

MERVI RAUDSAAR

Developments of social
entrepreneurship in Estonia



MERVI RAUDSAAR

Developments of social
entrepreneurship in Estonia



UNIVERSITY OF TARTU
Press

Institute of Social Studies, University of Tartu, Estonia

The dissertation is accepted for commencement of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (in Sociology) on 30 June 2016, by the council of the Institute of Social Studies, University of Tartu.

Supervisors: Professor Tõnis Mets (PhD), University of Tartu
Associate Professor Judit Strömpl (PhD), University of Tartu

Opponent: Associate Professor Arnis Sauka, Stockholm School of
Economics in Riga

Commencement: Date: October 21, 2016.

The publication of this dissertation is granted by the Institute of Social Studies,
University of Tartu.

ISSN 1736-0307
ISBN 978-9949-77-235-3 (print)
ISBN 978-9949-77-236-0 (pdf)

Copyright: Mervi Raudsaar, 2016

University of Tartu
www.tyk.ee

CONTENTS

LIST OF ORIGINAL STUDIES.....	6
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	8
1. INTRODUCTION.....	9
1.1. The context of this dissertation.....	10
1.2. The aim and objectives of this dissertation	13
2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	15
2.1. Theoretical explanations of social entrepreneurship	15
2.2. Entrepreneurial process – the feature and measure of social entrepreneurship	19
2.3. Influences of social entrepreneurship in terms of social policy.....	22
3. METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	28
3.1. How to identify social entrepreneurship?	28
3.2. Data and methods	29
4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	35
4.1. Study I: Identification of social entrepreneurship	36
4.2. Study II: Examination of social entrepreneurship	38
4.3. Study III: Activity levels for social entrepreneurship in Estonia....	40
4.4. Study IV: Practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia.....	43
5. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS	47
5.1. Conclusions	47
5.2. Recommendations for policy and further studies	50
SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN	52
REFERENCES.....	60
PUBLICATIONS	69
CURRICULUM VITAE	135
ELULOOKIRJELDUS.....	138

LIST OF ORIGINAL STUDIES

This dissertation is based on original publications, which will be referred to by their respective Roman numbers. These publications are presenting findings of four studies on the field of social entrepreneurship.

- I Raudsaar, M. & Kaseorg, M. (2013). An exploration of social entrepreneurship in Estonia. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies*, 2(2), 19–29.
- II Mets, T., Raudsaar, M. & Summatavet, K. (2013). Experimenting social constructivist approach in entrepreneurial process-based training: Cases in social, creative and technology entrepreneurship. In M. Curley & P. Formica (Eds.), *The Experimental Nature of New Venture Creation* (pp. 95–113). Springer-Verlag.
- III Raudsaar, M., Paes, K. & Mets, T. (2015). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) – outcomes of societal meaning in Estonia. *Management of Organizations: Systematic Research*, 74, 103–120.
- IV Raudsaar, M. & Kaseorg, M. (2013). Social entrepreneurship as an alternative for disabled people. *GSTF Journal on Business Review*, 2(3), 120–125.

The publications are (re)printed with kind permission from the respective publishers: The Social Sciences Research Society (International Journal of Business and Management Studies); Springer Verlag; Vytautas Magnus University (Management of Organizations: Systematic Research) and The Global Science and Technology Forum (Journal on Business Review).

Related studies:

- Summatavet, K. & Raudsaar, M. (2015). Cultural heritage and entrepreneurship – inspiration for novel ventures creation. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 9(1), 31–44.
- Paes, K., Raudsaar, M. & Mets, T. (2014). Ettevõtlusest ja ettevõtlikkusest – Globaalse Ettevõtlusmonitooringu uuring Eestis. *Riigikogu Toimetised*, 29, 97–115.
- Kaseorg, M., Raudsaar, M. & Uba, L. (2010). Social entrepreneurship and creative economy as alternative ways for entrepreneurship in Estonia. *Proceedings CD: International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (ICERI 2010)*, Madrid, Spain, 15.–17.11.2010, 6723–6732.

Author's contribution

The author of this thesis made a major contribution to the four studies, which have been published and are added to the current dissertation.

All studies were carried out and published with co-authorship. The author of this dissertation is the first author of **Study I, III and IV**, second author of **Study II**. The author made a major contribution to all studies.

The author was responsible for designing research plans, defining of research problems, formulating research questions, working through empirical materials, data collection, interviewing and data analysis, interpreting and generalising results. The author also contributed to the writing of manuscripts.

The author has made a significant contribution to developing the entrepreneurship teaching methodology Entrepreneurship Home™, which underlies **Study II**.

Study III is based on the Estonian Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring (GEM) 2012 survey and the author was a member of the national team. Her roles were to elude questions concerning social entrepreneurship, and undertake data analysis, interpreting and generalising of the results.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all I owe gratitude to my supervisors Tõnis Mets and Judit Strömpl. They have always been ready to inspire and support me, asking critical and aiding questions. They have guided me to continue and find solutions in complicated circumstances.

The topic of this dissertation is cross-disciplinary and therefore it has on occasions been really exhaustive to reach conclusions that are acceptable in both disciplines.

My great appreciation goes to Dagmar Kutsar for supportive comments and advice in structuring and presenting the current material. I am very grateful to my colleagues from the Centre for Entrepreneurship and Chair of Entrepreneurship at Tartu University for a friendly and supportive environment for research. Together, especially with Merike Kaseorg, we have conducted interesting surveys and had fruitful discussions.

I would like to take this opportunity to thank the European Social Fund and INTERREG programmes for supporting the development and implementation of the entrepreneurship methodology that I used in the research for the current dissertation.

Last, but not least, my special thanks go to my family for their support and faith in my endeavours. My children and husband have, for years, been missing the care and attention that they deserve, my parents have nurtured my children so many times when I had to work and was busy with this dissertation. And finally, my sincere gratitude belongs to my brother who heartened me to complete this intellectual journey.

1. INTRODUCTION

Social entrepreneurship is both complex and cross-disciplinary. It may be practiced either within different sectors of society or within all sectors of society simultaneously; these activities bring different interest groups together. Therefore, social entrepreneurship should be examined using a methodology that takes into account all of its aspects and makes an international comparison of its findings possible.

According to Dimaggio (1988), the differences between social entrepreneurs and institutional entrepreneurs can be seen in that institutional entrepreneurs are actors with an interest in modifying institutional structures or creating new ones, and who leverage resources to create new institutions or transform them. Efficiency for institutional entrepreneurs is considered in terms of profit (money), while social entrepreneurship considers itself a rather symbiotic part of society, sharing interests with other institutions, and efficiency is measured in terms of the growth of social welfare and cohesion (Stephenson, 2008). The generation of money is a secondary and supportive objective.

This dissertation examines a model of social entrepreneurship, specifically, the elements of entrepreneurial processes within social entrepreneurship, and identifies features and elements of social entrepreneurship in Estonia. The focus is on social entrepreneurship in Estonia as an outcome of historical developments and on contemporary practices. In accordance with the interdisciplinary nature of the subject of this survey, all research is conducted from the multidisciplinary perspective with a focus on sociology.

The current practices in social entrepreneurship in Estonia are influenced by previous historical processes. Before World War II liaison was widely practiced in different forms of cooperation. But during the Soviet occupation only practices in accordance with the communist ideology were allowed. After re-gaining independence a consistently liberal free market economy was applied in Estonia as a reaction to the communist planned economy. Therefore, social entrepreneurship could be seen as something alien in contemporary Estonia, not understood nor shared by the majority of Estonian entrepreneurs and society (Survey of charitable attitudes, 2013).

The main reason for the current research is to study how social entrepreneurship is practiced in Estonia. More precisely, the purpose of this research is to describe social entrepreneurship in Estonia as the outcome of developments since re-gaining independence during the period 1991–2014 and to test a research model.

Previous studies of social entrepreneurship in Estonia (Pärenson, 2011) have targeted the assessment of the social impact of not-for-profit organisations in the context of organisational studies and not to provide a wider view of the phenomenon. The current dissertation explores practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia, and to that end a model for identifying social entrepreneurship is proposed. This model is tested within the sphere of social entrepreneurship in Estonia.

1.1. The context of this dissertation

This subchapter presents an overview of the historical background and developments in society and more specifically social enterprises in Estonia. Socio-cultural, economic and political environment are the result of long-term processes shaping the societal context for any social phenomenon.

Welter (2011) indicates the same about entrepreneurship: “there is growing recognition that economic behaviour is more precisely explained within its context(s)” (Welter, 2011: 165). That approach of exploring social entrepreneurship has also been followed in different contexts by a wide range of scholars (e.g. Low & MacMillan, 1988). The context may be social (Granovetter, 1985), spatial (Katz & Steyaert, 2004), institutional (Polanyi, 1957) or societal (Weber, 1984). Baumol (1990) stresses that the conditions for entrepreneurship ‘do’ change dramatically from one time and place to another.

The Republic of Estonia was occupied and incorporated within the Soviet Union in the periods of 1940–1941 and 1944–1991. The Soviet system did not support any kind of entrepreneurship; private profitable trade was called speculation and was considered a crime against the state. However, the Soviet rulers were witness to informal and illicit markets, where people exchanged goods and services (Boettke, 1993; Kornai, 1992; Nove, 1993) and according to Sautet (2013), informal markets were present throughout the Soviet Union. This means that entrepreneurs were active, discovering opportunities to seize gains from trade in order to improve their daily lives and fill gaps in the official economic system.

Private businesses in the Soviet Union after World War II were generated gradually during Gorbachev's economic reforms starting in 1987, when the first co-operatives were launched and the first joint ventures with Western companies were established (e.g. Elvex in 1989, a Soviet-Swedish joint factory for car windscreens).

In the Soviet Union, the small Republic of Soviet Estonia was suitable for economic reform experiments, which were badly needed to stimulate the severely depressed economy of the Soviet Union. Estonian opinion leaders used this situation cleverly, and in 1987, launched the idea of Estonian Economic Autonomy aimed at establishing economic self-management for Estonia, which was subsequently accepted by the Soviet rulers (Mets, 2008; Varblane & Mets, 2010).

This provided Estonia with an advantage compared with other Soviet republics. Estonian economic development is explored by Lauristin and Vihalemm et al. (1997, 2009) in terms of the periodization of the Estonian transition. The first phase, restoration of market institutions (1988–1991), can be characterized by sharply negative economic growth, hyperinflation and mythological social rhetoric – stories about the origin of Estonians and their historical fight for self-determination (Lauristin et al., 1997).

The second phase from 1991–1994 began with the restoration of Estonia's independence. The most important reform was the introduction in 1992 of

Estonia's own currency – the kroon, which replaced the hyper inflating Russian rouble. This transition to a market economy opened new opportunities for private enterprises and self-employment. Most state-owned enterprises were privatised into the hands of investors or went bankrupt because their production was no longer needed. New enterprises were set up and led by young people (Tallo & Terk, 1998: 15), and were referred to as the 'generation of winners'.

The third phase, 1995–1998, is marked by economic and cultural stabilization, as well as social adaptation to rapid changes – a transition from a society oriented towards seniority to a society oriented towards youth. Youth became a significant factor of social success. Hand in hand with the first signs of economic development, society became increasingly stratified between cohorts of 'winners' and 'losers'; that is, people benefitting from or being victimized by the economic and social changes (Titma, Tuma & Silver, 1998). Studies of this period explain that not all 'winners' were successful (Grishakova & Kazjulja, 2008; Helemäe et al., 2000). This period was the start of integration with the EU and NATO.

The fourth phase, 1999–2004, was a time of the growth of inner tensions and intensive preparations (in Estonia) for EU accession. Accession happened in 2004, and from 2006 onwards, EU structural funds were open for Estonian applicants. The fifth phase, 2005–2008, was a period of new post EU accession challenges, but also a period of an identity crisis – a turn from economic growth to slowdown (Lauristin & Vihalemm, 2009).

These economic and political changes also mark the rebirth of civil society. The leading groups in this Estonian re-awakening were the cultural elite, dissident groups and new NGOs. During the period 1988–1994, the number of NGOs increased by approximately 85%.

In the Western world, the third sector is mainly works to solve social and welfare problems (Salamon et al., 2000: 9). Emerging from past experiences, a traditionalist approach to the third sector was adopted in Estonia, directing citizen's initiatives towards cultural societies and clubs, leisure time activities and hobbies (Ruutsoo, 1999: 51). The third sector in Estonia only had one role – to protect the Estonian language and culture, and so it was until the late 1980s.

For the third sector to take on the role of employer was something new. Today, in Estonia, the third sector has only reached the level that was normal in other Western countries around the beginning of the 20th century (Network of Estonian Non-profit Organisations, 2010). So there is clearly a developmental difference in the third sector between Western Europe and post-communist countries: "Compared to developing countries and former European socialist countries the third sector in EU countries has been profiled as a large scale employer, it has been focused on objectives of the welfare state and it is financially based on subsidies from the public sector" (Salamon & Anheier, 1998: 218).

In Estonia, mainstream entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship have been developing in different directions. This happened first of all because the Estonian economy was reorganized according to the ideology of a liberal free

market and it still is consistently liberal. This has enforced a classical separation of mainstream entrepreneurship from social entrepreneurship.

However, in Estonia, where the rural community has had a significant impact on the whole of society through the centuries, community entrepreneurship as a form of social entrepreneurship has a critical role in supporting local life and creating social networks. To identify and examine social entrepreneurship it is therefore vitally important to take into account the wide range of forms of informal societies and social activity generally.

The authors of the book “Societal Entrepreneurship: Positioning, Penetrating, Promoting” claim that “[m]ost social ventures cross the boundaries between the private, public and non-profit/voluntary sectors. This broad involvement of actors and intertwining of sectors makes the label ‘societal’ entrepreneurship appropriate” (Berglund, Johannisson & Schwartz, 2012: 4). This approach to societal entrepreneurship is followed in the current dissertation.

The characteristics of Estonia’s development in regard to communities and social networks, while being specific to the country, are by no means unique in the world. Social entrepreneurship in Estonia can be examined alongside that of many other countries in the former Soviet bloc.

Practices in social entrepreneurship depend not only on the traditions of the third sector and the development of the economy in a particular state but these practices are also influenced by the model of social policy in that state. To date this area has only been approached by international surveys to a limited extent. It is therefore relevant to explore in addition to economic policy how different models of social policy have also influenced the generation of social entrepreneurship. In this way measures for improving social enterprises that supply social wellbeing and uphold the sustainability of the social system may be proposed.

Social entrepreneurship in Eastern European countries has been studied by Borzaga and Galera (2004), and Defourney and Nyssens (2010 a)). According to their findings, in contrast to the tendencies in Western Europe, where social enterprises are currently undergoing a renewal, several obstacles are slowing the growth of social enterprises in Central and Eastern European countries, including Estonia. These obstacles are: a) dominance of the ‘transition myth’; b) cultural distrust of co-operatives; c) excessive dependence of social enterprises on donors; d) frailness of the legal frameworks for regulating non-profit organisations; e) common lack of confidence in solidarity movements (Defourney, 2004: 14).

All of these factors also hamper the establishment and growth of social entrepreneurship in Estonia, while at the same time, current research shows a high willingness among Estonian inhabitants to practice social entrepreneurship.

1.2. The aim and objectives of this dissertation

This dissertation is organized around four original studies (**Study I–IV**) of social entrepreneurship.

Social enterprises mobilise and utilise social resources in ways that mainstream enterprises are unable to do. Social enterprises are often established to help solve social problems and in so doing, support social cohesion and economic flexibility both of which can facilitate living together in a small country.

The aim of this dissertation is to describe and examine social entrepreneurship in Estonia as the outcome of the development of the second period of independence 1991–2014, and propose a model for studying social entrepreneurship. For that purpose, the author identifies social entrepreneurship, examines features of entrepreneurial processes within social entrepreneurship and tests practices of social entrepreneurship in an Estonian context (see Figure 1).

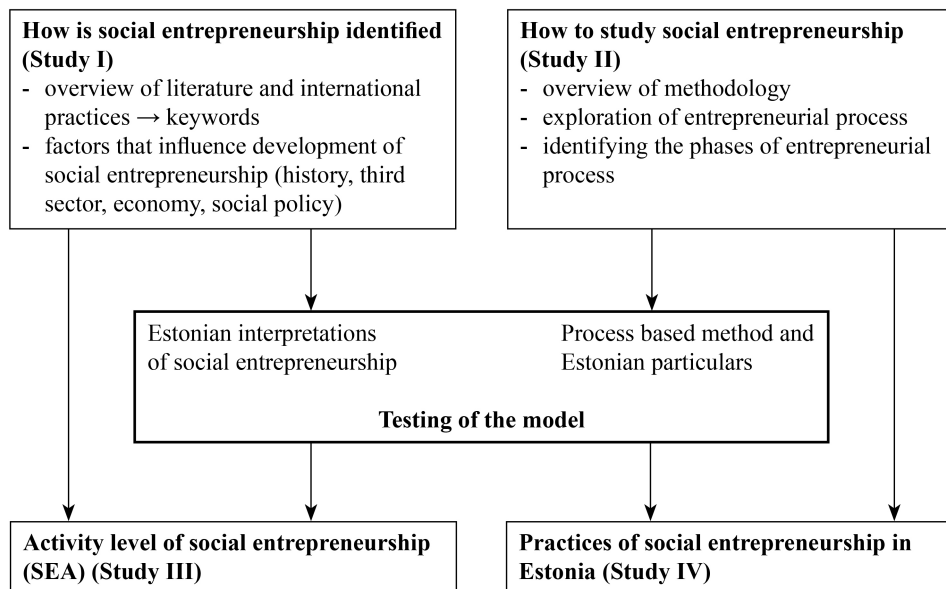


Figure 1. Structure of this dissertation.

Source: compiled by the author.

The following research objectives were established:

1. To identify social entrepreneurship.
2. To examine social entrepreneurship.
3. To test the proposed model in Estonia.

These research objectives were further operationalised into tasks for the current research:

1. To identify social entrepreneurship. First, a theoretical overview of the concepts, historical and theoretical antecedents of social enterprise and its contemporary practices in different social policy contexts is introduced (**Study I**). Second, the contemporary exploration of social entrepreneurship is described including an appropriate and accurate methodology for researching these practices in Estonia.
2. To examine social entrepreneurship as (an entrepreneurial) process. First, this means qualitatively studying the (stages and) content of the entrepreneurial process during the launch of social enterprise ventures. The methodology for researching the entrepreneurial process establishes a theoretical framework for exploring how the entrepreneurial process is implemented within social entrepreneurship (**Study II**). Second, this also supposes collecting quantitative data about social entrepreneurship in Estonian society. To that end, the well-known and internationally accepted Global Entrepreneurship Monitor methodology was elaborated and implemented (**Study III**).
3. To test the model of the process-based approach and measurement methods in Estonia and describe the practices. Exploring the potential of process-based research of entrepreneurial activities through the application of GEM methodology and proving its validity for measuring the activities of social entrepreneurship (**Study III**) and explaining the fusion of liberal (USA – earned income and social innovation) and social-democratic (European – expensive welfare system, especially in Nordic countries) approaches to social entrepreneurship in Estonia, using as examples, work integration social enterprises (WISE) (**Study IV**).

The dissertation draws upon original publications (**Studies I–IV**) and the aim of this introductory article is to present an analytical overview of these **Studies**. The opening section offers an overview of the context of social entrepreneurship. The first chapter provides the theoretical framework for researching entrepreneurship, especially social entrepreneurship. The second chapter describes the data and methods used in **Studies I–IV**. The third chapter presents the findings of the empirical studies together with a discussion of the findings. Within the final chapter, conclusions from previous chapters are drawn and some suggestions presented, this is followed by a short summary. Finally, a summary in Estonian and list of references are presented.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The main focus of this research is the examination of social entrepreneurship in a manner that explores and comprehensively explains how social entrepreneurship is implemented and practiced in Estonia.

