's (Sosyal, 2010).

The fact that women entrepreneurs' abilities and skills in independence, using initiative, adopting new ideas and skills, and working outside the home are limited by culture and traditions causes a lack of self-confidence, which is one of the problems women entrepreneurs face when establishing their businesses (Balkı, 2022). A feeling of confidence is inherent in women. However, this feeling must be revealed (İlter, 2008). Providing women entrepreneurs access to education, training, funding, and mentorship can help boost their confidence levels and enable them to achieve their full potential.

#### **3.5.1.2. Role Conflict**

Kahn et al. (1964: 19) defined role conflict as the “simultaneous occurrence of two or more pressures such that compliance with one would make compliance with the other more difficult.” The literature (e.g., Eby et al., 2005; König and Cesinger, 2015) has discussed three forms of role conflict: time based, behaviour based, and strain based. Time-based conflict arises from the limited amount of time a party has to handle all its role demands. Behaviour-based conflict occurs when the behaviour required in one status is unsuited to that required for another status. For example, while a formal, bureaucratic style of communication is expected in the working environment, it may lead to raised eyebrows at home (Reynolds and Renzulli, 2005). Strain based conflict happens when the stress from one status spills over into another status. For example, the physical and mental involvement required all day at work may make a person less attentive once they are home (Reynolds and Renzulli, 2005; Hundera et al., 2021). In this sense, role conflict can be expressed as a situation that results in the neglect of the other party when entrepreneur women allocate more time to one of the fields (Sosyal 2010: 110). Even though entrepreneurial women today have achieved economic freedom and become business owners, they are still responsible for the household and children (Nayir, 2008). It is of great importance for women to try to balance these two areas. There is a role conflict for the individual when more time is devoted to one area, requiring greater interest in the other (Keskin, 2013). Women who

cannot resolve the role conflict may experience emotional distress, decreased life satisfaction, criticism from society, and increased wear and tear on themselves because they are more responsible for their families than men (Anafarta et al., 2008: 116). According to a study conducted by Örüü et al. (2007), the fulfillment of women's familial responsibilities and the challenges associated with maintaining a demanding work schedule in the business world hinder women from pursuing entrepreneurship (Örüü et al., 2007).

### **3.5.1.3. Discrimination**

Discrimination is a situation where qualitatively equal people are treated differently based solely on gender. Socio-cultural challenges such as discrimination seem to be more prevalent in developing than in developed countries. By leaving the workplace, women expected to experience a more autonomous and accommodating business environment. However, in business where they have opted to be, women entrepreneurs continue to face discrimination as pointed out by Coulter (2000: 114). According to McElwee and Al-Riyami (2003: 345), there are many women doing business that had to register their businesses using the father, brother, husband or male relative and could not register in their own names (Nani, 2011).

Women are targets of gender-based discrimination in specific ways. Gender discrimination stems more from societies' traditions, cultural characteristics, prejudices, and religious beliefs than from laws (Nayir, 2008). These prejudices, most of which are harmful, include the view that women are incapable of performing high-level jobs. Gender-based barriers include pay disparities, organizational norms, behaviors, and communication styles that impede women's advancement; mentoring and informal communication networks within the organization that are more favorable for men's development and promotion; women's exclusion from these informal networks; or women's perception of these informal networks as being exclusive to men (Lockwood, 2004).

Even if women have sufficient qualifications to enter the fields they cannot be included in, their acceptance by these fields is at the end of a painful process (Özyılmaz and Yavuzer, 2016). In particular, women's presence in the industrial sector is deficient compared to men, and they operate in a relatively narrow field in labor-intensive light industry branches (Sosyal, 2010). The majority of males still possess a set of

sociocultural values that prevent them from readily accepting instructions from female managers (Roomi and Parrott, 2008). Women business owners face additional barriers when trying to gain the trust of their suppliers and consumers because of their gender. As a result, female entrepreneurs must work far harder than men to persuade consumers, suppliers, and employees that women can manage a profitable and efficient business (Shabbir, 1995; Roomi and Parrott, 2008). Women also experience discrimination when asking banks for loans; the fact that banks participate in gender bias discourages many women from approaching them. Some women become so disillusioned that they abandon bank funding in favor of informal savings clubs. Society must acknowledge and address these challenges through legislative action or social change to create a more equitable and inclusive environment for women in business.

#### **3.5.1.4. Lack of Commercial and Managerial Experience**

Women entrepreneurs confront challenges such as predicting and overcoming hurdles while creating a firm (Balkı, 2022). One of these problems, lack of experience, is an important challenge faced by women entrepreneurs. Women entrepreneurs lack knowledge and experience since they are underrepresented in business (Balkı, 2022). The lack of experience that women entrepreneurs experience during their business activities is a critical factor that challenges their business life. Because in entrepreneurship, all stages of entrepreneurial activities, from foreseeing opportunities to the performance of the business, are related to experience (Sosyal, 2010). Inexperience also puts women at a disadvantage compared to men. For example, women entrepreneurs experience more problems in their relations with official institutions and overcome bureaucratic obstacles more quickly than male entrepreneurs due to their inexperience in the business establishment phase (Şekerler, 2006).

Women entrepreneurs often lack the necessary knowledge and skills to manage their businesses effectively, including financial management, marketing, and strategic planning (Loscocco and Bird, 2012). Thus, they generally work in jobs with lower returns and low social status indicators. In addition to the low level of primary and vocational education of women entrepreneurs, the fact that they have yet to receive entrepreneurship training is one of the crucial problems. Women entrepreneurs have to renew their previous knowledge of the developing world and technologies. Only if

women can raise their education level and increase their knowledge and skills will they find a place for themselves in the business world dominated by men (Tekin et al., 2002; Özyılmaz and Yavuzer, 2016).

### **3.5.2. Macro-level Challenges**

Macro-level issues are also referred to in the literature as business-related challenges. Macro issues include problems such as finding a workplace, the supply of capital and goods, the supply of tools and equipment, fluctuations in the market, qualified personnel, payments, organizational problems among women entrepreneurs, and a need for more communication. Some research has focused on macro-level variables. Arenius and Minniti (2005) proposed categorizing macro-level entrepreneurship-influencing elements into two categories, including socioeconomic and environmental factors, and augmenting them with micro-level perceptual factors. Verheul et al. (2006) also investigated macro-level determinants of entrepreneurship, such as technological development, economic factors, demographic factors, and many more. This study examines the macro-level challenges of women social entrepreneurs under the *capital provision, organization, insufficient education level, and bureaucratic obstacles*.

#### **3.5.2.1. Provision of Capital**

The prerequisite for establishing a new business or workplace is to have the necessary financial resources and equipment. Financial issues appear to be one of the most significant impediments to activity execution and expansion (Yetim, 2008; Zororo, 2011; Arslan and Toksoy, 2017). Although this problem is a problem for all entrepreneurs, it creates a bigger problem for women entrepreneurs. Thus, women entrepreneurs need more financial resources and working capital to establish and sustain their small businesses (Karasi, 2018). O'Neill and Viljoen (2001) have identified several financial challenges women entrepreneurs face. These challenges encompass a lack of collateral, an absence of credit history, assets registered under the husband's name, difficulties meeting the stringent loan criteria set by banks, and limited business and management expertise (Akhilwaya, 2012). There are two main reasons why women entrepreneurs need help borrowing. First, they need help with lenders because they cannot document their financial records. Secondly, because they lack sufficient experience and financial skills, they must seek support in financial planning, accounting, and operational matters (Güney, 2006). Women have less access

to human, social, and financial capital than men (Bakış, 2019). According to research, women's start-up capital in Turkey is less than half of men's (Arıkan, 2016: 143-144). Not only in our country but also in the world in general, it is seen that women's financial problems are similar (Güleç, 2011: 52; Gültekin, 2018).

Women also have problems accessing credit institutions. Women often have fewer opportunities to access credit for various reasons, including financial institutions' unwillingness to accept household assets as collateral and the negative perceptions of female entrepreneurs' loan officers (Karasi, 2018). The most considerable difficulty for women in obtaining loans is the problem of showing collateral (Gültekin, 2018). Since men mainly own real estate, it becomes difficult to show collateral (Özyılmaz, 2016). Kinyanjui (2006) records that some entrepreneurs found obtaining loans difficult as they had to show credit records. Furthermore, they need to be made aware of the requirements for obtaining and repaying loans (Mwobobia, 2012). Lending institutions are interested in issues such as business experience, market conditions, and the type of product or service being produced, while many women entrepreneurs need more information (Keskin, 2013).

These barriers must be removed so that women can start businesses and grow in social entrepreneurship. The conditions for collateral should be relaxed to ensure that the areas in which loans can be granted are not restricted, conditioned, or narrowed (Kınay, 1994; Özyılmaz, 2016).

#### **3.5.2.2. Organization**

The fact that the problems faced by women entrepreneurs are not tried to be solved by considering them in a general framework and that efforts are not made to overcome the obstacles worldwide also constitutes a problem for women (Ersarı, 2015: 52; Balkı, 2021). One of the main reasons women's entrepreneurship cannot overcome many obstacles and cannot cope with the problems surrounding and limiting it is that it cannot be effectively organized. The concept of organization has an important place in social life. Human nature needs organization for every task and activity. In the business world, entrepreneurs want to take part in an organization. In a male-dominated society, men's communication and organizational networks in the world of entrepreneurship are robust compared to women's (Bayraker, 2018). In particular, male entrepreneurs make up the majority of professional organizations, and women

entrepreneurs lag behind men in these organizations. This situation causes women to avoid entrepreneurial activities (Özyılmaz, 2016).

Many women entrepreneurs need help organizing and establishing external relations. In order for women entrepreneurs to be successful in matters such as production, marketing, sales, planning, and organization in the businesses they establish, they must have a comprehensive communication network and be in contact with professional associations - organizations, and civil society in the business world (Bayraker, 2018). Unorganized work causes working people not to get the value of their labor, to lose income, and to face obstacles in competitive market conditions (Onay, 2013: 481; Bektaş, 2021).

Women's business associations are increasing steadily in developed, developing, and transitional countries. Approximately 700 women's business organizations are registered in the US, representing over eight million women-owned businesses. As a critical link to economic decision-making processes, these organisations have made their members' goals and priorities a part of the national political and economic agenda. For example, the long-established Russian Women's Union, transitioning to a market economy, offers economic and professional support to women entrepreneurs (Jalbert, 2000: 8). In Turkey, many associations have been and continue to be established to support women's entrepreneurship. These include the Anatolian Women's Association (AKAD) in Adıyaman, the Business Women's Association (DIKAD), the Southeast Business Women's Association in Diyarbakır, Among the objectives of these civil societies are to create influential women entrepreneurs in structuring the business world of the future, to increase the number of women entrepreneurs creating economic value, to strengthen existing women entrepreneurs, and to contribute to Turkey's social and economic development by integrating Turkish women entrepreneurs with the world (Bektaş, 2021).

### **3.5.2.3. Insufficient Education Level**

Women's poor educational attainment contributes to low labor force participation and employment rates. As a result of these and other factors, women sometimes need to be more educationally qualified to manage certain types of enterprises (Mandipaka, 2014; Karasi, 2018). The lack of training is the most common issue for women business owners (Cici, 2013: 83-84). Extensive studies conducted in both America and Europe have consistently demonstrated that entrepreneurship

education plays a pivotal role in fostering economic development, promoting progress, and driving innovation (Bektaş, 2021). According to Namusonge (2006), the significance of entrepreneurial education and training in promoting entrepreneurship and self-employment has been acknowledged (Mwobobia, 2012). Entrepreneurship education aims to teach how to have new business ideas, manage people as a group by taking responsibility, develop creative ideas, and keep innovative thinking dynamic (Akca, 2019: 17; Bektaş, 2021).

In addition to the problems arising from the traditional structure of society, women are at a lower level than men in terms of both general education and vocational education (Minibaş 2005: 32; Cole and Mehran 2009: 44; Balkı, 2021). First of all, in rural areas, the fact that girls work in farms and fields from an early age and are married off at an early age indicates that they benefit less from educational opportunities than boys. In addition, it can be said that there are severe obstacles for girls who go to school to continue their education after primary education (Sosyal, 2010: 103). Even if they are included in labor markets, they may work in low-status, low-paid or unregistered jobs (Dirik, 2016: 33; Aksöz and Durkal, 2021).

Educated women also see their jobs as a source of satisfaction compared to uneducated women, and for these women, professional career is at the forefront (Güldal, 2006). Learning the success secrets of other entrepreneurs and benefiting from their experiences are among the critical factors in the success of women entrepreneurs (Esen, 2006). For women who receive the support and help of their husbands, it is not very difficult to reconcile their professional careers with family life. The increase in the number of women managers is a motivating factor for other women (Güldal, 2006). Therefore, it is necessary to make arrangements to strengthen creativity and innovation and to provide entrepreneurial qualifications from the ground of the education system (Cansız, 2013; Gökçil, 2019).

#### **3.5.2.4. Bureaucratic Obstacles**

Women entrepreneurs face numerous bureaucratic challenges that hinder their success in the business world. According to Parvin et al.'s (2012) study, starting a manufacturing plant requires a series of licenses, registrations, and clearances. For example, starting an SME requires:

- Obtaining a trade license from the local government office;

- Registering the trademark with the Office of Patent, Design, and Trademark Register under the Ministry of Industry;
- Acquiring a Tax Identification Number (TIN);
- Joining a trade body (a district chamber or sectoral association);
- Obtaining an import registration certificate from the Ministry of Commerce (Parvin et al., 2012).

Lack of knowledge and experience with bureaucratic procedures in the start-up phase increases the time and effort required. Women entrepreneurs spend more time and effort to start and register a business. When bureaucratic obstacles are studied as one of the factors preventing women from entrepreneurship, attitudes towards institutionalization are one of the most important examples (Özyılmaz, 2016).

Lack of knowledge and experience in bureaucratic procedures when establishing a business further increases the time and effort spent. When bureaucratic barriers are examined as one of the factors preventing women's entrepreneurship, the attitude toward institutionalization is one of the critical examples of this (Özyılmaz, 2016).

For women entrepreneurs to avoid such problems while establishing the business, the government and related organizations should help, legal and administrative regulations for entrepreneurial women should be introduced, and cooperation with official authorities should be made. Following market economy principles, it is necessary to pioneer women's activities as employers in every enterprise and to support the existing activities (Şekerler, 2006).

Despite these negatives, many governmental organizations organize different practices to make bureaucratic procedures easier, less time-consuming, and more economical (Arıkan, 2013: 83; Bektaş, 2021). Many public institutions in Turkey have made various arrangements to speed up and reduce the cost of bureaucratic processes. A website of significant prominence, known as "e-devlet," has been established to offer centralized access to a comprehensive range of public services. This website aims to provide public services to citizens, businesses, and public institutions effectively and efficiently through information and communication technologies (Arıkan, 2013).

### **3.5.3. Market Entry Strategies**

Millions worldwide embark on entrepreneurship every year, intending to start their businesses. Individuals pursue various paths to establish their ventures, with some

acquiring the business they work for and others building a new enterprise from scratch. As part of these strategies, companies can acquire existing businesses, partner with existing businesses, enter franchise agreements, or start new businesses. Market entry strategy refers to an entrepreneur's plan to enter a new market. This section of the study examines issues related to the market entry strategies of women social entrepreneurs.

#### **3.5.3.1. Acquisition of an Existing Business by the Entrepreneur**

Establishing a business at the start of entrepreneurship requires a complex and challenging procedure. Entrepreneurs who need help to afford this complicated process may prefer to buy an established business. A business acquisition is an acquisition by one entity of all or a majority of the shares of another entity, making that entity a subsidiary under its control. Acquiring an existing business can appeal to entrepreneurs to enter a new marketplace. Individuals can create their corporations from nothing or purchase an existing company (Gürol, 2000: 85-86). The purchase of an existing business by an entrepreneur is a strategy many entrepreneurs prefer. We can list the advantages of acquiring an existing business as follows (Retrieved May 15, 2023, from [acikders.ankara.edu.tr/mod/resource/view.php?id=127053](http://acikders.ankara.edu.tr/mod/resource/view.php?id=127053)):

- Low risk: Buying an existing, successfully operating business at a reasonable price increases the entrepreneur's likelihood of success. Also, this type of venture is less risky than starting a business from scratch,
- Possible location advantage: There are industries where location is critical,
- Ease of funding: Access to funding is much easier for a successful existing business than for a start-up,
- Established employee and supplier structure: An existing business has experienced employees who can assist the entrepreneur in the transition process,
- Acquiring new technologies, ideas, and skills: The high research and development cost of producing a new technology in the state of is a type of application preferred by businesses.

Acquiring an established business occurs when the owner wants to sell the business or when the entrepreneur proposes the acquisition to the owner. In both cases, a detailed evaluation that considers certain factors is required before a final decision is made on the acquisition. For this purpose, it is thought that the entrepreneur should

have sufficient knowledge and experience in the following subjects (Alpugan, 1998: 215; İlter, 2008):

- Obtaining commercial information on whether there is sufficient demand in the market for the service offered to the market by the company to be purchased,
- Obtaining the data (income statement and balance sheet) showing the financial status of the business to be purchased and reaching the technical knowledge to analyze these data,
- To understand the business to be purchased without being influenced or emotionally attached to it, make a remote, objective decision.

### **3.5.3.2. Become a Partner in an Existing Business**

In certain instances, business owners may opt to form a partnership in a lucrative enterprise for various compelling factors, including the business owner's incapacity to manage the business independently, health issues, or the need for specialized technical or commercial expertise. Most businesses seeking partners are in a financial bottleneck and hope to overcome this difficulty with additional capital to be provided to the business (İlter, 2008). One advantage of partnering with an existing business is sharing the financial risks and rewards of the business (Koehne, 2021). Furthermore, collaboration with partners provides entrepreneurs valuable opportunities to leverage established networks and resources, including supplier relationships, customer databases, and distribution channels (Christensen et al., 2021). However, to build a successful alliance, it is imperative to identify the appropriate collaborator. Finding an individual aligned with an organization's vision and values and who has complementary skills and expertise is significant. Defining roles and responsibilities is crucial when assuming a partnership in an established business. To avoid conflicts and misunderstandings, each partner needs to have a thorough understanding of their respective responsibilities and decision-making authority. Moreover, the partner business may have more experience or resources, creating power imbalances and challenging decision-making (Carter, 1997). Another problem when partnering with an existing business is the risk of losing autonomy and brand identity. Sharing control and resources might be troublesome if the partner company has different principles or practices (Grewal et al., 2011).

In summary, concerning partnering with an existing business, examine the financial position, market share, competitiveness, and relationships between the business owners (Gompers and Lerner, 2004).

### **3.5.3.3. Establishing a New Enterprise**

The entrepreneur's business idea may be based on his or her education, knowledge, mastery, or previous work, or it may arise from his or her own business experience. The entrepreneur who sees an opportunity in the environment chooses to start a business from scratch if no business or franchise opportunity is being sold in that area. Although starting a new business involves more unknowns than other business start-up methods, it is preferred because it is unique to the entrepreneur. Although starting a new business allows the entrepreneur to make free decisions, it is more risky than other methods and has a high level of uncertainty in terms of cost. In this phase, the legal, political, economic, sociocultural, demographic, technological, and international environmental conditions that will affect the conduct of the business should be examined in detail (Aydınlık, 2015).

Within this particular context, it is of utmost significance to delve into the distinct obstacles encountered by women entrepreneurs while establishing a novel enterprise, as well as the available resources that aid in surmounting these challenges. It is possible to list the primary research that entrepreneurs should do before establishing a business as follows (Eyuboğlu, 2004: 59-84; İltar, 2008):

- Evaluation of the building, facility, or enterprise where the workplace will be established, selection of the employees who will work in the workplace,
- Having sufficient information about the loans and incentives provided,
- To learn the legal provisions according to which legal provisions will be made in the process of establishing a business, to learn the legal procedures to be done in tax and investment issues,
- Conducting target market research on the business to be established.

Before starting a new business, seeing the opportunity and turning it into a business idea is necessary. With the formation of the business idea, the necessary preparations should be made, and the most appropriate time for investment should be determined. Moreover, the analysis of the sector to be invested in should be done

correctly, production, marketing, financial, and organizational plans should be made in detail, and the risk should be evaluated (Aydınlık, 2015).

#### **3.5.3.4. The Franchise Agreement**

No consensus exists on when and how the franchising agreement first emerged globally. It is stated that the concept of franchising emerged for the first time in France and was used in the Middle Ages as a privilege, tax, and customs exemption (Şimşek, 2015). Franchising is a commercial relationship that has become widespread worldwide through contracts, especially after the 1970s. The main root of franchise or franchising is the verb "to free," which means to release. The system uses franchising terminology as follows (Birdoğan, 1998; Cebeci, 2005):

- *The Franchisor:* A franchisor is a product, service, or know-how whose quality has a proven and successful brand/name and whose sales and distribution, or the party that grants the right to operate a business for a specific price, are coming.
- *Franchisee:* A franchisee is an entrepreneur, investor, or firm that purchases all the elements of a business (brand, trade name, marketing system, and production techniques) in return for certain payments.
- *Franchising:* Franchising defines a contractual relationship between two independent parties. In its simplest terms, franchising can be summarized as "permission to use certain industrial rights in the commercial field in exchange for money given to the right holder. Franchising agreements may cover a product, a brand, or a service.
- *Franchisee Fee:* the initial fee paid by the franchisee to the Franchisor for the right to use the name, brand, or system. It can be expressed as an 'entry fee' in Turkish.
- *Royalty:* means the price paid as a percentage of the annual turnover and profits at the rates determined in the agreement in return for transferring the rights owned by a license or trademark owner to someone else.

With this contract, the franchisor must make its production, operation, and marketing systems available to the franchisee. The important part of the primary obligation of the franchisor in the contract is the obligation to continuously support the franchisee in its commercial activity (Birdoğan, 1995). Thanks to the

franchising system, the entrepreneur has the customer potential to create by spending a significant amount of money as soon as he establishes his business. The entrepreneur can sell the product quickly since the consumer is familiar with and accepts the brand (Cebeci, 2005).

Starting a business with this method can be advantageous, especially for women entrepreneurs. It can provide greater benefits, particularly for female entrepreneurs involved in social enterprise. Nevertheless, it is crucial to consider several authorities in this context. It is imperative to comprehend the concept of franchise fees and royalties, as they can exert a substantial influence on the profitability of a business.

### **3.6. Women's Entrepreneurship in Turkey and Social Practices to Promote Female Entrepreneurship**

Despite changing social, economic, and cultural factors in Turkey, the unchanging "reality of being a woman" determines all women's social relations. A patriarchal, solid family structure and gender discrimination constitute the rules and roles applicable to women. Within this social structure, "marriage and family" are crucial for women (Arat, 1995: 212; Bedük, 2005). However, the difficult economic conditions have become an obstacle to families' survival. Thus, according to the unwritten but valid value judgments of societies, the idea that the place of women is at home as a result of the gender role has changed over time, especially in cities, and technological changes and developments have made it possible for women to enter working life and to carry out work and family life in balance (Uyanık, 2020). The Revolutions realized with the establishment of the Republic provided women with many rights. Firstly, the Constitutional Court of Turkey abolished the provision in the Turkish Civil Code that mandated "husband's permission" for married women to engage in employment and establish businesses in 1990. This decision was made because the requirement violated the principles of "equality before the Constitution and freedom of work" (Uyanık, 2020).

Republican Turkey created a space of opportunity where individuals could educate themselves and raise their socio-economic status. Women also received their share of this opportunity (Arat, 1992: 79). However, despite all this, women's participation in working life in Turkey was realized relatively late. Women's more active participation in working life in Turkey dates back to the 1950s. The rise in the

proportion of women wanting to pursue employment opportunities in urban areas has been noteworthy since the 1970s. This trend can be attributed to two main factors: the adverse circumstances associated with urban living and the impact of urban culture (Ecevit, 1995: 120-121; Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005).

The scarcity of women in Turkey who are productive, willing to work independently, innovative, and risk-taking makes the entrepreneurship factor, like other factors of production, scarce and limited. Historically, the division of labor between the sexes has given wholly separate tasks to men and women dependent on the fertility of the female. Women have remained submissive and reliant in enterprise, social life, culture, art, politics, literature, and science. It is observed that women generally lack the necessary experience, skills, and self-confidence to establish and successfully manage a business (Kılınç and Akyüz, 2016).

In Turkey, developments regarding women's entrepreneurship started in the 1980s (Durukan, 2021). On the other hand, the issue of women's entrepreneurship first came to society's attention, especially women's, in a symposium held in Istanbul in October 1992 and attracted attention (Uyanık, 2020). The policies of developed countries and international organizations such as the EU (European Union), UN (United Nations), and OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) to support and encourage women's entrepreneurship have been influential in the studies on women entrepreneurs in Turkey (Özgül, 2019: 25-26; Durukan, 2021). However, despite this, research on women's entrepreneurship has been limited in Turkey as much as in Western countries. One of the reasons for this is that people believe there is no real difference between male and female entrepreneurs being successful (Lee, 2015: 156; Durukan, 2021). Nonetheless, women's involvement in economic activities remains limited, which may be explained by their role in the family, the preferences they have within that role, and patriarchal family structures (Soysal, 2010: 94).

According to October 2020 labor force statistics in Turkey, 21 million 510 thousand of the male population over 15 and 9 million 942 thousand of the female population constitute the labor force. It is seen that the male population is much higher than the female labor force population (TÜİK, 2020; Durukan, 2021). Figures 3.3. and 2.4. show the employment rates of men and women aged 15 and over in Turkey between 2020 and 2023. When Figure 3.2. is analyzed, the employment rate of women

increased steadily between 2006 and 2014. By 2018, it reached its highest level of 29.4% and then decreased to 26.4%. Figure 3.2. Employment rates by gender (%). 2006-2014,(TÜİK, 2020).

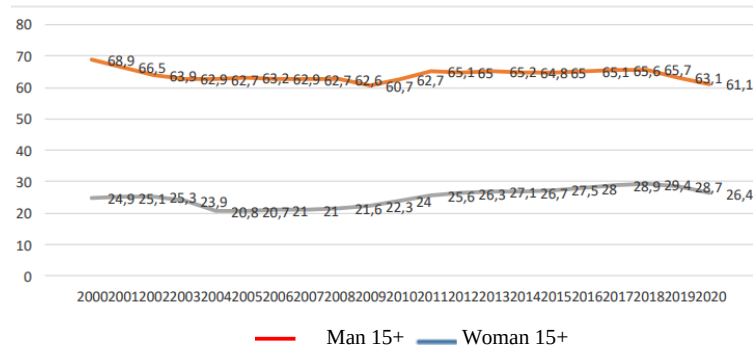


Figure 3.2. Employment rates by gender (%). 2006-2014,(TÜİK, 2020)

As shown in Figure 3.3., the female employment rate increased in 2021–2023

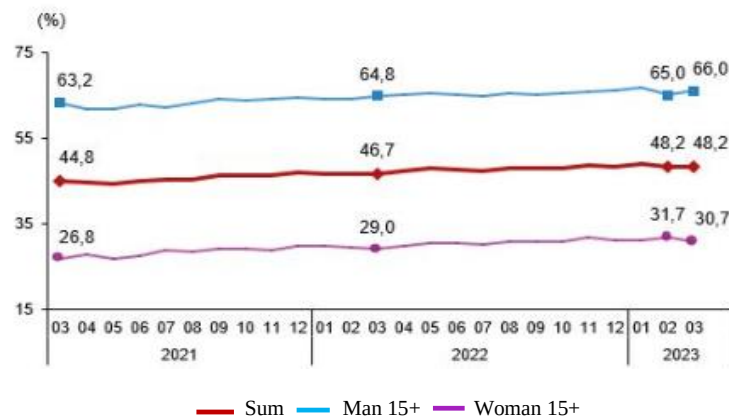


Figure 3.3. Employment rates by gender (%). 2021-2023, (TÜİK, 2023)

It peaked at 31.7% in February 2023 and decreased to 30.7% in March 2023. When all these data are evaluated together, it is seen that female employment in Turkey is below 45% on average compared to male employment (TÜİK, 2023).

Women's entrepreneurial activities in Turkey are mainly based on "women's attempts to establish small businesses on their own," which were developed to address declining household incomes due to the impact of structural adjustment policies. In

Turkey, the chances of finding a job are inferior, especially for women who do not have the appropriate education and skills for the jobs they applied for, making women self-employed (Tamer, 2013).

