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The Social Construction of Nascent Entrepreneurship: Dynamics of Business Venturing Process from an Entrepreneurial Learning Perspective

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Abstract

This thesis examines the process of nascent entrepreneurship from a learning perspective. The overall aim of this research is to generate insights into nascent entrepreneurs' learning and managing experiences by exploring their perspectives in relation to the enterprise culture and education discourses in the UK. Embedded in a social constructionist paradigm, a process-relational stance is taken to entrepreneurship, which recognises the dynamic and emergent processes through which business opportunities are realized and constructed in the context of social interactions with numerous stakeholders. The social constructionist position, in which this research is grounded, calls for the need to understand human experiences in their socio-cultural context, with an acknowledgement of human agency and active perceptual constructions of people in a society. Nascent entrepreneurs' biographies, motivations and capitals that they hold are examined at the micro-individual level, combined with meso-level considerations including social processes of business venturing. The research also analyses how these micro-individual and meso-relational processes relate to macro-field forces of enterprise culture, moving beyond an individual or team understanding of nascent entrepreneurship.

This research is premised on an empirical investigation of three cases of the business venturing process. The first case pertains to the formation of a creative venture (i.e brand communications agency, which uniquely includes in-house production of advertising vehicles with marketing strategy business) by a team of five nascent entrepreneurs, who set up the company outside the local university's incubator centre while they were students in different areas of Arts, Design and Technology at the local university. The second case account is about a solo entrepreneur's business venturing story, which is characterised by a venturing process supported by the local university's incubator centre. The final venturing case represents a slightly different account in the sense that it is about a business venturing process led by a nascent corporate entrepreneur in collaboration with and support from the parent company, which acted as an incubator. Concurring with the social constructionist underpinnings of the research, *Naturalistic Inquiry* has been adopted as the research design. The triangulation of participant observation, in-depth interviews and documentary analysis

has been carried out in order to address the research questions. Because of the longevity and intensity of the fieldwork and the resulting richness of data generated, the first case constitutes the principal case account in this research. The other two cases provide very useful and rich material to juxtapose the salient themes and patterns in general and to reach towards a multi-layered understanding of nascent entrepreneurship and that of underpinning processes of learning and managing in particular.

A multi-layered conceptualisation of nascent entrepreneurship has been constructed in the current research, with the following key themes at each level: At the micro-individual level of nascent entrepreneur lie interrelated themes of biographies and entrepreneurial learning, capitals and transformation between capitals, and agentic and performative capacity of nascent entrepreneurs. The meso-relational level properties of nascent entrepreneurship include interwoven themes of business venturing as a process of generative exchange by developing *habitus* through entrepreneurial experience, co-construction of entrepreneurial and organisational identities, and entrepreneurial learning through experience and critical incidents. The macro-field level is characterised by the dynamics of the field of enterprise culture and creative industries. Three macro-level themes, which relate to processes of nascent entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial learning, have emerged from the research. These are perceived institutionalising forces of enterprise culture, perceived role of enterprise educators, and perceived market forces of creative industries. In this thesis, it is argued that it is not sufficient to study nascent entrepreneurship and concurrent process of entrepreneurial learning at the individual (entrepreneur) or collective (team or organisational) levels and examine the socio-behavioural aspects of learning. Entrepreneurial learning should be understood by inter-relating personal (micro), relational (meso) and macro-contextual aspects of nascent entrepreneurship. These three layers, together with eight aforementioned sub-themes, form the basis for multi-layered understanding of nascent entrepreneurship from a learning perspective.

The contributions of this research are multiple: Firstly, the research investigates social construction processes of nascent entrepreneurship, from a learning perspective, which is identified as an under-researched area by many scholars in the field. Secondly, the research

provides rich empirical material in the form of case accounts to exemplify such processes. Thirdly, a multi-layered framework of nascent entrepreneurship has been developed in this research, which moves beyond individual or collective understandings of entrepreneurship, by taking an inter-disciplinary approach and applying Bourdieu's conceptual tools in a comprehensive way in the entrepreneurship field. Finally, a number of research implications for academics and practical insights for practitioners including nascent entrepreneurs, enterprise educators and mentors are offered.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Emine Karataş, who has taught me that the world needs thinkers, doers, and challengers to become a better place to live.

List of contents

List of tables 1
List of figures 2
List of appendices 2
Declaration of authorship 3
Acknowledgements 5
PART ONE 6
OVERVIEW AND FOUNDATION OF THESIS 6
Synopsis 6
Chapter One: Overview of the Thesis 7
1.1 Introduction to the chapter 7
1.2 Development of research idea leading to research aim and objectives 8
1.3 Introduction to Research Methodology 10
1.4 Disciplinary debates 13
1.5 Case accounts 16
1.6 Preview of the parts to follow 17
1.7 Conclusions to the chapter 19
Chapter Two: Underpinning Research Paradigm 20
2.1 Introduction to the chapter 20
2.2 Research paradigms 20
2.3 Social constructionism 26
2.3.1 Berger and Luckmann (1966): *The Social Construction of Reality* 28
2.3.2 Gergen's social constructionism: 32
2.3.3 Martin and Sugarman's (1996) theory of '*Bridging paradigms*' 38
2.4 Ontology, epistemology and methodology 41
2.4.1 Ontology 42
2.4.2 Epistemology 43
2.5 Bourdieu's philosophy and conceptual tools 49
2.5.1 Analysis of Bourdieu's philosophy: ontological, epistemological, human behaviour and methodological assumptions 49
2.5.2 Bourdieu's conceptual tools 54
2.6 Conclusions to the chapter 61
Chapter Three: Research Aim, Objectives and Questions 64
3.1 Introduction to the chapter 64
3.2 Development of the research concern 64
3.3 Research aim, objectives and questions 65
3.4 Conclusions to the chapter 69
PART TWO 70
DISCIPLINARY DEBATES: 70
SETTING THE DISCURSIVE CONTEXT 70
Synopsis 70
Chapter Four: Enterprise Culture in the UK 73
4.1 Introduction to the chapter 73

4.2 Enterprise culture debates 73
4.3 The role of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) 84
4.3.1 University incubators 88
4.4 Conclusions to the chapter 92
Chapter Five: Academic Discourses on Entrepreneurship 93
5.1 Introduction to the chapter 93
5.2 Processual approaches to the study of entrepreneurship 95
5.3 Relational approaches to the study of entrepreneurship 96
5.4 Process-relational approaches to the study of entrepreneurship 98
5.5 Conclusions to the chapter 104
Chapter Six: Nascent Entrepreneurs 106
Entrepreneurial Learning and Managing 106
6.1 Introduction to the chapter 106
6.2. Nascent entrepreneurs 107
6.3 Entrepreneurial learning and managing 111
6.3. 1 Debates on 'Communities of practice' and its critique 127
6.4 Conclusions to the chapter 130
PART THREE 132
METHODOLOGY MATTERS 132
Synopsis 132
Chapter Seven 134
Research Design 134
7.1 Introduction to the chapter 134
7.2 Social constructionist paradigm leading to research design and methods 134
7.3 Naturalistic inquiry 137
7.4 Reflexivity 143
7.5 Conclusions to the chapter 147
Chapter Eight: A Reflexive Account of the Research Process 149
8.1 Introduction to the chapter 149
8.2 Researcher's background, current position and 149
future aspirations 149
8.3. Research phases 150
8.3.1 Orientation phase: Entering the field 152
8.3.2 Focused exploration phase: Generating case accounts 155
8.3.3 Writing-up phase: Exiting the field 173
8.4 Conclusions to the chapter 174
Chapter Nine: Managing Data Analysis Processes in the Fieldwork 176
9.1 Introduction to the chapter 176
9.2 What are qualitative data and how to handle them? 176
9.3 Inductive analysis 180
9.3.1 The 'grounded theory' approach and its application 182
9.3.2 Use of computer programs in analysing data: NVivo 1.3 185
9.4 Writing-up the research: Use of Wolcott's framework entitled 'Description, Analysis and Interpretation' in constructing the case accounts 187

9.5 Establishing the 'trustworthiness' of qualitative research 192
9.6 Conclusions to the chapter 196
PART FOUR 197
DESCRIPTION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION CASE ACCOUNTS 197
Synopsis 197
Chapter Ten: Creative Industries (CI) Context in the UK 200
10.1 Introduction to the chapter 200
10.2 Creative Industries in the UK 200
10.3 Creative Industries in the East Midlands 205
10.4 Creative Industries in the South East England 207
10.5 Conclusions to the chapter 209
Chapter Eleven: Forming KBrandArt 212
A Story of the Venturing Process by Denise, Adam, Charles, Luke and Paul 212
11.1 Introduction to the chapter 212
11.2 Venturing process 214
11.2.1 Transforming the business idea to a 'business opportunity' 232
11.2.2 Social construction processes involved 235
11.2.3 Becoming a venture community: Formation of a regional networking organisation (Industrial Networking Organisation-INO) 242
11.2.4 Capitals and transformation between different forms of capitals 254
11.3 Underlying processes: Entrepreneurial learning and managing 259
11.3.1 Role of 'critical incidents' and 'learning episodes' 262
11. 4 Conclusions to the chapter 272
Chapter Twelve: Setting up R-Games 274
Rosie's Venturing Story 274
12.1 Introduction to the chapter 274
12.2 Venturing process 275
12.3. Underlying processes: Entrepreneurial learning and managing 284
12.4 Conclusions to the chapter 291
Chapter Thirteen: Creating JV-Games 293
Richard's story of forming a joint venture 293
13.1 Introduction to the chapter 293
13.2 Venturing process 294
13.3 Underlying processes: entrepreneurial learning and managing 307
13.4 Conclusions to the chapter 308
Chapter Fourteen: Towards a Multi-layered Interpretation of Nascent Entrepreneurship in the Creative industries: 310
Revisiting Bourdieu's Orienting Tools 310
14.1 Introduction to the chapter 310
14.2 Micro level qualities: Nascent entrepreneurs 311
14.2.1 Individual biographies and entrepreneurial process from a learning perspective 312
14.2.2 Capitals and transformation between capitals 314
14.2.3 Agentic and performative capacity of nascent entrepreneurs 316

14.3 Meso-relational level qualities: Forming venture communities 319
14.3.1 Business venturing as a process of generative exchange: Developing *habitus* through entrepreneurial practice 319
14.3.3 Co-construction of entrepreneurial and organisational identities 323
14.3.4 Entrepreneurial learning through experience and critical incidents 325
14.4 Macro-level properties: Field of enterprise culture and creative industries 326
14.4.1 Perceived institutionalising forces of enterprise culture 327
14.4.2 Perceived market forces of creative industries 332
14.5 Moving beyond an individual or collective perspective of nascent entrepreneurship towards a multi-layered understanding 336
14.6 Conclusions to the chapter 338
PART FIVE 339
CONCLUDING REMARKS 339
Synopsis 339
Chapter Fifteen: Summary and Conclusions 341
15.1 Introduction to the chapter 341
15.2 Revisiting the research aim, objectives and questions 342
15.3 Contribution to the ongoing scholarly debate 349
15.3.1 Relating to the entrepreneurship scholars 349
15.3.2 Relating to the practitioners 350
15.4 Researcher's learning experience 352
15.4 Limitations and suggestions for future research 354
15.5 Conclusions to the chapter 356
References 358

List of tables

Table 2.1 Summary of paradigmatic assumptions using Burrell and Morgan's four dimensions.....47-48

Table 2.2 Translation of Bourdieu's theoretical constructs to the current research.....57

Table 3.1 Research objectives and questions.....67

Table 3.2 Research questions and levels of analysis using Bourdieu's conceptual tools.....68

Table 4. 1 Historical development of the concept of incubation / incubator.....89

Table 6.1 Entrepreneurial activities undertaken by nascent entrepreneurs.....109

Table 7.1 Social constructionist paradigm leading to methods.....136

Table 7.2 Qualities of naturalistic inquiry as adopted from Patton (2002: 40-41).....142

Table 8. 1 An extract from Appendix IIIthat depicts the research activities over the entire period of research.....151

Table 8.2 Research questions, research cases and methods used to construct the case accounts.....154

Table 8.3 An extract from Appendix III that depicts the research phases with activities, instruments and accounts involved.....156

Table 8.4 Nine dimensions of social situations to be observed (developed from Spradley, 1980).....164

Table 9.1 Elements of the grounded theory (from Silverman, 2005) and its application in the current research.....183

Table 9.2 Application of Description-Analysis-Interpretation (Wolcott, 1994) framework in this research.....191

Table 9.3 Establishing the trustworthiness of the research according to Naturalistic Inquiry tradition embedded in social constructionism.....195

Table 11.1 KBrandArt: Analysis of the venturing process at the micro-individual level.....220-226

Table 11.2 Entrepreneurial learning process with its micro-meso-macro level dimensions.....262

Table 11.3 Examples to critical incidents reported by the nascent entrepreneurs.....263

List of figures

Figure 1.1 The Structure of the Thesis.....18
Figure 2.1 Burrell and Morgan's (1979) four paradigms.....24
Figure 2.2 An interpretation of Berger and Luckmann's social construction process....30
Figure 6.1 Stages of nascent entrepreneurship.....108
Figure 6.2 Illustration of Cope's (2005) learning perspective of entrepreneurship.....120
Figure 6.3 A conceptual framework of entrepreneurial learning as an experiential process.....124
Figure 7.1 Naturalistic Inquiry.....139
Figure 7.2 Reflexivity developed from Patton's (2002: 66) 'reflexive questions: triangulated inquiry)'.....146
Figure 8.1 Phases in participant observation based on Spradley (1980:34).....162
Figure 9.1 Categorising of data for the current research.....178
Figure 11.1 Transformation between different forms of capital.....258
Figure 12.1 Multifaceted nature of entrepreneurial learning.....290
Figure 14.1 A multi-layered conceptualisation of nascent entrepreneurship.....337

List of appendices

Appendix I First page of Özbilgin and Tatli's (2005) article
Appendix II ERU (Cardiff, 2002) conference paper
Appendix III An account of the research activities throughout the doctoral study
Appendix IV Example to a research protocol
Appendix V Observation data summary sheet
Appendix VI Example to an interview guide
Appendix VII Example to an interview transcript
Appendix VIII List of codes
Appendix IX Interview data summary sheet
Appendix X List of research projects carried out during the writing-up period of the doctoral study

Declaration of authorship

I, Mine Karataş Özkan, declare that the thesis entitled '*The Social Construction of Nascent Entrepreneurship: Dynamics of Business Venturing Process from an Entrepreneurial Learning Perspective*' and the work presented in it are my own. I confirm that:

- this work was done mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
- where any part of this thesis has been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
- where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
- I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
- where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
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PART ONE
OVERVIEW AND FOUNDATION OF THESIS

Synopsis

This thesis focuses on process of nascent entrepreneurship from a perspective of nascent entrepreneurs' underlying experiences of entrepreneurial learning and managing. It is presented in five parts. This first part consists of three chapters. Chapter One is an overview of the thesis, outlining the research methodology, development of the research ideas leading to research aims and questions with specific reference to pertinent literature. It also outlines the main themes that emerged from the research. Chapter Two is dedicated to the task of laying out the foundation of the thesis i.e. discussing the research paradigm underpinning the research. Social constructionist paradigm, its main premises, ontological and epistemological assumptions and Bourdieu's (1977, 1990, 1986, 1998) conceptual tools surrounding different forms of capital, habitus and field are discussed as the main theoretical frameworks in this chapter. Chapter Three elucidates how the research focus developed and sets out the research aim, objectives and questions.

Chapter One: Overview of the Thesis

1.1 Introduction to the chapter

This chapter aims to present an overview of the thesis, which is concerned with generating insights into nascent entrepreneurship and intrinsic processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing. The overall aim of the research is 'to gain an in-depth understanding of the nascent entrepreneurs' learning and managing experience, by exploring their perspectives, in relation to the enterprise culture and education discourses in the UK'. What makes this study interesting? Thematically, nascent entrepreneurship is still an under-researched area in terms of empirical research drawing on real life examples of case accounts (Anderson, 2005). Methodologically, social constructionist approaches have permeated entrepreneurship research since early 1990s (Fletcher, 2003; Fletcher and Watson, 2003; Steyaert and Hjort, 2003). There have been interesting and rigorous examples of research applying social constructionist approaches (e.g. Steyaert and Bouwen, 1997; Steyaert, 1998, 2004; Johannisson, 2002; Steyaert and Hjort, 2003; Anderson, 2005; Nicholson and Anderson, 2005). As a part of these movements in entrepreneurship research, this doctoral study takes a process-relational stance to studying nascent entrepreneurship by embedding the conceptual tools of a continental thinker, Pierre Bourdieu, in a social constructionist paradigmatic approach. In terms of findings, a multi-layered conceptualisation of nascent entrepreneurship has been arrived in this research. The layers include micro-individual level of nascent entrepreneurs, meso-relational characteristics of their business venturing experiences and macro-field aspects embedded in an enterprise culture discourse in the UK. The process of nascent entrepreneurship involves all three levels simultaneously. The thesis of this study can be articulated in the following words: 'Individual nascent entrepreneurs' (micro level) relationally form their new enterprises as a part of a broader venture community (meso-relational level), which is embedded in the macro-field of enterprise culture in the UK with its institutions and education and business support programmes'.

The chapter begins with the research aim and objectives. This is followed by an introduction to the methodology underpinning the whole research study. A sub-section, which summarises the main literature; deals with government and academic discourses on

enterprise and entrepreneurship with a particular focus on nascent entrepreneurship, impact of higher education institutions (HEIs) and entrepreneurial learning and managing. This links to the study's findings with discussion across cases. The final section is concerned with the study's conclusions, including its contribution to knowledge.

1.2 Development of research idea leading to research aim and objectives

The research project started with a scholarly interest in a broad area of entrepreneurship and learning. I was interested to 'develop theory and understanding of the development of skills in a group/team of people engaged in nascent entrepreneurship, where the entrepreneurial practices and support for new venture may be derived from incubation within or outside higher education institutions'. The aim and objectives of the research had become more refined and the wording had significantly changed when I reached the point of the transfer from MPhil to PhD stage. This can be attributed to my engagement with social constructionist philosophy and related conceptual frameworks at a deeper level, as will be introduced in the following section. Social constructionist approach, by its very definition, encourages the awareness of continually constructing realities through conversation (Campbell, 2000). Therefore, it is important to stress that the research aim, objectives and questions have been shaped and reshaped in dialogic exchanges mainly through supervisory meetings and also through discussions with other scholars in the area at seminars, workshops, and two conferences. The fieldwork has also influenced this reflexive process.

A deeper engagement with the literature has also helped refining the research questions. Nascent entrepreneurship is a very topical subject; however, there is a dearth of research (Chell and Oakey, 2004; Chell, 2004a) conducted at the doctoral level (Brush, Duhaime, Gartner et al., 2003). Entrepreneurial learning is an emerging subject domain within the entrepreneurship discipline, as observed by many scholars such as Chell and Allman (2003), Cope (2003, 2005), Rae (2001, 2003, 2005), Harrison and Leitch (2005) and Binks, Starkey and Mahon (2006). The connection between the two is not well-established. The entrepreneurial learning experience of nascent entrepreneurs is an area where there is scope

for generating greater understanding of personal, social and economic becoming of nascent entrepreneurs influenced by the dominant discourses of enterprise culture and education.

This study takes this gap in our knowledge as the starting point and intends to move the discussion further by undertaking a multi-layered examination of nascent entrepreneurs' learning and managing. The layers include three levels of analysis: a) micro-level analysis, which includes scrutinizing nascent entrepreneurs' individual experiences by examining their motivation, dispositions and resources that they draw on and capitals, using the term 'capital' in Bourdieu's (1986) conceptualisation, that they want to attain in life, b) meso-relational level analysis, which refers to the analysis of relational experiences of entrepreneurial learning and managing by looking into relational dynamics of 'venture communities' that they form as a part of their entrepreneurial becoming, and c) macro-level analysis, which denotes an examination of how the 'field' of enterprise culture -with its associated policies, intervention and support programmes and the institutions- impact on their development of entrepreneurial learning and managing.

The overall aim of the research is therefore 'to gain an in-depth understanding of the nascent entrepreneurs' learning and managing experience, by exploring their perspectives, in relation to the enterprise culture and education discourses in the UK'. Given my overall aim, the objectives of the research are:

1. To understand the social construction of business venturing process as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs.
2. To explore how nascent entrepreneurs develop meanings/understandings/actions while engaged in entrepreneurial activities of venturing.
3. To examine how the aforementioned processes (i.e. business venturing and entrepreneurial learning) relate to the enterprise culture in the UK, with its higher education institutions (providing a variety of forms of enterprise education or business support and development services).

1.3 Introduction to Research Methodology

The research is seen as a collaborative experience with the participants where the researcher takes an open approach to inquiry in order to allow for new understandings to emerge and deepen. The methodology of this research adheres to the social constructionist paradigm (Berger and Luckmann, 1966; K. J. Gergen, 1985, 1994, 1999; Burr, 1995; Martin and Sugarman, 1996) and it was shaped by Lincoln and Guba's (1985) naturalistic inquiry. An extended version of naturalistic inquiry design has been developed by relying mainly on qualitative approaches provided by Patton (2002) and Wolcott (1994) in collecting, analysing, interpreting and reporting data. The primary principles of Lincoln and Guba's (1985) naturalistic inquiry are: emergent design and flexibility; purposeful sampling; personal engagement, mindfulness and reflexivity of the researcher; context sensitivity; case orientation; and inductive data analysis.

Naturalistic inquiry was developed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) as a challenge to the conventional, scientific approach to social sciences. Grounded in naturalistic paradigmatic axioms, which were developed in contrast to positivist paradigmatic axioms (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 37), the naturalistic inquiry is characterised by the following properties in its original form: (a) natural setting; (b) human instrument; (c) utilization of tacit knowledge; (d) qualitative methods; (e) purposive sampling; (f) inductive data analysis; (g) grounded theory; (h) negotiated outcomes; (i) case study reporting mode; (j) idiographic interpretations; (k) tentative application; (l) focus determines boundaries; and (m) special criteria for trustworthiness. These principles informed the choice of research methods (i.e. methods of data collection and analysis) and their application in the current research.

The research data were collected primarily through participant observation and in-depth interviews. Observation and interview data were supplemented by documentary evidence provided by participants. Observation data were stored and analysed using Spradley's (1980) participant observation framework. Meeting talks and interviews were analysed from transcripts using qualitative data analysis techniques that Miles and Huberman (1994) and Patton (2002) provide in their source books. Bourdieu's (1986, 1990, 1998) conceptual tools

including dispositions and different forms of capital at micro-individual level, *habitus* at the meso-relational level and field at the macro-level were instrumental in defining broad categories of data during the analysis, which allowed the data to be accessible at individual case level and particularly cross-case level. In conjunction with the social constructionist stance to, and naturalistic design of, the research, an inductive approach was employed whereby the observation, interview and documentary data were analysed inductively by looking for salient themes and patterns out of the data with an objective to build up an explanatory framework through conceptualisation of data. The recurring patterns or contrasting themes were sought after using constant comparative method, which is embedded in the grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1998) tradition. As Patton (2002) notes, any naturalistic inquiry inevitably includes deductive elements of testing 'hunches' and looking for comparisons across data. Fieldwork is often described as an iterative process of moving back and forth between the discovery mode (induction) and verification mode (deduction) like a wave (Guba 1978 as cited in Patton, 2002: 323). Therefore, this research has embodied such a deductive element as checking for recurrent themes within individual cases and across cases; particularly at the final stage of the analysis where the theoretical frameworks (mainly Bourdieu's orienting tools) were introduced, to construct cross-case analysis and reporting of data.

During the course of the research project, I made different choices pertaining to what theoretical frameworks to use and decided to eliminate some of them at the final phases of the data analysis and writing up, which were concurrent processes. The coding system was accordingly revised and refined to ensure emerging themes were captured and developed based on researcher's judgement with reference to data and research aims and in conjunction with the literature. I was aware that even a truly 'grounded approach' that attempts to make no or few theoretical conceptions relies on asking certain research questions and some theoretical orientation. In my case my understanding of new venture creation and learning literature as well as Dawson's (1994, 1997, 2003) processual framework influenced this research[1]. However, I kept on reading different works as I collected and analysed data and

[1] My understanding of Dawson's processual framework has been discussed in a number of conference papers and publications (e.g. Karataş-Özkan and Murphy, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006).

showed a welcome readiness to modify direction as I came up with new concepts and patterns. This is how I have moved away from Dawson's processual framework toward Bourdieu's conceptual tools (1977, 1986, 1990, 1998, 1999; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992) as the main analytical framework of the study. The theoretical and analytical adequacy of Dawson's framework was very limited and it was not working effectively in this research. Moreover, my political science background underlined by a sociological approach in studying human interactivities and social phenomena enabled me to make sense of Bourdieu's philosophy and theories. I found his frameworks richer and more engaging with human aspects of social science research. Therefore, it took a while for me to find a settled theoretical orientation in this study. On one level, this was due to my own lack of confidence in my ability to add anything of worth or interest to such 'big' theoretical frameworks that exist. However, I came to understand later on that the main issue lies in viewing this research not as an attempt to provide 'new categories' of concepts or themes about nascent entrepreneurs' learning, but as an attempt to identify salient themes from real-life experiences and raise key points, issues and questions that pertain to understanding their entrepreneurial learning and managing by looking at case venturing processes in detail. Entrepreneurial learning is an emerging subject domain and the need for empirical research of good quality is highlighted by a number of scholars (e.g. Cope, 2003, 2005; Rae, 2002, 2004a, 2004b, 2005, 2006; Taylor and Thorpe, 2004; Harrison and Leitch, 2005; Politis, 2005).

The writing-up raised stylistic issues that included author voice. I decided to present this thesis using the first person (Wolcott, 1994) although in some sections such as literature review and description, analysis and interpretation of case accounts I, as researcher, become less overt. The trustworthiness of research was checked by discussing the findings with the participants and the scholars (i.e. member checks and peer audits in line with the naturalistic inquiry). The research process was subjected to a self-check by using Lincoln and Guba's (1985) four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

1.4 Disciplinary debates

Part Two is devoted to the literature review, which aims to locate the research as a part of movements in entrepreneurship and organisation studies. It places emphasis on how the notions of 'enterprise' and 'entrepreneurship' have developed in government and academic discourses over time in Chapters Four and Five respectively. Chapter Six follows with a more sharpened discussion on nascent entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial learning. Aligning with the social constructionist premise of historical and cultural specificity, Marshall and Rossman's (1995) advice has been followed and the historical positioning of the research has been established.

Enterprise culture debates have been presented in order to emphasise the political, economic and social factors in the UK that have resulted in enterprise education and support agendas. The role of universities has been signified with particular reference to university incubators. The vagueness of the notion of enterprise and its political and ideological use in government pronouncements is worth noting (Chell, 2004b).

Academic literature on the concept of 'entrepreneurship' has been reviewed by taking a historical perspective as well. In line with the research aims and questions, three major perspectives, which are in tune with social constructionist and constructivist perspectives in studying social phenomena, were identified when charting the literature on entrepreneurship. These include processual perspectives, relational perspectives and process-relational perspectives on entrepreneurship. Approaching entrepreneurial behaviour or process from a variety of angles and methodological positions, processual studies centre around the functions and activities associated with perceiving business opportunities and creating ventures to pursue them. Thus a processual way of looking at entrepreneurship entails the examination of emerging characteristics of the entrepreneurial process. From processual perspectives, the dynamic process through which business opportunities are realized becomes the central focus of entrepreneurship studies (Fletcher, 2003). Relational perspectives highlight the human relationships involved in the process. Entrepreneurial activities are realized and constructed through social processes. This understanding of

entrepreneurship builds on Schumpeterian (1934) notion of contributing to economic change through new combinations of products or processes. Entrepreneurs bring about new ideas, products, processes by working in relation to a team, small community or network of people (Johannisson, 1990; Fletcher, 1997, 2003). This leads to process-relational perspectives, which combine the processual view of emergence with a relational dimension in order to generate deeper insights. The relational part is in essence about relating to each other through language, narrative, discourse as well as enactment. The process-relational position adopted in this research project takes account of the following conceptualisation of entrepreneurship, which is based on the studies of Stevenson and Gumpert (1985), Stevenson and Jarillo (1990), Hart, Stevenson and Dial (1995), Chell (2000, 2001) and Fletcher and Watson (2003): *Entrepreneurship is the process through which people with ideas for product, service or process relentlessly and relationally pursue business opportunities without regards to alienable resources currently available and with an intention and motivation to create wealth and accumulate capit*al.

The discussion on nascent entrepreneurship follows these debates on conceptualisation of entrepreneurship in Chapter Six. Aldrich (1999) defines nascent entrepreneurs as those who initiate serious entrepreneurial activities that are intended to culminate in a viable business start-up. Therefore, they are in the process of beginning their entrepreneurial venture with the potential and capacity to become successful entrepreneurs (Westhead and Wright, 1998) and therefore have very limited experience or practical understanding of the concepts and processes involved. Therefore, the intrinsic processes of entrepreneurial process of business venturing include entrepreneurial learning and managing, which are highly evident in the case of nascent entrepreneurs. They develop meanings and understandings of venturing through a constant process of negotiations and exchanges with clients, competitors, mentors, financial organisations, regional development agencies and members of a variety of networks. The review presents a section that brings together key ideas from a body of literature on entrepreneurship, which is an emerging subject domain under the banner of entrepreneurial learning and managing. The 'managing' side of the argument is connected to finding ways to take forward the process of venture formation by giving structure to their constructions and actions, and generating specific patterns of interactions with an objective

to reduce ambiguities (Gartner, Bird and Starr, 1992) and sustain co-ordinated effort (Watson, 2001b, 2002). It is also concerned with relationally enacting what they are learning as a part of their social becoming through accomplishing the tasks in the process of business venturing and engaging in entrepreneurial practices in uncertainty.

The social constructionist position in which this research is grounded calls for the need to understand human experiences in their socio-cultural context (Berger and Luckmann, 1966; K. J. Gergen, 1985; Burr, 1995), with an acknowledgement of human agency and active perceptual constructions of the members of a society (Martin and Sugarman, 1996; Chell, 2000; Nicholson and Anderson, 2005). The individual entrepreneurs' biographies, choices, motivation and the 'capitals' (Bourdieu, 1986), some of which they draw on and some others that they make determined effort to attain, have been examined in the project. Entrepreneurial learning literature (e.g. Cope and Watts, 2000; Cope, 2003, 2005; Rae, 2003, 2004a, 2004b; Politis, 2005), which reveals complexities of the learning process and yields rich insights to entrepreneurs' transformative learning experience in their cultural and organisational context, has been reviewed to locate the current research as a continuation of these 'interpretive' studies (Burrell and Morgan, 1979) that aim to explain the dynamics and subtleties of the process.

The salient themes from the literature are pulled together in the conclusion sections, which explicates the underpinning idea of presenting such disciplinary debates: It is the idea that the current research is a part of these several movements in knowledge. This study would, I hoped, enable me to make a contribution by studying such an under-researched area in diverse settings and offering rich case study material and ultimately to generate significant insights to venture community members, academics who research and teach the subject and policy makers at national and local government levels.

1.5 Case accounts

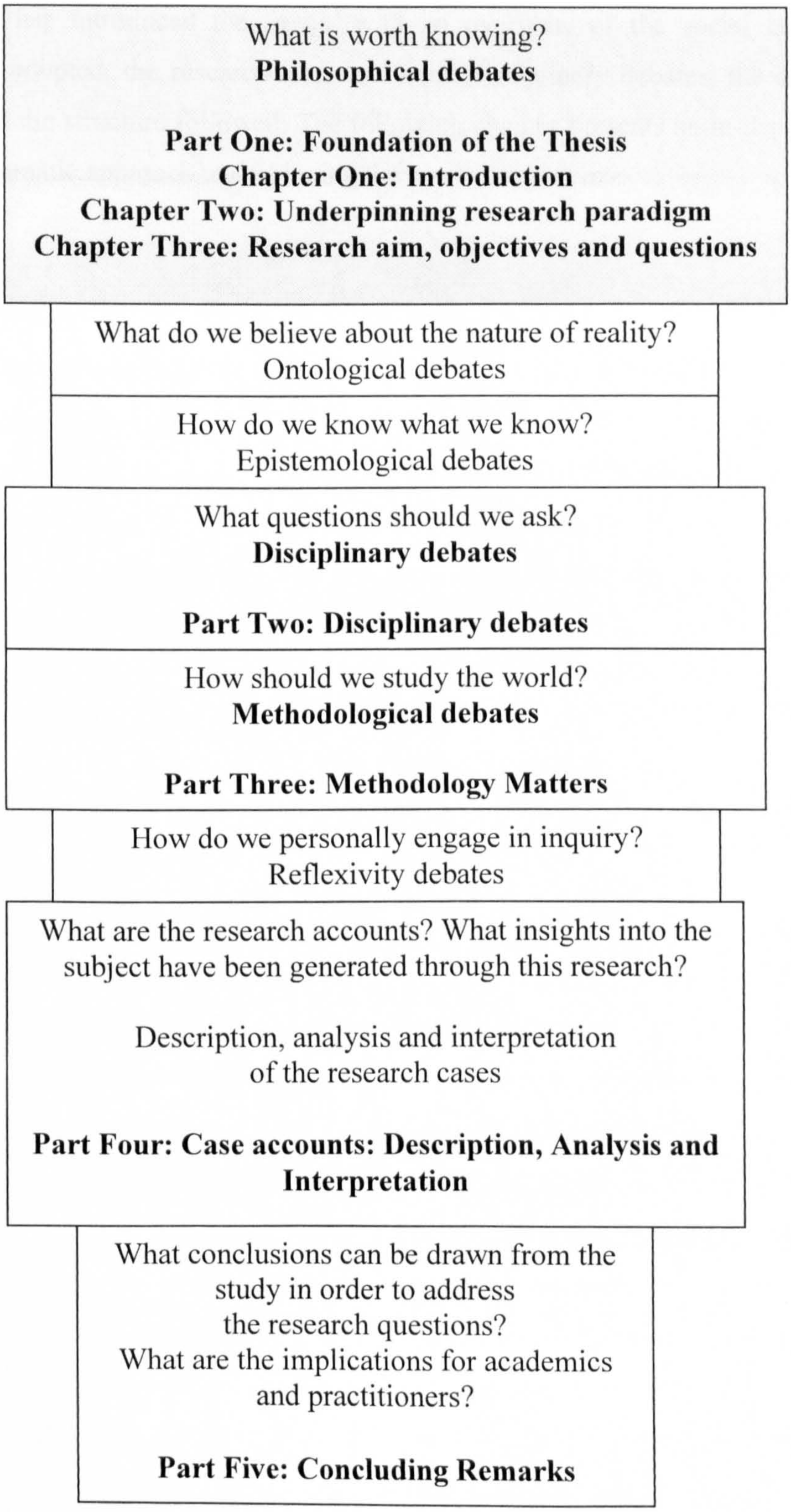
The 'Creative Industries' (CI) context, as defined by two Government documents (DCMS, 1998, 2001), sets the common ground for all three case accounts and is delineated in Chapter Ten. The first case venturing process pertains to the formation of a creative venture (i.e brand communications agency, which uniquely includes in-house production of advertising vehicles) so-called 'KBrandArt', which is a pseudonym, in this research. The case material was generated by observing the venture team meetings and daily and strategic conduct of the business by five nascent entrepreneurs, who set up the company outside the local university's incubator centre while they were students in different areas of Arts, Design and Technology at the local university; interviewing and reading their organisational texts (mainly business plans, meeting notes, internal memos and press releases). The case is presented in Chapter Eleven. The second case account is about a solo entrepreneur's business venturing story, which is characterised by a venturing process supported by the local university's incubator centre. The pseudonym for the venture she set up is 'R-Games' and is discussed in Chapter Twelve. The final case account pertains to a business venturing process led by a nascent corporate entrepreneur in collaboration with and support from the parent company's management. The 'JV-Games' is the anonymous name to represent this case, which is provided in Chapter Thirteen. Because of the longevity and intensity of the fieldwork and the resulting richness of data generated, KBrandArt constitutes the principal case account in this research. The other two cases provide very useful and rich material to juxtapose the salient themes and patterns in general and to reach towards a multi-layered understanding of nascent entrepreneurship and that of underpinning processes of learning and managing in particular. A multi-layered conceptualisation of nascent entrepreneurship has been constructed in the current research, with the following key themes at each level: At the micro-individual level of nascent entrepreneur lie interrelated themes of biographies and entrepreneurial learning, capitals and transformation between capitals, and agentic and performative capacity of nascent entrepreneurs. The meso-relational level properties of nascent entrepreneurship include interwoven themes of business venturing as a process of generative exchange by developing *habitus* through entrepreneurial experience, co-construction of entrepreneurial and organisational identities, and entrepreneurial learning

through critical incidents. The macro-field level is characterised by the dynamics of the field of enterprise culture and creative industries. Three macro-level themes, which relate to processes of nascent entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial learning, have emerged from the research. These are perceived institutionalising forces of enterprise culture, perceived role of enterprise educators, and perceived market forces of creative industries.

1.6 Preview of the parts to follow

This thesis is structured by using Patton's (2002: 134) six key questions that, he believes, qualitative researchers need to engage with. The answers to these questions shape the nature of the inquiry. The questions include: First, what do we believe about the nature of reality (ontological debates)? Second, how do we know what we know (epistemological debates)? Third, how should we study the world (methodological debates)? Fourth, what is worth knowing (philosophical debates)? Fifth, what questions we should ask (disciplinary debates)? Sixth, how do we personally engage in inquiry (reflexivity debates)? I have not followed this order and adhere to the question set as Patton (2002) suggested. Instead, I have reduced the number of main questions to three by subsuming the first two questions (ontology and epistemology) under the 'what is worth knowing' (philosophical debates) question and by including the sixth question (reflexivity) in the methodological debates (i.e. the third question). This helped me structure the thesis as follows:

Figure 1.1 The Structure of the Thesis



1.7 Conclusions to the chapter

This chapter has introduced the thesis, with an overview of the social constructionist methodology adopted, the research aims, pertinent disciplinary debates, the case accounts generated and the structure followed. The following chapter presents an in-depth discussion on the paradigmatic approach underpinning the current research.

Chapter Two: Underpinning Research Paradigm

'In wrestling with the ways in which these [research] philosophies forestructure our efforts to understand what it means to 'do' qualitative inquiry, what we face is not a choice of which label- interpretivist, constructivist, hermeneuticist, or something else- best suits us. Rather, we are confronted with choices about how each of us wants to live the life of a social inquirer' (Schwandt, 2000: 205)

2.1 Introduction to the chapter

The purpose of this part is to lay down the research paradigm underpinning the research. It starts with the definitions of 'paradigm' and an introduction of Burrell and Morgan's (1979) four-grid paradigmatic approach. The social constructionist paradigm is then discussed as the underlying paradigm in the current research. This is followed by the elaboration of the terms 'ontology', 'epistemology' and 'methodology' in relation to the nature of this research. The chapter concludes with Bourdieu's (Bourdieu, 1977, 1986, 1990, 1998; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992) frameworks which are used in investigating nascent entrepreneurship and learning.

2.2 Research paradigms

Lincoln and Guba (1985: 15) argue that "paradigms represent a distillation of what we think about the world". The term 'paradigm' derives from the Kuhn's (1970) thesis where he referred to a set of beliefs, values, assumptions and techniques which serves as 'a regulatory framework of metaphysical assumptions shared by members of a given community' (Kuhn, 1970: 175). He views the web of belief as being tied to scientific communities and their practices (Lowe, 2004: 209). In this respect Lowe (2004) maintains, it is possible to see the web represented as a network which comes to life in the knowledge and practices of specific group of scientists. Joining this discussion about Kuhn's concept of paradigm, Johnson and Duberley (2000: 68) put emphasis on the shared way of thinking and working by a 'practitioner community' which is characterised by consensus. They maintain that 'each paradigm therefore has its own distinctive language which offers a unique means of classifying and construing the objects encountered during scientists' engagements with the

world' (Johnson and Duberley, 2000: 69). This engagement is shaped by the researcher's biography as well as that of people in the organisation or community under study (Hertz, 1997; Brown, 2000; Patton, 2002).

Denzin and Lincoln (1998: 4), who described the researcher as the 'bricoleur' who produces a bricolage, that is, a pieced-together, close knit-set of practices that seek solutions to problems in certain situations, reinforce this point in the following way:

> 'The bricoleur understands that research is an interactive process shaped by his or her personal history, biography, gender, social class, race and ethnicity, and those of the people in the setting. There is no value-free science. The bricoleur also knows that researchers all tell stories about the worlds they have situated. Thus, the narratives, or stories, scientists tell are accounts couched and framed within specific storytelling traditions, often defined as paradigms' (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998: 4).

The debate on paradigms and their role in the research process was given momentum by the publication of Burrell and Morgan's seminal work entitled *Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis* (Hassard and Kelemen, 2002: 336). Outlining a number of key debates concerning the production of knowledge in the organisation studies, Burrell and Morgan (1979) define paradigm by emphasising meta-theoretical assumptions upon which a frame of reference is constructed:

> 'Paradigms are [the]....approaches grounded in fundamentally different meta-theoretical assumptions that are used to construct the frame of reference, mode of theorising and method of investigating of the theorists who operate within them' (Burrell and Morgan, 1979: 23).

Their thesis is therefore based on the premise that all researchers bring to their study a frame of reference, a whole series of assumptions about the nature of social world and the way it might be investigated. These assumptions suggest distinct views of the social world, which create different ways of examining human behaviour (Chell and Pittaway, 1998a). Burrell and Morgan (1979) contend that these meta-theoretical assumptions can be organised into four paradigms: the functionalist, the interpretive, the radical humanist and the radical

structuralist. These four sociological paradigms are produced to represent the major belief systems of academics and other who practice organisational analysis.

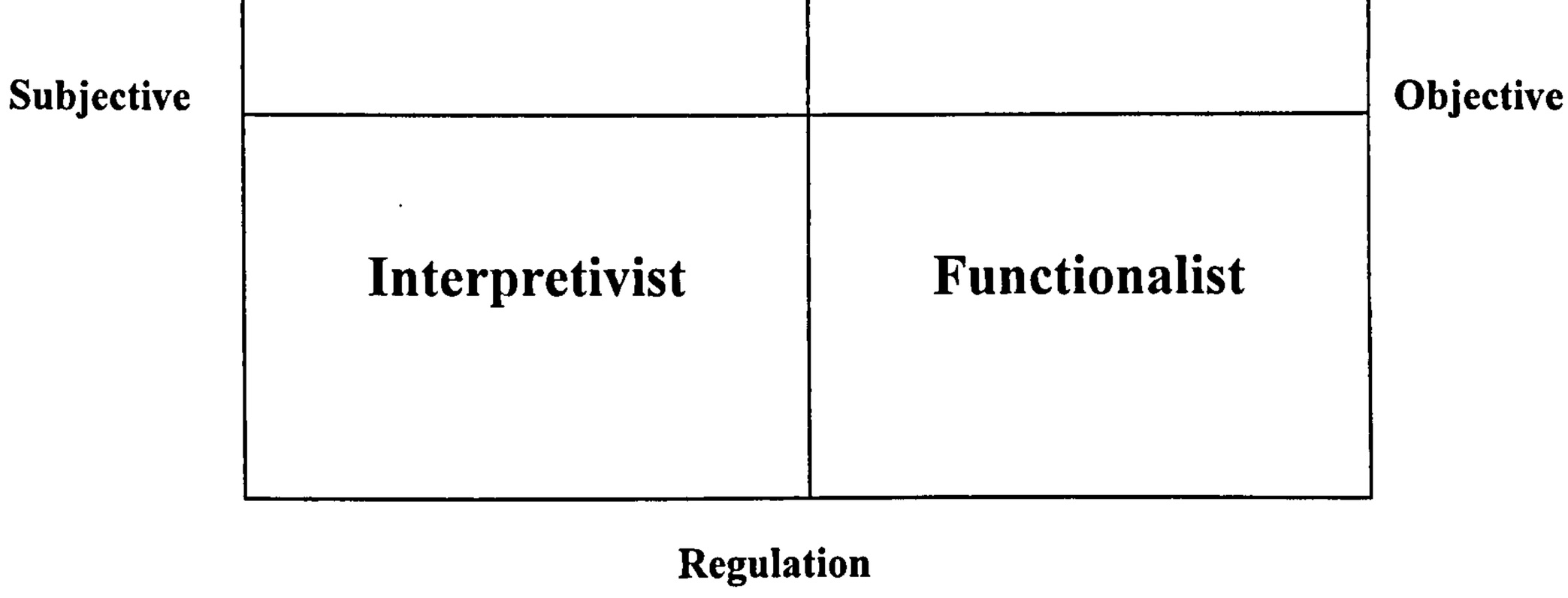
How were they produced? At the centre of Burrell and Morgan's four paradigm framework lies their view that all theories of organisations are constructed upon a philosophy of science and a theory of society. Both mainstream and alternative schools of thought are situated in terms of their relative position on a map of intellectual terrain produced through relating 'theories of social science' to 'theories of society' (Hassard and Kelemen, 2002: 336). The philosophical underpinnings are presented along a dimension of objectivity to subjectivity based on interrelated sets of core assumptions regarding ontology, epistemology, human behaviour and methodology (Morgan and Smircich, 1980).

Ontology concerns the nature of being, 'reality' (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Morgan and Smircich, 1980; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002). Epistemology is about what we can know. It concerns the nature of knowledge: the distinction between knowing and believing or opining (Chell and Pittaway, 1998a: 2). Researchers who work within a positivist paradigm view knowledge in absolute terms as either true or false and establish such knowledge through deterministic scientific inquiry. On the other hand, researchers in non-positivistic paradigms see knowledge as relativistic and it can only be understood from the perspectives of those involved (Pittaway, 2000). The human behaviour dimension is concerned specifically with freewill or determinism, that is, whether human beings freely choose between different courses of action or whether their behaviour is determined by causal factors that ultimately can be identified. In anti-positivist (or anti-functionalist in Burrell and Morgan's terms) paradigm there is a belief of the autonomous individual who has freewill and choice and this contrasts sharply with deterministic view (Pittaway, 2000; Johnson and Duberley, 2000). This has significant implications concerning the role of the researcher and the relationship between the researcher and the participants. Methodology pertains to the question of how we can generate knowledge. It concerns use of methods to generate knowledge of human behaviour or social world (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). The researchers' ontological and epistemological assumptions and human behaviour positioning guide their choices of

methods to create knowledge and inevitably the type of knowledge (Chell and Pittaway, 1998a). A positivist view of world conveys a belief of the social world as an external and objective reality; this calls for the methods of investigation by primarily relying on the analysis of variables, causal relationships through empirical testing in the pursuit of law-like generalisations or concepts that describe the reality of the social world (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, 2000; Johnson and Duberley, 2000). A non-positivist worldview entails the examination of experiences of individuals, who create, interpret and manipulate their reality and yet the knowledge generated will be concentrated on what is unique to individual experiences rather than what is universal or general (Chell and Pittaway, 1998a).

Given this philosophical underpinning, the second dimension of Burrell and Morgan's four-grid paradigmatic framework is the nature of society. The assumptions vary along a dimension of social order (maintenance of status quo) to an assumed norm of constant change and conflict. According to positivist approach, society is believed to be stable where social order is norm. Stability is maintained through structures that are acknowledged by the majority and endure through consensus. On the contrary, within an anti-positivist paradigm, the nature of society is believed to be one where deep conflict exists (Alvesson and Deetz, 1996, 2000) and conflict is both structural and functional (Chell and Pittaway, 1998a). There is an assumption of organisations as social and historical creations accomplished in conditions of struggle and domination that often hides and suppresses meaningful conflict (Deetz, 1996: 202). The emancipation of human beings from the structures which inhibit them is the central concern of the sociology of knowledge (Steffy and Grimes, 1992; Alvesson and Willmott, 1996). Along these two major dimensions (i.e. the subjective-objective dimension and the radical change-regulation dimension), four paradigms are shown in the following figure 2.1:

Figure 2.1 Burrell and Morgan's (1979) four paradigms



Source: Adapted from Burrell and Morgan (1969)

The functionalist paradigm is characterised by objectivity and the sociology of regulation. Aim is to explain the relationships between variables that lead to universal principles. A deterministic view of human behaviour prevails and human beings are considered to be adaptable to the system rather than having capacity to think and question or having free will and choice (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, Morgan and Smircich, 1981 and Alvesson and Deetz, 1996). The implication is that research is conducted in a deductive way that is the researcher begins with reviewing literature, identifies variables, develops hypotheses and tests them through empirical research. Researchers located in the interpretive paradigm, on the other hand, take a stance characterised by subjectivity and social order. The view is that researchers should understand the world as it is and seek for an explanation of that world from the realm of the individual or individual consciousness (Hassard, 1991; Chell and Pittaway, 1998a: 3). The radical humanist paradigm is typified by a subjectivist view, but with an ideological orientation toward radically changing constructed realities and finally

the radical structuralist paradigm is characterised by an objectivist stance, with an ideological concern for the radical change of structural realities (Gioia and Pitre, 1990: 586).