The theoretical chapter of this thesis begins with an overview of the debate on contemporary conceptions of social entrepreneurship, followed by a discussion on different approaches taken towards social entrepreneurship within particular political and historical contexts and explains the characteristics of these practices (**Studies I and IV**).

The theoretical framework of the current dissertation is based upon two strands: *social entrepreneurship as a universal human phenomenon* and a *study of social entrepreneurship using the process-based approach*. Firstly, social entrepreneurship is observed as a universal phenomenon combining both the entrepreneurial and social sides of individuals. In spite of the large variation of explanations and approaches to social entrepreneurship, there are universal common practices that may be surveyed and compared internationally. Secondly, the author of this dissertation decided to apply the process-based approach for examining social entrepreneurship in Estonia (**Study III**).

The reason for such a decision is that the process-based approach facilitates the study of social entrepreneurship in all its complexity, taking into account the three levels: individual, group and society. There are already similar approaches within international research (Bosma & Levie, 2010), and further, the Centre for Entrepreneurship at Tartu University has already used the process-based theoretical approach for entrepreneurial studies for more than 10 years (**Study II**).

2.1. Theoretical explanations of social entrepreneurship

The first research question for achieving the aims of this dissertation is: How is it possible to identify social entrepreneurship?

The concept of social entrepreneurship has only been used within the scientific world since the 1980s, so it is rather a recent field of interdisciplinary scientific inquiry (Defourny & Nyssens, 2012; Seymour, 2012).

Social entrepreneurship enables and supports development even where mainstream enterprises do not see any opportunities for business. For example, Grameen Bank has generated development within a destitute society with very limited resources (Jain, 1996). In this example, the Bank releases the benefits of entrepreneurship for livelihood to those poor people who are not regarded as clients by financial organisations that associate entrepreneurship with profit making business in a narrow sense.

Nowadays, enterprises within different fields are seeking different kinds of outcomes – for mainstream enterprises, that means material profit, for creative

industries it is self-realization and for social enterprises it is social impact or output. Surely, it is not something new that social services are related to the earning of profit, since social and educational institutions, but also hospitals, have already practiced this for centuries. But it is something new that entrepreneurship is spreading into non-traditional areas of entrepreneurship such as financial intermediation, environment, IT, and so on (Dorado, 2006). Today, entrepreneurship can be seen to be increasingly integrating spheres that were segregated in previous times. Networks are becoming substantial.

In the early days of research in this field, the term ‘social’ was tightly connected with traditional social policy – the activities involved in helping groups at risk, like the poor, disabled people, children, mothers, the unemployed and the elderly. Nowadays, the scope of the term ‘social’ has broadened to include activities that have societal impact and embrace many different spheres of entrepreneurship (environmental, educational, creative industries, cultural, agricultural, IT etc.).

The concept of entrepreneurship goes back to the 17th–18th centuries, when French economists defined an entrepreneur as someone who undertakes. In the 19th century, Jean-Baptiste Say defined an entrepreneur as a person who creates value by shifting “economic resources out of an area of lower and into an area of higher productivity and greater yield” (Martin & Osberg, 2007: 2). In the 20th century, Joseph Schumpeter described an entrepreneur as an agent of change. The latter has now become the most common interpretation of social entrepreneurship within contemporary discourse (Dees et al., 2001; Dees, 1998; Schumpeter, 2005).

Some researchers refer to social entrepreneurship as not-for-profit initiatives seeking alternative strategic plans for funding, and management schemes to create social value (Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skiller, 2006; Boschee, 1998). While others explain it as the socially responsible practice of commercial businesses engaged in cross-sector partnerships (Sagawa & Segal, 2000; Waddock, 1988). Further descriptions include social entrepreneurship as a means to alleviate social problems and catalyse social transformation, pointing to the importance of the entrepreneurial environment and its process of becoming social (Alvord et al., 2004).

In addition, there are different views about the impact of the circumstances of the practices of social entrepreneurship. Some scholars are convinced that the personal characteristics of a particular entrepreneur are more important than the environment, and only the presence of unique individual traits will make somebody into a social entrepreneur (Dees et al., 2002; Thompson et al., 2000). Other writers, on the contrary, highlight that social entrepreneurship depends mostly on social context and local environment (Low & MacMillan, 1988).

Although mainstream and social entrepreneurship are linked, social entrepreneurship should not be understood and dealt with only through ordinary business terminology (Dorado, 2006). The individual traits of social entrepreneurs are an object of interest for the current dissertation, especially within the context of transition countries.

Descriptions of social entrepreneurship typically refer to a ‘process’ or ‘behaviour’, yet descriptions of social entrepreneurs focus instead on the founder of the initiative, and descriptions of social enterprises refer to the tangible outcome of social entrepreneurship. Despite the variety of descriptions, systematic attempts to map these activities and formulate comprehensive definitions are rare (Boschee, 1995; Waddock & Post, 1995 are two exceptions).

Current descriptions of entrepreneurial practices have failed to capture the whole picture. According Wiklund et al. (2011), research on entrepreneurship is changing from a theory-driven approach to a practices driven approach. Authors have stated that it is scientifically more productive to study entrepreneurship in terms of establishing new ventures (Gartner, 1988) than as the launching of new economic activities (Davidsson & Wiklund, 2001) or opportunity discovery and exploitation (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), since ventures may be observed and measured more precisely than economic activities (Wiklund et al., 2011).

According to this approach, entrepreneurship generally and social entrepreneurship specifically, should be studied in the holistic context of venture-launch. This method of studying entrepreneurial processes through the practice of launching new ventures has been adopted by Tartu University for years. Based on earlier experience (e.g. Mets, 2005), the entrepreneurial process approach became the wider basis for entrepreneurship training with the implementation of the Entrepreneurship Home® methodology at the University of Tartu (UT) in 2007. The teaching of entrepreneurship does not follow the topics of a textbook, but knowledge of and skills for entrepreneurship are developed within the person hand in hand with continuous feedback from processes.

Studying entrepreneurial processes through their practices provides a framework for explaining and exploring all aspects of social entrepreneurship, by associating social entrepreneurs (their personal characteristics) with social enterprises (examples) within a broader context of social entrepreneurship (general environment).

This process-based approach is explained in **Study II** (Mets, Raudsaar & Summatavet, 2013: 112). The “training process follows the logic of the entrepreneurial process (Davidsson, 2005; Sarasvathy et al., 2005) and includes the following sub-processes/stages/actions: idea generation, opportunity recognition, opportunity development and venture launch with different levels of stages. Venture launch could also be understood as opportunity exploitation. Propositions and outcomes of the entrepreneurial process and its sub-processes are mentally and physically embedded within the entrepreneur (or team) and the environment (prior to the venture launch)” (Mets, Raudsaar & Summatavet, 2013: 112).

Therefore, the process-based approach was introduced by **Study II** and its sub-processes were also described in a more detailed way using the concept of ‘silos’ as the result of the exploration of educational experience. “...a silo is the combination of physical and mental shapes corresponding to a single stage of the entrepreneurial process. Feedback signals/information of any mismatch necessitates a change in the content of the silos (models) and a new iteration,

involving all actions/stages or parts of them, which may take place as described by Kolb (1984) or new combinations of goals and means which lead the whole process as is suggested by Sarasvathy (2008) and embeds in the silos again. Therefore, the content of a silo is not static, but components of it are in reciprocal interaction as well as in interaction with the whole entrepreneurial process. So are different areas and types of entrepreneurship covered with the concept of the entrepreneurial process as creating value for the client and society” (Mets, Raudsaar & Summatavet, 2013: 112).

Within the empirical part of the current dissertation, social entrepreneurship is surveyed as an entrepreneurial process, which reflects the following basic assumptions. First, social entrepreneurship is a process of creating value by combining resources in new ways. Second, these resource combinations are intended primarily to explore and utilise opportunities to create social value by meeting the social needs of stimulating social change. Third, as a process, social entrepreneurship offers services and products, but may also refer to the establishing of new organizations (Mair & Marti, 2006).

To sum up, previous reflections may claim that the concept of social entrepreneurship cloaks enterprises with social aims, but also involves organizations, which are capable of sustainability and are socially constructive (Boschee, 2001; Oster et al., 2004; Tracey & Phillips, 2007). The purpose of social entrepreneurship is to create social value rather than wealth for individuals and shareholders (Achleitner et al., 2009; Austin et al., 2006; Zadek & Thake, 1997; Wei-Skillern et al., 2007). In comparison with mainstream entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship may be practiced within all three sectors of society (Leadbeater, 1997: 10).

Social entrepreneurship is an inter-domain activity, and there are two equal sides: social and entrepreneurial. Activities of social entrepreneurship may be embedded in various forms. First, innovative not-for-profit ventures (Dees & Anderson, 2003; Dees, 1998). Second, business ventures with a social purpose (Dees & Anderson, 2006; Emerson & Twersky, 1996). Third, corporate social entrepreneurship (Austin, Leonard, Reficco & Wei-Skillern, 2004). Fourth, hybrid organizations which mix not-for-profit and for-profit elements (Dees, 1998), and fifth, non-formal associations within a local community (Berglund, Johannisson & Schwartz, 2012). Therefore, as Dees (1998) has claimed, new conceptions are helping to broaden the definition of social entrepreneurship.

Scientific research of entrepreneurship is an examination of “how, by whom, and with what effects opportunities to create future goods and services are discovered, evaluated and exploited” (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000: 218). Processes of entrepreneurship are explored and experienced within process-based entrepreneurship teaching (McMullen & Dimov, 2013; Baron & Shane, 2008), to explain how skills, knowledge and attitudes develop within an individual, group and society.

However, while Guclu, Dees and Anderson stress the importance of personal experiences as the source of entrepreneurial ideas, they also recognise social needs and assets as another source of such ideas (Guclu et al., 2002: 2). They

argue that the energy, time and money, being invested in a new social enterprise should be justified by significant and positive social impact. They suggest investigating the activities of the social entrepreneur in two main stages: first, finding a new idea, and second, developing this idea into a promising opportunity (Guclu et al., 2002: 1).

In this dissertation practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia are explored within the framework of the entrepreneurial process. The main difference between social and mainstream entrepreneurship is their comprehension of profit: for mainstream entrepreneurship, profit is first of all material, for social entrepreneurship, the targeted outcome is a social impact.

Lepoutre et al. (2010) point out three major criteria of social entrepreneurship. First, the mission: it is significant and sometimes overlapping (e.g. Certo & Miller, 2008). Second, the income: the role of earned income might differ, but the creation of economic value “is seen as a necessary condition to ensure financial viability” – in terms of the business model (Mair & Marti, 2006: 38). Third, the social innovation: practices involve cutting across organisational or disciplinary boundaries (Mulgan, 2007), and they compel new relationships between previously separate individuals and groups (Nambisan, 2009).

2.2. Entrepreneurial process – the feature and measure of social entrepreneurship

Research into entrepreneurship has a long tradition. However, it is possible we might witness a radical change in paradigm during the coming decades. What if scholars of entrepreneurship have had the wrong mind-set? This provocative question was raised by Sarasvathy and Venkataraman (2011) in *Entrepreneurship as Method: Open Questions for an Entrepreneurial Future*.

The dominant approach to entrepreneurship studies has been the theory-driven research (Wiklund et al., 2011) of enterprises (e.g. factors supporting the establishment of a new venture) and using variance methods (Van de Ven & Engleman, 2004). One alternative might be for researchers to exploit more complex approaches instead; considering on the one hand, analysis of entrepreneur personalities (personal characteristics and individual behaviour), and on the other hand, to take into their consideration the holistic context of entrepreneurial processes. Applying a narrative approach to research into these practices makes it possible to apply focus to the process of entrepreneurship and take into account all factors influencing the process (Wiklund et al., 2011). Otherwise, researchers tend to conceptualize entrepreneurship purely in variance terms (Van de Ven & Engleman, 2004).

Entrepreneurship today represents so much more than just earning money: a change in paradigm is happening in the context of global economic recession and an overall understanding of limited resources. Davidsson and Wiklund (2001) stated that there is a crucial difference between ventures that enrich their

owners at a net loss for society, and those whose retained profits dwarfed in comparison to their societal contribution. According to Patzelt and Shepherd (2011), Sarasvathy and Venkaraman (2011), and McMullan (2011), entrepreneurship is a force to create a better world. This approach has also influenced research into social entrepreneurship (Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern, 2006; Mair & Marti, 2006).

The cornerstone of this new approach is a more precise description and explanation of the entrepreneurial process. There are publications in which it is claimed that the entrepreneurial process has a central role in exploring entrepreneurship (Davidsson, 2005; Sarasvathy et al., 2005; Wiklund et al., 2011). According to Aldrich (2001), the entrepreneurial process may be researched in two ways: outcome-driven and event-driven.

Outcome-driven explanations are built backwards, from observed outcomes to prior events that are causally significant for the outcomes; event-driven explanations are built forwards, from observed or recorded events to outcomes (Aldrich, 2001).

Low and MacMillan (1988) identified three elements that are indispensable for the explanation of entrepreneurial success: process, context and outcomes. The entrepreneurial process involves stages or actions (Davidsson, 2005; Sarasvathy et al., 2005).

According to Ardichvili, Cardozo and Ray (2003), there have been attempts to explore opportunity recognition; however, these have fallen short of offering a comprehensive explanation of the entrepreneurial process, for two main reasons. First, each of these attempts concentrates primarily on only one of the many aspects of the entrepreneurial process. For example, Sigrist (1999) stresses cognitive processes that are involved in opportunity recognition, De Koning (1999) and Hills et al. (1997) point to the context of the social network, while Shane (1999) focuses on the prior knowledge and experience that are necessary for successful recognition.

Kao et al. have explained entrepreneurship as a process of renewal and fashioning for generating societal added value through the actualization of personal business interests (Kao, Kao & Kao, 2002). Sarasvathy and Venkataraman (2011) propose viewing entrepreneurship as a higher-level societal force.

Sarasvathy and Venkataraman argue (2011: 116): “What if, entrepreneurship instead is best viewed as a societal force at a much higher level, something like “democracy” or “the scientific method”?” If so, then entrepreneurship has to be traced and surveyed through a much broader set of human activities than ‘classical’ economy. Then the main actor is not the economy but the entrepreneurial mind-set (whatever the field of activities). In this way entrepreneurship can be explained within the context of the individual and their personal characteristics (including cultural and social capital).

In other words, studies of entrepreneurship should rely on practices of entrepreneurship in which the researcher surveys the entrepreneurial process that includes several stages. This approach enables us to explain exactly what is characteristically entrepreneurial about the object of the research. This also

allows the delineation of the boundaries of the research in terms of practices (some researchers call this ‘phenomenon’), rather than the taxonomy that is applied by a researcher.

Seymour (2012) provided a comprehensive explanation of entrepreneurial activity in which he brings out the following features of entrepreneurship. First, enterprising human action; second, the pursuit of the generation of value; third, the creation or expansion of economic activity; and fourth, the identification and exploitation of new products, processes or markets.

The sheer complexity of social entrepreneurship prompted the author of the current dissertation to apply a joint approach using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. This is a widely used approach in sociology but not yet within economics. The process-based approach allows the comparison of Estonian entrepreneurial examples surveyed using qualitative methods and quantitative international data. Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring (GEM) applies the process-based approach for studying (social) entrepreneurship, through examining its forms of practice (**Study III**).

The GEM study is the largest on-going longitudinal survey of entrepreneurial dynamics in the world (including 69 countries), and explores the role of entrepreneurship in national economic growth, unveiling in detail national features and characteristics associated with entrepreneurial activity (Arro et al., 2013; Xavier et al., 2013). GEM studies individual behaviour during the establishment of an enterprise, considering entrepreneurship as a process, starting with the recognition of opportunities and entrepreneurial intentions which may lead to establishing an enterprise and stimulating its existence for several years into the future (Bosma & Levie, 2010; Xavier et al., 2013).

Within GEM it is assumed that the most important vehicle for economic growth is entrepreneurship. According to GEM, nascent entrepreneurship depends on several factors – such as the availability of entrepreneurial training and the availability of financing for start-ups. From GEM, the Total Early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) survey has emerged. The TEA index measures the proportion of a country’s working-age population actively trying to start a new business (nascent entrepreneurs) and those who at least partially own and manage a business less than 3.5 years old (a baby business) (Reynolds et al., 2005).

The entrepreneurial activity is powered by two components – entrepreneurial opportunities and individual capabilities (motivation and skills) to utilise these opportunities. There will be more companies and more employment if there are more opportunities, and these are more utilized. As a result, though, market competition tightens, and some jobs will be lost. This is entrepreneurial dynamics, expressing the reciprocal relations within entrepreneurship.

One of the purposes of GEM is to explain the relationship between (social) entrepreneurial activities and economic growth. For this purpose, the following features should be scrutinized. First, the social, cultural and political context; second, general guidelines for entrepreneurial activities and legislation; third, the opportunities for entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial capability; fourth,

entrepreneurial dynamics; and fifth, national economic growth and the distribution of wealth between social strata (GINI index¹).

According to Kerlin (2013), practices of social enterprises are influenced by three stages of economic development (factor-driven, efficiency-driven and innovation-driven economy), but also by the characteristics of a particular civil society – type of government, culture, hierarchies, and political and economic history.

Using data from a number of different databases, these characteristics are surveyed worldwide for mapping and comparing the state of affairs of social entrepreneurship (data are collected for the same period with the same method and analysed with the same methodology). Two internationally recognised indices are used for describing civil society, the Index of Civil Liberties that characterizes a civil society (1 – lots of liberties, 6 – opposite), and the GINI index that characterizes the wealth of social classes/hierarchies.

Since the practices of social enterprises and social entrepreneurship are complex, it is reasonable to apply a combined approach when surveying practices of social enterprises and measuring social entrepreneurship in ways that are comparable with international data. This conclusion supports the author's choice of research methods for the current dissertation, especially designing additional questions for the national (Estonian) GEM survey and use of the GEM database.

To conclude this subchapter, let us refer to Lepoutre et al. (2010), who designed the globally standardized methodology for measuring social entrepreneurial activity (SEA). Their team established, based on GEM data and using the methodology of TEA, that countries with higher rates of traditional entrepreneurial activity tend to also have higher rates of social entrepreneurial activity. For methodological reasons some exceptions are made in one particular country (e.g. Brazil) regarding which enterprises are considered social enterprises.

2.3. Influences of social entrepreneurship in terms of social policy

Various conceptions and descriptions of what social entrepreneurship is and which factors are influencing development and practices of social entrepreneurship have been put forward (Defourney & Nyssens, 2010 a, 2012; Kerlin, 2009,

¹ GINI index – Gini index measures the extent to which the distribution of income (or, in some cases, consumption expenditure) among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution. A Lorenz curve plots the cumulative percentages of total income received against the cumulative number of recipients, starting with the poorest individual or household. The Gini index measures the area between the Lorenz curve and a hypothetical line of absolute equality, expressed as a percentage of the maximum area under the line. Therefore a Gini index of 0 represents perfect equality, while an index of 100 implies perfect inequality. (World Bank 2016, <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.GINI>)

2013; Zahra et al., 2009). There are also different views about circumstances in which social entrepreneurship occurs (Leadbeater, 1997: 10). One reason for such a variety of views is that studies of social entrepreneurship have derived from the overlap with other disciplines such as economics, sociology or social psychology (Seymour, 2012).

The major circumstantial differences that influence practices of social entrepreneurship include the social policy of a particular country, the traditions of its civil society and the overall economic environment (Defourney & Nyssens, 2010b). To explain the impact of circumstantial differences, one has to analyse the origins and conditions of the development of practices and participants' explanations of social entrepreneurship, for example, with models of social policy. For this reason, within the current dissertation Esping-Andersen's classification of social policy models is utilised, including the liberal, social-democratic, corporatist and Mediterranean models.