To develop entrepreneurship, governments intervene with incentive policies, which are one of the critical tools of economic and fiscal policy, by identifying, encouraging, and training entrepreneurs, supporting them financially and technically, and creating a favorable environment for their continuity (Duran, 2018: 69-70). Incentive policies for women entrepreneurs in Turkey are given below:

*Eleventh Development Plan:* The Plan states that childcare services will be increased, education opportunities will be provided, and employment-oriented policies will be implemented to improve women's labor market competencies and support their more active participation in business life. The main objective is to prevent discrimination against women, ensure that women benefit equally from rights, opportunities, and possibilities in all areas of social life, and empower them. Some policies for women entrepreneurs in the Plan period are as follows (Bakanlığı, 2018):

- To improve women's economic activities, women entrepreneurs will be provided consulting and guidance services in business development.
- Support mechanisms will be provided to increase women's entrepreneurship in rural areas.
- Mechanisms targeting developing women's economic activities in digital environments, such as websites, portals, and applications, will be established.
- Support for cooperatives established by women in areas such as training, entrepreneurship, and consulting will be expanded.

*National Employment Strategy Document (NES):* The National Employment Strategy Document (NIS) was formulated under the supervision of the Ministry of Family, Labor and Social Services, General Directorate on the Status of Women, to address the requirements, challenges, and aspirations of the labor market during the timeframe spanning from 2014 to 2023. The primary goals of the National Employment Strategy (NIS) encompass the achievement of specific targets, including the reduction of the unemployment rate to 5% by the year 2023, the augmentation of

the employment rate to 55%, and the mitigation of informal employment within the non-agricultural sector to a level below 15% (Bakış, 2012; Durukan, 2021).

*Women's Empowerment Strategy Document and Action Plan (2018-2023) (WESDAP):* The Women's Empowerment Strategy Document and Action Plan (2018-2023) was prepared under the coordination of the Ministry of Family and Social Policies as a document that includes the activities to be carried out by public institutions and organizations, local governments, universities, non-governmental organizations, professional organizations, the private sector, and other relevant organizations to empower women, based on five main policy axes (education, health, economy, participation in decision-making mechanisms, media) regulated (Durukan, 2011).

### **3.6.1. Major Organizations Supporting Women's Entrepreneurship in Turkey**

Since the 1990s, public institutions, non-governmental organizations, and international organizations have increased interest and activities to develop women's entrepreneurship in Turkey. The development of women's entrepreneurship depends primarily on creating a suitable entrepreneurial environment. In the world, women's entrepreneurship is developed with financial resources to create a suitable workplace and consultancy and training support. In Turkey, such support for women entrepreneurs is provided through clerical support, activities and programs of non-governmental organizations; projects carried out jointly with international organizations, and financing opportunities provided by banks. Although the adequacy of these supports is a matter of debate, it is essential to investigate how women entrepreneurs benefit from the existing support systems to improve the women's entrepreneurship system.

For this purpose, some institutions and organizations are working on increasing the number of women entrepreneurs in Turkey, ensuring the contribution of women entrepreneurs to the national economy by making better use of the existing potential and supporting women entrepreneurs. In addition, these institutions and organizations also work to encourage women's entrepreneurship, especially for women to participate more in the economy by establishing their businesses (Tekin, 2005; Arıkan, 2016). Institutions and organizations that support women's entrepreneurship are engaged in

initiatives such as increasing women's employment, providing vocational training, providing legal support for women, and offering financial support. These initiatives will enable women to achieve economic freedom by strengthening the phenomenon of acting independently in society (Taşdemir, 2021).

Table 3.4. shows the international, public, and non-governmental organizations that support women entrepreneurs in Turkey. By supporting women entrepreneurship.

Table 3.4. Institutions and Organizations Supporting Women Entrepreneurs (Durukan, 2021: 28)

| <b>Public Institutions and Organizations</b>                                                  | <b>International Organizations</b>                                              | <b>Non-governmental Organizations</b>                                                         |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ministry of Industry and Technology                                                           | United Nations Development Program (UNDP)                                       | Vocational Training and Small Scale Industry Facility Foundation (MEKSA)                      |
| Ministry of Commerce                                                                          | Program of the European Union "Competitiveness of Enterprises and SMEs" (COSME) | TOBB Women Entrepreneurs Board                                                                |
| Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry                                                          | World Bank                                                                      | Technology Development Foundation of Turkey (TTGV)                                            |
| General Directorate on the Status of Women                                                    | International Labor Organization (ILO)                                          | Association of Women Entrepreneurs of Turkey (KAGIDER)                                        |
| Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK)                             |                                                                                 | Foundation for the Evaluation of Women's Work (KEDV)                                          |
| Development Agencies                                                                          |                                                                                 | Turkish Craftsmen and Artisans Credit and Guarantee Cooperative Central Association (TESKOMB) |
| Particular Provincial Administrations for Women Micro Credit Practices                        |                                                                                 | European Union Business Development Centers (ABİGEM)                                          |
| Administration for the Development and Support of Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (KOSGEB) |                                                                                 | Women Solidarity Foundation (KADAV)                                                           |
| Turkish Employment Agency                                                                     |                                                                                 | Association of Women Entrepreneurs (ANGIKAD)                                                  |
| Institution for the Promotion of Agriculture and Rural Development (TKDK)                     |                                                                                 |                                                                                               |

in the EU and the US, such organizations gain strength from their numerical density and create social and political pressure on governments. Such attitudes of

organizations play an active role in accelerating the legal processes that will pave the way for women's entrepreneurship (Bakırcı, 2011: 210; Taşdemir, 2021).

### **3.7. Proposed Solutions to the Problems of Women Entrepreneurs**

Women entrepreneurs taking an active role in business and successfully managing their businesses are crucial for economic development and gender equality. As elucidated in the preceding section, female entrepreneurs encounter distinctive obstacles in their pursuit of success (Hatcher et al., 2007). Overall, women entrepreneurs face specific challenges in Social entrepreneurship when engaging in social enterprise or seeking to grow their businesses, including limited access to capital and credit, little education or training, limited savings, limited sector options, and a lack of social networks (Akanji, 2006; Ibru, 2009; Lakwo, 2007; Ojo, 2009; Peter, 2001; Ekpe et al., 2011). These factors play a more significant role in and hinder women's entrepreneurial activities.

To solve these issues first, gaining experiences and management skills suitable for entrepreneurship from an early age and making them continuous will contribute to reducing problems. General and vocational education are vital in building the knowledge and skills to lead women into entrepreneurship. These programs should cover essential topics such as business planning, marketing strategies, financial management, and leadership. Because of this, the opportunities for female company owners to expand their operations and develop original approaches will rise. Therefore, training and courses should be emphasized to overcome the deficiencies in this direction (Eroğlu et al., 2013: 45; İlter, 2008). Women especially need guidance on new business areas and financial opportunities. A center or an association to be established at the local level can respond to this need and also enable entrepreneurial women to exchange information and ideas among themselves (Çakıcı, 2006: 74). Activities in this direction are being carried out in Turkey. With the support of the state, provincial, and district municipalities, women are offered various vocational courses and training opportunities. Here, women can also establish a good network.

Access to capital for women entrepreneurs to start their enterprises is a significant challenge. Women setting up micro-enterprises, SMEs, or formal large-scale businesses all encounter varying degrees of difficulty in obtaining capital, collateral, and fair lending terms (Ekpe et al., 2011). In order to eliminate these

problems, it is necessary to facilitate the loan conditions that prevent women from starting a business (Şekerler, 2006: 122). Loan amounts should be reduced from symbolic figures, and interest rates should be kept low. To enhance the accessibility of financial resources for women entrepreneurs, it is imperative to establish alternative avenues of financing.

Loans should be given to all kinds of jobs and professions, not just traditional professions designated for women. Again, project-based lending instead of real estate mortgages are one of the solutions that can be applied (Özyılmaz, 2016). The tax problem of women entrepreneurs can be solved by making the loans to be given to women entrepreneurs independent from stamp duty organizing the tax incentive legislation in a way to supports women, and taking initiatives to create a specific "refund" fund regarding taxation (Şekerler, 2006: 125). In order for women entrepreneurs to have easy access to financial resources, gender equality should be taken into consideration in credit evaluation and risk analysis processes.

Moreover, women's entry into business did not alleviate their responsibilities arising from their roles as mothers and homemakers but instead brought a double burden. In order to alleviate these burdens, women have either preferred to get help with housework and childcare or have decided to start their enterprises after their children are grown up. There is a need to develop mechanisms to help women with childcare or housework (Özyılmaz, 2016).

Alleviating market problems and raising public awareness are important to encourage and enable women to participate in business (Jalbert, 2000: 16-17). Therefore, the creation of a national and international network of entrepreneurs, without discriminating between men and women, to facilitate the sharing of business managerial experience and to develop solutions to the aforementioned problems, can be recommended.

To overcome the problems arising from gender variations, society, industry, and the markets in which entrepreneurs operate should eliminate gender-based discrimination, and professional organizations and chambers should support women entrepreneurs. It is also important to establish institutions that offer free support services on issues that women entrepreneurs need (Öztürk, 2016). In order to protect women against discrimination, many international organizations such as the UN (United Nations), UNESCO (The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural

Organization), ILO (International Labour Organization), EU (European Union), and OECD (the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) have conventions (Dalkıranoglu, 2006: 58).



## **4. THE ROLE AND CHALLENGES OF NGOS IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP**

Since early in human history, people have come together for everyday purposes and formed civil society organizations to improve the welfare of society. Civil organization is based on friendship, camaraderie, a sense of achieving something together, collectivity, and people coming together voluntarily and trying to do something. In that sense, civil society represents unity, volunteerism, and solidarity" (Keyman, 2004a: 2-3; Talas, 2011). As a result, solidaristic, voluntarist, and idealistic people, rather than utilitarian and mercenary ones, comprise most of the staff in such organizations. For example, philosophers and thinkers in ancient Greece created structures similar to early NGOs, such as discussion groups and student associations, to promote social change and justice.

Civil society organizations play an essential role in social entrepreneurship because they have a solid mission to focus on social problems and solve them. However, NGOs also face some challenges in the field of social entrepreneurship. Based on this, this research section examines the role of NGOs in social entrepreneurship and the challenges they face.

### **4.1. Civil Society**

The market economy, the process of individualization, and property rights have created civil society as an integral element of modern society. The history of civil society dates back to Ancient Greece. Nevertheless, neither at the national level nor on international platforms has reached a consensus on a civil society that changes and transforms according to space, time, and conditions. Keeping in mind that civil society is a concept of Western origin, we can see the first traces of it in the works of Aristotle (Yıldız, 2005). After people realized that they had certain rights in their spheres independent of the state, they started to come together in an area outside the public sphere to defend these rights (Molbay, 2019: 22). Human groups or communities that can exist outside the conventional political sphere have always been components of enlightening mobilizations for civil society. These components are social parts with different pasts and plans, which acquire identities in the definitional differences revealed by different political connotations (Hendriks, 2006: 486).

Although these civil movements outside and against the political sphere have nourished, diversified, and enriched civil society in many ways, more is needed to distance civil society from the political sphere completely. Far from distancing it from the political, the close

connection of the concept of civil society with political life has increased interest in it, expanded the dimensions of the debates in this direction, and continues to do so today (Ercan, 2002: 70).

Although civil society is a vague concept used by various groups and the subject of intricate networks of relations, it generally exists as the field of voluntary organizations with a pluralistic structure autonomous from the state (Aslan, 2010 b: 357). Civil society has been evaluated with different approaches by many political thinkers from Ancient Greece to the present day. Aristotle used the phrase "politics koinonia," which refers to the political structure that city residents and other citizens create (Aslan, 2010: 190). This term was later translated into Latin as "societas civilis" (Duman, 2007: 348). The word "civil" derives from the Latin root 'civic,' meaning citizen or urbanite (Talas, 2011: 389). Another similar concept is the word "civilization".

Many crises have been influential in the meaning and nature of the concept of civil society, and it continues to be important and to set the agenda until today (Duman, 2007: 357). We can associate this concept with individuals in urban life being aware of their rights, obligations, and responsibilities within the social boundaries they have towards others and organizing and taking action around this awareness.

The notion of civil society, which lacks a universally accepted definition, has been variously conceptualized by numerous scholars and experts. The first theoretical framework for this development came from the "social contract" theories put forth by thinkers like Hobbes, Locke, and Rousseau. Many thinkers have offered definitions of "civil society," but Tocqueville's explanation is more in line with what we have today. According to Tocqueville's approach, civil society is a fully democratic state of law where social justice and equality are ensured and civil liberties exist (Hira and Şan, 2007: 385; Denli, 2018).

In liberal theory, civil society is an independent, voluntary, consensual organization outside state control (Duman, 2007: 357). Larry Diamond, a prominent advocate of liberal democracy, is widely recognized as a key figure in the discourse surrounding civil society. Diamond defined the concept of civil society as "a voluntary, self-creating, self-supporting, autonomous, organized social living space" (Diamond, 1994: 5; Denli, 2018). According to Pearce (1993), voluntary organizations are communities that gather around a purpose and act together on the way to this purpose, producing or providing services to third parties (Pearce, 1993; Muştu, 2019). As Keane (1993a: 49) explained, civil society was at first used to legitimize

the existence of the state, while the state was viewed as a tool that led to the growth of independent societies within civil society (Tamer, 2010).

As the popularity of civil society increases, the concept regains its meaning and evolves. The contemporary understanding of civil society has been shaped and imbued with significance by liberal ideologies. Today, in the most general sense, civil society, which can be considered in opposition to the state and political power as its legal authority, has become ambiguous due to the complexity of state-civil society relations under the influence of historical developments (Keyman, 2004a).

#### **4.2. An Overview of Non-Governmental Organizations**

In addition to the broad scope (social, political, and economic) covered by civil society, which is presented as a measure of democratization, its organization is also important. Today, contemporary democracies are based on three main sectors. Various societal sectors tackle the need to deliver services for non-profit and public purposes. Whether through governmental bodies, businesses, or specialized entities, each has a distinct role to play. As Özdemir et al. (2009) suggest, these endeavoring forces include three principal components: The primary component is known as the first, or public sector; followed by businesses, which form part of what is commonly referred to as private industry - categorizing it as a secondary segment), while not-for-profits such as NGOs make up what researchers call a third segment. Following World War II, NGOs first emerged with a focus on various social issues as a result of the need for a middleman to mediate issues between states and the populace. They then adopted the goal of strengthening civil solidarity by increasing the support required by those who were powerless against the state (Talas, 2011; Küçük and Güneş, 2013). In line with this purpose, although every structure that adopts the understanding of social service and operates in civil society is accepted as a NGO, the focus of NGO formation lies on voluntary work for social benefit (Özer, 2008; Ulucan and Kızılırmak, 2020).

The NGO Sector is the fastest-emerging sector in the world that addresses poverty alleviation through non-conventional ways and strategies (Gellert, 1996). A bewildering array of terms and acronyms exist for anyone studying NGOs (Lewis, 2020). Today, the abbreviation 'NGO' has grown exponentially over recent years to become industry standard terminology representing non-state actors. Similar phrases are valuable, too, in providing classifications for such organizations. The term "NGO" is more frequently used in the literature. However, there are various alternatives to the term non-governmental organizations, such as charitable

organizations, voluntary organizations, philanthropic organizations, and the third sector (Özdemir et al., 2009). "NGO" has become less popular in some circles and has been replaced by other labels such as "civil society organization" or "social enterprise" (Levis, 2020). In recent years, the term "NGO" has become less popular and has been replaced by phrases such as "civil society organization" and "social enterprise". Though "non-governmental organizations" (NGOs) is recommended in this section due to its more prevalent usage.

Various definitions of civil society have led to different definitions of civil society organizations (Kahraman, 2018). In the broadest sense, a non-governmental organization's is defined as "any collective social activity carried out by individuals or groups" (Dunkerley and Fudge, 2004: 237; Ulucan and Kızıllırmak, 2020). As such, the scope of civil society organizations includes all structures and activities consisting of associations, foundations, civil initiatives, and networks of relations that citizens come together based on a common perspective, common interest, common sensitivity, and common demand and form in the field outside the legal, administrative, productive and cultural organs of the state (Yıldırım, 2004: 54).

NGOs are defined by Huhcock (2001: 1) as "those organizations that are outside the realm of government, distinct from the business community, and working either within a conflict, or on conflict issues". According to Martens (2002: 282), NGOs are formal and independent societal organizations that are professionalized and aim to promote similar goals at either the international or national levels (Martens, 2002). As described by Abiew (in Carey and Richmond, 2003), NGOs provide short-term aid such as food, water, sanitation equipment, medication, housing, human rights monitoring, capacity-building, and conflict resolution at the grassroots level (Saeed, 2002). NGOs, according to Vakıl (1997: 2060), are "self-governing, private, not-for-profit organizations aimed at improving the quality of life for disadvantaged people" (Kuruville, 2015).

According to another definition, Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) are new, different power and balance organizations that have come together voluntarily, have an autonomous structure that is not dependent on state authority in social life, are founded based on volunteerism, and have emerged through specific rules and legal order established by their will. NGOs are not extensions of the state; rather, they are common-purpose organizations that people create of their own free will. Their general purpose is to deal with social problems and try to solve them. At this point, NGOs try to fill the gap of the state in areas where the power of the state is not enough (Yalçın, 2008).

The common point where these definitions meet is that for a formation to be considered within a civil society organization, it must meet the principles of voluntarism, non-profit making, and not having the desire to seize political power. In other words, in order for an association to be considered a civil society organization, it must be non-profit, self-governing, continuous, voluntary, not part of the public administration, and based on civil interest (Çelik, 2005: 22; Karataş, 2008).

Salamon (1999) states six common characteristics of non-profit organizations as follows (Özdemir et al., 2009):

- The individuals in question are described as "institutionalized," meaning they lack a spontaneous or unstructured framework,
- They function within the private sector, focusing on providing social services instead of pursuing commercial objectives,
- Nonprofit entities allocate their earnings towards societal objectives,
- These entities possess a management structure that operates independently. They devise and execute their undertakings autonomously without requiring external interventions,
- Volunteers frequently establish and run nonprofit organizations. Some employees might need to volunteer, even though the board of directors often serves as a voluntary group.
- These organizations operate for public purposes (Salamon, 1999).

In summary, the four fundamental pillars upon which NGOs are constructed are "volunteerism," "independence (autonomy)," "non-profit," and "having a vision and an ideal" (Seyyar and Adalı, 2004: 190).

NGOs are founded to offer services or advocate for social, economic, political, or environmental issues. They can be national or multinational corporations. NGOs frequently exist to offer alternatives to government services or to fill in service gaps left by the government. Non-governmental organizations promote local involvement, traditionally enlisting community participation and frequently working with diverse local groups and organizations that have disparate interests. NGOs often enjoy high esteem and trust from their local counterparts, which helps them elicit local leadership participation. Community groups become partners with NGOs, promoting self-help strategies and outcomes. (Talas, 2011). NGOs have substantially

contributed to several areas, including economic growth, environmental activism, children's and women's rights, international health education, and emergency assistance.

The World Association of Non-Governmental Organizations classifies the fields of activity of civil society organizations into 28 different categories operating in various fields. These categories indicate the areas in which civil society organizations operate. A detailed list of these fields of activity is presented in Table 4.1. (Harman, 2014: 345).

Table 4.1. Fields of Activity of NGOs (Harman, 2014: 345)

| Fields of Activity                 | Fields of Activity                   |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Aging                              | Indigenous People                    |
| Animal Health and Rights           | International Organizations          |
| Agriculture and Food               | Law and Legal Issues                 |
| Bussiness and Economic Policy      | Drugs and Crime                      |
| Children and Young People          | Peace and Security                   |
| Communication and Media            | Population and Human Settlement      |
| Conflict Resolution                | Asylum Seekers                       |
| Development                        | Organizations Providing Aid Services |
| Education                          | Religion, Faith And Morality         |
| Environment                        | Science and Technology               |
| Family                             | Social and Cultural Development      |
| Heath and Nutrition                | Sport and Recreation / Transport     |
| Human Rights                       | Workforce                            |
| Status Of Women and Related Issues | Trade and International Finance      |

NGOs like Greenpeace and the World Wildlife Fund seek to save the environment and advance sustainability. NGOs' work is essential in tackling social, economic, and environmental problems and fostering constructive societal change.

### 4.3. Functions of NGOs

NGOs, which represent disparate components of the populace, are active in multiple social, cultural, environmental, and economic issues. These organizations are considered indispensable elements of a democratic society and fulfill various functions. It is crucial that non-governmental organizations can produce original solutions and that this information can be shared, replicated, and used to solve other problems (Karataş, 2008).

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) represent disadvantaged and minority populations within society, promoting and defending their rights and concerns. The identified functions of civil society organizations can be listed as follows (Güneş, 2004: 2; Talas, 2011: 392):

- Forming public opinion by helping to voice the demands of individuals. These entities endeavor to raise public awareness regarding human rights violations, ecological predicaments, educational matters, and health concerns. Through awareness-raising activities, NGOs sensitize broader segments of society to these problems and contribute to the search for solutions.

- Contribute to forming a pluralistic society as a counterbalancing force against market commodification and dominant market values.

- To raise individuals nourished by a participatory and pluralistic culture and who have gained management experience.

- To produce parallel or alternative responsibilities to government policies on education, social welfare, and employment, to develop pilot projects, to provide resources for these projects, and to put them into practice.

Considering the areas mentioned above of activity, the main functions of civil society organizations can be listed as helping to voice the demands of individuals through the formation of public opinion, contributing to the establishment of a pluralistic social structure, and acting as a protective buffer against specific mechanisms imposed by the state legal entity and the market economy (Arslan, 2001: 126-127; Emini, 2013).

An essential function of civil society organizations, which is one of the additions to modern society, is to exert pressure on the state through "social dialog." In this situation, the political function of civil society organizations is also evident (Demir, 2014). According to Taylor, the most important functions of civil society organizations are to penetrate political power, decentralize political power by fragmenting it, protect individuals from the pressure of authoritarianism, and thus provide security from despotism (Yıldırım, 2004). Non-governmental Organizations establish interpersonal connections with individuals and entities that possess decision-making power within the political system, which has an impact on them, and endeavor to persuade them to align with their objectives. Often, representatives of civil society organizations are unable to reach government officials directly. At this point, representatives of civil society organizations resort to the mediation of members of parliament to help them (Koç, 2005; Usta, 2006). Organizations in civil society serve as an interface for government policies. NGOs are more likely to be accepted by society when they support the policies put in place by the governmental machinery. On the other hand, due to the opposition

of civil society organizations, some damaging actions can no longer be implemented (Usta, 2006).

STK'ların oluşmakta olan yeni dünya düzeninde, daha fazla bir rol oynama şansları bulunmakla birlikte , bu büyük ölçüde, kendilerini geliştirebilmelerine, ortak hedefler doğrultusunda işbirliği yapabilmelerine ve yeni ortak misyon ve etik oluşturabilmelerine bağlıdır (Şahin and Öztürk, 2008).

#### **4.4. The Necessity and Reasons for NGOs**

Globalization and increased interconnectedness have created a need for non-state actors to address global challenges. NGOs facilitate collaboration among diverse stakeholders and elevate voices frequently excluded from traditional governing systems to address major global concerns. The waning confidence in conventional establishments and governmental bodies has given rise to non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as substitute entities for citizen participation and promotion. Governments in numerous nations are commonly regarded as corrupt, lacking in efficacy, or unresponsive to the demands of their populations. NGOs enable people to participate in civil society and make decisions, empowering them. NGOs empower individuals with agency, recognizing their capacity not just to respond to problems but also to shape solutions.

Kahraman's (2018:720) research findings provide the following justifications for NGOs' existence:

- Enhancing the standard of instruction, training, and science,
- Protecting the professional, financial, social, political, and personal rights and interests of educators,
- Equal opportunity, educational access, and protection of the right to an education,
- Establishment of national education goals, fostering an appreciation for democracy and human rights
- To promote publicly funded basic education,
- Reducing the scope of the government's jurisdiction over public servants and services,
- Carrying out joint work with other civil society organizations and the community, and informing the public,

- Open dorms, build schools, and offer scholarships,
- Equal opportunity, educational access, and protection of the right to an education,
- Upholding the employer community's rights in the workplace (Kahraman, 2018).

NGOs are essential in addressing inequalities and social issues that persist today. NGOs are best known for undertaking one of these primary forms of activity: delivering essential services to people in need or organizing policy advocacy and public campaigns for change. NGOs also operate in emergency response, democracy building, human rights, cultural preservation, conflict settlement, environmental activism, policy analysis, research, and information provision (Lewis, 2020).

Their efforts are directed towards enhancing the agency of communities with limited resources, promoting parity between genders, and increasing the availability of educational and healthcare resources. They also advocate for policies that address income inequality and promote public financing to rectify the imbalance. They provide assistance and support in emergencies. NGOs are often the first to respond and provide necessary help to impacted populations during natural disasters, armed conflicts, and other crises. They fight corruption, discrimination, and other human rights violations with local communities and other organizations (Banks et al., 2015). NGOs may also provide documentary evidence and specific case materials on human rights abuses to relevant international institutions (Rotberg, 1995: 6; Tiryakioğlu, 2009).

NGOs have some advantages over the state in delivering public services. For example, some groups needing social assistance find NGOs more functional than the bureaucratized public sector. Once again, it is difficult to alter the activities of a social service organization that the state has created to meet societal requirements. However, NGOs are usually small, and their board members can quickly decide on changes. Through its agreements with NGOs, the state can take advantage of this flexibility if it wishes. Moreover, they can easily be canceled when the state no longer needs its agreements with NGOs (Özdemir et al., 2009).

Through their work, NGOs frame policies and influence key government decisions. They provide a voice for previously neglected, overlooked, or marginalized issues. They promote legal literacy in the communities they are targeting and often provide fundamental legal assistance in complex or underrepresented human rights matters. Through their work, NGOs

frame policies and influence key government decisions. In dangerous conflict zones, NGOs often work with the UN, OSCE, OEA, African Union, Economic Community (EC), and other international peacekeepers (MacDougal, 2004).

#### **4.5. Civil Society, NGOs and Democracy**

From ancient times to the present day, the concept of "democracy" has had a central position in humanity's search for political models of common life (Kabasakal, 2008). The term democracy may be traced back to Greek city-states. Upon examining the etymological derivation of the term, one encounters the lexical constituents "demos" (signifying the populace) and "Kratos" (connoting authority and potency) (Aktan, 1996). According to Bayhan (2005), democracy is a type of governance that means the self-rule of the populace. This means voting, respecting election results, protecting rights and freedoms, ensuring the right to debate freely, publishing news and opinions uncensored, and respecting the rights and powers established by law. Despite all their common characteristics, people have different worldviews, goals, and lifestyles (Kongar, 2007). A peaceful and civilized society exhibits the capacity to coexist peacefully despite diverse differences. Because democracy is the administration of rights, freedoms, and duties possessed by conscious people, it is the only system that can enable this peaceful art of life (Usta, 2006).

The individuals of those societies can determine the future of societies with their own free will (Erol, 1995). The civic society and democratic components are closely related. Civil society is considered a necessary condition of democracy (Saribay, 1998: 25; Usta, 2006). As such, the democratization of the state alone is not enough; civil society must also contribute to the democratization process of the system (Uluç, 2013).

Since civil society and non profit organizations can only be formed with free individuals, the purpose of democracy is to prepare an environment for individuals. Free individuals guarantee democracy in civil society (Yıldırım, 2004: 30; Usta, 2006). Merely having civil society components present is inadequate for the process of democratizing the system. Civil society must first and foremost have a democratic understanding of its philosophy of life. The civil society contributes to democracy to the extent that it can allow for differences within itself, gain a pluralist identity in this sense, and democratize the actions and values of its elements (Uluç, 2013) because only a civil society that cares about and internalizes a democratic culture can provide a state dominated by democratic elements (Çelik, 2013; Aksoy, 2018).

Since democracy requires the freedom to organize around differences, the state and civil society should be democratic structures that support each other (Duman, 2010: 363). As Sarıbay states, a democratic political ground is an environment of struggle in which the interests of the elements of civil society representing different interests and ideas clash, but this conflict turns into a compromise without turning into violence, where everyone wins a little, but no one wins ultimately (Sarıbay, 2000: 60; Uluç, 2013). A robust civil society positively affects the development of democracy in many ways. These are summarized as follows (Karadağ, 2003: 69-70; Dursunoğlu, 2012: 56-57):

- Civil society is the source of political, economic, moral, and cultural values that limit state power.
- Civil society embodies diversity. This diversity prevents the capture of political power by a minority group. A vibrant civil society supports political parties' calls for political participation.
- Civil society provides stability for the state and better opportunities and social welfare for citizens.
- New political leaders can emerge through civil society.