Burrell and Morgan's (1979) grid can be criticised on a number of counts including paradigm commensurability (Jackson and Carter, 1991; Willmott, 1993) and the dimensions of contrast. Deetz (1996) challenges their framework by questioning their interpretation of the first dimension (i.e. objectivity-subjectivity), and by raising the inadequacy of the second dimension (i.e. change-regulation) in the light of recent movements in organisation studies. He argues that the most problematic legacy of Burrell and Morgan's (1979) framework is the perpetuation of the subjective-objective controversy. He suggests that it does not provide a useful way of thinking about research paradigm differences. Similarly, the author claims that the second dimension of change-regulation does not reflect contemporary ways of looking at alternative research programs. Acknowledging the 'linguistic turn' (thus locating research differences in discursive moves and social relations rather than procedures and individuals), Deetz (1996: 195) puts forward two alternative dimensions of contrast. The first dimension puts emphasis on the origins of concepts and problem statements as part of the constitutive process in research and suggests a dimension of comparison based on 'local/emergent' versus 'elite/ a priori'. The second dimension that Deetz (1996: 195) suggests focuses on the relation of research practices to the dominant social discourses within the organisation studied and/or the research community: 'Research orientations can be contrasted in the extent to which they operate within a dominant set of restructurings of knowledge, social relations, and identities (a reproductive practice), called here a "consensus" discourse, and the extent to which they work to disrupt these structurings (a productive practice), called here 'dissensus' discourse' (Deetz, 1996: 195). The intention is to develop insights into meaningful differences and similarities among different research paradigms and activities rather than classification. How social constructionism has developed as a research paradigm is the concern of the next part.

2.3 Social constructionism

As a well established approach in sociology and to some extent in social psychology as well as in organisation and management studies, social constructionism challenges some of the central assumptions of mainstream social science (Rosen, 1991:5; Shotter, 1993a, 1993b). Gergen's (1994) synthesis of the intellectual antecedents of social constructionist perspectives explains how the force of ideological, literary-rhetorical and social critique challenged the orthodoxy of objectivity, rationality and truth (Perren and Grant, 2000: 394). Its main proposition is that members of any social system enact their particular worlds through social interaction where ideas, concepts and beliefs are discussed and shared with others. Reality is thus a social product which cannot be understood apart from the co-constructed meanings of the social actors involved in its enactment (Berger and Luckmann, 1966; Gergen, 1985; Rosen, 1991, Shotter, 1993b; Sarbin and Kitsuse, 1994; Hosking and Ramsey, 2000).

To help throw light on the intellectual roots of social constructionism, Burr (1995) provides a discussion about its history. She argues that social constructionism is a recent movement which has emerged from the combined influences of a number of North American, British and continental writers from the disciplines of sociology and social psychology dating back more than thirty years. This argument could be accepted to the extent that its fundamental assumptions have been refined in those so-called recent works. However, according to Berger and Luckmann (1966) its origins could be traced back to the German intellectual and philosophical context where its root proposition derived from Marx that man's consciousness is determined by his social being. Social constructionist approach therefore is recognised as 'a challenge to the primacy and priority of the individual, in effect, placing relationship, the social, as prior and primary' (Stacey, 2001: 55).

Social constructionism is well established in sociology mainly owing to the works of Schutz (1967) and Berger and Luckman (1966), according to Sarbin and Kitsuse (1994). Through their works the idea was developed that social objects are not given in the world but constructed, negotiated, reformed and fashioned and organised by human beings in their

efforts to make sense of happenings in the world. Central to social constructionism is therefore the premise that human beings are active social beings and they constitute their social world through social practices. In Sarbin and Kitsuse's (1994: 2) terms: 'human beings are agents rather than passive organisms or disembodied intellects that process information. It is undeniable that human actors process information but processing is carried out in the context of cultural practices'. These cultural practices carry important weight in social constructionism and they are produced and sustained through the use of stories. Members of a collectivity convey their constructions of the social world through stories - narrative- to fellow members. These narratives are shaped by, and reflect the perspectives of the narrators who produce them (Sarbin and Kitsuse, 1994). This leads us to the notion of multiple realities at the ontological level as will be elaborated in section 2.4 in greater detail. Multiple perspectives are fostered in social constructionism as there is an explicit acknowledgement of the differential perspectives in the observation and interpretation of social phenomena. Clearly, this counters the positivist assumption of a uniform and objective social reality. The social constructionist commitment to the conception of social phenomena as a multiplicity of actively constructed and emergent realities puts additional demands on researchers: In the first instance, the researcher's constructions are viewed as narratives, which are shaped by and express the social, moral, political, philosophical and other concerns of the researcher. Therefore, an awareness of, and reflection on, these concerns as well as awareness of how researchers are situated with regard to their research participants, are crucial in social constructionist research. This raises the issue of 'reflexivity' which has been the topic of an enduring debate in social constructionist genre (Sarbin and Kitsuse, 1994; Hosking and Ramsey, 2000) and will be further explored in the methodology part of the thesis.

The following quote from Hosking and Green (1999) summarises the argument presented in this section. Focusing on multiplicity of perspectives discursively formed through language, they differentiate between social constructionist approaches along the lines of kinds of emphasis put on the social, individual and reflexivity:

"There are many social constructionisms. They share an emphasis on language as communication (rather than representation) and view communication as formative i.e. as 'forming' or constructing persons and worlds. Constructionisms differ (a) in their centring of emphasis on socially constructed 'products' or processes, and (b) in their centring of individuals or communal construction processes, and (c) their reflexive recognition of the researcher's participation in construction processes" (Hosking and Green, 1999: 2).

Hosking and Green's (1999) view of different versions of social constructionism help fashion the remaining discussion in this section of the chapter: The first part, 2.3.1, presents Berger and Luckmann's (1966) ideas concerning the socially constructed knowledge and the process by which this knowledge gets established in a society as 'reality'. This is followed by K. J. Gergen's (1985, 1992, 1994, 1999) and Gergen and Gergen's (1983) ideas of social constructionism in the part 2.3.2. Furthering the debate is the incorporation of Martin and Sugarman's (1996) 'bridging paradigms' stance in the 2.3.3 part of the chapter, which considers the importance of human agency as well as the sociocultural in explaining the construction of knowledge.

2.3.1 Berger and Luckmann (1966): *The Social Construction of Reality*

The basic contention of Berger and Luckmann's (1966) argument is that reality is socially constructed and that the sociology of knowledge must analyse the process in which this occurs. They maintain that we should look at processes by which any body of "knowledge" comes to be socially established as "reality":

> 'As all human knowledge is developed, transmitted and maintained in the social situations, the sociology of knowledge must seek to understand the processes by which this is done in such a way that a taken-for-granted reality congeals for the man in the street' (Berger and Luckmann, 1966: 15)

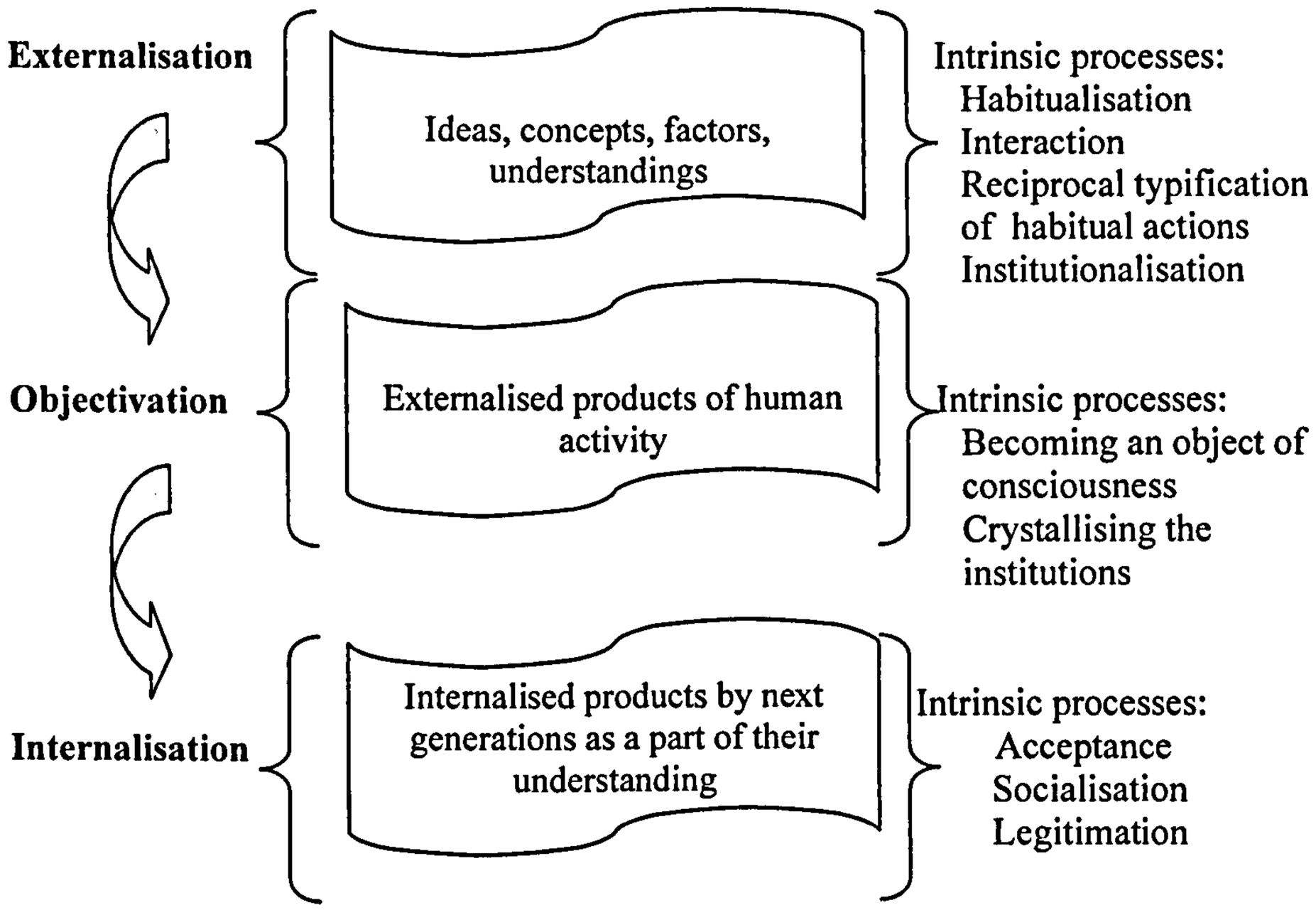
In essence Berger and Luckmann's (1966) analysis of social construction of reality revolves around three processes: (a) externalisation (b) objectivation and (c) internalisation. First, externalisation is about creation of external features by human beings. The central premise of their argument is that a person's reality is constructed from experience and accumulated 'knowledge' about their general surroundings and their specific social context. The

assumption is that an individual constructs 'knowledge' about themselves and others by labelling and categorising their thoughts, feelings and experience (Chell, 1997). The act of labelling, therefore, lies at the core of the process of externalisation (Chell and Pittaway, 1998a). Berger and Luckmann (1966: 70) point out that all human activity is subject to habitualisation and any action that is repeated becomes cast into a pattern and this precedes institutionalisation. For example, when people tell a story around the idea of the birth of a community, they externalise it by making the story accessible to others. This enters into the public realm where other people re-tell the story and the story begins to take on a life of its own (Burr, 1995). Second, this externalised product of human activity becomes an object of people's consciousness in that society and Berger and Luckmann (1966: 78) call this *objectivation:* It is the "process by which the externalised products of human activity attain the character of objectivity". Burr (1995: 10) argues that the story develops into "a kind of factual existence or truth"; it, therefore, comes naturally to other generations, i.e. it is institutionalised in a society. Berger and Luckmann (1966), nevertheless, note that the objectivity does not acquire an ontological status apart from the human activity that produced it. They emphasise the link between the reflexive nature of the relationship between man, the producer, and the social world, his product:

> *'... man (not of course, in isolation but in his collectivities) and his social world interact with each other. The product acts back upon the producer. Externalisation and objectivation are moments in a continuing dialectical process'. (Berger and Luckmann, 1966: 78)*

Third, is the process of internalisation by which the objectivated social world is retrojected into consciousness in the course of socialisation' (Berger and Luckmann, 1966: 78). The configuration of the relationship between these three dialectical processes is shown in the Figure 2. 2. The final aspect of internalisation involves the acceptance by the next generation of this story. Berger and Luckmann (1966: 77) attract attention to the process of transmission to the new generation where the objectivity of the institutionalised world thickens and hardens not only for the children but also for the parents as well because the objectivity experienced by the children would reflect back upon parents' own experience of this world.

Figure 2.2 An interpretation of Berger and Luckmann's social construction process



Berger and Luckmann's (1966)'s exploration has showed in a way that knowledge, understandings and institutions are created through these social processes of externalisation, objectivation and internalisation. Deriving from their explanation, the individuals in the situation deal with it according to their perception and interpretation of its elements, and their creation and construction of what it means to them. 'Reality is therefore subjective because an individual's own experiences and social interactions will enable them to use and develop a personal set of 'labels' to give meaning to present and future social situations' (Chell and Pittaway, 1998a: 5). It is also objective in so far as people use a common language to interpret and convey the meanings of situations, they use certain ways, evidences in support of the particular interpretation, which eventually becomes the accepted or dominant interpretation- the reality (Chell, 2000: 68). Their notion of objectivity is centred on the idea that social behaviours, actions and institutions tend to take on patterns and ways of doing reflexively and they become routine over time. Thus, Berger and Luckmann (1966) deal with the construction of reality by approaching the view that it is both subjective and objective. They endeavour to bridge subjective and objective features of social life. In Layder's (1994) opinion this bridge-building approach is a very constructive one. This draws a parallel with Bourdieu (1977, 1990, 1998), who developed such conceptual tools as *habitus* and field which seek to transcend the dichotomy of subjectivism versus objectivism. His frameworks will be discussed later in the chapter.

From Holstein and Gubrium's (1994) perspective, Berger and Luckmann's (1966) version of social constructionism is primarily concerned with the cognitive principles governing the world of meaningful objects. The emphasis is put on the structure of the life world in a general sense, considering how that world is constituted as a stable entity, what comprises that world, and how meanings shape and are shaped by it. Therefore, Holstein and Gubrium (1994) argue that Berger and Luckmann's (1966: 233) focus is on the cognitive processes of 'universe maintenance'. Revisiting Burrell and Morgan's (1979) paradigmatic dimensions of objectivity vs. subjectivity and social change vs. regulation, Berger and Luckmann's social constructionist thesis is characterised by intrinsic processes of social construction. They include reflexive externalisation of

individual psychology (thoughts, feelings, opinions etc.) through labelling and categorisation processes and the ensuing processes of objectivation through crystallising the labels, categories and institutions and finally internalisation through acceptance, socialisation and legitimation to maintain social order.

In the following section, 2.3.2, I will discuss K. J. Gergen's (1985, 1994, 1999) and Gergen and Gergen's (1992) ways of articulating social constructionism with an emphasis on social interchange through which human beings produce and reproduce social order. These social processes as language-based processes of co-ordination are historically and culturally located, reproduced in certain relational processes and not others (Hosking and Ramsey, 2000: 7).

2.3.2 Gergen's social constructionism:

K. J. Gergen (1985) believes in a relational theory of social meaning or social order and to him it is the human interchange which should stand as the focus. 'Social constructionist inquiry is principally concerned with explicating the processes by which people come to describe, explain or otherwise account for the world (including themselves) in which they live' (K. J. Gergen, 1985: 266). Therefore, researchers are invited to play with the possibilities and practices that are made coherent by various forms of relations (Schwandt, 2000: 198). Adhering to social constructionism, then, points us not only to what is constructed but also how it is constructed and the very question of what it means to say it is constructed (Patton, 2002: 102).

It is argued by some scholars (e.g. Mather, 2002; Katzko, 2002) that K. J. Gergen's version of social constructionism is rooted in Hegelian philosophy (Hegel, 1977 cited in Mather, 2002) which is grounded in Weberian Verstehen sociology. According to Mather (2002), the affinities between Hegelian 'dialectical thinking' and K. J. Gergen's social constructionism are particularly evident in the edited publication entitled '*Historical Social Psychology*' (K. J. Gergen and M. Gergen, 1984). In essence, Hegelian dialectical thinking focuses on the reflexive relationship between human beings and their social

environment. This is manifest in K. J. Gergen's interpretation of social constructionism throughout his writings particularly when raising the problem of 'the external world'. For him, there is no transcendent reality from which to survey the connection between subject and object. In his own words 'in object related constitution a community essentially creates the objective world in terms of 'what it is for us'' (K. J. Gergen, 2001: 422). Members of a society transform the 'subjective' into 'a tangible reality' that is a product of active perceptual constructions (Deetz, 1996; K. J. Gergen, 1999; Chell, 2000; Nicholson and Anderson, 2005).

Given this intellectual background to his version of social constructionism, it is an apposite moment to introduce K. J. Gergen's (1985) four key assumptions. Burr (1995) argues that we, the social science researchers, make one or more of these assumptions when working in a social constructionist genre. Burr's (1995) articulation of these assumptions is quite useful in relating the assumptions to methodological choices. The ensuing discussion incorporates her views:

1. **A critical stance towards taken-for-granted knowledge** (Burr, 1995: 3):

> **'What we take to be experience of the world does not in itself dictate the terms by which the world is understood. What we take to be knowledge of the world is not a product of induction, or of the building and testing of general hypotheses'. (K. J. Gergen, 1985: 266)**

This assumption highlights the need to take a critical stance towards taken-for-granted ways of understanding the world as opposed to positivism where there is a faith in objective, unbiased observation of the world. This does not necessarily mean that positivist researchers are uncritical or never test their assumptions. However, positivists are committed to a theory of 'truth' couched in a putative neutral observational language and the task of science is to enable the prediction and control of social and natural events (Johnson and Duberley, 2000:26). This is a recurrent theme traceable back to Descartes (1960).

With the above statement of 'a critical stance towards taken-for-granted knowledge', K. J. Gergen's main contention could be best summarised in his following question: "*How can theoretical categories map or reflect the world if each definition linking category and observation itself requires a definition?*" (K. J. Gergen, 1994: 4). In social constructionist premise, "the categories with which we apprehend the world do not necessarily refer to real divisions" (Burr, 1995: 3). It is how we know them, that is to say, how we grasp them in our minds and in society as such categories. Berger and Luckman (1966) argue that formations of reality or knowledge are undertaken by the members of that society and they are 'real' or can be construed as 'knowledge' for those people. Social constructions of reality are couched in intersubjective experiences (Nicholson and Anderson, 2005). As suggested by Smith and Anderson (2004) everyone in society takes part in society's knowledge construction; if not at the level of theorising by all members of the society. As mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, active perceptual constructions by the members of a society are critical in understanding underpinning processes of social construction of knowledge. Chell (2000) demonstrates how language guides our 'perceptual constructions' and sense-making processes by making inferences based on previous experiences and memories; by thinking forward; by filtering and framing and transforming the subjective into a more tangible and workable reality.

2. **Historical and cultural specificity:** (Burr, 1995: 3):

> **'The terms in which the world is understood are social artefacts, products of historically situated interchanges among people'** (K. J. Gergen, 1985: 267).

This assumption means that all ways of understanding are historically and culturally situated (Burr, 1995: 4). These particular forms of knowledge are viewed as the products of that culture and history. Berger and Luckmann's (1966) explanation of social construction deals with this aspect by claiming that externalised products of human activity or the ways by which they are produced can be understood in that society within their historical context. They present an exhaustive analysis of the processes of objectivation, institutionalisation and legitimation. However, the significance of the

embeddedness of social construction processes in their cultural and historical context is not developed.

3. **Knowledge is sustained by social processes:** (Burr, 1995: 4):

> **"The degree to which a given form of understanding prevails or is sustained across time is not directly dependent on the empirical validity of the perspective in question, but on the vicissitudes of social processes"** (K. J. Gergen, 1985: 268)

Social constructionism puts emphasis on the human interaction. It is the daily interactions between people in the course of social life that are crucial to understand. K. J. Gergen (1985) explains the social processes by individuals' ability to remember a concept, share it with others and discuss it. So knowledge of the world is sustained by social processes through interaction in that knowledge is what people do together (Burr, 1995: 6). The significance of social processes mainly stems from the ability to define the strength of an idea to pass through history, as could be inferred from K. J. Gergen. This is seen to be similar to and different from Berger and Luckmann's arguments. It is similar to their description of transmission of knowledge to internalise it. Therefore, the constant engagement of people in such interactions with each other forms the focal point in both versions of social constructionism. It is through this interaction and engagement that the meanings are "generated by people as they collectively engage in descriptions and explanations in language" (K. J. Gergen and M. Gergen, 1991: 78). For K. J. Gergen, these relational processes are ongoing, more or less temporary and local constructions. However, Berger and Luckmann (1966: 117) tend to emphasise the creation of knowledge and social institutions in a sense that once constructed they are virtually self-maintaining in the absence of problems or challenges; institutions "tend to persist unless they become problematic". K. J. Gergen highlights the interactional practice and stresses how knowledge and social action go together and the processes of developing understandings and actions continually shape and reshape social actors' institutional realm, with context and activity being reflexively related.

This assumption is of a particular import for the current research as it forms the core idea in shaping the overall research aim which is to explore the relational processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing as the underlying processes while venturing. The intention is to uncover such processes by which the nascent entrepreneurs relationally create meanings and understandings and develop their actions as they form and run a venture. This calls for multiple levels of analysis, as explained in section 2.5[2]. It also relates to the notion of research, adopted in this study, as an ongoing relational process between the participants and researchers from a social constructionist standpoint. The role of researcher as a research instrument and therefore as an integral part of the research will be elaborated in the Chapter Seven of the thesis.

4. **Knowledge and social action go together:** (Burr, 1995: 3):

> ***"Forms of negotiated understanding are of critical significance in social life, as they are integrally connected with many other activities in which people engage"*** *(K. J. Gergen, 1985: 268).*

K. J. Gergen takes the discussion one step further and discusses how people together sustain life in the continuous generation of meanings through social interaction. He asserts that generative discourse transforms social life (K. J. Gergen, 1999). Discourse is "a connected set of statements, concepts, terms, expressions which constitute a way of talking or writing about a particular issue thus framing the way people understand and act with respect to that issue" (Watson, 1994a: 113). This implies that discourse provides the means through which individuals achieve self-expression and realise ideas, visions and ambitions. (Fletcher, 2003). The interconnectedness of developing understandings and actions through interaction and negotiation is a crucial element in K. J. Gergen's social constructionism.

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[2] The idea for multiple levels of analysis in organisation and management studies is advocated in the writings of Danserau, Yammarino and Kohles (1999), Drazin, Glynn and Kazanjian (1999) and Morgeson and Hofmann (1999) in a special issue of the Academy of Management Review. The need for multiple levels of analysis in entrepreneurship research is acknowledged by Davidsson and Wicklund (2001) and Davidsson (2004).

This assumption has been influential in refining the research concern towards the entrepreneurial learning and managing processes through which business ideas are realised, negotiated and transformed to a viable business concept by forming a venture. A focus on the intertwined nature of learning and managing experience during organisational emergence (i.e. new venture creation) is highlighted because the key assumption is that developing meanings/understandings and actions go together. This is also related to understanding what the nascent entrepreneur thinks she/he knows and what assumptions she/he makes about her/his reality.

At the heart of these processes lie communication processes. Following Hosking and Green (1999), the communication processes are relational ones and they refer to the realm of language and action. So, their relational and action emphasis joins what is often separated i.e. talk, action, things and events:

> 'Language (action) now is seen to include written and spoken words, non-verbal gestures, voice tone, artefacts of human activity such as a logo, a company uniform, interior layout and décor, music...Action is any or artefact (artifact) that might be co-ordinated with in some way, so constructing a communication'. Hosking and Green (1999: 2)

In sum, K. J. Gergen's first assumption is that social world or knowledge of it is not viewed as pre-existent domain. The social world is socially produced through human interaction and language. This process is characterised in Berger and Luckmann's understanding, by human interactions becoming externalized, objectified and then internalised. Second assumption is that our understanding of the social world is historically and culturally specific. It is more or less contingent upon time and context. Therefore, social constructionist researcher seeks a temporal and contextual understanding. It is important to grasp the 'present' with reference to building on the 'past' and enacting the 'future'. This follows with the third assumption that social processes should be the focus of the researcher who explores how these understandings and knowledge are generated and regenerated and who should take account of the changing nature of the social world in doing so. The final assumption links our actions to our views, beliefs, understandings, and in a more encompassing sense, our narratives

about ourselves and the world. In essence, how we view the social world will shape our response to it.

The individual, the 'human agent', her or his biography and life experience in forming these responses seem to be undermined by K. J. Gergen's ideas of social constructionism. As the study has developed, the idea of understanding the individual nascent entrepreneur's ways of thinking, their cognitive processes of entrepreneurial learning and then moving to the collective venture community level has become more and more crucial. At a critical stage of the research, at which I was grappling with these issues of different levels of analysis i.e. the individual entrepreneur, the venture team and the venture community as I analysed data, Martin and Sugarman's (1996) theory of bridging paradigms, that is bridging constructivism and constructionism, was brought to my attention by my Supervisor. The following part presents their stance and in a way refines the discussion pertaining to the social constructionist position taken in this research.

2.3.3 Martin and Sugarman's (1996) theory of '*Bridging paradigms*'

In their article titled *Bridging Social Constructionism and Cognitive Constructivism: A Psychology of Human Possibilities and Constraint*, Martin and Sugarman (1996) present an argument, which is mainly concerned with understanding the emergence and development of the psychological (mind, selfhood, intentionality, agency) from its sociocultural origins. Therefore, their theory of the emergence of the psychological incorporates social constructionist thoughts but still leaves a room for human agency, self and creativity (Martin and Sugarman, 1996: 292). The major premise of their theory is that the private-individual and the public-social domains equally mark our existence and development as individual and collective beings.

They distinguish between cognitive constructivism and social constructionism by signifying the different disciplinary roots of these approaches. Constructivism has its roots in the psychology of the individual and social constructionism in the sociology of the collective and the social world. Adopting Martin and Sugarman's (1996) stance in a

research, which explored the interrelationship between the owner-manager and the first line manager, Chell and Rhodes (1999) argue that Martin and Sugarman's (1996) notion of 'bridging paradigm' provides an enabling framework to understand how the private and the public worlds interrelate. Their bridging paradigm places the individual as agent in a sociocultural frame.

The key arguments of their bridging paradigm rest on a number of premises: The starting point is that the individual is viewed to arise from the sociocultural but it is not reducible to the social. In other words, the individual experience is constrained by the sociocultural but not reduced to it. Individual psychology is grounded in and enabled by a shared sociality of conversational and interrelational practice (Martin and Sugarman, 1996: 296). Thoughts are passed relationally through conversation and this implies both a sharing of ideas, influencing processes of interrelating in practice that through reflexive processes individual psychology is externalised (Chell and Rhodes, 1996: 172). At the heart of Martin and Sugarman's thesis lies the notion of agentic consciousness and yet the idea that individual understanding can transcend the collective because of human capacities for memory and imagination:

> 'Once again, our basic thesis is that our individual psychology arises from the social but is not wholly determined by it. The ways in which we learn to construct and interpret our experiences as human agents have their origins in our status as social entities, as persons in interaction with others. Forms for human psychological constructions are available in sociocultural practices. Human constructivism is constrained, but not completely determined by these practices. This is so because the ways in which we become instantiations of what our cultures conceive to be persons are subject to our own unique experiences as individuals, and how we come to interpret and integrate these experiences as self-understanding agents. Human beings develop the capacity to exercise genuine reflexivity and some degree of self-determination...The personal theories we come to hold about ourselves, others and our circumstances are underdetermined by experiential data accumulated during our lifetimes. The transformative capacity in human psychology, and the mutability of individual human agents- our ability to learn, to change, and to innovate- are made possible by this underdetermination' (Martin and Sugarman, 1996: 298).

Given these key assumptions, their theory can be encapsulated by three major features: 1) an acceptance of the fundamental social constructionist premise of conversational and interrelational practices, 2) personal theories that people develop over time, and 3) human capacities for imagining and remembering.

The first feature is the idea that the forms for organising thought and enabling meaningful cognitive constructions of our experiences, our selves, and others are embedded in conversational and interrelational practices. 'Acting as a conduit through which public-social and private-cognitive domains can intermingle, they provide the possibility for the reflexive consciousness that is characteristic of individual psychology' (Martin and Sugarman, 1996: 299). Building on the reflexive nature of individual consciousness, enabled as well as constrained by the sociocultural, the second feature is that individuals accumulate various symbolic and relational tools through their appropriation of sociocultural practices and conventions. These tools enable and constrain the personal theories individuals construct and hold about their experiences, themselves and others (Martin and Sugarman, 1996: 299). Each individual uses a theory of self or ideal personhood, to reference a unique experiential history and reflect on past, present, and future intentions, expectations and actions (Martin and Sugarman, 1996: 300). This links us to the third feature highlighted in their theory which is human capacities to remember and imagine: 'Only by remembering and imagining elements of the conversations in which we participate are we furnished with the symbolic and relational tools we require to consider past experiences and previous learnings, and to entertain future possibilities' (Martin and Sugarman, 1996: 300). Thus, there is scope for human agency in this view. Human beings genuinely reflect on their experiences and while much of that experience may be routine, some experience is novel and has to be construed. New experiences entail the development of new ideas and theory to express one's reality (Chell and Rhodes, 1999: 173) and that is why people develop personal theories to understand and manipulate their reality. We, human beings, develop and use these personal theories primarily in a way that is responsive to others around us. This is what Shotter (1993a, 1995) calls 'rhetorical-responsive social constructionism'. It is rhetorical as the responsive ways of talking and acting can have the power to move people into action. He

sees individuals and managers in his particular study (Shotter, 1995: 144-145) as reflexive, knowledgeable, and socially accountable agents, concerned to be the authors of their own socially constructed individuality or interests.

2.4 Ontology, epistemology and methodology

Burrell and Morgan's (1979) articulation of ontology, epistemology, human behaviour and methodology, as metaphysical assumptions, has been discussed in order to illuminate the notion of research paradigm as a frame of reference. In the preceding sections, there is therefore the aim of paying respect to the scholars who deeply influenced my ideas on social constructionism as a particular frame of reference. Beyond this act, in this part I hope to amplify the use of these related terms in the current research and to raise a significant issue of the consistency between methodological integrity and theoretical frameworks used in the current research. The ensuing section 2.5 is dedicated to the discussion of the Bourdieu's (1977, 1986, 1990, 1998, 1999; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992) conceptual frameworks as the main theoretical and analytical tools used in the research.

The assumptions that we make about the nature of reality form the ontological positioning in research. How do we know what we know, in other words, the general set of assumptions about the ways of inquiring into the nature of the world comprise the epistemological grounding. Epistemology comprises assumptions about what constitutes knowledge and how it relates to the current focus of the investigation (Burrell and Morgan, 1979: 66). Based on these assumptions, researchers develop an overall research strategy and devise a combination of techniques to study social phenomena (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002); this is called methodology. Therefore, ontology, epistemology and methodology are all interrelated. The following quote from Hosking and Green (1999: 2) locate this notion of interconnectedness in the context of a social inquiry in a powerful way:

'Social inquiry is an ongoing (re)construction in activities such as research, writing, teaching and consulting, and conference presentations. All social practices reproduce certain taken-for-grantedness about what exists: this is the question of ontology. So, for example, practitioners of the human sciences construct people (with personal characteristics such as motives, and cognitive maps), organisations (with structures, and a mission) and environments (complex, turbulent...). Such constructions of existence go together with notions of what can be known of these things (epistemology), and how such knowledge might be produced (methodology)'.

2.4.1 Ontology

The social constructionist paradigm challenges the idea that the world has a reality of its own as positivists believe. Reality is a socially constructed reality produced by the members of a society in the course of the social interaction (Haar and Hosking, 2004). It does not have any existence apart from the human beings who form and reform it over time in particular contexts (K. J. Gergen, 1994; Burr, 1995). It is shaped according to context and time. Therefore, as Guba and Lincoln (1981, 1989) put it, the reality of the individual, compared with another individual or to the same individual at a different time, is not more or less true in the absolute sense, rather more or less informed or sophisticated.

The process through which reality is produced and yet its emerging nature is very much of a concern in social constructionist genre. It has been emphasised in the earlier parts of the chapter that it is through social interaction that individuals make sense of situations and develop their realities. In so doing, individuals reflect on their own life experiences as reflexive human agents (Martin and Sugarman, 1966). Berger and Luckmann (1966: 69) claim that '*men together produce a human environment*'. This production process does not only comprise sense-making but also enacting. Weick (1979) terms this process 'enactment'. The enactment includes a series of negotiations between the members of a community. These negotiations are seen by Hosking and Ramsey (2000) as a natural part of social processes as processes of co-ordination. They argue that a degree of practical consensus is achieved in ongoing ways of co-ordinating. Knowledge is contested and socially constructed. The way people construct their knowledge and the consensus is achieved in social life particularly in organisational life is taken up by Watson (1994a,

1994b, 2001b, 2002, 2003) who views the processes of enactment at the heart of strategic exchange activities in life. Human beings continuously attempt to discern the significance of things, and to forge meanings and understandings pertinent to their particular existential purposes and projects (Martin and Sugarman, 1996: 301). Over the life course, as people change environments and social contacts, they develop the capacity to reconstrue their lives in ways that enhance their present situations, relationships and needs (M. Gergen, 1994).

So, realities are constructed, exchanged, negotiated, accepted and enacted in a society through language (Watson, 1994a, 1997; Haar and Hosking, 2004). By language, Hosking and Ramsey (2000) refer to the realm of action and of social processes- a social communicative process that people do together (K. J. Gergen and Thatchenkerry, 1996). The language provides us with shared categories for separating our experience and giving it meaning, so that our very selves become the product of language (Shotter, 1993a, 1993b; Burr, 1995: 44). What is intelligible to one individual is intelligible to the fellow individual who shares the same language (Berger and Luckmann, 1966). Hence, the symbolic and relational tools we come to possess through our participation in sociocultural milieus enable us to interpret and integrate our experiences meaningfully and gain some understanding of our circumstances (see Chell and Pittaway, 1998a for the application of the social constructionist approach in entrepreneurship). However, it should be noted that our interpretations are generated 'from within the bounds of our unique individual histories, recollections of which provide much of the substance for our personal theories of self' (Martin and Sugarman, 1996: 301).

2.4.2 Epistemology

What can be known of the nature of these realities and how it can be known, in other words, what 'the relationship between the knower and known' is (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 37) comprise the epistemological debates of the research. Returning to Easterby-Smith et al.'s (2002) definition of epistemology, it is about setting some set of assumptions about better ways of inquiring into the nature of the world. Therefore, they

view social constructionism as one of the epistemologies of social sciences with a starting point which does not assume any pre-existing reality (ontological assumption). The social constructionist paradigm provides us with 'a frame of reference' (Watson, 2003: 1321) with a set of assumptions about the nature of reality, the 'known' (ontology), the nature of the relationship of knower to known (epistemology) and some ways of designing a social research (methodology). Hence, a particular way of viewing these interrelated notions of ontology, epistemology and methodology is embedded in the social constructionist premise.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe their naturalist version of epistemology. In their understanding, the inquirer and the 'object' of inquiry influence each other and therefore knower and known cannot be divorced from each other. The explanation of this statement is two-fold: First, one should distinguish between the social sciences and natural sciences in terms of 'what the object of inquiry is' and 'what it means to the scientists'. For example, when the 1999 Kocaeli earthquake happened in Turkey, it was important for seismologists to amplify the recording of the movement of the ground from aftershocks so that they could get a sense of whether another main-shock or more numerous aftershocks would follow. For geodesists, 'the 1999 earthquake' meant further examination of the North Anatolian fault, which produced a sequence of major earthquakes in Turkey over the years. Using a wide variety of techniques, geodesists and seismologists worked to map the earthquake rupture and its effects. The data they collected were used to better understand how the buildings failed in the earthquake. Therefore, one can argue that the scientist can distance herself/himself from 'the object of inquiry'. The magnitude of the aftershocks will not be affected by how the seismologist feels or thinks about it. Likewise, the length of the broken fault and related measurements will not be influenced by the geodesist's opinions about it. For a sociologist, 'the 1999 earthquake' meant the total destruction of a town whose residents were dead in thousands. It resulted in major evacuations and migration towards larger cities around, mainly Istanbul. Examining such impacts of the earthquake on human lives, a sociologist will influence the research process and research findings. Second, this notion that 'the inquirer' and 'the object of inquiry' are inseparable, is traceable back to differences

between positivists and non-positivists views of the world and epistemological approaches to understand the world as discussed in section 2.2.

In social constructionist writings, this is reflected as research being an ongoing construction process between research participants and researchers who continually interact and shape each other's understandings and actions (Burr, 1995; K. J. Gergen, 1999; Hosking and Ramsey, 2000). The research participants influence the researcher's access to key resources throughout the research process; they reveal or hide certain accounts of their personal and organisational life; they extend or restrain opportunities for further research etc. Whereas the researcher, as the research instrument (Marshall and Rossman, 1999), defines the focus of the research and scopes and re-scopes it as she or he engages in conversations with research participants at different stages of the research. She or he brings in her own values, worldview, experience and a set of relationships into the research process.

Given this understanding of epistemology, it is worth mentioning Bourdieu's (1999) ideas about this relationship. In his well-known article titled 'Understanding', he explores the particular interaction between the researcher and the researched in studying social phenomena. Recognising this interactionist nature of research, he focuses on our responsibilities as researchers. He aligns with the above view that the researcher is an integral part of the research; however, he points out the notion of being attentive and responsive to the accounts provided by the participants. He draws attention to would-be-distortions in a research act. He sees our responsibility in terms of putting every effort in order to reach the best understanding we can of participants' understandings. Otherwise, we bring things to the research act that would distort understanding. Bourdieu (1999: 614) articulates such a responsive approach in his following words: "...The welcoming disposition, which leads one to make the respondent's problems one's own, the capacity to take that person and understand them just as they are in their distinctive necessity, is a sort of intellectual love". Furthermore, this 'intellectual love' may result in interesting research material:

'By offering the respondent an absolutely exceptional situation for communication, freed from the usual constraints (particularly of time) that weigh on most everyday interchanges, and opening up alternatives which prompt or authorise the articulation of worries, needs or wishes discovered through this very articulation, the researcher helps create the conditions for an extra-ordinary discourse, which might have never been spoken, but which was already there, merely waiting the conditions for its actualisation' (Bourdieu, 1999: 614).

The critique of Bourdieu's view on conducting research can be two-fold: (1) Can a researcher ever really understand another person (i.e. a participant) even if one lifts the constraints as suggested by Bourdieu through an interview process? (2) In an interview act, research participants make their own assumptions as to what the researcher is trying to gather and respond accordingly even if the researcher makes none or few assumptions about her/his participants. Therefore, what Bourdieu is suggesting above can hardly be attainable particularly if the only research method used is an interview. What a researcher can strive for is egalitarian connectedness rather than control (Roulston, deMarrais and Lewis, 2003; Kvale, 2006) and being a non-judgemental and collaborative researcher. Participant observation is a method that enables a researcher to be a normal part of the culture and the life of the people under study (Blumer, 1966) and therefore combination of interviews and participant observation help researchers reach a fuller understanding of their participants' world and experiences. The use of these methods in the current research is discussed in Chapter Eight of the thesis.

Viewing the research as an ongoing construction between the researcher and the participants adds such additional demands on the part of the researcher as put by Bourdieu. Hosking and Ramsey (2001) join this discussion by arguing that notions of ontology and epistemology are joined rather than treated as if separate in social constructionism. They articulate their view through an argument on 'reflexivity' which involves reflexive recognition by the researcher of her or his Self and acting as a part of the inquiry process and what is constructed. They, therefore, view constructions of self and other as relational i.e. related to each other and to the discursive practices of particular local and historically related cultures (Hosking and Ramsey, 2001: 5). Chapter Seven will present an in-depth discussion on reflexivity. The reflexive researcher lets the

research take its shape in relation to her or his participants and this process of discovery is called methodology. It is seen as the process of knowing in this research and will be articulated in Part Three of the thesis. The following Table 2.1 summarises the paradigmatic assumptions upon which this research rests.

Table 2.1 Summary of paradigmatic assumptions using Burrell and Morgan's four dimensions

Paradigmatic assumptions (PA)	Social constructionist paradigm	Source (s)
PA1: Ontology: What is the nature of reality?	Reality is socially constructed i.e. produced and sustained by the members of a society in the course of social interaction. It is not fixed rather emergent and it is reproduced in certain relational processes not others. Human agents continuously attempt to discern significance of things, and to forge meanings and understandings drawing on their unique individual recollections of the past and pertinent to their particular present and future life projects.	Berger and Luckmann (1966), K. J. Gergen (1985), K. J. Gergen (1994), Burr (1995), Sarbin and Kitsuse (1995), Martin and Sugarman (1996), Chell (2000), Hosking and Ramsey (2000), Watson (2003).
PA2: Epistemology: What can be known of these realities and what is the relationship between knower and known?	Reality does not have any existence apart from human beings who form and reform it over time in particular context. So, the reality of the individual, compared with another individual or to the same individual at a different time is not more or less true in the absolute sense, rather more or less informed or sophisticated. Hence, knowledge of social world is produced and sustained through social processes in certain cultural and historical contexts. Knowledge and social action go together and knower and known cannot be separated from each other.	Berger and Luckmann (1966), K. J. Gergen (1985), Rosen (1991), K. J. Gergen (1994), Chell and Pittaway (1998a)

PA3: Human behaviour: Determinism or freedom of choice? Scope for human agency?	Human agency is not determined by the socio-cultural but acts within it. In other words, individual experience is constrained by the socio-cultural but not reduced to it. Human beings apply their understanding of social events, conversations and interpret them in the light of their own experiences. While much of that experience is routine and understood, some experience is novel and has to be construed. People may use the familiar to construct an experience of unfamiliar but new experience triggers the need to develop new ideas, new theory to explain one's reality. Hence, people develop personal theories to organise, anticipate, understand and manipulate their reality.	Martin and Sugarmann (1996), Chell and Rhodes (1999)
PA4: Methodology: How might such knowledge of human behaviour or social world be produced?	The aim of social constructionist research is then to generate insights to how members of a social group, through their life experience and participation in social processes, enact particular realities and endow them with meaning which is integral to behaviour. Research is therefore viewed as an ongoing construction between the researcher and the participants with an objective to explain what is typical to those individuals being studied in a certain socio-cultural milieu. Therefore, research design calls for a qualitative research approach which is grounded in natural setting, inductive and case-oriented, with associated methods of data collection and analysis.	Lincoln and Guba (1985), Rosen (1991), Chell and Pittaway (1998a), Hosking and Ramsey (2000) and Patton (2002).

2.5 Bourdieu's philosophy and conceptual tools

The primacy over social relational processes is embedded in the social constructionist genre. The conceptual tools that Bourdieu proposed to explain such processes and approximate social reality at different levels (individual, collective and society) form the central focus in this final section of the chapter. Taking Burrell and Morgan's (1979) framework (i.e. ontology, epistemology, human behaviour and methodology), Bourdieu's philosophy is examined in section 2.5.1 and this is followed by the further explanation of his conceptual frameworks in relation to their use in this research in section 2.5.2.

2.5.1 Analysis of Bourdieu's philosophy: ontological, epistemological, human behaviour and methodological assumptions

Pierre Bourdieu (1930-2002) was a French sociologist and philosopher. Engaging in a rich discussion of Bourdieu's relational perspective that forms the core of his sociological vision, Wacquant (1992: 16) traces his approach back to the works of Piaget, Jakobson and Levi-Strauss. Nash (1999) argues that Bourdieu's philosophy is also strongly influenced by phenomenology via Schutz (1967). Given these arguments, Bourdieu's scientific endeavour can be located in the historical context of the social science field of the late 1950s France, which was dominated by 'objective structuralism' of Levi-Strauss and the 'subjective' existentialism of Sartre (Jennings, 1992; Özbilgin and Tatli, 2005). Bourdieu has defined the objective of his scientific work as seeking to overcome the binary opposition between objectivism and subjectivism through a 'structuralist constructivism or constructivist structuralism' (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 11) by locating 'relations' as pre-eminent in researching social phenomena. This is called 'methodological relationalism' by Wacquant (1992: 15) who explicates it in the following way:

> 'Against all forms of methodological monism that purport to assert the ontological priority of structure or agent, system or actor, the collective or the individual', Bourdieu affirms the primacy of relations. In his view such dualistic alternatives reflect a common sensual perception of social reality of which sociology must rid itself. This perception is embedded in the very language we use which is better suited to express things than relations, states than processes' (Wacquant, 1992: 15).

At the ontological and epistemological levels, Bourdieu's philosophy portrays reality as relational, which can help to explain occurrences of certain structures. His relational epistemology involves three concepts: 'social position', 'disposition' and 'position taking'. He suggests that all social actors are continually situated in a 'social position' of superordinate, identical, or subordinate status in relation to others. (Pinnington, Morris and Pinnington, 2003: 15). Having the emphasis on relational nature of this social positioning, Bourdieu argues that these socially positioned actors engage in practices which cannot be understood other than interwoven activities carried out in a specific domain of practice, or field. Based on the distinction of status and class, his concept of 'field' denotes the relations among the totality of individual and organisational actors, who are positioned according to economic, social, cultural and symbolic capital they hold, in functionally differentiated parts of society. Anheier, Gerhards and Romo (1995) locates 'field' at the meso-level. However, it is operationalised at the macro level in this research building on the works of Özbilgin, Kusku and Erdogmus (2005), Özbilgin and Tatli (2005) and Özbilgin (2006) who developed such a layered approach based on Bourdieu's work and applied it organisation studies. In this research on nascent entrepreneurship, the field pertains to the field of enterprise culture, its institutions in general and higher education institutions that provide enterprise education and training as well as business incubation programmes in particular.

Bourdieu's concept of *habitus* is applied at the meso-level. Activities in a field are produced by dispositions, which are acquired under the specific conditions characterising this field, produce actions that perpetuate the practices and conditions found there (Schatzki, 1997: 287). This is his idea of *habitus* which is defined as the actors' embodied, practical knowledge and comprehension of the world. The notion of *habitus* includes collective ways of thinking and acting, as well as unconscious and automatic dispositions that are continuously subject to revision during practice (Bourdieu, 2000: 142). One should examine the similarities and differences between the concepts of 'culture' and *habitus*. From a social constructionist standpoint, 'culture' is defined by Bloor and Dawson (1994: 276) as a patterned system of perceptions, meanings and beliefs in a society, which facilitates sense-making and constructions among a group of

people sharing common experiences and informs individual behaviour. The interplay of individual behaviour with the sharedness of meanings and beliefs is emphasised by this definition, which resembles to the notion of *habitus*. However, *habitus*, as a concept, takes account of 'the individual' to a greater extent and acknowledges the role of individual history and human agency as will be further discussed in section 2.5.2.

Bourdieu's concepts of dispositions and *habitus* in connection with rules link us to his portrayal of the human behaviour issues. Bouveresse (1999) gives an account of regularity that *habitus* and its related notions bring to social life. Nash (1999) points to the idea that every cultural act is regulated by a distinct principle: how these principles are formed are explained by Bourdieu in terms of how human beings develop a 'feel for the game' and are able to make choices within the limits of what is made possible by the *habitus*. It is the recognition that sociological explanations of events and processes require a concept of culture that allows the 'principle that regulates the act' to be abstracted as the generative mechanism of practice (Nash, 1999: 179). This is more or less similar to Berger and Luckmann's (1966) idea on social habits and habitualisation as discussed earlier. Bourdieu's own answer to the question of why he revived Berger and Luckmann's notion is as follows:

> 'Why did I revive that old word? Because with the notion of habitus you can refer to something that is close to what is suggested by the idea of habit, while differing from it in one important respect. The habitus, as the word implies, is that which one has acquired, but which has become durably incorporated in the body in the form of permanent dispositions. So the term constantly reminds us that it refers to something historical, linked to individual history' (Bourdieu, 1993: 86).