According to Esping-Andersen (1996 and 1999), social policy models are different concerning the relationship of society and the individual. For instance, the liberal model has been implemented in the USA. This kind of social policy is mainly characterised by individuals having responsibility for their own welfare. According to the liberal (also called Anglo-Saxon) model, the main principles are competitive ability and the success of each individual, which also determines their ability to satisfy their social needs; interference by the state is only accepted in the case of ultimate poverty and misery. The state only provides a minimum level of support and provides for a minimum physical living and equality of human rights, supported by the law while social inequalities are considered a stimulating factor for competition.

In the 1970s, the USA faced economic crises that affected the financing of non-governmental organizations: donations for education, health care, community development and poverty programmes were cut off (Kerlin, 2009: 185). The downturn in the economy in the late 1970's led to welfare retrenchment and important cutbacks in federal funding (Salmon & Anheier, 1998). It was a time for seeking new challenges and innovative ways to solve financing problems of these organisations, and as a consequence, two new concepts were launched.

The first is the concept of earned income (Defourney & Nyssens, 2012, 2010a). This is used to characterize the activities of non-profit organizations when reducing deficits caused by the reduction in governmental financial support through the expansion of their commercial activities. This can mean some or even most of the income of non-profit organizations is earned from sales of products or services that are not directly related to their mission, this income is then available for use in fulfilling the social purposes of these organizations.

The second concept was influenced by Schumpeter's (1934) definition of entrepreneurship, according to which the entrepreneur acting as an innovator or agent of change carries out the main role of entrepreneurship; in other words, entrepreneurship is defined by the entrepreneur (Dees, 1998; Bronstein, 2004). Ashoka (The Social Entrepreneurship Organization, founded in 1980) has been the main supporter and propagator of the idea that within social entrepreneur-

ship there has to be a focus, an entrepreneur as innovator and agent of change (Dees & Anderson, 2006), and therefore, this organization has been looking for outstanding individuals who are setting excellent patterns for social change (Defourney & Nyssens, 2012, 2010 a; Drayton & MacDonald, 1993).

Practices of social entrepreneurship have also changed in Europe, which, as in the USA were ignited by economic difficulties. In the European context, social entrepreneurship emerged during 1989 and the 1990s, when most of the European countries faced the withdrawal of financing in their social welfare systems. While the major problem was the persistence of unemployment, the solutions developed varied across the different countries, depending on the specifics of the national social policy models. Table 1 presents an overview of how different social policy models in different countries have influenced practices of social entrepreneurship within those countries.

The characteristics of the corporatist social policy model are: considering community membership, work contribution, and joint family responsibility while social welfare is not ensured to all members of the community by the state. The objective of this model is the reproduction of family and community (as well as the whole nation), and therefore, takes into account the following needs: upbringing of children, belonging to a community with common values, security, loyalty and care for disabled members of the community.

According to the corporate social policy model, the main actors in the social sphere are corporates, but non-government organizations also play a significant role. To deal with the unemployment problem, so-called second labour market programs were launched. These programs encourage the creation of new jobs in areas which satisfy social needs and mark the beginning of the collaboration between the state and the third sector.

The social democratic model is derived from the value inherent in people regardless of their individual success at social competition. The consequence of this is that a dignified standard of living is guaranteed for children, the elderly and handicapped people. Personal welfare is detached from market dependency (the approach of commodification), which is guaranteed to all members of a community. Social differences are bridged; equal social rights are guaranteed, as well as universal benefits for inhabitants of the specific state. The main actor according to this model is the state – the state handles the welfare of every person.

Until the crisis of the welfare state, the tasks of different sectors of society were traditional: the private sector was responsible for business, production and the creation of workplaces, the state was responsible for welfare and civil society for the rights and the activities of the societal agenda. While the main welfare provider or organizer is the public sector, the main customer of social services is the state or local authority. Services delivered by non-government organizations are not market oriented, but state oriented.

Table 1. Social policy models and practices of social entrepreneurship

Social Policy Model	Examples	Characteristics of Social Policy	Characteristics of SE	SE Legal Forms	Reliance on Commercial Revenue
Liberal Model	USA	Market competition, justified stratification, minimum welfare	Attention on entrepreneurship (including NGOs) and connections with private sector	Yes in some states	Moderate (mixed with charity & government revenue)
	United Kingdom	Market competition, justified stratification, minimum welfare	Attention on development of communities, business model, interwoven activities of business and public sector	Yes – Community Interest Company (CIC)	Moderate (mixed with charity & government revenue)
Corporatist (Bismarckian countries) and Continental European Model	Germany	Corporation-oriented approach – assurance of employee broadens to her/his family members. Rising role of NGOs – state delegates them some social tasks	Attention on employment, WISE, significant influence by public sector	No	Moderate (reliant on government subsidies)
Mediterranean Model	Italy	Family/community and church play important role, ‘familial’ welfare state, dominated by Catholic social doctrines	A-type – Social, health and educational services, B-type – Work integration for disadvantaged people	Yes – Social cooperatives	Moderate-Low (reliant on government subsidies)

Social Policy Model	Examples	Characteristics of Social Policy	Characteristics of SE	SE Legal Forms	Reliance on Commercial Revenue
Social-democratic Model	Finland	Universal coverage of services, high welfare	A-type – Work integration for disadvantaged people B-type – Social, health, educational and environmental services	A-type – Yes for work integration companies, B-type – No specific form	A-type – Low (very reliant on government subsidies), B-type – Market-oriented
Post-socialist Welfare Model	Latvia	Catholic influence	WISE	No specific form	Moderate
	Estonia	A-type – Departing from principle of universal support and services + rising role of NGOs B-type – Depends on individuals' personal income + market competition	A-type – Established by local governments, B-type – With entrepreneurial shape	No specific form, most SEs are NGOs	A-type – Moderate (reliant on government subsidies), B-type – Market-oriented

Source: author's derivation on Esping-Andersen, 1999, 1996; Aidukaite, 2009; Defourny & Nyssens, 2008; Ducci et al., 2002; Galera & Borzaga, 2009; Kerlin, 2010, 2013; Les & Kolin, 2009; Nyssens, 2006, 2009. The Estonian model is compiled by the author using data from Study IV.

The Mediterranean (Italian) model is like the corporatist model, but with greater contribution by the church and attention to the family. Several social services and social care are provided by religious organisations and church. Italy has been the pioneer of social entrepreneurship in continental Europe with the main actors of social welfare being family and community; therefore, in Italy co-operatives are widely distributed both in the social field and in agriculture. Central clients of these activities are members of the community.

The United Kingdom with its liberal social policy model, extensive voluntary work and third sector traditions, has a different kind of social entrepreneur-

ship practice. The United Kingdom recently launched a special legal form for social enterprises – community interest company (CIC).

Post-socialist welfare model: Overall, Estonia's welfare system can be referred to as a distinct post-socialist welfare regime. This regime deviates from the other delineated by Esping-Andersen (1990) and is already gaining acceptance within comparative welfare state research (Aidukaite, 2009).

In summing up, in order to provide a comprehensive explanation of social entrepreneurship both the process based approach to entrepreneurship (as a tool for studying social entrepreneurship), and socio-economic context, especially the social policy model, (a main causal factor of differences in practices between countries) should be taken into account. This is an especially fruitful approach when explaining social entrepreneurship in countries like post-Soviet Estonia.

3. METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This chapter introduces the main methodological concerns of social entrepreneurship research and explains the limitations of contemporary approaches. Since social entrepreneurship is inter-disciplinary the methods applied when researching into the subject should be representative of those disciplines. Within the current dissertation social entrepreneurship is studied from the sociological perspective with the objective of elaborating a fruitful and comprehensive model for studying social entrepreneurship.

Firstly, research into social entrepreneurship as scientific inquiry will be discussed in general, following which, the main research methods will be explained and, finally, an overview of data analysis methods applied and used in **Studies I–IV** will be presented.

3.1. How to identify social entrepreneurship?

During the second half of the 20th century, changes have been noted in the social sciences, notably the launching of the interpretative approach. This derives from the understanding that society as reality is constructed, and people create and recreate it within their relations (Berger & Luckmann, 1967; Burr, 2003; Gergen, 2001; Strömpl, 2012).

The focus for interpretative social sciences research is regarded to be the process of the construction of social phenomena and their meanings that are evolving during that process, including an analysis of interpretations of these phenomena and meanings by the people involved. For the current dissertation, the research object is the multifaceted phenomenon and process of social entrepreneurship. That means it is not a steady object of research; people have purposes for their action, and its realisation depends on different factors – a broader and narrower context, political and economic conditions, and so on.

The construction of knowledge concerning social entrepreneurship involves different fields of research and disciplines. Explanations of social entrepreneurship are wide – since first, the main actor of social entrepreneurship is differently understood and is handled with various theories (e.g. non-profit organisation, for-profit organisation, public body, entrepreneur or non-formal unit), while second, the main aim of social entrepreneurship can be described in a number of different ways (to create value: social, societal, cultural, or to solve social problems).

The absence of a common explanation for social entrepreneurship was explored in the previous chapter: some researchers consider the creation of social value as the main characteristic of social entrepreneurship (Austin et al., 2006; Austin, 2006), while others emphasize social aims and objectives (Haugh, 2006; Henry, 2007) or social transformation (Alvord et al., 2004). While these competing explanations of social entrepreneurship are not necessarily an impediment for scientific research of these practices; research would be more

precise if there were a comprehensive explanation of the research object. Since to-date, there is no consensus on how to survey social entrepreneurship; it is still relatively complicated to determine what should be studied and by which methodology when exploring the processes of social entrepreneurship activities.

Social entrepreneurship research is part of scientific inquiry, and the basics of modern sciences may be applied, especially a Cartesian subject-object cleavage (Jaspers, 1956). While this cleavage is traditionally understood in the context of spectator (scientist) and reality (existing objects/processes), so may social entrepreneurship be studied either from the divine point of view (social entrepreneurship is studied from outside as an existing system/process with objective characteristics) (Davidsson, 2005; Low & MacMillan, 1988; Sarasvathy et al., 2005) or from the human point of view (social entrepreneurship is studied from inside as a description of the social entrepreneurs' inner world, which is a subjective interpretation of the interrelations between environment and one's personal resources) (De Koning, 1999; Hills et al., 1997; Sigrist, 1999).

The practice of social entrepreneurship may be described by observing its external indicators; however, the meaning of these descriptions requires interpretation. Therefore, the purpose of the current research is to clarify these different interpretations (from both the internal and external perspectives) through surveying how different groups (entrepreneurs, local communities and society, including scientists) learn, research, practice, understand and interpret social entrepreneurship.

3.2. Data and methods

In the following subchapter the case study strategy is introduced, followed by a description of the methods for data collection and analysis used for **Studies I–IV**.

Case study strategy for examining social entrepreneurship

In most social entrepreneurship research the qualitative inductive approach is used while the quantitative deductive approach is rare. According to Lehner and Kansikas (2012), social entrepreneurship is predominantly researched through case studies and inductive theory building because of the nascent nature of the research into these practices.

The work of the following researchers have largely used case studies as a research strategy: Emerson & Twersky, 1996; Boschee, 2001; Hibbert et al., 2002; Raufflet & Amaral, 2007; Reiser, 2009; Squazzoni, 2009; Thompson et al., 2000; Alvord et al., 2004; Choi & Gray, 2004; Thompson & Doherty, 2006; Yunus, 2003. According to Yin (2003: 1), “case studies are the preferred strategy when ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events and when the focus is on a contemporary

phenomenon within some real-life context”. These presumptions are applied also within the current dissertation for exploring the nature and practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia.

Social entrepreneurship is a dynamic environment – human beings in action, bringing their personality, skills/knowledge and attitudes to bear. The repetitions and patterns of these features require in-depth, objective analysis for a comprehensive exploration of social enterprise activities. Flexible and interactive tools are therefore essential for studying such a dynamic phenomenon. To achieve a comprehensive explanation of social entrepreneurship both qualitative and quantitative data must be taken into account. A case study approach makes it possible to do this, and therefore, the author has decided to use this method as the main approach in this research.

Researchers have demonstrated that the distinctive features of a case study are a detailed and intensive investigation of phenomena within their contexts, using multiple data collection methods and acquiring a multiplicity of contextualised perspectives (Ghauri, 2004; Neergaard, 2007; Snape & Spencer, 2003; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). “A case-study is an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomena and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2003: 18).

According to George and Bennett (2004), the social entrepreneurship researcher benefits from using a case study strategy because, first, this allows the researcher to identify and measure those indicators that represent the relevant theoretical concepts. Second, it facilitates the identification of new variables and the derivation of new hypotheses. Third, it permits the researcher to explore causal mechanisms in detail. And, fourth, it is relatively accommodating in regard to complex causal relations.

The main characteristic of case studies is the focus on the case and exploring its many facets (Stake, 1995). This is scientifically fruitful, especially for studying social entrepreneurship practices since these are influenced by several factors (people and their experiences, local and global practices and interpretations). For example, if the researcher is interested in the experiences of people who are practising social entrepreneurs, then case studies enable them to survey personal subjective narratives in which participants describe and self-analyse their experiences.

Researchers interested in objective descriptions of social entrepreneurship as an activity also utilise direct observation – both participatory observation and ethnography, including the analysis of linked writings. In the current dissertation, this is presented as the thematic analysis of linked writings.

The qualitative method provides information by analysing and interpreting data and according to this method, social actions are considered as a holistic, interactive and complicated system, not independent discrete variables, which, as such, may be measured statistically (Rossmann & Rallis, 1998). Therefore, the qualitative method takes into account both the context and reciprocal dependency of social actors. The main characteristics of social actors and

objects do not depend on actors and subjects per se but on experiences and evaluations by counterparts.

This is evident when we realize that the characteristics and implications of social phenomena are appearing, changing and disappearing during collective human actions. Human actions are always linked to the place and time – to the context. The qualitative method is therefore an especially revealing research tool for studying both the entire ecosystem of entrepreneurship and how the readiness of a person for social entrepreneurship evolves. Another reason for choosing the qualitative method for the current studies is its appropriateness for extracting information from personal experiences and opinions; this information is not so readily accessible using quantitative methods.

Quantitative data collected using a questionnaire completed by insiders; that is, from practitioners of social entrepreneurship (GEM), can also be used for analysis. In addition, a third dimension is the broader judgement and consideration of the impact of society on social entrepreneurship.

The data collection in **Studies I–IV** was carried out through a combination of data collection methods across the different target groups. Social entrepreneurship was surveyed from the perspectives of the entrepreneurs using interviews with people with direct involvement (i.e. inside view based on experiences), but also with external individuals (experts, officials of support organisations and advocates of social entrepreneurship) to reflect aspects of activities connected to social entrepreneurship (i.e. the outside view as evaluation). This facilitated the collating and comparison of multiple perspectives and the triangulation of evidence (King, 2004). During these studies secondary data was also gathered, for example, documents, annual reports, web-pages and so on, to provide triangulation of reference materials for further analysis (Cresswell, 2003).

For **Study I**, data were collected using two methods. Firstly, literature concerning social entrepreneurship was analysed – including 26 scientific articles about social entrepreneurship, and the materials and homepages of three Estonian umbrella organisations connected with and supporting social entrepreneurship in Estonia. The outcome of this analysis was the discovery of keywords that are used for explaining social entrepreneurship in scientific literature and by umbrella organisations.

The second stage was undertaken using a written questionnaire that included direct questions about the need for support in various areas of entrepreneurship by the entrepreneur of *small and medium-sized enterprises*, but also attitudes towards starting an enterprise and the participants' previous experiences. The questionnaire also included open questions on interpretations of entrepreneurship and three social demographic questions (gender and birth year, occupation/type of study).

Qualitative methods were used for the empirical part of **Study I**. Data were collected through a questionnaire with open questions asking respondents to clarify and explain their interpretations of social entrepreneurship. The results of these questionnaires were compared with the definitions and interpretations

of social entrepreneurship (both international and Estonian) that were previously explored within the theoretical part of **Study I**. This enquiry was conducted with students and entrepreneurs who participated in different courses of entrepreneurship. The questionnaire was sent by e-mail to 54 respondents and was given personally on paper to 322 attendees of a range of courses. There was a 64% return rate of completed questionnaires by both e-mail and in person providing a total of 255 questionnaires.

Interpretations of social entrepreneurship were studied using open-ended questions so respondents could explain their personal understandings of social entrepreneurship. These data were analysed using the qualitative approach of coding and thematic analysis to explore the meaning of social entrepreneurship for the respondents. From this process, the keywords discovered from the questionnaires were compared with keywords from scientific literature to test the correspondence between scientific explanations and the interpretations of social entrepreneurship offered by Estonian practitioners.

A participatory action research method was used in **Study II** and for the purpose of data collection a combined method of semi-structured interviews was employed to interview three initiators of start-up enterprises. Two of them were also participating in a programme of entrepreneurship training that was also surveyed within **Study II**. The author of this dissertation participated on this programme as instructor and mentor. The personal engagement of the author with the participants in this survey made critical reflection possible for the objective outcome of the study.

The action research method means that researchers also participate in the process with all of their social roles and influence; therefore, both conducting and gathering data. Within this interaction new knowledge is obtained and new interpretations of the research object are developed (Greenwood & Levin 2007; Strömpl, 2012). The methodology involved contacting entrepreneurs and asking for interviews, all respondents agreed to give interviews and for these to be recorded. The interview questions were open-ended and designed to generate information on how respondents formed their business idea, what kind of help they received in developing this idea during the learning process, and how they followed the stages of the entrepreneurial process.

Written materials were also studied including local newsletters, recorded histories by mentors/coaches and feedback from co-learners, all of which provided additional information about the background and development of the entrepreneurial process.

Data gathered in **Studies I** and **II** were analysed thematically. Firstly, patterns that could answer the research questions were identified. First, the interpretations of social entrepreneurship within international scientific publications were analysed. Then a questionnaire with open questions for surveying interpretations of social entrepreneurship was constructed and used in Estonia. Guidelines for coding and analysing the qualitative data have been proposed in the literature on current social entrepreneurship research methods, based on

these an iterative stance (Miles & Huberman, 1994) was applied for constructing themes from the transcribed interviews.

Study II was conducted to identify features of social entrepreneurship and the entrepreneurial process in the data; all responses that provided information about the meaning and characteristics of social entrepreneurship were coded. The coding process involved studying each interview line by line to identify patterns within the collected data (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Four case studies of social enterprises were used for data collection within **Study IV**. Documents analysed included the publications of these organisations, their general ledgers, annual reports of business, press releases and media materials. The details collected were evaluated in the context of labour market policies and social entrepreneurship.

Research Methods used by the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor

Studies I and II deal with the theoretical framework for surveying social entrepreneurship and the entrepreneurial process within the context of social entrepreneurship. Hand in hand with the exploration of current theoretical conceptions the potential for new interpretations of social entrepreneurship is also explored. **Studies III and IV** are complex surveys of practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia and the measurement of these practices.

Within a country several factors play a part in influencing the development of social entrepreneurship and its component practices; therefore, the case study strategy provides the opportunity to research these practices as a complex, taking into consideration relevant variables in its environment. A process-based strategy is also applied within the GEM methodology.

The GEM methodology was used for data collection within **Study III** and the research was carried out using two different tools: an Adult Population Survey (APS) and a National Expert Survey (ES). Researchers in each country participating in GEM use a standardised questionnaire for the adult population to devise a Total Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) index. The index represents the percentage of adults (18–64 years of age) who are trying to start their own business, or are owners/managers of an active business not older than 42 months. This survey is carried out in the official language(s) of each country and facilitated with translation and back translation of the questions. Every national team may add complementary questions to the GEM questionnaire and as a contribution from the author of the current dissertation questions were added to the 2012 GEM questionnaire concerning social entrepreneurship.

In Estonia, the random adult population survey (samples of at least 2,000) of respondents 18–64 years of age was conducted by telephone or face-to-face between May and August 2012. In all, 2,004 interviewees were questioned of which 48% were men and 52% women (Arro et al., 2013).