An organized civil society enables individuals to exert influence over the decisions and actions of political power and articulate their demands. Therefore, organizing should be given the opportunity. Because to strengthen democracies and prevent despotic systems, social differences must come together to form a solid and organized structure (Tosun, 2005).

Participation in democracies must be ensured through civil society organizations, including associations, foundations, trade unions, and professional associations (Dursunoğlu, 2012). Various social scientists have drawn attention to this organizational dimension, namely NGOs, when defining civil society, especially when examining the relationship between civil society and democracy. In particular, one of the reasons for the rapid development of NGOs both in the world and Turkey after the 1980s (Edwards, 2004) is that NGOs contribute positively to democratization. Tocqueville (1988), impressed by civic associations' contribution to American democracy during his trip to the United States in the 1800s, has inspired research on NGO democracy today. According to Putnam (2000), NGOs contribute to democracy by enabling individuals to express their interests, communicate their demands to the government, and protect themselves from abuse of power.

NGOs make an important contribution to democracy since they are one of the social mechanisms that regulate political parties, forcing them to be responsible for what they do and act cautiously through the use of the power of representation (Yalçın, 2008). NGOs prevent the abuse of power by monitoring how the state uses its power (Diamond, 1994; Şahin and Akboğa, 2019). Michael Bratton (1989), who argued that NGOs are significant bolsterers of civil society by virtue of their participatory and democratic approach (Mercer, 2002). Civil society groups set higher standards for democracy and prosper due to democracy (Dursunoğlu, 2012). NGOs increase the opportunity for governments to get closer to society, get to know and understand society, direct people to tasks in line with common interests, defend and monitor policies, and encourage political participation through their work in disseminating information (Ustakara, 2009: 201; Atak, 2018) and guide political parties by representing diversity (Özer, 2008: 92-94).

Over the past few years, numerous NGOs have emerged across various regions worldwide. Thanks to these NGOs, citizens of the country can make their voices heard better and have more courage and voice in their dialog with the state. Especially strong and well-structured NGOs are sometimes seen as more reliable than the state. The people's decisions used to be asked only from election to election. Thanks to NGOs, people can communicate their decision whenever they want (Yalçın, 2008).

#### **4.6. Foundations of NGOs In Turkey and Factors Affecting Participation**

The history of NGOs in Turkey can be traced to before the republic. Some views on the past and examples of Turkish NGOs suggest that the earliest forms of civil society can be traced back to the Anatolian Seljuk alliance and others to the Ottoman Empire (Acun, 2005: 51). While private property and a free market were vital to Western civil society, the Ottoman Empire's foundation system allowed the creation of non-profit organizations to check the state's authority (Çaha, 2004; Aslan, 2011). However, it was not until the Republican period that civil society emerged as a separate concept. According to Çaha (1994: 88-93), civil society elements in the Ottoman Empire developed through economic, cultural, and administrative subordination to the central government. In other words, the Ottoman Empire was relatively distant from the state power in Western Europe. It did not have civil society elements with a unified structure that served its purpose (Çaha, 2004; Talas, 2011).

It was only in the Republican era that NGOs began to form and play an important role in Turkish civil society. The government enacted legislation to promote the establishment of

NGOs, including the "Law on Associations" and the "Law on Foundations." Professional groups, labor unions, and charitable organizations were founded due to these regulations. Due to their role in giving individuals a forum to engage in the democratic process, NGOs have become a significant component of Turkish civil society (Akçeşme, 2013).

Since the 1980s, Turkey has seen considerable changes in civil society, with the shrinking of the state, liberalization initiatives, and economic privatization shaping these changes. With the end of the Cold War, the development of the information society, and globalization, Turkey has become more open to the outside world as a member of the European Union (Çaha et al, 2013:19). The most prominent non-governmental organizations established since the 1980s are environmentalist groups (Turkish Nature Conservation Association, Natural Life Protection Association, Turkish Foundation for Environmental Problems, TEMA), women's associations (representatives of secular feminism and the Islamic women's movement), Alevi groups (Cem Foundation, Pir Sultan Abdal Association, Hacı Bektaş Veli Associations and Foundations), associations and organizations that offer a prescription for the .Southeastern issue within the framework of Kurdish ethnic demands, associations operating in the field of human rights (Human Rights Association, Mazlum-Der, and many more), the Liberal Thought Society etc.), civil organizations such as the Liberal Thought Society (Çaha, 2003: 262-275; Talas, 2011).

Today, NGOs in Turkey are expanding their borders in every field. However, Turkey still has low membership in NGOs (Çarkoğlu and Aytaç, 2016). Research on this issue has pointed to different reasons behind the low participation in NGOs in Turkey (Kalaycıoğlu, 2002; Çarkoğlu and Aytaç, 2016). Certain reasons are associated with the personal attributes of individuals, whereas others are linked to the political, economic, and cultural attributes of their respective nations. According to previous research, individual factors such as education, gender, income, and marital status have an impact on people's participation in NGOs (Şahin and Akboğa, 2019; Ruieter, 2008; Paxton et al., 2007; Bernhard and Karakoç, 2007; Bekkers, 2005; Zak and Knack, 2001; Brehm and Rahn, 1997; Shah, 1998). For example, Wallace and Pichler (2009) showed that gender, age, education, work status, occupational class, and place of residence impact people's participation in NGOs. According to Andersen et al. (2006), empirical evidence has indicated that individuals who are advanced in age and possess higher educational qualifications exhibit a greater propensity to engage in NGOs. However, to understand how individual qualities affect NGO involvement, it is essential to consider how the national characteristics of the people who participate in NGOs are shaped (Grillo et al., 2010). These

factors include personal traits that connect to some of them, as well as political, economic, and cultural traits of the nations where they reside (Şahin and Akboğa, 2019).

The lack of a supportive legal framework and governmental regulations creates obstacles for NGOs to work effectively (Göz, 2022). For example, climate laws and policies in Turkey have been criticized for not being effective enough in addressing environmental issues, which may hinder the participation of environmental NGOs. Further discouraging involvement in civil society might be government crackdowns on such groups and limits on free speech (Aslan, 2010). Conversely, poverty and inadequate education constrain individuals' capacity to engage in civil society endeavors.

While there are many healthy, democratic, and liberal NGOs in Turkey, some argue that the development of civil society is hindered (Aslan, 2010). Despite the obstacles, non-governmental organizations in Turkey persist in promoting democracy, human rights, and social justice.

#### **4.7. Types of NGOs in Turkey**

The act of delineating the methodologies utilized in defining civil society organizations elicits an inquiry into identifying the organizations that qualify as civil society organizations. NGO types include foundations, associations, trade unions, professional organizations, chambers of industry and commerce, universities, political parties, platforms, and humanitarian initiatives (Şahin and Öztürk, 2008: 23). As of 2020, 121,720 associations, 5,775 foundations, 604 trade unions, 3,003 chambers, and 53,259 cooperatives are registered in Turkey. These NGOs are essential for enhancing Turkey's social welfare, helping those in need, and protecting the rights of underrepresented groups. This chapter examines associations, foundations, trade unions, trade unions, cooperatives, and professional chambers, which play a critical role structurally and functionally within the scope of NGOs in Turkey.

##### **4.7.1. Association**

Associations are communities of persons with legal personalities, which actual or legal persons form by continuously combining their knowledge and work to realize a specific and common purpose other than sharing profits. They mediate between central institutions and citizens by addressing the issues of a certain group or community (Uğur, 2013: 46-47). Associations ensure solidarity among their members and carry out activities for them (Kamiloğlu, 2020). The Law regulates the legal framework of associations in Turkey on Associations, which sets out the procedures and principles for establishing, functioning, and

dissolving associations. According to the Law, associations must be established by at least seven founding members who can act. They must also have a statute outlining their purpose, structure, and activities. Associations with key members usually operate in various fields, including health, education, sports, family, human rights, development, and environment. Their design aims to impact the formulation of policies in both the public and private sectors pertaining to these matters (Biber, 2006: 33). Establishing and being a member of associations is considered a fundamental right of the individual. In democratic systems, this right is considered public freedom, and as a rule, it is regulated in the constitution among the indispensable fundamental rights of the individual (Koç, 2005). Over time, associations have increased their weight in the political and social structure and have become the leading actor in civil society organizations (Kamiloglu, 2020).

#### **4.7.2. Unions**

The initial formation of trade unions occurred within the working class. According to Koç (1998), the working class established trade unions to defend their rights and interests against employers and governments. During the initial years of the Industrial Revolution, the labor conditions, duration of work, and physical surroundings of factory workers were harsh (Küçükcalay, 1997: 53). To overcome these problems, workers started to help and organize among themselves. These movements were the beginning of unionization. The Turkish Language Association asserts that employers or employees establish trade unions to safeguard and advance their interests in regard to employment, compensation, and social and cultural issues. Trade unions in Turkey started to develop rapidly with the 1961 Constitution. Between 1960 and 1980, trade unions strengthened financially and in terms of the number of members (Aksoy, 2018). Confederations of trade unions of workers and public employees from Turkey and their affiliated unions have been members of various international trade union organizations for years (Koç, 2023). Trade unions have not only economic functions but also social and political functions. Thanks to the multifaceted tasks of trade unions, individuals become aware of many aspects and desire to participate in management mechanisms (Koray, 1994: 2). Trade unions stand against inequalities created by the state and sometimes by political parties. In this sense, trade unions can be considered civil society pioneers (Johns, 2002). Trade unions can influence the authorities through demonstrations, delays, and strikes and actively participate in decisions and changes in the executive and legislative processes (Demirel, 2009: 86).

#### **4.7.3. Foundations**

Foundations are established to provide services such as education, health, and social assistance to society. Foundations are property communities with legal personalities formed by allocating sufficient property and rights of actual or legal persons to a specific and continuous purpose. In societies formed by individuals coming together, what they cannot realize individually, they realize together in aid and solidarity. Foundations are defined by the Association of Charitable Foundations (ACF) as "private, independent, and sustainable income providers that support individuals or other organizations" (Yıldırım, 2004).

Foundations, like associations, have the legal personality of private law. However, foundations differ from associations in terms of their establishment and qualifications. In foundations, the property is allocated to a specific purpose. While associations are communities of people, foundations are communities of property (Yıldırım, 2004: 179).

It is seen that there are still foundations from the past to the present. The legal framework of foundations and associations in Turkey is subject to the Turkish Civil Code, which determines the procedures and principles regarding their establishment, management, and liquidation. Many foundations and associations operate in Turkey, covering various sectors and industries. For example, the Turkish Education Foundation (TEV) is a vital foundation that provides scholarships and support to needy students (Talas, 2011). Foundations are structures that work emotionally to help those in need, such as solidarity and charity, and represent material things, such as goods and money, that people give legally and under certain conditions to provide a service. Today, many foundations operate and contribute to the environment, consumer protection, and social, cultural, and economic fields (Biber, 2006: 36).

#### **4.7.4. Professional Chambers**

Professional Chambers are non-governmental organizations representing professionals' interests in a particular field. Professional associations in Turkey have developed a language that characterizes them as civil society organizations since the 1990s, when the concept of civil society gained popularity. The historical background of some professional associations operating in Turkey dates back to Ottoman modernization efforts (Ömer, 2011). Chambers are public institutions with legal personality that meet members' needs, facilitate their professional activities, and ensure honesty and trust in their relations with each other and the public (Denli, 2018). Professional Chambers aim to ensure unity and solidarity between the Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey and chambers and exchanges and to develop

the profession in line with general interests. The legal framework and organization of Professional Chambers in Turkey are subject to Law No. 5174 on Chambers and Commodity Exchanges. Chambers can only be established in provinces with the decision of the Ministry of Industry and Trade (Özmutaf, 2007: 63; Denli, 2018). In Turkey, professional chambers are public institutions subject to public law. In addition, they perform a crucial function in protecting the welfare of their constituents and advocating for their needs before the governing authorities. Professional Chambers have a constitutional basis under the title of professional organizations like public institutions in Article 135 of the Constitution. Chambers have a wide range of income sources, such as registration fees, annual dues, fees for services, document fees, publication revenues, donations and aids, fines, executions, profits of subsidiaries, movable and real estate capital revenues, company profits, foreign exchange revenues, tariff approval fees, and consultancy fees.

#### **4.7.5. Cooperatives**

In the 19th century, when industrialization began to spread, the cooperative movement emerged in the town of Rochdale, England, in 1844 and became widespread over time (Mülayim, 2003: 69). On the other hand, Mithat Pasha established the Hometown Chests in Turkey in 1863, and as a result of this movement, today's Ziraat Bank and Agricultural Credit Cooperatives were born (Koçtürk, 2006). Turkey boasts diverse cooperative models, including Housing Construction Cooperatives, Collective Workplace Construction Cooperatives, Small Industrial Site Construction Cooperatives, and Social Cooperatives. Article 1 of the Cooperative Law defines cooperatives as organizations with variable membership and variable capital established by real and public legal entities, private administrations, municipalities, villages, societies, and associations in order to provide and protect the specific economic interests of their members, especially their professional and livelihood needs, through mutual assistance, solidarity, and surety (Anonymous, 2002; Ünal and Yercan, 2006). The word cooperative, generally used in the sense of cooperation, has different legal and economic definitions. A cooperative is a tool, an economic organization that serves the economic, social, and cultural requirements of its members by prioritizing service over profit. In many countries, cooperatives are viewed as organizations that value and serve people (Kocabaş, 2003; Inan, 1994; Ünal and Yercan, 2006). Cooperatives have traditionally been involved in agriculture (production, buying, and selling), wholesale and retail trade, housing, water, electricity, health, banking, and insurance (Ministry of Customs and Trade, 2012). Cooperatives are generally for-profit organizations, but some operate under cooperatives' legal personality as NGOs (Güder, 2004:

13-14; Denli, 2018). In addition to public and private sector organizations, cooperatives are recognized as the third sector in many countries. Social cooperatives are formed to offer job opportunities to marginalized populations, including individuals with disabilities, women, and young people. Profits are limited in social cooperatives, and the focus is on supporting public good causes rather than distributing profits based on members' financial contributions. Cooperatives in Turkey also work closely with financial institutions, trade unions, professional associations, civil society organizations, and universities.

#### **4.8. The Role of NGOs in Social Entrepreneurship**

Public institutions, private organizations, or non-profit organizations called Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) are essential in implementing social entrepreneurship. Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) are autonomous non-profit entities that function independently of government authority. They can furnish social entrepreneurs with financial support, resources, and specialized knowledge, thereby facilitating the expansion of their ventures and enhancing their effectiveness (Fowler, 2000). Thus, NGOs use social entrepreneurship (SE) to meet the social needs of low-income people (Kumi, 2022; Hussain et al., 2023). Hence, NGOs are also perceived as one of the drivers of social entrepreneurship (Adeyeye, 2016).

Increasingly, academics are highlighting the importance of the non-governmental sector in the economy, specifically the social economy (Hussain et al., 2023). In order for civil society and social capital to be strengthened, social entrepreneurs need to solve the social problems of society in their respective fields (Betil, 2010). Social entrepreneurship is carried out by public organisations, private organisations or the civil society, which is referred to as Non-Governmental Organisation (NGOs).

Concepts such as social entrepreneurship, civil society organizations, social enterprises, and social responsibility are often interrelated and have the same meaning in society, as they have in common the provision of "social assistance." In addition to calling every NGO with an economic organization a social enterprise, some define any attempt to solve a social problem as a type of social enterprise (Social Entrepreneurship Seminar Notes, 2013). However, when considered individually, different connections emerge. Consequently, they exhibit distinct characteristics that set them apart. Boschee and McClurg (2003: 1-5) also state that there is a distinction between civil society organizations and social entrepreneurship (Demir, 2014). The idea behind social entrepreneurship is that it is possible to effect social change on a far larger

scale than through traditional non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (Hussain et al., 2023). While non-governmental organizations as the non-profit sector continue their existence based on philanthropy, volunteerism, and government subsidies, social entrepreneurship continues its existence with a different transformation with "sustainability" and "self-sufficiency" (Demir, 2014).

Social enterprises focus on social, environmental, or cultural goals as their primary purpose. These organizations use market-based approaches to achieve their goals, usually by selling services or goods. Social enterprises focus on social, environmental, or cultural goals as their primary purpose. These organizations use market-based approaches to achieve their goals, usually by selling services or goods. As a result, these organizations are more vulnerable to mission fluctuations due to their dependence on external funding (Mikolajczak, 2019). Conversely, social businesses are more long-term since their funding comes from the selling of products or services. Thus, social enterprises have the potential to be self-sustaining, while non-commercial NGOs depend on external funding.

Let us look at the relationship between social entrepreneurship (Mthembu and Barnard, 2019) and civil society. Social entrepreneurship emphasizes realizing a creative idea by taking the initiative to solve a problem (Ersen et al., 2010). Dees (2001) argued that social entrepreneurship is associated completely with non profit organisations that are venturing into a 'not-for-profit' or 'earned-income' organisations to deliver social value and bring about change (Adeyeye, 2016). Social entrepreneurship also related to not-for-profit organizations, as it combines the for- and not-for-profit traditions to maximize social gain and utility while ensuring financial viability (García-Jurado et al., 2023).

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organizations, with the aim of developing novel and improved solutions to address social issues (Gilmore et al., 2011); in other words, to create social value. According to Weerawardena and Mort (2006), social entrepreneurship creates conditions for NGOs not only to implement their social mission but also to attain long-term goals (Adomaviciute et al., 2012).

They can provide funding, resources, and expertise to social entrepreneurs, helping them to scale up their ventures and achieve greater impact (Fowler, 2000). Additionally, NGOs can serve as democratic governance mechanisms in social entrepreneurship, ensuring that social entrepreneurs remain accountable to their constituencies and follow the rules of transparency and ethical conduct (Kieng and Quack, 2013). Therefore, the most appropriate type of entrepreneurship to achieve the goals of NGOs is social entrepreneurship (Naderi et al., 2022).

Consequently, NGOs are important for addressing social issues because they have the flexibility to adapt to local contexts and respond quickly to emerging needs. NGOs can provide resources, such as funding and training, to social entrepreneurs who are working to create positive social change (Hussain et al., 2023). Additionally, NGOs may provide a venue for social entrepreneurs to network with other stakeholders, including clients and investors, and they can work to create an environment that is supportive of their endeavors (Martin and Osberg, 2007). By supporting social entrepreneurship, NGOs can help create sustainable solutions to social problems and promote economic development in communities (Naderi et al., 2022).

#### **4.9. NGO and Women Entrepreneurs**

NGOs, especially women's NGOs, have long been crucial to women's lives worldwide. NGOs offer a forum for the expression of women's perspectives and the resolution of their concerns. Many NGOs that deal with alleviating poverty for women often also focus on advocacy for women's rights and providing services for women (Handy et al., 2002). NGOs also promote women's rights through advocacy programs and initiatives, empowering women to achieve their full potential. Furthermore, NGOs fight gender-based discrimination and violence against women. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) offer a forum for expressing women's perspectives and resolving their concerns. The primary objective of their endeavors is to augment the capability and enhance the participation of women in decision-making processes. NGOs engage with other groups and networks to increase their effect and advance women's rights internationally (Afsharipour, 1999). They attend worldwide conferences,

seminars, and conventions to promote policy changes. NGO efforts have advanced women's rights and gender equality.

Social projects have been produced in many areas, such as supporting women and integrating with society (Oktay et al., 2016: 269). Non-governmental organizations that support women entrepreneurs see women's development as essential. In order to support women's development, they carry out projects and activities such as training programs in every field, from literacy to computer training, support and consultancy in the field of entrepreneurship, and connecting women with resources (Gök, 2014: 129; Simge and Altun, 2021).

For instance, KAMER (Women's Center), which fosters women's entrepreneurship in Turkey, promotes gender equality and entrepreneurial skills. It empowers women in sustainable development. The association posits that Turkey's entrepreneurial landscape would benefit from an increased representation of women and contends that inclusive development is contingent upon the participation of women. The NGOs, which serve a common purpose with different projects, encourage women to be entrepreneurs and provide educational guidance. They contribute to local economic development by increasing the number of entrepreneurs (Simge and Altun, 2021).

As seen women's non-governmental organizations have the potential to fill the enforcement gap in the existing system. Successful partnerships between women and NGOs have been established and have made significant progress to promote gender equality. For instance, in order to boost women's economic empowerment, Coca-Cola and the Philippine government agency TESDA partnered on the 5by20 initiative, which connected them with regional women's NGOs and financial institutions (Wesely and Dublon, 2015). Womankind Worldwide has been effective in offering technical assistance, financing possibilities, and advocacy venues to promote movements for women's rights. They create programs with community leaders to allow women to come together to discuss transforming their communities, and they collaborate with local partners to help women and girls flee abuse (Esplen, 2013).

In summary, the relationship between women entrepreneurship and NGOs is a dynamic and mutually beneficial partnership that holds significant potential for societal progress and gender empowerment. Through their expertise and established networks, NGOs empower women entrepreneurs to overcome barriers and unlock opportunities for economic

independence and social advancement. Women entrepreneurship, in turn, brings numerous advantages to NGOs.

Women-led enterprises boost economies, create jobs, and reduce poverty. By promoting women's entrepreneurship, NGOs contribute to gender equality, as entrepreneurship provides women with the means to challenge societal norms, achieve financial autonomy, and become agents of change within their communities. Additionally, women entrepreneurs often address social and environmental issues through their innovative business models, aligning with the mission and objectives of many NGOs. NGOs encourage the development of a more inclusive and successful society for all by utilizing the potential of female entrepreneurs and giving them the necessary tools and support.

#### **4.10. The Challenges of NGOs**

NGOs address social issues, promote human rights, and develop diverse sectors. These organizations are social welfare-driven, but they face numerous challenges that limit their influence. NGOs encounter numerous obstacles in creating meaningful change, from limited funding and resource constraints to navigating complex regulatory environments and managing diverse stakeholder expectations. Understanding and addressing these challenges is crucial to ensuring the effectiveness and sustainability of NGOs' endeavors. The challenging issues in this section can be classified into three groups: 1) common challenges; 2) internal organizational challenges; and 3) external challenges. In this part, we will examine some of the most significant issues NGOs face today and how they affect their mission.

##### **4.10.1. Common challenges facing NGOs**

NGOs often face opposition from indigenous communities when trying to implement their initiatives. It may be due to a need for greater trust or understanding of the NGO's goals and objectives (Sayarifard et al., 2022). Local communities may also feel that the NGO needs to adequately address their needs and may offer more resistance. Furthermore, NGOs may face difficulty accessing target groups due to geographical or cultural barriers (Langmann et al., 2023). Building solid partnerships with indigenous communities and involving them in implementing initiatives is crucial for civil society organizations to overcome these barriers.

Inadequate or ill-defined missions ("the decision-making processes") are at the root of the problems of civil society organizations. This weakness can open irreparable wounds and prevent success at every point, such as meeting efficiency, fundraising, volunteer management, communication, the professional staff-board relationship, and performance measurement

(Yıldırım, 2004). Thus, tensions often occur between staff and senior managers because of the staff's expectations that they would be equal partners in the decision-making process (Billis and MacKeith, 1993; Sezik, 2019).

Another frequent issue included the governance of the organizations and the interactions between the board and personnel (Hodson, 1992; Mukasa, 1999). NGOs were found to be weak at staff career development. NGOs employ paid staff members who are sometimes volunteers. Paid staff members typically make less money than their counterparts in the commercial private sector, have fewer organizational and professional skills, and are among the NGOs' top concerns due to the poor quality of their training or the lack of importance placed on it (Mukasa, 2002; Bromideh, 2011).

There are also coordination and communication problems between civil society organizations and public institutions. The new NGOs generally need more resources (in particular administration and expertise) to gain the trust of others, fundraise, and not be recognized among the donors. Lack of managerial and leadership skills deprives NGOs of strategic planning. Keeping good relationships with the government and private sectors to gain their support is a critical success factor for every NGO. Most NGOs face problems maintaining relationships with them (Bromideh, 2011). Moreover, the opportunities and conveniences offered by information technologies are underutilized (Yıldırım, 2004: 255-257; Sezik, 2019).

It can be challenging for NGOs to balance their need for funding operations and their desire for a positive social effect. Additionally, NGOs navigate complex regulatory environments at the local and international levels. Compliance with intricate legal frameworks, bureaucratic red tape, and evolving policies requires extensive knowledge, resources, and time. These constraints hamper development project execution and NGO-government partnership. Many experts have identified inadequate legal forms and obstacles to effective policy-making as critical for NGOs in social entrepreneurship (Abramson and Billings, 2019; Seda and İsmail, 2020).

Stakeholder involvement and collaboration are also needed since NGOs operate in varied cultural, social, and political contexts. Balancing multiple stakeholders' interests, however, managing expectations, negotiating power relations, and balancing the interests of many stakeholders may be complex and challenging.

Fundraising, insufficient institutional capacity, low levels of self-sustainability, lack of inter-organizational communication, and a lack of knowledge of the larger social or economic

context are commonly identified as complex issues for NGOs. As a result, this chapter analyzes the significant challenges NGOs face.

#### **4.10.2. Internal Challenges Facing NGO's**

The initial classification pertains to all endogenous challenges encountered by a non-governmental organization. The predominant areas of difficulty located within non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are commonly related to financial affairs, human resources, managerial competencies, and internal communication (Bromideh, 2011).

##### **4.10.2.1. Capacity Limitations**

NGOs work in complicated and tough situations; therefore, personnel must have the skills and expertise to succeed. Few NGOs can afford training to enhance their technical and organizational capabilities to carry out their missions effectively. Due to a severe human resource shortage, indigenous NGOs are particularly limited in their ability to pursue financing or resources. As a result of their lack of employees, many of these organizations continue to struggle (Batti, 2014). Weak capacity affects fundraising ability, governance, leadership and technical areas. Capacity limitations have become a major concern for NGOs both domestically and internationally (Dupuy et al., 2016). These organizational constraints include labor shortages, a lack of relevant internal information, legal restrictions, financial constrictions, and the need to strengthen internal structures (Bratton, 1990).

##### **4.10.2.2. Accountability and Transparency**

There is a growing demand for NGOs to be more transparent (McDonnell and Rutherford, 2018: 2). Accountability and transparency are crucial for NGOs (Paiva and Carvalho, 2018: 31). An organization's accountability requires it to provide information about its activities and results to interested parties (Yuesti, Novitasari, and Rustiarini, 2016). Transparency is the public disclosure of an organization's activities and financial details (Rodriguez et al., 2012: 664). Accurate and adequate information for stakeholders is necessary to ensure the public support that these organizations need. According to Lee and Joseph (2013: 2218), information asymmetry occurs when stakeholders cannot access the information they need to examine and evaluate an organization. Institutional accountability and transparency help NGOs strengthen public support by eliminating information asymmetry, which can also be defined as the lack of information between NGOs and their stakeholders (Gandia, 2011: 59; Güner, 2019).

NGO board members, significant commercial and public contributors, and the communities they serve are only a few of the stakeholders that NGOs must answer to (Brown, 2009). Building confidence with these stakeholders and upholding the organization's legitimacy require accountability and openness. According to Carothers and Brechenmacher (2014), accountability and transparency may aid NGOs in obtaining more special financing and donor assistance (Carothers and Brechenmacher, 2014). However, many organizations need to improve on the two central pillars of good governance: transparency and accountability (Batti, 2014). Many organizations need better financial management, program monitoring and evaluation, and program performance management mechanisms that earn stakeholders' trust.

#### **4.10.2.3. Inadequate Awareness of Available Opportunities**

There are windows of opportunity within countries that sometimes NGOs fail to exploit due to a lack of awareness that the opportunities exist. Awareness of available opportunities is crucial for NGOs to effectively mobilize resources and fundraise to support their projects (Mmaitisi, 2020). Without a sufficient understanding of the opportunities available, NGOs risk missing out on prospective funding sources or alliances that could aid them in achieving their objectives. For instance, Beverly et al. (2012) report that civil society organizations did not use government grants available because of a lack of knowledge about their availability and the procedures needed to acquire them (Batti, 2014). NGOs may need increased awareness of opportunities for numerous reasons. Some frequent causes include a lack of funding, a staffing shortage, and a failure to give community needs and wishes precedence (Fuseini et al., 2022). Additionally, some NGOs may need the necessary networks or communication channels to access information about available opportunities (Sayarifard et al., 2022). To improve awareness of available opportunities, NGOs can adopt various strategies. Creating alliances and networks with other groups, going to conferences and workshops, and regularly researching avenues for raising money and mobilizing resources are a few of them (Tortajada, 2016).