The way Bourdieu (1993) puts it above reflects 'individual' aspects of *habitus* in the sense that individuals internalise such habits, norms and principles and develop a feel for the game as a part of their personal becoming, which is inextricably linked to their social becoming. Aligning with Nash's (1999) focus on the regularity in the social realm, Shusterman (1999: 5) views *habitus* as acting through its bodily incorporation of social relationships and meanings but without needing to articulate them in terms of explicit rules or reasons. Bourdieu (1990: 81) puts it in the following way:

> 'The social game is regulated, it is the locus of certain regularities. Things happen in regular fashion in it: rich heirs regularly marry rich younger daughters. That does not mean that it is a rule saying that rich heirs must marry rich younger daughters, even if you may think marrying an heiress (even a rich one, and a fortiori, a poor younger daughter) is an error, or even in the parents' eyes for example a misdeed. I can say that all my thinking started from this point: how can behaviour be regulated without being the product of obedience to set rules?...In order to construct a model of the game, which will not be the mere recording of explicit norms, nor a statement of regularities, one has to reflect on the different modes of existence of the principles of regulation and the regularity of different forms of practice; there is of course habitus, that regulated disposition to generate regulated and regular behaviour outside any reference rules; and in societies where the work of codification is not particularly advanced, the habitus is the principle of most modes of practice'.

Human agents acquire mastery of their social world by way of durable immersion within it. Relating to his theory of practice, 'practical sense' operates at the pre-objective level, meaning it expresses this social sensitivity which guides human beings prior to our positing objects as such (Wacquant, 1992). The analogy between a social actor and a ball player is an illuminating one:

> 'Practical sense constitutes the world meaningful by spontaneously anticipating its immanent tendencies in the manner of the ball player endowed with great "field vision" who, caught in the heat of action, instantaneously intuits the moves of his opponents and team-mates, acts and reacts in an 'inspired' manner without the benefit of hindsight and calculative reason' (Wacquant, 1992: 21)..."Each maneuver undertaken by the player modifies the character of the field and establishes new lines of force in which the action in turn unfolds and is accomplished, again altering the phenomenal field' (Merleau-Ponty, 1963: 169 cited in Wacquant, 1992: 21).

The notion of *habitus* is acknowledged by some scholars (e.g. Layder, 1994; Rizardo, 2004) as a conception that enables Bourdieu to transcend the dichotomy of objectivism and subjectivism in the sense that it provides people with a sense of the 'feel for the game'. In the context of organisations, Weick and Roberts (1993) employ the term 'collective mind', which is conceptualised as a pattern of heedful interrelations of actions in a social system. In their view, as heedful interrelating and mindful comprehension increases, a smoother organisational life is lived by its participants. This is useful in the context of studying nascent entrepreneurs during the process of new organisation creation

as a part of a wider social system. It is important to understand how their sense-making and interrelating evolve during the venturing process and if and to what extent such heedful interrelating and mindful comprehension can be achieved.

Nash (1999) takes the argument forward and discusses how *habitus* enables individual trajectories to be studied, for *habitus* has a history and discloses the traces of its origins in practice. In this wider understanding, *habitus* thus unites the past and the present for, while being the product of early experience, it is subject to the transformations brought about by subsequent experiences. These transformations are achieved by the individuals who operate within the *habitus* and therefore, constrained by it but not reduced to it. Those individuals, who develop a feel for the game during their lifetime, construct their realities and personal theories reflexively by reflecting on their individual experiences, understandings and interpretations of the world. That's why the *habitus* is a dynamic and emerging concept.

Methodologically, if human practices are strongly influenced by a certain *habitus* and therefore all practices give evidence of the structures of the *habitus* that constrain and enable them, the implication for a researcher studying social processes in particular contexts is to analyse social practices in such a way that the principles of the generative *habitus* are disclosed (Nash, 1999: 178). Bourdieu's notion of '*habitus*' came out of his early ethnographic studies in Algeria at the end of 1950s. The stance that Bourdieu takes regarding research methodologies is rooted in his initial practical training as an anthropologist. The nub of his argument is his view of theory as practical and therefore his support for the fusion of theoretical construction and practical research operations. According to Bourdieu (1999), every act of research is simultaneously empirical and theoretical. A coding decision, a questionnaire construction or an interview schedule, all involve theoretical choices, conscious or unconscious (Özbilgin et al., 2005). For him, it is important to bear in mind that theory inheres not in discursive propositions but in the generative dispositions of the *habitus* of social scientists (Wacquant, 1992: 35).

Through his concept of *habitus*, Bourdieu is criticised by some scholars (e.g. Mennell, 1994; Hodkinson, 1999) as being predominantly concerned with 'we identity', thus placing Bourdieu on the meso and macro level of the debate. However, a thorough examination and integration of his other concepts (i.e. forms of capital and dispositions) to the ideas of *habitus* and field can provide an enabling framework for analysis at different levels. It is the aim of the next section to clarify these conceptual tools in order to encapsulate their use in the current research.

2.5.2 Bourdieu's conceptual tools

Given the introductory discussion on Bourdieu's core concepts of 'capital', 'dispositions', '*habitus*' and 'field', in this section, I will attempt to elucidate them and locate his theoretical constructs at various levels of analysis by combining them with Layder's (1993, 1994) idea of the interplay between individual (micro), situated activity (meso-relational) and context (macro). Bourdieu (1977, 1986, 1990, 1993, 1998, 2000) proposed the concepts of 'capital' and 'dispositions' at micro level, *habitus* at meso-relational level and the 'field' at macro level of analysis as stated in the previous section. Özbilgin and Tatli (2005) have developed a multi-layered analysis of his conceptual tools and offered a way forward for the scholars of organisation and management studies, which allows for a reading of the interplay between individual choices, capacity and strategies with the socio-cultural milieu in a way that does justice to its relational and dynamic qualities[3]. Özbilgin et al. (2005) have applied such a multi-level framework in researching the career choices, values and burnout of MBA students based on an empirical study undertaken in four countries, namely Britain, Turkey, Greece and Israel. The current doctoral study on nascent entrepreneurship, which explores the underlying processes of business venturing that are entrepreneurial learning and managing, as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs, attempts to further this movement in entrepreneurship studies.

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[3] See Appendix I for the first page of their paper where my contribution to this work is acknowledged.

The first concept that lies at the micro-individual level of analysis is the 'capital'. Bourdieu's (1986) concept of 'capital' is broader than the notion of capital in economics. It is used in a more encompassing sense to represent 'resource' that can assume monetary and non-monetary as well as tangible and intangible forms (Anheier et al., 1995). Harker, Mahar and Wilkes (1990) in their book 'An Introduction to the Work of Pierre Bourdieu' note the encompassing nature of 'capital' in Bourdieu's conceptualisation:

> '*The definition of capital is very wide for Bourdieu and includes material things which can have symbolic value as well as 'untouchable' but culturally significant attributes such as prestige, status and authority (referred to as symbolic capital), along with cultural capital (defined as culturally-valued taste and consumption patterns)...For Bourdieu capital acts as a social relation within a system of exchange, and the term is extended to all the goods, material, and symbolic, without distinction, that present themselves as rare and worthy of being sought after in a particular social formation*' (Harker et al., 1990: 1).

Bourdieu (1986) distinguishes between four types of capital, which individuals draw on in order to pursue their life projects: economic, cultural, social and symbolic capital. 'Economic capital' refers to monetary income and other financial resources and assets. Existing in various forms 'cultural capital' includes long-standing dispositions and *habitus* acquired in the socialization process (Anheier et al., 1995: 862). It involves formal educational qualifications and training. 'Social capital' refers to the sum of the actual and potential resources that can be deployed through membership in social networks (Bourdieu, 1986). The last form of capital is the symbolic capital, which refers to the capacity to define and legitimise cultural, moral and ethical values, standards and styles (Bourdieu, 1986; Anheier et al., 1995). Bourdieu (1998: 47) stresses symbolic capital as the amalgam, and the situated value, of all other forms of capital that individuals draw on:

> 'Symbolic capital is any property (any form of capital whether physical, economic, cultural or social) when it is perceived by social agents endowed with categories of perception which cause them to know it and to recognise it, to give it value. For example, the concept of honour in Mediterranean societies is a typical form of symbolic capital which exists only through repute, that is, through the representation that others have of it to the extent that they share a set of beliefs liable to cause them to perceive and appreciate certain patterns of conduct as honourable and dishonourable' (Bourdieu, 1998: 47).

Three forms of capital (i.e. economic, cultural and social) become socially effective as resources, and their ownership is legitimised, through the mediation of symbolic capital. Bourdieu's concept of social capital places the emphasis on conflicts and power function (i.e. social relations that increase the ability of an actor to advance her or his interests) (Siisiainen, 2000: 2). Compared with Putnam's (1993) conceptualisation of social capital that has three components including moral obligations and norms, social values and social networks, the focus is on the social struggles of individuals in a field, from the Bourdieuan perspective. In other words, social capital becomes a resource in the social and economic struggles that are carried out in different social arenas or fields (Siisiainen, 2000). Human agents make choices and develop themselves in the pursuit of capital attainment in their fields. Webb, Schirato and Danaker (2002: 3) make the point that they 'adjust their expectations with regard to the capital they are likely to attain in terms of the practical limitations imposed upon them by their place in the field, their educational background, social connections, class position and so forth'. This notion of social capital pertains to the current study in terms of nascent entrepreneurs' economic and social endeavours in the field of enterprise culture and creative industries, as will be captured in Chapter 14.

The concept of dispositions is the second concept at the micro-individual level. The concept offers three layers of meaning: first, as an outcome of an organizing action, second the way of being as inhabitual existence and action and finally a tendency, propensity or inclination (Bourdieu, 1985, 1986, 1990, 1998). Dispositions are wider and more inclusive than the concept of 'attitudes' as they embody both habitual (automatic) and cognitive elements (Özbilgin et al., 2005). Bourdieu's conception of 'dispositions' is useful in understanding nascent entrepreneur's choices, motivations, decision making as well as cognitive learning experiences during business venturing. The following Table 2.2 illustrates the translation of these concepts to the current research:

Table 2.2 Translation of Bourdieu's theoretical constructs to the current research

Bourdieu's conceptual tools	**Translation to the current research**
Micro-individual level	**Nascent entrepreneur**
Dispositions, capital, position taking	Biographies, capitals, dispositions, entrepreneurial motivations.
Meso-relational level	**Venture community**
Habitus	Team or network of entrepreneurs. Mentors, clients, suppliers, bankers, venture capitalists, officials of industrial or regional development agencies etc.
Macro-contextual level	**Enterprise culture and higher education context**
Field	Enterprise culture discourses, institutions, frameworks, HEIs.

The dispositions cannot be isolated from the perceived structures because they are acquired under the specific conditions producing actions that perpetuate the practices and conditions. (Schatzki, 1997). This is the idea of *habitus* as the meso-level construct as explained in the preceding section in order to illuminate the 'human behaviour' dimension of Bourdieu's philosophy. Bourdieu (1990: 53) defines *habitus* as:

> 'A system of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures, predisposed to function as structuring structures, that is, as principles which generate and organize practices and representations that can be objectively adapted to their outcomes without presupposing a conscious aiming at ends or an express mastery of the operations necessary in order to attain them' (Bourdieu, 1990: 53).

One can think of 'professions' and 'professional environments' as an example. For instance, a nurse adheres to certain principles in undertaking her/his job, such as protecting patient's privacy, not disclosing any information about patients to a third party and following other ethical principles of her/his profession. Nurses have a view of their profession, which has developed through education and training in the medical field and enact their relationships with their patients, peers, with other professions with whom they interact.

There are three key points that Bourdieu signifies through the concept of *habitus* (Webb et al, 2002: 38): a) knowledge (the way we understand the world, our beliefs and values) is always constructed through the *habitus*, b) we are disposed towards certain attitudes, values or ways of behaving due to the influence exerted by our cultural trajectories and these dispositions are transposable across fields and c) the *habitus* is always constituted in moments of practice. In other words, it is always of the moment when a set of dispositions meets a particular problem, choice or context. It is a 'feel for the game' that is everyday life (Bourdieu, 1990: 54). Some scholars (Webb et al., 2002) argue that there is almost an understanding of unconscious 'taking in' of rules, values and dispositions through notion of *habitus*. However, Bourdieu (1998: 80) explains 'the feel for game' as the attainment of 'practical sense' by the human agents and it is both conscious and unconscious:

> 'Having a feel for the game is ...to master in a practical way the future of the game, is to have a sense of the history of the game. While the bad player is off tempo, always too early or too late, the good player is the one who anticipates, who is ahead of the game' (Bourdieu, 1998: 80).

What Bourdieu is illuminating here is knowing the game that is played out between human agents, which involves a knowledge of various rules, genres, discourses, forms of capital, values and imperatives that inform human agents' practices and that are continuously being transformed by those agents and their practices (Webb et al., 2002: 50). A person acquires *habitus* which is made up of a number of ways of operating, and inclinations, values and rationales that are acquired from various formative contexts, such as the family or the education system. Practices and the negotiations, deliberations and option-takings that produce them, are simultaneously conscious and unconscious. Human beings think and act in strategic ways, and try to use the rules of the game to their advantage, but at the same time they are influenced by the values and expectations that they get from *habitus* (Webb et al., 2004: 58). Bourdieu (1998) qualifies his notion of *habitus* with the following example:

> 'Habitus are generative principles of distinct and distinctive practices – what the worker eats, and especially the way he eats it, the sport he practice and the way he practices it, his political opinions and the way he expresses them are systematically different from the industrial owner's corresponding activities. But habitus are also classificatory schemes, principles of classification, principles of vision and division, different tastes. They make distinctions between what is good and what is bad, between what is right and what is wrong, between what is distinguished and what is vulgar, and so forth. But, the distinctions are not identical. Thus, for instance, the same behaviour or even the same good can appear distinguished to one person, pretentious to someone else, or cheap or showy to yet another' (Bourdieu, 1998: 8).

Returning to the discussion on the difference between *habitus* and 'culture', as presented in section 2.5.1, the notion of *habitus* acknowledges the 'distinctions' between individuals in making sense of, interpreting or constructing the world around them. As Martin and Sugarman (1996) have pointed out, human beings that operate within a sociocultural milieu develop the capacity to exercise genuine reflexivity and some degree of self-determination over their life course. The differences in their choices, capacities, capitals that they attain and strategies that they employ can be attributed to such individual level engagements. 'Culture' focuses on the collective whereas *habitus* transcends the dichotomy between 'collective' and 'individual' by allowing an examination of the interplay of individual behaviour with collective. Individuals possess some in the way of agency, even when following conventionally laid down paths shaped by *habitus*.

As highlighted by Özbilgin et al. (2005), the example of a worker that Bourdieu gives in the above quotation illuminates the context specificity of distinctions and the generative capacity of *habitus* as a meso level construct which accounts for the interplay of individual dispositions and capital with the context, which Bourdieu (1998) symbolizes as the 'field'. Hence, the final concept 'field' lies at the macro level of analysis. Bourdieu's conception of field is not used in the sense of domain but rather as a 'field of forces' because it is important to see the field as dynamic where human agents struggle to accumulate different capitals that will influence their positions within the field (Harker et al., 1990). These struggles are viewed to transform or maintain the field of forces. 'Positions once attained can interact with *habitus* to produce different postures which

have an impact on the economics of 'position-taking' within the field' (Harker et al., 1990: 8). Swartz (1997) delineates the 'field' as an important component of Bourdieu's relational methods:

> 'The concept of field at the macro-level of analysis is also instrumental in understanding Bourdieu's conception of relational methods. 'Fields denote arenas of production, circulation, and appropriation of goods, services, knowledge or status, and the competitive positions held by actors in their struggle to accumulate and monopolise these different kinds of capital. Fields may be thought of structured spaces that are organised around specific types of capital or combinations of capital. For example, Bourdieu speaks of the intellectual field to designate that matrix of institutions, organizations, and markets in which symbolic producers, such as artists, writers, and academics, compete for symbolic capital. Even science itself – the self-proclaimed highest expression of objectivity – is produced within the framework of a field' (Swartz 1997: 117-118).

The implications of using the concept of field for methodology are discussed by Harker et al. (1990) and Barnard (1990). Harker et al. (1990) connect it with time and space issues, which are viewed fundamentally significant in social constructionist research (Chell, 2000). The notion of field denotes 'social space' which refers to an overall conception of social world comprising multiple fields that have some relationships to each other and points of contact. The social space of the individual is connected through time (life trajectory) to a series of fields, within which people struggle for various forms of capital (Harker et al., 1990: 9).

As pointed out by Barnard (1990), we, researchers, also occupy a position which is not outside the game when undertaking social science research: 'The objects of analysis within the field are the stakes in the game (capital), the strategies, the objectified histories of the agents (their positions and *habitus*) including, ineluctably, that of the sociologist' (Barnard, 1990: 78). The conceptual tools i.e. dispositions, capital, position taking, *habitus* and field constitute Bourdieu's (1998) generative formula in his relational method which entails the examination of the interplay between all these aspects of social life: 'This formula, which might seem abstract or obscure, states the first conditions for an adequate reading of the analysis of the relation between social positions (a relational concept), dispositions (or *habitus*), and position-takings (prises de position), that is, the

'choices' made by the social agents in the most diverse domains of practice' (Bourdieu, 1998: 6).

Defining *habitus* as generative principles of context specific practices, Bourdieu does not do justice to the inclusive nature of *habitus* in the above explanation by equating dispositions with *habitus*. As argued throughout the sections 2.5.1 and 2.5.2, '*habitus*' is considered as a meso-level construct since it is a more encompassing concept that includes more than individual dispositions.

Drawing on these conceptual tools and combining these three levels of analysis (micro, meso-relational and macro), the reflexive relationship between nascent entrepreneur and situations through which entrepreneurial motivations and intentions are realised by forming new ventures can be studied. Making sense of nascent entrepreneurs' business venturing experience and that of their entrepreneurial learning requires an examination of the interwoven nature of the relationship between their life histories, experiences, capitals, in Bourdieu's sense, that they have accumulated so far and they are eager to accumulate in the future; positions that they endeavour to attain, and their *habitus* in terms of generative practices in a venture community and perceived opportunities and constraints within the regional and national domain of enterprise culture and higher education context which constitute the 'field'.

2.6 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter, I have discussed the social constructionist paradigmatic stance taken in this research. Adopting Burrell and Morgan's (1979) dimensions in defining research paradigms, the paradigmatic assumptions (i.e. ontology, epistemology, human behaviour and methodology) have been amplified. 'Reality' as socially constructed, that is to say, as produced and sustained by the members of a society, who draw on their own labelling, remembering and imagining capacities in the light of their life experiences and projects, in the course of social interaction is acknowledged at the ontological level. The emerging, relational and strategic construction of reality is emphasised. This paves the way for the

scope of human agency in this construction process, which is often undermined by social constructionist writings.

Taking Martin and Sugarman's (1996) position, it has been argued that human agents continually attempt to discern the significance of things, situations and to forge meanings and understandings drawing on their unique individual recollections of the past and pertinent to their particular present and future life projects. What can be known of these realities as the question pertaining to epistemology finds answers in a relativistic and contextualised understanding of reality and knowledge: The reality of the individual compared with another individual or to the same individual at a different time and space is not more or less true in an absolute sense, rather more or less informed or sophisticated. Knowledge of the social world is then produced, sustained and transformed through cognitive and social processes in certain space over time. Individual experience is influenced by the social space- the sociocultural- but not reduced to it. There is a room for human agency in considering this reflexive nature of relationships. The methodological positioning concerns producing knowledge of human behaviour and relationships in a social constructionist way that it would shed light on how nascent entrepreneurs as members of a venture community through their life experience and participation in social processes create and enact particular realities of business venturing and endow them with meaning. This implies the notion of research as an ongoing construction between the researcher and the participants with an objective to illuminate what is typical to those individuals being studied in a certain socio-cultural milieu.

Bourdieu's conceptual tools of dispositions, capital and position taking at the micro-individual level, *habitus* at the meso-relational level and field at the macro-level are viewed as enabling frameworks in this research. They allow for a layered analysis of the business venturing experience of nascent entrepreneurs with special attention paid to underlying processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing unfolding within a field characterised by enterprise culture, entrepreneurship education and support discourses. The following chapter sets out the research aims and questions constructed and reconstructed during the course of the study in conjunction with my evolving

understanding of paradigmatic and theoretical issues in entrepreneurship and organisation studies and with reference to fieldwork issues.

Chapter Three: Research Aim, Objectives and Questions

3.1 Introduction to the chapter

This chapter sets out the research aim[4], objectives and resulting questions posed. The first part gives an account of how the research concern has developed in relation to my intellectual development as a novice researcher. The second part outlines the research objectives and questions combined with the paradigmatic assumptions and theoretical considerations.

3.2 Development of the research concern

The research projected started with a scholarly interest in a broad area of entrepreneurship and learning. I was interested to understand how a group of people develop entrepreneurial skills and create new ventures or engage in innovative practices inside or outside organisations. Towards the end of the first year of my studies, the focus of the inquiry had narrowed down from a broad area of venture teams and development of entrepreneurial management capability to the learning and managing experience of nascent entrepreneurs who form a team or community of practice during new venture creation. The aim and objectives of the research had become more refined and the wording had significantly changed when I reached the point of the transfer from MPhil to PhD stage. This can be attributed to my engagement with social constructionist philosophy and related conceptual frameworks at a deeper level.

As elucidated in the previous chapter, the social constructionist approach, by its very definition, encourages the awareness of continually constructing realities through conversation (Campbell, 2000). Therefore, it is important to stress that the research aims and questions have been shaped as above in dialogic exchanges mainly through supervisory meetings and also through discussions with other scholars in the area at

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[4] According to the Oxford English dictionary, 'aim' means a purpose or intention; a desired outcome (Oxford English Dictionary, 2004: 33) and 'objective' is a thing aimed at or sought (Oxford English Dictionary, 2004: 1213). Therefore, a research aim is what overall I am attempting to achieve and an objective specifies what I seek in order to fulfil my overall aim.

seminars, workshops, and two conferences. The initial presentation of the research proposal at the Cardiff conference (Karataş and Murphy, 2002a, see Appendix II for the paper), which in essence portrayed different approaches (mainly critical realist, postmodernist and social constructionist) and identified the social constructionist approach in researching the subject, contributed to the research process significantly. The salient issues emerging out of the discussions at Cardiff were taken up by the ISBA Doctoral track paper, which provided for the furtherance of the discussion (Karataş-Özkan and Murphy 2002b). The issues concerning the level of analysis, (whether it is the venture team of nascent entrepreneurs or the individual nascent entrepreneurs), the importance of the interplay at different levels, and processual and relational emphasis on entrepreneurial learning and managing, guided me in reformulating the research objectives.

A deeper engagement with the literature has also helped refining the research questions. Nascent entrepreneurship is a very topical subject; however, there is a dearth of research (Ucbasaran, Westhead and Wright, 2001; Chell and Oakey, 2004; Chell, 2004a; Davidsson, 2003, 2006) conducted at the doctoral level (Brush et al., 2003). Entrepreneurial learning is an emerging subject domain within the entrepreneurship discipline, as highlighted by many scholars in the field (e.g. Cope, 2003, 2005; Rae, 2001, 2003, 2005a; Harrison and Leitch, 2005). The connection between the two is not well-established. The entrepreneurial learning experience of nascent entrepreneurs is an area where there is scope for generating greater understanding of personal, social and economic becoming of nascent entrepreneurs, from a multi-level perspective, influenced by the dominant discourses of enterprise culture and education.

3.3 Research aim, objectives and questions

The research aim, objectives and questions were finally set as follows:

The overall aim of the research is 'to generate an in-depth understanding of the nascent entrepreneurs' learning and managing experience, by exploring their perspectives, in

relation to the enterprise culture and education discourses in the UK'. More specifically, the research objectives are:

1. To understand the social construction of business venturing process as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs.
2. To explore how nascent entrepreneurs develop meanings/understandings/actions while engaged in entrepreneurial activities of venturing.
3. To examine how the aforementioned processes (i.e. business venturing and entrepreneurial learning) relate to the enterprise culture in the UK, with its higher education institutions (providing a variety of forms of enterprise education or business support and development services).

The translation of these objectives into research questions is illustrated in the Table 3.1, combined with the theoretical considerations that are discussed in the ensuing Part Two of the thesis. This Table will be expanded throughout the thesis as and when the discussion is furthered with the research methods and findings.

Table 3.1 Research objectives and questions

Research objectives	Research questions	Themes/Concepts
To understand the social construction of business venturing process as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs.	What is the nature of business venturing process as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs? How do the selected nascent entrepreneurs view the process in terms of its salient characteristics? What are the processes of social construction involved?	Entrepreneurship from processual, relational and process-relational perspectives. Stages of business venturing process. Social construction processes involved in enacting entrepreneurial practices.
To explore how nascent entrepreneurs develop meanings/understandings/actions while engaged in entrepreneurial activities of venturing.	How do nascent entrepreneurs develop meanings/understandings/actions engaged in entrepreneurial activities of venturing? What are the important facets of their entrepreneurial learning experience?	Nascent entrepreneurship. Social processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing. Pertinent organisational learning approaches. Communities of practice.
To examine how the aforementioned processes (i.e. business venturing and entrepreneurial learning) relate to the enterprise culture in the UK, with its higher education institutions (providing a variety of forms of enterprise education or business support and development services).	How do the aforementioned processes (i.e. business venturing and entrepreneurial learning) relate to the enterprise culture in the UK, with its higher education institutions (providing a variety of forms of enterprise education or business support and development services)? How are micro-individual (nascent entrepreneur), meso-relational (venture community and generated *habitus*) and macro-field (forces of enterprise culture and market forces of creative industries) facets of nascent entrepreneurship are interrelated?	Enterprise culture. Higher education institutions. University incubators. Provision of enterprise education and business development services.

These objectives can be combined with Bourdieu's conceptual tools and levels of analysis as follows:

Table 3.2 Research questions and levels of analysis using Bourdieu's conceptual tools

Research questions	Levels of analysis using Bourdieu's conceptual tools	Translation to the current research
What is the nature of business venturing process as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs? How do the selected nascent entrepreneurs view the process in terms of its salient characteristics? What are the processes of social construction involved?	**Micro-individual level**	**Nascent entrepreneur**
	Dispositions and capitals	Biographies, dispositions, capitals (i.e. resources that they draw on and capitals that they aspire to attain) and entrepreneurial motivations. Business venturing process.
How do nascent entrepreneurs develop meanings/understandings/actions engaged in entrepreneurial activities of venturing? What are the important facets of their entrepreneurial learning experience?	**Meso-relational level**	**Venture community and new enterprise**
	Habitus	Team or network of entrepreneurs. Mentors, educators, clients, suppliers, financiers, officials of industrial or regional development agencies (RDAs).
How do the aforementioned processes (i.e. business venturing and entrepreneurial learning) relate to the enterprise culture in the UK, with its higher education institutions (providing a variety of forms of enterprise education or business support and development services)? How are micro-individual (nascent entrepreneur), meso-relational (venture community and generated *habitus*) and macro-field (forces of enterprise culture and market forces of creative industries) facets of nascent entrepreneurship are interrelated?	**Macro-contextual level**	**Enterprise culture and higher education context**
	Field (forces of field)	Enterprise culture discourses, support and intervention programmes, policies, institutions such as RDAs and higher education institutions.

3.4 Conclusions to the chapter

Taking a developmental approach, this chapter introduces the research aim, objectives and questions in relation to my choice of research paradigms and pertinent literature. Part Two is dedicated to presenting the disciplinary debates pertaining to entrepreneurship and organisation studies. It portrays a critical evaluation of the relevant literature and key themes and concepts, as set out in this chapter.

PART TWO
DISCIPLINARY DEBATES:
SETTING THE DISCURSIVE CONTEXT

> *'Discourse allows no absolute centre. Instead we can always ask how such a centre has become set up-its genesis. And how the limits/boundaries/conditions are derived from such a centre are made to function- e.g. through becoming repeated and circulated in academic discourse as theory: where, on whom, on what occasions and so on. We could therefore ask what are the contemporary limits and conditions of the necessary' (Hjort, 2003b: 18).*

Synopsis

The purpose of the Part Two is two-fold: First, it aims to locate the current research as a part of the academic movements in entrepreneurship and organization studies. Second, it seeks to highlight key debates from the previous research so that the basis for reengagement with the literature in analysing the case study accounts can be established. How enterprise and entrepreneurship are produced in the governmental and academic discourses forms the core of the discussion. What is necessary to know about different approaches to entrepreneurship in scoping the current research will find some answers in this part. Embedded within a social constructionist paradigm, more attention is paid to the interrelated nature of government and academic discourses in defining the parameters in which we think, write and teach enterprise and entrepreneurship.

This part consists of three chapters. Chapter Four reviews the discussion on the political, economic and social factors in the UK that have resulted in the enterprise culture debates. The role of higher education institutions with particular reference to university incubators is also included in conjunction with the third research question, which seeks to understand the context impacting on nascent entrepreneurs. In so doing, I draw on my readings of the pertinent works as well as the fieldwork I conducted with the university incubators during the orientation phase of the research. Chapter Five positions the

entrepreneurship discourse within a broader academic context. The entrepreneurship literature has been mapped out along three perspectives, which are processual perspectives, relational perspectives and process-relational perspectives. These perspectives are critically evaluated in this chapter. Chapter Six is concerned with a more focused discussion pertaining to nascent entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial learning and managing literatures. The selected views from individual and organisational learning are interwoven to this discussion with a focus on differentiating 'entrepreneurial learning' from 'learning'. This chapter concludes with drawing out the key points regarding the discursive contexts to which this research is related to.

The Structure of the Thesis

What is worth knowing?
Philosophical debates

Part One: Foundation of the Thesis

What do we believe about the nature of reality?
Ontological debates

How do we know what we know?
Epistemological debates

How do we personally engage in inquiry?
Reflexivity debates

What questions should we ask?

Disciplinary debates

Part Two: Disciplinary Debates
Chapter Four: Enterprise Culture
Chapter Five: Academic discourses on entrepreneurship
Chapter Six: Nascent entrepreneurs: Entrepreneurial learning and managing

How should we study the world?
Methodological debates

Part Three: Methodology Matters

What are the research accounts? What insights into the subject have been generated through this research?
Description, analysis and interpretation of the research cases

Part Four: Case accounts: Description, Analysis and Interpretation

What conclusions can be drawn from the study in order to address the research questions?
What are the implications for academics and practitioners?
Part Five: Concluding Remarks

Chapter Four: Enterprise Culture in the UK

4.1 Introduction to the chapter

Political discourse in many advanced liberal economies has been dominated by references to 'enterprise' for the best part of a quarter of a century (du Gay, 2004: 38). The enterprise culture is founded on the premise that entrepreneurship has a transformative function, which drives the economy (Jack and Anderson, 1999). This belief that new enterprises fuel employment and wealth creation combined with a shift from the orthodoxy of Keynesian economics to a market driven ideology has embedded entrepreneurship into political discourse (Ogbor, 2000; Swedberg, 2000; Perren and Jennings, 2005). The chapter seeks to examine the political discourse of enterprise culture that prevailed in the UK since early 1980s by analysing the underpinning philosophies and assumptions from a historical perspective. To this end the chapter is organised as follows: The first section presents the discussion on the enterprise culture by highlighting the ambiguity in the use of the term 'enterprise' to serve multiple purposes at different times. The second section follows with the role of higher education institutions (HEIs) with an emphasis placed upon the enterprise education agenda. The university incubators forms a subsection of this part in order to provide a deeper insight to the context in which nascent entrepreneurs can operate if they choose to do so. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key debates.

4.2 Enterprise culture debates

The notion of enterprise culture has been around for two decades and the British Governments have committed themselves to making Britain a country of enterprise (Gavron, Cowling, Holtham et al., 1998). During the course of the 1980s, the idea of an enterprise culture has emerged as a central motif in the political thought and practice of the Conservative government in Britain (Keat, 1991: 1). There is a continuing political enthusiasm for encouraging entrepreneurship in the UK (Ram and Smallbone, 2003). As pointed out by Gibb (2002a: 235), it has been at the core of the UK Government's 'Competitiveness Initiative' for several years (Blair, 1998 in Gibb, 2002a; DTI, 1998).

Gibb (2002a) maintains that there is a difference between the current (2002) Labour Government's version and that of Thatcher Governments in the 1980s and 1990s. The difference, he argues, is that the current version represents the ideological and philosophical backbone of the Government's programme whereas Thatcher Governments' attempts to create an enterprise culture focused on the promotion of a culture for enterprise largely through carrying out of a range of external structural changes (Morris, 1991). According to Carr and Beaver (2002), these structural changes centred on moving away from government intervention to the reinstatement of the market mechanism as the fundamental characteristic of the market economy. These structural changes entailed the following: dismantling the welfare state, reducing the power of trade unions, deregulation, marketisation, privatisation, cuts in taxation, reducing the role of the state and enlarging that of the individual, reducing the public sector borrowing requirement, introducing firm monetary and fiscal discipline thus bringing inflation under control and promoting self employment (Carr and Beaver, 2002: 106). Implementing these economic policies, a greater need emerged for a moral revolution as much as an economic one in Thatcher years (Carr and Beaver, 2002). It has further been acknowledged that elements of enterprise culture should be embedded in people's understandings, values and attitudes and therefore manifest in organisational activities (Keat, 1991; Gavron et al., 1998). Therefore, the project of economic reconstruction has been redefined as 'one of cultural reconstruction- the attempt to transform Britain into an enterprise culture' (Keat, 1991: 1).

Morris (1991) provides a detailed account of the historical development of the notion of 'enterprise culture' by examining its dynamic nature having a series of meanings and generating a series of policies from 1974 until the beginning of 1990s. In 1974 the Centre for Policy Studies (CPS) was founded to study free market economies. In the publications of the CPS from its inception until around 1985, enterprise was understood largely in terms of commercial and industrial initiative and advocacy of the extension of the market model to new areas (Morris, 1991: 23). These studies therefore focused on the removal of various economic and fiscal barriers in order to allow for the development of the culture of enterprise rather than defining the characteristics of the enterprise itself (Morris, 1991).

Since 1985, there has been a subtle increase in the emphasis on individualism (including personal property and individual responsibility) and the morality of the market in terms of individual choice. This ideological emphasis manifested itself in the establishment of an Enterprise Policy Unit in 1987, whose aim was to direct its attention to the creation of a full enterprise culture, concentrating on enterprise, educational issues, business concerns and taxation. In a policy document the Centre (CPS, 1987 cited in Morris, 1991: 23) defined 'enterprise culture' as follows: 'Enterprise culture is defined as the full set of conditions that promote high and rising levels of achievement in a country's economic activity, politics and government, arts and sciences, and also distinctively private lives of the inhabitants'. As reported by Morris (1991), enterprise is associated with risk-taking in all areas of life. It is argued that enterprise, individual commitment and creativity should be manifest at all levels of 'work and play' in order to ascertain that initiative is fostered (Morris, 1991: 24). The emphasis on motivation, creative ambition and excellence is considered to be a significant point by Morris (1991) as these can be gained through education. Therefore, the idea that 'enterprise is teachable' is rooted in these developments in Britain and forms a central thesis in this study. It should be noted that the Thatcher's definition of enterprise culture was not strong on the idea of 'enterprise is teachable'. Training in techniques was advocated but the underpinning idea was 'entrepreneurs were born'. This will be further explicated later in relation to Chell's (2004a) critique of Thatcherite era.

A seminal lecture by Lawson (1984 cited in Morris, 1991) outlined the ways in which 'culture and psychology' are to be transformed and Lawson advocated the view that 'Britain must create an enterprise culture by changing psychology to change the business culture' (Lawson, 1984 in Morris 1991: 29). He contends that the effects of all the measures to free the market can be thwarted by the particular British historico-cultural and psychological realities and what is required is education in enterprise and specific policies to counter these realities. A new scheme called 'Enterprise in Higher Education (EHE), was introduced in 1987 under the Department of Employment. The aim of EHE 'is to increase dramatically the supply of more highly qualified people with enterprise' (MSC, 1987 cited in Morris, 1991: 30). The extended definition of enterprise, in this

document, is as follows: 'generating and taking ideas and putting them to work, taking decisions, welcoming change and helping to shape it and create wealth'.

The changing meaning of enterprise in the late 1980s paved the way for the introduction of concepts such as 'social entrepreneurship' or 'social enterprise'. In his 1986-7 speeches, Lord Young has argued that the basis of national unity is a cluster of shared values and only enterprise values can provide this basis. As expressed by Morris (1991: 31):

> 'The values of personal responsibility and confidence, together with the desire to improve one's own circumstances, are the foundation for what he calls 'enterprise in the community'. That is the creation of communities based on self-respect and respect for others, which is manifest in good citizenship'.

This period is referred to by Morris (1991) as 'partnership in cultural engineering' in Britain's development of enterprise culture. Since the mid-1980s, a conscious attempt has been made to create the conditions to effect massive cultural and psychological transformation of the British culture in order to bring about enterprise culture.

Analysing the political speeches between 1985 and 1988, Fairclough (1991) deciphers the notion of 'enterprise discourse', which has been shaped and reshaped in relation to shifting strategies over time and comes to a conclusion that 'enterprise discourse is best conceived of as a rather diffuse set of changes affecting various aspects of the societal order of discourse in various ways' (Fairclough, 1991: 39). Fairclough's (1991: 39) analysis starts with the dictionary meanings of enterprise and he outlines three senses of enterprise: a) engagement in bold, arduous or momentous undertakings b)disposition or readiness to engage in undertakings of difficulty, risk or danger; daring spirit and c) (in collocation with 'private' or 'free') private business' as a collective noun. He refers to these as a) 'activity' b) 'quality' (in the sense of personal quality) and c) 'business' senses. He notes the ambivalence potential of enterprise in Lord Young's speeches since any occurrence of the word is open to being interpreted in any of the three senses or any combinations of them. Establishing the links to wider strategic objectives of the speeches,

Fairclough (1991: 40) points out that the strategic exploitation of the ambivalence of the word enterprise in the speeches is a significant element in achieving the higher purposes- particularly contributing to revaluation of a somewhat discredited private business sector by associating private enterprise with culturally valued qualities of 'enterprisingness'.

Fairclough (1991) observes that almost all of Young's definitions of enterprise give it the quality sense. The differentiating point is the contrast between qualities that are specific to business activity and more general personal qualities. By giving examples of definitions from four speeches, he depicts a scale which moves down from the business end to general qualities end. What is more important is the varying communicative objectives, situations and audiences of speeches. For example, the following definition occurs in a speech whose focus is tackling unemployment: 'Enterprise encompasses flexibility, innovation, risk taking and hard work- the qualities so essential to the future of our economy and our nation' (Lord Young as quoted in Fairclough, 1991: 41). Another definition, which was provided in a speech two months later, was addressing the issue of inner city policy and 'enterprise in the community': 'Enterprise ....means an acceptance of personal responsibility and a confidence and desire to take action to improve your own circumstances' (Lord Young as quoted in: Fairclough, 1991: 41).

The expression 'enterprise culture', which occurs throughout the speeches is widely used as a label for core components of government policy and strategy and is itself very vague, not only because 'enterprise' is vague between the three senses but also because the relationship between the two elements of such nominal compounds is itself open to multiple interpretations (Fairclough, 1991: 43). Providing a fairly representative sample of the speeches as a whole he sums up the following usages: enterprise and employment, initiative and enterprise, enterprise and individual responsibility, self reliance and enterprise, skills and enterprise, professionalism and enterprise, talents and enterprise. Looking into the configurations of the meanings, he notes that just as establishing particular salience hierarchies among the senses of a word can serve strategic purposes, it can yet establish wider configurations between the discourses of enterprise and skill on one hand, or between the discourses of enterprise and individual responsibility, on the

other hand. The analysis leads us to the following: a) the narratives (or vocabularies or discourses) of 'enterprise' and 'skill' blends enterprise with a particular vocationally-oriented conceptualisation and wording (and ideology) of education and training and that of its relationship to work and other dimensions of social life, and b) the narrative of 'enterprise' and 'individual responsibility' combines enterprise with personal morality. Finally, Fairclough (1991: 47) suggests that the total configuration that results is the linguistic aspect of a major strategic conjunction in government policies: between a promotion of 'enterprise' in the workplace and beyond, consumerism and a vocationally geared education system.

Another work, which examined government pronouncements of enterprise culture during the 1980s, is presented by Selden (1991). He looked into the speeches and published papers by Lord Young and Nigel Lawson. As in the article of Fairclough (1991), he starts with the ambivalent nature of the terms 'enterprise', 'enterprising' and 'entrepreneur'. Joining the views of Morris (1991) and to some extent Fairclough (1991), he highlights the need to take a more encompassing approach in understanding enterprise discourse. The general human qualities that the term enterprise connotes should not be restrained within a narrowly economic discourse. Seeing the Industrial Revolution as the first true moment of the enterprise culture and relating the enterprise culture to the basic pillars of capitalism, Selden (1991) raises the increasing significance of individualism in the speeches and readings of enterprise culture particularly in late 1980s:

> '...This is based on the fundamental premise of the enterprise argument: only by allowing the individual to act in an economically self-interested manner can sufficient wealth be created to allow individuals to care for others....The entrepreneurial discourse is here in danger of undoing its binary logic. The terms are clearly in uneasy relation: 'wealth creation versus wealth consumption, standard of living versus caring, civilized society'. We cannot have a caring, civilised society, unless we allow individuals selfishly to reach the standard of living that makes helping others possible. There is no way of knowing at what stage the creation of wealth overflows into the socially altruistic consumption of wealth. It is necessary to legitimise individual greed in order to effect civilized ends. The priority of self-interest over helping others remains.....We must all accept the values of the enterprise culture. We must accept that helping ourselves comes before helping others. The enterprise discourse asks us to accept Hamlet's advice and to stop being the primarily social beings some of us feel we are. If we

> keep acting as though we are essentially entrepreneurial beings, we may actually start believing it; 'for' as Hamlet says 'use almost can change the stamp of nature''(Selden, 1991: 70).

Referring to Selden's (1991) paper, Chell (2004b: 5) provides a critique of the Thatcherite period by arguing that Thatcherism 'attempted to imbue 'enterprise' with the sense that it is both natural and cultural- a binary opposition'. The argument of the era was centred on the notion that people are enterprising-naturally- because 'enterprising' was associated with 'good citizenship' (holding the qualities of being responsible, hard working and confident) and yet the Thatcherite revolution was about the restoration of a natural and spontaneous form of existence (Chell, 2004b). Linking to Fairclough's (1991) above-presented examination of the political discourse of the day, this 'quality' view was connected with business along the lines of the skills and knowledge required to create wealth and 'go it alone' that is, make the leap into self employment (Chell, 2004b: 5). Therefore, the philosophy of the era implied that 'entrepreneurship' was confined to self-employment and furthermore it was viewed as a natural progression by enterprising individuals in the society. Enterprise education was played down and reproduced as vocational education and training, which put the emphasis solely on 'enterprising' qualities (Chell, 2004b) and developing knowledge of tools and techniques for enterprise.

Burrows (1991) is another scholar who problematises the use of the term 'enterprise culture'. Burrows (1991: 5) suggests that enterprise culture 'possesses only a small residual explanatory status in accounts of the materiality of the restructuring of western economies'. Carr and Beaver (2002: 105) acknowledge this problem that 'enterprise culture is presented as a simple justificatory discourse for the enormous changes and industrial shifts which countries such as the UK have experienced in recent years'. However, they argue, it is equally problematic to perceive the attempts to create an enterprise culture in the UK solely in justificatory terms. Carr and Beaver (2002) support the view that a connection between the public notions of the enterprise culture, as expressed by the government officials, and the everyday experience of small business owners is fundamental in resolving these issues. In spite of the early recognition of the significance of the individuals at the governmental level, Burrows and Curran (1991)

argued that there was little connection between the attempts to create an enterprise culture and individual business activity in terms of its development and day-to-day activity.

The Post-1997 era is characterised by a more focused and inclusive approach taken by the Labour government. The emphasis has been on the encouragement of positive attitudes towards entrepreneurship (Atherton, 2004) by mainly elevating its 'socially beneficial' aspects, dispelling the perception of entrepreneurship as an individualistic pursuit of personal wealth, as endorsed in the Thatcherite era (Chell, 2004b). The following remark by Stephen Byers, the trade and industry secretary of the time, demonstrates that the New Labour has problematised the enterprise culture discourse of Thatcherism:

> 'The problem was that it (the enterprising culture) got confused with the 'loadsamoney' culture. Starting a business was seen as an unattractive thing to do because it was very selfish. The difference now is that we argue you can have enterprise and wealth together with social justice and fairness' (Financial Times, November 15th, 1999: 3, emphasis added).

This reflects a re-emergence of enterprise culture with a more refined and inclusive view of what enterprise and entrepreneurship constitute. As a part of this development, 'science entrepreneurship' and recently 'social entrepreneurship' have been underscored. The policy activity has focused on business start-up and addressing the needs of disadvantaged groups in the society. The following statement, which was made in the 2001 Competitiveness White Paper, entitled 'Opportunity for All in a World of Change' (DTI, 2001: 35), reflects the encouragement of new enterprise creation:

> 'Entrepreneurship has become a critical part of the social, political and economic agenda around the world. Britain needs a business climate which supports the rapid creation of many more new and innovative enterprises, so vital to the dynamism of our economy'.

Interpreting the public policy initiatives, Gibb (2002a) describes the 'enterprise culture' in the UK along these lines: the emergence of more small businesses, associated higher rates of small business creation, more fast growth firms and technology based businesses,

social entrepreneurship, enterprise in established public and private sector organisations and a basis for tackling social exclusion by supporting disadvantaged groups to start new businesses (Gibb, 2002a: 235). The earlier Government discourse (SBS, 2002) evidences some aspects of the enterprise culture. The aim is 'to accelerate the drive to make the UK the best place to start and grow a business by 2005' (SBS, 2002: 3). To this end, the seven core strategies are put as follows: i) building an enterprise culture, ii) encouraging a more dynamic start-up market, iii) building the capability for small business growth, iv) improving access to finance for small businesses, v) encouraging more enterprise, in disadvantaged communities and underrepresented groups, vi) improving small businesses' experience of Government services and vii) developing better regulation and policy (SBS, 2002: 3-6).

Incorporating government into enterprise culture, Carr and Beaver (2002) define enterprise culture 'as a set of institutionally embedded relations of government, established during a particular historical period, which aim to influence and transform the mindset and conduct of a population'. Their definition acknowledges the contextual and historical qualities of the concept and also places emphasis on changing people's mindsets and actions. However, the processual characteristics are dismissed. They discuss the 'enterprise culture' as the outcome as a set of relationships and its implications on people. The question of how the government policies and initiatives can take individuals through an enculturation process in order develop some enterprising characteristics such as initiative, risk-taking, flexibility, creativity, independence, leadership, daring spirit and responsibility (Gibb, 1987) is missing. This is related to the continuing and growing need to base academic research and policy on rigorous, grounded and insightful thinking, which provides an effective representation of actual experience (Atherton, 2004; Chell and Oakey, 2004).

A more recent Government document (SBS, 2004: 5), entitled 'A Government Action Plan for Small Business', emphasises the crucial role of the Government in generating business 'churn' and in creating the competitive forces that provide the link between new business formation and growth and productivity growth in the economy as a whole. In the

chapter entitled 'building an enterprise culture', the Government's objectives are articulated in the following way (SBS, 2004: 20):

> 'The government's main objective in building an enterprise culture is to provide people with sufficient understanding to enable them to make an informed choice between employment and enterprise. A secondary objective is to enable people to make informed decisions about supporting enterprise by, for example, providing formal financial backing or encouraging a family member setting up in business. These choices should be based on full information and a rational appraisal of the opportunities, risks and rewards of enterprise' (SBS, 2004: 20).