The GEM survey collects data on gender, employment status, educational background and household income, and once collated, these data are weighted

to reflect the national population. “Weights are based on the age and gender structure of every country. Also, other characteristics such as education and ethnicity are captured in the weights if appropriate. Most countries adopt a regional stratification to make sure that all regions are represented in the sample.” (Reynolds et al., 2005: 211)

The paradigm for studying entrepreneurship has been changing in recent decades – when conducting the surveys both the context of entrepreneurship and personal characteristics of the entrepreneur are taken into account. The process-based approach to entrepreneurship has been the most promising in respect to precise findings and is the approach used by the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor for surveying entrepreneurship worldwide. Therefore, the author of the current dissertation has decided to apply the process-based approach for studying developments and practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter explores the findings of **Studies I–IV** through an examination of social entrepreneurship in Estonia, and proposes a model for studying social entrepreneurship. The author will then present a discussion on the context and interpretations of the research findings, the resulting data on the current state of social entrepreneurship in Estonia, but also the personal observations and experiences of the author.

The first step in exploring social enterprise in Estonia was to elaborate the theoretical framework for surveying social entrepreneurship. In the literature on social entrepreneurship (e.g. Schumpeter, 2005; Dees et al., 2001; Dees, 1998; Boschee, 1998; Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skiller, 2006) widely differing explanations of entrepreneurship are used – some of them stress the establishment of independent economic unity and define its economic role within society, while others stress the relevance of the personal characteristics of the entrepreneur.

Within contemporary research, attention is now moving from the personality of the entrepreneur towards the process of entrepreneurship and its broader social context. It is therefore a more and more commonly accepted position that different activities and areas of entrepreneurship may be embraced by the concept of the process of entrepreneurship that results in the creation of new value for clients and society.

This dissertation describes social entrepreneurship in Estonia as the outcome of developments since re-gaining independence through 1991–2014, and proposes a model for studying social entrepreneurship. To that end, the following research objectives were established: 1. To identify social entrepreneurship; 2. To examine social entrepreneurship; 3. To test the model and describe practices in Estonia.

Initially, factors within Estonian society that have influenced the development of social entrepreneurship were explored and especially the continuing impact exerted by the heritage of the Soviet occupation. In particular, the term ‘social’ today, still has strong associations with socialism for the older generation. A similar tendency exists for the term ‘co-operative’, which is understood by many to be like the socialist kolkhoz, even though this is a well-known and normal form of social entrepreneurship.

The second factor influencing the development of social enterprise in Estonia has been the primary and traditional role of the third sector to protect Estonian culture and language. Thirdly, the societal impact of the liberal economy ideology should be considered which especially during the immediate re-independence period focused people’s minds on gaining material assets. Fourthly, the adoption of both social democratic and liberal models of social policy in Estonia has influenced the development of social entrepreneurship. As a result, clients are regarded as either local government or private individuals. All these aspects characterize the Estonian social entrepreneurship model, the features of which are disclosed in the thesis below.

4.1. Study I: Identification of social entrepreneurship

The first stage in exploring social entrepreneurship in Estonia was to undertake an empirical mapping of current developments in the sector. This work also had the benefit of enriching the process-based approach with the results of the qualitative inquiry.

The respondents in **Study I** used several widely known keywords (from international research) in interpreting social entrepreneurship – mobilization of resources, social change and pattern breaking, social value creation, social activist role and system change. However, some unique keywords specific to the Estonian context were also used: reinvesting the surplus, developing civil society and community, advocacy organizations and networks on a national scale.

Estonian respondents differ from internationally surveyed respondents in that innovation and charity as keywords were not mentioned in the context of social entrepreneurship, and the keywords entrepreneurship, cross-sector partnership and ethics went unmentioned.

In spite of this, the basic assumptions of the survey were met, and therefore, the following conclusions can be made from **Study I**. First, social entrepreneurship in Estonia is considered a process of creating value by combining resources in new ways. Second, these resource combinations are intended primarily to explore and utilise opportunities to produce social value by stimulating social change or meeting social needs. Third, as a process, social entrepreneurship involves the offering of services and products, but may also refer to the establishment of new organizations. Fourth, social entrepreneurship is regarded as a potentially valuable economic driver and change maker for communities and for the whole third sector.

No single definition or interpretation of social enterprise was identified by Estonian respondents within **Study I**; individual interpretations differed in their explanations of the planned social impact, problems observed and ways to solve these problems. The concept of financial profit was not regarded as being in conflict with social entrepreneurship, but the main goal of a social enterprise is explained as the development of social capital. Other relevant concerns included networks and the intercourse between groups involved.

Interpretations of social entrepreneurship among the respondents in **Study I** placed high importance on the intention and willingness to solve problems, the delivery of social impact and initiating change in the current conditions, but no less important were ideas of sustainable business planning and active entrepreneurship.

Thesis 1: Social entrepreneurship is reasonably explained using certain criteria instead of a definition.

Within scientific literature, authors have proposed a range of explanations of social entrepreneurship that have been influenced by the theoretical framework of each particular researcher (depending on the scientific paradigm, cultural

background of the author, interpretation of the nature of the research object and the range of enterprises involved). In contrast, the process-based approach to social entrepreneurship facilitates the formulation of a theoretical explanation of social entrepreneurship practices that can be tested using sample studies to identify significant common characteristics. Therefore, it can be seen that research methodology can have a significant influence on the explanation of social entrepreneurship.

Study I showed how explanations of social entrepreneurship vary widely; these different interpretations of social entrepreneurship from Estonian respondents; however are not unique, since internationally there is also no universal description of social entrepreneurship. Respondents frequently refer to several criteria when explaining how they comprehend social entrepreneurship. Globally, the most common criteria are that social enterprise has a social goal, it should have a sustainable business model, a limited share of profit (a maximum of 30%) may be withdrawn, and there is no need for the special legal regulation of social enterprises.

The attention of the state and local governments towards social entrepreneurship in Estonia is limited and insufficient for the proper development of these activities. There are no legal regulations or official surveys or projects concerning social entrepreneurship, which suggests that Estonian politicians and leaders are largely unaware of the potential of and opportunities presented by social entrepreneurship. In Estonia, we have some support for social enterprises from foundations and organizations that have been established by civil society, and these are also disseminators of their ideas, but in total, legal and official support for social entrepreneurship is still limited.

Social enterprises in Estonia have a significant turnover, in 2013, for example, there were 125 active social enterprises employing around 1,400 individuals with a total revenue of 36.6 million euros, of which 24.4 million euros was business income (Social Entrepreneurship..., 2014). At the same time, the creative industries employed about 29,200 individuals and in 2011 their sales exceeded 1,000 billion euros (Eesti loomemajanduse..., 2013).

Social entrepreneurs consider themselves a symbiotic part of Estonian society; they share interests with other institutions, and their efficiency is measured in terms of the growth of social welfare and cohesion, while profitability is a secondary and supportive objective. At different levels within the community and the third sector, social entrepreneurship operates with substantial networks and connections between stakeholders. Individual enterprises undertake a wide range of roles and tasks within communities and society, and are able to integrate across many different areas of entrepreneurship. Therefore, an exploration of social entrepreneurship based on criteria can be a fruitful exercise and justifiable, making a wide examination across all sectors of society while also taking into account that many of them function as networks.

A more precise definition of social entrepreneurship could include a special form of entrepreneurship, especially when accompanied by government benefits for social enterprises (i.e. tax concessions etc.). At the same time, however,

overly specific regulation could impede the development of social enterprise since the term is used as an umbrella for a wide range of entrepreneurial activities and is innovative by its very nature.

4.2. Study II: Examination of social entrepreneurship

The second task of this research was the exploration of the entrepreneurial process, and, subsequently, to identify whether it is possible to explain and survey social entrepreneurship using the same methods and features as mainstream entrepreneurship.

The main objective for **Study II** was to identify the essential points of the entrepreneurial process and assure their validity within social entrepreneurship. The study investigated the entrepreneurial processes occurring during business start-up for three new enterprises using the methodology of Entrepreneurship Home®.

The main finding of **Study II** was that prior knowledge, skills, capabilities and motivation play a key role through influencing the novelty, quality and performance of new ventures within the hi-tech, handicraft and social/community. While these characteristics in themselves do not depend on the field of entrepreneurship, results from **Study II** show that immediate and concrete experiences may serve as a guide for the establishment of new enterprises and ventures.

Results from this study also proved the hypothesis that the ideas for establishing new ventures are outcomes of the creative, experiential learning process and are based on the entrepreneur's prior knowledge and specific social needs, and therefore, do not depend on the specific character of that venture. In other words, all enterprises may be studied through the process-based approach, including social enterprises, meaning that within social entrepreneurship, all the stages of the entrepreneurial process are followed: 1) propositions, 2) idea development, 3) concept development and, 4) business development and especially its embeddedness in silos. The concept of the silo was invented to label the combination of the physical and mental shapes of the proximity of the entrepreneur that corresponds to a single stage in the process.

Thesis 2: Practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia and elsewhere may be studied using the process-based approach to the entrepreneurial cycle.

This methodology of the process-based approach to entrepreneurship is elaborated as a theoretical teaching and learning tool for training entrepreneurship, which incorporates the overall entrepreneurial process including all its phases/stages from idea generation to exit from the business; that is, resources, knowledge environment and transfer, and feedback on decision-making.

The entrepreneurial process is multifaceted and in respect to idea generation, researchers must take into account development at the individual, team and societal levels. In **Study II**, experiences of the entrepreneurial processes of

participants following the entrepreneurial training programme have been used in identifying the various stages as silos with specific content within the entrepreneurial processes, and to evaluate the prominence of individuals in the entrepreneurial process in social entrepreneurship. The contents of the silos were updated with knowledge that was obtained through the process-based training/teaching of entrepreneurship.

Table 2. Stages of the measurement by the entrepreneurial process and the GEM methodology

Entrepreneurial process					
Stages of e-l process	Propositions	Idea development	Concept development	Business development	Post-launch
Content of the stage	(Prior) Knowledge; Motivation; Skills and Capabilities	Social assets; Goal(s); Social needs	Product marketing; Business model; Available resources	Strategy; Team leadership; Resources	Growth & regular management, possible launch of new e-l process with the next idea
Outcome of the stage	Idea (generation)	Opportunity recognition	Opportunity (developed)	Opportunity exploitation/ venture launch	Sales & Cash-flow
GEM methodology					
Stage	Intention	Firm Birth		Persistence	Growth/ Regular/ Dis-continuation
Content	Potential Entrepreneur: Opportunities, Knowledge and Skills	Nascent Entrepreneur: Involved in Setting up a Business (0–3 months)		Owner-Manager of a New Business (up to 3.5 years old)	Owner-Manager of an Established Business (more than 3.5 years old)

Source: compiled by the author.

GEM is one of the first surveys in the world to handle the attitudes, judgements and intentions of people concerning entrepreneurship. The main aim of GEM is to study the conduct of individuals during the establishment phase of enterprise

and entrepreneurship, and treats this as a process involving the whole life cycle of the enterprise (Reynolds et al., 2005: 209). Entrepreneurship, within the GEM methodology, is described as the attempt at establishing a new enterprise, including enlargement of current enterprises either by one person or by a group (Bosma, 2013: 170). This methodology makes the comparison of findings across different countries possible.

The traditions of the third sector, the stage of the economy and social policy model of each country influence the development of social entrepreneurship. Taking into account the social, cultural and economic context, the GEM methodology is therefore a suitable tool for surveying the level of social entrepreneurship activity in every country.

Table 2 explains the relationship between the entrepreneurial process and the GEM methodology. It is evident that the GEM methodology does not replicate the entrepreneurial process but simplifies it and as a consequence some stages of measurement are contingent (i.e. two stages of the entrepreneurial process are handled in GEM as one stage). It is also not possible to measure the position of the entrepreneur within the entrepreneurial process unambiguously because they may repeat the same stage several times or act simultaneously on several stages as a result of continuous feedback. This same process-based approach is applicable for examining social entrepreneurship, and in this way, can also be utilised within the training of entrepreneurship (**Study II**).

The findings of **Study II** therefore confirm that social entrepreneurship may be studied using tools from the process-based approach.

4.3. Study III: Activity levels for social entrepreneurship in Estonia

The questionnaire methodology is implemented as part of an annual survey of entrepreneurship by the GEM consortium in approximately seventy countries worldwide. As the basis for the questionnaire of the survey, a process-based approach is applied. The GEM 2012 questionnaire was adapted using that as the vehicle for collecting empirical data (through a survey) about the current state of affairs in social entrepreneurship in Estonia for **Study III**.

Social entrepreneurship, if carried out in accordance with the process of entrepreneurship, is possible to measure using GEM methodology, and while taking account of the impact of its environment, the following factors should be considered: characteristics of the particular civil society – type of government, social policy model, culture, hierarchies, and political and economic history.

In Estonia, activity levels for social entrepreneurship are higher (26.2%) than for entrepreneurial activity (14.2%) and are also higher when compared with Western countries. While entrepreneurial activity among men is a rising trend of activity in the 65+ age group, social entrepreneurs in Estonia are mostly women. Regionally, social entrepreneurship is spread quite equally across all

regions of Estonia at between 25–30% with the exception of northeast Estonia, where it is lower at 19%.

The number of established enterprises confirms such a high level of entrepreneurship activity among Estonian inhabitants. As of January 1st 2015, there were 29,530 NGOs, 813 Foundations and 148,775 Private Limited Companies registered in Estonia. According to a pilot survey in 2013 by Statistics Estonia and the Estonian Social Enterprise Network (2014), most of the social enterprises were NGOs (84%), but some were private limited companies (7%) and others, foundations (9%).

Social entrepreneurship is practiced in a wide variety of forms. Therefore, it is not registered statistically as precisely as mainstream entrepreneurship, and it is far more widespread within society than is even recognised. At one end of a continuum of social entrepreneurship, entrepreneurs with a social concern may not recognise that their activities have characteristics of social entrepreneurship, while at the other end, civil society activists may not comprehend that their activities have the characteristics of entrepreneurship.

Within the current dissertation, a model for studying social entrepreneurship is proposed which enables the discovery of those practices of social entrepreneurship that are not registered officially but which may have a relevant impact on the level of local community activity and on a number of issues for society as a whole.

Thesis 3: Activity levels for social entrepreneurship are remarkably high in Estonia compared to Western countries.

A complicated history and Soviet occupation have significantly influenced the creation of liaisons, and following the re-gaining of independence, the acquisition of material assets was a priority for entrepreneurs. Under these circumstances it might be assumed that Estonian inhabitants are not at all concerned about social activities; the findings of the current research however demonstrate the contrary.

GEM data (both on entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurs from the United Kingdom 2006, worldwide 2009 and Estonia 2012) confirm that the practice of entrepreneurial processes is basically similar across a range of countries. Although the historical and cultural background of these countries together with their economic and political characteristics influence the practice of entrepreneurship, these variations do not hinder the comparison of entrepreneurship in different countries when using the process-based approach.

Variations in entrepreneurial processes are most significant in Eastern European countries, including Estonia. During the Soviet occupations (1940–1941, 1944–1991) of Estonia, the entire structure of the economy was dismantled and the practices of collectivization and the planned economy were established. Even greater than the macro-economic changes these occupations brought about, they also affected the socio-psychological mode of the Estonian inhabitants for several generations. All entrepreneurial activities were considered undesirable under the occupation ideology, and the notion of social was politi-

cized and loaded with negative connotations (e.g. at the beginning of the restored Estonian independence, the social democrat party adopted the name “Moderates”, therefore avoiding the word social).

Therefore, it would seem logical to assume that the readiness of Estonian inhabitants to practice social entrepreneurship is low, and its occurrence is also very different from the Western experience. According to GEM data, however, the opposite is true – there is a comparably high readiness to be active in social entrepreneurship among Estonian inhabitants. For example, according to the activity level for social entrepreneurship (early engagement with social entrepreneurship: ‘Are you planning or have you started your enterprise during the last 42 months?’), 26.2% of all respondents (n = 2004, age 18+) confirmed their readiness for or engagement with social entrepreneurship. Among women, the activity level for social entrepreneurship was even higher: 55.9% of women confirmed their readiness for or engagement with practices of social entrepreneurship.

The findings of GEM concerning relations between (social) entrepreneurial activities and economic growth are presented in Table 3. To survey in detail, countries within GEM are divided into three groups according to their stage of economic development: factor driven, efficiency driven and innovation driven countries (Estonia is located within the group of efficiency driven countries). The first group relies on a cheap labour force and exploitation of natural resources; the second group on investments and work efficiency, while the third group pursues innovation in the field of economics.

The GEM survey identified individuals who are social entrepreneurs and the potential for social entrepreneurship in Estonia, which is relatively high in comparison with Western countries. It seems that the cultural and historical characteristics of our society predispose it towards social entrepreneurship, and women are especially active (55.9% involved in SE). The activity level for social entrepreneurship within elderly people is remarkably high, and particularly older men are becoming more active in comparison with younger age groups. This is definitely a great resource that could be put to use in an ageing society.

The process-based examination of social entrepreneurship enables surveys to be undertaken of those activities that are not officially registered (i.e. membership associations) but which have a relevant impact within a local community or on some issues for the whole of society. In addition, this research method facilitates the study of social entrepreneurship as an umbrella that integrates across different areas of entrepreneurship enabling the comprehensive exploration of the phenomenon.

Table 3. Relations between social entrepreneurial activities and economic growth

Stages of Economic Development According to GEM	State	Index of Civil Liberties (Freedom House, 2009)	TEA (%) (GEM, 2009)	% of engaged labour force by SE (GEM, 2009)	GDP per capita in 2009 (US \$ in thousands)	GINI index in 2009
Factor-Driven	Saudi Arabia	6	4.7	0.2	20.7	NA
	Morocco	4	15.8	0.8	4.0	40.9 (2007)
	Lebanon	3	15.0	1.5	11.1	NA
	Algeria	5	16.7	1.9	7.0	35.3
	Uganda	4	33.6	4.1	1.1	44.3
Efficiency-Driven	Brazil	2	15.0	0.4	10.1	54.7
	Russia	5	4.3	1.2	15.8	40.1
	Romania	2	9.0	2.6	12.2	30.0
	Latvia	1	13.3	2.8	17.8	34.8
	Argentina	2	18.8	7.6	14.2	46.1
	Estonia	1	14.3*	26.2**	21.2	31.3 (2010)
Innovation-Driven	Germany	1	5.3	1.6	34.8	27 (2006)
	Italy	2	4.0	2.5	31.0	31.9 (2011)
	UK	1	9.0	4.2	36.6	40.0
	USA	1	12.8	5	47.0	45 (2007)
	Finland	1	5.9	5.1	37.2	26.8 (2008)

Source: author's derivation from Bosma & Levie, 2010; Terjesen et al., 2012; Freedom House, 2009; CIA World Factbook, 2009.

Notes: * according to Estonian GEM (2012) report (Arro et al., 2013); ** according to GEM (2012) data (nascent social entrepreneurs age 18+) (Source: author's calculations based on APS (2012) data).

4.4. Study IV: Practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia

After exploring the current state of affairs regarding social entrepreneurship in Estonia, it was reasonable to look closer at particular cases. The aim of **Study IV** was to undertake a survey of specific examples of social enterprises and work integration social enterprises (WISEs) were selected for specific examination. The first of these enterprises were established in Western Europe about 50 years ago, although the majority were launched during the last 20 years within the framework of policies created to combat unemployment. WISEs are prob-

ably the best explained and established form of social entrepreneurship in Western Europe.

This examination of examples of WISE led to the conclusion that in Estonia there are two clearly distinguishable approaches to social entrepreneurship. First, the liberal (USA) approach is market oriented and social enterprise has to manage the sustainability of its business. Second, the social-democratic (European) approach, in which social enterprise is closely connected with local government and engages in the delivery of specific services for residents at the municipal level.