#### **4.10.2.4. Absence of Strategic Planning**

Lack of managerial and leadership skills deprives NGOs of strategic planning. (Batti, 2014). Only some NGOs have strategic plans to give them ownership over their mission, values, and activities. It leaves them vulnerable to the whims of donors and makes it difficult to measure their impact over time (Nawaqif Rehnuma, 2013). With adequate planning, NGOs can achieve their desired outcomes and may experience a lack of project, organizational, and financial sustainability (Holland, 2017). Strategic and operational plans help NGOs identify their

strengths and weaknesses, prioritize their activities, and allocate resources effectively (Tortajada, 2016). Common reasons for inadequate planning among NGOs include needing more resources, a limited understanding of the planning process, and a lack of leadership commitment (Fuseini et al., 2022). To improve planning in NGOs, it is crucial to address these challenges. NGOs can seek external support from donors, governments, or other organizations to develop their plans (Mmaitisi, 2020).

#### **4.10.2.5. Participation Issues**

Democracy is one of the biggest factors determining the participation rate of individuals in civil society organizations. Civil society groups have more active members in democratic nations. In terms of democratization, it is thought that it would be more beneficial for NGOs to know how to stand apart from the state while being in contact with it (Tosun, 2001: 237). Citizen participation is narrow, deep, and relatively representative of various social groups. This does not preclude the function of social organizations as institutions that are in the knowledge and service of a certain group of people (TÜSEV, 2011: 8). Every citizen is responsible for his or her country and should be made fully aware of social distortions, and disorders, disruptions, and support, and the process of participation should be accelerated by taking into account the previous successful efforts.

#### **4.10.2.6. Founder Syndrome**

Founder syndrome refers to a situation where the Founder's influence, control, and decision-making become entrenched in the organization, often leading to negative consequences for the NGO's growth, sustainability, and overall effectiveness. The term "syndrome" suggests undesirable organizational circumstances in which founders exercise greater control over an organization while remaining unconcerned about it (Block and Rosenberg, 2002; Irvin and Van Steenburg, 2015). Founders Syndrome has been studied primarily in nonprofit organizations, with a substantial body of literature highlighting nonprofit governance (Bradshaw, 2009), the efficiency of regional nonprofits (Herman and Renz, 2004; Herman and Renz, 2008), and efficient executive practices in nonprofits (Herman, Renz, and Heimovics, 1997; Irvin and Van Steenburg, 2015). One of the critical aspects of founder syndrome is the Founder's reluctance to delegate authority and share power with other members of the organization. Founder syndrome also manifests in the need for succession planning. Founder syndrome is characterized by the Founder's disinclination to delegate authority and distribute power among other members of the organization, which is considered a crucial factor. In addition, founder syndrome manifests itself

in the necessity of succession planning. The current situation presents various hurdles that might stall the company's progress (Edwards and Hulme, 1995; Gibelman and Gelman, 2001).

#### **4.10.2.7. Inadequate Networking Skills**

For NGOs, networking is essential since it enables them to establish connections and collaborations with other organizations, governments, and stakeholders. Rather than cooperating to advance shared goals, many NGOs must develop networking skills and compete for funding (Batti, 2014). Effective networking improves an NGO's ability to speak with one voice and significantly increases its influence as a policy influencer (Holmén, 2002). Non-governmental organizations often encounter difficulties identifying potential partners, establishing trust, and maintaining relationships. Lack of networks and access to target groups hinders NGOs from achieving their objectives (Sayarifard et al., 2022). Developing networking skills requires capacity building, which involves improving an NGO's organizational and management capabilities. By constituting links between organizations, networks can establish inter-organizational scale economies and significantly expand the information available to constituent organizations (Holmén, 2002). NGOs can also seek support from external organizations, such as government agencies and private companies, to improve their networking skills (Kavanagh, 2019).

#### **4.10.2.8. Fundraising**

Another problem faced by NGOs is financing. From a theoretical perspective, it is stated that NGOs are structures that act independently of political power. However, for NGOs to achieve this goal and act in line with their founding principles, their financial structures must be competent (Karakuş, 2006: 91; Usta, 2006). Fundraising activities vary for civil society organizations. Grants, corporate social responsibility, individual donations, and funds provided by states and supranational regulatory bodies are the primary sources of income for the third sector (Karataş, 2008). Civil society organizations should disclose the main items of where, how much, and how the resources they use are spent to the public, especially their members and the organizations that transfer resources. They should be transparent in seeking, finding, using, and completing the project (Güner, 2019). Many NGOs suffer economically due to the costs of staff, central liaison offices, vehicles, equipment, and transportation (Usta, 2006). NGOs that need help finding the necessary financial resources cannot realize their projects and even have to close down their organizations (Simge and Altun, 2021).

When finding resources, it is essential to support national and international common platforms and ensure cooperation between the state, private sector, and NGOs (Simge and Altun, 2021). The state and the private sector also have some responsibilities in this regard. Incentives such as tax deductions can be provided for capital owners to support NGOs. The fact that states, realizing the capacity of NGOs, provide significant financial support to NGOs instead of worrying about them and restricting them brings about debates on the financing of NGOs by states (Şahin, 2007: 159). NGOs must increase their capacity to provide additional resources beyond their own to align with their objectives. A clear mission, goals, and strategies will be helpful during the fundraising phase (Güner, 2019).

#### **4.10.3. External Challenges**

Other types of challenges faced by NGOs are external. The study analyzes external challenges such as donor prejudices, natural and manmade occurrences, competition between other NGOs, political interference, challenges related to the law on NGOs, and accessing government funds.

##### **4.10.3.1. Donors and Donor Prejudices**

Due to growing rivalry among NGOs and decreased government financing, getting resources is now more challenging (Briggs et al., 2010; Green and Webb, 1997; Webb et al., 2000). This has made nonprofits more reliant on private funding (Andreasen et al., 2008). Gonzalez et al. investigated the idea of market orientation for NGOs in 2002. They highlighted the importance of embracing a marketing orientation and prioritizing the donor as the fundraising starting and ending point. Hence, comprehending the inclinations and predilections of individual benefactors or volunteers is crucial for non-governmental organizations (Andreasen et al., 2008; Karataş, 2008). Trust is crucial for incentivizing donations. Cases of misappropriation of funds or resources are severe, and donors talk about who is doing what, and a good track record is essential. Cases of fund or resource embezzlement are very serious, and donors talk about who has done what, and a good track record is essential. Many new organizations struggle with not being well-known, and donors avoid giving money because they are unaware of the capabilities or track record of the group, according to an essay written by Irin (2011). Developing transparent and mutually respectful relationships with donors is crucial. NGOs must clearly define their vision and aims and arrange financing agreements that enable them to remain independent and fulfill their missions.

#### **4.10.3.2. Natural and Manmade Occurrences external**

Significant donor funds are often redirected when natural disasters strike to support immediate relief efforts. Donors must prioritize emergency reactions and support to save lives and mitigate the disaster's immediate effects. Due to the redirection of donor funding towards emergency relief endeavors, local non-governmental organizations (NGOs) need help obtaining the necessary financial resources to sustain their ongoing initiatives (Grogg, 2016). This diversion of funds toward relief programs diminishes the financial support available for NGOs' regular development initiatives (Batti, 2014). As a result, long-term, sustainable projects that address communities' systemic issues are experiencing a reduction in funding, impeding the progress of ongoing development endeavors. Additionally, countries experiencing conflict experience a decrease in resources available to NGOs. Donors want to refrain from funding NGOs in conflict areas as they perceive the funds will be diverted.

#### **4.10.3.3. Competition among NGOs in the Same Sector external**

In addition to structural and intra-organizational problems, there needs to be more communication and cooperation between NGOs and less competition. NGOs still need to gain the common platforms and networks necessary to cooperate on many issues, which is an essential qualitative deficiency. Unavoidable conflicts between NGOs due to competition occur, but a self-centered mentality that forbids NGO cooperation worsens this severe issue (Baybora, 2010: 34; Dinçay, 2016). As NGOs compete for the same pool of resources, it can become increasingly challenging to secure the necessary funding to sustain their operations and expand their impact (Geradts, 2022). It can result in a lack of resources to meet the needs of their target communities and achieve their social missions. (De Lima, 2023). Innovative collaboration and cooperation techniques are needed to combat the rivalry among NGOs in social entrepreneurship.

#### **4.10.3.4. Political Interference external**

Problems arising from the political relations of NGOs can be considered problems arising from the fact that the political power has a rigid structure far from transparency, has a particular ideological structure, sees civil society as a threat, and wants to restrict it as much as possible. Political powers exert pressure on NGOs in various ways. As an illustration, political authority can obstruct NGOs outright or try to make them ineffective by limiting their access to funding. In democratic governments, this type of pressure can be applied more indirectly (Gümüş, 2014: 547-548). In other words, NGOs' root problems concerning political powers lie in their failure

to comply with the requirements of democracy and the principles of the rule of law. The constitutional and legal basis of the obstacles to NGOs has been removed considerably. However, it is impossible to state that the anticipated radical reforms have reached their full potential. First, political powers and civil society organizations must overcome the status quo. There may be some among the managers or NGO members who want to enter politics. However, NGOs should not develop into tools that some people use for political and personal gain. Otherwise, trust in NGOs will become questionable. Relationships between NGOs and political forces grow due to NGOs' continued reliance on the state to address many issues. However, it should not be forgotten that these relationships should be established with social benefits in mind (Göz, 2022).

#### **4.10.3.5. Accessing Government Funds**

NGOs usually require government assistance, which can cause issues. Governments frequently encounter substantial funding appeals from non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that solicit monetary backing for their initiatives and undertakings. The fierce competition in government funding schemes for NGOs is one of the main problems. The intense competition has resulted in funding disparities for numerous meritorious non-governmental organizations, impeding their capacity to tackle crucial social and environmental concerns efficiently. For their programs and initiatives to be implemented successfully, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) need assistance in securing the required funding. This is particularly challenging for smaller and new organizations that may have a different level of visibility or resources than more prominent NGOs (Tierney and Boodoosingh, 2020). The rules and regulations that govern accessing and applying for government funds and resources also make it difficult for organizations to access resources (Batti, 2014). Thus, NGOs must navigate complex application procedures, submit extensive documentation, and fulfill stringent eligibility criteria.

#### **4.10.4. NGO Management Practices**

NGO management practices are essential for NGOs to work more efficiently. However, the importance of these practices is only sometimes recognized. For this reason, management practices are sometimes insufficient to solve the problems of NGOs. Our research discusses NGO management structure, inspection, communication, and coordination issues related to NGO management practices.

#### **4.10.4.1. Management Structure**

The board of directors of NGOs in many countries needs to be equipped with effective governance structures, and board members rarely provide strategic leadership in mobilizing resources (Batti, 2014). Good governance practices improve NGOs' mission and objectives, build stakeholder trust, and attract funding (Brown, 2009). However, maintaining good governance can challenge NGOs, especially those operating in resource-constrained environments. NGOs need to work on maintaining good governance practices. These challenges include inadequate financial resources, a need for more skilled personnel, and limited access to information and technology (Abiddin et al., 2022). Furthermore, security concerns and a lack of confidence may make it difficult for NGOs and the government to work together effectively (Yagub, 2014). These challenges hinder the ability of NGOs to maintain good governance practices. To improve governance practices, NGOs should implement various strategies; for example, they can collaborate with other organizations to pool resources and expertise (Sayarifard, 2022). Investing in technology and information communication can help improve governance practices (Kavanagh, 2019).

#### **4.10.4.2. Inspection**

The problem of inadequate management of NGOs is also a common one. One of the problems is the presence of leaders with inadequate management skills in civil society organizations. In some circumstances, even with the best intentions, an organization's founders or managers may need more professional management expertise and abilities. This results in the organization needing to be managed effectively and needing help achieving its goals. Effective leadership and management competencies can facilitate organizational success in binding domains such as financial management, human resource management, and strategic planning. Civil society organizations aim to serve society, so they need to gain public support and trust. Several businesses require assistance with issues such as inefficient resource utilization, a lack of openness to decision-making, and project results monitoring due to managerial inefficiencies. Civil society organizations lose public trust and funding (Amagoh, 2015). Another consequence of inadequate auditing in NGOs is damaging reputations and losing donor trust. Nonprofit organizations rely heavily on the trust of donors and the public to accomplish their mission (Heuty, 2002). Fraud and mismanagement result in reputational damage, which can be challenging to recover from. Inadequate management can also lead to sustainability problems

#### **4.10.4.3. Communication and Coordination**

The conflict between the personal wishes and expectations of members and the goals of NGOs is one of the most critical organizational problems facing NGOs. While the lack of a deliberative democratic culture within the organization excludes members from the decision-making mechanisms of the organization, being a manager in NGOs is perceived as a position that offers many economic and political benefits as well as prestige. In many NGOs, the necessity for an effective communication network between key units and members has kept them from the organizational agenda and operations. The lack of a balanced distribution of tasks and communication between the old and new administrations creates a continuity problem in civil society organizations. However, some NGOs are overly obsessed with planning events that are unrelated to their original goals and objectives (Avci, 2007). Lack of communication undermines the internal functioning and effectiveness of NGOs. Many NGOs are composed of teams that come together to carry out different projects and programs. Effective communication between these teams makes information flow and cooperation easier. Lack of communication also harms NGOs' external relations. NGOs need to strengthen their internal communication systems, establish regular and effective communication with stakeholders, and establish coordination mechanisms with other NGOs with which they will cooperate.

## **5. SAMSUN WOMEN'S ASSOCIATION (SAMİKAD)**

Samsun Business Women's Association (SAMİKAD) is a non-profit, non-governmental organization consisting of women entrepreneurs whose primary purpose is to support women's employment, and it has carried out many projects. In this section, information about the Samsun Business Women Association, which is the crucial source of our research, is given.

### **5.1. The Development and Objectives of SAMİKAD**

The need for a businesswomen's association in Samsun emerged in the early 2000s as women in Samsun faced numerous challenges in the business world. Discrimination, resource access limitations, and limited networking opportunities were some of the challenges. In 2012, the Samsun Association of Business Women (SAMİKAD) was established by a collective of women entrepreneurs and professionals, led by Münevver Uğurlu. Volunteerism and impartiality are the guiding principles of SAMİKAD's operations (Tengo Tuğba, 2019). Since its early years, SAMİKAD has focused on building its member base and establishing its presence in society. The community received SAMİKAD's efforts sufficiently, and the association's size and influence proliferated.

SAMİKAD has succeeded in becoming the leading voice of women in business life with its support to women entrepreneurs in Samsun. Since its inception, the association has expanded its service boundaries by implementing policies supporting women's entrepreneurship and professional development through training and mentoring programs. SAMİKAD has also received awards and recognition for its contributions to society and its work. It has touched lives by organizing exhibitions and events and continues to contribute to the economies of Samsun and Turkey with its concrete projects (Açık, 2021).

Today, SAMİKAD plays a vital role in women's business by providing a platform for women entrepreneurs to connect, learn and grow as professionals. This program encourages women to work by providing occupational skills and training (TÜRKONFED, 2023). Moreover, their objective is to provide support to women in overcoming the challenges they face when embarking on entrepreneurial ventures.

### **5.2. Organizational Structure and Activities of SAMİKAD**

Samsun Business Women's Association has a well-defined organizational structure that gives clear job responsibilities to its members. The management structure of SAMİKAD comprises a board of directors, an executive committee, and multiple working groups that are tasked with the responsibility of supervising the association's programs and initiatives. The

organizational structure of the Samsun Business Women's Association consists of the president, vice president, financial advisor, and general secretary. The association has fifty-five members. The President holds the highest position within the organization and assumes the crucial role of representing SAMİKAD in public engagements and fostering relationships with external entities. SAMİKAD's membership in many local and international organizations enables it to cooperate with other associations and expand its influence. Locally, SAMİKAD is a member of the Samsun Chamber of Commerce and Industry and the Samsun Women's Platform. SAMİKAD's management structure works well to empower women entrepreneurs and promote gender equality in business.

SAMİKAD, an association of women business owners, recognizes the importance of social entrepreneurship in creating sustainable solutions to social problems. By strengthening their entrepreneurial skills and resources, SAMİKAD can significantly impact the communities they serve. The Samsun Business Women Association's social entrepreneurship activities include identifying society's social problems and developing innovative solutions for these problems. SAMİKAD offers various training opportunities, especially for women engaged in social entrepreneurship. One of the priorities of the association's activities is to prepare women and young people for the business world, to train them through practical courses so that they can be active in the business world, and to promote women's employment (TÜRKONFED, 2023).

Samsun Business Women's Association is a member of many international and local organizations. The association supports equal opportunities and women's entrepreneurship before public, private, and non-governmental organizations on national and international platforms. First, SAMİKAD has signed many projects with the Middle Black Sea Industry and Business Federation (ORKASİFED) and the Turkish Enterprise and Business Confederation (TÜRKONFED). In addition, SAMİKAD cooperates with institutions and organizations that support women entrepreneurs, such as KOSGEB, İŞKUR, OKA, and BASİFED, which provide financing, workplace, and training support to small and medium-sized enterprises. For example, SAMİKAD has worked with KOSGEB to provide applied entrepreneurship training to women in Samsun to increase women's participation in the labor force and entrepreneurship activities and has successfully provided training and support to women entrepreneurs in Samsun (TÜRKONFED, 2023).

Additionally, SAMİKAD encourages its members to partner with other women's businesses in Europe and Asia to take advantage of international business opportunities. The

Association also cooperates with various national and international organisations such as the Women Entrepreneurs Association of Turkey, the European Association of Women Entrepreneurs, and the International Women Entrepreneurship Challenge Foundation (Retrieved March, 2023, from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HqPBIMSo0Xw>).

The association has also undertaken community development projects to improve SAMİKAD's institutional and administrative capacity and promote the employment of disadvantaged women, including refugee women in Samsun. SAMİKAD has carried out various volunteering activities and realized many successful projects. These projects include the "Başalan Village" project, the "Çatalarmut Schools Find Life" project, the "Piri Reis Anatolian Technical High School" project, a painting exhibition for children under 18 and their mothers, the "OKA Entrepreneurship and Coaching" training seminar, the "SAMİKAD-OMU University-Industry Meeting" event, the "Samsun 2nd Herb Foods" festival, the "Technology in Agriculture" and "Technology and Women Walking the World" panel studies. In addition, SAMİKAD has provided internship support to students and continues to provide this support. In this context, a congress named "Women and Economy" was organized with important institutions such as the Federation of Western Anatolian Industrialists' and Businessmen's Associations (BASIFED) and the Izmir Metropolitan Municipality. With this congress, SAMİKAD has provided an essential platform for strengthening women entrepreneurs and businesspeople and increasing their economic contributions (Retrieved March, 2023, from <https://shorturl.at/jpHQX>).

By engaging in such initiatives, SAMİKAD contributes to its communities' economic and social development. SAMİKAD also contributes to various initiatives to promote environmentally sustainable development by providing support for social entrepreneurship.

## **6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES**

Research conducted in this study is quantitative. With the data to be obtained, environmental determinants (social and cultural environment, economic environment, legal and political environment), market entry strategies, micro and macro problems, and the level of contribution of SAMİKAD's management structure (organizational characteristics) to SAMİKAD in solving the problems faced by women entrepreneurs in the social entrepreneurship process will be revealed. The research is both descriptive and explanatory in terms of its purpose. In the previous sections of the study, the phenomenon of social entrepreneurship, women social entrepreneurs, and non-governmental organizations were defined in all aspects. By analyzing previous research on the subject, a model has been developed about SAMİKAD and women entrepreneurs who are members of the association, and a cause-effect relationship has been sought between the empirical findings obtained and the variables in this model. Therefore, the research also has an explanatory aspect.

In this section, explanations will be made about how the selection of the central mass and sample size of the research was made, the limitations of the research, the purpose and importance of the study, and the development and process of the data collection tool.

### **6.1. Purpose and Importance of Research**

To illustrate the nature of women entrepreneurs; and NGOs; participation and the challenges they face in social entrepreneurship, this study explores a social entrepreneurship model. Hence, our research aims to examine the involvement of female entrepreneurs and civil society organizations in social entrepreneurship and ascertain the obstacles they encounter within this domain. In order to find answers to the research questions, the support of women entrepreneurs who are members of the Samsun Business Women Association (SAMİKAD) is utilized. In addition, the research seeks to examine the impact of environmental factors (social and cultural environment, economic and environment, legal and political environment) on the problems faced by women entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurship, the level of impact of organizational characteristics of NGOs (management, communication, and coordination, supervision) on social entrepreneurship and problems of NGOs, and how the problems faced by NGOs and women entrepreneurs affect social entrepreneurship. In line with the findings obtained from the research, solutions will be tried to be produced for the problems faced by women entrepreneurs and NGOs.

In addition, although there have been many studies on women entrepreneurship and NGOs, there has yet to be a hybrid study on women entrepreneurs' social entrepreneurship activities in the literature. This element indicates the original value of our study. In addition, the study will contribute to the literature and be a good source for new research in this direction. On the other hand, identifying the challenges in social entrepreneurship will be a tool for women entrepreneurs and civil society organizations to solve problems and bring innovation.

The significance of the study can be summed up as follows, based on its fundamental approach:

1. Contributing to studies on social women's entrepreneurship and civil society organizations,
2. To reveal the critical problems faced by women entrepreneurs in the social entrepreneurship process,
3. Identifying essential problems faced by civil society organizations,
4. Identifying institutions and organizations where women entrepreneurs can receive support in the social entrepreneurship process,
5. To contribute to increasing the number of women entrepreneurs by guiding potential women entrepreneurs engaged in social entrepreneurship activities,
6. Determining the level of relationship between civil society organizations and social entrepreneurship,
7. Determining the level of impact of environmental factors on women entrepreneurs' problems and social entrepreneurship,
8. Determining the level of impact of management practices of non-governmental organizations on social women entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship.

## **6.2. Development of the Data Collection Tool**

Data were collected using a survey methodology in this study. The survey method with Likert-type questions, the quantitative data collection methods, was adopted in the study. For this type of research, attitude scales with "5- or 7-point Likert-type" questions (statements) are generally developed. These scales, whose reliability and validity have been tested in many studies, are primarily found in North American and Western European literature (İlter, 2008). In this context, the questionnaire form was created based on the scales developed and applied by İlter on women's entrepreneurship. In addition, her approval was obtained for using the scales via e-mail. The scale used by the researcher Titrek (2019) regarding social entrepreneurship

characteristics was utilized. In the preparation of other multiple-choice questions included in the questionnaire, questions were created by utilizing the results of the studies of researchers named Jafarova (2020), Bromideh (2011), James and Malunga (2000), Khan et al. (2020), Negash, (2017), Sezik, (2019).

The questionnaire includes queries concerning women entrepreneurs' social entrepreneurship activities, environmental factors (social and cultural environment, economic environment, legal and political environment) that women entrepreneurs face during the entrepreneurship process, questions about market entry strategies, micro-level and macro-level challenges, and multiple-choice questions on critical problems, and SAMİKAD management practices (management structure, communication, and accountability). The poll concludes with demographic queries regarding female entrepreneurs and fundamental questions concerning the SAMİKAD association.

### **6.3. Data Collection and Limitations**

The research was applied to women entrepreneurs who are members and have a relationship with the SAMİKAD association, which continues its activities in Samsun province. SAMİKAD has 55 members operating in the textile, consultancy, advertising, psychology, education, and other sectors. Their names and contact information were not shared with third parties. The survey was applied to 54 women entrepreneurs who could be reached. Fifty-one association members and three businesswomen who are not members but have a relationship with SAMİKAD participated in the survey. It is assumed that the women entrepreneurs who participated in the research answered the questions in the questionnaires used as data collection tools in a way that they understood, were unbiased, and reflected the truth. Before the questionnaires developed for data collection were sent to SAMİKAD member women entrepreneurs, the association management was asked to support us. After the approval of the association management, the questionnaire was sent to the e-mail address of the association management. The association management ensured that the survey was delivered online to the women entrepreneurs of the association through social media tools. In addition, to accelerate the transformation, we tried to reach the association's members through their phones, e-mail addresses, and social media accounts. However, the conversion of the questionnaires to us was slow due to the busy work schedules of the women entrepreneurs who are members of SAMİKAD. Thus, 54 people responded to the survey.

The most important limitation of the research was the pandemic process that emerged during the period when the survey data was applied. Therefore, the study is limited to an online survey. Scope, measurement, and response errors, which can always be encountered in a survey study, may have been the case in this study. Another limitation of the study is that the research is based on a single province. The data obtained within the scope of the research is limited to the opinions of women entrepreneurs of SAMİKAD, which has businesses in different sectors. Additionally, the number of survey questions may be perceived as too many.

#### 6.4. Research Model and Hypotheses

This chapter presents a research model and hypotheses to understand the relationships between Women Entrepreneurship, Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs), and Social Entrepreneurship and identify the problems women entrepreneurs and NGOs face in their social entrepreneurship processes.

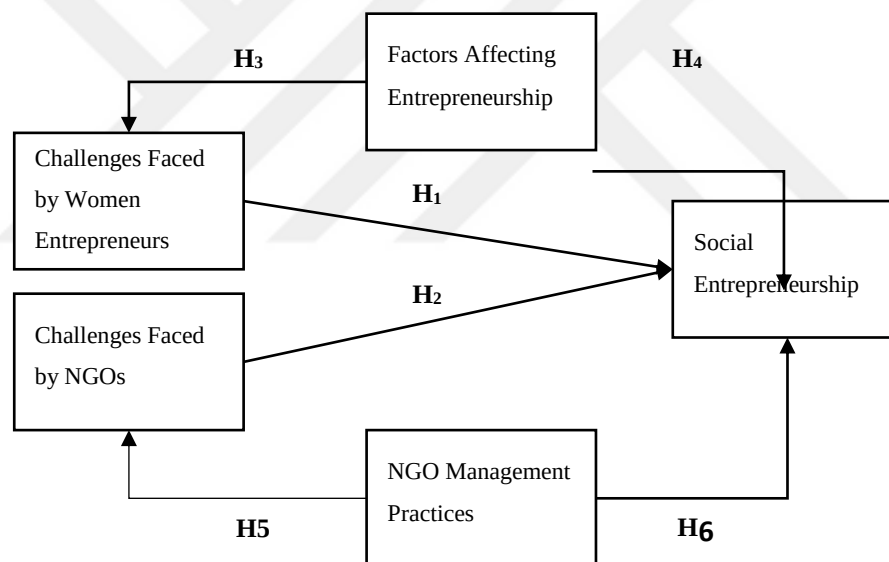


Figure 6.1. Research Model

**H<sub>1</sub>.** Challenges faced by women entrepreneurs are effective in social entrepreneurship.

**H<sub>2</sub>.** Challenges faced by non-governmental organizations are effective in social entrepreneurship.

**H<sub>3</sub>.** The environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship are influential in the challenges women entrepreneurs face.

**H4.** The environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship are influential in social entrepreneurship.

**H5.** NGO management practices are effective in the problems faced by NGOs.

**H6.** NGO management practices are effective in social entrepreneurship.

### **6.5. Data Analysis**

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 26.0 Statistics Package Program. The socio-demographic characteristics of the women entrepreneurs, information about the business, and answers to the Samsun Business Women's Association (SAMİKAD) questions were calculated as numbers and percentages. The normal and non-normal distribution in numerical variables was found by calculating skewness and kurtosis values. *Independent Samples t Test* was used to compare the means of two independent groups. *The Independent Samples t Test* compares the means of two independent groups to determine whether there is statistical evidence that the associated population means are significantly different. The test can only compare the means for two (and only two) groups. *Independent Samples t Test* is a parametric test. *Mann Whitney U Test* was used to compare sub-dimension scores of two independent groups (for non-parametric values).

The *One-way analysis* of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences between the means of three or more independent (unrelated) groups. *One-way ANOVA* is a parametric test. *Kruskal Wallis H Test* was used to compare the values of sub-dimension scores of three or more independent (unrelated) groups (for those not normally distributed). Post Hoc Test was used to determine which group component was responsible for the values that differed between the groups.

Pearson or Spearman Correlation Analysis was used to examine the relationship between women entrepreneurs' *Social Entrepreneurship* level, *Environmental Factors* affecting entrepreneurship, *NGO Management Practice*, *Challenges Women Entrepreneurs*, and *Challenges NGOs*. The correlation coefficient; between 0.00-0.30 is considered a low-level relationship, between 0.30-0.70 as a medium-level relationship, and between 0.70-1.00 as a high-level relationship (Büyüköztürk, 2020).