For new enterprises to flourish there needs to be a culture where people with the initiative, skills and drive to start and run a successful business have the confidence to do so and consider it to be a realistic career choice. Therefore, raising this awareness as a legitimate career option by emphasising that enterprising qualities can be gained is the starting point. However, this does not come out of the above statement. The emphasis is on informing people about different career options and providing them with some tools to evaluate their decisions. What is more problematic in the above utterance is that enterprise is seen as an alternative route to employment. Through this definition, the Government confines itself to the understanding that enterprise culture is about setting up a new enterprise or supporting an enterprise. This stance does not quite fit with an inclusive definition of an enterprise culture and enterprising qualities as noted by Gibb (1998; 2002) and Chell (2004a):

> 'Being enterprising is about having or developing a set of skills that a person can deploy to achieve a particular end- solve a problem effectively and if possible efficiently. An enterprising person is a useful person to have in any team, company or walk of life. Being enterprising is not about making money per se nor it is necessarily about starting-up a business. Leading a not-for-profit organisation, for example, might require someone with enormous talent, resourcefulness, initiative and drive- a person who is probably admired for their capability which might be summed up as enterprising'. (Chell, 2004a)

Although there is a political consensus as to the significance of entrepreneurship and an acknowledgement of the need to be more focused and to provide a more supportive environment for enterprise and entrepreneurship, the political discourse of the post-1997

emulates an 'over-loaded' notion of 'enterprise'[5]. There are notable differences from that of Thatcherite era in terms of raising 'team-enterprise' (rather than 'individual enterprise' and also promoting 'enterprise education' as an agent of change and development (Chell, 2004b). There is a growing emphasis on founding a new venture and ensuring its sustainability by putting together a team with the appropriate skill sets, marketable opportunity and resources. The team approach is even extended towards wider network of people who benefit from each other by accessing useful information and resources. The current collectively-oriented 'network approach' is favoured by many scholars (Gray, 1985; Atherton, 2004; Chell, 2004b). These changes in understanding also reflect the active and temporal social construction processes involved in shaping the enterprise culture in Britain.

Exploring the shifts and changes in the metaphoric portrayal of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship in the British media in the period 1989 to 2000, Nicholson and Anderson (2005) relate the temporal construction of myth and metaphor to the dynamics of enterprise culture. The authors argue that the 'entrepreneurial metaphors portray the agency-fuelled entrepreneur as creator, seducer, aggressor, charmer or savior' (Nicholson and Anderson, 2005: 168) and these are all influenced by the cultural foundation and dominant ideologies of the time. In their following argument, the authors make a remark as to the social construction of entrepreneurs, entrepreneurship and enterprise culture in the British society in such a powerful way:

> 'Entrepreneurs are described so vividly, so much larger than life in both their heroics and their villainies. These descriptive metaphors bear little resemblance to reality, yet, in spite of this, these are the images portrayed in a respected newspaper. In wondering why the images are so much larger than real, we can only speculate on links to socioeconomic needs. However, the rise of entrepreneurship in the Thatcherite years is now recognised to be a response to economic needs. Perhaps this glorification of the entrepreneur is a social response, the creation and

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[5] Drakopoulou-Dodd and Anderson (2001) make a similar observation and argue that the Blarite enterprise policies are remarkably similar in their ideological underpinning to those of the Thatcherite 1980s. The authors note that the failure of the enterprise culture policies to impact upon the life and work of small firm owner-manager are culturally-based differences. It is not due to substantive differences in the material 'ways of doing' ascribed to enterprise adherents and small firm owner-managers.

> re-creation of the enterprise culture. Similarly, the recognition, by 2000, that entrepreneurs were not the panacea, created the backwash of disapproval'. (Nicholson and Anderson, 2005: 168)

4.3 The role of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

The need to encourage collaboration between universities and the business sector is a discernible part of the Government's policy and prevailing discourse to drive forward a knowledge-based economy (Hartshorn, 2002) and an enterprising society (Carr and Beaver, 2002) in the UK. The role of the university sector in regional and national economic development has been reportedly flourishing (Greenwood and Lewin, 2001; Chell and Allman, 2003). The focus of much policy attention in this area has been on the added value that business and university collaboration will bring to the economy. This focus has been sharpened in the current discourse of knowledge-based economy where knowledge creation and sharing activities are acknowledged as the driver of economic growth and sustainable development (Bayliss, 2001; Harris, 2001).

Building on this, another dimension that has been added to the role of universities is their provision of knowledge generation and transfers through their research, teaching and consultation activities. The 'transfer of knowledge from the university sector to the business community', which is called the 'Third Leg Activity' in the UK, aims to meet the needs of business and the community, contributing to economic and social development both regionally and nationally (HEFCE, 2002). This new role suggests blurring of the traditional boundaries between the university and the business sectors. This new order envisages that academics and business practitioners (end-users and stakeholders) work in a co-generative process of knowledge production with a view to resolve their problems, to generate new business opportunities (Greenwood and Levin, 2001; Morris, 2002) and to bridge the knowing-doing gap, which they encounter (Luna and Velasco, 2003; Van Raaij and Weimer 2003; Nicolaidis and Michalopoulos, 2004).

The Lambert report (2003: 3) heralded the idea that the relationship between the university and business sectors has been transforming 'with many universities casting off their ivory tower image and playing a much more active role in the regional and national economies'. The US higher education institutions experienced this transformation in the early 1980s by broadening their traditional mission of teaching and research to include a more active participation in regional economic development (Mian, 1997; Johnson, 2003). Together with a demand for universities as potentially attractive partners for business, a similar trend has been observed in many other European countries (Mora and Valentin, 2000; Czarniawska and Genell, 2002; Taousanidis 2002; Webster 2003).

Selective outsourcing of research and development activities and furthermore the need for 'enterprise education' have also triggered further collaborative relationships, aligning the instrumental interests of business sector with those of the universities. In the UK, universities have been developing different ways and mechanisms to engage in collaborative activities with businesses. University incubators, technology and innovation centres, science parks and knowledge-transfer partnership schemes can be cited as examples of these developments. In partnership with local and regional agencies as well as businesses, many universities have established science based clusters, technology centres or business incubation and partnership centres across the country. Cambridge Science Park, Oxford Science Park, Imperial College's technology centre, some collaborative efforts of Universities of Bath, Bristol, Surrey and Southampton are noted as the significant examples in the South. Aston Science Park, the initiatives of Warwick University and University of Nottingham to work closely with businesses can be listed among the well-known examples in the Midlands. There exist some notable developments in the North such as the technology centre, business incubation operations or knowledge-transfer partnership schemes of University of Liverpool, Manchester Metropolitan University, University of Manchester and University of Salford. Manchester Science Park, Manchester Bio-incubator and Campus Ventures are further examples in the North.

There are also rapid transformations occurring at a more abstract level. There are significant shifts in sites, processes and relational dynamics of knowledge production and transfer. In this context, additional demands are placed on the business and university sectors as well as the Government agencies to develop their co-generative capacities (Lambert, 2003). The question of 'how' finds some answers in the Lambert Review in the form of a number of recommendations across a wide range of issues. It is not within the scope of this study to review them. However, one recommendation deserves particular attention: The review suggests that the most effective forms of knowledge transfer involve human interaction and puts forward a number of ways to bring together people from businesses and universities. It argues that it is crucial to develop effective ways and methods of social exchange between the two communities. Echoing the Lambert report, the need to work more systematically and productively with community and business practitioners is acknowledged by some scholars across all sectors of the economy including the public, private and non-profit sectors (e.g. Matlay, 2000; Hughey, 2003).

In parallel with the UK Government's pronouncement of bringing universities and businesses together and establishing a strong enterprise culture by embedding enterprise education throughout the universities, the lifelong learning agenda has recognised the need for individuals to engage throughout their lives in a personal process of learning and retraining. Hartshorn (2002) establishes a link between the lifelong learning initiative and the enterprise culture by emphasising the acknowledgement that career choices for graduates and others with higher level skills and knowledge have not traditionally included business creation and growth. She marks the need for increased motivation and movement of knowledgeable and highly skilled people into business ownership in order to achieve the societal and economic aspirations set by the Government. In addition to the increasing demand for generic, transferable skills (enterprising qualities), there is a recognised need for designing programmes customised to the varying needs of potential entrepreneurs. This entails a change in understanding as to what is taught in the business schools and also how it is taught. Linked with the 'collectively-oriented approach' and

yet 'team entrepreneurship', educational policies and practice should address the issue of going beyond limited management skills training courses.

The enterprise education agenda needs to be critically examined. The question of 'can entrepreneurship be taught', which is often raised, is related to the enigmatic nature of entrepreneurship (Jack and Anderson, 1999). The 'entrepreneurs are born' thesis can no longer be maintained (Gartner, 1988; Gray, 1998; Chell, 2004b). Entrepreneurship can be 'taught' by carefully designing programmes that are underpinned by the notion of entrepreneurship as a process, which involves both art and science. As maintained by Jack and Anderson (1999), graduating enterprise students should be innovative and creative to satisfy the need for entrepreneurial novelty, which is the 'art' part. They also need to develop skill sets to be competent and multifunctional managers, which corresponds to the 'science' part. In enterprise education this becomes a question of how to nurture the cultural and behavioural changes that are needed for this development of the 'enterprising manager', represented as entrepreneurs (Hjort, 2003b: 74). Therefore, the intended outcome of the educational processes is 'reflective practitioners' who are equipped with knowledge and skills in order to fit for an entrepreneurial career. The enterprise educators, who form a significant component of the educational processes, are required to be trained accordingly in order to operate effective enterprise education programmes (Hytti and O'Gorman, 2004).

Linked with the need to develop enterprise policies that reflect the actual experiences of entrepreneurs as discussed in the previous section, there is a need to move away from the conventional focus of entrepreneurship education on new venture management, business plans and growth and innovation, to a broader understanding of the way entrepreneurs live and learn (Gibb, 2002b: 135). The challenges are numerous as noted by Gibb (2002b): First, how can we create 'the way of life' of the entrepreneur. This entails bringing in practitioner knowledge and insight to the programmes. Second is about the recognition -and questioning in fact- of the values and beliefs underpinning what is taught and how it is taught (methods of education) to create a conducive environment for entrepreneurial learning. Connected with this is the third challenge, which is the

pedagogical issues to develop behaviours, skills and attributes. A careful appraisal and use of the wide range of available pedagogical approaches is essential. Fourth is the challenge associated with the recognition that learning does not take place solely in an 'instructional' context. The key issue is to create an environment in which participants can learn to learn in the way that will be demanded of them in entrepreneurial circumstances. This includes managing their time, tasks and relationships with lecturers, mentors and fellow students effectively so that they can cope with more complex tasks and relationships with various stakeholders (i.e. financiers, customers, suppliers, competitors and employees). How more tailored entrepreneurship education and support programmes such as 'university incubators' address these issues and what kind of a context they create for nascent entrepreneurs are the concerns of next section.

4.3.1 University incubators

The incubators are viewed as one of the means to fulfil the Government's above-cited objectives of linking universities more closely with the business community. The notion of incubation is usually associated with business support and advice activities that aim to foster the creation and development of enterprises- SMEs or corporate ventures in the large established organisations. As provided by Barrow (2001), an incubator offers a full array of business assistance services tailored to the client companies; it has an incubator manager on site who co-ordinates staff and outside professionals to deliver those services. Although there is such a common understanding of the concept, subtle differences exist in its application (Albert and Gaynor, 2001). The most comprehensive study, which analyses the existing literature on incubators and incubation, is the one conducted by Albert and Gaynor (2001). Covering a wide range of studies, they argue that the literature on incubators can be broken down into descriptive, prescriptive or evaluative research. Expanded from the work of Albert and Gaynor (2001), Table 4.1 provides a chronological review of the definitions of incubation and incubators.

Table 4. 1 Historical development of the concept of incubation / incubator

Author (s)	Definition of incubation / incubator
Albert (1986)	An enterprise incubator is a collective and temporary place for accommodating companies which offer space, assistance and services suited to the needs of companies being launched or recently founded.
Smilor and Gill (1986)	A technology incubating program is an innovative system designed to assist entrepreneurs in the development of new technology-based firms, both start-ups and fledglings.
Allen and Bazan (1990)	An incubator is a network or organisation providing skills, knowledge and motivation, real estate experience, provision of business and shared services.
Allen and McCluskey (1990)	An incubator is a facility that provides affordable space, shared office services and business development assistance in an environment conducive to new venture creation, survival and early stage growth.
Duff (1994)	A business incubator offers arrange of business development services and access to small space on flexible terms to meet the needs of new firms.
Enterprise Panel (1996)	An incubator is a property with small units which provides an instructive and supportive environment to investors and entrepreneurs at start-up and during the early stages of businesses.
Tornatzky et al. (1996)	A technology business incubator give the investor/ entrepreneur the place and time to develop the product, as well as access to skills and tools needed to create a successful business.
Kumar and Kumar (1997)	The process of incubation refers to a set of activities designed to facilitate new firm formation via entrepreneurship and technology transfer.
Albert and Gaynor (2001)	Incubators, created by either private or public bodies, are support mechanisms for enterprise creation, with varying objectives: local and economic development, rejuvenation of deprived areas, creation of employment, technology transfer and support for minority groups.
Totterman and Sten (2005)	A business incubator is a framework that supports new potential companies in their development process by giving them credibility, but also by helping them to build promising support and business networks.

While it has already been acknowledged that there are different views as to what constitutes incubation or incubator, it is nevertheless possible to identify some core ideas, which characterise the notion of incubator in the recent years. The historical analysis of the concept illustrates the shift in the emphasis from the physical facilities to the business development process, which is linked to the notion of equipping the entrepreneurs or the entrepreneurial teams with business knowledge and helping them to get access to the relevant people, information and other sources, with an ultimate objective of contributing to an enterprise culture.

The concept of 'incubator' goes beyond the simple provision of a shared office or workspace facility. The focus is on the added value that it brings to nascent entrepreneurs in terms of strengthened business skills, access to business services, improved operating environment and opportunities for business networking. University incubators or even universities themselves as 'incubators without walls' (Lockett, Vohora and Wright, 2002) are increasingly envisaged as the centres of innovation and business creation and growth. Aligning with the notion of knowledge and people being the most important assets in the current knowledge-based economy, some of the inputs such as human (i.e. the capable incubation team), physical (i.e. office spaces or labs) and social (i.e. relationships and networks) need to be supplied into the process of new venture creation (Lockett, et al., 2002). One of the benefits of this approach is to establish a life-long link between universities and small businesses, which echoes the Government's policy to make academia and business community work collaboratively (Karataş-Özkan, Murphy and Rae, 2005).

In the UK, incubation development is rooted in Government policy to establish an infrastructure of support for small firms and new venture creation. Specific policy measures and organisations such as Business Link and Small Business Service (SBS) have been developed at the government level in order to promote and support entrepreneurship development. Kirby (2002) groups them as the measures targeted at raising awareness, facilitating entry and facilitating growth. Hannon, Atherton and Chaplin (2002) argue that the Labour governments have demonstrated commitment by

putting emphasis on incubators in terms of a) their potential for job and wealth creation and b) their role in enhancing and accelerating new firm growth and the transfer of knowledge from the university sector. DTI initiatives such as University Challenge Initiative, Science Enterprise Challenge and also Higher Education Innovation Fund (HEIF) have reinforced this view of the role of incubators in general and that of supporting universities to engage in entrepreneurial activities in terms of seeking opportunities for new venture start-ups, spin-outs and supporting corporate ventures in particular (Hague and Oakley, 2000).

Given this discourse, the development of the incubation industry is relatively recent in the UK. According to Kirby (2002), although the managed workspace movement dates back from the 1970s, the first incubators did not begin to appear until the 1980s. In 1996, the Enterprise Panel identified just 25 incubators (Enterprise Panel, 1996). Reflecting the rapidly growing incubation industry in the UK, UK Business Incubation's (UKBI) latest research has identified more than 200 incubators (UKBI, 2002).

To note some of the characteristics of this thriving UK incubation industry, the key findings of the Annual Business Incubation Survey (UKBI, 2002) conducted by the representative body for the incubation industry, UK Business Incubation (UKBI), can be outlined as follows: Nearly all incubators (91%) offer some form of physical "with walls" environment for their clients, although virtual incubators also have an important role within the industry. A significant minority (9%) operate solely with a virtual environment, with a further 31% supplying a combination of the two. Another crucial finding of the survey is the range of funding sources to establish and maintain the incubator. It is noted that once established the proportions relying on EU funding (21%), UK government funding (14%) and local authority funding (23%) decrease and the tenant rents and other income generated from the services offered become the two main generators of funds. Financial engagement by incubators with their client businesses is another interesting aspect explored in the survey. It has been found that taking an equity stake is the most common way of strengthening the financial basis of clients and

potentially of getting a significant return. The university incubators appear to be more likely to take an equity stake (61% compared to 32% overall).

4.4 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter, I have reviewed the policy context in the UK in relation to the enterprise culture by examining the underlying philosophies and assumptions from a historical perspective. The ambiguity in the use of the term 'enterprise' is noted in order to illustrate how policy makers construct their realities and interventions to serve the needs of a particular era. While I criticise this equivocal use in terms of lack of focus and outcome-driven conceptualisations of enterprise culture, I have tried to reconcile different approaches in order to show the instrumentality of the enterprise culture impacting on economy, on society and our lives as entrepreneurship scholars and educators.

The role of higher education institutions is highlighted by drawing attention to the overall policy context and evidence base in linking academia and business community. In parallel with the development of enterprise education agenda and that of Science Enterprise Centres (SECs), university incubators are fertile arena for discussing and understanding entrepreneurial contexts in which nascent entrepreneurs can develop themselves. The following chapter will review academic discourses on entrepreneurship

Chapter Five: Academic Discourses on Entrepreneurship

> 'What is identified as entrepreneurship depends on what is described as entrepreneurship, which, in turn, depends on what people do as they perform entrepreneurship, or the other way around. Different people like start in different ends - practice or concepts – as they approach what is entrepreneurship' (Steyaert and Hjort, 2003: 11).

5.1 Introduction to the chapter

According to Steyaert and Hjort (2003: 5), 'there are 'many entrepreneurships' in terms of focus, definitions, scope and paradigms. Multiplying entrepreneurship is not an end goal but rather a starting point to work from'. Joining their view, this chapter seeks to map out several perspectives to entrepreneurship with the aim of scoping the current research. The studies included in this review depart from different paradigmatic and therefore methodological standpoints. The examination of entrepreneurship literature from paradigmatic perspectives was previously undertaken by Pittaway (2000, 2003, 2005) and Grant and Perren (2002). Their findings suggest the existence of hegemony of functionalism in entrepreneurship research despite a growing recognition and encouragement to study entrepreneurship from alternative -mainly interpretivist- perspectives. The power of alternative paradigms and also inter-disciplinary approaches to contribute to knowledge and understanding of entrepreneurship is well-acknowledged (Grant and Perren, 2002; Steyaert, 2004; Jennings, Perren and Carter, 2004). Besides the multi-paradigmatic and multi-disciplinary requests, Steyaert and Katz (2004: 181) put forward a third call and suggest that entrepreneurship should be studied as a societal phenomenon rather than purely as an economic reality with a view to generate practical knowledge.

The entrepreneurship research is influenced considerably by Joseph Schumpeter. He provided an economic perspective by discussing the individual as entrepreneur driven by the desire to create and face resistance, who created new resources (or combinations of existing ones) in order to break an old equilibrium (Schumpeter, 1934) and make others adjust to the new established one in the economy (Hjort, 2003b: 50). It is 'creative destruction'- the destruction of the old and the creation of a new economic and social

'space' (Steyaert, 2005). In essence this perspective did not lend itself to purely 'economic' rationalisation of entrepreneurship but conceived entrepreneurship as a social phenomenon. Recently Goss (2005) explores the sociological implications of Schumpeter's insights by offering an interactionist reading of Schumpeter that dissolves the duality of structure and agency, and develops a theory of entrepreneurial action where social interaction and emotions are key variables. Rather than defining an entrepreneur as an 'heroic economic superman' who possesses qualities of 'rationality and 'self-centredness' (Schumpeter, 1934: 85) and entrepreneurial process as a systemic function, one should view entrepreneurship as a form of social action whereby entrepreneurs are social agents that learn by doing and develop their entrepreneurial identities in interaction with others in a socio-economic context. Entrepreneurial activities are embedded within social practices. For example, entrepreneurs 'draw others in' (i.e. competitors, financiers etc.) to a new sector (Schumpeter, 1934: 89), creating the momentum necessary for 'new combinations' to become embedded within social practices (Goss, 2005: 215).

The academic discourses on entrepreneurship are moving as we develop ourselves as researchers and widen our understandings and conceptions of entrepreneurship. In this chapter a variety of perspectives have been reviewed in conjunction with the research questions and paradigmatic position taken in the current research. They have been grouped under 'processual', 'relational' and 'process-relational' perspectives. These should not be viewed as mutually exclusive categories. It is not intended to create artificial boundaries in evaluating previous studies. The intention is to map out and extend current boundaries of thinking concerning entrepreneurship, thereby synthesizing and developing existing studies into a coherent and integrative framework. It illustrates a developmental approach, which indicates a natural progression from processual approaches to process-relational approaches with a sharpened view pertaining to the socially constructed nature of entrepreneurship. The chapter is structured around these three approaches and concludes with a summary and the position I adopt in this study: I have chosen to take a process-relational perspective in this research, which is usually underpinned by social constructionist ideas and characterised by combining the processual view of 'organisational emergence' with 'relational' dimensions of business

venturing. This choice aligns with the research questions and the overall paradigmatic approach applied in the research as discussed in Part Two.

5.2 Processual approaches to the study of entrepreneurship

Since the mid 1980s, there has been a shift towards more dynamic and processual accounts of entrepreneurship. (e.g. Chell; 1985; Gartner, 1985, 1988, 1990; Olson, 1985; Low and MacMillan, 1988; Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990; Bygrave and Hofer, 1991; Bhave, 1994; Bruyart and Julien, 2000; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Jack and Anderson, 2002; Neergard, 2003; Downing, 2005; Goss, 2005). Approaching entrepreneurial behaviour or process from a variety of angles, these studies centre around the functions and activities associated with perceiving opportunities and creating ventures to pursue them.

One popular conceptualisation of entrepreneurship is Stevenson and Jarillo's (1990), which takes an opportunity centred perspective. Stevenson and Jarillo (1990: 23) define entrepreneurship as a process by which individuals –either on their own or inside organisations- pursue opportunities without regard to the resources they currently control. Similarly, Bygrave and Hofer's (1991) definition includes all functions, activities and actions associated with perceiving opportunities and creation of organisations to exploit them. Recounting the idea of emergence of a new venture creation as the essence of entrepreneurial process, Bygrave (1993: 257) suggests that it is the 'entrepreneurial event' which should be the focal point in researching entrepreneurship and he acknowledges its human and emerging attributes: 'It is initiated by an act of human volition, it is on the level of the individual firm, it is a change of state, it is a discontinuity, it is a holistic and dynamic process'. However, Chell (1985; 1997; 1998) takes the view that it is the identification and pursuit of opportunities for capital accumulation and growth, which can occur at any point in the life cycle of the business. Therefore, she has focused on the economic outcomes of an ongoing process, which is beyond 'business founding'. In a more recent study Chell (2004b: 2) offers a more encompassing approach and defines entrepreneurship as 'the relentless pursuit of

opportunity without regard to alienable resources currently controlled with a view to the creation of social and economic value'. The significance of this definition in this context is two-fold: First, entrepreneurial process is about economic as well as social value creation. Second, it is an emergent and ongoing process that entails constructing business opportunities constantly and managing the process of growth relentlessly. In a slightly different way, Cope and Watts (2000) argue that the rich and complex process by which entrepreneurs learn to negotiate the management of a growing small business is de-emphasised in the literature. Aligning with Merz, Weber and Laetz (1994) stance, they maintain that a firm's growth or expansion through constant recognition of business opportunities is a valid indicator of the continuing process of entrepreneurship within firms well beyond the initial founding event (Cope and Watts, 2000: 115).

Locating entrepreneurial processes in a contextual framework, some scholars (Chell, 1985; Gartner, 1985, 1990; Bird, 1989; Gartner et al, 1992) recognised that they occur within a larger context- a framework of events, circumstances, situations, settings and niches. Entrepreneurs interpret these situations and co-ordinate their actions. These co-ordinations are historically and socially located, reproduced in certain relational processes and not others. Hence, the academic discourse starts to give voice to the relational qualities of the entrepreneurial process in addition to its processual characteristics.

5.3 Relational approaches to the study of entrepreneurship

The relational perspectives on entrepreneurship are mainly portrayed by studies on networking. Networking has been described as a social construction process that is characterised by the individuals' creation and use of relationships (Johannisson, 1995). According to Dubini and Aldrich (1991: 305), entrepreneurship is inherently a networking activity because a crucial part of the process that is mobilising resources to pursue opportunities requires entrepreneurial contacts, knowledge and confidence. To expand on this, Chell and Baines (2000: 196) state that networking comprises social processes over and above the normal economic trading relationship. The central idea is

that entrepreneurs try to set up an elaborate web of relationships over the firm life span (Jarillo, 1989) in a variety of forms. Approaching to entrepreneurial networks as interacting persons, Johannisson (1995, 1998, 2002) stresses that continuous entrepreneurship requires perpetual venturing as opportunities arise, which supports the above ideas that entrepreneurship and networking are strongly linked and remain significant over the venturing process.

Using the idea of 'embeddedness' to explain how networking contributes to economic and social activity, its organising and its outcomes, Johannisson, Ramirez-Pasillas and Karlsson (2002: 298) argue that networks constitute forms of 'voluntary co-operation that involve information sharing and/or mutual learning and exchange between their members as well as social control'. The 'social control' dimension of networking has been taken up by Varamaki and Vesalainen's (2003) study where they underline the significance of planning, promoting or building up co-operative arrangements as a device of generating and controlling future arrangements. As will be presented in Chapter 11, one of the case studies relates to this as the key members of the venture team are steering a sectoral networking activity in the region. It is seen as a reflection of the concern as to taking ownership of the newly created set of relationships and shaping and reshaping the future ones.

Elaborating on the notion of social embeddedness, Jack and Anderson's (2002) work can be cited as one of the distinguishing examples of relational perspectives on entrepreneurship. It uses Gidden's (1984) structuration theory to explore the link between the entrepreneur as agent and the social context as structure in the creation and operation of their businesses. The idea is that entrepreneurial actions do not occur in a vacuum but are conditioned by ongoing structures of social relations (Johannisson, 1990; Johannisson and Monsted, 1997; Bygrave and Minniti, 2000). Aldrich and Zimmer (1986) also take this view by suggesting that entrepreneurship is embedded in a social context, channelled and facilitated or constrained and inhibited by the people's position in a social network (Jack and Anderson, 2002: 469).

With an emphasis on the wider social setting within which entrepreneurship emerges, exist and evolves, Zafirovski (1999) offers a multi-level sociological approach. Such a setting comprises contextual networks (Johannisson, Alexanderson and Semeseth, 1994), personal and entrepreneurial (Johannission, 1995; 1998) networks, as well as macro-social structure and culture. Zafirovski (1999: 354) illuminates in a powerful way:

> 'A key assumption of the sociology of enterprise is that entrepreneurship, development and related economic activities are primarily complex social processes, and only secondarily physical, technological or psychological ones. They cannot be treated as independent and imputed with an intrinsic law of their own because they are embedded in the social framework. From the sociological perspective, rather than a logic of the state of nature, technological production, chemical laboratory, or psychological impulses, there is an underlying logic of social processes, relations and changes- the logic of social structure and culture conducive to 'humanistic entrepreneurship' as opposed to undersocialized economic animals or robots'.

This view shifts the focal point from entrepreneurship as actions of elitist group of entrepreneurs to the everyday processes of new organisation formation where multiple actors and stakeholders are made researchable and we can tell stories of entrepreneurship and learn from them and furthermore pass these experiences to our students who are potential or nascent entrepreneurs. Exploring these stories entails moving away from the dominant functionalist economic discourse towards opening up for alternative perspectives to conceive entrepreneurship.

5.4 Process-relational approaches to the study of entrepreneurship

A processual way of looking at entrepreneurship requires the examination of emerging characteristics and features of the entrepreneurial process. From processual perspectives, the dynamic process through which business opportunities are realized becomes the central focus of entrepreneurship studies (Fletcher, 2003). Relational approaches highlight the human relationships involved in the process. Entrepreneurial activities are realized and constructed through social processes. It builds on Schumpeterian (1934) notion of contributing to economic change through new combinations of products or processes, entrepreneurs bring about new ideas, products, processes by working in

relation to a team, small community or network of people (Johannisson, 1990; Fletcher, 1997, 2003). Thus, process relational perspectives on entrepreneurship combine the processual view of 'emergence' with 'relational' dimension in order to generate deeper insights. The relational part is in essence about relating to each other through language, narrative, discourse as well as enactment.

Process-relational approaches are relatively established in organisation studies (Weick, 1979; Hosking and Morley, 1991; Czarniawska, 1997, 1998; Hosking and Ramsey, 2000; Watson, 2003). Underpinned by the social constructionist assumptions (K. J. Gergen, 1985), Watson (2003: 1306) suggests that a process-relational approach to study organisations has been grounded in the belief that processes of social construction create 'the organisation' involving multiplicity of goals, interests and understandings within the 'quasi' or 'virtual' entity. This is linked to the strategic exchange perspective developed by Watson (1994a) drawing on an ethnographic work. Returning to Jack and Anderson's (2002) work on social embeddedness of entrepreneurship, the focus is on the strategic and reflexive nature of social relationships. The need for such a process-relational approach also stems from the perceived limitations of the functionalist and structuralist (Giddens, 1984) approaches in explaining entrepreneurship. Building on Watson's (1994a: 27) interpretation of Giddens, an entrepreneur's initiative (agency) is not simply constrained by the circumstances in which it occurs (structure); it may equally be enabled. Therefore, the circumstances in which entrepreneurs find themselves shape their thinking and acting and also entrepreneurs shape those circumstances. They engage with each other through a number of networking activities, which they influence and are influenced by. These activities are driven by economic motives of wealth creation, which will be defined as economic becoming throughout the thesis. Another step forward is Goss's (2005) recent offer of a different reading of Schumpeter's ideas as introduced in section 5.1. His perspective does justice to such a process-relational approach by integrating 'social interaction' and 'emotions' into the picture. He argues that 'as long as human beings engage one another socially and experience the emotions thereby produced, there will be scope for entrepreneurial action' (Goss, 2005: 216).

The translation of these ideas to entrepreneurship studies is recent. At the European Academy of Management (EURAM) conference Fletcher and Tansley (2003) presented a variety of social constructionist approaches permeating entrepreneurship literature over the last ten years and argued that researchers approaching their entrepreneurial research with a constructionist orientation should be receptive to concerns about the inter-relationship between process, context, language, discourse and interaction in shaping entrepreneurial outcomes. Their process-relational stance enables them to conclude that individuals relationally enact entrepreneurial practices in different contexts in ways that facilitate entrepreneurial becoming. At the same conference, Fletcher and Watson (2003: 1) defined entrepreneurship as 'a distinctive approach to making a living in which people with ideas for a product or service create, develop and realise those ideas as part of their social becoming'. In order to emphasise its relational and processual qualities, they describe how they 'make and remake themselves' as they engage, imaginatively and creatively through economic exchange with the people who are willing to make or remake themselves (Fletcher and Watson, 2003: 3). Aligning with Steyaert's (2003) recent definition of the entrepreneurial process as a creation of a living world with economic outcomes, Fletcher and Watson's (2003) perspective takes account of how people work together to bring about economic change through new combinations of technological products or processes. Hence, the attention is drawn to how groups of people collectively organise themselves in venture communities, partnerships and act together by coming to acknowledge and realise their creative ideas as a part of this process of creation of a living world during which they are constantly evaluating information, talking through different scenarios, bringing to their interaction previous understandings, experiences and history of relationships (Fletcher and Watson, 2003).

According with Cope and Watts (2000) as noted above, this understanding takes the discussion beyond the founding event as the centre of entrepreneurship and highlights that it is a continual process which is always in movement and coming ever afresh into existence (Steyaert, 1998). Therefore, people may enact entrepreneurial practices at any stage of the lifespan of the venture as they develop themselves relationally and identify

new entrepreneurial possibilities by negotiating and conversing about the new business ideas.

Using the 'theatricality' as a conceptual tool to understand the entrepreneurial process, Anderson (2003) highlights the process of creating that is not fixed in time or space but draws on one's earlier experiences in life and reflects a transformation which is about enacting a future:

> 'Of course when we talk of entrepreneurship we usually mean the process of becoming, thinking, planning, conspiring, doing the things which may lead to entrepreneurship. In consequence it seems fair to say that entrepreneurship, as we use the term, is this process of becoming. But becoming is not fixed in time or space; the aspiration may have germinated in childhood; the idea may have resulted from fleeting thought and gathering the physical, mental resources and courage may have taken half lifetime. To appreciate entrepreneurship we need to appreciate it as processual, as a process of becoming. So entrepreneurship as a process of becoming is transitive, transitory and ephemeral. It fits in the spaces between the here and then and reflects a transformation' (Anderson, 2003: 7).

The 'creativity' quality linked to the transformative nature of the entrepreneurial process is strongly advocated in some entrepreneurship writings (Hjort, Johansson, Svengren, 2004; Steyaert, 1998; Hjort, 2003a, 2003b; Steayert and Hjort, 2003). Steyaert (1998: 22) reinforced the need to engage in studies that approach entrepreneurship as a creative process in which it is accepted that 'entrepreneurs are creators of new realities walking on the boundary between destabilising existing situations and actualising implicit possibilities into new contexts'. This accords with Johannisson (2002: 5) who argued that entrepreneurship is concerned with the 'creative envisioning of that which does not yet exist'. Furthermore, Johannisson (2002) comments that entrepreneurial venturing is reflected in the multiple social constructions where individual and collective forces interplay creatively to enact a future. The furtherance of the discussion is provided by Hjort et al. (2004) who refuse to see entrepreneurship as regulating ideal, a product of enterprising behaviour. They argue that creativity, play, and art are already there, at and in work. 'Creativity' dimension of entrepreneurship is the one that changes our everyday practices (Spinosa, Flores and Dreyfus, 1997) and it entails a boundary spanning activity.

The research conducted by Bouwen and Steyaert (1990) on the process of creating an entrepreneurial firm is another illuminating example to process-relational studies to entrepreneurship. Using the metaphor of 'texture' their conceptualisation of entrepreneurship is powerful one:

> 'The creation of a new organisation can be conceived as creating organisational 'texture'. The metaphor emphasises the simultaneity of processes and outcomes. The entrepreneur, in interaction with his immediate co-workers, weaves the 'weft' and 'warp' into a particular organisational texture. The social network and the task are interwoven continuously. Our interest in organising, that is, the making of organisation...organisation is not a 'given' social reality. Rather, there is a lot of 'dialoguing' among the parties, steered to some extent by the motivation and competences of the entrepreneur' (Bouwen and Steyart, 1992: 638).

Their research is based on a fieldwork undertaken in six start-ups and six older firms over a series of months. Considering the entrepreneur as the main actor, they pay particular attention to his own entrepreneurial motivation to start his own business and his basic competences that contributed to the organisation. They studied how his personal motivation was to some degree transferred to the other co-workers and they call this process of sharing "organisational motivation". The entrepreneur's original competences are configured as the organisation's task domain that was conceptualised as the "genetic pool" of the organisation since this was the first pool of assets around which the task domain (products and markets) developed (Bouwen and Steyaert, 1990: 639). The dominant logic reflected the entrepreneurs and other co-workers' conceptualisation of the business and critical resource allocation decisions and this has evolved during the process of creating the organisation as new and complementary logics emerged. They call this "dialogue process" as the core business organisation is formed through the processes of the development of social networks, the development of a task domain and the dialoguing between these issues (Bouwen and Steyaert, 1990: 640). Studying these dialoguing processes around networking and task creation in a firm, they make few remarks about learning as another quality of the process so-called 'organisational dialogue'. They do not elaborate on this quality in their article; however, they come to a conclusion that they offer an approach of organising so that entrepreneurs and their co-workers can ask

themselves a set of questions to deepen their understanding of their own behaviour and organisational processes, which is a part of their entrepreneurial becoming.

Providing a social constructionist framework, Downing (2005) elaborates on the narrative processes in the co-production of organizations and identities. As discussed in Chapter Two, processes of social construction reflect the narrative dramatic means by which actors coordinate actions, projects and identities. Entrepreneurship should be understood by examining the ways in which entrepreneurs interact with their stakeholders to form, sustain and enhance new organizations and they apply such concepts of 'innovation', 'risk taking' and 'creativity' to the social process of 'new world making' (Czarniawska and Wolff, 1991; Downing, 2005: 196). Downing's (2005) article provides a framework called 'SENSE framework'. SENSE stands for Storylines, Emplotment, Narrative Structuring Enactment. It illustrates linkages between how one group of actors might select events or actions from storylines, how these enable actors to tacitly locate a plot, and how they then become elaborated in narrative structure. The SENSE framework has not been developed from an empirical research and this is manifest in its descriptive nature. One should be critical in evaluating such social constructionist perspectives to entrepreneurship unless they explain how these social construction processes occur among entrepreneurs and stakeholders by drawing on real-life examples. However, the framework, once again, highlights significant issues pertaining to social constructionist nature of entrepreneurial process and can be applied in further studies.

The central argument of this section is that entrepreneurship is a social process whereby individuals create a new venture to actualise their ideas for a product, service or process by pursuing business opportunities in order to create wealth. What are the salient characteristics of this process? Do multiple actors exist in multiple settings with their multiple constructions of situations? We need to seek answers to such questions. The way we research, write and teach entrepreneurship should be based on such conceptualisations of entrepreneurship based on examination of the real world of nascent entrepreneurs so that creating a new venture, which is the 'art' side of it, can be learnt while skill sets and foundation for entrepreneurial managing can be developed by focusing on the 'science'

part without 'interfering' the crafting process. One needs to consider the underlying motivations for entrepreneurial endeavours. The intrinsic motivation of entrepreneurs is not only wealth creation but also the need to position themselves as 'creators' and 'owners'. This requires the acknowledgement of human willpower and belief for personal and social change, which can also be viewed as an existential challenge.

5.5 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter I have presented a discussion on academic discourses of entrepreneurship pertaining to the nature of the current research. The overall aim has been to relate to the previous movements of the discipline and locate this research as a part of these movements. It is also intended to create a platform for debate in the analysis of case studies by reengaging with the arguments put forward in this section.

In line with the first research question, which seeks to generate insights into the nature of the business venturing process, the entrepreneurship literature has been charted along three approaches: processual, relational and process-relational. A processual way of looking at entrepreneurship requires the examination of emerging characteristics and features of the entrepreneurial venturing process. From processual perspectives, the dynamic process through which business opportunities are realized becomes the central focus of entrepreneurship studies. Relational perspectives point out the human relationships involved in the process. Process-relational perspectives take it one step further and refine the notion of entrepreneurship by combining the processual view of 'emergence' with 'relational' dimension in order to generate deeper insights. The relational part is in essence about relating to each other through language, narrative, discourse as well as enactment. Embedded in the social constructionist approach a process-relational perspective is taken in this research. It proposes the view that entrepreneurship is a social process whereby individuals create a new venture to actualise their ideas for a product, service or process by pursuing business opportunities relentlessly in order to create wealth as a part of their personal, social, economic becoming and transformation. It is crucial to understand the transformative nature of the

process by looking into the learning experiences of nascent entrepreneurs. To this end, the next chapter is devoted to addressing the following questions by drawing on the literature: Who are nascent entrepreneurs? How are they different than entrepreneurs? How does their venturing experience converge with and diverge from 'business venturing' as discussed so far? How do nascent entrepreneurs learn and manage while engaged in business venturing?

Chapter Six: Nascent Entrepreneurs

Entrepreneurial Learning and Managing

6.1 Introduction to the chapter

There has been a dearth of research investigating the processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurial learning is an emerging domain within the discipline of entrepreneurship and it has recently attracted considerable attention. Drawn from a number of epistemological perspectives, these studies largely examine entrepreneurial learning at the individual entrepreneur level (e.g. Young and Sexton, 1997; Cope and Watts, 2000; Rae and Carswell, 2000; Honig, 2001; Minniti and Bygrave, 2001; Rae, 2002, 2004a, 2004b; Cope, 2005) or at the small firm level (e.g. Deakins and Freel, 1998, Penn, Angwa, Forster et al., 1998, Anderson and Skinner, 1999; Chaston, Badger and Sadler-Smith, 1999a, 1999b). The learning experience of entrepreneurial teams has received little attention despite the literature on the characteristics or formation of entrepreneurial teams or venture teams (e.g. Stewart, 1989; Kamm, Shuman, Seeger and Nurick, 1990; Birley and Stockley,2000; Vyakarnam, Jacobs and Hadelberg, 1999; Ucbasaran, Westhead, Wright et al., 2001).

This study takes this gap in our knowledge as the starting point and intends to move the discussion further by undertaking a multi-layered examination of nascent entrepreneurs' learning and managing. The layers include three levels of analysis: a) micro-level analysis, which includes scrutinizing nascent entrepreneurs' individual experiences by examining their motivation, dispositions and capitals, in Bourdieu's sense, such as cultural and social capital, that they draw on and capitals that they want to attain in life, such as economic capital, b) meso-relational level analysis, which refers to the analysis of relational experiences of entrepreneurial learning and managing by looking into the teams or 'venture communities' that they form as a part of their entrepreneurial becoming, and c) macro-level analysis, which denotes an examination of how the 'field' of enterprise culture -with its associated policies, intervention and support programmes and the institutions- impact on their development of entrepreneurial learning and managing.

This chapter seeks to address the following questions: What are the salient characteristics of nascent entrepreneurs? How does their entrepreneurial learning and managing develop? How is this different than 'learning' and 'managing' as an employee in an organisational context? To this end, the chapter is structured in four sections: First, a conceptualisation of 'nascent entrepreneurs' is made. Second, the pertinent literature on entrepreneurial learning and managing is presented. Third, learning and managing are discussed as interconnected processes with reference to organisational learning and communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) literatures.

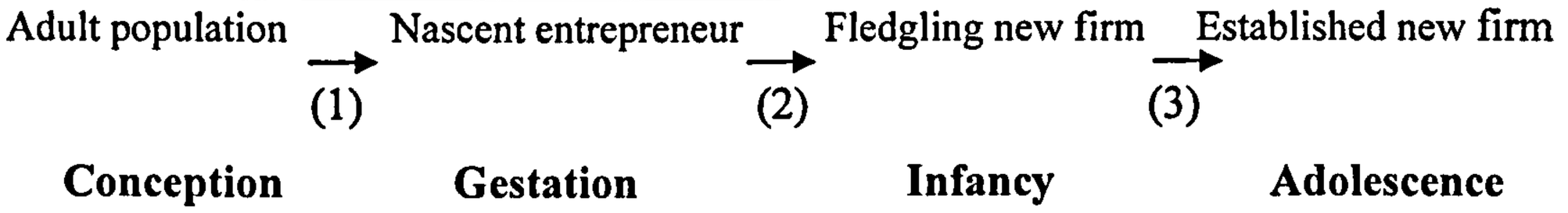
6.2. Nascent entrepreneurs

There is a well-established literature that recognizes there are different 'types' of entrepreneurs and 'types' of owner managers (Chell, Haworth and Brearly, 1991; Allinson, Chell and Hayes, 2000; Chell, 2000; Pittaway, 2000; Malach-Pines, Sadeh, Dvir et al., 2002). However, there are very few studies that differentiates entrepreneurs on the basis of being at different stages of business venturing or engaging in different forms of venturing (e.g. Chell et al., 1991; Wright, Robbie and Ennew, 1995; Westhead and Wright, 1998; Ucbasaran, Wright and Westhead, 2003). Addressing this gap, Westhead and Wright (1998) examined the differences between novice, serial, habitual and portfolio entrepreneurs. The authors define nascent entrepreneurs as those who are in the process of beginning their entrepreneurial venture with the potential and capacity to become successful entrepreneurs. Hence they have very limited experience or practical understanding of the concepts and processes involved.

In Delmar and Davidsson's (2000) work, an individual is considered to be 'a nascent entrepreneur if he or she had completed at least one business gestation activity by the time of the interview'. This is a rather limited approach that appears to have worked for their study, the purpose of which is to examine the characteristics of nascent entrepreneurs and compare for sub-groups within the sample of 405 Swedish nascent entrepreneurs. In conjunction with the research objectives and paradigmatic assumptions

taken in this research, the emphasis is more on the stages of the entrepreneurial process and activities involved. Taking the conceptualisation back to activities, Aldrich (1999: 77) defines a nascent entrepreneur as '*someone who initiates serious activities that are intended to culminate in a viable business start-up*'. Networking, resource mobilisation and entrepreneurial enactment constitute those 'serious activities' (Reynolds, 1994 cited in Aldrich, 1999) throughout the process of nascent entrepreneurship. The stages of nascent entrepreneurship are outlined by Reynolds (1994 in Aldrich, 1999) as involving three transitions and four periods which is illustrated in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 Stages of nascent entrepreneurship



Source: Adapted from Reynolds (1994 cited in Aldrich, 1999: 78).

Transition 1 is instigated when someone starts thinking about setting up a new business and actually engages in entrepreneurial activities to pursue this objective (Aldrich, 1999). If they do so on their own and if the new venture can be considered as an independent start-up, they are called 'nascent entrepreneurs' (Wagner, 2004). If they are sponsored by an existing business, they are described as 'nascent corporate entrepreneurs'. The second transition takes place when the gestation process is complete and when the new venture begins to operate as a business. The third transition refers to the passage from infancy to adolescence, that is to say, the fledgling new firms successfully shifts to an established firm (Reynolds and White, 1997; Wagner, 2004).

According to Reynolds' (1994 cited in Aldrich, 1999: 77) conceptualisation, someone is called a nascent entrepreneur if they not only say they are currently giving serious thought to start a new business but also are engaged in at least one of seventeen possible entrepreneurial activities as listed in Table 6.1 below:

Table 6.1 Entrepreneurial activities undertaken by nascent entrepreneurs

Activity
1.Serious thoughts about business
2.Looked for facilities/equipment
3.Initiated savings to invest
4.Invested own money in the new firm
5.Organized start-up term
6.Wrote business plan
7.Bought facilities/equipment
8.Sought financial support
9.License, patent, permit applied for
10.Developed first model/prototype
11.Received money from sales
12.Achieved positive monthly cash flow
13.Devoted full time to new business
14.Received financial support
15.Other start-up behaviours initiated
16.Rented/leased facilities/equipment
17.Created a new legal entity
18.Hired employees to work for wages

Source: Adapted from Reynolds (1994 in Aldrich, 1999: 78).

These activities reflect the chaotic, complex and lengthy nature of business venturing. Chell and Oakey (2004) draw attention to the lengthiness of the process, which starts from the conception (emergence of an idea) and develop as a gestation period toward a realized founding. Taking a Resource Based View (RBV), they take a more amplified approach in exploring nascent entrepreneurship in a context of science enterprise formation and put forward a research agenda. Highlighting the paucity of empirical research that explains how nascent entrepreneurs learn and develop an effective understanding of new venture process, their main lines of argument, which are not specific to science enterprise formation and pertinent in this research, hinge on the importance of taking the 'nascent entrepreneurial unit' (NEU) as the level of analysis and focusing on how it organizes itself to create and pursue business opportunities, garner resources, develop networks and acquire new knowledge and skills. Three different modes of organising have been identified, by Lichtenstein, Dooley and Lumpkin (2006), as constitutive aspects of nascent entrepreneurship. These include vision, strategic

organising and tactical organising. Drawing on an in-depth case study of a nascent entrepreneur examined for two years, the authors suggest that the first mode, vision, involves the development of the business opportunity the entrepreneur is hoping to capitalise on. The second mode, strategic organising, concerns the stream of decisions, actions and interventions enacted by the entrepreneur. The tactical moves pertain to particular events and timeframes indicative of an entrepreneurial start-up (Lichtenstein et al., 2006: 154). These different modes of organising in the process of nascent entrepreneurship will be explored in the case accounts of the current research.

The process-relational approach to entrepreneurship enables a focus to be maintained on the relational qualities of the new venture development as a process, with development of the nascent entrepreneurial team and their entrepreneurial learning and managing experience as they engage in those activities of opportunity creation, resource marshalling, networking and using outside assistance. Approaching the nascent entrepreneurship from a learning perspective, Chell and Oakey (2004) note that what the core resources that a NEU requires and how to access them are the key questions to address. It has been recognised in the literature that nascent entrepreneurs usually rely on their experience, which is viewed as a resource that is invested in the business (Honig, 2001; Chell and Oakey, 2004). Other resources, which are seen as significant ingredients for nascent business venturing as suggested by Chell and Oakey (2004), include less tangible resources that give reputation, external networks, internal team competences (Kamm et al., 1990; Birley and Stockley, 2000) and early stage assistance for both survival and growth. This view resonates with the argument put forward by Ucbasaran, Wright and Westhead (2003). Utilizing a human capital perspective (Becker, 1975) in explaining the dynamic entrepreneurial process, the authors argue that the nature and extent of an entrepreneur's human capital is crucial in accessing and leveraging social, financial, physical and organisational resources (Ucbasaran et al., 2003: 208). They investigate how habitual entrepreneurs acquire resources during their entrepreneurial careers and how these add to their existing human capital endowment, enabling them to access additional resources, and possibly adding value to the entrepreneurs' subsequent activities.