At the level of society, social enterprises provide services across all three sectors – public, private and the third sector. Most social enterprises at the time the research was undertaken were NGOs, and therefore, functioned within the third sector. While practices of social entrepreneurship within any particular country depend upon the traditions of the third sector, they are also influenced by the social policy and economy of that country. It is therefore important that when attempting to explain social entrepreneurship all these factors are taken into account, especially in Estonia after it regained its independence.

Social enterprises operating as NGOs can be divided into two types – the first do not have a sustainable business model and depend on local municipalities to finance its projects through donors, the second has a concrete business model and is market oriented. These two typologies can also be applied to WISEs, which are not provided for by any special legislation in Estonia, and most of them are NGOs.

Thesis 4: Social entrepreneurship practices in Estonia function as a fusion of liberal (USA) and social-democratic (European) approaches to social entrepreneurship.

Applications of social entrepreneurship in Estonia were surveyed in **Study IV** through examples of WISEs. This organisational type was chosen for the current research because they are more clearly delineated and constitute a coherent sample. An additional reason for using WISEs as examples of social entrepreneurship in Estonia is that the main objective of a WISE is enhancing employment opportunities for disadvantaged individuals. It is important to recall at this point that one of the main economic values generated by social entrepreneurship is in the environment of employment and the creation of jobs.

WISEs are often linked to public government policies, but they are independent economic entities whose common aim is occupational integration within the social enterprise or elsewhere in the labour market for those people who have special needs or are disadvantaged in terms of employment. There is no special legal form for social enterprises in Estonia and similarly not for WISEs, both act in the same way in similar areas. Their main task is dealing with the employment of individuals with special needs and the long-term unemployed.

A unifying characteristic of these organisations is that they were founded in the 1990s on the basis of liquidated state enterprises (e.g. Merimetsa Support

Centre, see **Study IV**) and are dependant on local municipalities. These organizations were established with support from the state or municipalities, and therefore, represent their main client base who buy their services. This also means that these WISEs fulfil the needs of municipal residents for particular services.

Later (around 2000), other NGOs were established, including Helping Hand and Think Estonia, which have somewhat different relations to the market – they do not regard residents of local municipalities as their main clients, but try to find clients from private companies or the general public. Their business models therefore may be quite different from those NGOs that have municipalities as permanent partners.

All the above enterprises work hand-in-hand with disabled people, not for them, their aim being to ensure disabled people feel valued as human beings. The companies sampled in this study act in two directions: firstly, as training centres for disabled people, and secondly, as creators of jobs for those who have completed training and are able to work.

In some countries, social enterprises have been defined as organisations that deal with the employment problems of long-term jobless and disabled people. These organisations may be given taxation concessions and/or other financial support from the state to establish new enterprises. Other organisations, however, that do not fit into this legal definition but nevertheless do provide social services and deal with concrete social problems using instruments of entrepreneurship (**Study I**) do not get such benefits from the state. This can be seen as a hindrance to the development of social entrepreneurship because these organisations, which do not fit into this legal definition, are acting under less supportive conditions. In Estonia, there are no specific legal forms for social entrepreneurship, and therefore, Estonia is not faced with this problem.

The types of social enterprises and their development in Estonia are presented with Figure 2. Estonian social policy is a fusion of social-democratic and liberal social policies. As a result, social enterprises in Estonia may regard different groups as their main partner: for organisations originating from a social-democratic background their main client might be the local municipality as the main welfare actor; for organisations originating from a liberal approach their main client may be individuals who may improve their welfare with their own resources.

Similar differences are also evident within the Estonian third sector; this is largely a result of the historical context in which the third sector developed. On the one hand, NGOs established directly after regaining independence were created by municipalities, which today remain the main customers for the services of these organisations. Local municipalities are often represented on the governing body of these organisations. On the other hand, other types of NGOs have been established on the initiative of citizens and are market oriented.

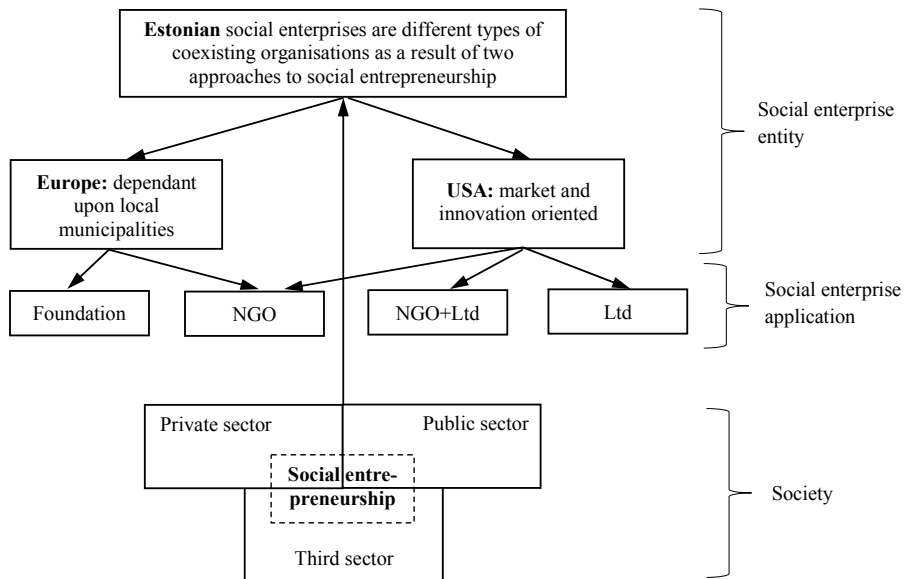


Figure 2. Types of social entrepreneurship in Estonia.
Source: compiled by the author

While different types of social enterprises coexist in Estonia as a result of the fusion between the social-democratic (European) and liberal (USA) social policies that were applied simultaneously in the country; there is however, as yet, no fusion or combined type of social enterprise.

This chapter of the dissertation firstly presented the findings from and discussion of **Studies I–IV** examining social entrepreneurship through the methodology of the entrepreneurial process, and secondly, the findings and discussion concerning the development, activities and characteristics of practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia. This resulted in a model for studying social entrepreneurship.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The aim of the current dissertation is to describe and examine social entrepreneurship, propose a model for studying it and to test the model on practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia.

More broadly, in the current dissertation, the methodological problem of whether social entrepreneurship may be studied using the same process-based approach as mainstream entrepreneurship was raised. These issues are scrutinized within four publications, which are re-published within the current dissertation.

Outcome of this thesis is the comprehensive explanation of social entrepreneurship in Estonia, which shows that this is still in a developmental phase, and has clear influences from Soviet heritage in regard to comprehensions and prejudices concerning civil society and social politics both in terms of their functioning and potential. More generally, however, social entrepreneurship in Estonia is not significantly different from Western practices, and therefore, it may not be considered unique. The conclusions of the dissertation presented below partly follow the theses formulated in the Discussion.

5.1. Conclusions

Conclusion 1. Social entrepreneurship can be reasonably explained using particular criteria instead of a definition.

Exploring social entrepreneurship based on criteria can be a fruitful exercise and justifiable, making a wide examination across all sectors of society possible, while also taking into account that many social entrepreneurs function as networks. This is especially relevant when considering that social entrepreneurship is practiced across all sectors of society and conflates different areas of entrepreneurship.

For clarification of this conclusion the author of the current thesis has formulated the following results:

- The term ‘social entrepreneurship’ has a broader social conceptualisation or meaning than the classical explanation of social – it is societal. This means that social entrepreneurship is not limited to particular target groups, as in WISEs (which are wide-spread in areas of the Mediterranean and social-democratic social policy countries (**Studies I and IV**)). According to The National Foundation of Civil Society (2013), social entrepreneurship in Estonia has become increasingly involved with issues of community (**Study I**).
- The purpose of social enterprise is the maximisation of social output, not profit. The societal goals of these organisations though, do not exclude making income and social enterprises, as organisations (NGO or enterprise), are not charitable institutions: many are managed like

other profit-seeking companies, have sustainable business models and earn income from selling their products or delivering services. Therefore, social enterprises should not be explained on the basis of a *profitable – not profitable* continuum, although in terms of legal form, most NGOs in Estonia are non-profit organizations (**Study IV**).

- Social enterprises are more flexible than government institutions (**Studies I and IV**) because they are able to respond faster to the demands of a changing environment (they have versatile management and budgets). In Estonia there are two types of social enterprises – market oriented, and those bound by service contracts with local governments (most of these were established following the re-gaining of independence) (**Study IV**).
- Profit in social enterprises is not extracted and distributed among the owners, or at least limits on such distributions are imposed (e.g. 30%/70%). In Estonia, such criteria or limits have not yet been set but it would be reasonable to follow internationally recognised practices and allow the extraction of up to 30% of the profit from the social enterprise.

Conclusion 2. Practices of social entrepreneurship in Estonia and elsewhere may be studied through the process-based approach to the entrepreneurial cycle.

From the complex analysis of data on characteristics of social entrepreneurship in Estonia, the following results have been formulated:

- Research on social entrepreneurship is not distinct from entrepreneurship studies. The author of this dissertation argues that social entrepreneurship in practice has universal characteristics – it is closely linked to the human entrepreneurial spirit and is combined with the need to deal with social/societal issues. Although the specificities of any particular country may significantly alter these practices, social entrepreneurship globally has more similarities than differences and this makes international comparisons possible.

These findings are also comparable with the results of studies on mainstream entrepreneurship studies, meaning that similar approaches to the examination of mainstream entrepreneurship could be used for research into social entrepreneurship. Research into both social entrepreneurship and mainstream entrepreneurship could be launched from comparable positions: the entrepreneurial process approach is a valuable research tool both for social entrepreneurship and mainstream entrepreneurship (**Study II**).

- The characteristics of social entrepreneurship in any particular country do not only depend on the historical, political, social and economic influences of that country, but social entrepreneurship has universal characteristics.

Explanations of practices of social entrepreneurship may be described quite differently (even within one country), since practitioners may not always be aware that researchers describe their activities as social entrepreneurship. It is therefore justifiable for researchers to seek common ground for social entrepreneurship – this can be discovered using the process-based approach.

Conclusion 3. Activity levels for social entrepreneurship are remarkably high in Estonia compared with Western countries, and social entrepreneurship practices in Estonia are of different types as a result of the fusion of liberal (USA) and social-democratic (European) approaches to social entrepreneurship.

Activity levels indicate the readiness of people to establish new organisations. A process that in Western countries is encouraged using legislation and supportive networks so that people and organizations are able to realize their potential for the common good.

For clarification the author of the current thesis has formulated the following results:

- Many Estonian inhabitants are ready to participate or are already participating in different forms of social entrepreneurship, sometimes without perceiving that they are actually engaging in social entrepreneurship.

According to the Estonian GEM (2012) survey, about 26.2% of the Estonian adult population are willing to be involved in societal activities. This shows that entrepreneurial attitude and willingness to establish social enterprises in Estonia is higher than in Western countries and even higher than the activity level of mainstream entrepreneurship (**Study III**).

- This willingness among Estonian inhabitants to engage in social entrepreneurship in spite of their Soviet past means that pressure from the Soviet planned economy has not changed human nature – both entrepreneurship and social interaction are an implicit part of human beings, and the people of Estonia are no exception.
- In Estonia, there is no special legal form for social enterprises and whilst most social enterprises are NGOs, some are foundations and others, private limited companies.

One reason for this is the quite different funding options for these organisations in Estonia. For instance, the Good Deed Foundation finances those organizations which offer services to individuals and are sustainable in the market (liberal approach), while the National Foundation of Civil Society prefers to support those organizations that have an actual contract with a public institution (e. g. local municipality).

- Two types of social enterprises exist in Estonia and the WISE forms of social enterprise operate within both types. One type provides social services open to the marketplace, meaning that their major clients are

individuals – people may buy extra services. The other type acts according to the social-democratic model in which the state handles overall welfare. The implication of this latter interpretation is that the main client of social enterprises is the state or local government.

As mentioned above these two types of social enterprises offer similar services in different ways and their functioning logic follows these two models.

5.2. Recommendations for policy and further studies

From the above conclusions the author of current dissertation has derived the following suggestions for the development of policies concerning social entrepreneurship and for further research into the potential of social entrepreneurship to respond to social issues in Estonia. Four measures could be considered:

1. Measures to change public attitudes towards entrepreneurship including social entrepreneurship, and NGOs (more precisely: to disseminate assurances that entrepreneurship is not about the exploitation of labour or other barely legal activities, that social entrepreneurship in particular, has a social output, and NGOs are more than merely hobbyist unions (e.g. stamp collectors) or unsustainable resource collectors; rather, they may have financial objectives too). One strategy for changing attitudes may be disseminating stories in broadcast and print and online media concerning the impact of social enterprises for communities, the environment and society as a whole.
2. Social enterprises should focus greater attention to their business models including the potential offered by international markets to ensure their sustainability. This is especially relevant for those NGO social enterprises where most of their resources have been derived from project funds or are dependant on financing from local municipalities for providing specific services. It would be helpful to develop counselling and tuition to guide social enterprises in the elaboration of their business model and development of their products. This means to elaborate a relevant incubation model for social enterprises especially in country areas.
3. Donations to social enterprises should be stimulated through taxation concessions. To function, social enterprises do not need any special legislation, but support for their development is justified in terms of taxation concessions especially concerning donations. In Estonia the development of social entrepreneurship would be particularly helped through a change in taxation laws concerning donations for operational social enterprises and the establishment of institutions that provide financial support for the establishment of new social enterprises.
4. Further research into the practices and opportunities for the implementation of social entrepreneurship is required to provide evi-

dence for the development of plans for these activities both at the state and local government levels.

Concluding with the issue of further studies, the author of this dissertation is convinced that further research should focus on how models of social policy, traditions in civil society and economic policy influence the development of social entrepreneurship.

In terms of the future development of social entrepreneurship (research), an exploration of the following topics would be a useful exercise: How the practice of social entrepreneurship has continued to develop in Estonia? Who the clients of social enterprises are? Which financing schemes and business models have been practised in social entrepreneurship?

Within the contemporary academic discussion, there are several explanations and interpretations of the characteristics and activities of social entrepreneurship. The process-based approach to exploring social entrepreneurship allows the systematic and objective survey of developments within social entrepreneurship: the findings of this type of research are internationally comparable.

6. SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN

Sotsiaalse ettevõtluse arengud Eestis

Sotsiaalne ettevõtlus sai alguse XX sajandi teisel poolel mitmetes riikides, lahendamaks erinevaid probleeme: USAs vähenesid valitsuse toetused mitmetulundussektorile, Lõuna-Euroopas ei suutnud avalik sektor pakkuda piisavalt kvaliteetseid sotsiaalteenuseid ning Skandinaavia healuriigi teenused olid muutunud liiga kalliks (Zahra et al., 2009; Kerlin, 2009, 2013; Defourney & Nyssens, 2010, 2012). Kujunenud olid olemuslikult erinevad probleemid, kuid lahendustes kasutati ettevõtlusele omaseid lähenemisi, otsides organisatsioonide ja teenuste jätkusuutlikkuse tagamiseks alternatiivseid rahastamisvõimalusi.

Kuna sotsiaalne ettevõtlus on nähtusena väga uus, on ta seda ka akadeemilise distsipliinina ja seetõttu ei ole veel väljakujunenud uurimistraditsioone ja teooriaid (Defourney & Nyssens, 2012; Seymour, 2012). Samuti on sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimist raskendanud asjaolu, et uurijad on senini tegelenud nähtuse elementidega eraldi, mistõttu on olnud keeruline määratleda sotsiaalset ettevõtlust tervikuna (Low & MacMillan, 1988). Mõned uurijad on tegelenud keskonna uurimisega, mõned on keskendunud sotsiaalsete ettevõtjate motiivide ja käitumise uurimisele (nt. Dees, 2002; Thompson et al., 2000), mõned aga sotsiaalsete ettevõtete tegutsemiseesmärkide uurimisele nt. (Low & MacMillan, 1988; Boschee, 1998; Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skiller, 2003). Seega, vaatamata mitmesuguste uurimuste rohkusele, on senini puudunud terviklik käsitlus ja mudel sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimiseks.

Sotsiaalne ettevõtlus on ühtlasi valdkonnaks, kus kohtuvad akadeemilised distsipliinid ja kus vaadatakse üle seni väljakujunenud arusaami majanduse ja ettevõtluse arengust. Sotsiaalne ettevõtlus oma mitmekesisuses võib nähtusena esineda ühiskonna kõigis sektorites. Samuti võib üks sotsiaalne ettevõtte tegutseda korraga mitmes sektoris. Tegemist on interdistsiplinaarse fenomeniga, mille arengut mõjutavad otseselt konkreetse riigi kolmanda sektori traditsioonid ja areng, samuti sotsiaalpoliitika mudel ja majanduse arengutase, mistõttu on sotsiaalse ettevõtluse praktikad väga erinevad. Seepärast ei ole senini sõnastatud sotsiaalse ettevõtluse ühtset definitsiooni. Siiani on vähe tähelepanu pööratud sotsiaalpoliitika mudelite mõjule sotsiaalse ettevõtluse praktikatele.

Mõned uurijad väidavad, et fenomen ületab ettevõtluse, ühiskondlike liikumiste ja mitmetulundusliku tegevuse eraldiseisvaid piire (Seymour, 2012). Kuna tegemist on interdistsiplinaarse nähtusega, siis kindlasti rikastaks ja mitmekesistaks sotsioloogia meetodid sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimispraktikaid.

Sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimist muudab keerulisemaks veel asjaolu, et teise- neb ka ettevõtluse uurimise paradigma (Wiklund et al, 2011) ning et kaasaegne ettevõtluse käsitlus pärineb 1980-ndatest, see käsitlus on aga muutumas. Järjest enam muutub oluliseks ettevõtluse protsess, sellega seonduvad protsessid ning laiem ühiskondlik kontekst. Välja on kujunenud arusaam, et ettevõtluse erinevaid tüüpe ja valdkondi ühendavaks põhitunnuseks on ettevõtlusprotsess (Wiklund et al, 2011). Nimelt on ettevõtlus väga mitmekesine valdkond, kus

interaktsioonis on ettevõtja ja keskkonna erinevad tegurid. Need tegurid moodustavad dünaamilise protsessi, mille uurimiseks ongi parim protsessipõhine lähenemine.

Ettevõtlusprotsessi-keskne lähenemine võimaldab uurida sotsiaalse ettevõtluse kõiki tahke, seostades tervikult sotsiaalsete ettevõtjate tegevuse (nende isikuomadused), ettevõtete asutamise ja tegutsemise (juhtumianalüüs) ning sotsiaalse ettevõtluse laiemat konteksti (üldine ettevõtluskeskkond). Seega pööratakse üha rohkem tähelepanu ettevõtja isikult ettevõtluse protsessile, seonduvatele protsessidele ja laiemale ühiskondlikule kontekstile.

Käesolev väitekiri uurib sotsiaalset ettevõtlust sotsioloogia perspektiivist ja käsitleb uurimisobjekti terviklikult, võttes aluseks ettevõtlusprotsessi. Taolist lähenemist toetab asjaolu, et maailmas on ettevõtluse uurimise paradigma muutumas teooriapõhisest lähenemisest praktikapõhiseks (Wiklund et al., 2011), ning uurimismetoodikana kasutatakse järjest enam kvalitatiivseid meetodeid (Wiklund et al., 2011; Neergaard, 2007). Viljakaks on osutunud ettevõtluse uurimine uute ettevõtete loomise kontekstis.