Multiple regression analysis was performed to reveal the claims for hypothesis testing. The study realized significance levels by considering 0.05 and 0.01 values.

As part of the doctoral thesis of Ilter (2008), the reliability of the scales used in the study, women entrepreneurs' difficulties in their activities, environmental characteristics, and NGO management practices scales were proved; Titrek's (2019) research confirmed the social entrepreneurship scale.

## 6.6. Findings

This section presents the main findings from the data collected and analyzed during this research.

### 6.6.1. Demographic Characteristics of Women Entrepreneurs and Information on Their Enterprises

In the study, 54 women entrepreneurs residing in Samsun province participated. The demographic characteristics of women entrepreneurs and information about their enterprises are shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1. Demographic Characteristics of women entrepreneurs and information about their businesses

| Scale                                                 |                               | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Age                                                   | 40 years old and under        | 19            | 35,2           |
|                                                       | Over 40 years old             | 35            | 64,8           |
| Marital status                                        | Married                       | 39            | 72,2           |
|                                                       | Single                        | 15            | 27,8           |
| Education level                                       | High school                   | 5             | 9,3            |
|                                                       | Bachelor                      | 35            | 64,8           |
|                                                       | Master                        | 14            | 25,9           |
| Number of children                                    | 1-2 children                  | 17            | 31,5           |
|                                                       | 3-4 children                  | 30            | 55,6           |
| Year of company foundation                            | 2015 and before               | 7             | 13,0           |
|                                                       | 2015 and before               | 14            | 25,9           |
|                                                       | After 2015                    | 40            | 74,1           |
| Total number of people employed in the company        | 0-50 persons                  | 31            | 57,4           |
|                                                       | 50-100 persons                | 11            | 20,4           |
|                                                       | 100 persons and more          | 12            | 22,2           |
| Where professional knowledge and skills are acquired* | Family                        | 15            | 12,1           |
|                                                       | Working life                  | 41            | 33,1           |
|                                                       | Formal / non-formal education | 40            | 32,3           |
|                                                       | Vocational education programs | 28            | 22,6           |

\* Multiple choice question

35.2 percent (19 people) of the 54 women entrepreneurs in the study were under the age of 40, whereas 64.8 percent (35) were over the age of 40. The proportion of married women is 72.2% (39 people), and the proportion of single women is 27.8% (15 people). It has been observed that the education level of women entrepreneurs is high. Among the female entrepreneurs, 9.3% (5 individuals) graduated from high school, 64.8% (35 individuals) were undergraduates, and 25.9% (14 individuals) were postgraduates.

According to the above results, 17 women entrepreneurs have no children, while 37 women entrepreneurs have children. Generally, the % of female entrepreneurs with 1-2 children is higher, namely 55.6%. The percentage of female entrepreneurs with 3-4 children is 13%. 25.9% (14 enterprises) were established in 2015 and before, while 74.1% (40) were established after 2015. According to the statistics on the number of employees in the enterprises of women entrepreneurs, a more significant proportion has between 0 and 50 employees (57.4%). When analyzing the professional skills of women entrepreneurs, 12.1% of women acquired entrepreneurial skills in the family, 33.1% in business, 32.3% through formal and non-formal education, and 22.6% through vocational education. The age ratio of female entrepreneurs was predominantly 40 years and older. As a result of Özyılmaz (2016), this rate is 30-39 years. Many studies state that women in Turkey generally have the potential to become entrepreneurs in middle age. The capital and experience needed to realize entrepreneurship can only be provided in these age groups (Özkaya, 2009). Other studies on women entrepreneurs in Turkey cited by Yetim (2002: 86) also show that women are more active in middle age (Çelebi, 1997; Ufuk and Özgen, 2001; Yetim and Tatlıdil, 2004; Özkaya, 2009).

When the literature is examined, different rates are observed in different sectors in the studies conducted to determine the education level of women entrepreneurs. For example, Çabuk et al. (2015) found the rate of female entrepreneurs with university degrees to be 33% in their research on 18 business sectors, Yirik and Yıldırım (2014) found this rate to be 49% in the tourism sector, Bedük et al. (2016) found it to be 56.5% in the service and food sector (Sosyal, 2010). In our study, this rate is 64.8%. Similarly, in the CASE survey, in which 151 social entrepreneurs participated, it was found that the educational status of the sample was quite good, 56% of the participants had a master's degree or higher, and there were more female entrepreneurs (The CASE, 2006: 27; Kümbül, 2008).

### 6.6.2. Analysis of the answers to the questions related to the Samsun Business Women's Association (SAMİKAD)

The answers to the Samsun Business Women's Association (SAMİKAD) questions were analyzed and shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2. Responses to the Questions Related to Samsun Business Women's Association (SAMİKAD) Review.

| Variables                                                     |                                   | Frequency (N) | Percentage (%) |
|---------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| Membership status in SAMİKAD                                  | Yes                               | 51            | 94,4           |
|                                                               | No                                | 3             | 5,6            |
| Number of SAMİKAD Members                                     | 20-40                             | 1             | 1,9            |
|                                                               | 40 and above                      | 53            | 98,1           |
| Status of volunteering at SAMİKAD                             | Yes                               | 51            | 94,4           |
|                                                               | No                                | 3             | 5,6            |
| Recommend SAMİKAD to a friend                                 | Yes                               | 44            | 81,5           |
|                                                               | No                                | 10            | 18,5           |
| What kind of connotation does SAMİKAD give?                   | Positive                          | 50            | 92,6           |
|                                                               | Neither positive nor negative     | 4             | 7,4            |
| Membership in other non-governmental organizations            | Yes                               | 44            | 81,5           |
|                                                               | No                                | 10            | 18,5           |
| Channels receiving information about SAMİKAD activities *     | Facebook                          | 31            | 17,2           |
|                                                               | Twitter                           | 40            | 22,2           |
|                                                               | Instagram                         | 49            | 27,2           |
|                                                               | E-Posta                           | 9             | 5,0            |
|                                                               | Whatsapp                          | 36            | 20,0           |
|                                                               | Friend                            | 15            | 8,3            |
|                                                               | <b>Total</b>                      | <b>180</b>    | <b>100,0</b>   |
| SAMİKAD`s women entrepreneurs desired issues to be supported* | Finding a job                     | 6             | 6,3            |
|                                                               | Right Search                      | 23            | 24,0           |
|                                                               | On-the-job training               | 42            | 43,8           |
|                                                               | Improvement of working conditions | 25            | 26,0           |
|                                                               | <b>Total</b>                      | <b>96</b>     | <b>100,0</b>   |
| SAMİKAD`s role in social entrepreneurship*                    | Service provision                 | 33            | 19,4           |
|                                                               | Urgent help                       | 6             | 3,5            |
|                                                               | Human rights                      | 35            | 20,6           |
|                                                               | Health                            | 7             | 4,1            |
|                                                               | Education                         | 43            | 25,3           |
|                                                               | Employment                        | 46            | 27,1           |
|                                                               | <b>Total</b>                      | <b>170</b>    | <b>100,0</b>   |

\* Multiple-choice questions

94.4% of the women entrepreneurs (51 people) are members of SAMİKAD. If we interpret the findings, it is seen that 81.5% of women entrepreneurs recommend SAMİKAD to their friends. It shows that women entrepreneurs value SAMİKAD. Of the women entrepreneurs who participated in the study, 92.6% stated that they think positively about SAMİKAD, while 7.4% stated that they think neither positively nor negatively. The rate of those not members of civil society organizations other than SAMİKAD is 81.5%, while the rate of those not members is 18.5%. When the resources used by women entrepreneurs to obtain information about SAMİKAD activities were analyzed, it was found that 17.2% of the 180 different responses given by women entrepreneurs used Facebook, 22.2% used Twitter, 27.2% used e-mail, 20% (36 responses) used Whatsapp and 8.3% used their friends. In other words, information is mainly received via Instagram. When the issues that SAMİKAD wants to support women entrepreneurs are analyzed, it is seen that 6.3% (6 answers) of the 96 different answers of women entrepreneurs are finding a job, 24% (23 answers) seeking rights, 43.8% (42 answers) vocational training and 26% (25 answers) improvement of business conditions. According to the findings on the roles of SAMİKAD in social entrepreneurship, 19.4% of women entrepreneurs are service providers, 3.5% emergency aid, 20.6% human rights, 4.1% health, 25.3% education, and 27.1% (46 responses) employment.

The gathered information points towards SAMİKAD members being highly aware of the significance of volunteerism and holding optimistic opinions about the association. Their active participation and support to further SAMİKAD's objectives reflect this inclination. The fact that a considerable number of members recommend the association highlights its credibility and ability to impart benefits.

### **6.6.3. Descriptive Statistical Findings on Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES) and Environmental Factors Affecting Entrepreneurship, Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, NGO Management Practices and Sub-Dimensions.**

The results of the descriptive statistics related to the Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES) and its subdimensions are shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3. Descriptive Statistics Findings Regarding Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES) and its Sub-Dimensions

| Scale and sub-dimensions            | N  | Min. | Max. | Ort. | S.S. |
|-------------------------------------|----|------|------|------|------|
| Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES) | 54 | 3,19 | 4,52 | 3,98 | 0,29 |
| Risk-taking                         | 54 | 2,86 | 5,00 | 4,13 | 0,48 |
| Self-confidence                     | 54 | 3,13 | 4,75 | 3,97 | 0,35 |
| Personal creativity                 | 54 | 2,83 | 4,83 | 3,82 | 0,46 |

Mean: Mean, S.S.: Standard Deviation, Min: Minimum, Max: Maximum

The mean values for risk-taking, self-confidence, and personal creativity among female social entrepreneurs are 3.98, 4.13, 3.97, 3.97, and 3.82, respectively. The mean score of female participants falling within this category ranges from 2.5 to 3.5, indicating varying degrees of social entrepreneurship, risk propensity, self-assurance, and individual ingenuity, classified as low, moderate, and high levels. According to the findings obtained, it was seen that the social entrepreneurship, risk taking, self-confidence and personal creativity scores of women entrepreneurs were at a high level. Risk taking is considered as a starting point for generating resources, producing, creating employment, accumulating capital, etc. (Aytaç and İlhan, 2007). Self-efficacy or self-confidence is considered as a key point in entrepreneurial abilities and greatly affects the stages of starting a business in women entrepreneurship (Fielden et al, 2003; Ersarı, 2015). One of the factors that have an impact on the success of entrepreneurs is that they have a creative and innovative personality (Tahtalı, 2019).

Descriptive statistical results on environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship are presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4. Descriptive Statistical Findings on Environmental Factors Affecting Entrepreneurship of Women Entrepreneurs

| Scale and sub-dimensions                         | N  | Min. | Max. | Mid. | S.S. |
|--------------------------------------------------|----|------|------|------|------|
| Environmental Factors Affecting Entrepreneurship | 54 | 3,00 | 4,00 | 3,65 | 0,20 |
| Socio-cultural environment                       | 54 | 3,00 | 5,00 | 4,15 | 0,38 |
| Economic environment                             | 54 | 3,00 | 4,17 | 3,66 | 0,29 |
| The legal and political environment              | 54 | 2,40 | 4,00 | 3,22 | 0,38 |

Mean: Mean, S.S.: Standard Deviation, Min: Minimum, Max: Maximum

The mean scores of women entrepreneurs on environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship are 3.65, the socio-cultural environment is 4.15, economic environment is 3.66, legal and political environment is 3.22. The mean scores of the women entrepreneurs are low between 0-2,5, medium between 2,5-3,5 and high between 3,5-5, which means environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship, socio-cultural environment, economic environment, legal and political environment.

According to the findings obtained, especially the average score of socio-cultural environment shows that women entrepreneurs find this factor more influential at a higher level. In other words, it shows that factors such as cultural norms of the society, gender inequality (Kocacık and Gökkaya, 2005: 212; Çelik and Özdevecioğlu, 2001: 494) affect women entrepreneurship.

The average score of economic environment shows that women entrepreneurs think that economic factors have a moderate impact on entrepreneurship. This shows that economic factors such as access to financial resources, lack of capital, market opportunities affect women entrepreneurship (Arslan and Toksoy, 2017). The average score of legal and political environment shows that women entrepreneurs find these factors moderately influential. This indicates that factors such as legal regulations, political support, public policies (Gül and Altındal, 2016) affect women entrepreneurship.

Descriptive statistical findings on the Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs are presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5. Descriptive Statistical Findings on Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs

| <b>Scale and sub-dimensions</b>         | <b>N</b> | <b>Min.</b> | <b>Max.</b> | <b>Mid.</b> | <b>S.S.</b> |
|-----------------------------------------|----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | 54       | 1,67        | 3,00        | 2,28        | 0,27        |
| Strategic challenges in market entry    | 54       | 1,00        | 3,25        | 1,86        | 0,50        |
| Micro challenges                        | 54       | 2,00        | 4,00        | 3,07        | 0,41        |
| Macro challenges                        | 54       | 1,00        | 2,50        | 1,91        | 0,36        |

*Mean: Mean, S.S.: Standard Deviation, Min: Minimum, Max: Maximum*

A woman entrepreneur's challenges are on average 2.28, the strategic challenges in entering the market are on average 1.86, the micro challenges are on average 3.07 and macro challenges on average 1.91. Mean scores between 0-2.5 indicate low level, between 2.5-3.5 indicate medium level and between 3.5-5 indicate high level. These data show that the

challenges faced by women entrepreneurs are generally at a medium level. According to the findings, market entry strategy challenges, macro challenges scores are at low level and micro challenges scores are at medium level. Micro challenges were expressed with a higher mean score than others, indicating that women entrepreneurs face daily operational challenges in managing their businesses. These findings show similar trends when compared to İltir (2008) study. Both studies reveal an awareness of the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs. In particular, micro challenges and market entry strategies appear to have similar challenges.

The common challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in social entrepreneurship are shown in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6. Common Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs in Social Entrepreneurship

| <b>Common challenges</b>                          | <b>Frequency (N)</b> | <b>Percentage (%)</b> |
|---------------------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Difficulties in accessing finance                 | 52                   | 27,7                  |
| Lack of visibility and recognition                | 25                   | 13,3                  |
| Lack of time                                      | 9                    | 4,8                   |
| Lack of legal framework                           | 32                   | 17,0                  |
| Challenges for recruiting and retaining employees | 26                   | 13,8                  |
| Lack of personal support                          | 26                   | 13,8                  |
| Lack of leadership and self-confidence            | 6                    | 3,2                   |
| Lack of work skills                               | 12                   | 6,4                   |
| <b>Total</b>                                      | <b>188</b>           | <b>100,0</b>          |

\* Multiple-choice questions

According to the findings on the general challenges faced by women social entrepreneurs in social entrepreneurship, 27.7% of women entrepreneurs experience difficulties in accessing finance, 13.3% complain about lack of visibility and recognition, 17% about lack of legal framework, 13.8% about difficulties in recruiting and retaining employees and 13.8% about lack of personal support. The remaining 4.8% stated they faced challenges related to lack of time, 3.2% to lack leadership and self-confidence, and 6.4% lacked job skills.

According to the data, the most common challenge was accessing finance. A similar result is also found in Özyılmaz's (2016) research; it is seen that financial difficulties are at a higher rate regarding the problems women entrepreneurs face during their business activities. According to our research data, the second most common challenge is that women entrepreneurs face deficiencies in legal regulations in establishing, managing, and growing their businesses. Of the other challenges, difficulties in recruiting and retaining employees, lack of personal support, and lack of visibility and recognition were rated third-order challenges. Soysal (2010)

notes that the difficulty in hiring and retaining employees is due to the shortage of skilled industrial workers, craftsmen, and journeymen. She believes that women's adherence to their behavior and methods does not meet predetermined expectations, leading to a lack of support and recognition. Furthermore, when the legal status of social enterprises is examined, legislation often does not provide sufficient support to women entrepreneurs (Tunar, 2020).

Descriptive statistical findings on NGO Management Practices of women entrepreneurs are shown in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7. Descriptive Statistical Findings on NGO Management Practices of Women Entrepreneurs

| Scale and sub-dimensions       | <i>N</i> | <i>Min.</i> | <i>Max.</i> | <i>Mid.</i> | <i>S.S.</i> |
|--------------------------------|----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| NGO Management Practices       | 54       | 2,64        | 4,55        | 3,71        | 0,39        |
| Management structure           | 54       | 2,40        | 5,00        | 4,15        | 0,44        |
| Communication and coordination | 54       | 2,33        | 5,00        | 3,65        | 0,50        |
| Audit                          | 54       | 1,67        | 5,00        | 3,02        | 0,60        |

*Mean: Mean, S.S.: Standard Deviation, Min: Minimum, Max: Maximum*

The mean scores of women entrepreneurs were 3.71 for NGO Management Practices, 4.15 for Management Structure, 3.65 for Communication and Coordination and 3.02 for Audit. The mean scores of women entrepreneurs are 0-2.5 for low, 2.5-3.5 for medium and 3.5-5 for high level NGO Management Practices, Management Structure, Communication and Coordination and Audit. According to the findings, it is observed that women entrepreneurs perform high level practices in the management structure and communication and coordination sub-dimensions, and medium level practices in the audit sub-dimension.

#### 6.6.4. Descriptive Statistical Findings on Challenges Faced by NGOs

Table 6.8. presents the main issues that NGOs face. The results show that a high percentage of women entrepreneurs who participated in the survey often face challenges related to access to funding (24%), lack of financial resources (23%), limited capacity (technical and organizational) (17.5%), and political interference (11.5%). At the medium and lower levels, challenges relate to relationships with international NGOs (7.8%), lack of strategic planning (4.1%), difficulties in building appropriate networks (5.5%), poor communication within the sector (1.4%), and development approaches (0.5%). The survey results showed that the most

Table 6.8. Common Challenges of NGOs

| <b>Common Challenges</b>                                    | <b>Frequency (N)</b> | <b>Percentage (%)</b> |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Lack of strategic planning                                  | 9                    | 4,1                   |
| Lack of appropriate networking                              | 12                   | 5,5                   |
| Very poor communication within the sector                   | 3                    | 1,4                   |
| Limited capacity (technical and organizational)             | 38                   | 17,5                  |
| Development approaches                                      | 1                    | 0,5                   |
| Relations with international non-governmental organizations | 17                   | 7,8                   |
| Political intervention                                      | 25                   | 11,5                  |
| Difficulties to get money                                   | 52                   | 24,0                  |
| Lack of governance                                          | 4                    | 1,8                   |
| Lack of democracy                                           | 2                    | 0,9                   |
| Lack of participation and information                       | 4                    | 1,8                   |
| Lack of financial resources                                 | 50                   | 23,0                  |
| <b>Total</b>                                                | <b>217</b>           | <b>100,0</b>          |

\* Multiple-choice questions

challenging issues faced by NGOs were difficulties in obtaining money, lack of financial resources, limited capacity, and political interference. It is because these four questions are the most frequently mentioned problems and account for more than half of the 217 responses. In addition, the lack of governance, democracy, relevant networking, participation, and knowledge also contribute to the challenges faced by the NGOs.

Table 6.9. presents the external challenges faced by NGOs.

Table 6.9. External Challenges NGOs Face

| <b>External Challenges</b>                                       | <b>Frequency (N)</b> | <b>Percentage (%)</b> |
|------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Political challenges                                             | 44                   | 31,9                  |
| Rules and regulations within a country for access to state funds | 42                   | 30,4                  |
| Donor bias                                                       | 9                    | 6,5                   |
| Natural and man-made events such as floods, earthquakes, war     | 7                    | 5,1                   |
| Competition between NGOs in the same sector                      | 19                   | 13,8                  |
| Related network type                                             | 17                   | 12,3                  |
| <b>Total</b>                                                     | <b>138</b>           | <b>100,0</b>          |

\* Multiple-choice questions

According to the findings in the table, 31.9% of women entrepreneurs cite political challenges, 30.4% cite problems with access to government funding, 6.5% cite donor bias, 5.1% cite natural and man-made events such as floods, earthquakes, war, 13.8% cite competition among NGOs

in the same sector, and 12.8% cite problems with the type of network involved as external challenges. It is clear from these findings that civil society organizations (NGOs) face many external challenges. Political challenges have the highest frequency at 31.9 percent. This shows the influence of political power on NGOs (Eye, 2022). Barriers due to rules and regulations for accessing government funding are perceived as important external challenges. This also reflects the difficulties NGOs face in accessing financial resources.

The internal challenges faced by NGOs are shown in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10. Internal Challenges NGOs Face

| <b>Internal Challenges</b>                        | <b>Frequency (N)</b> | <b>Percentage (%)</b> |
|---------------------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| Capacity limitation within organizations          | 48                   | 42,1                  |
| Accountability and transparency                   | 2                    | 1,8                   |
| Founder's syndrome                                | 2                    | 1,8                   |
| Inadequate strategic and operational plans        | 8                    | 7,0                   |
| Inadequate network skills                         | 14                   | 12,3                  |
| Insufficient awareness of available opportunities | 12                   | 10,5                  |
| Inadequate management skills                      | 3                    | 2,6                   |
| Minimal communication and branding                | 7                    | 6,1                   |
| Difficulties in managing human resources          | 18                   | 15,8                  |
| <b>Total</b>                                      | <b>114</b>           | <b>100,0</b>          |

\* Multiple-choice questions

According to the findings, NGO internal challenges are listed as follows: 42.1% capacity limitations within organizations, 15.8% difficulties in managing human resources, 12.3% inadequate networking skills, 10.5% inadequate awareness of available opportunities, 7% preliminary strategic and operational plans, 6.1% minimal communication and branding, 2.62% inadequate management skills, 1.8% accountability and transparency, and 1.8% problems with founder syndrome. According to this data, the capacity limitation was considered the highest internal challenge within organizations. Organizations can be limited in resources, staff, and capabilities, making it difficult for NGOs to achieve their goals. Batti (2014) maintains that NGOs are confronted with many restrictions in terms of human resources, thereby hindering their capacity to obtain adequate funding and resources.

Inadequate network skills were recognized as the second most common challenge. Many NGOs struggle with insufficient network skills, making it difficult to establish strategic partnerships, access resources, and build support networks. Challenges in managing human resources were identified as the third most common challenge for NGOs. It indicates problems in training, motivation, and volunteer coordination. Twelve respondents indicated that the

NGOs need more awareness of available opportunities. Opportunities for intervention may exist within nations that non-governmental organizations (NGOs) occasionally need to pay more attention to due to insufficient knowledge of their existence. Beverly et al. (2012:129) have reported that civil society organizations needed more knowledge about the availability and the requisite procedures for accessing the funds (Batti, 2014).

#### **6.6.5. Comparison of Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices, and Results of Subscales of Women Entrepreneurs by Sociodemographic Characteristics**

Table 6.11. Comparison of Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices and Subscale Scores of Women Entrepreneurs by Age

| <b>Scale and sub-dimensions</b> | <b>Age</b>   | <b>N</b> | <b>Mid.</b> | <b>S.S</b> | <b>t or z</b> | <b>p</b> |
|---------------------------------|--------------|----------|-------------|------------|---------------|----------|
| Social Entrepreneurship Scale   | 40 and below | 19       | 3,95        | 0,27       | -0,546        | 0,587    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 4,00        | 0,31       |               |          |
| Risk-taking                     | 40 and below | 19       | 4,12        | 0,51       | -0,165        | 0,87     |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 4,14        | 0,46       |               |          |
| Self-confidence                 | 40 and below | 19       | 3,89        | 0,35       | -1,184        | 0,242    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 4,01        | 0,35       |               |          |
| Personal creativity             | 40 and below | 19       | 3,83        | 0,46       | 0,181         | 0,857    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 3,81        | 0,46       |               |          |
| Environmental factors           | 40 and below | 19       | 3,64        | 0,17       | -0,22         | 0,826    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 3,65        | 0,22       |               |          |
| Socio-cultural factors          | 40 and below | 19       | 4,08        | 0,31       | -1,043        | 0,302    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 4,19        | 0,42       |               |          |
| Economic environment            | 40 and below | 19       | 3,68        | 0,28       | 0,384         | 0,703    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 3,65        | 0,30       |               |          |
| Legal and political environment | 40 and below | 19       | 3,23        | 0,43       | 0,133         | 0,895    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 3,22        | 0,35       |               |          |
| NGO management practices        | 40 and below | 19       | 3,72        | 0,35       | 0,215         | 0,831    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 3,70        | 0,41       |               |          |
| Management structure            | 40 and below | 19       | 4,11        | 0,45       | -1,333        | 0,182    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 4,18        | 0,44       |               |          |
| Communication and coordination  | 40 and below | 19       | 3,70        | 0,37       | 0,513         | 0,61     |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 3,63        | 0,56       |               |          |
| Inspection                      | 40 and below | 19       | 3,11        | 0,61       | 0,782         | 0,438    |
|                                 | 40 and above | 35       | 2,97        | 0,60       |               |          |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ , t: Independent Sample T Testi, z: Mann Whitney U Testi

According to the table, there was no significant difference between the Social Entrepreneurship Scale general, risk taking, self-confidence, personal creativity scores of women entrepreneurs according to their age ( $p > 0,05$ ).

There is no significant difference between the scores of environmental factors in the general, socio-cultural environment, economic environment, legal and political environment according to the age of women entrepreneurs ( $p > 0,05$ ). There is no significant difference between the scores of NGO management practices, management structure, communication and coordination, and supervision according to the age of women entrepreneurs ( $p > 0,05$ ). According to these results, there is no relationship between the age of women entrepreneurs and the Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SEES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices, and sub-dimension scores. Data indicates that age doesn't hold a defining position.

The comparison of Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, ngo Management Practices and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to their educational background is shown in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12. Comparison of Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices and Sub-Dimension Scores of Women Entrepreneurs According to Educational Background

| Scale and sub-dimensions | Age           | N  | Mid. | S.S  | F or $\chi^2$ | p     | Difference |
|--------------------------|---------------|----|------|------|---------------|-------|------------|
| Social entrepreneurship  | High School   | 5  | 3,93 | 0,42 | 0,616         | 0,544 | -          |
|                          | Undergraduate | 35 | 3,96 | 0,31 |               |       |            |
|                          | Postgraduate  | 14 | 4,05 | 0,21 |               |       |            |
| Risk-taking              | High School   | 5  | 4,26 | 0,58 | 0,394         | 0,676 | -          |
|                          | Undergraduate | 35 | 4,09 | 0,47 |               |       |            |
|                          | Postgraduate  | 14 | 4,19 | 0,48 |               |       |            |
| Self-confidence          | High School   | 5  | 3,75 | 0,52 | 1,490         | 0,235 | -          |
|                          | Undergraduate | 35 | 3,96 | 0,33 |               |       |            |
|                          | Postgraduate  | 14 | 4,06 | 0,35 |               |       |            |
| Personal creativity      | High School   | 5  | 3,80 | 0,34 | 0,174         | 0,841 | -          |
|                          | Undergraduate | 35 | 3,80 | 0,49 |               |       |            |
|                          | Postgraduate  | 14 | 3,88 | 0,44 |               |       |            |
| Environmental factors    | High School   | 5  | 3,55 | 0,19 | 3,063         | 0,055 | -          |
|                          | Undergraduate | 35 | 3,62 | 0,21 |               |       |            |
|                          | Postgraduate  | 14 | 3,75 | 0,15 |               |       |            |
| Socio-cultural           | High School   | 5  | 4,20 | 0,37 | 0,876         | 0,422 | -          |
|                          | Undergraduate | 35 | 4,19 | 0,40 |               |       |            |
|                          | Postgraduate  | 14 | 4,04 | 0,34 |               |       |            |
| Economic environment     | High School   | 5  | 3,63 | 0,36 | 1,745         | 0,185 | -          |
|                          | Undergraduate | 35 | 3,62 | 0,27 |               |       |            |
|                          | Postgraduate  | 14 | 3,79 | 0,30 |               |       |            |

Table 6.12. (continues)

|                                 |                            |    |      |      |       |                |                 |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|----|------|------|-------|----------------|-----------------|
| Legal and political environment | High School <sup>A</sup>   | 5  | 2,92 | 0,36 | 6,638 | <b>0,003**</b> | <b>C&gt;A,B</b> |
|                                 | Undergraduate <sup>B</sup> | 35 | 3,16 | 0,32 |       |                |                 |
|                                 | Postgraduate <sup>C</sup>  | 14 | 3,49 | 0,39 |       |                |                 |
| NGO management practices        | High School                | 5  | 3,78 | 0,55 | 0,545 | 0,583          | -               |
|                                 | Undergraduate              | 35 | 3,73 | 0,34 |       |                |                 |
|                                 | Postgraduate               | 14 | 3,62 | 0,44 |       |                |                 |
| Management structure $\chi^2$   | High School                | 5  | 4,12 | 0,64 | 1,227 | 0,302          | -               |
|                                 | Undergraduate              | 35 | 4,22 | 0,38 |       |                |                 |
|                                 | Postgraduate               | 14 | 4,00 | 0,51 |       |                |                 |
| Communication and coordination  | High School                | 5  | 3,60 | 0,49 | 0,033 | 0,967          | -               |
|                                 | Undergraduate              | 35 | 3,66 | 0,51 |       |                |                 |
|                                 | Postgraduate               | 14 | 3,67 | 0,51 |       |                |                 |
| Inspection                      | High School                | 5  | 3,40 | 0,89 | 1,200 | 0,310          | -               |
|                                 | Undergraduate              | 35 | 3,00 | 0,55 |       |                |                 |
|                                 | Postgraduate               | 14 | 2,93 | 0,60 |       |                |                 |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ ,  $F$ : One Way ANAVO,  $\chi^2$ : Kruskal Wallis H Testi, Fark: LSD Testi

The comparison of the Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to their educational status is shown in Table 6.12. There was no significant difference between women entrepreneurs' social entrepreneurship general, risk-taking, self-confidence, and personal creativity scores according to their educational status ( $p > 0.05$ ). A similar result is also found in Kızılaslan and Karaömer's (2015) research. According to the researchers' data, education and age level were found statistically insignificant in determining the entrepreneurial roles of women (Kızılaslan and Karaömer, 2015). It seems that the educational background of women entrepreneurs had no notable influence on the environmental factors' scores related to general, sociocultural, environmental and economic conditions ( $p > 0.05$ ). There was a significant difference between women entrepreneurs' legal and political environment scores according to their educational status ( $p < 0.05$ ).