Drawing on an empirical research conducted through telephone-interviews with a sample drawn from a national database of individuals who were in the process of starting companies in the US, Carter, Gartner, Shaver and Gatewood (2003: 35) argue that the reasons nascent entrepreneurs offered for starting a business are very similar to the career reasons of other individuals on such dimensions as self-realization, financial success, innovation and independence. It can be argued that the degree to which nascent entrepreneurs are driven by these motivations is important in starting up a business. Furthermore, the meaning and level of 'independence' as a dimension should be examined to differentiate nascent entrepreneurs from those who pursue organisational careers. The way in which nascent entrepreneurs develop human capital in order to engage in the entrepreneurial process of a new venture creation is tightly linked to such motivational factors. In a study, which examines the role of social and human capital among nascent entrepreneurs, Davidsson and Honig (2003: 304) support the view that the formal education and previous start-up experience are important factors affecting nascent activities. Bridging and bonding social capital, consisting of both strong and weak ties (Granovetter, 1973, 1983; Jack, Drakopoulou-Dodd and Anderson, 2004), is argued to be significant for nascent entrepreneurs not only at the stage of start-up but also advancing through the start-up process and moving towards infancy and adolescence phases.

6.3 Entrepreneurial learning and managing

How nascent entrepreneurs attain different forms of capital (i.e. cultural, social and economic capital) by developing the required entrepreneurial skill sets and knowledge constitutes the focal question of this section. Entrepreneurial learning is an emerging movement of entrepreneurship, which has attracted more attention very recently. This attraction culminated in a special issue of *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* in July 2005 whereby the editors drew attention to the infancy of the study of learning in entrepreneurial contexts (Harrison and Leitch, 2005). Drawn from a number of epistemological perspectives, the existing studies largely examine entrepreneurial learning at the individual entrepreneur level (e.g. Reuber and Fischer, 1993; Young and

Sexton, Upton, Wacholtz et al., 1997; Cope and Watts, 2000; Rae and Carswell, 2000; Bishop, Crown and Weaver, 2001; Cope, 2001, 2003a, 2003b, 2005; Honig, 2001; Minniti and Bygrave, 2001; Rae, 2002, 2004a, 2004b, 2005; Taylor and Thorpe, 2004; Parker, 2006) or at the small firm level (e.g. Deakins and Freel, 1998; Penn, 1998; Anderson and Skinner, 1999; Sadler-Smith et al, 1999). The learning experience of entrepreneurial teams has received little attention despite the literature on the characteristics or formation of entrepreneurial teams or venture teams (e.g. Stewart, 1989; Kamm et al., 1990; Birley and Stockley, 2000; Vyakarnam et al., 1999; Ucbasaran, Westhead, Wright et al., 2001). Taking this criticism one step further could be the argument that a multi-level approach has not been taken whereby individual entrepreneurs' learning (micro-level) can be examined in relation to the development of entrepreneurial learning at the meso-relational level by becoming a part of 'venture communities', which are embedded in certain socio-cultural and economic milieu (macro-level). The current study aims to address this gap in our understanding.

Until recently the focus of the entrepreneurial learning literature has been mostly on the cognitive processes concerned with entrepreneur's way of gathering, processing and evaluating information (e.g. Young and Sexton, 1997; Bishop et al., 2001; Honig, 2001; Minniti and Bygrave, 2001). A related critique that can be directed towards previous studies on entrepreneurial learning is that they take a rather static perspective on the process of entrepreneurial learning, where 'process' merely refers to the logic of explicating the causal relationship between entrepreneurs' previous experiences and the performances of subsequent venture (Politis, 2005: 400). There is a consensus by the scholars in the field that little attention is devoted to how entrepreneurs, through experience, develop entrepreneurial knowledge that enables them to create entrepreneurial opportunities to organize and manage new ventures (Cope, 2001, 2003a, 2003b, 2005; Rae, 2002, 2004a, 2004b; Harrison and Leitch, 2005; Politis, 2005). Taking this gap central in this study, I relate back to the previous works and aim to locate this research in a continuing space of writing and talking about entrepreneurial learning in order to improve our understanding of the area. Here is a selection of few studies, which

influenced the development of my thinking and understanding during the course of the doctoral study:

Drawing on doctoral research (Cope, 2001) which explored the learning process of individual entrepreneurs and its impact on both their personal development and that of their firms, Cope and Watts' (2000) study developed a dynamic learning perspective by applying critical incidents technique (Flanagan, 1954; Chell, 1998) and showed how the entrepreneur learns from these incidents within the wider context of business and personal growth. The lesson taken from their work includes the importance of the critical incidents for accelerating the process of learning and growing self-awareness and hence are established as seminal moments within this process of change. They touch on the contextual nature of critical incidents and the need to understand and interpret them in relation to the circumstances in which they occur. However, it is difficult to infer the significance of context on the learning process from their study. Similarly, drawing on an empirical study of individual entrepreneurs in a wide range of industries and at different stages of their entrepreneurial career, Rae's (2002) work developed three themes of entrepreneurial learning: a) personal and social emergence, b) contextual learning and c) negotiated enterprise. The notion of 'negotiated enterprise' is based on Watson's (2001a: 10 965) conceptualisation of 'negotiated order of an organisation' where he contends that it is 'the pattern of activities which has arisen or emerged over time as an outcome of the interplay of the variety of interests, understandings, reactions and initiatives of the individuals and groups involved in the organisation'. As regards entrepreneurial learning, Rae (2002, 2004a, 2004b) argues that the business emerges through a constant process of negotiations and exchanges just as do the personal and social identity of entrepreneurs.

Concurring with Watson's (2001a) argument, in this research I aim to address how nascent entrepreneurs –as a part of a broader network- bring in their own resources, understandings, and knowledge to the venture they form, (i.e. the negotiated order), and yet how these elements shape this negotiation of order and are shaped by negotiations. Using the term 'organisational emergence' to highlight the social, processual and constructive aspects of new business venturing, Fletcher (2003) encourages

entrepreneurship researchers to generate further insights into the underlying processes of venturing to facilitate new movements in entrepreneurial understanding. These underlying processes embrace the dynamic processes of personal, social and economic identity formation as nascent entrepreneurs make sense of the world through interactions within their *habitus* and field. In Watson's (2002: 100) terms, this is called 'active use of discursive resources'.

Nascent entrepreneurs become actively engaged in learning to develop better understandings and actions during the business venturing process. This active engagement encompasses 'investment of the self', particularly the extreme levels of emotional and financial commitment and 'personal exposure' associated with small business ownership, which makes the study of entrepreneurs such a unique context within which to explore the phenomenon of learning' (Cope, 2003: 430). Again building on his doctoral work (Cope, 2001), Cope (2003) develops a deeper discussion of entrepreneurial learning and critical reflection by focusing on the discontinuous events, which have the capacity to lead to 'higher-level learning', rather than the incremental accumulation of more routinized, habitual learning, which results in 'lower-level learning'. Before embarking on expanding Cope's discussion on these different types/levels of learning, which are essentially concepts borrowed from organisational learning literature (Fiol and Lyles, 1985), and their relevance in this study, it is worth elaborating his aforementioned notions of 'investment of self' and 'personal exposure'. Cope (2003: 430) suggests that many entrepreneurs commit significant personal resources to creating and managing a venture and in doing so expose both themselves and other stakeholders to the considerable financial, emotional and social risks associated with owning a business. This provides a different perspective compared to a widely endorsed view within the entrepreneurial learning literature that entrepreneurs are action oriented and yet much of their learning is experientially based (Cope and Watts, 2000; Rae and Carswell, 2000). Cope (2003) highlights the affective element of entrepreneurial learning whereas prior research on the whole emphasises actions, behaviours and experiential aspects only. 'Learning by doing' is marked by many scholars (Kolb, 1984; Boud, Cohen and Walker, 1993) as it encompasses such activities as trial and error, explicit problem solving,

discovery and reactive or proactive response to opportunities and problems (Young and Sexton, 1997; Cope and Watts, 2000; Cope, 2003). As Gibb (1997: 19) points out, in an entrepreneurial context:

> 'The predominant contextual learning mode ....is that of...learning from peers; learning by doing; learning from feedback from customers and suppliers; learning by copying; learning by experiment; learning by problem solving and opportunity taking; and learning from mistakes'.

Entrepreneurs tend to learn continuously as they set up and manage their venture. However, it is argued that entrepreneurs can experience distinctive forms of 'higher-level' learning from encountering, overcoming and reflecting on significant opportunities and problems during the entrepreneurial process (Cope, 2003: 432). There is an affective dimension to this process. Through two case studies, Cope (2003) illustrates that these distinctive forms of higher-level learning prove to be fundamental for both personal and business growth. The author acknowledges the need for further research on the social and affective dimensions of the learning process with discontinuous events, which refer to such events that led to crises and disruption in the business venturing process. In order to illuminate the concept of 'discontinuous events', he gives an example from one of his case studies: An entrepreneur encounters one of the most serious crises that is potential bankruptcy. This crisis was self-imposed, as the entrepreneur acknowledges that he made a serious and very basic marketing mistake that he thought he was not capable of making, a mistake which effectively ruined the company. He made the marketing mistake just before the Christmas holidays. The holiday period enabled him to think through and take preventative action. He was able to engineer a solution that allowed him to walk away from the situation, while leaving his partner with a failing company that was heading for bankruptcy. The entrepreneur describes this discontinuous event as a 'moral dilemma' as everything was on the line and he had to put his wife and family first (Cope, 2003: 442).

One should take a critical stance in applying such concepts in this research. Translating these ideas to nascent entrepreneurship requires a careful consideration of the level of intensity in their entrepreneurial experience. As conceptualised in section 6.2, nascent

entrepreneurs are those who are at the beginning of their entrepreneurial career and therefore the extent and nature of these 'discontinuous events' or even 'critical incidents' are rather limited. However, there is still some merit in examining the 'significant occurrences' that they perceive during the entrepreneurial process. This recognition heralds the idea that people, in general, tend to reflect on memorable events that happen in their lives and such a reflective process can give rise to fundamental forms of learning (Cope, 2003). Focusing on the change in behaviour as the measure of entrepreneurial learning, Deakins and Freel (1998) note that the differences in the learning experiences of nascent, novice and mature entrepreneurs are mainly due to their interaction with a different set of actors.

Further critique of Cope's (2003a, 2003b) perspective is that the conceptualisation of such crises and failures as 'discontinuous events' is under-theorised. In line with the process-relational approach to studying entrepreneurship, they can be interpreted as 'turning points' or 'critical incidents' (Chell, 1998) in one's entrepreneurial career and form a part of the entrepreneurial process. Learning by doing can be combined in this study with the notion of 'learning in performance' during the course of the entrepreneurial process, as put forward by Ramsey (2005: 219), from a social constructionist standpoint in studying nascent entrepreneurs' learning process. As discussed earlier in Chapter Five, entrepreneurial process is studied from a process-relational perspective in this research, which highlights 'the process of creating a new organisation' that is transformative as it draws on one's earlier experiences in life and reflects a transformation, which is about enacting a future (Anderson, 2003, 2005). Therefore, the questions remain: How do nascent entrepreneurs learn as they develop their performances by attending to certain issues, problems, actions and events? Do they develop a performative capacity during the process of nascent entrepreneurship? The answers to these questions will be sought in the case accounts of the research.

The reflective and iterative nature of the process of entrepreneurial learning is acknowledged by Bishop et al. (2001) in their 'individual entrepreneurial learning model', which has three principal components: development of skill set, self-regulation

and task evaluation. They suggest that the iterative processes that occur within each component as well as among components determine the behaviour of the entrepreneur. Linking entrepreneurial learning to venture growth and development, they argue that 'the skills and abilities within an entrepreneur's skill set are acquired, developed and applied based upon the multiple complex tasks to be performed as identified via motivation and self-regulation processes. The selection of tasks is achieved through an evaluation of what resources will be needed to achieve the skill levels necessary to reach the performance goals set within the self-regulation processes. The entrepreneur's goals are determined, in concert with the motivational decision to perform the tasks, through the processes of self-observation, self-evaluation and self-reflection' (Bishop et al., 2001: 19). Although the authors recognise the multidimensionality of the process, their conceptualisation denotes a linear understanding of entrepreneurial process. In this study, however, it is viewed as chaotic, complex and emerging because entrepreneurial activities, in which nascent entrepreneurs are engaged, are complex by nature as discussed in Chapters Four and Five.

Representing entrepreneurial learning as a 'calibrated algorithm of an iterated choice problem', Minniti and Bygrave (2001) put emphasis on how entrepreneurs internalise information from successes and failures as the focal point of entrepreneurial learning. They argue that most learning takes place by filtering signals obtained by experimenting with different competing hypotheses, where some actions are reinforced and others are weakened as new evidence is obtained. Over time, entrepreneurs repeat those actions that have generated better outcomes. Similar to Bishop et al. (2001), Minniti and Bygrave (2001) take a rather static approach to entrepreneurial learning by focusing on the outcome being 'entrepreneurial knowledge', which is defined as the ability to obtain information (and other resources) and how to deploy them. Therefore, the authors posit that entrepreneurial learning is a process involving repetition and experimentation that increases the entrepreneurial confidence in certain actions and improves the content of her or his stock of knowledge. Such an outcome-oriented approach offers a limited understanding as it neglects the dynamic and contextual nature of the entrepreneurial

process. Given this limitation, the contribution of Minniti and Bygrave (2001: 7) lies in their recognition of failure being as informative as success and their idea of 'cumulative knowledge'. Contrary to economic models in which agents are rational, the authors argue that entrepreneurs have myopic foresight; they process information, make mistakes, update their decisional algorithms and possibly through this struggle, improve their performance. An entrepreneur's history is therefore influential and the entrepreneurial knowledge developed is cumulative: "What is learned in one period builds upon what was learned in an earlier period" (Minniti and Bygrave, 2001: 7).

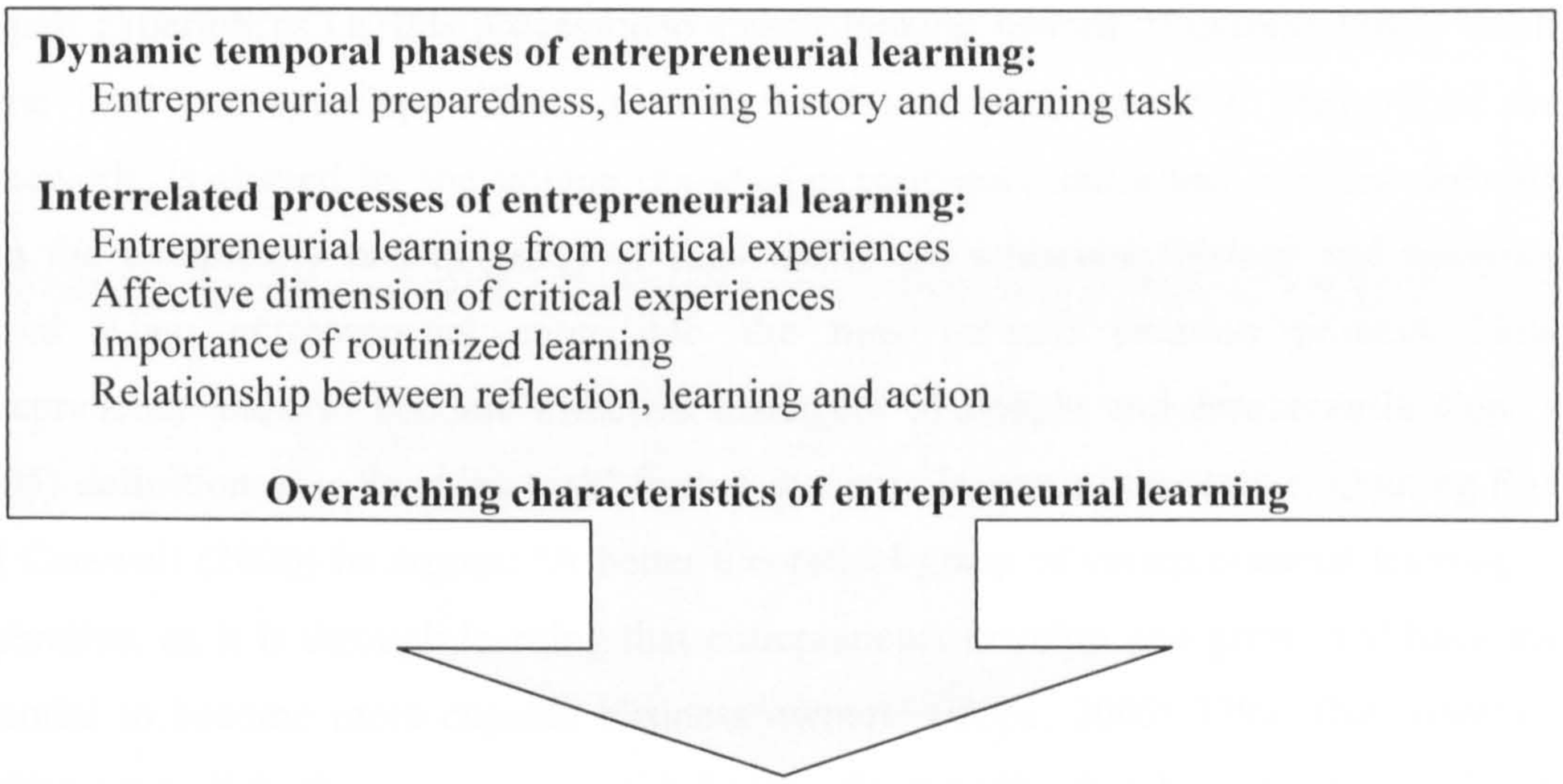
Defining entrepreneurial learning as 'learning that occurs during the venture creation process', Pittaway and Cope's (2006, forthcoming) work investigates student reflections on new venture planning courses exploring how or whether they promote entrepreneurial learning. The departure point is the creation of an uncertain and ambiguous context which forces students to step outside taken-for-granted assumptions about the educational process. Adding ambiguity and uncertainty to an educational process serves the purpose of replicating the circumstances in which an 'entrepreneur' founds a business (Pittaway and Cope, 2006, forthcoming). Having generated student reflections and used narrative analysis to interpret such rich data, the authors conclude that it is possible to identify how entrepreneurs learn and to create experiential designs that stimulate important aspects of entrepreneurial learning. The authors maintain that there are important aspects such as financial exposure and creation of discontinuities, which cannot be created in a classroom context by using simulations ; however, they illustrate the important role of emotional exposure –through time-restrained exercises-, experiential learning and problem-based orientation in generating reflective practice. The following elements can be summarised as distinguishing characteristics of entrepreneurial learning: the significant role of financial and emotional exposure (Cope, 2003; Pittaway and Cope, 2006, forthcoming), action-orientation, its experiential and iterative nature (Cope and Watts, 2000; Rae and Carswell, 2000), the importance of critical incidents (Chell, 1998) or 'learning episodes' (Rae, 2002) which include 'discontinuous events' or crises (Cope, 2003), problem solving, and finally, reactive and proactive responses to opportunities and problems (Chell et al., 1991; Young and Sexton, 1997; Pittaway and Cope, 2006, forthcoming).

These conclusions lead to a number of pedagogic and policy implications for entrepreneurship and enterprise education as pointed out in the Chapter Four where I highlighted the need for a critical examination of the enterprise/entrepreneurship education agenda and offered an approach to teaching entrepreneurship by carefully developing programmes that are underpinned by the notion of entrepreneurship, which involves both art and science. Such education programmes should aim to generate 'reflective practitioners' that are equipped with knowledge and skills in order to fit for an entrepreneurial career.

A more comprehensive and recent theoretical approach to entrepreneurial learning is provided by Cope (2005) based on his doctoral study and subsequent works as covered above. He suggests a framework that has three interconnected elements as illustrated by Figure 6.2. The first element is the dynamic temporal phases of entrepreneurial learning, which serves to demonstrate the connections between two pertinent stages of learning: learning prior to start-up and learning during the entrepreneurial process. He explains this aspect through three concepts: entrepreneurial preparedness, learning history and learning task. Building on Harvey and Evans' (1995 cited in Cope, 2005) work, from a dynamic learning perspective Cope (2005: 378) argues:

> "...it is constructive to envisage 'entrepreneurial preparedness' as a concept that encapsulates the immense complexity of accumulated learning that individuals bring to the new venture creation process" (Cope, 2005: 378).

Figure 6.2 Illustration of Cope's (2005) learning perspective of entrepreneurship



Entrepreneurial preparedness is inextricably linked to the idea of 'learning history' because preparing for entrepreneurship has personal and interactive dimensions that occurs throughout an individual's life rather than concentrated during the immediate prestart-up phase (Cope, 2001). It is a part of one's evolving 'learning history', which is in tune with Minniti and Bygrave's (2001) perspective of 'cumulative knowledge'. According to Minniti and Bygrave (2001), cumulative knowledge is formed by repetition and experimentation that increases the entrepreneur's confidence in certain actions and such acquired knowledge generates routines and decisional procedures. Therefore, 'history matters' in their view; however, it reflects rather a static and functional approach to entrepreneurial learning. Moving away from such a static approach, Cope's (2005) concepts of 'entrepreneurial preparedness' and 'learning history' acknowledge the dynamic, reflexive and interactive nature of the learning process:

> 'To be fully prepared as possible for entrepreneurship, individuals must look outward in order to interact with, learn about, the wider environment and recognize fully the opportunity that confronts them. Prospective entrepreneurs must also look forward, in order to visualise how to make their business grow and succeed….It is a dual, interactive process, where the individual develops a clear appreciation of their own strengths and weaknesses and those of their potential business in relation to wider environment' (Cope, 2005: 379).

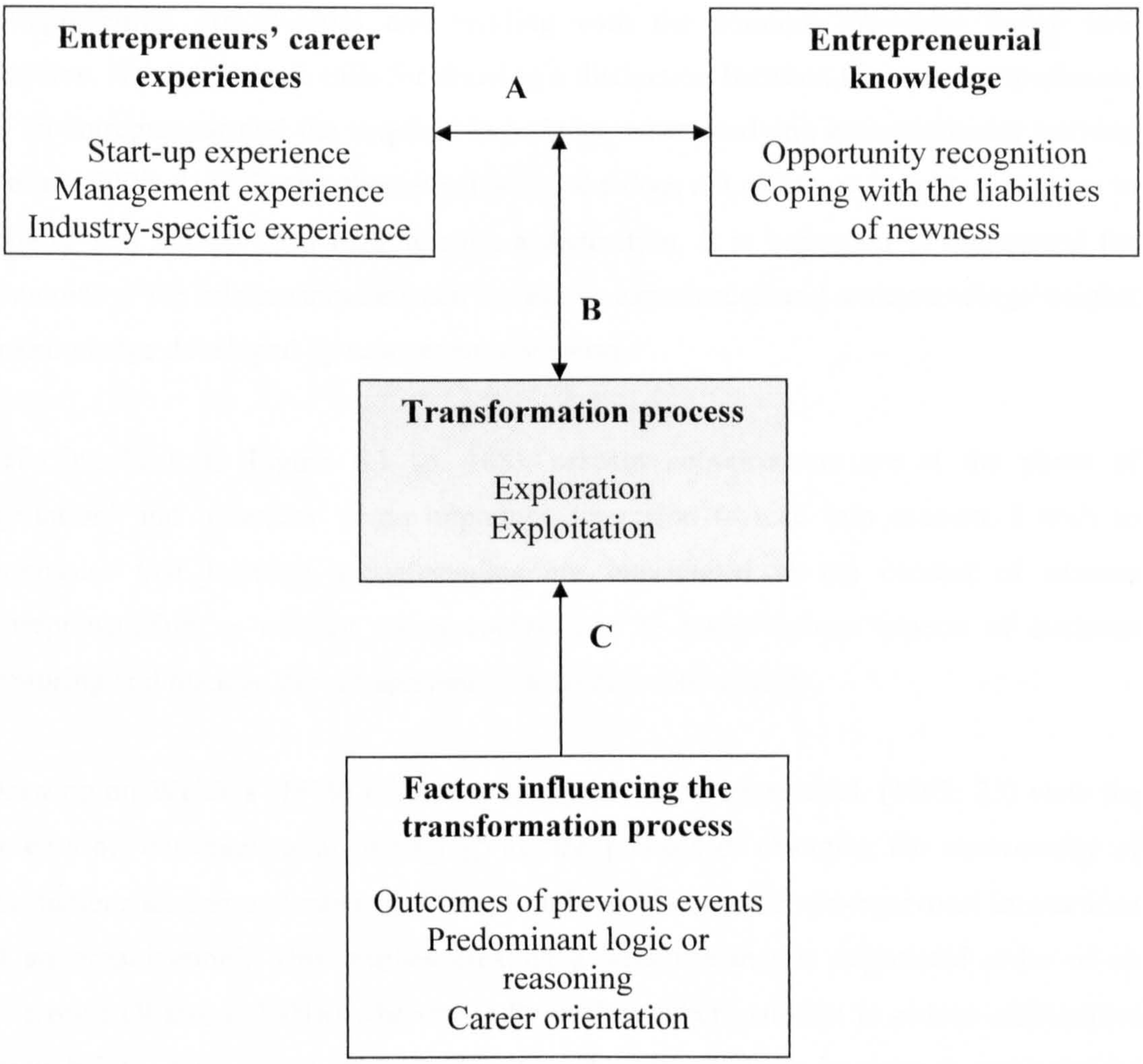
In order to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses nascent entrepreneurs must reflect on the past experiences i.e. this process also entails looking inward. 'Learning task', which is the final concept Cope (2005) puts forward to explain the first element of the framework, is shaped by the unique range of experiences, skills and abilities deriving from the complexity and diversity of each individual's learning history and becomes crucial when entrepreneurs enter into the new venture creation process. How entrepreneurs learn to become effective managers of people and resources is Cope's (2005) definition of a 'learning task' from a dynamic learning perspective. Quoting Rae and Carswell (2000) he argues: 'A better theoretical grasp of entrepreneurial learning is imperative, as it is through learning that entrepreneurs develop and grow, and have the potential to become more capable business owners' (Cope, 2005: 379). This assertion implies a 'small-business owner-manager' type of approach whereby entrepreneurs' task is viewed to run the business successfully once it is set up. The view of 'entrepreneurship' taken in this research highlights the relentless pursuit of business opportunities with a view to growing the business and therefore accumulating wealth and capital (Chell, 2001). The focus is on entrepreneurship in the present study rather than small business management, around which Cope's work (2000, 2003a, 2005) revolves. The process-relational approach to entrepreneurship (Chell, 2001; Anderson, 2005) on the whole calls for viewing the entrepreneur to be proactive in learning process and envisioning the future opportunities, while reflecting on past and current situations and conducting the day-to-day management of the business in relation with a number of stakeholders. This is what 'entrepreneurial managing' refers to in the current study. Contrary to Sexton et al.'s (1997: 3) view, which is 'entrepreneurs are content, not process oriented', developed by drawing on their study of the learning needs of growth-oriented entrepreneurs, Cope (2005: 380) claims that we should understand not only what entrepreneurs must and do learn about during the establishment and management of entrepreneurial ventures, but also the specific processes of learning. These processes stimulate such a learning content structured around five broad areas of (1) learning about oneself, (2) learning about the business, (3) learning about the environment and entrepreneurial networks, (4) learning about small business management, and (5) learning about the nature and management of relationships.

The second element of Cope's (2005) framework is 'interrelated processes of entrepreneurial learning'. At the core of this dimension lies the notion of entrepreneurial learning from critical experiences as discussed previously. While acknowledging the importance of learning from routinised behaviour in the form of the gradual development of knowledge and skills through incremental learning, Cope (2003, 2005) concludes that there is more to entrepreneurial learning from critical events as they tend to create 'higher-order learning'. The affective dimension of these events and the dynamics between the emotional intensity of the event and the associated depth of personal reflection and learning are likely to bring about higher-level learning.

The final element of his framework concerns overarching characteristics of entrepreneurial learning, which is augmented in terms of the relationship between reflection, learning and action; affective and social nature of entrepreneurial learning and generative process of entrepreneurial learning, which is both retrospective and prospective, as stressed by Martin and Sugarman (1996) in explaining the nature of reality construction of individuals in Chapter Two. It is the application of reflective learning that encapsulates the distinctive nature of generative learning (Cope, 2005) and in a way reconceptualises Gibb's (1997) description of generative learning as the ability to extrapolate and bring forward one's learning from critical events to new situations and experiences. Although the 'generative' nature of entrepreneurial learning is touched upon by Gibb (1997), Cope (2005) argues that it is still underconceptualised in entrepreneurship research. The hub of his argument is that generative learning refers to a learning process that enables entrepreneurs to become sensitised to potential critical incidents. They become attuned to factors and circumstances that they might become 'critical' at any phase of the venturing process. He maintains that entrepreneurial learning can be described as a dynamic process of reflection, association, and application; however the important issue to consider is 'timing': The 'utilization' of entrepreneurial learning may take place long after the experience itself (Cope, 2005: 387). This aspect of his framework (i.e. generative process of entrepreneurial learning) deserves particular attention in the current research study.

Aligning with Cope's (2005) perspective, Politis (2005) puts the emphasis on the role of experience in developing entrepreneurial knowledge. Departing from a review and synthesis of the available research on learning in entrepreneurial contexts, she makes a useful distinction between the experience of an entrepreneur (entrepreneurial learning as a process) and the knowledge acquired as a result of that experience (entrepreneurial knowledge as the outcome of the process). She describes entrepreneurial learning as an experiential process that facilitates the development of necessary knowledge for being effective in setting up and managing ventures (Politis, 2005: 401) by drawing attention to transformational processes. Her conceptual framework of entrepreneurial learning is depicted in Figure 6.3 as follows:

Figure 6.3 A conceptual framework of entrepreneurial learning as an experiential process



Source: Adapted from Politis (2005: 402)

Confronting the difficult task of describing or defining what 'learning' involves, Politis (2005) argues that in entrepreneurial contexts it pertains to learning how to recognize and act upon opportunities and learning how to overcome traditional hurdles when organizing and managing new ventures, that is to say, coping with the liabilities of newness. Highlighting the role of 'experience' as an important source of entrepreneurial learning, she acknowledges the significance of the experiential process where experience is transformed into entrepreneurial knowledge. The intermediate processes involve

exploration of new possibilities and exploitation of pre-existing knowledge, which in turn impact upon the development of entrepreneurs' ability to identify and exploit entrepreneurial opportunities and tackling with the common obstacles facing new ventures. Her framework calls for drawing a distinction between the events experienced by an entrepreneur and the acquired knowledge when studying entrepreneurial learning (Politis, 2005: 415). In this theoretical work, she does not offer any insights as to how to achieve this. Rather than making such a distinction, it is important to understand the dynamics of the relationship between the events experienced and understandings/insights or knowledge developed by nascent entrepreneurs.

Referring back to Figure 6.1 (p. 108), nascent entrepreneurs are at the phase of 'gestation' and 'newness' is an important dimension to take into account. I wish to emphasise that learning and managing are interrelated in the context of nascent entrepreneurship as nascent entrepreneurs tend to learn various aspects of business venturing and manage the entrepreneurial activities concurrently.

Drawing on Weick's (1979) definition of organising, Gartner et al. (1992: 23) view the process of 'entrepreneurial managing' as 'the process of changing the equivocality of interactions among a number of different individuals into the non-equivocal interactions of an organization'. This implies creating a structure that is negotiated order of an enterprise (Watson, 2001a) whereby individual members attempt to reduce ambiguities through interplay of a variety of interests and understandings in order to promote and sustain co-ordinated effort. As suggested by Gartner et al. (1992), the notion of entrepreneurship, as a type of organizing performed by nascent entrepreneurs, who relationally and relentlessly pursue business opportunities, calls for an examination of how specific patterns of interactions are generated. This is grounded in social constructionist approach where the formation of organisations is seen fundamentally as an 'enacted phenomenon' which is a particular form of social reality construction (Berger and Luckman, 1966). Nascent entrepreneurs encounter a wide range of equivocal situations in the process of business venturing. Through their interaction with their wider network and involvement in defining the routines of the emerging organization,

entrepreneurs reduce the equivocality (Gartner et al., 1992). For example, as their business mentors are providing support as to how to go about constructing their business plan, financiers evaluating the business plan, suppliers providing quotations, customers facing a prototype and individuals considering employment in the firm, nascent entrepreneurs are moving towards more certain interpretations (Weick, 1995). However, this is not a linear process. It is emerging, complex and iterative just as the interlinked process of learning is.

As noted at the outset of the section, entrepreneurial learning is still an emerging subject domain within the discipline of entrepreneurship (Cope, 2005). Hence, it is useful to draw on pertinent organisational learning literatures to inform current understanding of entrepreneurial learning process[6]. As conveyed in Chapter Two, social constructionism allows a participatory world view and offers new and rich possibilities for interests in learning processes, relations and social interactions (Reason, 1994). Gheardi (1999) criticises common constructions of organisational learning that reflect a positivist approach and recommends constructionist epistemology. She has been one of the few researchers who take a social constructionist view to learning in organisations and challenge the traditional technical views of learning. Organisational learning is ascribed to the members' collective construction of knowledge. The examples of such work inspired by social constructionism include Brown and Duguid (1991, 2001), Lave and Wenger (1991), Nicolini and Meznar (1995), Cook and Yanow (1993), Wenger (1998, 2000), Hosking and Bouwen (2000), Gherardi and Nicolini (2000, 2002), Huysman (2000) and Yanow (2000). Space precludes the possibility of discussing these works in detail. The attention is on the processes through which individual or local knowledge is transformed into collective knowledge as well as the process through which this socially constructed knowledge influences, and is part of, local knowledge (Huysman, 2000: 136). Easterby-Smith, Crossan and Nicolini (2000: 787) call this movement the revolution that 'overturned the previously dominant model, which implicitly conceptualised learners as individual actors processing information or modifying their mental structures, and substituted it with an image of learners as social beings who

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[6] See Appendix II for the Cardiff paper that illustrates a review of the selected OL literature and makes a case for a social constructionist approach to organisational learning.

construct their understanding and learn from social interaction within specific socio-cultural and material settings'. I echo with this view of learning in the current doctoral research; it has informed my overall approach to studying nascent entrepreneurs' learning experiences when creating new organisations.

6.3. 1 Debates on 'Communities of practice' and its critique

The notion of 'communities of practice' (CoP) has increasingly become popular among researchers who work within the disciplines of organisation studies (e.g. Ayas and Zeniuk, 2001; Brown and Duguid, 2001; Owen-Pugh, 2002; Tsoukas, 2002; Wenger and Snyder, 2000) in general and entrepreneurship (e.g. Keeble and Wilkinson, 1999; Warren, 2004a, 2004b; Warren and Stephens, 2004) in particular. Its crucial role in stressing the idea that learning is situated in work practices, in social engagement has been widely acknowledged by many scholars over the last decade (Brown and Duguid, 1991; Easterby-Smith, Snell and Gherardi, 1998; Wenger, 1998; Ayas and Zeniuk, 2001; Brown and Duguid, 2001; Driver, 2002; Swan, Scarbrough and Robertson, 2002). The term has been coined by Lave and Wenger's (1991) work and reinforced in Wenger's (1998) ensuing study drawing on his ethnographic work in a medical claims processing centre operated by a large US insurance company. The original work (Lave and Wenger, 1991) is based on anthropological accounts of five discrete groups of real-life learners. They provide rich qualitative accounts of the learning pathways taken by newcomers to those communities in which the granting of status as 'legitimate peripheral participants' allows them to gain access to communities learning sources and to move along 'learning trajectories' to a point at which they are fully engaged in their chosen community of practice. Their definition of a CoP is worth mentioning in order to understand its significant qualities pertaining to nascent entrepreneurs' learning. The authors define it as 'an activity system about which participants share understandings concerning what they are doing and what that means in their lives and for their community. Thus, they are united in both action and in the meaning that that action has, both for themselves, and for the larger collective' (Lave and Wenger, 1991: 98).

The defining elements of a CoP are mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire as elaborated by Wenger (1998), drawing on his ethnographic work in a medical claims processing centre operated by a large US insurance company. A community of practice is a social unit where membership is based on mutual engagement which is the result of a collective process of negotiation. The joint enterprise is defined by the '*participants in the very process pursuing it*' (Wenger, 1998: 77). Therefore, communities of practice are viewed to emerge spontaneously from the largely informal networking among groups of individuals who have similar work-related activities, interests and concerns (Wenger, 1998; Lesser and Everest, 2001; Swan et al., 2002). According to this view, organisations are portrayed as embracing multiple and heterogeneous communities of practice, and communities of practice may stretch across organisations (Brown and Duguid, 2001).

Participation is the key. Learning is situated in certain forms of social participation. Rather than asking what kinds of cognitive processes and conceptual structures are involved, such scholars and practitioners, who advocate this view of CoP, ask what kinds of social engagements provide the proper context for learning to take place. The situatedness of learning is based on the relational character of knowledge and learning, on the negotiated character of meaning, and on the concerned nature of learning activity for the people involved. My reading of Lave and Wenger's (1991) view on the nature of learning is that a person's intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a socio-cultural practice. This social process includes, indeed it subsumes, the learning of knowledgeable skills (Lave and Wenger, 1991: 29).

In conceptualising CoP in the way described in the preceding paragraphs, Wenger (1998) made the following assumptions: (a) we are social beings; (b) knowledge is a matter of competence with respect to valued enterprises; (c) knowing is a matter of participating in the pursuit of such enterprises, that is active engagement of the world; (d) meaning is ultimately what learning is to produce. Reflecting on these assumptions, social participation is conceived as an encompassing process of being active participants in the

processes of social communities and constructing identities in relation to these communities (Wenger, 1998). He has therefore identified the four interconnected components of a social theory of learning: meaning, practice, community and identity. This understanding is different from a team, which is defined by tasks or work roles focusing on the demands of the job (Belbin, 2000). Belbin's (2000) conceptualises teams from a functionalist perspective, signifying work roles as the mix of tasks and responsibilities undertaken by individuals or executed within teams. However, from a social constructionist standpoint, this study focuses on the communication and construction processes as the vehicle in forming communities- venture communities in particular. This approach suggests that all actors (i.e. nascent entrepreneurs and stakeholders) are active participants in constructing relations while engaged in business venturing.

Warren (2004b) provides an application of the CoP perspective in an entrepreneurial context through two case studies of spin-out processes that two university students went through. Her work illustrates how the student entrepreneurs' identities were constituted as they became a part of the local University's community of practice with the competing discourses of high-technology, enterprise development, spin-out, commercialisation on one hand and the discourse of science on the other hand. She shows that CoP approach is a useful one as 'it goes beyond understanding entrepreneurial networks just as morphological entities, but instead as spaces where powerful renegotiations of entrepreneurial identity are played out and fed back into the network through stories' (Warren, 2004b: 12). Warren's (2004b) application of CoP presents a limited approach to studying nascent entrepreneurs' involvement in broader social networks and its impacts on the entrepreneurial process because CoP approach relies mainly on participation in the social networks. The dispositions, perceived roles, volume of capital that nascent entrepreneurs have, and perceived principles and structures within a field are all important factors that need to be taken into account. 'Communities of practice' debate fails to explore the meso-relational dynamics of nascent entrepreneurs' business venturing experience in such a comprehensive way. How do they interact with the wider

enterprise community, which involves both the business community (i.e. competitors, customers, suppliers, financiers, officers from the RDAs etc.) and the local university community and as a result how do they become a part of this emerging 'venture community' embedded in enterprise culture discourses? What characterises their relational learning experience in such entrepreneurial contexts? These questions are embodied in the overall research questions of the study as captured in Chapter Three (see Table 3.1, p. 67).

6.4 Conclusions to the chapter

In the previous chapter, in line with the first research question, the entrepreneurial process of business venturing has been emphasised from a social constructionist premise that places emphasis on the social processes by which new ventures come into existence. Highlighting the multi-layered nature (i.e. micro, meso-relational and macro levels) of the investigation in the current study, I have aimed to further the debate by moving to the second research question which is concerned with the intrinsic processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs[7]. To this end, I have reviewed the literature pertaining to nascent entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial learning and managing supported by the pertinent organisational learning literature.

Adopting Aldrich's (1999: 77) definition of nascent entrepreneurs as those who initiate serious activities that are intended to culminate in a viable business start-up, how they go through such a transformative experience lies at the heart of the discussion. How nascent entrepreneurs learn and develop an effective understanding of the venturing process, how they deploy some forms of capital (i.e. cultural and social capital) in order to attain other forms of capital (i.e. economic and symbolic capital) as a part of their entrepreneurial becoming are the key questions that are addressed in the case accounts in Chapters 11 to 14 in this thesis. In this chapter, the entrepreneurial learning literature has been reviewed, by noting that it is a recently emerging domain in entrepreneurship research. These studies largely examine entrepreneurial learning at the experienced individual

[7] See Table 3.2 in Chapter 3 (p. 68) for the research questions and levels of analysis.

entrepreneur level or small firm level. The social constructionist and interpretivist perspectives have been endorsed in this review. The fundamental qualities of entrepreneurial learning involve the role of context, financial and emotional exposure, action-orientation, its experiential and iterative nature, the importance of critical incidents and finally proactive responses to opportunities and relentless struggle against perceived difficulties. The 'entrepreneurial managing' pertains to finding ways to take the venture forward (Mangham and Pye, 1991) by enacting what nascent entrepreneurs are learning as a part of their personal, economic and social becoming through accomplishing everyday tasks, dealing with uncertainties and engaging in other entrepreneurial practices in interaction with the members of their wider network and stake holders and thereby adapting and modifying these practices. This links us to the notion of 'venture communities' developed in the research, which represents the meso-relational level of analysis as will be explored in Part Four of the thesis. The organisational learning and related 'communities of practice' literature, which draws on social constructionist approaches, have been incorporated in the discussion to highlight the relational aspects of learning.

PART THREE

METHODOLOGY MATTERS

Synopsis

The answer to the question of 'how we should study the world' is underpinned by the responses to the question 'what is worth knowing' which has been the discussion in the Part One of the thesis. This part aims to further the debate by focusing on the research design and methods of data collection and analysis. To this end, in Chapter Seven, I discuss the 'Naturalistic Inquiry' as the overall research design chosen in this study, portraying a view of the social constructionist paradigm and research questions leading to the research design and methods. Chapter Eight presents a reflexive account of the fieldwork processes and Chapter Nine puts the emphasis on data analysis processes, which are at the heart of a qualitative inquiry.

What is worth knowing?
Philosophical debates

Part One: Foundation of the Thesis

What do we believe about the nature of reality?
Ontological debates

How do we know what we know?
Epistemological debates

How do we personally engage in inquiry?
Reflexivity debates

What questions should we ask?
Disciplinary debates

Part Two: Literature Review

How should we study the world?
Methodological debates

Part Three: Methodology Matters
Chapter Seven: Research design
Chapter Eight: A reflexive account of fieldwork processes
Chapter Nine: Managing data analysis

What are the research accounts? What insights into the subject have been generated through this research?
Description, analysis and interpretation of the research cases

Part Four: Case accounts: Description, Analysis and Interpretation

What conclusions can be drawn from the study in order to address the research questions?
What are the implications for academics and practitioners?

Part Five: Concluding Remarks

Chapter Seven

Research Design

7.1 Introduction to the chapter

This chapter presents the research design based on 'Naturalistic Inquiry' and an overview of social constructionist paradigmatic assumptions, research questions and associated methods of data collection and analysis. Defining research as a collaborative experience between the parties involved (i.e. the researcher, participants and the audience), the notion of reflexivity is elaborated in this chapter building on the pertinent ideas discussed in Chapter Two. Reflexivity calls for self-awareness of the reflexive screens that actors (researcher, participants and readers) have in a research act and that of the implications on constructing the research text. This discussion links the chapter to the subsequent one, Chapter Eight, where a reflexive account of the fieldwork processes is provided.

7.2 Social constructionist paradigm leading to research design and methods

The world can be understood only through human experience that is historically and culturally embedded (K. J. Gergen, 1985, 1994; Burr, 1995; Chell and Pittaway, 1998a), revisiting the social constructionist assumptions as laid out in Chapter Two. Knowledge and understanding of human experience are therefore contextual and generated and sustained through social processes. K. J. Gergen (2001:11) asserts that social constructionism allows researchers to "explore alternative understandings of 'what is the case' and to locate meanings that enable us to go on in more adequate ways". With a concern with holistic and detailed understandings of social processes embedded in certain settings and a commitment to participants' interpretation of their experiences, I have adopted 'Naturalistic Inquiry' as the overarching research design in this study. The associated research methods include observation, interviews, document analysis and research diaries. Before moving onto the characteristics of the naturalistic inquiry, the following Table 7. 1 shows the paradigmatic assumptions and research questions leading

to methods, conveying the sense of interrelationships between such key components of the research:

Table 7.1 Social constructionist paradigm leading to methods

Paradigmatic assumptions	Research concern	Research questions	Themes/Concepts	Research methods
PA1: Ontology: Socially constructed, multiple nature of reality PA2: Epistemology Research as an ongoing construction between the researcher and researched; collaborative, value-laden experience. PA3: Human behaviour: Freewill versus determinism PA4: Methodology * These are underpinning assumptions that cut across all aspects of the research, including research concern, research questions and theoretical consideration and methods. That is why they do not map across the rows.	Social construction of business venturing process: Entrepreneurial activities Nascent entrepreneurs' commitment to the process and engagement with the activities	What is the nature of business venturing process as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs? How do the selected nascent entrepreneurs view the process in terms of its salient characteristics? What are the processes of social construction involved?	Micro-level qualities: Nascent entrepreneurs' biographies, capitals, dispositions and cognitive frameworks. Meso-relational level qualities: Business venturing process	In-depth interviews with nascent entrepreneurs Participant observation Making sense of business plans and other company documents such as memos and meeting notes.
	Underlying processes of business venturing: Entrepreneurial learning Entrepreneurial managing	How do nascent entrepreneurs develop meanings/understandings/actions engaged in entrepreneurial activities of venturing? What are the important facets of their entrepreneurial learning experience?	Meso-relational level qualities: Process-relational characteristics of entrepreneurial learning and managing Generating a *habitus* by creating a venture community	Participant observation Interviews with nascent entrepreneurs Interviews with other key actors constituting venture community
	Enterprise culture and its associated institutions (universities in particular) and programmes (mainly education, training and incubation programmes).	How do the aforementioned processes (i.e. business venturing and entrepreneurial learning) relate to the enterprise culture in the UK, with its higher education institutions (providing a variety of forms of enterprise education or business support and development services)?	Macro-level qualities: Field of enterprise culture and its institutions – higher education institutions- and education/business support programs.	Interviews university incubator managers, enterprise educators and mentors.