Käesolevas väitekirjas kirjeldatakse sotsiaalset ettevõtlust viisil, mis lähtub järgnevatest eeldustest: 1. sotsiaalne ettevõtlus on väärtuste loomise protsess, mis kasutab olemasolevaid ressursse uudisel moel, 2. ressursside uude kasutuse peamiseks eesmärgiks on uurida ja rakendada uue väärtuse loomise võimalusi, stimuleerides ühiskondlikke muutuseid või rahuldades ühiskondlikke vajadusi, 3. sotsiaalne ettevõtlus pakub protsessi tulemusena teenuseid ja tooteid, kuid võib olla samuti asjakohane uute organisatsioonide loomisel (Mair & Marti, 2006).

Sotsiaalse ettevõtluse kujunemist Eestis on mõjutatud pikk nõukogude okupatsiooni periood, eriti oluline on sellest ajast pärinevate eelarvamuste mõju. Näiteks halvustav suhtumine äritegevusse (Nõukogude ajal oli isikliku tulu teenimine kuritegelik). Termin „sotsiaalne“ seostus avalikkusele pikka aega veel sotsialismiga. Lisaks sellele on Eestis ajalooliselt olnud kolmanda sektori peamiseks ülesandeks kaitsta eesti keelt ja kultuuri (Ruutsoo, 1999: 51). Iseseisvuse taastamise järel sai see aga Eesti riigi ülesandeks. Seetõttu olid kolmanda sektori esindajad riikluse taastamise järel segaduses ning uute eesmärkide otsimine jätkub tänini.

Siiani pole süsteemset teavet Eesti sotsiaalse ettevõtluse praktikate kohta, samuti puudub uurimismudel ning ülevaade, kas ja milline on Eesti ühiskonna potentsiaal sotsiaalseks ettevõtluseks. Käesolev doktoriuurimus täidab selle lünga. Sotsiaalset ettevõtlust Eestis käsitletakse ettevõtlusprotsessi raames, mis on Eestis uudseks lähenemiseks. Doktoriuurimuses lähtutakse eeldusest, et sotsiaalne ettevõtlus aitab mobiliseerida ja rakendada sotsiaalseid ressursse enam ja erineval moel võrreldes konventsionaalse ettevõtlusega. Sotsiaalne ettevõtlus suudab lahendada sotsiaalseid probleeme ja parandada sotsiaalset sidusust ning majanduslikku paindlikkust, mis on olulised aspektid majanduse ja heaolu tõusuks.

Nagu öeldud, doktoriuurimuse eesmärk on kirjeldada ja uurida sotsiaalset ettevõtlust Eestis lähtudes sotsioloogilisest perspektiivist, vaadeldes Eesti

iseseisvuse taastamise järgsel perioodil toimunud arenguid. Lisaks soovitakse pakkuda mudelit sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimiseks ning testida selle sobivust empiiriliste andmete abil. Sealjuures soovitakse määratleda sotsiaalset ettevõtlust viisil, mis võimaldab tuvastada ja hõlmavalt selgitada seda, kuidas on sotsiaalne ettevõtlus rakendatud ja praktiseeritud Eestis.

Esmalt autor määratleb sotsiaalse ettevõtluse tunnused, tuvastab ettevõtluse protsessi ilminguid sotsiaalses ettevõtluses ning uurib sotsiaalse ettevõtluse praktikaid Eestis. Uurimuse läbiviimiseks püstitas autor järgnevad ülesanded:

1. Kuidas määratleda sotsiaalset ettevõtlust?
2. Kuidas uurida sotsiaalset ettevõtlust?
3. Missugused on uurimismudelit rakendades ilmnevad Eesti praktikad?

Väitekiri koosneb neljast omavahel seotud rahvusvaheliste kirjastuste eelretsenseeritavatest publikatsioonidest (artiklid/peatükid I-IV) ja analüütilisest ülevaatest.

Ülevaateartikkel algab teoreetilise peatükiga, milles autor käsitleb sotsiaalse ettevõtluse tänapäevaseid kontseptsioone. Sotsiaalse ettevõtluse mitmekesine praktika on võimaldanud teadlastel uurida nähtust erinevatest lähenemismurkadest, mistõttu eksisteerib väga erinevaid sotsiaalse ettevõtluse käsitlusi. Üldiselt on leitud, et sotsiaalne ettevõtlus hõlmab endas eelkõige sotsiaalse eesmärgi nimel tegutsemist, kuid sisaldab ka (uue) organisatsiooni loomist ja jätkusuutlikku ning sotsiaalselt konstruktiivset tegutsemist (Oster et al., 2004; Boschee, 2001; Tracey & Phillips, 2007). Sotsiaalse ettevõtluse eesmärgiks on sotsiaalse kasu loomine, mitte aga kasumi tootmine osanikele (Achleitner et al., 2009; Austin et al., 2006; Zadek & Thake, 1997; Wei-Skillern et al., 2007). Ja erinevalt tavaettevõtetest võib sotsiaalne ettevõtte tegutseda kõigis ühiskonna sektorites (Leadbeater, 1997: 10).

Kindlasti ei tohiks unustada, et sotsiaalses ettevõtluses on kaks võrdset osa: sotsiaalne/ ühiskondlik ja ettevõtluse pool. Seega võime sotsiaalset ettevõtlust pidada erinevaid valdkondi ja sektoreid läbivaks ja integreerivaks nähtuseks, mistõttu on väga erinevad selle vormid ja praktikad.

Järgmise teemana esitleb autor ülevaateartikli teoreetilises peatükis sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimise võimalusi ja diskuteerib, kas ja kuidas võiks ettevõtluse protsessipõhine lähenemine sobida uurimise lähtealuseks.

Ettevõtluse sisu on uute ideede elluviimine ja see toimub ettevõtlusprotsessis, mille kaudu luuakse uut väärtust kliendile ja ühiskonnale (Wiklund et al., 2011). Ettevõtja – koos oma meeskonnaga või üksi – on ettevõtlusprotsessi peategelane. Ettevõtlusprotsess loob ettevõtja kliendile väärtust. Ettevõtlusprotsessi tunnuseks on see, et ettevõtja käivitab uue ettevõtmise, mis võib seisneda: 1. uue toote toomises olemasolevale turule, 2. olemasoleva toote toomises uuele turule ja/või 3. uue organisatsiooni loomises (Bygrave, 2009: 2).

Ettevõtlusprotsessi käsitletakse sageli kui uue äri või uue ettevõtte käivitamist ja arendamist, kuid ettevõtlusprotsess võib leida aset ka olemasoleva organisatsiooni raamistikus. Kuigi ettevõtlusprotsess saab alguse ettevõtlusvõimaluse ehk äriidee loomisest või äratundmisest, on ettevõtlusprotsessi

eeldused seotud ettevõtja kui indiviidi isikuomaduste, ettevõtja meeskonna võimekuste ja tulemuslikkusega ning sõltuvuses teguritest, mis mõjutavad kogu ühiskonda.

Selle protsessi etappideks on ärivõimaluse äratundmine, tegutsemisotsus, ressursside hankimine ja korrastamine, ettevõtte või äri käivitamine, ettevõtte kasvu juhtimine, ning lõpuks hüvitis ehk tulu saamine käivitatud ettevõtmisest ja ärist väljumine (Baron & Shane, 2008: 13–17; Davidsson, 2005; Sarasvathy et al., 2005).

Viimase teemana ülevaateartikli teoreetilises osas annab autor ülevaate, milline on sotsiaalpoliitika mudeli mõju sotsiaalse ettevõtluse praktikatele, sh ärimudeli kujunemisele. Aluseks on võetud Esping-Anderseni sotsiaalpoliitika mudelid: korporatiivne, liberaalne ja Vahemere ja sotsiaal-demokraatlik mudel, millele on autori poolt lisatud segamudel Eesti ja Läti sotsiaalpoliitika ise-loomustamiseks. Võrdlus näitab, millised on sotsiaalpoliitika mudelite ise-loomulikud tunnused ja millised on vastavad sotsiaalse ettevõtluse tunnused.

Erinevate mudelite analüüsi kokkuvõtteks võib nentida, et sotsiaalse ettevõtluse ammendavaks kirjelduseks tuleb kaasata nii protsessipõhist ettevõtluse uurimist (meetodit, mida saab edukalt kasutada ka sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimiseks), kui ka konkreetset sotsiaalset-majanduslikku konteksti, eeskätt sotsiaalpoliitika mudelit (peamine põhjus, miks erinevad sotsiaalse ettevõtluse praktikad erinevates riikides). Tegemist on sobiliku lähenemisega, kui tuleb kirjeldada sotsiaalse ettevõtluse nähtust sellistes riikides nagu Eesti (endine nõukogude liiduvabariik).

Metodoloogia peatükis annab autor ülevaate juhtumiuurimuse strateegiast ja põhjendab valitud lähenemise tagamaid. Lähtuvalt doktoritöö uurimuse eesmärgist rakendati juhtumiuurimuse strateegiat, mis käsitleb uurimisobjekti juhtumina – milleks on antud juhul sotsiaalne ettevõtlus. Juhtumiuurimuse puhul valitakse need meetodid, mis võimaldavad kõige paremini avada juhtumisiisu ja olemust (Stake, 1995). Käesoleva töö erinevates etappides kasutati uurin-guteks erinevaid meetodeid, alates osalustegevusuuringust kuni kvalitatiivse ja kvantitatiivse andmekogumis- ja analüüsimeetoditeni. Kuna väitekirja eesmärgiks oli mitte ainult sotsiaalse ettevõtte kui püsiva objekti kirjeldamine ja seletamine, vaid selle tekkimise ja arengu tundmaõppimine (dünaamika), siis ühe meetodina kasutati osalustegevusuuringut. Selle käigus õpiti ettevõtlusprotsessi seestpoolt, seda uute ettevõtete arendamise näitel. Uurijad, nende hulgas ka käesoleva töö autor, osalesid ettevõtete loomise protsessis erinevates rollides: nt õppija ja õpetaja, ettevõtte-projekti looja, teostaja ja tulemuse hindaja. Seega oli uurimisstrateegiaks juhtumiuurimus, mida teostati erinevate kvalitatiivse ja kvantitatiivse meetodi kombineerimisel.

Artikli I esimeses osas kasutati sotsiaalse ettevõtluse selgitamiseks allikaanalüüsi, mille käigus analüüsiti 26 teadusartiklit sotsiaalsest ettevõtlusest ning kolme Eesti sotsiaalse ettevõtlusega seotud või seda toetava katusorganisatsiooni materjale ja kodulehti. Teise etapina viidi läbi kirjalik küsitlus, millele vastajaid oli 255. Kirjalik küsimustik sisaldas avatud küsimusi saamaks

võimalikult erinevatelt sihtrühmadelt kirjeldusi, kuidas mõistetakse sotsiaalset ettevõtlust Eestis. Andmeanalüüsimetodina kasutati temaatilist analüüsi.

Artiklis II tutvustati osalusvaatluse tulemusi, mis sisaldas andmeid ettevõtlusõppe programmi läbiviimise ja hindamise kohta nii praktilises kui teoreetilises osas. Osalejad olid kaasatud ettevõtluse õppeprotsessi (õppimine ja õpetamine), ettevõtete loomisse ja protsessi hindamisse. Töö autor oli üks aktiivsetest osalejatest. Protsessi hindamiseks kasutati poolstruktureeritud intervjuusid ja kirjalikke materjale, nt õpipäevikud, samuti mentorite poolt kirja pandud õppurite õppeprotsessi kirjeldusi. Intervjueeritavateks olid kolme alustava ettevõtte asutajad. Kaks neist osalesid ka Artikli II raames uuritud ettevõtlusõppe programmis, milles doktoritöö autor osales samuti koolitaja ja mentorina. Tegevusuuringu meetodi kasutamisel osaleb uurija erinevates sotsiaalsetes rollides ja seetõttu mõjutab ta uurimise kulgemist ja tulemusi, kuna interaktsioonis saadakse uusi teadmisi ja luuakse uurimisobjekti uusi tõlgendusi (Greenwood & Levin, 2007; Strömpl, 2012). Uurija teadlikkus oma mõjust uurimistulemusele ning tema refleksiivsus aitavad vältida uurija liigset subjektiivsust.

Artiklis III toimunud uuring järgis GEM (*Global Entrepreneurship Monitor*) metoodikat. GEM küsitluse andmeid kogutakse kahel viisil: täiskasvanud elanikkonna küsitlus (TEK) ja rahvuslik ekspertküsitlus (EK). Igal GEMi konsortsiumis osaleval riigil on oma uurijate meeskond, kes kasutab küsitluseks standardiseeritud küsimustikku, mille abil hinnatakse elanike hoiakuid, tegevusi ja püüdlusi ettevõtluse alal. Käesoleva väitekirja autor osales sotsiaalsete ettevõtluse küsimuste koostamisel ja analüüsimisel. GEM keskendub nii ettevõtluse faasile vahetult enne uue ettevõtte loomist, kui ka sellele järgnevale perioodile – nende põhjal moodustatakse ettevõtlusaktiivsuse indeks TEA. Küsitlus viiakse läbi iga maa kohalikus keeles. Eesti valimi moodustasid 2004 vastajat ja analüüs hõlmas tööelist elanikkonda vanuses 18–64. Valim moodustati juhusliku valimina, mida hiljem kaaluti vastavalt regiooni rahvastiku näitajatega. Uuring viidi läbi telefoniküsitlusena maist augustini 2012.

Artiklis IV kasutati dokumendianalüüsi meetodit nelja sotsiaalse ettevõtte näitel. Andmete kogumise käigus uuriti nende organisatsioonide kodulehti, põhikirja, majandusaasta aruandeid, pressiteateid ja ajakirjanduses ilmunut. Andmete analüüsiks kasutati enamasti temaatilist analüüsi.

Ülevaateartiklis toob autor ära ka doktoriuurimuse struktuuri ja artiklite omavahelise sidususe.

Esimene artikkel selgitab välja, kuidas määratleda sotsiaalset ettevõtlust, keskendudes sotsiaalse ettevõtluse erinevatele kirjeldustele ja käsitlustele. Ülevaate põhjal sõelutakse välja laias maailmas enim kasutatud sotsiaalset ettevõtlust kirjeldavad võtmesõnad. Järgmise sammuna uuritakse, millised on võtmesõnad sotsiaalse ettevõtluse kirjeldamiseks Eesti erinevate sihtrühmade jaoks ning neid võrreldakse eelnevalt kirjandusest väljasõelatud võtmesõnadega. Uuringu tulemusena selgub, et sotsiaalse ettevõtluse kirjeldamiseks kasutavad Eesti sihtrühmad osaliselt samasuguseid võtmesõnu, mis sõeluti välja kirjanduse põhjal, kuid on ka erinevusi. Sarnasustena võib välja tuua sotsiaalse

eesmärgi ning sotsiaalse probleemi lahendusele keskendumise olulisust. Eesti vastajate jaoks olid veel olulised kodanikuühiskonna ja kogukonna arendamine, ning kasumi re-investeeringud. Samas pole ka Eestis välja kujunenud ühtset arusaama, kuidas sotsiaalset ettevõtlust defineerida, küll aga joonistusid välja elemendid, mis on ettevõtlusprotsessile omased.

Teine artikkel keskendub küsimusele, kuidas uurida sotsiaalset ettevõtlust. Artiklis luuakse doktoritöö raamistik, määratledes ettevõtlusprotsessi elemendid ja kirjeldades neid sotsiaalsest ettevõtlusest lähtuvalt. Aluseks on võetud Davidssoni (2005) ja Sarasvathy (2005) poolt kirjeldatud ettevõtlusprotsess, mille etappideks on idee genereerimine, võimaluse äratundmine, võimaluse arendamine ja uue (ettevõtte) loomine. Seega võeti teises artiklis kasutusele protsessipõhine lähenemine, kusjuures autorid tõid sisse ja kirjeldasid ka alamprotsesse, võttes kasutusse mõiste *silo*. Selle mõiste puhul on tegemist tunnetusliku õppeprotsessi konkreetse etapi tulemiga: Silod on füüsilise ja vaimse vormi kombinatsioonid (seisundid), mis vastavad ettevõtlusprotsessi üksikutele etappidele. Kuna tegemist on protsessiga, siis on selle loomulikuks komponendiks tagasiside.

Vastavalt tagasisidele võib *silo* komponentides toimuda kvalitatiivseid muutusi, ent komponentide olemus jääb sellele vaatamata samaks. Seega on tegemist mudeliga, mis võtab arvesse protsessi dünaamikat, nagu seda on kirjeldanud Kolb (1984) ning samuti eesmärkide ja vahendite erinevat kombineerimist, mis määrab ära kogu protsessi kulgemise, nagu on väitnud Sarasvathy (2008).

Seega ei ole *silo* olemus staatiline, vaid tema komponendid on vastastikusel seoses, olles samaaegselt seoses ka kogu ettevõtlusprotsessiga. Nõnda katab ettevõtluse protsessipõhine lähenemine ettevõtluse erinevad valdkonnad ja tüübid, kuna keskmes on väärtuse loomine kliendi ja ühiskonna jaoks.

Kolmas artikkel annab ülevaate ettevõtlikkuse mõõtmisest ja sh sotsiaalse ettevõtluse mõõtmisest, kasutades taas GEMi andmeid, mida on kogutud protsessipõhist meetodikat järgides. GEMi tulemusena näeme, et Eesti elanike sotsiaalne ettevõtlusaktiivsus (26,2%) on kõrgem Lääneriikide elanike vastavast aktiivsusest, samuti on see kõrgem Eesti üldisest ettevõtlusaktiivsusest.

Tervikliku käsitlemise kujundamiseks on lisaks eelnevale vajalik selgitada ka sotsiaalpoliitika mudeleid, kultuurilist konteksti, õigusruumi ja ettevõtluskeskkonda. Ettevõtluskeskkonna analüüsiks kasutab autor GEM andmestikku, mis tagab erinevate riikide andmete võrreldavuse, sest selle uurimismetoodika lähtub ettevõtlusprotsessist.

Neljas artikkel annab ülevaate, kuidas sotsiaalse ettevõtluse erinevad praktikad on Eestis arenenud. Samuti selgitatakse, kuidas Eesti sotsiaalse ettevõtluse arengut on mõjutanud Ameerika traditsiooni (sissetuleku teenimine ning sotsiaalne innovatsioon) ja Euroopa traditsiooni (kulukas heaoluühiskond) segunemine.

Doktoritöö ülevaateartikli lõpuosas arutleb autor artiklites I–IV loodud teadmiste üle ja esitab neli doktoriuurimust kokkuvõtvat teesi, mis aitavad määrat-

leda sotsiaalset ettevõtlust ja selle praktikaid Eestis ning käsitlevad sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimiseks pakutud mudelit.

Esimene tees puudutab sotsiaalse ettevõtluse määramist. Autor väidab, et hetkel ei ole väljakujunenud ühtset rahvusvaheliselt tunnustatud sotsiaalse ettevõtluse definitsiooni ja selged raamid võivad seetõttu pigem pärssida sellise mitmekesise nähtuse arengut. Seega, sotsiaalse ettevõtluse selgitamiseks ei ole mõistlik sõnastada definitsiooni, vaid määratleda seda kriteeriumite abil, kuna see võimaldab sektoriülest ja võrgustikupõhist lähenemist. Kindlasti võiksid aga eksisteerida kriteeriumid, mida sotsiaalse ettevõtluse määramisel tuleks silmas pidada. Põhiliste kriteeriumitena võib välja tuua: 1. sotsiaalsel ettevõttel on ühiskondlik eesmärk, mille saavutamise nimel tegutsetakse; 2. sotsiaalsel ettevõttel peaks olema jätkusuutlik ärimudel; 3. sotsiaalsest ettevõttest võib dividende võtta välja piiratud määral, näiteks, soovituslikult kuni 30%. Sotsiaalsete ettevõtete erisusena tõusis esile veel nende paindlikkus, eriti võrrelduna avaliku sektori organisatsioonidega. Kas aga oleks vaja eraldi sotsiaalse ettevõtluse juriidilist vormi, selles küsimuses lähevad praktikad lahku. Eesti sotsiaalse ettevõtluse käsitlemisel hetkel ei ole kerkinud vajadust sellise ettevõtlusvormi järgi, kuna eksisteerib juba piisav hulk vorme, mille raames sotsiaalsed ettevõtted saavad tegutseda.