It was seen that the legal and political environment scores of women entrepreneurs with postgraduate degrees were higher than the legal and political environment scores of women entrepreneurs with undergraduate and high school graduates. There was no significant difference between the scores of NGO management practices in general, management structure, communication and coordination, and supervision according to the educational status of women entrepreneurs ( $p > 0.05$ ). According to these data, there is a relationship between the educational level of women entrepreneurs and only the legal and environmental factors scores from the sub-dimensions of Environmental Factors. This study also revealed that women entrepreneurs with

higher educational levels have higher scores on environmental factors and NGO management practices than those with lower educational levels. In conclusion, there is a complex relationship between the educational level of women entrepreneurs and the social entrepreneurship scale and its sub-dimensions. In general, there is no relationship between educational attainment and social entrepreneurship abilities, while the effect of educational attainment can be observed in some sub-dimensions. For example, in the legal and political environment sub-dimension, women entrepreneurs with postgraduate education are more successful.

The comparison of the Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to their marital status is shown in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13. Comparison of Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices and Subdimension Scores of Women Entrepreneurs according to their marital status

| Scale and sub-scales              | Marital status | N  | Ort. | S.S  | t or z | p     |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|----|------|------|--------|-------|
| Social entrepreneurship           | Married        | 39 | 3,98 | 0,27 | 0,127  | 0,899 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 3,97 | 0,37 |        |       |
| Risk-taking                       | Married        | 39 | 4,16 | 0,46 | 0,651  | 0,518 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 4,07 | 0,51 |        |       |
| Self-confidence                   | Married        | 39 | 3,98 | 0,33 | 0,622  | 0,536 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 3,92 | 0,43 |        |       |
| Personal creativity               | Married        | 39 | 3,77 | 0,43 | -1,152 | 0,255 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 3,93 | 0,53 |        |       |
| Environmental factors             | Married        | 39 | 3,66 | 0,21 | 0,652  | 0,517 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 3,62 | 0,19 |        |       |
| Social-cultural environment       | Married        | 39 | 4,17 | 0,39 | 0,426  | 0,672 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 4,12 | 0,36 |        |       |
| Economic environment              | Married        | 39 | 3,66 | 0,28 | -0,048 | 0,962 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 3,67 | 0,31 |        |       |
| Legal and politica                | Married        | 39 | 3,25 | 0,33 | 0,747  | 0,458 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 3,16 | 0,49 |        |       |
| NGO management practices          | Married        | 39 | 3,69 | 0,35 | -0,379 | 0,706 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 3,74 | 0,49 |        |       |
| Management structure <sup>z</sup> | Married        | 39 | 4,20 | 0,42 | -1,022 | 0,322 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 4,03 | 0,48 |        |       |
| Communication and coordination    | Married        | 39 | 3,61 | 0,48 | -1,135 | 0,262 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 3,78 | 0,53 |        |       |
| Inspection                        | Married        | 39 | 2,94 | 0,49 | -1,573 | 0,122 |
|                                   | Single         | 15 | 3,22 | 0,80 |        |       |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ , t: Independent Sample T Testi, z: Mann Whitney U Testi

There was no significant difference between social entrepreneurship general, risk-taking, self-confidence, and personal creativity scores of women entrepreneurs according to their marital status ( $p>0.05$ ). There is no significant difference between the scores of environmental factors in the general, socio-cultural environment, economic environment, legal and political environment according to the marital status of women entrepreneurs ( $p>0.05$ ). There is no significant difference between NGO management practices in general, management structure, communication and coordination, and supervision scores according to the marital status of women entrepreneurs ( $p>0.05$ ). According to these results, there is no relationship between the marital status of women entrepreneurs and the Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices, and sub-dimension scores. These findings indicate that women entrepreneurs are independent of their marital status regarding social entrepreneurship characteristics and environmental factors.

There are also different research results in the literature. The results of a study carried out by İplik in the year 2012 revealed that working women are prone to encountering obstacles that can cause harm to their domestic life. Such issues may entail diminished attention towards husbands and fewer opportunities to engage with children (İplik, 2012). According to Kızılaslan and Karaömer research, married people show more entrepreneurial tendency than single people (Kızılaslan and Karaömer, 2015).

We can make some explanations about the reasons and explanations of our findings. Social entrepreneurship tendency of women entrepreneurs is more related to personal characteristics and motivations (Özkaya, 2009; Palaz and Turgut, 2009): The limited effect of marital status on social entrepreneurship characteristics may suggest that social entrepreneurial tendencies are more related to personal factors (Işık and Aydın, 2017), skills and motivation. Being married or single is not a significant factor in social entrepreneurship because personal characteristics such as an individual's intrinsic motivation, skills, and experiences are more determinant.

The comparison of the Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, CSO Management Practices, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to their number of children is shown in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14. Comparison of Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices and Subdimension Scores of Women Entrepreneurs according to the Number of Children

| Scale and sub-scales           | Number of children | N  | Ort. | S.S  | F veya $\chi^2$     | p     |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|----|------|------|---------------------|-------|
| Social Entrepreneurship        | No children        | 17 | 4,00 | 0,33 | 0,276               | 0,760 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,98 | 0,29 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,90 | 0,25 |                     |       |
| Risk-taking                    | No children        | 17 | 4,10 | 0,49 | 0,286               | 0,752 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 4,18 | 0,42 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 4,04 | 0,69 |                     |       |
| Self-confidence                | No children        | 17 | 3,96 | 0,39 | 0,064               | 0,938 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,98 | 0,36 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,93 | 0,26 |                     |       |
| Personal creativity            | No children        | 17 | 3,95 | 0,46 | 1,087               | 0,345 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,77 | 0,45 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,71 | 0,51 |                     |       |
| Environmental factors          | No children        | 17 | 3,62 | 0,18 | 0,224               | 0,800 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,66 | 0,22 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,67 | 0,19 |                     |       |
| Social-cultural factors        | No children        | 17 | 4,10 | 0,33 | 0,362               | 0,698 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 4,16 | 0,44 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 4,25 | 0,25 |                     |       |
| Economic factors               | No children        | 17 | 3,68 | 0,31 | 0,401               | 0,672 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,68 | 0,28 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,57 | 0,27 |                     |       |
| Legal and political factors    | No children        | 17 | 3,16 | 0,46 | 0,408               | 0,667 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,23 | 0,29 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,31 | 0,51 |                     |       |
| NGO Management Practices       | No children        | 17 | 3,76 | 0,46 | 1,617               | 0,209 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,73 | 0,33 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,47 | 0,39 |                     |       |
| Management structure           | No children        | 17 | 4,06 | 0,46 | 4,766 <sup>x2</sup> | 0,092 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 4,27 | 0,33 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,86 | 0,65 |                     |       |
| Communication and coordination | No children        | 17 | 3,78 | 0,50 | 0,936               | 0,399 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,58 | 0,51 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,67 | 0,43 |                     |       |
| Audit                          | No children        | 17 | 3,24 | 0,77 | 2,907               | 0,064 |
|                                | 1-2 children       | 30 | 2,99 | 0,49 |                     |       |
|                                | 3-4 children       | 7  | 2,62 | 0,30 |                     |       |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ , F: One Way ANAVO,  $\chi^2$ : Kruskal Wallis H Testi

According to the results, there was no significant difference between the social entrepreneurship general, risk taking, self-confidence, personal creativity scores of women entrepreneurs according to the number of children ( $p > 0.05$ ). There is no significant difference

between the scores of environmental factors in general, socio-cultural environment, economic environment, legal and political environment according to the number of children of women entrepreneurs ( $p>0,05$ ). There is no significant difference between the scores of NGO management practices general, management structure, communication and coordination, supervision according to the number of children of women entrepreneurs ( $p>0,05$ ).

As a result of these findings, there is no relationship between the number of children of female entrepreneurs and the Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices, and sub-dimension scores. The reason for this may be that having children may not affect an individual's intrinsic motivation and personal factors.

The comparison of the Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to the year of establishment of their enterprises is shown in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15. Practices and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to the year of

| Scale and sub-scales            | According to the establishment year of the enterprises | N  | Mid. | S.S  | t                   | p             |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|----|------|------|---------------------|---------------|
| Social entrepreneurship         | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 4,02 | 0,34 | 0,598               | 0,552         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 3,97 | 0,28 |                     |               |
| Risk-taking                     | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 4,13 | 0,64 | -0,021              | 0,984         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 4,14 | 0,41 |                     |               |
| Self-confidence                 | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 3,88 | 0,44 | -0,999              | 0,322         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 3,99 | 0,32 |                     |               |
| Personal creativity             | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 4,07 | 0,33 | 2,525               | <b>0,015*</b> |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 3,73 | 0,47 |                     |               |
| Environmental factors           | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 3,66 | 0,19 | 0,319               | 0,751         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 3,64 | 0,21 |                     |               |
| Socio-cultural environment      | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 4,21 | 0,35 | 0,694               | 0,491         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 4,13 | 0,40 |                     |               |
| Economic environment            | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 3,68 | 0,30 | 0,224               | 0,824         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 3,66 | 0,29 |                     |               |
| Legal and political environment | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 3,20 | 0,30 | -0,253              | 0,801         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 3,23 | 0,40 |                     |               |
| NGO Management Practices        | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 3,61 | 0,52 | -1,093              | 0,279         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 3,74 | 0,33 |                     |               |
| Management structure            | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 3,97 | 0,70 | -0,791 <sup>z</sup> | 0,429         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 4,22 | 0,30 |                     |               |
| Communication and coordination  | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 3,57 | 0,53 | -0,721              | 0,474         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 3,68 | 0,49 |                     |               |
| Inspection                      | 2015 and before                                        | 14 | 3,05 | 0,71 | 0,209               | 0,835         |
|                                 | After 2015                                             | 40 | 3,01 | 0,56 |                     |               |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ , t: Independent Sample T Testi, z: Mann Whitney U Testi

The social entrepreneurship general score, the risk-taking score, and self-confidence score of women entrepreneurs did not differ significantly by the establishment year of their enterprises ( $p > 0,05$ ). A significant difference was observed in women entrepreneurs' personal creativity scores according to their business establishment year ( $p < 0,05$ ). Women business owners who started their companies before 2015 had greater average levels of icreativeness than women business owners who started their companies after 2015. When comparing women business owners by the year their companies were founded, there was no statistically significant difference in their ratings on the environmental variables of general environment, sociocultural environment, economic environment, legal and political environment ( $p > 0,05$ ). There is no statistically significant correlation between the year a business was founded by a woman entrepreneur and the number of beneficial NGO management practices they implemented in that year ( $p > 0,05$ ). These findings suggest that personal creativity scores are the sole variable that correlates with the year in which women-owned businesses were founded. These findings suggest that, as a consequence of their maturity, established businesses are more receptive to new ideas and approaches.

The comparison of the Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factors, NGO Management Practices, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to the number of people working in their enterprises is shown in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16. Comparison of Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES), Environmental Factor, NGO Management Practices, and Subdimension Scores of Women Entrepreneurs according to the number of employees in their enterprises

| Scale and sub-dimensions            | Number of employees  | N  | Ort. | S.S  | F or $\chi^2$ | p             | Difference    |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----|------|------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Social Entrepreneurship Scale (SES) | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,95 | 0,33 | 0,925         | 0,403         | -             |
|                                     | 50-100 people        | 11 | 4,09 | 0,25 |               |               |               |
|                                     | 100 people and Above | 12 | 3,96 | 0,21 |               |               |               |
| Risk-taking                         | 0-50 personA         | 31 | 4,01 | 0,48 | 3,783         | <b>0,029*</b> | <b>B&gt;A</b> |
|                                     | 50-100 people        | 11 | 4,44 | 0,29 |               |               |               |
|                                     | 100 persons or Above | 12 | 4,18 | 0,48 |               |               |               |
| Self-confidence                     | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,94 | 0,34 | 0,157         | 0,855         | -             |
|                                     | 50-100 people        | 11 | 3,98 | 0,40 |               |               |               |
|                                     | 100 people and Above | 12 | 4,01 | 0,37 |               |               |               |
| Personal creativity                 | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,88 | 0,48 | 1,083         | 0,346         | -             |
|                                     | 50-100 people        | 11 | 3,82 | 0,34 |               |               |               |
|                                     | 100 people and Above | 12 | 3,65 | 0,48 |               |               |               |

Table 6.16. (continues)

|                                 |                      |    |      |      |                |       |   |
|---------------------------------|----------------------|----|------|------|----------------|-------|---|
| Environmental Factors           | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,63 | 0,22 | 0,779          | 0,464 | - |
|                                 | 50-100 people        | 11 | 3,64 | 0,17 |                |       |   |
|                                 | 100 people and Above | 12 | 3,71 | 0,17 |                |       |   |
| Socio-cultural environment      | 0-50 person          | 31 | 4,21 | 0,37 | 1,225          | 0,302 | - |
|                                 | 50-100 people        | 11 | 4,00 | 0,45 |                |       |   |
|                                 | 100 people and Above | 12 | 4,15 | 0,34 |                |       |   |
| Economic environment            | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,62 | 0,29 | 1,023          | 0,367 | - |
|                                 | 50-100 people        | 11 | 3,67 | 0,31 |                |       |   |
|                                 | 100 people and Above | 12 | 3,76 | 0,27 |                |       |   |
| Legal and political environment | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,16 | 0,42 | 0,945          | 0,395 | - |
|                                 | 50-100 people        | 11 | 3,31 | 0,21 |                |       |   |
|                                 | 100 people and Above | 12 | 3,30 | 0,39 |                |       |   |
| NGO Management Practices        | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,69 | 0,43 | 0,634          | 0,535 | - |
|                                 | 50-100 people        | 11 | 3,82 | 0,30 |                |       |   |
|                                 | 100 people and Above | 12 | 3,64 | 0,32 |                |       |   |
| Management structure            | 0-50 person          | 31 | 4,12 | 0,47 | 0,872 $\chi^2$ | 0,424 | - |
|                                 | 50-100 people        | 11 | 4,31 | 0,36 |                |       |   |
|                                 | 100 people and Above | 12 | 4,10 | 0,45 |                |       |   |
| Communication and coordination  | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,67 | 0,56 | 0,056          | 0,945 | - |
|                                 | 50-100 people        | 11 | 3,67 | 0,47 |                |       |   |
|                                 | 100 people and Above | 12 | 3,61 | 0,34 |                |       |   |
| Inspection                      | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,01 | 0,71 | 0,439          | 0,647 | - |
|                                 | 50-100 people        | 11 | 3,15 | 0,48 |                |       |   |
|                                 | 100 people and Above | 12 | 2,92 | 0,35 |                |       |   |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ , F: One Way ANAVO,  $\chi^2$ : Kruskal Wallis H Testi, Fark: LSD Testi

A significant difference was not observed between the general social entrepreneurship, self-confidence, and personal creativity scores of women entrepreneurs based on the number of employees in their enterprises ( $p > 0.05$ ). Women entrepreneurs' risk-taking scores differed significantly based on the number of employees in their enterprises ( $p < 0,05$ ). Women business owners with 50-100 workers had higher risk-taking ratings than those with 0-50 employees. This demonstrates that larger organizations can afford to take greater risks than smaller ones. There was no significant difference between the environmental factors general, socio-cultural environment, economic environment, legal environment and political environment of the women entrepreneurs depending on the number of employees in their companies ( $p > 0.05$ ).

There is no significant difference between ratings NGO management practices in general, management structure, communication and coordination, and monitoring as a function of the number of people working in women entrepreneurs' businesses ( $p > 0.05$ ). Based on the results, it was found that there was a significant relationship between the number of employees in the women entrepreneurs' businesses and only the risk-taking scores in the sub-dimensions of the social entrepreneurship scale. This suggests that large companies are more inclined to take higher risks because they have more resources and capacity. The number of employees had no effect on other sub-dimensions and environmental factors. These results suggest that the number of employees is not a determinant of women entrepreneurs' social entrepreneurship and NGO management practices.

#### 6.6.6. Comparison of Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Women Entrepreneurs with the Scores of Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs and Challenges Faced by NGOs

The comparison of Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to their age is shown in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17. Comparison of Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs and Sub-Dimension Scores of Women Entrepreneurs by Age

| Scale and subdimensions                 | Age                | N  | Mid. | S.S  | t or z | p     |
|-----------------------------------------|--------------------|----|------|------|--------|-------|
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | 40 years and under | 19 | 2,33 | 0,25 | 0,923  | 0,36  |
|                                         | Over 40 years old  | 35 | 2,26 | 0,28 |        |       |
| Difficulties in market entry            | 40 years and under | 19 | 1,92 | 0,49 | 0,643  | 0,523 |
|                                         | Over 40 years old  | 35 | 1,83 | 0,51 |        |       |
| Micro challenges                        | 40 years and under | 19 | 3,17 | 0,43 | 1,285  | 0,204 |
|                                         | Over 40 years old  | 35 | 3,02 | 0,40 |        |       |
| Macro challenges                        | 40 years and under | 19 | 1,89 | 0,38 | -0,257 | 0,798 |
|                                         | Over 40 years old  | 35 | 1,92 | 0,36 |        |       |
| Challenges faced by NGOs                | 40 years and under | 19 | 8,68 | 2,33 | -0,003 | 0,998 |
|                                         | Over 40 years old  | 35 | 8,69 | 1,89 |        |       |
| Key challenges                          | 40 years and under | 19 | 4,11 | 1,29 | 0,387  | 0,701 |
|                                         | Over 40 years old  | 35 | 3,97 | 1,18 |        |       |

Table 6.17. (continues)

|                     |                    |    |      |      |                     |       |
|---------------------|--------------------|----|------|------|---------------------|-------|
| External challenges | 40 years and under | 19 | 2,42 | 0,90 | -0,978              | 0,332 |
|                     | Over 40 years old  | 35 | 2,63 | 0,65 |                     |       |
| Internal Challenges | 40 years and under | 19 | 2,16 | 0,90 | -1,639 <sup>z</sup> | 0,101 |
|                     | Over 40 years old  | 35 | 2,09 | 0,92 |                     |       |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ , *t*: Independent Sample T Testi, *z*: Mann Whitney U Testi

There is no significant difference between the ratings of general challenges, market entry challenges, micro-challenges, and macro challenges faced by women entrepreneurs depending on the age of the entrepreneurs ( $p > 0.05$ ). However, in the internal challenges sub-dimension, the mean score of women entrepreneurs up to 40 was 2.16, while it was 2.09 for women over 40. This result shows that internal challenges are slightly more prevalent among entrepreneurs aged 40 and below. These results show that the influence of age on the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs and NGOs is limited. In general, challenges are similar across age groups. Therefore, women entrepreneurs aged 40 and below scored slightly higher in the internal challenges sub-dimension. Thus, different perceptions can be identified in the literature. For example, according to some studies, many young women entrepreneurs face biases such as a perceived lack of experience and credibility, while older women entrepreneurs may face biases due to age-related stereotypes and perceptions of being less innovative (Kaygın and Güven, 2014; Bakay et al., 2020).

The comparison of the Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to their education level is shown in Table 6.18.

Table 6.18. Comparison of the Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and Sub-Dimension Scores of Women Entrepreneurs according to their educational level

| Scale and sub-dimensions                | Education level | N  | Mid. | S.S  | F or $\chi^2$ | p     | Difference |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------------|----|------|------|---------------|-------|------------|
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | High School     | 5  | 2,30 | 0,32 | 0,056         | 0,946 | -          |
|                                         | Bachelor        | 35 | 2,29 | 0,29 |               |       |            |
|                                         | Master          | 14 | 2,26 | 0,23 |               |       |            |
| Difficulties in market entry            | High School     | 5  | 1,80 | 0,48 | 0,119         | 0,888 | -          |
|                                         | Bachelor        | 35 | 1,89 | 0,51 |               |       |            |
|                                         | Master          | 14 | 1,82 | 0,52 |               |       |            |

Table 6.18. (continues)

|                          |             |    |      |      |                     |       |   |
|--------------------------|-------------|----|------|------|---------------------|-------|---|
| Micro challenges         | High School | 5  | 3,25 | 0,64 | 0,509               | 0,604 | - |
|                          | Bachelor    | 35 | 3,05 | 0,31 |                     |       |   |
|                          | Master      | 14 | 3,07 | 0,55 |                     |       |   |
| Macro challenges         | High School | 5  | 1,85 | 0,42 | 0,126               | 0,882 | - |
|                          | Bachelor    | 35 | 1,93 | 0,38 |                     |       |   |
|                          | Master      | 14 | 1,89 | 0,31 |                     |       |   |
| Challenges faced by NGOs | High School | 5  | 9,60 | 1,82 | 0,890               | 0,417 | - |
|                          | Bachelor    | 35 | 8,74 | 2,29 |                     |       |   |
|                          | Master      | 14 | 8,21 | 1,25 |                     |       |   |
| Key challenges           | High School | 5  | 4,60 | 1,34 | 0,704               | 0,500 | - |
|                          | Bachelor    | 35 | 4,00 | 1,28 |                     |       |   |
|                          | Master      | 14 | 3,86 | 0,95 |                     |       |   |
| External challenges      | High School | 5  | 2,40 | 1,14 | 0,204               | 0,816 | - |
|                          | Bachelor    | 35 | 2,60 | 0,69 |                     |       |   |
|                          | Master      | 14 | 2,50 | 0,76 |                     |       |   |
| Internal Challenges      | High School | 5  | 2,60 | 0,55 | 1,320 <sup>χ²</sup> | 0,276 | - |
|                          | Bachelor    | 35 | 2,14 | 1,03 |                     |       |   |
|                          | Master      | 14 | 1,86 | 0,53 |                     |       |   |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ , F: One Way ANAVO,  $\chi^2$ : Kruskal Wallis H Testi

The statistical analysis indicates that the level of education of women entrepreneurs does not have a significant impact on the ratings of general challenges, market entry challenges, micro-challenges, and macro challenges faced by them ( $p > 0.05$ ).

According to the educational level of women entrepreneurs, there were no significant differences in challenges, fundamental challenges, external challenges, or internal challenges that NGOs face ( $p > 0.05$ ). Therefore, women entrepreneurs' educational backgrounds have little impact on their challenges. The obstacles encountered by female entrepreneurs, regardless of their educational attainment level, exhibit a degree of similarity. As a result of the finding that there was no significant difference in scores for general challenges, market entry challenges, micro-challenges, and macro-challenges women entrepreneurs faced, it seems that these challenges are equally important in different dimensions when women entrepreneurs start a business.

The comparison of the Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to their marital status is shown in Table 6.19.

Table 6.19. Comparison of Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and Subdimension Scores of Women Entrepreneurs According to their marital status

| Scales and sub-dimensions               | Marital Status | N  | Mid. | S.S  | t or z             | P             |
|-----------------------------------------|----------------|----|------|------|--------------------|---------------|
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | Single         | 39 | 2,32 | 0,26 | 1,685              | 0,098         |
|                                         | Married        | 15 | 2,18 | 0,29 |                    |               |
| Difficulties in market entry            | Single         | 39 | 1,92 | 0,48 | 1,322              | 0,192         |
|                                         | Married        | 15 | 1,72 | 0,53 |                    |               |
| Micro challenges                        | Single         | 39 | 3,10 | 0,40 | 0,819              | 0,417         |
|                                         | Married        | 15 | 3,00 | 0,45 |                    |               |
| Macro challenges                        | Single         | 39 | 1,94 | 0,40 | 0,994              | 0,325         |
|                                         | Married        | 15 | 1,83 | 0,24 |                    |               |
| Challenges faced by NGOs                | Single         | 39 | 8,95 | 1,64 | 1,554              | 0,126         |
|                                         | Married        | 15 | 8,00 | 2,78 |                    |               |
| Key challenges                          | Single         | 39 | 4,10 | 1,10 | 0,824              | 0,414         |
|                                         | Married        | 15 | 3,80 | 1,47 |                    |               |
| External challenges                     | Single         | 39 | 2,69 | 0,69 | 2,261              | <b>0,028*</b> |
|                                         | Married        | 15 | 2,20 | 0,77 |                    |               |
| Internal Challenges                     | Single         | 39 | 2,15 | 0,81 | 0,556 <sup>z</sup> | 0,580         |
|                                         | Married        | 15 | 2,00 | 1,13 |                    |               |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ , t: Independent Sample T Testi, z: Mann Whitney U Testi

There is no significant difference between the ratings of general challenges, market entry challenges, micro-challenges, and macro challenges faced by women entrepreneurs depending on the marital status of the entrepreneurs ( $p > 0.05$ ). Women entrepreneurs' marital status had no significant effect on rating challenges, fundamental challenges, and internal challenges ( $p > 0.05$ ). External hurdles women entrepreneurs face vary significantly based on their marital status. These variations are statistically noteworthy ( $p < 0.05$ ) through empirical inquiry. External challenges seem to be perceived differently by single women entrepreneurs versus those who are married. Based on average ratings, the former group experiences these challenges at a lower intensity.

The comparison of Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to the number of children is shown in Table 6.20.