7.3 Naturalistic inquiry

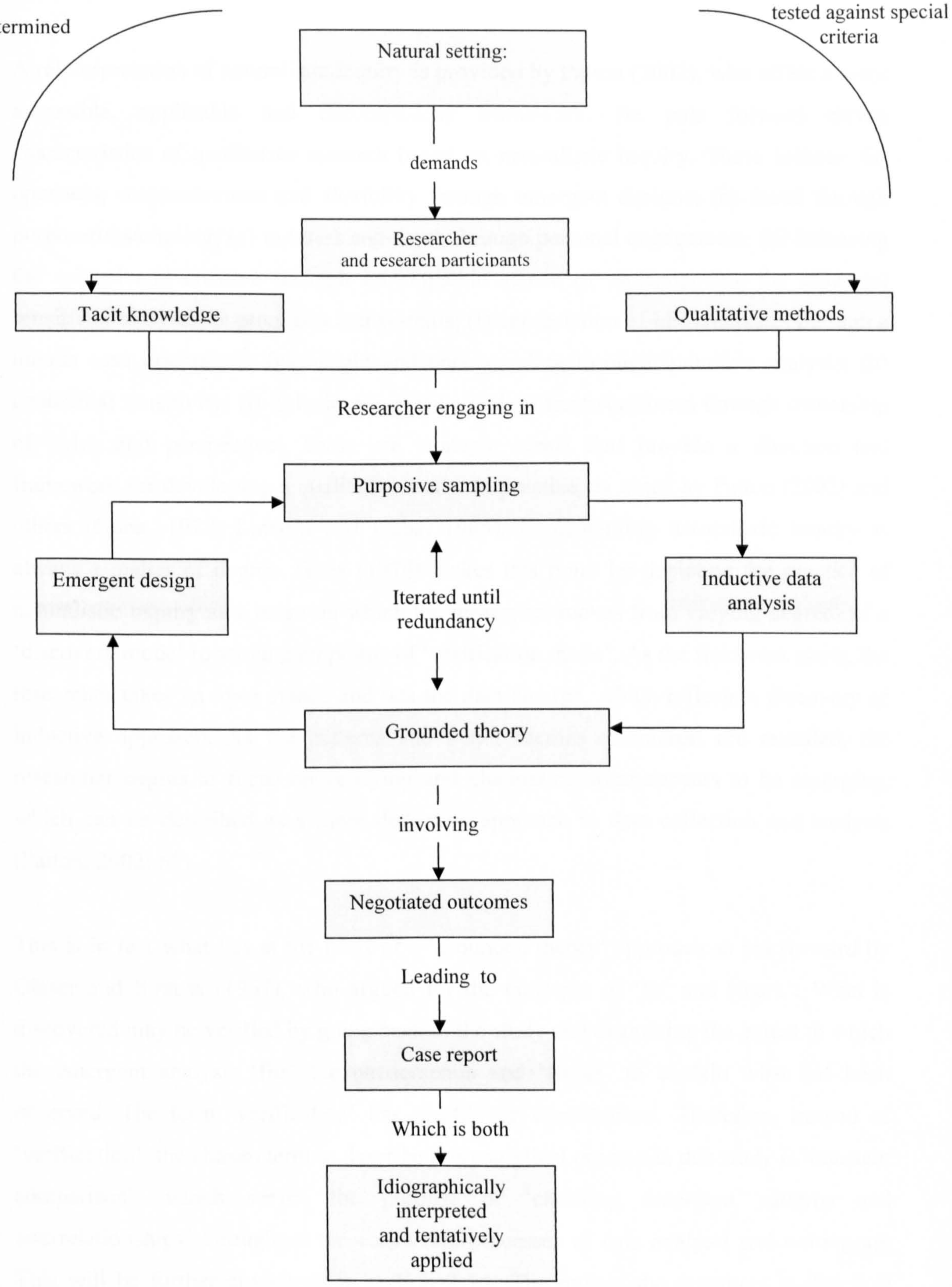
Concurring with the social constructionist underpinnings, Lincoln and Guba's (1985) 'Naturalistic Inquiry' is made up of fourteen axioms:

- Natural setting
- Human instrument
- Utilisation of tacit knowledge
- Qualitative methods
- Purposive sampling
- Inductive data analysis
- Grounded theory
- Emergent design
- Negotiated outcomes
- Case study reporting mode
- Idiographic interpretation
- Tentative application
- Focus determined boundaries
- Special criteria for trustworthiness

Determining a focus for the inquiry is the starting point and such focusing establishes the boundaries for a study. It defines the terrain and it should fit with the paradigm chosen. However, it cannot be overemphasised, *"those boundaries are not concrete; they can be altered and, in the typical naturalistic inquiry, will be*" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 228). Similarly, the research design should emanate from the research itself, that is to say, the research design is emergent in order to allow for flexibility, once the fieldwork has begun: 'The naturalist expects such changes and anticipates that the emergent design will be coloured by them. Far from being destructive, they are constructive, for these changes signal movement to a more sophisticated and insightful level of inquiry' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 229). The research takes the form of successive iterations of four elements: purposive sampling, inductive analysis of data obtained from the sample, development of

the grounded theory based on the inductive analysis and projection of next steps in a constantly emerging design: 'The iterations are repeated as often as necessary until redundancy is achieved, the theory is stabilised and the emergent design fulfilled to the extent possible in view of time and resource constraints. Throughout the inquiry, the data and interpretations are checked with participants and the accounts generated are repeated as case studies' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 188). Therefore, the research is a collaborative experience whereby findings are constructed in the course of the interaction with the participants and referred back to them. Special criteria are used for testing the worth of research as will be elucidated later. The diagrammatic illustration of the naturalistic inquiry is made in Figure 7.1 below, showing the interrelated nature of fourteen axioms and conveying the sense of progression through the research process itself:

Figure 7.1 Naturalistic Inquiry



Source: Adapted from Lincoln and Guba (1985: 188)

A reinterpretation of naturalistic inquiry is provided by Patton (2002), who offers a more accessible, applicable and encompassing framework. He puts forward eleven characteristics of qualitative research based on naturalistic inquiry. These include: (a) openness, responsiveness and flexibility through emergent designs; (b) focus through purposeful sampling; (c) richness and depth through personal engagement; (d) balancing the critical and creative through an empathic stance of understanding the case; (e) sensitivity to dynamic processes and systems; (f) appreciation of idiosyncrasies through a unique case orientation; (g) insight and understanding through inductive analysis; (h) contextual sensitivity; (i) holistic perspective and (j) trustworthiness through ownership of voice and perspective. These are strategic ideals that provide a direction and framework for developing a qualitative study. In practice, as noted by Patton (2002) and others (Guba, 1978; Lincoln and Guba, 1985), implementing naturalistic inquiry is always a matter of degree. Guba (1978) makes this point by depicting the practice of naturalistic inquiry as a wave on which the researcher moves from varying degrees of a 'discovery mode' to varying emphasis of 'verification mode'. As the fieldwork starts, the researcher takes an open stance and lets the data emerge, which reflects a discovery or inductive approach. As the patterns and major themes of interest are revealed, the researcher begins to focus on verifying and elucidating what appears to be emerging, which can be described as a more deductive approach to data collection and analysis (Patton, 2002: 67).

This is in fact what lies at the heart of a 'grounded theory' approach as put forward by Glaser and Strauss (1967), who argued for the concepts of 'fit' and 'work': What is discovered may be verified by going back to the study and examining the extent to which the emergent analysis 'fits' the phenomenon and 'works' to explain what has been observed. The term 'verification' has positivistic connotations. Therefore, instead of 'verification', the chosen term to describe this analytical process in this study is 'constant comparison', which serves the purpose of 'checking emergent patterns and interrelationships' throughout the concurrent processes of data analysis and writing-up. This will be further elucidated in section 9.3.1. The nub of the argument is that it is important to recognise the nature of a qualitative inquiry in terms of discovery and

verification of meaning, moving back and forth between induction and deduction, between experience and reflection on experience, and the practicalities of research that affect the extent to which a researcher can implement the aforementioned characteristics of a naturalistic inquiry. For example, closeness to, and involvement with, the people under study should be viewed as variable - varying according to the practicalities of fieldwork and yet moving back and forth between greater and lesser degrees of naturalistic investigation. The following Table 7. 1 depicts Patton's framework with an emphasis on its application in this research. The type of the application is shown on the Table. However, the degree to which these are applied will be revealed throughout Chapters Eight and Nine.

Table 7.2 Qualities of naturalistic inquiry as adopted from Patton (2002: 40-41)

Qualities of Naturalistic Inquiry	Patton's description	Application in this research	Thesis chapter (s)
Emergent design and Flexibility	Openness to adapting inquiry as understanding deepens; researcher pursues new paths of discovery as they emerge.	Research design	Chapter 7
Purposeful sampling	Cases for study are selected because they are 'information rich' and illuminative; they offer useful manifestations of the phenomenon under study. This may entail dropping certain cases in order to construct high quality material.	Selection of participants	Chapter 8
Qualitative data	Inquiry in depth, observations that yield detailed, 'thick' description; interviews that capture direct quotations about people's experiences and perspectives and careful review of texts.	Participant observation In-depth interviews Analysis of documents Research diary	Chapter 8 and 11 to 13.
Personal experience and engagement	The researcher as the research instrument; direct contact with and gets close to, people, situation and phenomena of interest; the researcher's personal experiences and insights are an integral part of the inquiry.	Reflexivity	Chapter 8
Empathic neutrality and mindfulness	An empathic stance in interviewing seeks vicarious understanding without judgement by showing openness, sensitivity, respect, awareness and responsiveness; in observation it means being fully present (mindfulness).	Conduct of participant Observation and interviews	Chapter 8
Dynamic processes	Attention to process; assumes change as ongoing whether focus is on an individual, an organization or a community; therefore mindful of, and attentive to, situation and context dynamics.	Longitudinal participant observation: Analysis of context dynamics	Chapter 8 and 10
Unique case orientation	Assumes each case is unique; the first level of analysis does justice to, and captures, the details of the individual cases under study; cross-case analysis follows from, and depends on, the quality of individual cases.	Construction of case accounts	Chapters 11 to 14.
Inductive analysis and creative synthesis	Immersion in the details and specifics of data to explore salient themes, patterns and interrelationships; begins by exploring, then comparing; guided by analytical principles rather than rules and ends with creative synthesis.	Data analysis	Chapter 9
Holistic perspective	The whole phenomenon under study is understood as a complex system; focus on complex interrelationships and dynamics rather than cause-effect relationships.	Case accounts	Chapters 10 to 14.
Context sensitivity	Locates findings in a social, historical and temporal context; the possibility or meaningfulness of generalizations across time and space; emphasises instead careful comparative case analyses and extrapolating patterns for possible transferability and adaptation in new settings.	Analysis of enterprise culture in the UK. Case accounts	Chapter 4 and 10 to 14
Trustworthiness through voice, perspective and reflexivity	The naturalistic qualitative inquirer owns, and is reflective about, her own voice and perspective; a credible voice conveys authenticity and trustworthiness; the researcher's task is to balance understanding and depicting the world in all its complexity, while being self-analytical and reflexive in consciousness.	Research methodology	Chapter 2, and 7 to 9.

7.4 Reflexivity

It is noted by Cunliffe (2003: 983) that 'reflexivity' is a notion, which has emerged within many disciplines such as philosophy, linguistics, the natural sciences, sociology, psychology and recently in organization and management studies (Watson, 1995; Calas and Smircich, 1999; Easterby-Smith and Malina 1999; Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2000; Johnson and Duberley, 2003; Cassell, 2005). The conceptualisation of research as a collaborative process between the researcher and the researched i.e. the participants has been highlighted in Chapter Two. What does reflexivity mean during this process? Reflexivity is described as the process of reflecting critically on the self as researcher, the human instrument (Guba and Lincoln, 1981) and therefore that of exploring the dynamics of the relationship between researcher and researched (Finlay, 2002). It is the scrutiny of 'how we personally engage with the inquiry', which forms the sixth question of any qualitative inquiry as suggested by Patton (2002- see Chapter One for the discussion on the remaining five questions and their applications in the current research).

Reflexivity forces researchers 'to come to terms not only with our choice of research concern and those with whom we engage in the research process, but with ourselves and with the multiple identities that represent the fluid self' in the research setting (Alcoff and Potter, 1993 cited in Lincoln and Guba, 2000: 183). We all have many selves we bring with us to a social setting, but Reinharz (1997: 5) specifies these selves under three categories in a research setting. These include research based selves, brought selves and situationally created selves. Research based selves are those we construct in a research act when we interact with our participants[8]. Brought selves are the 'selves' that historically, socially and personally create our worldviews, and perspectives. We bring these perspectives into specific research contexts, which, in turn, leads to construction of situationally created selves. Each of these selves comes into play in the research setting and consequently has a distinctive voice (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). A somewhat similar argument can be presented by building on Bourdieu's (1977, 1990, 1993, 1998) ideas pertaining to the relational approach to qualitative studies. As captured in Chapter Two,

[8] See Chapter 2, section 2.4.2 for a related discussion that is based on Bourdieu's (1999) work.

Bourdieu uses a relational analysis in explaining social phenomena, which situates individuals in their respective social positions in terms of volume and composition of their capital. For Bourdieu (1977, 1993, 1999, 2003) reflexivity demands systematic reflection by the researcher aimed at revealing how her formative social location or habitat, to which there is a corresponding *habitus* or set of embodied dispositions and assumptions, influence any account (Johnson and Duberley, 2003: 1289). Therefore, researchers should be aware of their own dispositions shaped by the norms, values and other regulatory forces of a particular scientific field. This is called 'epistemic reflexivity' by Bourdieu (1999, 2003) and the following is a powerful articulation of what it means in management and organisation research by Johnson and Duberley (2003: 1289):

> '...management research cannot be carried out in some intellectual space which is autonomous from the researcher's own habitus. Indeed it would seem that epistemic reflexivity must relate to how a researcher's own social location affects the forms and outcomes of research as well as entailing acceptance of the conviction that there will always be more than one valid account of any research. Therefore, a key role of epistemic reflexivity is to negate the world as an objectively accessible social reality and denaturalise hegemonic accounts by exposing their modes of social organization and reproduction'.

As noted by a number of scholars (e.g. Hardy and Clegg, 1997; Holland, 1999; Johnson and Duberley, 2003) reflexivity entails some form of scrutiny of the presuppositions, which organisation researchers have internalised as members of particular research communities and will inevitably deploy in both constructing and disseminating research accounts to others in those communities. Further explication of the concept of reflexivity is provided by Johnson and Duberley (2003) who distinguish between various forms of reflexivity (i.e. methodological, deconstructive and epistemic reflexivity) underpinned by certain paradigmatic positions taken in research. Moreover, Finlay (2002) discusses the multitude of ways in which reflexivity can be understood and exercised in conducting qualitative research. My interpretation of these views to a research setting includes more than the revelation and reflection on our scientific and philosophical underpinnings; rather it encompasses the awareness of the positions we hold as researchers in relation to our participants, to our data and, furthermore, to our audience. The lengthy discussion on the ontological and epistemological assumptions underpinning this research in Chapter

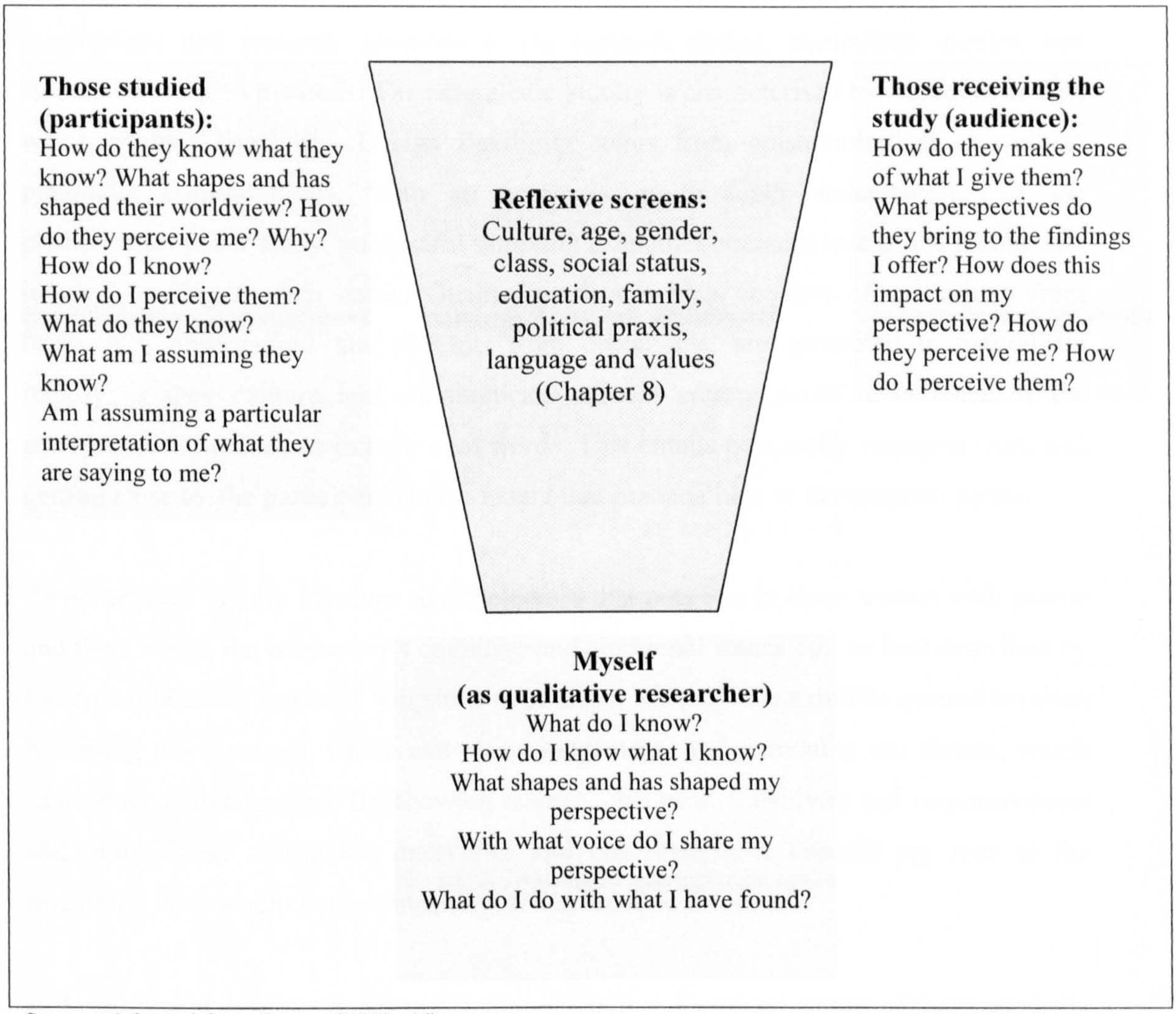
Two combined with my biography, perspectives and personal aims of conducting research (see also Chapter Eight) is a manifestation of this ongoing examination that I undertook throughout this doctoral study.

A postmodern argument for reflexivity (see Chia, 1996a; Rhodes and Brown, 2005) would go further and suggest that reflexivity demands that 'we interrogate each of our selves regarding the ways in which research efforts are shaped and staged around the binaries, contradictions, and paradoxes that form our own lives' (Lincoln and Guba, 2000: 183). Importance of self-awareness, political/cultural consciousness and ownership of one's perspective are all emphasized by the debates surrounding reflexivity in qualitative research (Patton, 2002). In MacBeth's (2001: 35) words:

> 'In the rush of interest in qualitative research in the past 15 years, few topics have developed as broad a consensus as the relevance of analytic 'reflexivity'. By most accounts, reflexivity is a deconstructive exercise for locating the intersections of author, other, text, and world, and for penetrating the representational exercise itself'.

The form of reflexivity I expound in this research is guided by social constructionism, which unsettles representation of the world by suggesting that we are constantly constructing meaning and social realities as we interact with others and talk about our experiences. This view entails a relational approach leading to explicit focus on the reflexive engagement with myself, the research participants, data and research audience i.e. awareness of the importance and implications of myself as a researcher, my biography, critical standpoints and values on the research process as well as awareness of the participants and that of the research audience, namely readers. Reflexivity is my ethical responsibility as a researcher. Payne (2000) provides a fuller discussion on reflexivity raised in terms of moral knowledge construction. Guillemin and Gillam (2004) portray a notion of reflexivity as a helpful way of understanding both the nature of ethics in qualitative research and how ethical practice in research can be achieved. The following Figure 7. 2, which was drawn building on Patton's (2002: 66) perspective on reflexive questions, encapsulates the form of reflexivity adopted in this study.

Figure 7.2 Reflexivity developed from Patton's (2002: 66) 'reflexive questions: triangulated inquiry'



Source: Adapted from Patton (2002: 66)

These dimensions of reflexivity cuts across all the considerations made in this study, including the research design, methods of data collection and analysis, writing-up and checking the worth of the research. How my biography, perspectives, current situation and position, as well as future aspirations, have shaped the study is the concern of next chapter. The other dimensions are endorsed throughout the research and represented in various forms throughout Part Three and Part Four of the thesis.

7.5 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter, I have discussed the progression from social constructionist paradigmatic assumptions and research questions to the research design, naturalistic inquiry, and associated research methods. The naturalistic inquiry is characterised by emergent design, which enables flexibility. Design flexibility stems from epistemological as well as pragmatic considerations. With an emphasis on in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study, purposeful sampling is another characteristic of the naturalistic inquiry, leading to rich cases. Qualitative data, which consists of quotations from interviews, observations and excerpts from documents, are generated in naturalistic inquiry as they capture and communicate nascent entrepreneurs' experience of the entrepreneurial processes in their own words. This entails personally engaging with, and getting close to, the participants to the extent that practicalities of the research permit.

As naturalistic inquiry involves such fieldwork that puts one in close contact with people and their world, the researcher's cognitive and emotional stance can be best described by Patton's (2002:50) notion of 'empathic neutrality', which offers a middle ground between becoming too involved, which can cloud judgement, and remaining too distant, which can reduce understanding. By showing respect, openness, sensitivity and responsiveness and mindfulness during the interviews and observations, I enacted my role as the researcher who sought honest, meaningful and credible findings[9].

A dynamic and developmental perspective is another important aspect of the naturalistic inquiry, which entails attention to process and assumes ongoing change: change in participants' views and behaviours as the study unfolds. Unique case orientation and inductive analysis are the other qualities of the naturalistic inquiry. In the chapter I stressed what lies at the heart of an inductive inquiry, which is to allow the important analytical dimensions to emerge from patterns found in the cases under study without being 'pigeon holed' into standardised categories (Patton, 2002: 56). In practice, as the

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[9] See Schwandt (2000) and Patton (2002) for a related discussion on the 'Verstehen' premise and Max Weber, who brought the term 'empathy' into social science to highlight the importance of comprehending the motives and feelings of people in a social-cultural context.

fieldwork progresses and some patterns and themes emerge, later activities of data construction (observations and interviews) include both inductive (discovery) and deductive (constant comparison) approaches. These will be better explained in Chapter Nine and evidenced in the construction of case accounts in Chapters 11 to 14. Holistic perspective and context sensitivity are required in the naturalistic inquiry, which manifested itself in a multi-layered perspective to studying nascent entrepreneur's venturing experience in this study, with an emphasis on the underlying processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing. The micro-individual, meso-relational and macro-contextual layers are examined, conveying a sense of the interplay at all three levels. Finally, trustworthiness should be ensured in a naturalistic inquiry through reflexivity, which requires self-awareness of the reflexive screens and positions that all parties (researchers, participants and audience) hold and having an 'ongoing conversation about the research experience while simultaneously living in the moment' (Hertz, 1997:viii, 'research' added). Critically reflexive practice embraces relational understandings of reality as a basis for thinking more critically about our assumptions, values and actions on others (Cunliffe, 2004). Such practice is important to entrepreneurship research and education because it helps us understand how we constitute our realities and identities in relational ways and how we can develop more collaborative and responsive ways of researching and educating nascent entrepreneurs. The following chapter is an attempt to illuminate the reflexive process that I went through in conducting this research, which provides 'a reflexive account' of the whole process.

Chapter Eight: A Reflexive Account of the Research Process

8.1 Introduction to the chapter

This chapter aims presents a reflexive account of the research process. To this end, the chapter opens with my background, current position and future aspirations. This is followed by outlining the research phases, conveying the key research activities and methods of data generation in conjunction with research questions and paradigmatic assumptions. The chapter concludes with a summary of the salient points.

8.2 Researcher's background, current position and future aspirations

I am Turkish, female and thirty-years old. I was born to Turkish parents, who were both civil servants and indoctrinated into a strong secular ideology through their education and professional development - an ideology which underpinned the political and cultural revolution that Atatürk led and brought about the formation of the Republic of Turkey. His ideal of catching up with modern civilisation and of contributing to its further development inspired most Turks and continues to inspire. This ideal entailed attainment of high levels of education and making strenuous efforts for Turkish people in general, and for disadvantaged groups such as women and people belonging to a working class in particular. I grew up in a family whereby 'attaining the highest possible level of education' and, therefore, 'personal development, being a good citizen and contribution to society' have been highly valued.

The years, during which I studied Political Science and International Relations in the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences at the Bosphorus University (1992-1997), in Istanbul, opened my mind to possibilities of studying further and studying abroad. After graduation, I started working for the corporate banking department of a Turkish high street bank as a part of their graduate management scheme. During the years (1997-2000) I worked there, I had the opportunity to gain experience of organisational/professional life as well as to accumulate some money that contributed

towards my masters study in England. Finally, I was able to fulfil my objective of completing my Masters degree in Business Administration with distinction at the University of Hertfordshire. This experience perpetuated my willingness and commitment to pursue an academic career. I conducted my dissertation study in the area of strategic management and looked at the emerging strategies of a foreign bank in an emerging market, Turkey, which included various aspects of corporate entrepreneurship albeit the overall perspective being banking strategies. I decided to embark on a doctoral study in management or organisation studies and began to seek bursary opportunities. The award of a research studentship in Enterprise and Entrepreneurship at the University of Derby gave me the chance to carry out this doctoral study from January 2002 until the end of May 2004 at which point I was appointed as a Lecturer in Entrepreneurship at the University of Southampton. I continued to undertake my doctoral study at Southampton alongside my main lecturer responsibilities.

My ultimate career objective is to become a Research Professor in Enterprise and Entrepreneurship. Through high quality and applied research, which bridges the gap between academic research and its end users, I am determined to contribute to societies that I am affiliated with, particularly by educating and training nascent entrepreneurs, small business owners and aiding public policy making on enterprise and entrepreneurship.

8.3. Research phases

There were three phases that marked this research: a) orientation phase b) focused exploration phase and c) writing-up phase. The remaining part of this chapter provides an account of the key research activities with an emphasis on particular data construction methods in the field during each phase, reinforcing the notion of emergent research design (see Appendix III for illustration of the research activities in each phase in greater detail).The following Table 8.1 is an extract from Appendix III, which illustrates the time frame, research activities, instruments and accounts generated:

Table 8. 1 An extract from Appendix III that depicts the research activities over the entire period of research

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Stage I: Orientation phase: January 2002-November 2002			
Engaging with E, OL and EL literature (throughout the phase)	Researcher/ notes	Background knowledge/conceptual frameworks/ literature review tables	Refining research ideas
Immersing in methodological issues: alignment with SC, PA and NI (RM course units) (throughout the phase)	Researcher/Notes DoS / Other research students	Grounding research philosophy/ analytical frameworks/ emerging research design	Informing all aspects of the research
Attending supervisory meetings (throughout the phase)	Researcher/ DoS/ Notes Supervisors	In-depth discussions regarding the scope and nature of the research	Further thinking about research ideas/ Shaping the direction of research
Attending Complexity Seminars: Hertford (Jan-Feb 2002)	Researcher/ notes Other scholars	Complexity frameworks in studying organisational phenomena	Informing the researcher about different ways of researching processes in organisations
ISBA WS: Lancaster Research paradigms (19 Mar 2002)	Researcher/ Notes Other research students and scholars	Research philosophies/ designs	Exposure to different philosophies and ways of conducting research
Submitting Research Design/ Strategy Assignment (May 2002)	Researcher DoS Supervisor	Comments by the supervisors	Further thinking and engaging with issues raised.

Abbreviations: E: Entrepreneurship; OL: Organisational Learning; EL: Entrepreneurial Learning; SC: Social constructionist; PA: Processual approach; NI: Naturalistic Inquiry; RM: Research methods; DoS: Director of Studies; ISBA: Institute of Small Business and Administration; WS: workshop

8.3.1 Orientation phase: Entering the field

The orientation phase, which lasted between January and November 2002, was characterised mainly by engaging with entrepreneurship, organisational learning and entrepreneurial learning studies as well as immersing in methodology matters through the research methods training as a taught part of the doctoral research programme. Building upon Patton's (2002) understanding of the fieldwork having three stages that are the entry stage, the routinisation of data gathering and analysis and the closing stage, the entry to the field was in this phase marked by identifying the criteria for selecting research participants and beginning to negotiate access. The time period between November 2002 and May 2003 was characterised by an 'overview of field settings' during which formal and informal correspondence and meetings with the gatekeepers for potential case ventures were carried out.

8.3.1.1 Selecting the participants and securing research access

Having shaped the research questions around entrepreneurial learning experience of those who form a venture team at the time, I was encouraged by my supervisory team to identify criteria for case ventures. As a result of the supervisory meetings, where we discussed several criteria and possibilities to seek access, I constructed a research protocol, which adhered to the principles below, and pursued this with a number of organisations (See Appendix IV for an example to a research protocol):

- How much time and effort will be involved?
- What kind of data collection techniques are to be used?
- Will participants' anonymity be maintained?
- Will participants review and critique interim and final products?
- What benefits will accrue to participants?

I used the research protocols as a vehicle for discussion with the organisational gatekeepers while negotiating entry and a certain level of access. The case companies that were approached mainly included local companies that have recently undergone some

form of corporate venturing or newly found independent start-up firms. Most of these conventional attempts of gaining access (i.e. formal methods using proposals with covering letter addressed at the case organisations) failed. Thus, the study warranted other unconventional methods of securing research access such as using the people in our social networks and identifying and contacting those that could be participants through a 'snow-balling' technique. Finally, I was able to gain access to the participants of a newly formed joint venture (i.e. one nascent corporate entrepreneur and the parent's firm managing director), through which the joint venturing case was created. Later, the desired level of access (i.e. participant observation work in addition to interviews) was secured with a team of nascent entrepreneurs, who were not only at an early stage of their business venturing journey, but also leading the formation of a sectoral networking organization in the region. This enriched the research accounts. Finally, a solo entrepreneur, who has been setting up her game business, was studied through an interview process.

These nascent entrepreneurs and nascent corporate entrepreneur in the joint venturing case constituted the first type of participants. The second type comprised the enterprise educators, business mentors or university incubation managers to help address the research element concerning the impact of enterprise education or business support (through incubation services). The following Table 8.2 depicts the research questions, research participants and the type of data construction methods used. It is worth noting that negotiating, gaining and maintaining access, to some participants and conducting the fieldwork with others, were concurrent processes until the writing-up phase.

Table 8.2 Research questions, research cases and methods used to construct the case accounts

Research questions	Research cases	Methods
1) What is the nature of business venturing process? What are the salient characteristics? Who are nascent entrepreneurs and how do they engage in venturing activities? 2) How do nascent entrepreneurs develop meanings/understandings/actions while engaged in such entrepreneurial activities of new venture creation? 3) How do the above processes of business venturing and entrepreneurial learning relate to UK enterprise culture, with its particular education and business support programmes[10]?	**KBrandArt:** Participants: Nascent entrepreneurs: Denise, Adam, Luke, Charles, Paul and the account manager they employed later: Norman. Key actors in the broader venture community: Participants through the INO meetings: Martin (Derbyshire City Council representative), Simon (another entrepreneur who set up a business in CI), Mike (Another CI entrepreneur-copywriter), Peter (The solicitor who sets out the legal foundation) and Kelly (another nascent entrepreneur who is forming her business in the CI).	**Participant observation:** Attendance at the venture team meetings on ever y Monday (usually) for 10 months. Attendance at the INO meetings Attendance at the meetings whereby the nascent entrepreneurs were getting prepared for a pitch **Interviews:** Interviews with the venture team members (nascent entrepreneurs- 3 interviews with Denise, the managing director) Interviews with the members of INO **Documentary analysis**: Business plans for KBrandArt and INO Client presentation slides Internal memos Meeting notes (that fed into meetings) Press releases Web site content
	R-Games: Participants: Nascent entrepreneur: Rosie and Her mentor: Richard (who came and made an important interjection during the interview with Rosie)	**Interview:** An in-depth interview that lasted for two hours. **Participant observation:** Observing the setting and her interaction with the mentor and clients over the phone. **Documentary analysis:** Operational documents on the wall (slides laying out the different aspects of business planning) and press releases.
	JV-Games: Participants: Nascent corporate entrepreneur: Richard and The parent company's managing director: Tim	**Interviews:** Two in-depth interviews with Richard One in-depth interview with Tim **Participant observation:** Observing the settings (JV offices and parent company's offices and design/manufacturing facilities) and the interactions. **Documentary analysis:** JV contract, handbook conveying the company philosophy.

[10] To address the third question, three interviews with university incubator managers and enterprise educators were carried out, in addition to the interviews that are used to construct the case studies. Two interviews were undertaken with the creative industries business officers of a local council and an RDA.)

As marked by Patton (2002: 313) the entry stage of fieldwork magnifies both the joys and the pains of doing fieldwork. Securing research access was therefore in no sense 'plain sailing' and was a very difficult process. The method of 'purposeful sampling' was employed in choosing the case ventures to the extent to which the practicalities of the research permitted. Underpinned by the social constructionist stance, the research called for a prolonged engagement with the research participants through some form of observation or 'work-shadowing' in addition to typical qualitative method of interviews. In seeking access, the main difficulty has appeared to be persuading the value of the research for the people in case organisations so that they would let me 'in' to their venture teams. The other difficulties, as pointed out by Czarniawska (1998), are the ones that female, foreign or young researchers are experiencing in negotiating access. She emphasises that young researchers are experiencing more difficulties and are more transparent in their field stories than their more experienced colleagues. Therefore, interacting with the gate keepers and figuring out how to gain entry while preserving the integrity of the study were strategic processes which constituted important parts of this phase.

8.3.2 Focused exploration phase: Generating case accounts

Having completed my research methods training and been awarded my PG Certificate in Research Methods in Business and Management Studies as well as developed a good foundation of the subject area based on an examination of the previous studies, I entered the focused exploration phase of the research from May 2003 onwards (see Appendix III). Important milestones, such as the progression from MPhil to PhD and conduct of focused fieldwork and publishing the preliminary findings of the research at the established conferences including the British Academy of Management (BAM) and Institute of Small Business Association (ISBA –as it was called at the time) annual conferences, were achieved as shown in Table 8. 3 below (see also Appendix III).

Table 8.3 An extract from Appendix III that depicts the research phases with activities, instruments and accounts involved

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Submission of full paper to the BAM conference organisers (30 Apr 2003)	Researcher DoS Fieldwork accounts	First draft of the paper submitted to the conference	Further thinking on the research out of discussions with the DoS.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Interview with Denise- MD of the venture) to explore any possibility of fieldwork (01 May 2003)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcripts Observation notes	Analysing the transcript. Discussing the case with DoS. Making further efforts for an in-depth access to the case company.
Attending the BAM Doctoral Clinic at the Manchester Met Uni. (06 May 2003)	Researcher/Notes Other doctoral students Facilitators Other researchers	Feedback on the fieldwork settings in relation to research aims.	Further thinking in choosing and approaching case organisations.
Fieldwork visit (Interview with DK-Enterprise educator/ incubator manager-SouthWest incubator). (08. May. 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript Notes Case documents	Analysing the transcript. Using it as a case material for the ISBA paper.
Presenting a paper (earlier version of the BAM paper) at the Hertford symposium (09. May. 2003)	Researcher Audience Notes	Feedback on the paper	Further thinking on the research.

Abbreviations: BAM: British Academy of Management; DoS: Director of Studies; MD: Managing Director

From Czarniawska's (1997: 21) narrative standpoint, fieldwork is an expression of the curiosity of other, about people who construct their worlds differently from the way researchers construct theirs. The fieldwork was undertaken with an emphasis on understanding the world of nascent entrepreneurs from their perspectives whilst they engage in the venturing activities. Hence, a number of qualitative methods were

triangulated to generate rich accounts of these real-world situations as they unfold naturally. The participant observation, in-depth interviewing and analysing business documents were the main data generation methods.

8.3.2.1 Participant observation

As an important aspect of the naturalistic inquiry, the notion of purposive sampling equally applies to selecting organisational sites, interviewing participants and observing situations. I have been interested in non-verbal elements of the research setting as well as interactions between the venture team members and other stakeholders in a wider community; and accounts and organisational discourse they were creating. Thus, observation had of a particular value in this research. This quality of observation is highlighted by Spradley (1980), Marshall and Rossman (1999), and Mason (2002). I sought to discover complex interactions in natural social settings where people continuously negotiated the definition of social reality.

Steyaert and Bouwen (1997) argue that participant observation does not only shape the inquiry towards certain types of data collection but also facilitates it. Observing a meeting, for instance, allows the researcher to come in contact with the evolution of the different voices as they develop and emerge in a living social context, expressing the construction of shared meaning (Gray, Bougon and Donnellon, 1985). As illuminated by Guba and Lincoln (1981):

> 'observation...allows the inquirer to see the world as his subjects see it, to live in their time frames, to capture the phenomenon in and on its own terms, and to grasp the culture in its own natural, ongoing environment....'(p. 193).

Observation can range from highly structured notation of behaviour to more holistic descriptions of events (Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Angrosino and Perez, 2000). Observations, like interviews, are likely to take different forms at different stages of the inquiry (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 275). Whatever the form is, it enables researchers to discover recurring patterns of relationships in the early stages of inquiry. After such patterns are identified and described through early analysis of field notes, checklists

become more appropriate and context sensitive (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). Later, they may become more focused as insights grow. This will be further illuminated in section 8. 3.2.3.

Nevertheless, the method has certain disadvantages: First, it requires a great deal of the researcher. Second, ethical dilemmas, discomfort and even danger, and managing a relatively unobtrusive role make it highly difficult (Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Silverman, 2005). Therefore, the question of 'which role a researcher is going to play' arises. These roles include observer as participant, participant as observer, complete observer and complete participant. The role of 'complete participant' entails complete covert research during which the observer, as a competently participating member of the social situation, is likely to generate a complete knowledge of the situation on one hand, to be hedged in by the expectations of the role she or he has adopted on the other hand (Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Walsh, 2004: 229). The 'complete observer' simply observes people in ways that avoid social interaction with the observed. This reduces the possibilities of people reacting to be observed or of 'going native' but introduces another problem. The observer, by not interacting with the people under study, cannot reach a fuller understanding of their talk or actions (Junker 1960 cited in Walsh, 2004; Bottorff, 2004). The 'participant as observer' role relies on a mutual understanding of a fieldwork relationship between the observer and the people being studied. This minimizes the problems of pretence. The final role, 'observer as participant', shifts the balance in favour of observation over participation, which prevents the researcher from going native but restricts understanding because limited participation in social activities heightens the possibilities of superficiality, so that important lines of inquiry may be missed (Walsh, 2004: 230). I took a position somewhere between third and fourth roles at the outset of the fieldwork, where the nascent entrepreneurs and other pertinent social actors in the research setting were aware that the relationship was a field relationship, which relied on gaining access and establishing good working relations. Over the course of the fieldwork my role shifted more towards 'participant as observer'[11]. Walsh (2004) notes that

[11] This form of participant observation involved attending the venture team meetings; participating in the conversations when my opinions/thoughts were asked; and actively contributing to some of the

'participant as observer role' involves an emphasis on participation and social interaction in order to produce a relationship of rapport and trust. The problem, as Walsh (2004) and others (Gold, 1958; Bogdewic, 1999; Angrosino and Perez, 2000) have raised, is that it carries the danger of 'going native' through identification with the participants of the study. I believe that I overcame this problem by restraining the intimacy created in the social interaction by attempts to maintain the role of the outsider on the part of the observer. To put it simply, establishing rapport and good relationships with the participants always involved putting up appropriate boundaries. In Patton's (2002: 319) words, as the fieldwork progresses the intricate web of human relationships can entangle the participant observer in ways that will create tension between the desire to become more enmeshed in the field setting so as to learn more and the need to preserve some distance and perspective. That was a fine balance that needed to be observed during the fieldwork. Towards the end of the fieldwork, the team leader of the venture team that I observed, Denise, introduced me at a meeting where external attendees (external to the venture team I observed) were involved by using the following expression in a very convivial manner: 'This is Mine, from the University of Derby. She is working with us'. This was such an important moment for me in the fieldwork, which proved to me that I had established the rapport with the research participants. The expression she used 'working with us' also portrayed the venture team 'larger', which helped the nascent entrepreneur in pursuing the act of 'legitimising the enterprise'. This is the concern of Chapter 11 in which the analysis of the case account is presented.

The role of the researcher has its roots in the epistemological stance taken in the research. However, it provides an answer to the question of which roles are appropriate. The other question, which is frequently experienced by the researcher, is 'what roles are possible' (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). Fieldwork is permeated with the conflict between what is theoretically desirable on the one hand, and what is practically possible, on the other (Buchanan, Boddy and MacCalman, 1988). Therefore, it was constantly compromised by

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'brainstorming sessions' where the team of entrepreneurs discussed their ideas about a pitch to get the marketing campaign of the local university that I worked for.

the practical realities, opportunities and constraints presented by the research on organizations in general and on newly founded organizations in particular.

8.3.2.2 How to undertake observation?

Being a participant observer raises a number of ethical issues which extend beyond formal consent to the research (The formal consent was warranted through signing a confidentiality agreement for the case account, KBrandArt. It has not been included as an appendix because the agreement reveals the actual name of the company). Before the research began, I contemplated various options and decided that the best way to undertake participant observation both ethically and practically was to be as open as possible with the research participants (i.e. venture team and the incubator team). I thought this would enable me to be free to ask questions as the fieldwork progressed without creating too much suspicion. This strategy worked to a very limited extent because my insider knowledge of being a practitioner -working for an organisation- always made me conscious that what I was being offered of the team's world would be partially restricted. Simply because I was an outsider!

I was aware that my presence in the field might affect the behaviour of those being observed, especially the participants were aware of my doctoral researcher and tutor status teaching on entrepreneurial management course at the University. I felt that at times the participants responded to my presence in terms of what might be called 'ethical correctness'. I sensed that there were some occasions when the team members overtly displayed their moral adequacy as a consequence of being observed. My general impression was that the venture team members responded to me as a 'more educated' person working in higher education. I responded to them by showing curiosity, eagerness to learn and respect to their talk, activities, and engagements, by adhering to the ethical values and principles as a reflexive researcher, as explained in Chapter Seven.

I undertook the participant observation work mainly in the form of attending the venture team's weekly meetings, which usually took place on Monday evenings, as well as some

meetings where external parties, such as clients and the other members of the sectoral networking organization, were involved and work-shadowing. I took extensive field notes and identified recurring instances of some activity and interaction in one meeting and extended this to several other meetings to examine a hunch. This was an inductive process. However, as mentioned in section 7.1, this process also involves some deductive elements such as seeking contrary or confirming evidence to test out these hunches. This is similar to 'grounded theory' approach as will be explained in Chapter Nine. My training on conducting participant observation work was heavily influenced by ethnographic approaches in general and Spradley's (1980) framework presented in his well-known work entitled '*Participant Observation*' in particular. It is the concern of the next section to explain this framework and its use in the current research.

8.3.2.3 What and how to report?

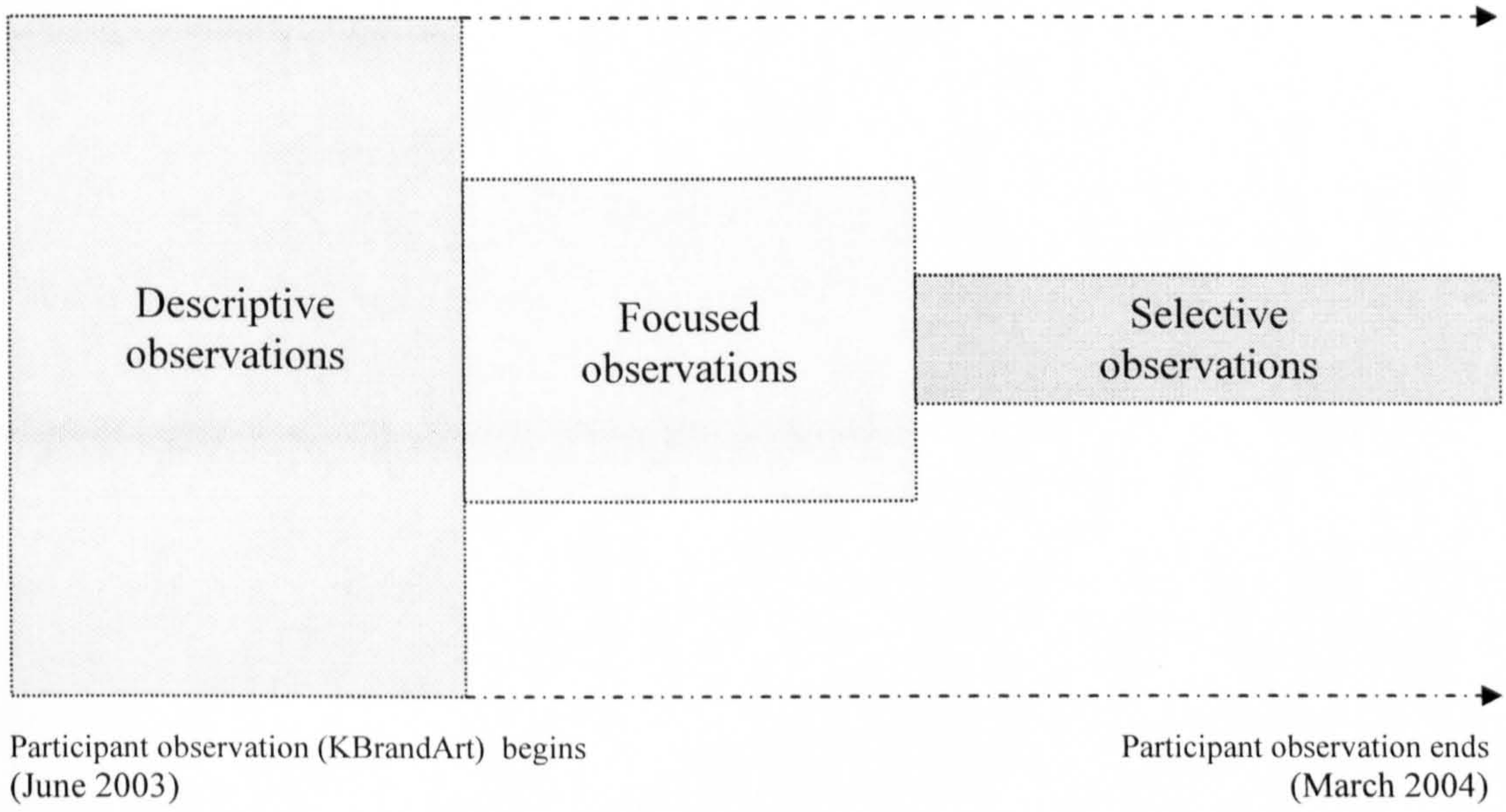
By means of participant observation, researchers observe the activities of people, the physical characteristics of the social situation and what it feels like to be part of the scene (Spradley, 1980: 33). Participant observation allows the researcher not only to understand how this sense-making occurs and unfolds as nascent entrepreneurs engage in enterprise activity, but also to participate in the construction of the social world of these entrepreneurs. The researcher becomes the primary research instrument by accessing the field, establishing field relations, conducting observation and interviews, writing field notes, reading documents, recording and transcribing and finally writing-up the research (Walsh, 2004: 228).

The participant observer aims to understand the culture, setting and webs of relationships. People's constructions of the world and self are essential to the broader practices of a culture-justifying, sustaining, and transforming various forms of conduct (K. J. Gergen, 2002:183). This resonates with the notion of 'thick description' that the American anthropologist Clifford Geertz (1973) introduced. Thick description helps the researcher open up the participants' world (nascent entrepreneurs' world in this research) to the reader through rich and detailed descriptions of people, contexts and webs of social

relationships that join people to one another (Denzin, 1989, Patton, 1990; see Denzin 2001 for a detailed discussion on thick description).

During the course of the fieldwork the researcher begins by making broad 'descriptive observations' trying to get an overview of the social situation and what goes on there. These descriptive data are recorded and analysed and this leads to narrowing down the scope of the research and yet making 'focused observations'. Finally after more analysis and repeated observations in the field, the researcher makes very 'selective observations'. These stages reflect changes in the scope of the observation as articulated by Spradley (1980: 34) in the following Figure 8.1:

Figure 8.1 Phases in participant observation based on Spradley (1980:34)



Thinking three phases of observation as a funnel, the broad rim of the funnel comprises descriptive observations (Spradley, 1980). Every participant observation entails description of major features of all social situations- place, actor and activities. The level of breadth and depth vary at different phases of the observation (i.e. descriptive, focused and selective). However, three dimensions remain central. Expanding on this, Spradley (1980) offers a total of nine interrelated dimensions in every social situation as illustrated

by Table 8.1. Once the descriptive qualities of the phenomenon under study are gathered, one can move to the focused observations, which call for narrowing down the scope of what you are looking for. This requires looking at the flow of interactions and handling the business activities - depending on the roles - among the members of the venture team when observing the venture team meetings and paying attention to the changes in the thinking and acting patterns in the subsequent meetings. Finally selective observations represent the narrowest focus that involves looking for differences among the categories created in the previous phases. As discussed in section 8.3.2.1, the idea of participant observation involving three stages and the activities in each stage supports the view that any naturalistic inquiry takes an overall inductive approach (i.e. discovery approach) while 'grounded theory' elements of looking for supporting and contrasting data are inherent in the study.