Autori teiseks teesiks on väide, et sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimise mudeli aluseks sobib ettevõtlusprotsessi-põhine lähenemine. Ettevõtlusprotsessis pööratakse üha rohkem tähelepanu ettevõtja isiku asemel ettevõtluse protsessile, seonduvatele protsessidele ja laiemale ühiskondlikule kontekstile, mis võimaldab sotsiaalset ettevõtlust uurida tervikuna. Veelgi täpsemaks uurimiseks löid artikli autorid *silo*'de kontseptsiooni, mis võimaldavad jälgida ettevõtlusprotsessi etappe ja alamprotsesse. Seda lähenemist testiti ka sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimiseks. Tulemusena ilmses, et protsessipõhiselt saab vaadelda ka sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimist. Nagu eespool öeldud, on ettevõtlusprotsessi-põhist lähenemist kasutatud ka Globaalse Ettevõtlusmonitori meetodikas. See võimaldab saada võrreldavaid andmeid enam kui 60 riigi kohta. Antud meetod võtab arvesse konkreetse riigi sotsiaal-majanduslikku konteksti, ettevõtluskeskkonda ja inimese ettevõtlikkust ja hoiakuid.

Kolmas tees käsitleb GEM uuringu tulemusena selgunud sotsiaalse ettevõtlusaktiivsuse Eesti näitajaid. Sotsiaalse ettevõtluse aktiivsus Eestis (26,2%) on Lääneriikidega võrreldes kõrgem. Antud lähenemine võimaldab arvesse võtta ka mitteformaalseid ühendusi (nt seltsinguid) ning seega ka potentsiaali, mida siiani ei teadvustatud.

Neljanda teesina väidab autor, et kirjeldatud sotsiaalse ettevõtluse tuvastamise mudeli abil on eristatavad Eesti sotsiaalse ettevõtluse kaks olulist tunnust. Esiteks, et sotsiaalsed ettevõtted Eestis tegutsevad ühiskonna kõikides sektorites, kusjuures nende praktikaid ja ärimudeleid on mõjutanud Eesti sotsiaalpoliitika, mistõttu kasutatakse nii liberaalset (USA) kui sotsiaaldemokraatlikku (Euroopa) mudelit. Teiseks ja kõige olulisemaks on tõdemus, et nõukogude okupatsioonile vaatamata on sotsiaalse ettevõtluse tase Eestis kõrge ning ühis-

konna liikmed on valmis panustama nii endi heaolu kui ka ühiskonna eesmärkide nimel.

Tänapäevases akadeemilises diskussioonis eksisteerib erinevaid sotsiaalse ettevõtluse olemuse tõlgendusi ja käsitlusi. Protsessipõhine lähenemine sotsiaalse ettevõtluse uurimiseks võimaldab sotsiaalse ettevõtluse arengute süstemaatilist ja objektiivset uurimist, ühtlasi on sellise lähenemise puhul uurimistulemused rahvusvaheliselt võrreldavad.

7. REFERENCES

- Achleitner, A-K., Bassen, A., Roder, B. (2009). *An Integrative Framework for Reporting in Social Entrepreneurship*. Retrieved from <http://ssrn.com/abstract=1325700> (07.05.2013)
- Aidukaite, J. (2009). The Estonian model of the welfare state: tradition and changes. In S. Golinowska, P. Hengstenberg & M. Żukowski (Eds.), *Diversity and commonality in European social policies: The forging of a European social model* (pp. 110–139). Warsaw: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.
- Aldrich, H. E. (2001). Who wants to be an evolutionary theorist? *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 10(2), 115–127.
- Alvord, S. H., Brown, L. D. & Letts, C. W. (2004). Social entrepreneurship and social transformation. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 40(3), 260–282.
- Ardichvili, A., Cardozo, R. & Ray, S. (2003). A theory of entrepreneurial opportunity identification and development. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18(1), 105–123.
- Arro, T., Elenurm, T., Küttim, M., Liigus, E., Masso, J., Mets, T., Paes, K., Raudsaar, M., Rebane, K., Reino, A., Pöder, K. & Venesaar, U. (2013). Entrepreneurial activity in Estonia. In K. Rebane (Ed.), *Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring 2012 Estonian report* (pp. 18–30). Tallinn: Estonian Development Fund.
- Austin, J. E. (2006). Three avenues for social entrepreneurship research. In J. Mair, J. Robinson & K. Hockerts (Eds.), *Social entrepreneurship* (pp. 22–33). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Austin, J.E., Leonard, H., Reficco, E. & Wei-Skillern, J. (2004). Corporate social entrepreneurship: A new vision of CSR. Harvard Business School Working Paper No. 05–021. Boston: Harvard Business School.
- Austin, J., Stevenson, H. & Wei-Skillern, J. (2006). Social and commercial entrepreneurship: Same, different, or both? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 30(1), 1–22.
- Baron, R. A. & Shane, S. A. (2008). *Entrepreneurship. A process perspective*. Thomson South-Western.
- Baumol, W. J. (1990). Entrepreneurship: Productive, unproductive and destructive. *Journal of Political Economy*, 98(3), 893–921.
- Berger, P. & Luckmann, T. (1967). *The social construction of reality. A treatise on sociology of knowledge*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday Anchor.
- Berglund, K., Johannisson, B. & Schwartz, B. (Eds.) (2012). *Societal entrepreneurship: Positioning, penetrating, promoting*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Boettke, P. (1993). *Why perestroika failed: The politics and economics of socialist transformation*. London: Routledge.
- Boschee, J. (2001). Eight basic principles for nonprofit entrepreneurs. *Nonprofit World*, 19(4), 15–18.
- Boschee, J. (1998). Merging Mission and Money: A Board Member's Guide to Social Entrepreneurship. Retrieved from <http://www.socialent.org/pdfs/MergingMission.pdf> (30.10.2007).
- Boschee, J. (1995). Social entrepreneurship. *Across the Board*, 32(3), 20–25.
- Bosma, N. S. (2013). The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) and its Impact on Entrepreneurship Research. Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. *Foundations and Trends in Entrepreneurship*, 9(2), 143–248.

- Bosma, N. & Levie, J. (2010). *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2009 Global Report*. Babson College, Universidad del Desarrollo and Reykjavik University.
- Borzaga, C. & Galera, G. (2004). Social economy in transition economies: Realities and perspectives. *Discussion Paper*. Trento: OECD centre for local development.
- Bornstein, D. (2004). *How to Change the World: Social Entrepreneurs and the Power of New Ideas*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Burr, V. (2003). *Social constructionism*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Centre of Registers and Information Systems (2015). Statistical indicators. Retrieved from <http://www.eer.ee/stat.phtml> (05.01.2015).
- Certo, S. T. & Miller, T. (2008). Social entrepreneurship: Key issues and concepts. *Business Horizons*, 51(4), 267–271.
- Choi, D. Y. & Gray, E. R. (2004). Understanding the sustainable entrepreneur. *Engineering Management Conference, 2004. Proceedings. IEEE International*, 2, 708–712.
- CIA World Factbook (2009). Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2172.html> (08.05.2014).
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Davidsson, P. (2005). The entrepreneurial process as a matching problem. *Academy of Management Conference*, Hawaii, 05.–10.08.2012. Retrieved from <http://eprints.qut.edu.au/archive/00002064> (21.07.2012).
- Davidsson, P. & Wiklund, J. (2001). Levels of analysis in entrepreneurship research: Current research practice and suggestions for the future. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 25(4), 81–99.
- Dees, J. G. (1998). Enterprising nonprofits. *Harvard Business Review*, 76(1), 55–66.
- Dees, J. G., Economy, P. & Emerson, J. (2002). *Strategic tools for social entrepreneurs: Enhancing the performance of your enterprising nonprofit*. New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Dees, J. G. & Anderson, B. B. (2006). Framing a theory of social entrepreneurship: Building on two schools of practice and thought. In R. Mosher-Williams (Ed.), *Research on social entrepreneurship: Understanding and contributing to an emerging field. ARNOVA Occasional Paper Series*, 1(3), 39–66.
- Dees, J. G., Emerson, J. & Economy, P. (2001). Enterprising non-profits: A toolkit for social entrepreneurs. *Wiley Non-Profit Series*, New York.
- Defourny, J. (2004). Social Enterprise in an enlarged Europe: Concept and realities. *Social Entrepreneurship & Economic Efficiency* (pp. 1–21). Second Conference on Social Economy in the Central and Eastern European Countries. Krakow, Poland, 27.–28.10.2004.
- Defourny, J. & Nyssens, M. (2012). The EMES approach of social enterprise in a comparative perspective. *EMES Working Papers Series*, 12/03. Liège: EMES European Research Network.
- Defourny, J. & Nyssens, M. (2010a). Social enterprise in Europe: At the crossroads of market, public policies and third sector. *Policy and Society*, 29(3), 231–242.
- Defourny, J. & Nyssens, M. (2010b). Conceptions of social enterprise and social entrepreneurship in Europe and the United States: Convergences and divergences. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 1(1), 32–53.
- Defourny, J. & Nyssens, M. (2008). Social enterprise in Europe: Recent trends and developments. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 4(3), 202–228.

- De Koning, A. (1999). *Conceptualizing opportunity recognition as a socio-cognitive process*. Stockholm: Centre for Advanced Studies in Leadership.
- DiMaggio, P. J. (1988). Interest and agency in institutional theory. In L. Zucker (Ed.), *Institutional patterns and organizations* (pp. 3–22). Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.
- Dorado, S. (2006). Social entrepreneurial ventures: Different values so different process of creation, no? *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, 11(4), 319–343.
- Drayton, W. & MacDonald, S. (1993). *Leading public entrepreneurs*. Arlington, Ashoka: Innovators for the Public.
- Ducci, G., Stantella, C. & Vulturni, P. (2002). The social enterprise in Europe: The state of the art. *International Journal of Mental Health*, 31(3), 76–91.
- Eesti loomemajanduse olukorra uuring ja kaardistus. (2013). Eesti Konjunktuuriinstituut Tallinn. (in Estonian) Retrieved from http://www.eas.ee/images/doc/sihtasutusest/uuringud/loomemajandus/1._eesti_loomemajanduse_olukorra_2011_uuring_ja_kaar_distus.pdf (20.05.2013).
- Emerson, J. & Twersky, F. (1996). *New social entrepreneurs: The success, challenge, and lessons of non-profit enterprise creation*. San Francisco: Roberts Foundation.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (1990). *The three worlds of welfare capitalism*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (1996). Welfare states without work: The impasse of labour shedding and familism in continental European social policy. In G. Esping-Andersen (Ed.), *Welfare states in transition: National adaptations in global economies* (pp. 66–88). London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (1999). *Social foundations of postindustrial economies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Freedom House. (2009). Index of Civil Liberties. Retrieved from http://www.freedomhouse.org/report-types/freedom-world#.Us_gZ03xvIU (08.05.2014).
- Galera, G. & Borzaga, C. (2009). Social enterprise: An international overview of its conceptual evolution and legal implementation. *Social Enterprise Journal*, 5(3), 210–228.
- Gartner, W. B. (1988). Who is an Entrepreneur? is the wrong question. *American Small Business Journal*, 12(4), 11–31.
- George, A. L. & Bennett, A. (2004). *Case studies and theory development in the social science*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Gergen, K. J. (2001). *Social construction in context*. Thousand Oaks, etc.: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Ghuri, P. (2004). Designing and conducting case studies in international business research. In R. Morschan-Pickker & C. Welsh (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research methods for international business* (pp. 109–124). Cheltenham, UK, Northampton, MA, USA: Edward Elgar.
- Granovetter, M. (1985). Economic action and social structure: The problem of embeddedness. *American Journal of Sociology*, 91, 481–510.
- Greenwood, D. J., & Levin, M. (2007). *Introduction to action research, social research for social change* (2nd edn). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Grishakova, M. & Kazulja, M. (2008). Social risks and challenges of the post-socialist transition period in Estonia: Analysis of biographical narratives. *Qualitative Sociology Review*, 4(2), 106–125.
- Guclu, A., Dees, J., & Battle Anderson, B. (2002). The Process of Social Entrepreneurship: Creating Opportunities Worthy of Serious Pursuit, *CASE Working*

- Paper Series 3*, Duke University: Center for the Advancement of Social Entrepreneurship.
- Haugh, H. (2006). Social enterprise: Beyond economic outcomes and individual returns. In H. Mair, J. Robinson & K. Hockerts (Eds.), *Social entrepreneurship* (pp. 180–205). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Henry, E. (2007). Kaupapa Maoti entrepreneurship. In D. L. Paul & R. B. Anderson (Eds.), *International handbook of research on intigenous entrepreneurship* (pp. 536–548). Cheltenham, UK, Northampton, MA, USA: Edward Elgar.
- Helemäe, J., Saar, E. & Vöörmann, R. (2000). *Kas haridusse tasus investeerida*. Tallinn: Teaduste Akadeemia Kirjastus.
- Hibbert, S. A., Hogg, G. & Quinn, T. (2002). International consumer response to social entrepreneurship: The case of the Big Issue in Scotland. *Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 7(3), 288–301.
- Hills, G., Lumpkin, G. T. & Singh, R. P. (1997). Opportunity recognition: Perceptions and behaviors of entrepreneurs. *Frontiers of entrepreneurship research* (pp. 203–218). Wellesley, MA: Babson College.
- Jain, P. S. (1996). Managing credit for the rural poor: Lessons from the Grameen Bank. *World Development*, 24(1), 79–89.
- Jaspers, K. (1956). *Existenzphilosophie*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter & Co.
- Kao, R. W. Y., Kao, K. R. & Kao, R. R. (2002). Entrepreneurism – A philosophy and a sensible alternative for the market economy. London: Imperial College Press.
- Katz, J. & Steyaert, C. (Eds.) (2004). Entrepreneurship in society: Exploring and theorizing new forms and practices of entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, (Special Issue), 16(3), 179–250.
- Kerlin, J. A. (2013). Defining social enterprise across different contexts: A conceptual framework based on institutional factors. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 42(1), 84–108.
- Kerlin, J. A. (2010). Social Enterprise in the United States and Abroad: Learning from Our Differences. In R. Mosher-Williams (Ed) *Research on Social Entrepreneurship: Understanding and Contributing to an Emerging Field* (Volume 1, No. 3). ARNOVA's Occasional Papers. Retrieved from <http://nationalcne.org/> (12.08.2014)
- Kerlin, J. A. (2009). A comparison of social enterprise models and contexts. In J. A. Kerlin (Ed.), *Social enterprise: A global comparison* (pp. 184–200). Tufts University Press.
- King, N. (2004). Using interviews in qualitative research. In C. Cassell & S. Gillian (Eds.), *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research* (pp. 11–22). London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Kolb, D.A. (1984). *Experiential Learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice-Hall.
- Kornai, J. (1992). *The socialist system: The political economy of communism*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Lauristin, M. & Vihalemm, P. (2009). The political agenda during different periods of Estonian transformation: External and internal factors. *Journal of Baltic Studies*, 40(1), 1–28.
- Lauristin, M., Vihalemm, P., Rosengren, K. E. & Weibull, L. (1997). Return to the western world: Cultural and political perspectives on the Estonian post-communist transition. Tartu: Tartu University Prss.
- Leadbeater, C. (1997). *The rise of social entrepreneur*. London: Demos.

- Lehner, O. & Kansikas, J. (2012). Opportunity recognition in social entrepreneurship: A thematic meta analysis. *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 21, 25–58.
- Lepoutre, J., Justo, R., Terjesen, S. & Bosma, N. (2010). Designing a global standardized methodology for measuring social entrepreneurship activity: The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor social entrepreneurship study. Springer.
- Les, E. & Kolin, M. (2009). East-Central Europe. In J. A. Kerlin (Ed.), *Social enterprise: A global comparison* (pp. 35–63). Tufts University Press.
- Low, M. B. & MacMillan, I. C. (1988). Entrepreneurship: Past research and future challenges. *Journal of Management*, 14(2), 139–161.
- Mair, J. & Marti, I. (2006). Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1), 36–44.
- Martin, R. J. & Osberg, S. (2007). Social entrepreneurship: The case for a definition. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, 5(2), 28–39.
- McMullen, J. S. & Dimov, D. (2013). Time and the entrepreneurial journey: The problems and promise of studying entrepreneurship as a process. *Journal of Management Studies*, 50(8), 1481–1512.
- McMullen, J. S. (2011). Delineating the domain of development entrepreneurship: A market-based approach to facilitating inclusive economic growth. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35(1), 185–193.
- Mets, T., Raudsaar, M. & Summatavet, K. (2013). Experimenting social constructivist approach in entrepreneurial process-based training: Cases in social, creative and technology entrepreneurship. In M. Curley & P. Formica (Eds.), *The Experimental Nature of New Venture Creation* (pp.95–113). Springer-Verlag.
- Mets, T. (2008). Regio – A learned global knowledge company: Case from Estonia. In R. Aidis & F. Welter (Eds.), *The cutting edge: Innovation and entrepreneurship in new Europe* (pp. 54–73). Edward Elgar.
- Mets, T. (2005). Edukas ettevõtlus ääremaal. Sissejuhatus äriplaani. Tartu: OÜ ALO.
- Miles, M. B. & Huberman, A. M. (1994). Data management and analysis methods. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 428–444). Sage Publications Ltd.
- Mulgan, G. (2007), *Social Innovation: What It Is, Why It Matters and How It Can Be Accelerated*, SKOLL Centre for Social Entrepreneurship, Oxford, Said School of Business.
- Nambisan, S. (200). Platforms for collaboration. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, 7(3), 44–49
- Neergaard, H. (2007). Sampling in entrepreneurial settings. In H. Neergaard & J. P. Ulhoi (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research methods in entrepreneurship* (pp. 253–278). Edward Elgar.
- Network of Estonian Non-profit Organisations. (2010). Retrieved from <http://www.ngo.ee> (09.07.2010).
- Nove, A. (1993). *An economic history of the USSR 1917–1991*. London: Penguin Economics.
- Nyssens, M. (2009). Western Europe. In J. A. Kerlin (Ed.), *Social enterprise: A global comparison* (pp. 12–34). Tufts University Press.
- Nyssens, M. (Ed.) (2006). *Social enterprise – At the crossroads of market, public policies and civil society*. London/New York: Routledge.
- Oster, S. M., Massarsky, C. W., & Beinhacker, S. L. (2004). *Generating and sustaining non-profit earned income. A guide to successful enterprise strategies*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Patzelt, H. & Shepherd, D. A. (2011). Recognizing opportunities for sustainable development. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35(4), 631–652.
- Polanyi, K. (1957). *The great transformation: The political and economic origin of our time*. Boston: Beacon Hill.
- Pärenson, T. (2011). Social impact evaluation in social enterprises in Estonia: Need, readiness and practices. *Dissertation*. Tartu: University of Tartu.
- Raufflet, E. & Amaral, C. G. (2007). Bridging business and society: The Abrinq Foundation in Brazil. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 73(1), 119–128.
- Reiser, D. B. (2009). For-profit philanthropy. *Fordham Law Review*, 77(5), 2437–2473.
- Reynolds, P., Bosma, N., Autio, E., Hunt, S., De Bono, N., Servais, I., Lopez-Garcia, P. & Chin, N. (2005). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: Data collection design and implementation 1998–2003. *Small Business Economics*, 24(3), 205–231.
- Rossman, G. R. & Rallis, S. F. (1998). *Learning in the field*. Sage Publications Ltd.
- Ruutsoo, R. (1999). Identiteet. In J. Viikberg (Ed.), *Eesti rahvaste raamat* (lk. 181–186). Tallinn: Eesti Entsüklopeedia Kirjastus.
- Sagawa, S. & Segal, E. (2000). Common interest, common good: Creating value through business and social sector partnership. *California Management Review*, 42(2), 105–122.
- Salamon, L. M., Hems, L. C. & Chinnock, C. (2000). The nonprofit sector: For what and for whom? *Working Papers of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project*, 37. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Center for Civil Society Studies.
- Salamon, L. M. & Anheier, H. K. (1998). Social origins of civil society: Explaining the nonprofit sector cross-nationally. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 9(3), 213–248.
- Sarasvathy, S.D. (2008), *Effectuation: Elements of Entrepreneurial Expertise*, Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Sarasvathy, S. D. & Venkataraman, S. (2011). Entrepreneurship as method: Open questions for an entrepreneurial future. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35(1), 113–135.
- Sarasvathy, S. D., Dew, N., Velamuri, S. R. & Venkataraman, S. (2005). Three views of entrepreneurial opportunity. *International Handbook Series on Entrepreneurship*, 1(3), 141–160.
- Sautet, F. (2013). Local and systemic entrepreneurship: Solving the puzzle of entrepreneurship and economic development. *Entrepreneurship, Theory and Practice*, 37(2), 387–402.
- Schumpeter, J. A. (1934). *The theory of economic development: An inquiry into profits, capital, credit, interest, and the business cycle*. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.
- Schumpeter, J. A. (2005). *Capitalism, socialism, and democracy*. New York: Harper.
- Shane, S. (1999). Prior knowledge and the discovery of entrepreneurial opportunities. *Organization Science*, 11(4), 448–469.
- Shane, S., & Venkataraman, S. (2000). The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 217–226.
- Sigrist, B. (1999). Entrepreneurial opportunity recognition. *A presentation at the Annual UIC/AMA symposium at Marketing/Entrepreneurship Interface*, Sofia-Antipolis, France.
- Squazzoni, F. (2009). Social entrepreneurship and economic development in Silicon Valley: A case study on the Joint Venture: Silicon Valley Network. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 38(5), 869–883.