Table 6.20. Comparison of Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and Sub- dimension Scores of Women Entrepreneurs According to the Number of Children

| Scale and sub-dimensions                | Number of children | N  | Mid. | S.S  | F or $\chi^2$     | p     | Difference |
|-----------------------------------------|--------------------|----|------|------|-------------------|-------|------------|
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | No children        | 17 | 2,22 | 0,31 | 0,750             | 0,477 | -          |
|                                         | 1-2 children       | 30 | 2,32 | 0,27 |                   |       |            |
|                                         | 3-4 children       | 7  | 2,30 | 0,16 |                   |       |            |
| Difficulties in market entry            | No children        | 17 | 1,76 | 0,56 | 0,868             | 0,426 | -          |
|                                         | 1-2 children       | 30 | 1,94 | 0,49 |                   |       |            |
|                                         | 3-4 children       | 7  | 1,75 | 0,35 |                   |       |            |
| Micro challenges                        | No children        | 17 | 3,01 | 0,46 | 0,295             | 0,746 | -          |
|                                         | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,09 | 0,39 |                   |       |            |
|                                         | 3-4 children       | 7  | 3,14 | 0,43 |                   |       |            |
| Macro challenges                        | No children        | 17 | 1,87 | 0,25 | 0,331             | 0,720 | -          |
|                                         | 1-2 children       | 30 | 1,92 | 0,42 |                   |       |            |
|                                         | 3-4 children       | 7  | 2,00 | 0,32 |                   |       |            |
| Challenges faced by CSOs                | No children        | 17 | 8,12 | 2,60 | 1,088             | 0,345 | -          |
|                                         | 1-2 children       | 30 | 8,87 | 1,85 |                   |       |            |
|                                         | 3-4 children       | 7  | 9,29 | 0,76 |                   |       |            |
| Key challenges                          | No children        | 17 | 3,82 | 1,42 | 1,440             | 0,246 | -          |
|                                         | 1-2 children       | 30 | 3,97 | 1,13 |                   |       |            |
|                                         | 3-4 children       | 7  | 4,71 | 0,76 |                   |       |            |
| External challenges                     | No children        | 17 | 2,24 | 0,75 | 2,639             | 0,081 | -          |
|                                         | 1-2 children       | 30 | 2,67 | 0,71 |                   |       |            |
|                                         | 3-4 children       | 7  | 2,86 | 0,69 |                   |       |            |
| Internal challenges                     | No children        | 17 | 2,06 | 1,03 | 2,490<br>$\chi^2$ | 0,288 | -          |
|                                         | 1-2 children       | 30 | 2,23 | 0,90 |                   |       |            |
|                                         | 3-4 children       | 7  | 1,71 | 0,49 |                   |       |            |

\* $p < 0,05$ , \*\* $p < 0,01$ , F: One Way ANAVO,  $\chi^2$ : Kruskal Wallis H Testi

There was no significant difference between the scores of general challenges, market entry challenges, micro-challenges, and macro challenges women entrepreneurs face according to the number of children of women entrepreneurs ( $p > 0.05$ ). Simultaneously, the statistical analysis revealed that there was no noteworthy distinction in the scores of challenges, fundamental challenges, external challenges, and internal challenges encountered by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) based on the number of children belonging to women entrepreneurs ( $p > 0.05$ ). According to Bakay et al.'s (2020) study, mothers who are entrepreneurs do not see raising children and running a business as conflicting objectives. Rather than being defeated by the challenge of balancing family and work life, these women find inspiration in providing comfortable living conditions for their offspring.

The comparison of the Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and sub-dimension scores of women entrepreneurs according to the years of establishment of their enterprises is shown in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21. Comparison of the Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and Sub-Dimension Scores of Women Entrepreneurs according to the Years of Establishment of their Enterprises

| Scale and subdimensions                 | Year of establishment | N  | Mid. | S.S  | t or z             | p     |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------------------|----|------|------|--------------------|-------|
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | After 2015            | 14 | 2,29 | 0,27 | 0,052              | 0,959 |
|                                         | 2015 and before       | 40 | 2,28 | 0,28 |                    |       |
| Difficulties in market entry            | After 2015            | 14 | 1,86 | 0,66 | -0,034             | 0,973 |
|                                         | 2015 and before       | 40 | 1,86 | 0,45 |                    |       |
| Micro challenges                        | After 2015            | 14 | 3,04 | 0,37 | -0,403             | 0,689 |
|                                         | 2015 and before       | 40 | 3,09 | 0,43 |                    |       |
| Macro challenges                        | After 2015            | 14 | 1,96 | 0,37 | 0,626              | 0,534 |
|                                         | 2015 and before       | 40 | 1,89 | 0,36 |                    |       |
| Challenges faced by NGOs                | After 2015            | 14 | 9,43 | 2,38 | 1,611              | 0,113 |
|                                         | 2015 and before       | 40 | 8,43 | 1,87 |                    |       |
| Key challenges                          | After 2015            | 14 | 4,43 | 1,09 | 1,496              | 0,141 |
|                                         | 2015 and before       | 40 | 3,88 | 1,22 |                    |       |
| External challenges                     | After 2015            | 14 | 2,50 | 0,94 | -0,322             | 0,749 |
|                                         | 2015 and before       | 40 | 2,58 | 0,68 |                    |       |
| Internal Challenges                     | After 2015            | 14 | 2,50 | 1,22 | 1,570 <sup>z</sup> | 0,116 |
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | 2015 and before       | 40 | 1,98 | 0,73 |                    |       |

$p < 0,05$ ,  $**p < 0,01$ , t: Independent Sample T Testi, z: Mann Whitney U Testi

There is no significant difference between the scores of general challenges, challenges in market entry, micro-challenges, and macro challenges women entrepreneurs face according to the years of establishment of their enterprises ( $p > 0.05$ ). That is, regardless of the enterprises' establishment year, the average scores of the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs are close to each other. Market entry challenges, micro-challenges, and macro challenges have similar scores for both periods. This result suggests that women entrepreneurs face similar challenges

regardless of sectoral or economic changes. There was no significant difference between the scores of the challenges faced by NGOs in general, fundamental challenges, external challenges, and internal challenges according to the years of establishment of women entrepreneurs' businesses ( $p > 0.05$ ). On the other hand, there are some differences in the challenges NGOs face depending on the year of establishment. In 2015 and before, NGOs faced more primary challenges and scored higher on these challenges. However, after 2015, the score of the main challenges decreased. This suggests that seasonal factors in the year of establishment may affect the challenges NGOs face. For example, in the post-2015 period, NGOs faced fewer critical challenges related to better regulatory frameworks or support programs.

The comparison of the Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, and sub-dimension scores according to the number of people working in the enterprises of women entrepreneurs is shown in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22. Comparison of challenges faced by women entrepreneurs, challenges faced by NGOs, and sub-dimension scores according to the number of employees of women entrepreneurs in their enterprises

| Scale and subdimensions                 | Number of Workers    | N  | M id. | S.S  | F or $\chi^2$      | p     | Difference |
|-----------------------------------------|----------------------|----|-------|------|--------------------|-------|------------|
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | 0-50 person          | 31 | 2,28  | 0,31 | 0,184              | 0,832 | -          |
|                                         | 50-100 people        | 11 | 2,25  | 0,27 |                    |       |            |
|                                         | 100 people and above | 12 | 2,32  | 0,17 |                    |       |            |
| Difficulties in market entry            | 0-50 person          | 31 | 1,83  | 0,55 | 0,42               | 0,659 | -          |
|                                         | 50-100 people        | 11 | 1,82  | 0,56 |                    |       |            |
|                                         | 100 people and above | 12 | 1,98  | 0,29 |                    |       |            |
| Micro challenges                        | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,09  | 0,43 | 0,056              | 0,946 | -          |
|                                         | 50-100 people        | 11 | 3,07  | 0,45 |                    |       |            |
|                                         | 100 people and above | 12 | 3,04  | 0,37 |                    |       |            |
| Macro challenges                        | 0-50 person          | 31 | 1,92  | 0,36 | 0,131              | 0,878 | -          |
|                                         | 50-100 people        | 11 | 1,86  | 0,45 |                    |       |            |
|                                         | 100 people and above | 12 | 1,94  | 0,30 |                    |       |            |
| Challenges faced by NGOs                | 0-50 person          | 31 | 8,74  | 2,08 | 2,378              | 0,103 | -          |
|                                         | 50-100 people        | 11 | 9,55  | 1,92 |                    |       |            |
|                                         | 100 people and above | 12 | 7,75  | 1,76 |                    |       |            |
| Key challenges                          | 0-50 person          | 31 | 3,97  | 1,28 | 1,628              | 0,206 | -          |
|                                         | 50-100 people        | 11 | 4,55  | 1,13 |                    |       |            |
|                                         | 100 people and above | 12 | 3,67  | 0,98 |                    |       |            |
| External challenges                     | 0-50 person          | 31 | 2,58  | 0,76 | 0,284              | 0,754 | -          |
|                                         | 50-100 people        | 11 | 2,64  | 0,81 |                    |       |            |
|                                         | 100 people and above | 12 | 2,42  | 0,67 |                    |       |            |
| Internal Challenges                     | 0-50 person          | 31 | 2,19  | 0,98 | 4,872 <sup>2</sup> | 0,088 | -          |
|                                         | 50-100 people        | 11 | 2,36  | 0,92 |                    |       |            |
|                                         | 100 people and above | 12 | 1,67  | 0,49 |                    |       |            |

*\*p<0,05, \*\*p<0,01, F: One Way ANAVO,  $\chi^2$ : Kruskal Wallis H Testi*

The table data examines the impact of the number of employees in the enterprises of women entrepreneurs and NGOs on the challenges they face. Mean scores were analyzed in the study. There is no significant difference between the scores of general challenges, market entry challenges, micro challenges, and macro challenges faced by women entrepreneurs according to the number of employees of women entrepreneurs ( $p > 0.05$ ).

Findings show that the complications encountered by women who run their own companies are not greatly altered based on the number of individuals employed in their enterprises. There is no significant difference between the scores of challenges faced by NGOs, basic challenges, external challenges and internal challenges according to the number of employees of women entrepreneurs ( $p > 0.05$ ). When comparing the mean values for the different categories of company size based on the number of employees, it was found that the mean value for companies with 0–50 employees was 8.74, while for companies with 50–100 employees, it was 9.55. In contrast, companies with 100 or more employees had a mean value of 7.75. The number of employees in NGOs does not seem to significantly impact the challenges faced. Scores were categorized according to employee count, and comparisons revealed no notable differences.

In more detail, a similar situation is observed in terms of difficulties in market entry. Based on the level of macro challenges, the results indicated a score of 1.92 for groups with 0-50 individuals, 1.86 for groups with 50-100 individuals, and 1.94 for groups with 100 or more individuals.

However, there is no significant difference between these scores. It is concluded that the number of employees does not affect micro and macro problems. It has been observed that there exists a correlation between the mean score of internal challenges and the quantity of personnel. These scores indicate that larger enterprises have more effective management processes and better team coordination. According to these findings, the average score of internal challenges decreases with the increase in the number of employees in enterprises. In larger enterprises, more resources and expertise may reduce internal challenges. Since large enterprises have a more comprehensive

organizational structure, the distribution of tasks and responsibilities among employees may be better.

#### 6.6.6. Examining the Level of Relationship between Social Entrepreneurship and Environmental Factors Affecting Entrepreneurship, NGO Management Practices, Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs and NGOs

The levels of relationship between social entrepreneurship and environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship, NGO management practices, challenges faced by women entrepreneurs, and challenges faced by NGOs are analyzed and shown in Table 6.23.

Women entrepreneurs' overall level of social entrepreneurship has a slight positive relationship with their sociocultural environment and a moderate positive relationship with NGO management practices, management structure, communication and coordination, and audit practices ( $p < 0.05$ ).

This result indicates that women entrepreneurs' social entrepreneurship level increases when the scores of sociocultural environment, NGO management practices, management structure, communication and coordination, and monitoring practices increase. This demonstrates that women social entrepreneurs' success depends on their surroundings. Factors such as the NGO's sociocultural environment and management practices, management structure, communication and coordination, and monitoring practices influence women entrepreneurs' social entrepreneurship level (İlter, 2007).

Table 6.23. Levels of relationship between social entrepreneurship and environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship, ngo management practices, challenges faced by women entrepreneurs and NGOs

| Variables                       | Coefficient | Social entrepreneurship | Risk-taking  | Self-confidence | Personal creativeness |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------------|
| Environmental Factors           | r           | 0,233                   | ,271*        | ,308*           | -0,123                |
|                                 | p           | 0,09                    | <b>0,048</b> | <b>0,023</b>    | 0,375                 |
| Socio-cultural environment      | r           | ,279*                   | 0,169        | ,335*           | 0,076                 |
|                                 | p           | <b>0,041</b>            | 0,221        | <b>0,013</b>    | 0,584                 |
| Economic environment            | r           | 0,234                   | 0,249        | ,276*           | -0,06                 |
|                                 | p           | 0,088                   | 0,07         | <b>0,043</b>    | 0,667                 |
| Legal and political environment | r           | 0,067                   | 0,07         | -0,029          | -0,205                |
|                                 | p           | 0,63                    | 0,615        | 0,833           | 0,137                 |

Table 6.23. (continues)

|                                         |   |                |                |                |               |
|-----------------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| NGO Management Practices                | r | <b>,507**</b>  | <b>,411**</b>  | <b>,379**</b>  | 0,251         |
|                                         | p | <b>0,000</b>   | <b>0,002</b>   | <b>0,005</b>   | 0,067         |
| Management Structure                    | r | <b>,390**</b>  | <b>,454**</b>  | 0,248          | 0,071         |
|                                         | p | <b>0,004</b>   | <b>0,001</b>   | 0,071          | 0,612         |
| Communication and coordination          | r | <b>,445**</b>  | 0,239          | <b>,404**</b>  | <b>,294*</b>  |
|                                         | p | <b>0,001</b>   | 0,082          | <b>0,002</b>   | <b>0,031</b>  |
| Audit                                   | r | <b>,346*</b>   | 0,212          | 0,252          | 0,261         |
|                                         | p | <b>0,01</b>    | 0,124          | 0,066          | 0,057         |
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | r | <b>-,552**</b> | <b>-,345*</b>  | <b>-,514**</b> | <b>-,292*</b> |
|                                         | p | <b>0,000</b>   | <b>0,011</b>   | <b>0,000</b>   | <b>0,032</b>  |
| Difficulties in market entry            | r | <b>-,532**</b> | <b>-,406**</b> | <b>-,489**</b> | -0,198        |
|                                         | p | <b>0,000</b>   | <b>0,002</b>   | <b>0,000</b>   | 0,152         |
| Micro challenges                        | r | -0,222         | -0,087         | -0,241         | -0,144        |
|                                         | p | 0,107          | 0,533          | 0,079          | 0,299         |
| Macro challenges                        | r | -0,259         | -0,118         | -0,209         | -0,222        |
|                                         | p | 0,059          | 0,395          | 0,129          | 0,106         |
| Challenges faced by NGOs                | r | 0,183          | <b>,293*</b>   | -0,002         | 0,059         |
|                                         | p | 0,186          | <b>0,032</b>   | 0,986          | 0,673         |
| Key challenges                          | r | 0,141          | 0,184          | 0,051          | 0,04          |
|                                         | p | 0,310          | 0,183          | 0,713          | 0,772         |
| External challenges                     | r | 0,180          | 0,249          | 0,066          | 0,035         |
|                                         | p | 0,193          | 0,069          | 0,637          | 0,802         |
| Internal Challenges                     | r | 0,076          | 0,209          | -0,128         | 0,05          |
|                                         | p | 0,583          | 0,129          | 0,357          | 0,721         |

$p < 0,05$ ,  $**p < 0,01$ ,  $r$ : Correlation coefficient

As these factors increase, women entrepreneurs' social entrepreneurship level also increases.

A moderate negative relationship was found between women entrepreneurs' general level of social entrepreneurship and the general difficulties of women entrepreneurs in entering the market ( $p < 0.05$ ). This finding suggests that as the overall challenges faced by women entrepreneurs and difficulties in market entry increase, women entrepreneurs' social entrepreneurship level will decrease. This result emphasizes the importance of supporting women entrepreneurs to overcome these challenges and facilitate market access. There is no relationship between women entrepreneurs' general level of social entrepreneurship and economic environment, legal and political environment, micro and macro challenges women face, general challenges faced by NGOs, common challenges, external challenges, and internal challenges ( $p > 0.05$ ). This shows that the factors we have listed do not directly affect the social entrepreneurship levels of women entrepreneurs. However, it is essential to

remember that these findings are vague generalizations and that other factors may also affect social entrepreneurship levels. Women entrepreneurs' risk-taking levels were positively correlated with NGOs' environmental factors and challenges, and moderately with NGO management practices and management structure practices ( $p < 0.05$ ). This finding indicates that as the scores of environmental factors, challenges faced by NGOs, NGO Management Practices, and Governance structure practices increase, the risk-taking levels of women entrepreneurs will increase.

The findings show that women entrepreneurs' self-confidence levels are related to environmental factors, socio-cultural environment, economic environment, NGO management practices, and communication/coordination practices. These findings suggest that environmental factors and practices influence women entrepreneurs' self-confidence. A more supportive socio-cultural environment, improving economic conditions, increasing NGO management practices, and developing effective communication and coordination skills can help women entrepreneurs become more successful by increasing their self-confidence. A study by Heroy found that the region and socio-cultural environment significantly impact entrepreneurial choices, which is a vital element of economic development (Ersoy, 2010).

A moderate negative relationship was found between the risk-taking levels of women entrepreneurs and the general difficulties women entrepreneurs face and the difficulties in entering the market ( $p < 0.05$ ). This finding shows that as the general difficulties faced by women entrepreneurs and the difficulties in market entry increase, the risk-taking levels of women entrepreneurs will decrease. In our study, this result is significant since the problems related to market entry are evaluated in terms of the support given by the Samsun Business Women Association to the business about market entry. Sayın (2011) similarly addresses the difficulties related to market entry in his study.

A low and moderate positive relationship ( $p < 0.05$ ) was found between women entrepreneurs' self-confidence level and the environmental factors, socio-cultural environment, economic environment, NGO Management Practices, and Communication and coordination practices of women entrepreneurs. These findings suggest that environmental factors and practices influence women entrepreneurs' self-confidence. This suggests that women entrepreneurs' self-confidence rises with favorable socio-cultural, economic, NGO Management Practices, communication, and

coordination scores. Environmental elements, socio-cultural environment, economic environment, NGO management methods, and communication/coordination procedures affect women entrepreneurs' self-confidence. A more supportive socio-cultural environment, improving economic conditions, increasing NGO management practices, and developing effective communication and coordination skills can help women entrepreneurs become more successful by increasing their self-confidence. A study by Heroy found that the region and socio-cultural environment significantly impact entrepreneurial choices, which is a vital element of economic development (Ersoy, 2010).

Through our analysis, we discovered that the self-assurance of female entrepreneurs has a moderate correlation with the overall obstacles and market entry difficulties incurred ( $p < 0.05$ ). Findings reveal that when women business owners encounter more general setbacks, their capacity to enter the market decreases, reducing confidence. Simply put, women entrepreneurs often face hindrances to market entry and ultimately lose self-confidence. A low-level positive relationship was found between women entrepreneurs' personal creativity levels and communication and coordination practices ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Conversely, when communication and coordination are relatively low, personal creativity levels are also more likely to be low. In accordance with statistical analysis ( $p < 0.05$ ), a correlation was detected between the personal creativity levels of female entrepreneurs and the general obstacles they confront, indicating a low-level negative relationship. This result suggests that, as female entrepreneurs face increasingly common challenges, their personal creativity tends to diminish.

Table 6.24. Levels of relationship between environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship and challenges faced by women entrepreneurs

| Variables                         | Coefficiency | Environmental factors | Socio-cultural | Economic environment | Legal and political |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|----------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| Challenges of women entrepreneurs | r            | -0,212                | <b>-,398**</b> | -0,175               | 0,142               |
|                                   | p            | 0,123                 | <b>0,003</b>   | 0,205                | 0,304               |
| Market entry challenges           | r            | <b>-,362**</b>        | <b>-,402**</b> | -0,226               | -0,048              |
|                                   | p            | <b>0,007</b>          | <b>0,003</b>   | 0,101                | 0,73                |
| Micro challenges                  | r            | 0,01                  | -0,208         | -0,058               | 0,238               |
|                                   | p            | 0,941                 | 0,132          | 0,679                | 0,083               |
| Macro challenges                  | r            | 0,01                  | -0,106         | -0,018               | 0,118               |
|                                   | p            | 0,942                 | 0,447          | 0,899                | 0,394               |

$p < 0,05$ ,  $**p < 0,01$ ,  $r$ : Correlation coefficient

The examination of the data above focuses on exploring the connection between environmental factors impacting entrepreneurship and the obstacles experienced by women entrepreneurs. Table 6.24 showcases correlation coefficients that demonstrate a moderately negative association ( $p < 0.05$ ) linking environmental factors with the difficulties faced by women entrepreneurs ( $r = -0.212$ ,  $p = 0.123$ ). Similarly noteworthy is the negative link observed between market entry challenges and environmental factors ( $r = -0.362$ ,  $p = 0.007$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ). These findings indicate that there is a decrease in sociocultural environment scores for women entrepreneurs as general obstacles and market entry hurdles increase. On the other hand, no direct connection was identified between micro or macro obstacles and environmental factors, therefore suggesting their independence from such influences.

Furthermore, the socio-cultural environment, economic environment, and legal and political environment were established to have an impact on hurdles faced by female entrepreneurs. More specifically, socio-cultural environment and economic environment factors emerged as crucial elements. However, factors in the legal and political environment have less impact on the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs. Looking at the "p" values of the coefficients in the data, it is seen that factors in the socio-cultural and economic environments are associated with difficulties in market entry, and there is no significant micro/macro relationship. Given these data, the  $H_3$  hypothesis that "Factors affecting entrepreneurship impact the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs" is rejected. In her research, İlter (2008) evaluated the effect of environmental factors on the problems faced by women entrepreneurs in solving the problems of women entrepreneurs and determined the effect of these factors on entrepreneurship (İlter, 2008). In our study, the impact of the factors was evaluated in general, either positively or negatively. It means that environmental barriers help women entrepreneurs solve problems, as stated in İlter's (2008) research, but they also create problems. For example, according to Arıkan's study, with the roles and responsibilities that society imposes on women, women who are entrepreneurs face psychological barriers such as role conflict and stress, gender-based role discrimination, time constraints, or socio-cultural barriers such as spouses and families, as well as economic barriers such as not being able to freely utilize

financial resources and legal barriers such as restrictions that prevent access to these resources (Arikan, 2016).

The level of relationship between NGO management practices and the challenges faced by NGOs is analyzed and shown in Table 6.25.

The above data examines the level of relationship between NGO management practices and the challenges NGOs face. According to the findings, there is a weak negative relationship between the main challenges faced by NGOs and their management practices ( $r=-0.069$ ). When analyzed separately, there is a weak negative relationship between the challenges faced by NGOs and NGO management structure ( $r=-0.277$ ), communication and coordination ( $-0.094$ ), and supervision ( $r=-0.053$ ).

There is a weak positive relationship between external challenges faced by NGOs and NGO management practices ( $r = 0.184$ ). Separately, there is a weak positive relationship between internal challenges faced by NGOs and management structure ( $r=0.232$ ), communication and coordination ( $r=0.155$ ), and audit ( $r=0.019$ ). There is a weak positive relationship between external challenges faced by NGOs and communication and coordination ( $r = 0.155$ ). There is a fragile relationship between external challenges faced by NGOs and supervision ( $r = 0.019$ ).

Table 6.25. Levels of relationship between NGO management practices and challenges faced by NGOs

| Variables                | Coefficient | NGO Management Practices | Management structure | Communication and coordination | Inspection |
|--------------------------|-------------|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|------------|
| Challenges faced by NGOs | r           | 0,073                    | 0,121                | -0,01                          | 0,031      |
|                          | p           | 0,601                    | 0,383                | 0,942                          | 0,826      |
| Common challenges        | r           | -0,069                   | -0,027               | -0,094                         | -0,053     |
|                          | p           | 0,618                    | 0,849                | 0,499                          | 0,705      |
| External challenges      | r           | 0,184                    | 0,232                | 0,155                          | 0,019      |
|                          | p           | 0,184                    | 0,092                | 0,263                          | 0,892      |
| Internal challenges      | r           | 0,105                    | 0,117                | -0,025                         | 0,124      |
|                          | p           | 0,45                     | 0,398                | 0,858                          | 0,372      |

$p<0,05$ ,  $**p<0,01$ ,  $r$ : Korelasyon katsayısı

There is a weak positive relationship between internal challenges faced by NGOs and NGO management practices ( $r = 0.105$ ). When analyzed separately, there is a weak positive relationship between internal challenges faced by NGOs and management structure ( $r = 0.117$ ). There is a fragile relationship between internal challenges faced by NGOs and communication and coordination ( $r = -0.025$ ). There is a weak positive

relationship between internal challenges faced by NGOs and supervision ( $r = 0.124$ ). As can be seen from this finding, according to the correlation analysis, there is a weak positive or negative relationship between each variable. The relationships are not statistically significant since all  $p$  values are more significant than 0.05 ( $p > 0.05$ ). According to the analysis results between the two variables, the  $H_5$  hypothesis "*NGO Management Practices are effective in the Challenges faced by NGOs*" is rejected.

However, when the relationships between the variables are analyzed one by one, it is seen that there is a moderate relationship. Different results are also found in the literature. For example, according to a study conducted by Göz (2022), organizational and structural problems faced by NGOs are related to factors such as management and organization. According to the research result of İlter (2008), the management structure of NGOs is effective in solving the problems faced by NGOs. The rejection of the hypothesis regarding the " $p$ " values in our study may be due to various reasons. The hypothesis may be rejected because, according to the research results, NGO management practices are insufficient to solve the problems NGOs face. At the same time, it is also since the members of the associations participating in the questionnaire do not find these practices sufficient. In general, NGO management practices try to help NGOs solve their problems. However, in this developing world, NGO management practices are not always sufficient to cope with the challenges facing NGOs. For example, NGO management practices may be inadequate, NGOs may not have sufficient resources to meet their needs, or deficiencies in their management NGOs may reduce the effectiveness of NGOs. In addition, the problems NGOs face are pretty diverse, e.g., lack of financial resources, the complexity of legal regulations, lack of staff training, and many more. Especially in NGOs with limited membership capacity, other practices need to be in place to ensure they receive support, especially in financial matters. These problems reduce the effectiveness of NGO management practices and cause them to be insufficient in solving problems. As a result, the hypothesis is not accepted. It shows that NGO management practices cannot solve all the problems NGOs face and emphasizes the need for a more comprehensive and customized approach to solving these problems.

#### 6.6.7. Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, Environmental Factors Affecting Entrepreneurship and Examining the impact of NGO Management Practices on Social Entrepreneurship

After examining the existence and degree of the relationship between the variables with correlation analysis to evaluate the effects of the variables on Social Entrepreneurship, multiple regression analysis methods were applied to test our hypotheses for social entrepreneurship. Multiple regression analysis explains the dependent variable based on two or more independent variables related to the dependent variable (Hayes, 2023). The factors that cause an event to occur are usually many. Therefore, the regression model can seek the relationship between a dependent variable and more than one independent variable (Nakip, 2006: 330). According to Büyükoztürk (2003: 94), multiple regression analysis enables one to determine the total amount of variation in the dependent variable that the independent variables can explain, the statistical significance of the explained variation, the statistical significance of the independent variables, and the direction of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable (İlter, 2008).

The results of multiple regression analyses on the impact of Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs, Challenges Faced by NGOs, Environmental Factors Affecting Entrepreneurship and NGO Management Practices on Social Entrepreneurship are presented in Table 6.26.

Table 6.26. Multiple Regression analysis results affecting social entrepreneurship

| Variable                                | B     | Std. error <sub>B</sub> | $\beta$ (Beta) | T      | p           | 95% confidence interval for beta coefficient |       |
|-----------------------------------------|-------|-------------------------|----------------|--------|-------------|----------------------------------------------|-------|
|                                         |       |                         |                |        |             | Alt                                          | Üst   |
| Fixed                                   | 3,312 | ,913                    |                | 3,627  | <b>,001</b> | 1,477                                        | 5,147 |
| Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs | -,382 | ,147                    | -,355          | -2,609 | <b>,012</b> | -,677                                        | -,088 |
| Challenges Faced by NGOs                | ,015  | ,016                    | ,104           | 0,921  | ,362        | -,018                                        | ,048  |
| Environmental Factors                   | ,161  | ,166                    | ,111           | ,967   | ,338        | -,173                                        | ,494  |
| NGO Management Practices                | ,222  | ,102                    | ,292           | 2,187  | <b>,034</b> | ,018                                         | ,427  |

$R=0.623$ ;  $R^2=0.389$ ;  $Adj. R^2=0.339$ ;  $F(4,49)=7,78$ ,  $p<0,01$ .

Dependent variable: Social entrepreneurship

The given findings show the results of a multiple regression analysis examining the factors influencing the social entrepreneurship of women entrepreneurs. The independent variables in the study (challenges faced by women, challenges faced by NGOs, environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship, and NGO management practices) explain 33.9% of the variation in women's social entrepreneurship scores.

Statistically significant results demonstrate that women's challenges negatively affect social entrepreneurship ( $\beta=-0.355$ ,  $p=0.012$ ). This means that as women entrepreneurs face challenges, social entrepreneurship level decreases.

If we refer to the data related to the social entrepreneurship variable of environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship, the effect of environmental factors on social entrepreneurship is not statistically significant ( $\beta=0.111$ ,  $p=0.338$ ). The effect of environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship on social entrepreneurship is not statistically significant ( $\beta=0.111$ ,  $p=0.338$ ). According to this result, it is seen that environmental factors do not directly affect social entrepreneurship.

According to the data, the challenges faced by NGOs do not have an impact on social entrepreneurship ( $\beta=0.104$ ,  $p=0.362$ ). This result shows that challenges faced by NGOs do not have a direct effect on social entrepreneurship.