Table 8. 4 Nine dimensions of social situations to be observed (developed from Spradley, 1980)

Dimension	Application in this research
Space: the physical place Or places.	Setting /Context: Detailed information on the surroundings that will allow readers to put the study in a larger context (In the case of KBrandArt: an independent office decorated in a way that reflects the collective identity of the venture as well as personality of each nascent entrepreneur; located in the Vernon Street of Derby which is in close links with the other local creative businesses; in the case of the R-Games, an office in the local University's incubator centre opposite to which the mentors' offices are located; and in the case of JV-Games two different contexts: offices of the parent company and design and manufacturing facilities and offices of the JV that accommodates members of the JV venture team who work on developing the product and associated services; in the case of incubator managers or enterprise educators interviews, the offices in the incubator centres or universities that are committed to).
Actor: the people involved.	Actors: Organisational actors that are the participants of the research (i.e. KBrandArt case: Nascent entrepreneurs and other key actors such as Derby City Council's representative at the meetings whereby the discussion of the formation of the sectoral networking organization was discussed; R-Games case: Nascent entrepreneur and her mentor; and JV-Games case: Nascent corporate entrepreneur, JV manager, and other team members as well as the Managing director of the parent firm).
Activity: a set of related acts people do.	Activities: Actions in a setting constituting significant elements of people's involvements (e.g. enterprise activities that the venture team members are involved, including daily activities of managing the venture as well as strategic activities of refining the business concept and shaping the direction of the business via different business opportunity routes).
Object: the physical things that are present.	Participation: Nature and type of actors' involvement in such activities (e.g. KBrandArt case: Venture team members' individual and collective construction of meanings pertaining to the activities engaged).
Act: single actions that people do.	Process: Sequences of such activities, significant events, flow, transition and changes over time (e.g. Process of setting up the venture, process of managing the daily and strategic activities, process of change underpinned by the development of entrepreneurial learning and managing of nascent entrepreneurs.
Event: a set of related activities that people carry out.	Relationships: Interrelationships among nascent entrepreneurs themselves (if a venture team), and those with other stake holders i.e. financiers, suppliers, customers, clients, mentors and enterprise educators.
Time: the sequencing that takes place over time.	Time period involved
Goal: the things people are trying to accomplish.	Aims: Objectives underlying the decisions and subsequent actions pursued by nascent entrepreneurs
Feeling: the emotions felt and expressed.	Meanings and values: The verbal production of participants' understandings of the situation (s) and philosophies behind such meanings/understandings that define and direct action.

These broad dimensions allow the researcher to classify and record what is being observed in a structured manner. However, I have not committed these to any so-called 'observation schedule' before the participant observation sessions. Croll (2004: 751) defines observation schedules as the means by which a researcher operationalizes the aspects of the social world that are the focus of the study. It requires allocating the aforementioned dimensions to pre-determined categories. This idea of a pre-defined observation schedule lies within the positivistic tradition. I therefore did not go into the field with such a pre-determined observation schedule. I took extensive notes of what I observed by paying attention to the setting, actors, activities, aims of the social situation (meetings in general), time period and interactions (mainly in the form of detailed notes of meeting talks) and letting any categories or patterns emerge themselves (Peskett, 1987). I did not tape-record the meetings. It would have neither been permissible nor practically possible in terms of transcription. The meeting talks provided enormously rich and useful data pertaining to the nascent entrepreneurs' construction of meanings, decision making and entrepreneurial learning over time (see Appendix V for an example to observation data summary sheet). I kept a fieldwork journal for each site whereby I noted all aspects of the social situation and the talks. Later I typed some of my observation data that included extensive recording of meeting talks. It is important to note the role of memory and recall here. I completed my fieldwork notes in the fieldwork journal by noting any thoughts, hunches or observations immediately after the fieldwork visit. And I did typing of the notes in maximum six to seven days.

8.3.2.4 In-depth taped interviews

If the observation allows us 'here-and-now experience in depth' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 273), interviews provide 'here-and-now constructions of people...reconstructions of such entities as experienced in the past; projections of such entities as they are expected to be experienced in the future' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 268). Qualitative interview is often described as 'a conversation with purpose' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 100). The main purpose here is to understand the world of nascent entrepreneurs from their point of view, as Kvale (1996: 1) puts it, 'to uncover their lived world'.

Interviewing is seen as a process of 'data generation' rather than collection because the researcher is co-producer of data as a result of an interaction between the researcher and the participants (Mason, 1996). In-depth interviewing was used and found useful as a research method for mainly accessing individual nascent entrepreneur's biographies, ambitions, values, involvement in the venturing process and future ideas or projects concerning the new venture- things that cannot necessarily be observed. Interviews enabled me to produce accounts of nascent entrepreneurs' perspectives on the entrepreneurial process in which they were engaged and the views of enterprise educators or incubation managers, who were interviewed to address the third research question (i.e. importance of enterprise education and business support) from a wider perspective. In-depth interviewing allows flexibility and yet the most compelling advantage, when achieved, is to reach a level of depth and complexity. In-depth interviewing enables the researcher to become attuned to subtleties in people's views, positions and perspectives and to respond accordingly, both at the time of interviewing and later in the subsequent analysis (McCracken, 1988; King, 1994). Interviews served the purpose of understanding the ways in which nascent entrepreneurs pursue their business ideas and construct their enterprise activities and social worlds. Similarly, interviews with the enterprise educators or incubation managers generated insights into the world of educators and business mentors and their understanding and enacting upon the principles of the enterprise culture in the UK, together with its institutions and funding opportunities.

8.3.2.5 What to explore at interview and how to undertake it?

In preparing for qualitative interviews, Lofland and Lofland (1995: 78) suggest asking the question 'just what about this thing is puzzling me'. Bryman (2001: 317) argues that this can shape the questions to be asked but, on the other hand, one needs to be careful not to start with too many preconceptions. Using an 'interview guide' enables a researcher to define areas of investigation broadly but not too 'specifically' as an 'interview schedule' would do. Making a useful distinction between descriptive, structural and contrast type of questions, Spradley (1979) emphasises the importance of the wording in a qualitative interview in developing rapport and eliciting information.

Referring to qualitative interview as 'in-depth, loosely or semi-structured interviews' and as 'conversations with a purpose', I conducted in-depth interviews, which were loosely structured around themes such as business venturing process, individual backgrounds (education and professional) and context. Therefore, I did not use 'interview schedules' whereby a formal schedule of questions are outlined and asked word-for-word in a set order during the interview. Instead, following King (1994: 19) and Patton (2002), I constructed an interview guide (see Appendix VI for an example to an interview guide) for each interview situation where I listed the topics to be covered in the course of the interview. An interview guide allows the researcher to be free to explore, probe, and ask questions that will elucidate and illuminate the subject (Patton, 2002). The topics were informed by my research questions and usually structured around broad categories from the theoretical frameworks used (e.g. three interrelated dimensions of process, context and politics from Dawson's processual framework in the early days of the research). My personal knowledge of entrepreneurial process and learning and informal discussions with people who have personal experience of the research area were instrumental in developing probing questions in the course of an interview. These people included the supervisors, other colleagues and scholars as well as some practising entrepreneurs. In carrying out the interviews, other than the common opening question, as mentioned in the ensuing paragraph, the topics were not always addressed in the order in which they appeared in the interview guide. Some of them were raised by the participant or I introduced certain topics where they fit naturally into the course of the interview. These were acquired skills that I had developed through my research trainings courses at masters and MPhil levels and practice during the conduct of the fieldwork for the masters dissertation.

Having the interview guide at hand, in the interviews with the nascent entrepreneurs, I usually started with an introducing question such as "Can you tell me about your experience of starting up this business?" or "Can you tell me about yourself and why you chose this route of setting up your own business?" and let the participant speak freely. I used probing questions such as "Could you tell me more about the funding difficulties that you just mentioned?" and specifying questions such as "What did you think

then....?"; "How did you act in that situation?"; "Would you act in the same way if you encountered a similar situation in the future?"; "Would you elaborate on that?" and "That's helpful. I'd appreciate a bit more detail". In the follow-up interviews with the key participants, I furthered the conversations by attempting to explore their perspectives on 'what it means to be an entrepreneur' or 'what is learning associated with as an entrepreneur or small business owner' and 'the learning experience around a critical incident'. Learning is a difficult subject to study through interviews. However, critical incidents technique (Chell, 1998, 2004) proved to be helpful in eliciting the participants' account of what the incident means for them in relation to their learning experience in business venturing as discussed in the following section. I tape-recorded the interviews and then transcribed the audio-tapes, which, I found, was a challenging and very time-consuming task (see Appendix VII for an example to a full transcript of an interview).

Before moving on to the critical incidents technique, it is worth noting the importance of being a skilled interviewer in order to generate quality interview material. It is important to learn how to introduce the research project in a way that engages the participants' interest and makes them willing to accept their role in the interview (Fowler, 2004) i.e. talking about their experience openly. Equally, it is important to learn to manage the interview process effectively i.e. phrasing the questions in an understandable and appropriate manner; being a good listener; being able to introduce probing questions as they fit; being able to deal with difficult interviewees, such as an uncommunicative interviewee; and ending the interview appropriately (see King, 1994: 21-24, for a detailed discussion on practical issues in carrying out qualitative interviews). As will be articulated in the personal learning experience section in Part Five of the thesis, I lacked some of these skills at the outset of the study. However, I learnt over the research period that effective interviewing skills are developed by practice and training. Therefore, it is important to acknowledge the need for improvement and make the efforts to learn from one's own experiences and those of others. On a related note, constructing an interview guide, carrying out the interviews, transcribing and analysing them are all highly demanding and time-consuming research tasks. Therefore, it is very essential that the

researcher has good organisation and time management skills in order to accomplish these tasks successfully and on time.

Finally, as with the participant observation there are ethical challenges in conducting qualitative interviewing. Interviews are interventions (Patton, 2002: 404) and the process of being taken through a directed, reflective process affects the interviewees and leaves them laying open thoughts or feelings about their own experience to themselves as well as the researcher. Adhering to the 'empathic neutrality' principle of naturalistic inquiry as laid out in Table 7.2 in Chapter Seven (p. 142) and observing the ethical standards of any research act, being respectful and showing openness to the participants' views without judgement was followed as a principle in undertaking interviews.

8.3.2.6 Critical incident technique

The critical incident technique, as defined by Chell (1998, 2004: 218), is a qualitative interview procedure, which facilitates the investigation of significant occurrences (events, incidents, processes or issues) identified by the participant, the way they are managed and the outcomes in terms of perceived impacts. The technique was originally developed by Flanaghan (1954) in psychology and rested upon positivistic assumptions. However, the ontological and epistemological roots of the critical incident technique, as developed by Chell (1998), lie within interpretivist approaches, which assume that world is complex and can be understood through human experience i.e. sense-making process undertaken by the researcher and the participants in the course of the research act, namely interview process in this case.

The critical incident technique is a tool that allows for developing an understanding of dynamic processes within social interaction[12]. Critical incident technique has been applied in entrepreneurship research by a number of scholars (e.g. Chell and Pittaway, 1998b; Chell and Baines, 2000; Cope, 2000, 2003, 2005; Taylor and Thorpe, 2004). The

[12] See Chell (1998) for an expanded discussion on the critical incident technique, which combines a detailed account of how to undertake an interview using the technique with some examples.

latter studies (Cope; Taylor and Thorpe) are in the domain of entrepreneurial learning as discussed previously in Chapter Six.

I used the critical incident technique as a supplementary method in qualitative interviewing rather than a central one. After the initial introductory questions and generic probes as and when necessary, I asked the participants to identify one or two incidents that occurred over the period of business venturing process. In the first two interviews, some participants were not able to comprehend what I meant by 'critical incidents'. I overcame this problem by changing the phraseology and asked them to identify any 'significant occurrences'. This expression appealed more to the participants, who connected with their lived experience more easily and started citing some key events with people, issues and processes attached to them. In the subsequent interviews, I chose to explain the technique in more detail before I posed the question. This worked better and generated interesting data. This should be considered as a part of the research training process during which I have learned that it is usually necessary to use non-technical language and provide an upfront explanation of the method before embarking on the interview. All participants in the research replied to the 'critical incidents' question by citing one, two or more incidents.

The most interesting aspect of using this technique in this research, which also marks the difference between this research and the previous studies (i.e. Cope, 2001, 2003, 2005; Taylor and Thorpe, 2004) that used the technique, was the exploration of different meanings attached to the same incident by different venture team members in KBrandArt case, as will be presented in Chapter 11. On a final note on the use of the critical incident technique in this research, the method served well to the purpose of addressing the first two research questions concurrently, facilitating the elicitation of the entrepreneurial learning experience around the key activities of the venturing process. The critical learning events were usually associated with the most crucial aspects of the venturing process such as securing funding, moving into an incubation unit or setting up the incubator outside an incubator and employing a brand manager, who is the first sign of changing direction and growing the business. These will be discussed in Part Four, case

accounts, in a more amplified manner. What is worth underlining in conclusion is that the use of this technique has its roots in the social constructionist grounding of this research where the venturing process and related entrepreneurial learning experience are viewed as taking place within the exchange of relationships that nascent entrepreneurs are engaged in.

8.3.2.7 Documentary analysis

Lincoln and Guba (1985) alert the researchers to the continuous triangulation of interview data with other sources. The sources included in this research participant observation and analysis of documents. The documents were in various forms such as the archival documents regarding the formation of the venture (mainly business plans), history of organisation (in business plans and press releases), current documents about the strategies, planning and operations, meeting notes and even internal memos. These varied documentary records constitute a rich source of insights into organisational life, as they are one of the principal by-products of the interactions and communication of individuals and groups, at all levels, in organisations (Forster, 1994: 148) in their natural language. In studying organisational phenomena, if our task is to make sense of things, to get behind the surface and disclose the underlying significance (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1987), the organisational texts are very significant instruments as we can interpret the hidden meanings, consequences and motives behind acts and decisions. The text that is implicit in a specific strategic direction, or the underlying themes, the meanings behind the metaphors of managers and the reasons for selection of certain words can enable us to recognise the crucial assumptions underpinning organisational culture, strategy and structure (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1987; Forster, 1994; Atkinson and Coffey, 1997).

Researchers need to identify who the target audience is for a particular document. The business plans written at different times in order to suit the needs of the situation (e.g. the business plan for the SHELL Live Award compared to the business plan to attract funding) and other documents such as meeting notes and internal memos or client presentation slides, all provided a rich source of case data to supplement observations and

interviews. Patton (2002: 294) notes how documents prove valuable not only because what can be learnt directly from them but also as stimuli for paths of inquiry that can be pursued only through observation and interviewing. For example, in the KBrandArt case, the way they defined the business in the business plan was different than the one in a client presentation slide. Therefore, I decided to explore this business definition issue at the following venture team meetings from each team member's perspective as they discussed to sharpen their product and service offerings and the business structure. The underlying issue shaping those conversations was the issue of how they define and redefine their business over time.

Documentary analysis has limitations: Documents may be incomplete or difficult to reach due to commercially sensitive information that is included. They may not make sense without the interviews or observations. Learning to study and understand documents and organisational texts as a source of data is a part of the repertoire of skills required for qualitative inquiry (Patton: 2002). More importantly, it is crucial to learn to combine these multiple sources (i.e. documents, observations and interviews) to provide a comprehensive account on the subject studied. Using a combination of data types, which is triangulation as an important and recurring theme in naturalistic inquiry, increases the trustworthiness of the research as will be discussed in Chapter Nine.

8.3.2.8 Keeping a research diary

Finally, a research diary is used as a method through which I recorded any thoughts; ideas; occasionally some data and analysis of data from the very beginning of the research. I kept two diaries: a research diary where I noted any thoughts, ideas or hunches about my research including the notes from literature and other secondary sources and a fieldwork diary, which I called 'fieldwork journal for KBrandArt' or 'fieldwork journal for JV-Games'. When I collected data in the form of tape-recordings of interviews or handwritten notes of meeting observations and talks in the field settings, I also usually took notes of my thoughts or a significant phrase from the conversation in these fieldwork journals as the participants talked through their experience. This enabled me to

add back some of the missing information by drawing some data from the fieldwork journals when converting them to write-ups. Another benefit of keeping such fieldwork journals was that after a field visit and the production of write-ups I reflected on what I thought the main concepts, themes or issues that I gathered during the field contact were, and reproduced them in the 'emerging themes' section that I created in these fieldwork journals. The research diary was very instrumental over the entire period of the research study as I was able to track the development of my own thinking of the research ideas and theoretical frameworks. It was enormously beneficial in conceptualising data during the iterative processes of data analysis and interpretation.

8.3.3 Writing-up phase: Exiting the field

Writing-up is an integral part of the research and an ongoing process throughout any research study. Through course unit assignments to fulfil the requirements of the research methods training, progress report and conference/journal papers, I was constantly engaged in writing-up activity. However, from April 2004 onwards I concentrated heavily on writing-up, that is to say, constructing the chapters of the thesis by drawing partly on my earlier writings. That is why I labelled the period between April 2004 and the end of the study as the writing-up phase, which was marked by a significant process of exiting the field.

The exit decision and strategy is an important one in any research. The major factors influencing the length of the fieldwork are related to the researcher's own resources, interests and needs. My doctoral project was a three-year funded one and at the end of the two and a half years I took up the lecturer post in Southampton as discussed in section 8.2. Although the fieldwork was almost drawn to the close in the period of April-May 2004, more selective and strategic data collection and analysis processes were carried out with a need to close the fieldwork. Having formally completed the participant observation sessions and interviews with the participants in the main case study, KBrandArt, I was in contact with them up until June 2005 during which we exchanged some ideas on the findings and documents. In the case of JV-Games, the fieldwork had

ended with the interview of the parent company's manager in February 2004. However, the case account, R-Games, was constructed through an interview process in August 2004. After I had started my new job in Southampton in June 2004, I attended a South East Enterprise Development Agency (SEEDA) meeting where I met Rosie, the nascent entrepreneur of the case and invited her to participate in the research because her case was an interesting one. This illustrates the idea that research is a messy process, not a linear one. The flow of research involves moving in and out of periods when the researcher is open to new inputs, generative data and opportunistic sampling to periods when the investigator is testing out the hunches, sifting ideas and fine-tuning conceptualisation (Patton, 2002). By the time I had finished the data collection and analysis in November 2004, I was convinced that I had reached 'conceptual saturation', in Patton's (2002) terms, from which point onwards new cases would not add much value to the research because the 'whole' was taking shape. There is always a question of 'how a researcher can know that by adding more cases she or he would not discover new ideas'. Given the practicalities of a research (i.e. limited time and other resources such as funding) as mentioned in Chapter Seven, a researcher has to make certain decisions pertaining to finalising the process of data generation. 'Conceptual saturation' involved a state where the repetitive themes and concepts began to emanate from the data. The remaining part of the period involved continual writing-up of case accounts, fine-tuning the research paradigm and literature review parts as well as constructing the methodology part. Naturally, the iterative process of communicating the draft chapters of the thesis with my Supervisor and revising them in line with her comments formed an important part of the process.

8.4 Conclusions to the chapter

Considering research as a process of organising our thoughts and findings to reach understanding, not an end in itself (Wolcott, 1994), this chapter has provided an account of the research process, conveying the activities, decisions and methods involved. A research study offers an opportunity to pursue a topic that intrigues the researcher personally. However, a narrowing down or slightly altering the topic may be required for

mundane, practical reasons. The practicalities including the nature of the research (i.e. funded research) and the resources available shaped the study as well as I did as the researcher, who has started with a scholarly interest and career aspirations and drawn upon her knowledge of the world, experiences and contacts.

In this chapter, I have presented a reflexive account of the research, starting with my background, current position and future aspirations. Key phases of the research have been outlined with a detailed discussion on the major research activities and methods of data generation in each phase. It is important to note the developmental nature of the research process during which I have not only framed the scope of the research by making choices and decisions pertaining to its breadth and depth with a consideration of maintaining the integrity and rigour, but also developed skills required to become a good researcher.

Chapter Nine: Managing Data Analysis Processes in the Fieldwork

9.1 Introduction to the chapter

Naturalistic inquiry relies upon an emergent design, in which successive methodological steps are based upon the results of steps already taken; they are not preordained (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The emergent nature of the qualitative research entails the concurrent processes of data collection and analysis. The tacit and iterative processes take place in the evolution of data gathering and analysis. This chapter explains data analysis processes involved in this research. First, a discussion on the nature of qualitative data is presented. Second, the characteristics of inductive analysis embedded in 'grounded theory' tradition are discussed. Third, 'writing-up process' that is integral to the data analysis is illuminated with reference to the application of Wolcott's (1994) framework on 'description, interpretation and analysis' (DIA). Finally, in line with the main qualities of Naturalistic Inquiry as explicated in section 7.3 in Chapter Seven (pp. 149-154), the methods used to establish the trustworthiness of the current research are presented.

9.2 What are qualitative data and how to handle them?

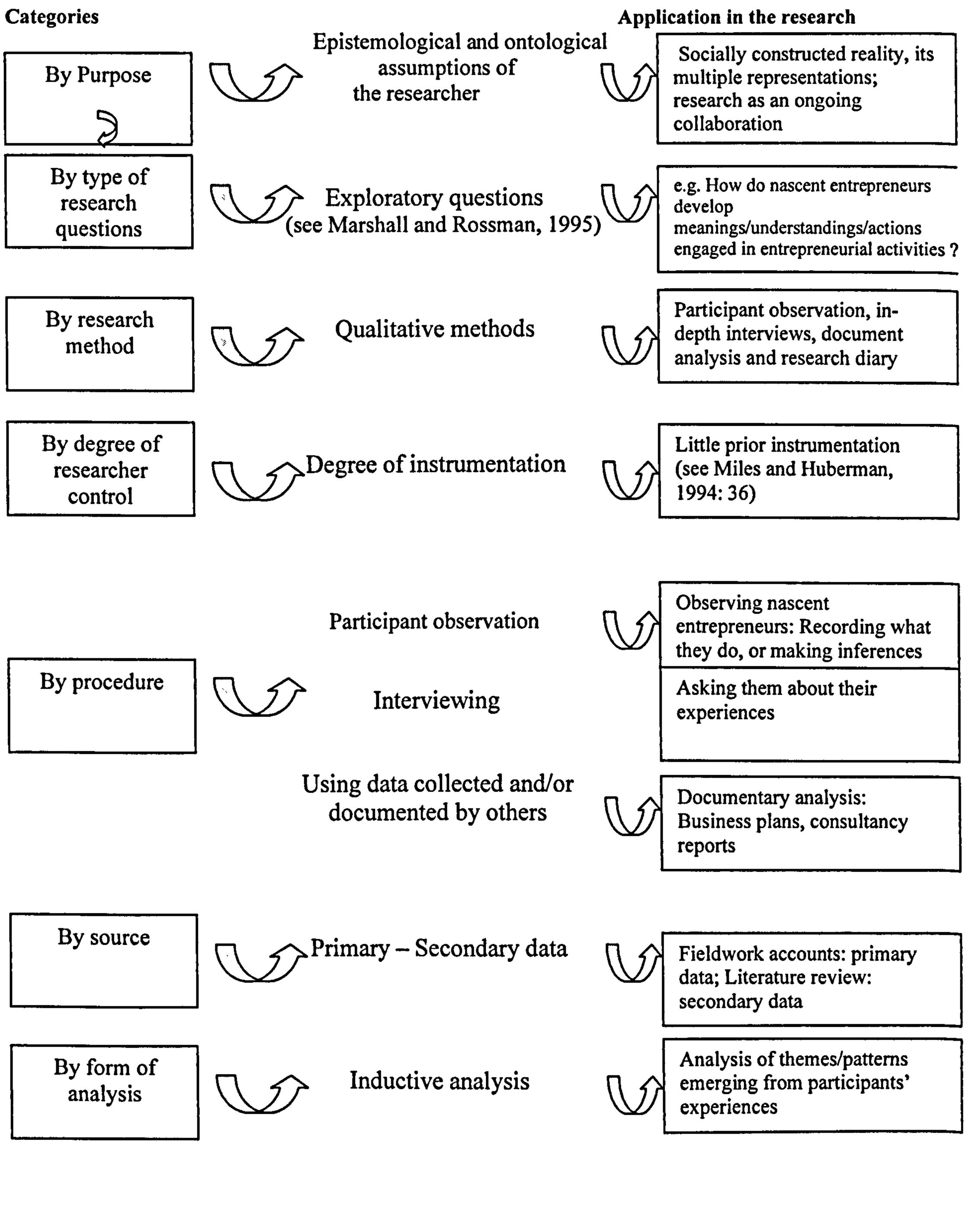
Operating within a social constructionist paradigm data are not viewed as given by nature but as stemming from an interaction between the inquirer and the data sources. The data are "*the constructions offered by or in the sources*" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 332). What we are looking for as data are based on several assumptions. According to Ackroyd and Hughes (1992: 3) they are rooted in the research questions: 'data, of whatever form, do not just appear or lie around waiting to be casually picked up by some passing social researcher but have to be given form and shape in order to qualify as data to a research problem...To be involved with data is to be involved within an inferential process, whereby the data, whatever their form and content can be created as 'standing on behalf

of' something else'. On a similar note, Lincoln and Guba (1985: 332) argue the following:

> 'Data are the product of a process of interpretation, and though there is some sense in which the materials for this process are 'given' it is only the product which has scientific status and function. In a word, data have meaning, and this word 'meaning' like its cognates 'significance' and 'import' includes a reference to values' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Data only become such when the researcher actively intervenes to attend to certain things to the exclusion of others (Wolcott, 1994: 3). This is in line with the following axioms of Naturalistic Inquiry as discussed in Chapter Seven: the human instrument, tacit knowledge and focus-determined boundaries. In the complex and multi-faceted analytical integration of rigorous social science, creative artistry, and personal reflexivity, researchers transform interviews, observations, documents, and field notes into 'findings' (Patton, 2002: 432). The data collected are processed to create knowledge and made intelligible to the reader by the researcher's data construction process, relying on certain ontological and epistemological assumptions, addressing specific research questions and using methods of analysis that fit with the overall methodological choice and research questions. A useful model is provided by Marshall and Rossman (1999), relying on Brantlinger's (1997) work on the seven categories of crucial assumptions about data. The following Figure 9.1 that is constructed based on the work of Marshall and Rossman (1999) illustrates these seven categories and their application in this research:

Figure 9.1 Categorising of data for the current research (developed from Marshall and Rossman, 1999)



The researcher's role is delineated as to reconstruct categories (in the form of key themes, explanations, concepts) used by participants to conceptualise their own experiences and world view. My task has been to explicate the ways nascent entrepreneurs in their particular settings come to understand, account for, take action, and otherwise manage their business venturing process. Their 'language' based on interviews, observations and documents, which were carried out in close proximity to their setting for a prolonged period of time, formed the data in this study.

Handling qualitative data refers not only to 'collection and analysis of primary data' but also the day-to-day management of the reading of literature, storage and retrieval of the data as the integral parts of the process. As suggested by Stake (1995) data management is a skill that comes with experience, however guidance is available in such writings as Miles and Huberman (1994), Denzin and Lincoln (1998), Lincoln and Guba (1985), Strauss and Corbin (1998), Patton (2002) and Silverman (2005).

Difficulties associated with qualitative data are well-documented in the literature (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002; Silverman, 2005). Qualitative data analysis is labour-intensive. Time demands, sampling adequacy, credibility and data overload are the major difficulties (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The large unstructured volume of qualitative data are rather difficult to analyse and this makes data analysis the most challenging part of any qualitative research. This involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting trivia from significance and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal (Patton, 2002: 432). Writing up is a part of the analytical process. The researcher's decisions as to what to report and how to report are all analytical choices.

9.3 Inductive analysis

Inductive analysis involves discovering patterns, themes and categories in the data generated, as mentioned in Chapter Seven. This can be achieved by becoming immersed in the data as advocated by Glaser and Strauss (1967) in their grounded theory approach: 'Being grounded' means that embedded meanings and relationships can emerge from observation, interview or documentary data (Patton, 2002). The analytical focus stems partly from what the researcher has learned from the published literature and ongoing discussions with the scholars in the field. This forms part of the tacit knowledge as one of the axioms of Naturalistic Inquiry, referring back to Figure 7.1 in Chapter Seven (p. 139). Describing tacit knowledge characterised as personal, context-specific, deeply rooted in action (Ambrosini and Bowman, 2001) one can argue that it is constructed by the researcher's practical experience of undertaking social science research including developing a sound understanding of the chosen discipline and research techniques. It is utilised in the research, cascading throughout the process (i.e. from purposive sampling to inductive data analysis and iterative process revisiting the emerging themes and literature until reaching the point of conceptual saturation).

Miles and Huberman (1994) list the common characteristics of analytical practices that are used across different qualitative research types. They constitute a set of analytic moves that can be arranged in a number of ways. Building on the naturalistic design and inductive approach taken, the way I have undertaken data analysis can be explained as follows:

- Producing interview transcripts and observation records (mainly reproduction of meeting talks and additional field notes).
- Assigning codes to a set of field material drawn from observations and interviews (see Appendix VIII for the list of codes used).
- Noting reflections and other remarks in the margins.
- Sorting and sifting through the field materials to identify reoccurring explanations, phrases; regularities; relationships between themes and patterns; and differences.

- Re-evaluating these patterns at the next field contact.
- Gradually elaborating a small set of emerging themes discerned in the data collected.

This reflects a typical qualitative data analysis process. In the current research, early thoughts and ideas from the interviews or meeting talks were annotated on the transcripts. Key phrases, sentences or blocks of data were highlighted by using marker pens, colour-coded to unpack emerging themes. Some of these themes were deemed 'key' and 'important' based on my understanding of the subject area and initial research boundaries. More themes were added as other areas of interest and relevance emerged both from the interview and observation data. These were all a part of the process of refining the focus as explained above, reflecting the researcher's commitment to engage actively with the data, published literature and discussions with the scholars in the field.

The interview (see Appendix IX for an example) and observation data summary sheets (see Appendix V for an example) were produced, conveying what was at that stage considered to be the most relevant and significant dimensions emerging from the interviews or observations. I used 'index card system', as described in McCracken (1988) and Easterby-Smith et al. (2002), to transfer 'meaningful chunks' of data onto cards. The index cards were traceable back to interview transcripts and utilised to identify earlier patterns. Later, they formed 'departure points' in analysing the data through NVivo. These meaningful data units were re-marked in NVivo by applying nodes. This process is called 'unitizing', using the language of grounded theory. Researcher deals with 'units of data' which are referred as 'incidents' in the constant comparison method. Having located a unit, it should be entered onto an index card (and entered in NVivo), which should be coded in multiple ways that may be useful for the particular inquiry (see Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Categorising is the next step whereby unitised data are organised into categories that provide descriptive or inferential information about the context or setting from which the units were derived (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Essentially, the method involves sorting units into provisional categories on the basis of

'look-alike' characteristics, which may initially be only tacitly understood in a naturalistic inquiry (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 202). Coding becomes crucial in categorising data.

A coding system was set up based on Miles and Huberman (1994) and revised continually during the data collection and analysis processes. The codes were applied to individual cases (i.e. nascent entrepreneur), observation materials (meeting talks) and documents collected. The codes were structured using Dawson's (1994, 1997, 2003) processual framework at the very early phase of the analysis. I should re-emphasise that even the most grounded approach depends on asking certain questions and forming analytical focus deriving from some theoretical orientation. Embedded in the social constructionist paradigm, the theoretical frameworks of Dawson (Processual framework-1994, 1997, 2003), Watson (Strategic exchange framework-1994a, 2001a, 2001b, 2002, 2003), and my understanding of entrepreneurship (mainly new venture creation and entrepreneurial learning process) brought focus to this study in its early phases. The shift from these frameworks to Bourdieu's conceptual tools at a later stage of the research (after the fieldwork was completed), due to a better fit with the research aims as well as social constructionist and process-relational nature of the research, marked a significant point because it helped me undertake thematic analysis across cases by establishing multiple layers of analysis (micro-meso-macro) and finally construct a multi-layered framework of nascent entrepreneurship from the case accounts. How the principles of the grounded theory underpinned this process in the current research is the concern of next section.

9.3.1 The 'grounded theory' approach and its application

The grounded theory approach provides systematic inductive guidelines for analysing data to build theoretical frameworks that explain the collected data (Charmaz, 2000; Patton, 2002). Glaser and Strauss (1967) developed grounded theory, coming out of their research together that investigated the treatment of people dying in American hospitals. It emerged as a reaction to a positivist deductive approach that was prevailing in American

social research of the time (Seale, 2004). In its original form developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967) there was an emphasis on the commitment to continual re-examination of data in light of developing arguments through 'constant comparison method', which is a systematic tool for developing and refining theoretical categories (Seale, 2004). A grounded theorist becomes more and more grounded in the data and develops increasingly richer concepts and models of how the phenomenon being studied really works. A simplified model of grounded theory involves three stages (Silverman, 2005: 179), as shown in Table 9:1, which correspond to certain principles underlying the approach.

Table 9.1 Elements of the grounded theory (from Silverman, 2005) and its application in the current research

Stages	Underlying principles	Application in the research
An initial attempt to develop categories which illuminate the data.	Inductive approach	Inductive approach to data analysis. (Chapters 9, 11,12,13)
An attempt to saturate these categories with many appropriate cases in order to demonstrate their relevance.	Conceptual saturation Constant comparison	Application of the constant comparison method in data analysis, leading to integration of data categories until reaching conceptual saturation in each case and across cases. (Chapters 9,11,12,13)
Developing these categories into more general analytical frameworks with relevance outside the setting.	Theory building	Writing the conceptual framework of 'multi-layered perspective to nascent entrepreneurship'. (Chapters 9, 14)

Strauss and Corbin (1990) provided a sourcebook for researchers as to how to apply a well-established method by applying some distinctive, technical rules and procedures. The second edition of their book (Straus and Corbin, 1998) formalised the procedure even more. They introduced three characteristic ways of coding data that include open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Seale, 2004). Open coding means making instances of data according to emerging analytic themes. Axial coding refers to exploring

the interconnections of coding categories. Selective coding is the stage where core categories are identified. These are explained in great depth in their books. This is where Glaser (1992) disagrees with his earlier co-worker, Strauss, by criticising the over-technical, rule-following approach that Strauss and Corbin take in their text. Glaser (1992) places emphasis on the centrality of the idea of constant comparison as containing the simple central idea of 'grounded theorising' (Seale, 2004: 244). Douglas (2005), in his application of the grounded theory in examining the human complexities of entrepreneurial decision making, suggests that the process of iterative theory building, whilst grounded in a substantive inquiry, holds the capacity to generate further research questions and tentative explanations at broader levels.

A number of criticisms of the grounded theory approach have arisen over time. Some have criticised grounded theory for its failure to acknowledge implicit theories (i.e. preconceptions) that guide research projects at an early stage (Silverman, 2005). Other critiques have focused on its limitation to integrate theory verification to the process (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995). Despite these critiques, the grounded theory approach, in its various interpretations, still works for some qualitative research and if applied with a certain level of rigour it enables the researcher to interact with data through self-awareness, self-criticism and openness to new ideas. In Seale's (2004: 247) terms:

> '...the spirit that lies behind the approach can be simply explained, and does not have to be attached to a naively realist epistemology, or indeed to an oppressive urge to force readers to regard its products true for all time. It demands a rigorous spirit of self-awareness and self-criticism, as well as openness to new ideas that is often a hallmark of research studies of good quality' (Seale, 2004: 247).

Juxtaposing objectivist and constructivist approaches to grounded theory, Charmaz (2000: 510) suggests that a constructivist approach to grounded theory reaffirms studying people in their natural settings and redirects qualitative research away from positivism. Her argument is threefold: First, grounded theory strategies need not be rigid or prescriptive. Second, a focus on 'meaning' while using grounded theory furthers, rather than restrains, interpretive understanding. Third, researchers can adopt grounded theory

strategies without embracing the positivist leanings of earlier proponents of grounded theory. Following this advice, the grounded theory approach has been applied in this research to the extent to which the naturalistic characteristics of the research embedded in social constructionism have been retained. This has meant in practical terms (a) identifying recurrent explanations, phrases, themes and patterns; (b) assigning codes to these emerging categories manually on the interview transcripts or observation notes first with an additional mechanism of index-cards, and later developing codes as 'nodes' by using NVivo; (c) integrating categories under subsets of themes and using these subsets of themes in constructing the case accounts; and (d) writing the multi-layered framework of nascent entrepreneurship as will be presented in Chapter 14. The following part delineates the use of NVivo in the current research.

9.3.2 Use of computer programs in analysing data: NVivo 1.3

As discussed throughout the chapter, the analysis of qualitative data involves creativity, intellectual engagement, analytical rigour and a great deal of hard work (Patton, 2002: 442). Computer programs do not carry out the analysis for researchers; they can only facilitate the work of analysis through effective storing and retrieving data, ease of navigating and browsing and data-linking mechanisms (Fielding and Fielding, 1998; Ryan and Bernard, 2000). Creswell (1998) suggests that the link between computer programs to analyse text and traditions of inquiry needs to be established. The impact of computer programs on qualitative data analysis, which lies at the heart of naturalistic data processing, is regarded much more modestly compared to quantitative data analysis (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 352). The limitations are considerable. First, as noted by Drass (1980 cited in Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 334), they function only to modify or retrieve data rather than to interpret or make sense out of the data. Second, it takes a significant amount of time for a researcher to learn how to use the programs (Fielding and Fielding, 1998; Patton, 2002). Also there is a tendency towards positivism in using computer programs because these programs are trying to systematize human experience strictly and deprive the researcher of engaging with data from an interpretivist or social constructionist standpoint.

I used NVivo version 1.3 at a later stage of my research after I had completed the manual data analysis. There were two reasons as to this timing: First, through my Research Methods training I learnt that a researcher should be capable of analysing and interpreting qualitative data manually in a rigorous way in order to use computer software to further assist this process. Second was more of a practical issue: At my previous institution, doctoral students did not have access to NVivo or any other qualitative analysis package as a part of the University's provision. I was sent to a training day provided by the British Academy of Management in March 2004. However, I was not able to practise it by actually importing my interview transcripts in the NVivo and run the analyses. After the transfer of my doctoral study to Southampton, I was provided with access to the software and further training on how to use NVivo as a part of the Faculty's Doctoral Training Programme.

I analysed the interview transcripts (of KBrandArt case only) through NVivo by revising the coding scheme according to a multi-layered framework, drawing on the works of Bourdieu as discussed in Chapter Two. I created 'free nodes' as well as 'tree nodes' such as 'micro-level individual (nascent entrepreneur) qualities', 'meso-relational qualities', and 'macro-level qualities'. Each tree node had sub-nodes underneath. I should note that I used NVivo in its most basic form. Learning how to use it took considerable time and effort. Getting started with data (i.e. preparing data for QSR NVivo and getting data into the NVivo project), coding (nodes), organising data, linking and searching (I mainly used Boolean search) are several steps involved in the process. Each entails very careful and lengthy processing of information as to how to utilise the software and practising. I learnt by trial and error. I have not reached the stage of modelling, which is the next step in my continual journey of becoming a social science researcher.

9.4 Writing-up the research: Use of Wolcott's framework entitled 'Description, Analysis and Interpretation' in constructing the case accounts

The fluid and emergent nature of naturalistic inquiry makes the distinction between data collection, analysis and reporting far less absolute (Patton, 2002: 436). The processed accounts are reported as case studies as the final products. Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose the case study as the reporting mode for naturalistic inquirers as it is the primary vehicle for 'emic' inquiry as opposed to 'etic' inquiry. Kenneth Pike (1954 cited in Patton, 2002) is the social scientist who coined the terms 'emic' and 'etic' in order to distinguish classification systems that anthropologists used in reporting their accounts based on (a) the language and categories used by the people in culture studied, an emic approach, as opposed to (b) categories created by anthropologists based on their analysis of important cultural distinctions, an etic approach. The main challenge for me in conducting the current research was to understand the nascent entrepreneurs' world by combining participation, observation and immersion so as to become capable of understanding the setting as an 'insider-outsider' while describing it to and for outsiders. Case study reporting enabled me to provide thick descriptions first, which 'create thick interpretations in terms of the local theories that are structuring people's experiences' (Denzin, 1994: 506). It is the most responsive form to the axioms of a naturalistic inquiry. It provides an ideal vehicle for communicating with the reader as it provides them with a 'vicarious experience of the inquiry setting' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 214).

There is a debate on the case study in the literature as to whether the case study forms a research strategy or a final product. Yin (1994) takes the stance that it is an overall strategy with specific methods. Stake (1994, 1998, 2000), on the other hand, adopts the approach that case study is not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied. Case is a 'specific, unique, bounded system' according to his approach (Stake, 2000: 436). In an eloquent way, Patton (2002) provides a discussion on cases as 'units of analysis' and the choice of cases is made during the design stage, which forms the basis of purposeful sampling, and revised later according to the richness of the data generated.

The purpose of the process is to gather and present comprehensive and in-depth information about each case that results in a final product: case study. The term 'case accounts' is used in this research to describe the cases constructed because the term 'account' conveys a stance taken with a view to presenting a rich and vicarious story of the participants.

Whether in the form of case study or not, the question of how to report qualitative data remains a central one. It finds some answers in Wolcott's (1994) book *Transforming Qualitative Data*. He draws a distinction between description, analysis and interpretation: Description deals with the question of "what is going on here"; analysis addresses the identification of essential features and the systematic description of interrelationships among them and interpretation engages with processual questions of meanings and contexts. His advice to novice researchers is to stay descriptive as long as possible:

> 'There is no best way to accomplish any of this. Doctoral students worriedly anticipating when and how to introduce their analytical or interpretive frameworks sometimes find the advice helpful to stay 'descriptive as long as possible'. This advice is biased in favour of the descriptive account while alerting students that there will come a point at which they will find it necessary to introduce something more than descriptive labels to keep the account moving forward in a purposeful way. Should even that advice prove too 'writerly', how about this: Tell the story. Then tell how that happened to be the way you told it' (Wolcott, 1994: 16).

It is significant to note an issue raised by Wolcott (1994) in moving from description to analysis as adopting frameworks which impose structure on the descriptive accounts. He argues that 'by having the framework in mind during the fieldwork, the researcher is assured that, when the various descriptive ingredients of the case are called for in an ensuing analysis, they will be at hand' (Wolcott, 1994: 20).

Based on this description, analysis and interpretation formula, he calls it D-A-I formula, Wolcott (1994) recommends three ways of organising and reporting data: One way is to stay close to the data as originally recorded. 'The final account may draw long excerpts from one's field notes, or repeat informants' words so that informants themselves seem to tell their stories' (Wolcott, 1994: 10). The underlying assumption is that the data 'speak

for themselves' (Wolcott, 1994; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Building upon the first one (i.e. description), a second way of organising and reporting data is to expand and extend beyond a purely descriptive account with an analysis that proceeds in a methodical, systematic way to identify interrelationships between key issues. Following the second or springing from the first, third way, he suggests, calls for interpretation. The researcher should pursue the aim of making sense of what is going on, to reach out for understanding or explanation beyond the limits of what can be explained with the analysis. Noting that description, analysis and interpretation are three primary ingredients of qualitative research, Wolcott (1994) emphasises the distinction, but also the overlap, between the three in transforming and presenting data. A balancing act between three components is required (Dexter, 2003).

Description, in the form of 'rich description' (Geertz, 1973) involves, in this study, telling the story of the nascent entrepreneurs participated in the research, based on their own descriptions of the business venturing journey that they went through. Interpretation is the stage at which 'the researcher transcends data and cautious analyses and begins to probe into what is to be made of them' (Wolcott, 1994: 36). The interpretation is idiographic as it should be contextualised in the setting, does not strive for, under Naturalistic Inquiry, generalisation. Interpretation is attained through a process of inference and inductive reasoning with reference to analytical frameworks used, the literature reviewed, peer-group checks, member checks and researcher's personal experience (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Wolcott, 1994; Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Patton, 2002).

Interpreting data in constructing individual case accounts and making cross-case analysis, working towards building a conceptual framework and drawing conclusions constituted a very crucial process in this research. It is important to note that interpretation has several dimensions. The first dimension is the participants' interpretation of the research and their approach in responding to the questions asked at the interview or observation setting. The second dimension is the researcher's interpretation of the data as discussed throughout the chapter. The third one can be considered as the 'readers' interpretation of

the research account. This does not negate the value of the interpretive research, but places the responsibility on the user of the research to retain awareness of the process, its implications, the nature of idiographic findings and the limitations of the uses of the research with regard to its potential application (Dexter, 2003: 144). The following table 9. 2 summarises the application of D-A-I framework in the current research with an objective to provide some guidelines as to how to read the case accounts in Chapters 11 to 14.

Table 9.2 Application of Description-Analysis-Interpretation (Wolcott, 1994) framework in this research

Components of D-A-I framework	What does it mean in this research?	How is it applied?
Description	Describing the story of nascent entrepreneurs' experiences of business venturing, with a focus on salient characteristics of each phase including conception, gestation, and fledgling new firm stages.	KBrandArt: Describing the story of nascent entrepreneurs in terms of their aims in setting up the venture, motivations, current roles in the venture team and future aspirations; describing the story of their collective business venturing process embedded in a macro web of interrelationships with other stakeholders. R-Games: Describing the story of the nascent entrepreneur with reference to her background to, and objectives in setting up the business, and the process she went through. JV-Games: Describing the story of the business venturing process leading to the formation of the JV-Games, including the role played by the nascent corporate entrepreneur.
Analysis	Organising and reporting data to expand and extend beyond a descriptive account of venturing process to provide a systematic account of interrelationships between key themes addressing the research questions.	KBrandArt, R-Games, JV-Games: Analysing the research accounts inductively, looking at patterns of themes and interrelationships between themes concerning the research elements and questions (see Table 7.1, p. 134), and constructing Chapters 11, 12 and 13 in two major sections including venturing process and underlying processes, with sub-sections in the case of KBrandArt and R-Games.
Interpretation	Inference and inductive reasoning with reference to analytic frameworks used (micro-meso-macro levels), within a broader scheme of the grounded theory approach taken in the research. Description, analysis and interpretation are interwoven processes, and integral to the grounded theory approach.	KBrandArt, R-Games, JV-Games: Interpreting the case accounts, by revisiting pertinent disciplinary debates covered in Chapters 4,5 and 6, and with reference to broader analytic framework constructed in Chapter 2 in relation to Bourdieu's work, embedded in a social constructionist paradigm. Constructing Chapters 11, 12, 13 and 14 as a result of this process, which is integral to the grounded theory approach. *** The case studies should be read by taking into account the D-A-I framework, which underpinned their construction.**

An important axiom of Naturalistic inquiry is to establish the trustworthiness of the research, relying on the basic principle of research being a collaborative process between the researcher, participants and readers. In addition to fulfilling ethical obligations of sharing knowledge and procedural advantage of adding credibility to the findings, further data are usually generated as a result of activities such as member-checks or peer-audit (Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Patton, 2002; Dexter, 2003). The next section discusses the methods used in establishing the trustworthiness of this research.

9.5 Establishing the 'trustworthiness' of qualitative research

Based on Lincoln and Guba's (1985) work, alternative criteria are provided by Patton (2002) for establishing the trustworthiness of qualitative research. Traditional positivistic criteria include internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Social constructionist paradigm and Naturalistic Inquiry as the chosen research strategy demand other criteria for judgement. Lincoln and Guba (1986: 76-77) proposed 'credibility as an analog to internal validity, transferability as an analog to external validity, dependability as an analog to reliability, and confirmability as an analog to objectivity'. In combination, they suggest that these criteria address 'trustworthiness' (itself a parallel term to the rigour) (Patton, 2002: 546).

Credibility refers to enhancing the credibility of findings through rigorous methods for conducting fieldwork and demonstrating the credibility of findings by having them approved by the constructors of the multiple realities being studied (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 296; Patton, 2002: 552). In application, it meant prolonged engagement with the participants, persistent observation, member-checks and triangulation of different sources (interviews, observation, documents and research diary) and data coming out of these sources. The member-check, whereby data, analytic categories, interpretations and conclusions are tested with members of those stakeholders from whom the data were originally gathered, is the most crucial technique for credibility (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 314). It may take the form of informal and formal checks, which are both valuable. The member check is congruent with the philosophical assumptions of the current research. If

we believe that the inquiry is value bounded, the values of the respondent must be considered. Believing that the context is significant in attributing meaning to data, it is useful to carry that assigned meaning back into the context for verification (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). 'If the issue is whether the analyst has successfully produced a reconstruction of the respondents' constructions, the best way to determine that is to take the reconstruction back to the respondents for their examination and reaction' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 351). Table 9. 3 summarises the strategies applied in order to meet these criteria in this research.