- Seymour, G. S. (2012). *Handbook of research methods on social entrepreneurship*. Edward Elgar.
- Social Entrepreneurship in Estonia. (2014). Network of Estonian Non-Profit Organisations, Statistics Estonia, and the Estonian Social Enterprise Network. Retrieved from http://sev.ee/wp-content/uploads/2014/10/ANNEX-2.-Summary-of-the-results_ENG.pdf (03.01.2015).
- Snape, D. & Spencer, L. (2003). The foundation of qualitative research. In J. Ritchie & J. Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers* (pp. 1–23). London & Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Stephenson, C. (2008). Creating shared value: The inseparability of business and society. *Ivey Business Journal*, 74(4), 772.
- Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded theory methodology: An overview. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 273–285). Sage Publications Ltd.
- Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Strömpl, J. (2012). Sotsiaalse tegelikkuse konstrueeritud iseloom ja interpreteeriv sotsiaalteadus. In J. Strömpl, M. Selg & M. Linno (Toim.). *Narratiivne lähenemine sotsiaaltöuurimuses. Laste väärikohetlemise lood* (lk. 15–47). Tartu: Tartu Ülikooli Kirjastus.
- Survey of charitable attitudes. (2013). *Heategevusalaste hoiakute uuring*. Tallinn: TNS Emor.
- Zadek, S. & Thake, S. (1997). Send in the social entrepreneurs. *New Statesman*, 26, 31.
- Zahra, S. A., Gedajlovic, A., Neubaum, D. O. & Shulman, J. M. (2009). A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical challenges. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24(5), 519–532.
- Tallo, A. & Terk, E. (1998). The generations in Estonia's transition period. *Estonian Human Development Report*. Tallinn.
- The National Foundation of Civil Society (2013). Retrieved from <http://kysk.ee/?s=662> (10.02.2013).
- Thompson, J. & Doherty, B. (2006). The diverse world of social enterprise: A collection of social enterprise stories. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 33(5/6), 361–375.
- Thompson, J., Alvy, G. & Lees, A. (2000). Social entrepreneurship – A new look at the people and the potential. *Management Decision*, 38(5), 328–338.
- Terjesen, S., Lepoutre, J., Justo, R. & Bosma, N. (2012). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor report on social entrepreneurship executive summary. Universidad del Desarrollo. Retrieved from <http://gemconsortium.org/docs/download/376> (08.10.2013).
- Titma, M., Tuma, N. B. & Silver, B. D. (1998). Winners and losers in the post-communist transition: New evidence from Estonia. *Post-Soviet Affairs*, 14, 114–135.
- Tracey, P., & Phillips, N. (2007). The distinctive challenge of education social entrepreneurs: A postscript and rejoinder to the special issue on entrepreneurship education. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 6, 264–271.
- Van de Ven, A. & Engleman, R. (2004). Event- and outcome-driven explanations of entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 19(3), 343–358.
- Van Slyke, D. M. & Newman, H. K. (2006). Venture philanthropy and social entrepreneurship in community redevelopment. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 16(3), 345–368.

- Varblane, U. & Mets, T. (2010). Entrepreneurship education in the higher education institutions (HEI's) of post-communist European countries. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 4(3), 204–219.
- Waddock, S. A. (1988). Building successful partnerships. *Sloan Management Review*, 29(4), 17–23.
- Waddock, S. A. & Post, J. E. (1995). Catalytic alliances for social problem solving. *Human Relations*, 48(8), 951–972.
- Weber, M. (1984). Die protestantische Ethik und der Geist des Kapitalismus. In J. Winckelmann (Ed.), *Max Weber, Die protestantische Ethik I. Eine Aufsatzsammlung* (s. 27–317). Gütersloh, Germany: Gütersloher Verlagshaus Mohn.
- Welter, F. (2011). Contextualizing entrepreneurship – Conceptual challenges and ways forward. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35(1), 165–184.
- Wiklund, J., Davidsson, P., Audretsch, D. B. & Karlsson, C. (2011). The future of entrepreneurship research. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35(1), 1–9.
- Yin, R. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousands Oaks: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Yunus, M. (2003). Halving poverty by 2015 – We can actually make it happen. *The Round Table*, 92(370), 363–375.
- Xavier, S. R., Kelley, D., Kew, J., Herrington, M. & Vorderwülbecke, A. (2013). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: 2012 Global Report. Retrieved from <http://www.gemconsortium.org/docs/download/2645> (30.01.2013).

CURRICULUM VITAE

Name: Mervi Raudsaar
Date of birth: 08.01.1975
Citizenship: Estonian
Address: University of Tartu, School of Economics and Business Administration, head of Chair of Entrepreneurship and lecturer of entrepreneurship, Narva Road 4–B108, 51009 Tartu.
Phone: +372 51 18161
E-mail: mervi.raudsaar@ut.ee

Education:
09.2006–... University of Tartu, Faculty of Social Sciences and Education, Institute of Social Studies, Doctoral studies (Sociology).
09.1997–12.2004 University of Tartu, Faculty of Social Sciences, Institute of Sociology and Social Policy, Magister Artium (Social Work and Policy).
09.1993–06.1997 University of Tartu, Faculty of Social Sciences, Bachelor of Arts (Social Work).

Employment:
04.2014–... University of Tartu, School of Economics and Business Administration, head of Chair of Entrepreneurship and lecturer of entrepreneurship.
02.2007–03.2014 University of Tartu, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Centre for Entrepreneurship, assistant of entrepreneurship.
08.2007–2008 University of Tartu, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Centre for Entrepreneurship, ESF Learning program: Entrepreneurship for young people, project leader.
08.2000–02.2007 Tartu Academy of Theology, lecturer and research secretary.
1997–2000 Bookshop Krisostomus, executive.
1992–1997 Bookshop Krisistomus, counsellor.

Research field:
Social entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship education, civil society, youth work, diasporaa.

Publications:

- Summatavet, K. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2015). Cultural heritage and entrepreneurship – inspiration for novel ventures creation. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 9(1), 31–44.
- Raudsaar, M.**, Paes, K. & Mets, T. (2015) Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) – Outcomes of societal meaning in Estonia. *Management of Organizations: Systematic Research*, 74, 103–120.
- Mets, T., **Raudsaar, M.** & Summatavet, K. (2013). Experimenting social constructivist approach in entrepreneurial process-based training: Cases in social, creative and technology entrepreneurship. In M. Curley & P. Formica (Eds.), *The Experimental Nature of New Venture Creation* (pp. 95–113). Springer-Verlag.
- Raudsaar, M.** & Kaseorg, M. (2013). An exploration of social entrepreneurship in Estonia. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies*, 2(2), 19–29.
- Raudsaar, M.** & Kaseorg, M. (2013). Social entrepreneurship as an alternative for disabled people. *GSTF Journal on Business Review*, 2(3, March), 120–125.
- Kaseorg, M. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2013). Students' attitudes toward entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies*, 2(2), 31–43.
- Raudsaar, M.** & Kaseorg M. (2012). Comparing learning process in the field of entrepreneurship education: Target groups revising lifelong experience in teaching process. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 49, 59–72.
- Uba, L., **Raudsaar, M.** & Reiljan, A. (2012). Ettevõtluskoolitused. In K. Summatavet (Toim.), *Käsitööga tööle 2. Handicraft for Job 2* (pp. 118–163). Viljandi: Tartu Ülikooli Viljandi Kultuuriakadeemia.
- Karhunen, P., Arvola, K., Küttim, M., Venesaar, U., Mets, T., **Raudsaar, M.** & Uba, L. (2011). *Creative entrepreneurs' perceptions about entrepreneurial education*. Espoo: Aalto University, School of Economics, Small Business Center.
- Karhunen, P., Arvola, K., Küttim, M., Venesaar, U., Mets, T., **Raudsaar, M.** & Uba, L. (2011). *Perceptions of entrepreneurship among future creative professionals: results of a survey for university students in Finland, Estonia and Latvia*. Espoo: Aalto University, School of Economics, Small Business Center.

Conference presentations and research activities:

- Raudsaar, M.** & Kaseorg, M. (2015). Entrepreneurship education in higher education institutions: Estonian case. 4th Cyprus International Conference on Educational Research, 19.–21.03.2015, Kyrenia, North Cyprus. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*. [in press]
- Summatavet, K. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2012). Cultural heritage and entrepreneurship – A source of inspiration for community entrepreneurship and

- social innovation in rural areas. *The Cultural Entrepreneurship Conference*, 10.–11.12.2012 Pori, Finland.
- Team member (2011–2013) in Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring 2012.
- Team member in Nordforsk project: *Social Entrepreneurship Research Network for the Nordic Countries*, 24.–26.04.2012 Helsinki, 03.–05.10.2012 Östersund.
- Raudsaar, M.** (2012). Ettevõtluskodust auditooriumisse – mida peaksime õppima. *Entrepreneurship and University*, 15.–16.03.2012 Tartu University, Estonia.
- Kaseorg, M., **Raudsaar, M.** & Uba, L. (2010). Entrepreneurship education in lifelong learning. 3rd International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (ICERI). *Proceedings CD*, 6739-6747. 15.–17.11.10 Madrid.
- Kaseorg, M., **Raudsaar, M.** & Uba, L. (2010). Social entrepreneurship and creative economy as alternative ways for entrepreneurship in Estonia. 3rd International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (ICERI). *Proceedings CD*, 6723–6732. 15.–17.11.2010 Madrid, Spain.
- Kaseorg, M. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2009). Entrepreneurial skills education process and support in pilot project of Entrepreneurship Home for young people. 2nd International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (ICERI). *Proceedings CD*, 5862–5869. 16.–18.11.2009 Madrid, Spain.
- Raudsaar, M.** (2008). Social entrepreneurship in post-communist transition society: The case from Estonia. *15th Nordic Conference on Small Business Research*, 21.–22.05.2008 Tallinn, Estonia.
- Raudsaar, M.**, Uba, L. & Pere, A. (2008). Project Entrepreneurship Home for Young People as innovative method for teaching entrepreneurship and developing social youth entrepreneurship in a community. *Baltic Dynamics*, 05.–07.09.2008 Tartu, Estonia.
- Kaseorg, M. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2008). Family firm as social entrepreneur in post-communist transition society: The case from Estonia. *European Summer University (ESU) conference in Entrepreneurship*, 21.–26.08.2008 Bodø, Norway.

ELULOOKIRJELDUS

Nimi: Mervi Raudsaar
Sünniaeg: 08.01.1975
Kodakondsus: Eesti
Amet ja aadress: Tartu Ülikool, majandusteaduskond, ettevõtluse õppetooli juhataja ja ettevõtluse lektor, Narva mnt 4-B108, 51009 Tartu
Telefon: +372 51 18161
E-post: mervi.raudsaar@ut.ee

Haridus:
09.2006– ... Tartu Ülikool, doktorant (sotsioloogia eriala).
09.1997–12.2004 Tartu Ülikool, MA (sotsiaaltöö ja -poliitika eriala).
09.1993–06.1997 Tartu Ülikool, BA (sotsiaaltöö eriala, psühholoogia kõrvaleriala).

Töökogemus:
04.2014–... Tartu Ülikool, majandusteaduskond, ettevõtluse õppetooli juhataja ja ettevõtluse lektor.
02.2007–03.2014 Tartu Ülikool, majandusteaduskond, ettevõtluskeskus, ettevõtluse assistent.
08.2007–2008 Tartu Ülikool, majandusteaduskond, ettevõtluskeskus, ESFi projekt Ettevõtluskodu, projektijuht.
08.2000–02.2007 Tartu Teoloogia Akadeemia, akadeemiline sekretär ja noorsootöö lektor.
1997–2000 Raamatukauplus Krisostomus, tegevjuht.
1992–1997 Raamatukauplus Krisistomus, nõustaja.

Peamised uurimisvaldkonnad:

Sotsiaalne ettevõtlus, ettevõtlusõpe ja -metoodika, kolmas sektor, Eesti diasporaa, noorsootöö.

Publikatsioonid:

Summatavet, K. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2015). Cultural heritage and entrepreneurship – inspiration for novel ventures creation. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 9(1), 31–44.

Raudsaar, M., Paes, K. & Mets, T. (2015) Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) – Outcomes of societal meaning in Estonia. *Management of Organizations: Systematic Research*, 74, 103–120.

Mets, T., **Raudsaar, M.** & Summatavet, K. (2013). Experimenting social constructivist approach in entrepreneurial process-based training: Cases in social, creative and technology entrepreneurship. In M. Curley & P. Formica (Eds.), *The Experimental Nature of New Venture Creation* (pp. 95–113). Springer-Verlag.

- Raudsaar, M. & Kaseorg, M.** (2013). An exploration of social entrepreneurship in Estonia. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies*, 2(2), 19–29.
- Raudsaar, M. & Kaseorg, M.** (2013). Social entrepreneurship as an alternative for disabled people. *GSTF Journal on Business Review*, 2(3, March), 120–125.
- Kaseorg, M. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2013). Students' attitudes toward entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies*, 2(2), 31–43.
- Raudsaar, M. & Kaseorg M.** (2012). Comparing learning process in the field of entrepreneurship education: Target groups revising lifelong experience in teaching process. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 49, 59–72.
- Uba, L., **Raudsaar, M.** & Reiljan, A. (2012). Ettevõtluskoolitused. In K. Summatavet (Toim.), *Käsitööga tööle 2. Handicraft for Job 2* (pp. 118–163). Viljandi: Tartu Ülikooli Viljandi Kultuuriakadeemia.
- Karhunen, P., Arvola, K., Küttim, M., Venesaar, U., Mets, T., **Raudsaar, M.** & Uba, L. (2011). *Creative entrepreneurs' perceptions about entrepreneurial education*. Espoo: Aalto University, School of Economics, Small Business Center.
- Karhunen, P., Arvola, K., Küttim, M., Venesaar, U., Mets, T., **Raudsaar, M.** & Uba, L. (2011). *Perceptions of entrepreneurship among future creative professionals: results of a survey for university students in Finland, Estonia and Latvia*. Espoo: Aalto University, School of Economics, Small Business Center.

Konverentside ettekanded ja saadud uurimistoetused:

- Raudsaar, M. & Kaseorg, M.** (2015). Entrepreneurship education in higher education institutions: Estonian case. 4th Cyprus International Conference on Educational Research, 19.–21.03.2015, Kyrenia, North Cyprus. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*. [in press]
- Summatavet, K. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2012). Cultural heritage and entrepreneurship – A source of inspiration for community entrepreneurship and social innovation in rural areas. *The Cultural Entrepreneurship Conference*, 10.–11.12.2012 Pori, Finland.
- Team member (2011–2013) in Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring 2012.
- Team member in Nordforsk project: *Social Entrepreneurship Research Network for the Nordic Countries*, 24.–26.04.2012 Helsinki, 03.–05.10.2012 Östersund.
- Raudsaar, M.** (2012). Ettevõtluskodust auditooriumisse – mida peaksime õppima. *Entrepreneurship and University*, 15.–16.03.2012 Tartu University, Estonia.
- Kaseorg, M., **Raudsaar, M.** & Uba, L. (2010). Entrepreneurship education in lifelong learning. 3rd International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (ICERI). *Proceedings CD*, 6739-6747. 15.–17.11.10 Madrid.

- Kaseorg, M., **Raudsaar, M.** & Uba, L. (2010). Social entrepreneurship and creative economy as alternative ways for entrepreneurship in Estonia. 3rd International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (ICERI). *Proceedings CD*, 6723–6732. 15.–17.11.2010 Madrid, Spain.
- Kaseorg, M. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2009). Entrepreneurial skills education process and support in pilot project of Entrepreneurship Home for young people. 2nd International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation (ICERI). *Proceedings CD*, 5862–5869. 16.–18.11.2009 Madrid, Spain.
- Raudsaar, M.** (2008). Social entrepreneurship in post-communist transition society: The case from Estonia. *15th Nordic Conference on Small Business Research*, 21.–22.05.2008 Tallinn, Estonia.
- Raudsaar, M.**, Uba, L. & Pere, A. (2008). Project Entrepreneurship Home for Young People as innovative method for teaching entrepreneurship and developing social youth entrepreneurship in a community. *Baltic Dynamics*, 05.–07.09.2008 Tartu, Estonia.
- Kaseorg, M. & **Raudsaar, M.** (2008). Family firm as social entrepreneur in post-communist transition society: The case from Estonia. *European Summer University (ESU) conference in Entrepreneurship*, 21.–26.08.2008 Bodø, Norway.

DISSERTATIONES SOCIOLOGICAE UNIVERSITATIS TARTUENSIS

1. **Veronika Kalmus.** School textbooks in the field of socialisation. Tartu, 2003, 206 p.
2. **Kairi Kõlves.** Estonians' and Russian minority's suicides and suicide risk factors: studies on aggregate and individual level. Tartu, 2004, 111 p.
3. **Kairi Kasearu.** Structural changes or individual preferences? A study of unmarried cohabitation in Estonia. Tartu, 2010, 126 p.
4. **Avo Trumm.** Poverty in the context of societal transitions in Estonia. Tartu, 2011, 215 p.
5. **Kadri Koreinik.** Language ideologies in the contemporary Estonian public discourse: With a focus on South Estonian. Tartu, 2011, 128 p.
6. **Marre Karu.** Fathers and parental leave: slow steps towards dual earner/dual carer family model in Estonia. Tartu, 2011, 125 p.
7. **Algi Samm.** The relationship between perceived poor family communication and suicidal ideation among adolescents in Estonia. Tartu, 2012, 121 p.
8. **Tatjana Kiilo.** Promoting teachers' efficacy through social constructivist language learning: challenges of accommodating structure and agency. The case of Russian-speaking teachers in Estonia. Tartu, 2013, 156 p.
9. **Ave Roots.** Occupational and income mobility during post-socialist transformation of 1991–2004 in Estonia. Tartu, 2013, 130 p.
10. **Tarmo Strenze.** Intelligence and socioeconomic success A study of correlations, causes and consequences. Tartu, 2015, 119 p.