Nevertheless, NGO management practices were found to positively affect social entrepreneurship, and this effect was statistically significant ( $\beta=0.292$ ,  $p=0.034$ ).

According to these results, the  $H_1$  hypothesis, "*Challenges faced by women entrepreneurs are effective on social entrepreneurship*," is accepted; the  $H_2$  hypothesis, "*Challenges faced by NGOs are effective on social entrepreneurship*," is rejected; the  $H_4$  hypothesis, "*Factors affecting entrepreneurship are effective on social entrepreneurship*," is rejected; and the  $H_6$  hypothesis, "*NGO management practices are effective on social entrepreneurship*," is accepted.

The rejection of hypothesis  $H_2$  shows that NGO challenges do not directly affect social entrepreneurship. This result, nevertheless, does not imply that social entrepreneurship and NGOs have no connection. According to the literature, strengthening NGOs is possible through the increase in social entrepreneurs (Demir, 2014). NGOs are essential in social entrepreneurship as they offer valuable resources, support, and expertise to social enterprises, as noted by Özdevecioğlu and Cingöz (2009). By collaborating with NGOs, social entrepreneurs can access the resources

they need to develop and scale their ventures (Tunar, 2020). For this reason, the activities of NGOs are essential for Social Entrepreneurship. However, despite this, according to the results of the research, it is concluded that the challenges faced by NGOs have little effect on social entrepreneurship. Thus, according to the research results, the challenges faced by NGOs need to be identified as an essential factor in determining the level of social entrepreneurship.

The reason for rejecting the other hypothesis,  $H_4$ , is first because the effect of environmental factors on social entrepreneurship is not statistically significant. Moreover, the 95% confidence interval for the Beta ( $\beta$ ) coefficient of environmental factors is between -0.173 and 0.494. It shows that the effect of environmental factors on social entrepreneurship is statistically uncertain. It means that not only environmental factors are influential on social entrepreneurship. In other words, these factors are not enough.

On the other hand, these factors are not directly influential but through individuals engaged in social entrepreneurship activities. Environmental factors affecting women's social entrepreneurs are insufficient to determine the social entrepreneurship level. In addition, the factors influencing social entrepreneurship can be complex. Related to this, the relationships between factors influencing social entrepreneurship can be distorting. In this case, it is difficult to determine the impact of environmental factors.

Research on women's entrepreneurship shows that women are more likely to be influenced by environmental factors. These factors include cultural norms, financial constraints, and a male-dominated business world. In contrast, social entrepreneurship has a different structure and includes women entrepreneurs and all enterprises that want to participate in social entrepreneurship.

## 7. CONCLUSION

Social entrepreneurship has gained increasing recognition for its significant economic and social development role. The dissemination of the Social Entrepreneurship process in terms of women's entrepreneurship and NGOs can create a great synergy with a multiplier effect in ensuring social benefit and development. This study has explored the intricate landscape of social entrepreneurship, focusing on the contributions of women entrepreneurs and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and the challenges they face. However, the research has examined various hypotheses related to the role of women entrepreneurs and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in social entrepreneurship and their challenges. The research findings have led to several key conclusions:

The research confirms that the challenges women entrepreneurs confront have a substantial and positive influence on the success and advancement of social entrepreneurship initiatives. These challenges, such as limited access to finance, technical constraints, and bureaucratic hurdles, underscore the critical role of women entrepreneurs in driving social change and innovation within marginalized communities. It is imperative to recognize that women entrepreneurs are instrumental in addressing societal issues and fostering innovative solutions for marginalized communities. Thus, the challenges they confront are instrumental in shaping the trajectory of social entrepreneurship.

Contrary to expectations, it was found that environmental factors do not effectively solve issues women entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurs face. While the environment plays a crucial role in shaping business opportunities, it does not address the systemic barriers women face in entrepreneurship. On the other hand, environmental factors are insufficient in determining the level of social entrepreneurship. However, when these factors are analyzed individually, it is possible to make it evident that these or other factors affect the social entrepreneurship activities of women entrepreneurs.

According to the other results, NGOs' challenges do not directly affect social entrepreneurship initiatives. This outcome implies that the issues encountered by NGOs do not directly influence the overall success and progress of social

entrepreneurship endeavors. Nonetheless, the study underscores the paramount importance of NGOs in supporting social enterprises.

It was also found that the management practices of NGOs are ineffective at handling the issues that these organizations face. NGOs can perform more efficiently if NGO management procedures are implemented correctly. However, if these management methods are insufficient, it will be challenging to overcome NGOs' problems. Thus, the result prompts further inquiry into the intricate relationship between management practices and the obstacles NGOs face.

Nevertheless, according to the results, NGO management practices are determined to impact social entrepreneurship. Specifically, it demonstrates the crucial role that NGO governance plays in fostering social entrepreneurship and supporting social businesses, as well as fostering communication and cooperation between other socially conscious and successful groups.

Additionally, the findings reveal that women entrepreneurs in the Samsun province tend to be in the middle age range, highlighting the societal barriers that single women may face in launching their businesses, often influenced by prevailing gender norms and male-dominated sectors. Educational attainment emerged as a crucial factor influencing women's propensity for entrepreneurship, with a significant proportion holding bachelor's degrees or higher-level education. This educational background is instrumental in equipping women with the skills and knowledge required for entrepreneurial success. Furthermore, many women entrepreneurs stated they gained professional knowledge and skills through business life and formal and non-formal education.

The high number of married women shows that marriage is not a significant obstacle to entrepreneurial activities. On the other hand, it suggests that there are some obstacles for a single woman to start her own business and that society's value judgments and male-dominated business lines prevent single women from becoming entrepreneurs. The study also suggests that women entrepreneurs tend to establish small-scale businesses, reflecting their preference for modest entrepreneurial ventures.

Women entrepreneurs face notable challenges related to finance, visibility, employee retention, and legal frameworks. These challenges necessitate support from NGOs and social organizations, emphasizing the interconnectedness between these

entities in addressing these hurdles. From the issues (micro, macro, and problems related to market entry) women entrepreneurs face, it is concluded that micro-challenges are higher than others.

NGOs, particularly those supporting women's entrepreneurship like SAMIKAD, have gained prominence in recent years due to the growing significance of social entrepreneurship. They play a pivotal role in nurturing innovative projects, fostering cooperation among members, and offering vital support to aspiring entrepreneurs.

The research findings reveal that women entrepreneurs possess qualities such as risk-taking ability, self-confidence, and creativity, all of which contribute to their success. However, as the challenges in the business landscape increase, self-confidence may diminish.

The socio-cultural environment has a more pronounced impact on women entrepreneurs than economic factors, while legal and political factors have a comparatively lesser influence. Micro-level challenges significantly outweigh other challenges, indicating the need for tailored solutions at this level.

In summary, social entrepreneurship, driven by women entrepreneurs and supported by NGOs, is a catalyst for positive social change and development. Addressing the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs and enhancing NGO management practices are pivotal steps in furthering the impact of social entrepreneurship in contemporary society. These findings emphasize the need for continued research and collaboration among stakeholders to strengthen the ecosystem of social entrepreneurship for the betterment of communities and disadvantaged groups.

### **7.1. Recommendations**

Based on the results and limitations of the study, some recommendations were developed:

- **Examine the Specific Challenges in More Detail:** Researchers could explore women entrepreneurs' challenges in social entrepreneurship in more detail.
- **Investigate Environmental Factors from a Different Angle:** Although the hypothesis on environmental factors was rejected in the study, future studies could assess the indirect effects of the environment on women entrepreneurs'

challenges and social entrepreneurship outcomes from a different perspective. Further, examining how they interact with other factors to affect social entrepreneurship might be helpful.

- **Conduct Comparative Studies:** Comparative studies across different regions or countries could provide insights into how socio-cultural and economic factors impact women entrepreneurs' success and their contributions to social entrepreneurship. These studies can help identify best practices and policy recommendations.

- **Expand the Geographical Scope:** To overcome the limitation of focusing on a single province, consider conducting a multi-province or nationwide study. In this way, a more comprehensive picture of the subject would be provided, as well as comparisons between regions.

- **Diversify Data Sources:** Incorporate data from multiple sources, such as interviews, focus groups, and other women entrepreneurs from different organizations. It can provide a more well-rounded perspective.

- **Mixed-Methods Approach:** Combine quantitative survey data with qualitative research methods like interviews or case studies. Qualitative

- can provide deeper insights into the experiences and perspectives of women entrepreneurs, complementing the quantitative data.

- **Improve Data Collection Efficiency:** Address the issue of slow questionnaire conversion by using new, more efficient data collection methods or software tools. It can help streamline the research process and reduce delays.

In addition to suggesting future research, some recommendations were formulated to prevent the barriers women entrepreneurs and NGOs face and may face in social entrepreneurship. Initially, streamlining the financial aid application process for women entrepreneurs is essential. Furthermore, implementing affirmative action policies by the government in favor of female entrepreneurs, providing low-interest loans, and providing counseling support from financial institutions can effectively foster women's participation in entrepreneurship.

Despite the increase in training opportunities, coordination is required to increase the quality and efficiency of existing services. Technical and organizational capacity could be increased through educational and coaching programs.

Ineffective communication between members and non-members of the NGOs was identified. It is vital to conduct studies to strengthen communication in solving this problem. Furthermore, NGOs must implement effective management practices to help them overcome issues. These practices include developing strong communication and coordination mechanisms, ensuring effective monitoring and evaluation, and creating a supportive and inclusive organizational culture. In addition, it is necessary to follow current management and organizational approaches and adapt good and exemplary practices from other fields to NGOs.

Networking events should be organized for international relations and connections, and specialized consulting services should be provided in this field. NGOs must improve their communication strategies and focus on branding efforts to ensure greater visibility at the local and national levels.

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## EKLER

### EK 1. Anket Formu

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket Samsun Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü tarafından yürütülmekte olan “*Sosyal Girişimcilikte Kadınların ve Sivil Toplum Kuruluşlarının Rolü ve Karşılaştıkları Zorluklar: Samsun İş Kadınları Derneği (Samikad) Örneği*” konulu yüksek lisans tez çalışmasının uygulama kısmında değerlendirilmek üzere hazırlanmıştır. Anket sorularına verilen cevapların tam ve doğru olması araştırma sonuçlarını yakından etkileyecektir. Ankette yer alan veriler kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve sonuçlar toplu şekilde değerlendirilecektir. Değerli vaktinizi ayırdığınız ve sağladığınız katkı için teşekkür eder, çalışma hayatınızda başarılar dilerim.

#### BÖLÜM 1. Aşağıdaki Sosyal Girişimcilik Faaliyetlerine İlişkin İfadelere Katılım Derecenizi Belirtiniz

| Sosyal Girişimcilik Ölçeği                                                                                           | Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Kararsızım | Katılıyorum | Tamamen Katılıyorum |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|------------|-------------|---------------------|
| 1.Başarıya ulaşacağım konusunda kendime güvenirim                                                                    |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 2.Olumsuzluklar, bir işi başarmam için beni daha da güçlü kılar                                                      |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 3.Başkalarının çözmeye yanaşmadığı sorunları çözmek isterim                                                          |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 4.Bir işi yapmaya karar veririm bunu kimse engelleyemez                                                              |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 5.Zor bir işe başlamak benim için heyecan vericidir                                                                  |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 6.Risk almadan başarılı olunmaz                                                                                      |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 7.Çok çalışarak her zorluğun üstesinden gelebileceğime inanırım                                                      |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 8.Çevremdeki insanları kendi düşüncelerim doğrultusunda etkilerim                                                    |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 9.Mesleğimle ilgili sorunlara yönelik farklı görüş ve yorumlarım vardır                                              |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 10.Mesleki bilgi ve beceri açısından kendime güvenirim                                                               |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 11.Mesleğimde üst düzey yöneticilik konumunda olsaydım bir çok sorunun çözümüne yönelik uygulamalarda bulunabilirdim |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 12.Yeni çevre ve arkadaşlar edinmek benim için kolaydır                                                              |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 13.İlk kes tanıştığım birine kendimi kolayca ifade edebilirim                                                        |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 14.Arkadaş çevremde sevilen ve ön olan karakterim                                                                    |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 15.Çevremdeki insanların fikirlerini dinleyerek özgün fikirler ortaya koyarım                                        |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 16.Bir işi yapmaya başlamadan önce bu işten etkilenecek kişilerin görüşlerini alırım                                 |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 17.Bir işi yapmaya başlamadan önce başkalarının fikirlerini alırım                                                   |                         |              |            |             |                     |

|                                                                                                     |  |  |  |  |  |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| 18.Mesleğimle ilgili genel sorunların çözümüyle ilgili arkadaşlarımla tartışırım                    |  |  |  |  |  |
| 19.Bir işi yapmaya başlamadan önce bu işle ilgili başarılı kişileri model alırım                    |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20.Bir işi yapmaya başlamadan önce bu işi yapa bileceğim farklı yöntemler olup olmadığını düşünürüm |  |  |  |  |  |
| 21.Mesleğimle ilgili yazılı/görsel medyayı takip ederim                                             |  |  |  |  |  |

**BÖLÜM 2. Kadın Sosyal Girişimcilerin Faaliyette Bulunduğu Çevrenin Özellikleri İle İlgili OlanAşağıdaki İfadelere Katılma Derecenizi Lütfen Belirtiniz**

| Sosyal Ve Kültürel Çevre                                                                                                                          | Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Kararsızım | Katılıyorum | Tamamen Katılıyorum |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|------------|-------------|---------------------|
| 22. Toplumun kadın girişimcilere bakış açısı ve onları algılamaları kadının çalışma yaşamındaki konumunu etkilemektedir.                          |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 23. Tüketici tercih ve beklentilerindeki değişimler kadın girişimcileri olumlu yönde etkilemektedir.                                              |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 24.Erkek girişimcilerin baskın yapısı, kadın girişimcilerin başarısına olumsuz etki yapmaktadır                                                   |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 25. Bilinçli ve eğitilmiş Türk aile yapısının oluşturulması SAMİKAD üyelerinin başarısını olumlu etkiler.                                         |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| <b>Ekonomik Çevre</b>                                                                                                                             |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 26. Pazardaki erkek rakiplerin artış hızının yüksekliği kadın sosyal girişimcileri olumsuz etkilemektedir.                                        |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 27.Kadın girişimcilerin çalıştıkları sektörde büyümeleri için yeni teknolojiye ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır                                              |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 28. Çalıştığım sektörde büyümek için yeterli fırsat mevcuttur.                                                                                    |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 29. Çalıştığım sektörün gelecekteki büyüme planları kadın girişimciler için çekici fırsatlar sunmaktadır.                                         |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 30. Son üç yıldır pazarda erkek rakiplerle yoğun (kırana kırana) rekabet yaşanmaktadır.                                                           |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 31. Son üç yıldır pazara yeni giren kadın rakiplerle yoğun (kırana kırana) rekabet yaşanmaktadır.                                                 |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| <b>Hukuki Ve Politik Çevre</b>                                                                                                                    |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 32. Çalıştığım sektöre ait yasal düzenlemeler, kadın girişimcilerin başarısını olumsuz etkilemektedir.                                            |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 33. Kredi kuruluşlarının kadın sosyal girişimcilere negatif ayrımcılık yapması kadın girişimcileri olumsuz olarak etkilemektedir.                 |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 34.Türkiye’deki siyasi yapılanmada erkek baskın yapısının olması, kadın sosyal girişimcileri olumsuz olarak etkilemektedir.                       |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 35.Bir kadın olarak hukuki hakların (iş, aile ve toplumsal yapı yönünden) bilinmesi kadın sosyal girişimcilerin başarısını olumlu etkilemektedir. |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 36.AB’ye üyelik yolunda yapılan yasal düzenlemeler kadın girişimcileri olumlu yönde etkilemektedir.                                               |                         |              |            |             |                     |

**Bölüm 3. Kadın Girişimcilerin Karşılaştıkları Sorunlarla İlgili İfadelere Katılma Derecenizi Lütfen Belirtiniz**

| <b>Piyasaya Giriş Stratejileri İle İlgili Sorunlar</b>                                                                                                             | <b>Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum</b> | <b>Katılmıyorum</b> | <b>Kararsızım</b> | <b>Katılıyorum</b> | <b>Tamamen Katılıyorum</b> |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| 37.Var olan bir işletmenin satın alınarak piyasaya girilmesi konusunda SAMİKAD'ın verdiği destek, kadın girişimcilerin başarısını olumlu etkiler                   |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 38.Var olan bir işletmeye ortak olunarak piyasaya girilmesi konusunda SAMİKAD'ın verdiği destek, kadın girişimcilerin başarısını olumlu etkiler                    |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 39.Bir işletmenin isim ya da işletme hakkının kullanılarak piyasaya girilmesi konusunda SAMİKAD'ın verdiği destek, kadın girişimcilerin başarısını olumlu etkiler. |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 40.Yeni bir girişim kurularak piyasaya girilmesi konusunda SAMİKAD'ın verdiği destek, kadın girişimcilerin başarısını olumlu etkiler.                              |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| <b>Mikro Sorunlar</b>                                                                                                                                              |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 41.Aile desteğinin artması güvensizliğin aşılmasında etkin bir role sahiptir.                                                                                      |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 42.SAMİKAD potansiyel kadın girişimcilerin, girişimlerinin oluşumunu aşamasında ihtiyaç duyulan tüm profesyonel destek için yeterlidir.                            |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 43.Türk aile yapısında kadına yüklenen rol nedeniyle girişimci olmalarına engel teşkil etmesi kadın girişimcileri olumsuz olarak etkiler                           |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 44.Kadın girişimci olmak cinsiyet ayrımcılığı yönünden girişimin başarısını olumsuz etkiler.                                                                       |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| <b>Makro Sorunlar</b>                                                                                                                                              |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 45.SAMİKAD'ın üyelerine girişimcilik eğitimi olanaklarını sunması, üyelerinin başarısını olumlu etkiler.                                                           |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 46.SAMİKAD üyeleri arasındaki işbirliği, fırsatların değerlendirilmesi için önem taşır                                                                             |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 47.Kredi kuruluşlarının SAMİKAD üyesi kadın girişimcilere desteklerinin artırılması kadın girişimcilerin başarısını olumlu etkiler.                                |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |
| 48.Türkiye'de kadın girişimcilerin örgütlenme düzeyi yeterlidir.                                                                                                   |                                |                     |                   |                    |                            |

**49. Sosyal Girişimcilikte Kadın Social Girişimcilerin Karşılaştıkları Temel Zorluklar Hangileridir. Bir Kaç Seçenek Seçebilirsiniz.**

- ( ) 1.Finansmana erişimde zorluklar ( ) 2.Görünürlük ve tanıma eksikliği ( ) 3.Zaman eksikliği  
( ) 4.Yasal çerçeve eksikliği  
( ) 5.Çalışanları işe almak ve elde tutmak için zorluklar ( ) 6.Kişisel destek eksikliği  
( ) 7. Liderlik ve özgüven eksikliği

( ) 8.İş becerilerinin  
eksikliği ( ) 9. Diğer

**BÖLÜM 4. SAMİKAD Yönetim Uygulamaları İle İlgili İfadelere Katılma Derecenizi Lütfen Belirtiniz.**

| Yönetim Yapısı                                                                                                                            | Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Kararsızım | Katılıyorum | Tamamen Katılıyorum |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|------------|-------------|---------------------|
| 50.SAMİKAD yönetimince üyelerin beklenti ve tercihleri rutin olarak takip edilmektedir.                                                   |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 51.SAMİKAD yönetimi üyelerinin fikir ve önerilerine karşı açık duruş sergilemektedir.                                                     |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 52.Yenilik getirici proje geliştirmek isteyen üyelere gerekli imkân ve destek verilmektedir                                               |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 53.Üyeler arası çalışma ve işbirliği teşvik edilmektedir.                                                                                 |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 54.SAMİKAD'ın değer yargılarında katılımcılık esastır.                                                                                    |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| <b>İletişim Ve Koordinasyon</b>                                                                                                           |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 55.SAMİKAD yönetimi ile SAMİKAD üyeleri arasındaki iletişimin kalitesi ve sıklığı çok yüksektir.                                          |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 56.SAMİKAD üyelerinin kendi aralarındaki iletişimin kalitesi ve sıklığı çok yüksektir.                                                    |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 57.SAMİKAD üyelerinin SAMİKAD üyesi olmayan sektördeki diğer rakipleriyle iletişim kaliteleri çok yüksektir.                              |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| <b>Denetim</b>                                                                                                                            |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 58.Tüm üyeler SAMİKAD yönetimi tarafından çok sıkı bir biçimde kontrol edilmektedir.                                                      |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 59.SAMİKAD üyeleri, girişimlerinin gidişatıyla ilgili olarak SAMİKAD yönetimine yılda birkaç kez yazılı rapor sunmaları zorunludur.       |                         |              |            |             |                     |
| 60.SAMİKAD üyelerinin üyeliklerinin başlamasında ve devamında uymak zorunda oldukları pek çok politika ve prosedürü yönetim izlemektedir. |                         |              |            |             |                     |

**BÖLÜM 5. 61. Aşağıdaki Sorunların Hangisini Stk`In Önünde Duran Temel Zorluk Olarak Görüyorsunuz?**

- ( ) 1.Stratejik planlama eksikliği.  
( ) 2.Uygun ağ oluşturma eksikliği  
( ) 3.Sektör içinde çok zayıf iletişim  
( ) 4.Sınırlı kapasite (teknik ve organizasyonel)  
( ) 5.Gelişim yaklaşımları  
( ) 6.Uluslararası sivil toplum örgütü ile ilişkiler  
( ) 7.Siyasi müdahale  
( ) 8.Para almak için zorluklar  
( ) 9.Yönetim eksikliği  
( ) 10.Demokrasi eksikliği  
( ) 11. Katılım ve bilgi eksikliği  
( ) 12. Mali kaynak eksikliği  
( ) 13.Diğer.....

**62. Eğer sorunları iç ve dış zorluklar olarak ayırırsak aşağıdakilerden hangisini dış zorluk olarak görüyorsunuz? Birden fazla seçenek seçebilirsiniz.**

- 1.( ) Siyasi müdahale
- 2.( ) Devlet fonlarına erişim için bir ülke içinde kurallar ve düzenlemeler
- 3.( ) Donör önyargıları
- 4.( ) Seller, depremler, savaş gibi doğal ve insan yapımı olaylar
- 5.( ) Aynı sektördeki STK'lar arasında rekabet
- 6.( ) İlgili ağ türü
- 7.( ) Diğer.....

**63. Aşağıdailerden hangisini STK'ız için iç zorluklar olarak değerlendiriyorsunuz. Birden fazlaseçenek seçebilirsiniz**

- 1.( ) Organizasyonlar içinde kapasite sınırlaması
- 2.( ) Hesap verebilirlik ve şeffaflık
- 3.( ) Kurucu sendromu
- 4.( ) Yetersiz stratejik ve operasyonel planlar
- 5.( ) Yetersiz ağ (network) beerileri
- 6.( ) Mevcut fırsatlar hakkında yetersiz farkındalık
- 7.( ) Yetersiz yönetim becerileri
- 8.( ) Minimal iletişim ve markalaşma
- 9.( ) İnsan kaynaklarının yönetilmesinde zorluklar (personel, eğitim ve s.);
- 10.( ) Diğer.....

## **BÖLÜM 6. Demografik Özelliklerinize Ve İşletmelerinize Yönelik Bilgiler**

**64. Yaşınız**

- ( ) 20 yaşın altı; ( ) 21-30; ( ) 31-40; ( ) 41-50; ( ) 50 ve üzeri

**65. Eğitim durumunuz**

- ( ) İlk öğretim; ( ) Lise; ( ) Üniversite; ( ) Yüksek lisans; ( ) Doktora; ( ) Diğer .....

**66. Medeni haliniz**

- ( ) Evli; ( ) Bekar

**67. Çocuğunuz var mı, varsa çocuk sayınız;**

- 1 ( ) Çocuğum yok
- 2 ( ) 1-2 çocuk
- 3 ( ) 3-4 çocuk
- 4 ( ) 5 ve daha fazla

**68. Mesleki bilgi ve becerilerinizi nasıl kazandınız? (Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz)**

1. ( ) Aileden; 2. ( ) İş hayatından; 3. ( ) Örgün ve yaygın eğitim yoluyla;
4. ( ) Meslek edindirme programları ile (kurs, eğitim vb); 5 ( ) Diğer (Belirtiniz)

**69. İşletmenizin kuruluş yılı**

- ( ) 2011 ve öncesi; ( ) 2011-2015; ( ) 2015-2020; Diğer .2020-den sonra.....

**70. Firmanızda toplam çalışan sayısı**

- ( ) 0-50; ( ) 50-100; ( ) 100-150; ( ) 150 ve üzeri

## **BÖLÜM 7. SAMİKAD`la aşağıdaki genel soruları lütfen cevaplarmısınız**

**71. SAMİKAD`a üyemisiniz? ( ) Evet; ( ) Hayır**

**72. SAMİKAD'a üye olan kişi sayısı**

☐ 1-10; ☐ 10-20; ☐ 20-40; ☐ 40 ve üzeri

**73. SAMİKAD'da hiç gönüllü çalıştınız mı?** ☐ Evet; ☐ Hayır

**74. SAMİKAD'ı hiç arkadaşınıza önerdiniz mi?** ☐ Evet; ☐ Hayır

**75. SAMİKAD faaliyetleri hakkında hangi kanallardan bilgi alıyorsunuz?**

☐ Facebook; ☐ Twitter; ☐ Instagram; ☐ E-posta; ☐ WhatsApp; (☐ Arkadaş; ☐ Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz).....

**76. SAMİKAD genel olarak sizde ne çağırışını yapıyor?**

☐ Olumlu; ☐ Olumsuz; ☐ Ne olumlu, ne olumsuz

**77. Başka bi sivil toplum kuruluşuna üyemisiniz?** ☐ Evet; ☐ Hayır

**78. SAMİKAD'ın sizi öncelikle hangi konuda desteklemesini isterdiniz?**

☐ İş bulma; ☐ Hak arama; ☐ Meslek içi eğitim; ☐ İş koşullarının

düzeltilmesi; ☐ Diğer .....

**79. SAMİKAD sosyal girişimcilikte hangi rola sahip?**

☐ Hizmet sağlama; ☐ Acil yardım; ☐ İnsan hakları;

☐ Sağlık; ☐ Eğitim; ☐ İstihdam; ☐ Diğer .....



**ONDOKUZ MAYIS ÜNİVERSİTESİ**  
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| KARAR TARİHİ | TOPLANTI SAYISI | KARAR SAYISI |
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Üniversitemiz Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü öğrencisi Gülara HASANOVA' nın Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Bahar TÜRK danışmanlığında “Sosyal Girişimcilikte Kadınların ve Sivil Toplum Kuruluşlarının Rolü Ve Karşılaştıkları Zorluklar: Samsun İş Kadınları Derneği (SAMİKAD) Örneği / The Role Of Women And Nongovernmental Organizations In Social Entrepreneurship And The Challenges They Face Case Of Samsun Business Women Association” isimli Yüksek Lisans Tezine ilişkin anket çalışmasını içeren 9179 sayılı dilekçesi okunarak görüşüldü.

Üniversitemiz Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü öğrencisi Gülara HASANOVA' nın Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Bahar TÜRK danışmanlığında “Sosyal Girişimcilikte Kadınların ve Sivil Toplum Kuruluşlarının Rolü Ve Karşılaştıkları Zorluklar: Samsun İş Kadınları Derneği (SAMİKAD) Örneği / The Role Of Women And Nongovernmental Organizations In Social Entrepreneurship And The Challenges They Face Case Of Samsun Business Women Association” isimli Yüksek Lisans Tezine ilişkin anket çalışmasının kabulüne oy birliği ile karar verildi.

## **CURRICULUM VITAE**

Gulara Hasanova graduated from Baku Ayaz Meherremov High School in Baku, Azerbaijan, and from the History Department of Baku State University in 2008. 2012 she graduated from the Azerbaijan University of Economics MBA Master's program. In 2020, she won OMU Entrepreneurship and Innovation Master's program. He speaks fluent English, Russian, and Turkish. His main areas of interest are data science, digital marketing, social entrepreneurship, SEO, and technology (12.05.2022).

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### **Publications:**

1. Hasanova G. (2023). “The Role of Women in Social Entrepreneurship”, Digital Resilience and Sustainable Entrepreneurship in the Time of Covid. *Efe Academy Publishing*, Istanbul, 187-218.