Transferability indicates application of research findings in other contexts. The findings of a qualitative research of this type usually illuminate a particular situation or small number of cases. As Patton (2002: 581) puts it 'but what of utility beyond the limited case or cases studied?' is the question that we are attempting to address by applying this criterion. Generalisability is not aimed for by this kind of research, relying on deeper philosophical and epistemological issues concerning generalisability as discussed in Chapter Two of the thesis. What Cronbach (1975) offers is an alternative strategy that is believed to be excellent advice for the qualitative researcher by some scholars (e.g. Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Patton, 2002). He puts forward the notion of 'working hypotheses' that are reached through describing and interpreting the effect anew in each locale and taking into considerations factors unique to that locale or series of events (Cronbach, 1975: 124). He adds 'when we give proper weight to local conditions, any generalisation is a working hypothesis, not a conclusion' (Cronbach, 1975: 125). Concurring with the advice of Cronbach (1975), Lincoln and Guba (1985, 1986) and Stake (2000), researchers should do justice to the specific cases through an appreciation of, and attention to, particularities of the context. In this way, one does a 'good job of particularisation' before looking for patterns across cases (Patton, 2002: 582). Lincoln and Guba (1985: 124) express this in the following way: 'The degree of transferability is a direct function of the similarity between the two contexts, what we shall call "fittingness". Fittingness is defined as degree of congruence between sending and receiving contexts. If context A and context B are 'sufficiently' congruent, then working hypotheses from the sending originating contexts may be applicable in the receiving

contexts' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985: 124). There is a caveat that the findings remain idiographically interpreted and yet can only be tentatively applied. The strategy for meeting this criterion of transferability includes providing 'thick description' as much as possible. The question of what forms 'proper' thick description remains unanswered. Lincoln and Guba (1985: 316) argue that it is not the researcher's task to provide an 'index' of transferability but there is an onus on the researcher to provide the 'rich insights' to the subject under study that make transferability possible on the part of potential appliers.

Confirmability and dependability refer to the characteristics of data that demonstrate confidence in process and outcome for internal coherence and external trust (Dexter, 2003) and they are attainable through audit trail and a reflexive journal (research diary).

Table 9.3 Establishing the trustworthiness of the research according to Naturalistic Inquiry tradition embedded in social constructionism

Criteria and strategies	Application in the current research
Credibility: a) Prolonged engagement	a) Understanding the culture and localities of the setting through prolonged engagement with the participants through participant observation; period of contact through return visits; and establishing rapport through interview style.
b) Persistent observation	b) Participant observation over a period of 10 months; multiple field visits to some sites; and immersion in data to identify salient patterns.
c) Triangulation	c) Use of multiple sources (interviews, observation and documents).
d) Member checks	d) Sharing interview transcripts, clarifying ambiguities and receiving comments; construction of a management report at the interim stage and later an informal discussion of the report with the venture team members; discussion of findings with the participants (in the KBrandArt case only) at the end of analysis.
e) Peer de-briefing	e) Dissemination of research approach and findings at various stages of the research through academic conferences and discussions with the Supervisors and colleagues in my social circuit.
f) Negative case analysis	f) Generating case accounts of R-Games and JV-Games as the venturing cases that took place differently (in a university incubator context or parent company context as the incubator) compared with the case of KBrandArt whose members set up the venture independently (outside an incubator).
Transferability	See Chapter 11, 12, 13 where the individual cases were presented with details of context and Chapter 14 where they are cross-examined by using dimensions of micro-meso-macro levels. Findings only potentially transferable, not for generalisation.
Confirmability and dependability	See Chapter 2 (Research paradigm) and Methodology Chapters (Chapters 7 to 9) constructed to illuminate and justify the research process. Retention of data for later checks. Rigour in doctoral process, including the discussion with colleagues and the Supervisors.

9.6 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter I have explained the data analysis processes in the research with reference to the axioms of Naturalistic Inquiry as set out in Chapter Seven. Inductive data analysis embedded in grounded theory tradition has been illuminated and it is all based on good practice, as described by Lincoln and Guba (1985), supplemented by other texts including Patton (2002), Wolcott (1994) and Miles and Huberman (1994) in order of significance in this research. Additional appendices exemplify methods used at different steps of the data analysis. Construction of case accounts and drawing conclusions from the research through cross-case analysis have been explicated by using Wolcott's (1994) framework of description, analysis and interpretation. It is suggested that data collection, analysis and writing-up are integral parts of the research process and they often take place concurrently. Data analysis and reporting reflect a delicate combination of social science rigour and creative artistry in qualitative research.

The 'worth' of qualitative research is checked against certain criteria that address the 'trustworthiness' of the research. These criteria comprise credibility, transferability, confirmability and dependability in the context of Naturalistic Inquiry and that of this research. Their application has been discussed in this chapter with a view to establishing the notion that the overall research process was subject to such an internal (and external to some extent) auditing throughout.

This chapter concludes Part Three, which has presented the research strategy chosen with a reflexive account of the fieldwork processes and that of data analysis and writing-up. This is followed by a brief chapter on the creative industries, which sets the industrial background for case ventures studied and forms the opening chapter of Part Four.

PART FOUR
DESCRIPTION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION
CASE ACCOUNTS

Synopsis

This part presents the case accounts of the research by using Wolcott's (1994) framework as explained in the previous part of the thesis. The creative industries context sets the common ground for all three case accounts. The business types fall under the category of the Government's definition of the creative industries in the UK. Hence, the first chapter of this part, Chapter Ten, is dedicated to a discussion of the UK creative industries with a focus on its growth potential through development of new enterprises. Chapter Eleven presents the venturing experience of five nascent entrepreneurs, which brought about the formation of the venture so-called KBrandArt in this research. This constitutes the principal case account and the other cases are constructed and used to juxtapose the themes and patterns that emerged from this prime case account. Chapter Twelve conveys a solo nascent entrepreneur's story, which is characterised by a business venturing process supported by the local university's incubator centre. The pseudonym for the venture she set up is R-Games. Chapter Thirteen portrays the final case account of the research, which is about a business venturing process led by a nascent corporate entrepreneur in collaboration with, and support from, the parent company's management. The venture is called as JV- Games in the research. As captured in detail in Chapter Eight, the construction of case accounts is worth noting here in order to provide insights pertaining to how to read cases in the following chapters. KBrandArt forms the main case account, which was generated by relying more on participant observation and interviews with the nascent entrepreneurs involved. Therefore, the case study portrays a richer, more comprehensive and reflexive account of the nascent entrepreneurs' experiences of business venturing, with underlying processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing. The second case, R-Games, was written, drawing on a lengthy in-depth interview with the nascent entrepreneur and observation of her interaction with her Mentor in the

incubator setting during the interview period. The third case account, JV-Games, was authored by utilising interview data based on two interviews with the nascent entrepreneur and one interview with the CEO of one of the parent companies. Observation was limited to observing the interactions of the interviewees with their co-workers in the settings, JV offices and parent company's offices.

What is worth knowing?
Philosophical debates

Part One: Foundation of the Thesis

What do we believe about the nature of reality?
Ontological debates

How do we know what we know?
Epistemological debates

How do we personally engage in inquiry?
Reflexivity debates

What questions should we ask?
Disciplinary debates

Part Two: Literature Review

How should we study the world?
Methodological debates

Part Three: Methodology Matters

What are the research accounts?
What insights into the subject have been generated through this research?

Description, analysis and interpretation
of the research cases
Part Four:
Case accounts:
Description, Analysis and Interpretation
Chapter Ten: Creative Industries in the UK
Chapter Eleven: Forming KBrandArt
Chapter Twelve: Setting up R-Games
Chapter Thirteen: Creating JV-Games
Chapter Fourteen: Tward a multi-layered interpretation of case accounts

What conclusions can be drawn from the study in order to address
the research questions?
What are the implications for academics and practitioners?
Part Five: Concluding Remarks

Chapter Ten: Creative Industries (CI) Context in the UK

10.1 Introduction to the chapter

The creative industries make a central contribution to the development of the economy by being one of the fastest growing sectors in the UK. At the heart of this economic activity lie original creativity, generation of ideas and their successful delivery to the market. The first part of the chapter is concerned with an outline of the creative industries in the UK as a part of the entrepreneurial field, of which all case ventures are a part. The primary case venture, KBrandArt, is located in Derby and the joint venturing case, namely JV-Games, is based in Nottingham and therefore the creative industries in the East Midlands is discussed in the second part, with an emphasis on the initiatives to foster the development of new enterprises and address the needs of creative industries businesses in the region. The solo-entrepreneur case is in Portsmouth and therefore the South East region is analysed in terms of its creative industries activity in the third part of the chapter. The chapter will conclude by summarising the key features of this industry that are likely to impact on nascent entrepreneurship.

10.2 Creative Industries in the UK

The creative industries are now well recognised for their contribution to economic development, regeneration and social inclusion in the UK (Leadbeater and Oakley, 1999; Heartfield, 2000; Brown, Creigh-Tyte and Radin, 2002). The distinct contribution of the creative industries was acknowledged in the Creative Industries Task Force Mapping Documents (Department for Culture, Media and Support (DCMS), 1998 and 2001). The Creative Industries Task Force was set up by the Labour Government in 1997 with an objective to increase the awareness of the economic importance of the creative industries. It provided a forum where government officials met leading industry figures to analyse the needs of the creative industries and develop policy across government to ensure their value to the UK economy was sustained and enhanced. The Labour Governments'

commitment to support the creative industries is being carried forward by the Creative Industries Strategy Group.

The first aforementioned Creative Industries Mapping document (DCMS, 1998) constituted the first attempt to define and measure the contribution of the creative industries to the UK economy and also identify the opportunities and threats they encountered. This document defined the creative industries as 'those industries which have their origin in individual creativity, skill and talent which have a potential for wealth and job creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property' (DCMS, 1998: 2). Under this definition, the following individual industries are incorporated: advertising, architecture, the arts and antique market, crafts, design, designer fashion, film and video, interactive leisure software, music, the performing arts, publishing, software and computer services, television and radio. The diversity in the sector is important to note as it impacts on the type of entrepreneurial activity involved.

On the conceptual level it is important to distinguish the use of the term 'creative industries' from that of 'cultural industries'. O'Connor (1999, 2002) problematises the use of the term 'cultural industries' by tracing its origin back to the Frankfurt School- and in particular Theodor Adorno- in the 1940s. The author discusses the contentious nature of the term due to the economic and cultural policy baggage carried over the years in Europe and in the UK. He notes 'how the autonomy inherent in the work of art was being undermined by its subservience to external economic rationality' (O'Connor, 2002: 1). Given this argument on incompatibility of the terms 'culture' and 'industries', 'cultural industries' are stated to be characterised by those activities that deal primarily in symbolic goods- goods whose primary economic value is derived from their cultural value (O'Connor, 2002; Hesmondhalgh and Pratt, 2005). Revisiting the aforementioned governmental definition (DCMS, 1998), the term 'creative industries' highlights (a) 'individual creativity' combined with arts skills; (b) generation of marketable products having the potential for wealth and job creation; and (c) development of such commercially viable products whose value lies in their 'intellectual properties'. It captures significant 'new economy' enterprise dynamics that such terms as 'the arts',

'media', and 'cultural industries' do not (Cunningham, 2003). By the dynamics of the 'New Economy' (De Cock, Fitchett and Volkmann, 2005), it is particularly referred to its increasingly global, networked and knowledge-based form (Castells, 2000). Cunningham (2003) posits that the trend differences can be summed up as creative industries charting a historical shift from 'public arts' and broadcast era media, which used to be reflected in the term 'cultural industries', towards new and broader application of creativity. The creative industries sector is benefiting from the characteristics of the 'new economy' mainly due to the technological innovation enabling interactivity, customisation, collaboration and networks. The relationships with customers and the public no longer rely on 'mass models' of centralised production (media) but hinge on customised approach. This is linked with the nature of the creative industries initiatives in the UK. As Flew (2002: 5) pointed out, a recurrent feature of the creative industries initiatives in Britain has been a demarcation between areas involved with mass production and distribution and therefore more directly connected to the specific market. Dynamics of the creative sector do not necessarily operate in the same way as for businesses in the economy (Brown, 2004). This implies that creative businesses are someway different than entrepreneurial ventures. This is not only because of the range and diversity of what may be labelled as 'creative business' (i.e. a business operating in creative industries) but also the nature of the creative work involved. There is an argument in the literature, which proposes that the creative sector is based on 'symbolic goods' (e.g. films, music, interactive leisure software, advertising campaign etc.) where value usually depends on the audience/customer finding value in their meanings (Bilton and Leary, 2002). 'Value', therefore, derives from audience perception, creative content and its 'commercial return', reiterating the recent emphasis from an entrepreneurship perspective.

The characteristic organisational mode of creative businesses is either micro-firm or small to medium-sized enterprise (Raffo, Lovatt, Banks et al., 2000; Cunnigham, 2003; Brown, 2004). This is mainly due to the creative nature of activities involved. 'Artist-entrepreneurs' need control over their creativity and the integration of innovation into their practice (Brown, 2004: 8). This culminates in freelancing and self-employment as

the most frequent types of employment in the creative sector and large concentrations of micro and small firms.

Since the first mapping work by the Government in 1998, the creative industries have become more prominent as the sector has moved into the mainstream. Creative industries constitute 7.9% of the UK's GDP in 2000 and creative employment in the UK totalled 1.95 million in December 2001. Whilst Heartfield (2000) downplays the economic significance of the creative industries, noting that these employment figures represent an insignificant proportion of only 5% of the working population, the second mapping document (DCMS, 2001), constructed by the Creative Industries Task Force, stresses the growth rate of creative industries in terms of workforce: Employment in the creative industries grew at a rate of 9% per annum over the period 1997-2001, compared to 1.5% for the whole of the UK economy. Providing an overview of the developments in the creative industries since the first mapping exercise, the second mapping document (DCMS, 2001) highlighted the developments at the governmental level (e.g. Creative Industries Strategy Group), industrial level (e.g. partnerships with the government such as the Music Industry Forum and the Creative Industries Export Promotion Advisory Group), and at regional level (e.g. regional development agencies and regional cultural consortiums working together). The document examined the concentrations, clusters and developments by region. The creative industries show great potential growth in virtually every region of the UK, often in areas where other traditional sectors are in decline. According to this analysis, London and the South East continue to be major magnets for the creative industries despite a growing recognition in the other regions such as Manchester. I should note that these documents are social constructions. They are laden with a strategic exchange of information on the creative industries in the UK that makes a case for creative industries.

There exist regional differences in the UK in terms of the development of the creative industries, and the associated issues and problems. However, the key issues pertinent to most or all regions in the UK include the need to improve business support agencies awareness of creative businesses and to supply appropriate support mechanisms, the need

to improve advice on available sources of finance and the need to strengthen existing, and develop emerging, creative clusters (DCMS, 2001). Currently there exist a number of players in each region leading the way in terms of strategy. They include Government Offices, Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), Regional Cultural Consortia, Arts Council England, and regional business support organisations such as Business Link. They constitute DCMS' key regional partners (DCMS, 2003). The recent developments in the sector, such as the establishment of the Creative Industries Development Service (CIDS) in Manchester, reflect a distinct policy change from traditional top-down types of economic support to a more bottom up approach (INO – Industrial Networking Organisation- Report, 2002: 9-Fieldwork document). The policy development places emphasis on supporting practitioners on the ground and seeks to build capacity, recognition and sustainability through encouraging the growth of networks and other contemporary forms of support such as investment-readiness programmes. As mentioned above, the creative businesses usually tend to be in the form of small and medium sized enterprises, micro-enterprises, freelancers and the self-employed. Through more targeted support, such as that delivered by creative industry specialists at Business Links or by other initiatives aimed at raising the profile of the creative businesses and addressing their needs, the recent policies and strategies puts greater focus on reaching these parts of the industrial structure, which have been traditionally difficult both to identify and support.

Given this background to the market forces and the governmental institutions of creative industries, it is worth noting the role of higher education. . Recent research has emphasised the importance of higher education courses and contexts that provide initial inspiration, a 'safer' environment to develop and experiment with creative ideas that might form the basis of future business activity (Raffo et al., 2000; Rae, 2004a). These courses should help enable students to experience how micro and small businesses in the creative industries operate and therefore they should be authentic and linked to the real activities of particular creative communities of practice (Brown, 2004). Incubation schemes are useful for collaborating and networking with others. Such contexts facilitate access to information, contacts and ideas from within a community of practice.

Encapsulating the arguments put forward by Raffo et al. (2000), Brown (2004) and Rae (2004a), support and guidance in the early stages of business venturing, bridging the gap between higher education and professional practice and that of between artistic practice and commercial enterprise – through situated learning and mentoring- and context specific training form the key dimensions in developing education programmes for nascent creative entrepreneurs.

Two of the case ventures in this research are located in the East Midlands and the third one is based in the South East. The concentration in the East Midlands is on architecture, advertising, film, publishing, TV &Radio, software, web design and Internet services. The South East is well known by its advertising, publishing, performing arts, interactive leisure software, art and antiques market, film and TV production sectors.

10.3 Creative Industries in the East Midlands

The East Midlands is an example to areas where traditional industries (i.e. engineering and transport) are in decline (CISD, 2002). The creative industries are identified as a key cluster by the East Midlands Development Agency (EMDA) in the 2001 economic development strategy. Since then a few reports have been published, which aimed to map out the activities in the CI in the region (e.g. CISD, 2002; Comedia, 2003; INO Report, 2004-Fieldwork document). According to one of these documents (INO Report, 2004-Fieldwork document), there are 12,375 creative enterprises in the East Midlands employing 79,395 people with a combined turnover of £6.9 billion. This represents 4.5% of all those employed in the region's enterprises.

In terms of the region's major towns and cities and the concentration of the creative industries, there are considerable differences in terms of sheer numbers but more uniformity in the spread between large, medium and small enterprises. Nottingham leads the way with 990 creative enterprises, followed by Leicester (712), Northampton (347), Derby (295) and Lincoln (183). In these cities almost 70% of the enterprises are micro-firms, 24% small and 3% medium and 1% large enterprises (Comedia, 2003). Two

largest sectors, in which these enterprises are operating, are noted as software and web design and printing and packing

The main case venturing process (i.e. forming KBrandArt) has taken place in Derby. Recognising that a balanced economy is the key to all successful cities, a creative industries strategy has been formulated at the city level in Derby for the growth of its creative industries alongside traditional industries. Having an engineering and transport heritage, there are a number of new industries growing in the city, including information technology, and arts and design. Embodied in the Creative Industries Strategy Draft (CISD) (2002) document, the strategy identified the key local issues and attempted to address these issues by supporting and fostering the growth of the local CI sector.

As in the other regions across the UK, there are a number of key players in the region leading the way in terms of strategy formation and implementation: the East Midlands Development Agency (EMDA as the RDA), Arts Council England and the local government. Alongside EMDA, Arts Council England is concerned with funding and supporting activities that develop and grow, particularly in the not-for-profit sector. Derby City Council (DCC) focuses on the possibilities for new business development and the way that the sector can help to generate new employment opportunities. To this end, there exist a number of collaborative initiatives between the DCC and the local university to run business incubation programmes (i.e. Banks Mill and Network House as university incubators) and to foster new venture development. Recent initiatives in the sector place greater emphasis on the growth of networks and various forms of collaboration and support such as business incubation and investment-readiness programmes. Through more targeted support delivered by CI specialists at the local Business Link, all initiatives seek to raise the profile of the creative industries businesses and address their needs.

10.4 Creative Industries in the South East England

The creative industries in the South East play a crucial role in the regional economy (DPA, 2002; Oakley, 2004; Holden, 2005). The South East has been the major magnet for the creative industries after London, which is one of the world's largest creative and cultural hubs, with easy access to European and international markets through Heathrow, Gatwick and the Channel Tunnel. According to the report (SEECC, 2002) commissioned by the South East England Cultural Consortium (SEECC) and South East England Development Agency (SEEDA), the South East's creative industries contribute an annual turnover of £46.5 billion and provide jobs for 560,000 people. The sector has grown more than any other region, including London, with employment increasing by 28.4% in the South East in 1995-2000, doubling the average for England as a whole. The South East and London together account for over 50% of England's creative industries employment (SEECC, 2002).

The South East is regarded as one of the most international centres of cultural and creative activity, which is underlined by the crucial importance of 'content origination' where the intellectual and knowledge assets of the region are created, adding very significantly value to the economy (SEECC, 2002: 2; Oakley, 2004). Fifty four percent of the region's creative industries workforce is involved in content origination. The region demonstrates similarity in terms of organisational mode to the other English regions. A very small percentage of large enterprises and a large number of small businesses dominate the sector as a whole. Fifty six percent of all firms generate an annual turnover less than £100,000, which is replicated in this sector across Europe. In line with the discussion in the preceding parts of the chapter, the small businesses being in the majority calls for the need for targeted business support and investment, which are tailored to the particular needs of creative micro and small businesses.

The location (i.e. being on the border with London) is a significant factor for the growth and success of the creative industries in the South East region. There is a symbiotic relationship between London and the South East creative industries, each region

depending largely on the success and strength of the other (SEECC, 2002; Pratt, 2004; Holden, 2005). Both regions also face similar issues in the creative industries (NESTA, 2005).

The SEECC report (2002) documents the production chain in the creative industries, having three major parts: content origination, exchange, and manufacture and reproduction. As highlighted above, content origination is the strongest part of the production chain in the SE with 70% of creative industries businesses active in this area. This is considered as the core function of the CI sector and lies at the heart of the knowledge-based economy. Exchange represents the places or moments when the creative product or service meets the market, the consumer, the end-user –i.e. venues, historic buildings, libraries, shops and very large parts of the tourism business. Manufacture and reproduction (equipment, plant, materials: printing, broadcasting and other forms of mass production) are the smallest components of the regional production chain (Evans, 2002; SEECC, 2002). Given the outline of the production chain, there are four major sectoral groupings in the region: (a) media and digital, (b) tourism, recreation and sport, (c) arts and design, and (d) heritage and information management. It is worth noting that in the SEECC report a broader definition of creative industries is adopted. In addition to the DCMS definition (DCMS, 2001) are sport, tourism, libraries, information and knowledge management, archives and galleries. As well as including these sectors, SEEDA and SEECC have further extended their list to include a cultural dimension of the economy and yet referred to 'cultural and creative industries' in their report.

The scale and significance of the creative industries for the South East region's economy are well-evidenced in a number of policy documents (e.g. the SEECC report, DPA, 2002; Oakley, 2004; Holden, 2005; SEEDA, 2005). A number of policy implications can be drawn from these documents. Framing these policy implications at macro, meso, micro levels, firstly, the importance of the region's economic and cultural development agencies working closely with other public and private partners is required in order to put in place structures, which will ensure that the needs of this economically significant sector are properly valued and addressed (DPA; 2002; SEECC, 2002; Oakley, 2004) at

the macro-level. Secondly, there is a need for the same level of political, economic and strategic support for the creative industries, as other better recognised and established industrial and service sectors (SEECC, 2002; SEEDA; 2005) and nascent entrepreneurs in the creative industries often need to rely on formal and informal networks to organise their work in order to broker both their own talents and the talents of others (Bilton and Leary, 2002) at the macro/meso levels. Thirdly, more attention needs to be paid to emergent forms of business organisations such as social enterprises where private sector meets public purposes i.e. commercial objectives overlap with social value creation (Holden, 2005) as a meso-level consideration. Fourthly, there should be more qualification-based career paths rather than informal, apprentice-based career route that is followed by many people working in the creative industries (Oakley, 2004; Holden, 2005) and this equally applies to entrepreneurial careers at the micro-individual nascent entrepreneur level. Access to higher education is fundamentally important as argued in section 10.2.

10.5 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter I have discussed the nature of creative industries as one element of macro-level dimension (field) in this research as the entrepreneurial activities of nascent entrepreneurs under study are embedded in the creative sector. Relying on governmental documents and recent research, creative industries have been defined and differentiated from cultural industries in terms of emphasis on creativity, exploitation of intellectual property, commercialisation of the creative work with a view to wealth and job creation. Creative businesses are different from entrepreneurial ventures in the other sectors of economy due not only to the wide range and diversity of the businesses labelled under the term 'creative industries', but also the characteristics of creative production and offerings and distinctive model of value creation. 'Value creation' usually means consumers finding value in the meanings of such symbolic goods involved such as films, music, and advertising campaign. Therefore value stems from consumer perception, creative content and its commercial return from an entrepreneurship perspective. These characteristics of the sector and different models of value and wealth creation entail an approach tailored to

the needs of creative entrepreneurs in developing business support and education programmes.

Through a number of regional players, the Government has acknowledged the need to improve business support agencies awareness of creative businesses, which are usually concentrated as micro and small businesses, and to supply appropriate support mechanisms, the need to improve advice on available sources of finance and the need to strengthen existing, and develop emerging, creative clusters (DCMS, 2001). The two of the case ventures in this research are located in the East Midlands and the third one is based in the South East. Therefore, the key features of the creative industries in both regions have been outlined. Despite some regional differences (i.e. concentration of different types of businesses, a better established sector in the case of the South East due to proximity to London and creative industries as one of those industries replacing traditional manufacturing industries in Derby), a similar approach can be taken in developing policies in order to foster creative industries in both regions. Putting this in a multi-layered framework (macro-meso-micro levels), the policy implications can be summed up as: Firstly, at the macro-level, the importance of collaboration between the regional economic and cultural development agencies working closely with other public and private sector organisations is essential in order to put in place structures, which will ensure that the needs of this economically significant sector are properly valued and addressed. Secondly, at the interface of macro-meso levels, there is a need for the same level of political, economic and strategic support for the creative industries, as other better recognised and established industrial and service sectors and nascent entrepreneurs in the creative industries often need to rely on formal and informal networks to organise their work in order to transform their creative work to a commercially viable one through value-adding entrepreneurial activities (e.g. writing business plans to attract funding, developing a sound understanding of intellectual property rights issues and innovation and entrepreneurial networking). Thirdly, more attention should be paid to emergent forms of business organisations such as social enterprises where private sector meets public purposes i.e. commercial objectives overlap with social value creation (Holden, 2005) as a meso-level consideration. Fourthly, there should be more qualification-based

career paths rather than informal, apprentice-based career route that is followed by many people working in the creative industries (Oakley, 2004; Holden, 2005) and this equally applies to entrepreneurial careers at the micro-individual nascent entrepreneur. What is the role of higher education? How effective are the incubation schemes and training programs? These areas need to be further explored. The following part presents three case accounts in the creative industries. Only one of them took place in a university incubator; the other two followed the path of setting up the business independently. In all cases it involved collaboration with other regional and national players and exchange of relationships that facilitated the business venturing process.

Chapter Eleven: Forming KBrandArt

A Story of the Venturing Process by Denise, Adam, Charles, Luke and Paul

11.1 Introduction to the chapter

KBrandArt is the pseudonym I use to represent this case venture. The case account is about the emergence and further development of a young creative venture in Derby by a team of five nascent entrepreneurs, who have shared different experiences but similar ambitions in life. In order to conceal the actual names of the people involved the pseudonyms were used as Denise, Charles, Paul, Adam and Luke. The venture team grew to six people during the course of the fieldwork as they employed a 'brand manager', Norman, whom they met through networking.

The venture team members, Denise, Charles, Paul, Adam and Luke, set up KBrandArt in Derby in 2001, as a multimedia design and production company, independent from an incubator context. They were all students at the local university, studying different subjects in Art and Design, such as video, graphic design, and music. KBrandArt was an extracurricular activity that existed separately from their coursework. Their aim was to expand on their already existing activity and develop a real business through a full-fledged venture, synergising the skills and competencies that each team member had. After just 10 months into the business, they won 'Shell Livewire Entrepreneur of the Year Award for Derby and the Midlands' and were also recognised for their team development by winning the Workforce Development Award (KBrandArt Business Plan, 2003- Fieldwork document). In terms of team roles, Denise has taken on the responsibility of being the Managing Director. Sales and marketing is Luke's responsibility. He is assisted by Paul, Adam and Charles who deal with development and research. The creative production tasks are allocated as follows: Charles leads the

interactive studio; Paul leads the music production department; Adam leads the design and imaging studios; and Luke leads the video production department.

They initially offered a comprehensive multimedia design and production service to businesses and organisations, such as marketing and promotional firms or departments, trainers and educators, and other creative businesses. Their client base was focused on in the leisure and culture industries, working with a specialist clientele providing bespoke, creative imaging and presentation solutions. This client base paved the way for expanding their portfolio to corporate and local government sectors. As the business started to expand, the nascent entrepreneurs felt the need to move out of their first offices in a business centre where a number of SMEs were located. They moved to their new premises in March 2003.

I met the team in their new offices in May 2003, with my Director of Studies (First Supervisor) at the time. We discussed the aims of my research via research protocol and asked for permission to be a participant observer in their organisation for a period of time. Denise, as the Managing Director, agreed that I could sit in their Monday board meetings where five nascent entrepreneurs discussed all issues, developments and activities pertaining to the development of their business. A 'Friday afternoon' meeting that focuses on creative issues was just introduced. The idea was to form a session where all projects, work-in-progress were laid out on the table to show off new ideas to the rest of the team or to present creative or technical problems, and seek help in resolving them. I observed them on their Monday meetings for ten months (June 2003- March 2004) by attending eighteen meetings in total. I went to their offices on Monday afternoons; stayed for 3-4 hours before the evening meetings started; and observed their daily interactions while dealing with the daily aspects of the business. I also joined three Friday afternoon meetings. I also attended three INO (Industrial Networking Organisation) meetings where a mix of creative companies and RDA officers participated. INO was founded by KBrandArt in July 2001, having identified the need to develop a supportive industry led network for the creative industries community in the region. As reported in Chapter Eight, the KBrandArt case account was generated, drawing on this fieldwork including

mainly participant observation, interviews with the nascent entrepreneurs and two other members of the INO to understand the views of broader venture community about the creative industries context, and analysis of documents such as the business plans of KBrandArt and INO, consultancy report for INO, meeting notes and some internal memos.

KBrandArt was explored early in its becoming process where the venture team members chose deliberately not to go down the route of starting in an incubator organisation, which is the common practice for nascent entrepreneurship in the region particularly in the creative industries, but developing the venture independently and leading a sectoral networking organisation (INO). Their story is presented in two sections in this chapter. The venturing process is described in the first section with a view to highlighting the dynamic and emerging nature, which is inextricably linked to the emergence of the nascent entrepreneurs involved. Key events, decisions and developments in different phases of the venturing process are discussed in this section, aligning with the stages and activities captured by Aldrich (1999) in his book *Organizations Evolving*, as covered in Chapter Six. The second section delineates the underlying processes, which are entrepreneurial learning and managing.

11.2 Venturing process

KBrandArt was developed as an independent venture while the nascent entrepreneurs were still university students. Interpreting the national and regional context of the creative industries in a different way than their counterparts, the members of KBrandArt followed a route of setting up the venture outside the incubator run by the local University. The following quote from the interview transcript with Denise, the Managing Director (MD) of the business, illuminates this decision and associated information search activities that took place during the 'conception' and 'gestation' stages (Aldrich, 1999: 78) of their business venturing process:

"As soon as we looked at the incubators such as NH and BM, we decided consciously not to go down that route. Even though you are creating your own venture through incubation, your client basis wants to see you as an individual. You need to be seen as an independent entity. You know, incubators have this 'cotton-wool type' of label...From an outside perspective, we consequently might have that stigma because we are graduates of the university and developed the company while we were in the university...So developing the team outside is probably messier than developing it inside an incubator. You have to go to the deep end. Most of the time it is a search of what is going on, what and how we should go about conducting this business. We had to deal with an awful lot of details when we left the university but it was a conscious decision. Probably it motivated us to target forward in terms of how we can develop the company, how we can organise it to a quicker start".

This was a challenging route of starting a business that did not involve much planning as in the case of business venturing in the context of an incubator. A team of art and design graduates, with a shared interest and complementary expertise, decided to develop their start-up activity to a larger and more structured operation, which is a full-fledged venture that forms the third phase of business venturing, namely 'infancy' period, according to Aldrich (1999). 'Conception' and 'gestation' periods are interwoven in the case of KBrandArt. The idea development (i.e. the idea of starting a business out of their activities at the University) and mobilisation of needed resources appear to be complex processes. As noted in Aldrich's (1999) study[13], the activities, during this process of nascent entrepreneurship, involved giving serious thoughts about business, looking for equipment and software, investing their own money in the business, seeking financial support, looking for premises to rent, receiving money from early sales (i.e. nightclub events, social events that they organised together as students), creating a new legal entity and organising the start-up team. Certain decisions had to be taken and implemented quickly. It involved prioritising, multitasking and coping with uncertainty, most of the time to the detriment of their personal lives, during the first two phases (i.e. conception

[13] See Chapter Six for a discussion of Aldrich's work pertaining to nascent entrepreneurship.

and gestation) of their business venturing process (between the years 2000 and 2003). Talking through their experience, Denise reflected further on the complex and emerging nature of venture creation as follows:

> *"There were many issues we needed to discuss. Financial, technological and other commercial issues. So it was a lot of hard work. You are committing yourself to something wholeheartedly, you are talking about personal investment, networking and long nights to work things out... We needed to prioritise things. The question of what is urgent becomes fundamentally important".*

Referring back to the conception (pre-establishment) phase, the venture developed from their experiences and ambitions during their time together as students at the local university (1999-2001). KBrandArt was an extracurricular activity that existed separately from the projects that they were producing for their degrees. They were doing live visuals, organising night events for companies and undertaking group exhibitions. As they were coming towards the end of their studies, they realised that what they were doing was commercially viable and contemplating various ways of taking it forward:

> *"We realised that what we were doing did have commercial viability and it was more experimental...We were attracting people genuinely interested in what we were doing. So, we sort of thought that this could well be something seriously we need to consider when we finish our degrees as a full-time venture. We had already created the name and we had the playing field and experimented it for three years..."*

In 2001 they had already formalised the business and hired an office in a business centre, which provides office-space for the SMEs at affordable rates. They carried out early activities of business formation (i.e. conception and gestation activities) in this office for nine months. According to one of the nascent entrepreneurs, the situation in the early

days in the business centre did not represent the best way of doing things and this formed a spur to move forward. The decision to move out from this business centre was made on a similar footing to the decision to start the business outside an incubator organisation. It was a collective decision agreed after a series of discussions amongst the start-up team members. The interviews or other discussions at the participation observation sessions did not reveal any tensions during this decision making process. It is understood that it was driven by the perceived need to become independent and portray an image of a dynamic, cutting-edge, young and creative company to the market. In Luke's words:

> "*There was a company that was interested in us, in this venture. They wanted to help us set up KBrandArt as a limited company by providing an office space and marketing and sales services in the sense that we could provide them and they could sell our services... When we left the University, we went straight into an office that these guys helped us find in the same business centre that they were operating in...In nine months time we realised that what they were looking for and what we wanted did not quite match. It was a dead end where they were trying to take us. We wanted to set up KBrandArt because we wanted to work for ourselves and be autonomous. We took control back and moved out after nine months…*"

When they started the business, it comprised of five "owner/managers who are all directors" according to the business plan that they were required to write in 2001 to participate in the ShellLive Award Competition.

> "*We all act as managers responsible for the daily running of the business, and as production staff for creating and producing the company's revenue earning output*"(KBrandArt, Business Plan, 2001).

Denise, who had the business acumen, became the Managing Director. Adam's title was put as 'Business Development Officer'. The titles of others (i.e. Paul, Luke and Charles) were stated as 'Directors' in the business plan. The management responsibilities have

been shared by the five entrepreneurs as follows: The daily operation of the business is Denise's responsibility area as the Managing Director. Sales and marketing activities are managed by Luke, assisted by Paul, Adam and Charles who deal with development and research. These decisions concerning the responsibility areas were taken in the gestation period (2001-2003) during which they were putting together the start-up team, drawing on their competencies. As with many other new ventures, these functional divisions between the members of the entrepreneurial team have not been strictly observed. The functional boundaries have been nebulous. In addition to this, the management structure has evolved over time as the business has grown and they employed other people.

In addition to the managerial domain of strategic development and day to day running of the business, the entrepreneurial team has shared responsibilities over creative departments in the firm (i.e. areas of production). Building on their respective expertise and skills, Luke heads the video production department; Charles leads the interactive studio; Paul is responsible for music production; Adam leads the design and imaging studios including print and published material; and Denise heads the account management and customer care. When they employed Norman as a 'brand manager' in 2004, he was assigned to work closely with Denise in managing client accounts in their portfolio, attracting new clients and further strategising for the business. Revisiting the definition of entrepreneurial process that is adopted in this research, as discussed in Chapters One and Five, these activities and roles map on to various aspects of the process including pursuit of business opportunities, creation of resources and management of the new enterprise. Some of the team members (i.e. Denise, Paul and Luke) have clearly displayed entrepreneurial qualities whereas some of them (i.e. Adam and Charles) have portrayed more of a 'manager-type' vision (Carland, Hoy, Boulton et al., 1984; Chell et al., 1991; Pittaway, 2000; Chell, 2002; Malach-Pines et al., 2002) as will be elucidated in the ensuing paragraphs.

Drawing on the triangulation of data from interviews, participant observation and documentary analysis, Table 11.1 illustrates a comprehensive analysis of the venturing process at the nascent entrepreneur level, conveying their background, how they view

their motivation and involvement in starting this venture, their current position with a historical account and future aspirations. The interview transcripts and interpretation of data were discussed with the nascent entrepreneurs involved in line with one of the axioms of Naturalistic Inquiry (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) 'negotiated outcomes' as outlined in Chapter Seven and the principle of 'member checks' as a part of warranting trustworthiness as explained in Chapter Nine. The presentation of Table 11.1 will be followed by a further examination of how the individual entrepreneurs made sense and communicated their motivations to start the business, KBrandArt, conveying a strong link with what they are aspired to attain in the future.

Table 11.1 KBrandArt: Analysis of the venturing process at the micro-individual level

Nascent entrepreneur	Educational background, main drivers to set up the KBrandArt, current position in the business and future aspirations.	Metaphor (s) used in envisioning the future of the venture
Denise	She is an art and design graduate with a specialisation in video & graphic. She is the Managing Director of the venture. She has the business acumen. She always wanted to set up her own business and be her own boss. She worked long hours during the start-up phase, to the detriment of her personal life. During all three interviews, she tended to talk about KBrandArt team rather than herself and referred to 'we' in describing the business formation process. She highlighted the notion that the KBrandArt team, the people, made it happen by pushing things forward and relying on all the shared skill sets. While they were university students, they organised events in the club environments and decided to pursue the 'event organisation' business. When they went to advisors with the whole idea, they realised that it was not commercially viable. That's how they decided to work on the business idea further and came up with this business opportunity for 'marketing agency business with in-house production'. It was sharpened in the first two years of their venturing process and evolved towards 'brand communications agency (strategy part) with in-house production'. One of Denise's abilities is seeing opportunities and getting people involved in the right parts of the job and at the right time. When she expresses her determination very explicitly to grow this business into a very successful brand communications business, she notes the need to tap on resources outside KBrandArt team: '*In this business we need to work in partnership with either companies and form a separate set outside of KBrandArt or working with freelancers who specialise in certain areas*'. She often refers to the importance of networking and yet INO (Creative Industries Network) is particularly pertinent and crucial in this context. She has been heavily involved in generating the idea for forming 'INO' in order to create a more comprehensive and gradually tighter networking organisation out of loose networking amongst people in the creative industries in Derbyshire. She attributes their current success to following a very challenging route of starting a business outside a business incubator and tackling with all the difficulties nascent	A tall building with many floors, curved with timber and glass and great views; and the KBrandArt team celebrating the success together with joy and laughter on the top floor.

	entrepreneurs face during the formation years. In her own words: 'We knew that the development of the company was not going to be plain sailing; it was going to challenge us and it still is. We are going to come up with things round the corner that we are not going to be aware of, that is quite exciting!'. She uses such 'energy' phrases such as 'excited', 'very interested' and 'passionate' very frequently. Talking through her feelings and emotions pertaining to starting the business, she said: '*I think in those early days when it was all new, and it still is now in the sense of company develops; new projects are taken on and a more sharpened direction is followed...when we first started even understanding how a business was run, that was really challenging which was on one hand quite stressful, but at the same time you got quite a buzz of it when you manage to get over the challenge. I think once you get that feeling inside you that get over little challenges as you are building up, there is quite a buzz attached to it, the real sense of pride, not really pride but a sense of achievement you get from it...*'. This reflects her enthusiasm, willingness to achieve more and is linked to her motivation for and sense of responsibility of driving this business.	
Charles	He initially started his education by studying civil engineering, following advice from career services at school due to his 'perceived' good numerical skills. It did not appeal to him. It did not 'suit him' in his own terms. Then he decided to study the Music Technology Engineering. Before he went to the university to study engineering, he was a portrait painter. He believes that creativity can manifest itself in all kinds of arts: painting, music etc. He thinks that music technology suited him really well because he believes he is a middle person, using his left and right sides of the brain equally. He was able to utilise his numerical skills in combination with creative skills. When he was a student he wanted to do something different and did not want to be bound by someone else's rules. It was a risky decision to make to get involved in forming KBrandArt because he hadn't finished his degree unlike the other team members. The main driver was 'independence as opposed to ownership' in his own words. He first started the audio department in the venture. However, he went through a real struggle for his department. He assessed the situation and decided that the	A peacefully working team of strong individuals who rely on each other for mutual support, have a strong sense of what is essential for success and lead productive lives-but not necessarily travel in straight lines…

market for music was not developed enough and it was unaffordable for a start-up company to wait and see how it would go in time. He quickly seized the opportunity for an interactive department that combines website, CDROMs and some aspects of music as well.

This move can be attributed to his personality traits such as being flexible, making speedy decisions and being able to harness existing skills with new ones.
With Paul, he is currently heading the interactive design part of the business i.e. web, CD ROMs and all the backend programming. The audio side of the business is starting to build up slowly.

Pertaining to his views of the future of the business, he stresses the importance of managing relationships with other team members of the venture. He notes that none of them, other than Norman who is the brand manager that was employed recently, worked in a professional environment before they set up KBrandArt. Therefore, they wouldn't know how to react to peers in most professional ways. Friendship makes it hard at times. However, he believes that it is manageable 95 % of the time because it is their business at the end of the day. He contrasts with Denise, who sees KBrandArt as a separate entity and yet should be respected as such, in the way he perceives their firm. He views the organisation from a relational perspective and says 'it is an entity but it wouldn't be anything without the people in it and the interactions among 5 people'.

He thinks a workplace should be challenging. Drawing an analogy between his girlfriend's job, who is a bank teller working in a small bank branch, he believes that trying to create something and getting moral and material satisfaction out of it should be an integral part of your work: '*Working in a bank branch and doing your tiny bit in a huge mechanism doesn't do any justice to what I want from work life, from life in general. I want to be a part of something that I created or helped being created. I see myself getting excelled at what I am doing at KBrandArt and contributing to growing KBrandArt in future. As long as I am satisfied with the creative and business side, then I am happy and will be in the business. I can't say more than this for the future*'.

Nascent entrepreneur	Educational background, main drivers to set up the KBrandArt, current position in the business and future aspirations.	Metaphor (s) used in envisioning the future of the venture
Paul	He is an art and design graduate with specialism in digital media. In the final year of his degree, he was already working with the current members of KBrandArt on club nights projects and decided to set up KBrandArt as a full time career after graduation. Developing the business idea and actually starting the business go back to those years when they were all final year students contemplating job prospects. The process of setting up the business was very experimental and 'self-taught' as they did not have any guidance or particular training in enterprise or business. He explains the reason why they did not go down the route of starting the business in an incubator centre along the lines of independence, more control over the business and their perceived image by the clients and market in general. All entrepreneurial activities involved in the venturing process they underwent were marked by the desire to be independent, he says. The current part of the process -at the time of the interview- steering the business in a certain direction is closely associated with autonomous decision making; controlling the image that they portray and the work they do; and the perceived need to grow the business. Within a context of emerging organization, he notes that everyone's role has been changing. His current role is in video production and interactive media side of the business. He is leading these divisions together with Charles. He gets involved in the creative thinking process leading to 'content origination' in their business. However, he believes his technical skills (i.e. all stages involved in video production and post production including script writing, story boarding, actual filming and directorial management) in video production are crucial for the venture. Related to the notion of being an 'implementer' in a team context, his contribution in the venturing process can be best explained by executing the start-up of the venture by harnessing the resources, usually deploying his social capital. Like Charles, he thinks that they make KBrandArt and he	An international business out front with us and with enough resources to develop all my brilliant creative ideas for further wealth creation.

	links his entrepreneurial identity with that of the business. Starting the business as friends in the University brought a more informal way of working initially, which resulted in low expectations from each other. However, they have always relied on mutual respect and trust in their undertakings, he argues. His future aspiration is to have a comfortable life that is secured by an incoming wealth through assets that he has built up. He views the business growing further as a creative strategy and production venture in the next five years in the particular context of creative industries, having a video and digital media production area developing rapidly.	
Adam	The courses he studied before his university degree were media-based. Later, he graduated from art and design with specialism in photography. The degree was fine arts based and centred on artistic and technical aspects of photography. He learnt various other aspects of photography by practising and extending his work to a more sophisticated level. He had to learn basic graphic design, illustration and desktop publishing very quickly in order to develop his work to a level that was commercially viable within the context of new venture that he was embarking on with his fellow students from the University. Before he started his art and design studies at the University, he knew that the job market lacked prospects for arts graduates. He was aware that there was a better chance of free-lancing. Rather than being a free-lancer and trying to wait for jobs to come along, he thought that it was better to be proactive and start his own business. He was not sure as to what form it would be and how he could achieve that. It was a turning point to meet the other members of KBrandArt and working together in a way that they were able to commercialise their artistic work by building on each other's skills and competences and start the venture, KBrandArt, as an extension of their final year activities and projects. He leads the graphic design and print-based (i.e. published promotion material) operations of the business. He has always played a key role in visioning the business and formulating strategies alongside Denise. He was very instrumental in writing the business plan for Shell LiveWire competition and also active in leading the formation of the networking activity (INO), relying on his	A clock that is intricate in its parts; carefully and neatly put together and perfectly functioning in application.

	knowledge pertaining to the structure, players, common forms of employment, types of businesses and characteristics of networks in the creative industries. He brings in various skills to the business: His creative thinking enables him to focus on branding and enhancing the brand identity of clients by '*turning real world ideas into graphical form, trying to look at things in a different way in order to get maximum potential of products for clients*'. Noting that each client is different and each project they work on is therefore different, he believes that a 'customised approach' and 'niche marketing' underscore their business activities. He thinks this business calls for synergising people's knowledge and skills in a very co-ordinated manner so that the projects can be fulfilled and delivered to the clients successfully and on time. He sees enormous potential in this business in general and in KBrandArt in particular and he aims to grow the business and at some stage establish other businesses with the rest of the team or of his own.	
Luke	He was a very creative person from childhood and wanted to be a cartoonist or architect. He went to the art college and he studied BTEC in Art and Design, which was a two year-course, and graduated with distinction in multi-media specialism. With a desire to learn more sophisticated combinations of video and photography, he went to the University of Derby and studied photography and video. He met Denise and Adam, who were on the same course. They studied the first year together and Luke chose the route of video production. In the first year of their studies, he got involved in forming KBrandArt as a basic company by providing service to people (holding various night shows or events) and by the time they reached the final year it was 'the obvious' to continue KBrandArt on a more professional footing: '*...when we were faced with leaving University, it was just the obvious; none of us had had the time to look into what careers we could actually follow because we had been doing university and KBrandArt and so it was like right I can't wait to finish University so we can concentrate on KBrandArt*'. He mentions that they registered the company in 2001 as soon as they finished their university degrees. Another company, Spectro Media, was interested in them, in their venture. Therefore, they went straight into an office which Spectro Media helped them to find in the same business	Me-flying from one place to another pursuing new business opportunities; enjoying working with people I like; and providing products and services that satisfies them and myself.

	centre (offices) that they were in. After nine months, they decided to take control back from this company and leave the premises that they provided in order to continue the venture independently as they set it up. He runs the video production department of the venture and finds it as the most creative part of the production they have. He is involved in conceptual, creative thinking stage of every project like the others. He highlights that every video project is completely different just as every client project is. He had to learn a lot and do a lot of development very quickly. The most challenging aspect of his work is dealing with all elements of video production, which is normally team work in video production companies. He enjoys meeting new clients and taking responsibility in 'pitch' meetings (i.e. client presentations where they pitch themselves for the project briefed to them). Understanding what clients want; communicating back what they need; and actually making that happen by seeing the project from start to the end combined with research and development that comes with that (looking into how other companies do it) summarise their business in its essence, according to Luke. He doesn't want to (and plan to) work in KBrandArt forever. He wishes to experience working in other environments; wants to get out of the country and work in LA (Los Angeles) and be a music video director. He wants to work in a place where he can combine his work activities with recreational (surfing and snowboarding mainly) and leisure activities.	

While celebrating the second year of their business venturing process at the time of the interviews, the nascent entrepreneurs reflected on their ambitions when establishing the business to create not only an individual space for themselves but also a 'collective voice', working together as a team, working with clients and other players in the field. Converging with Aldrich's (1999: 75) views of forming organisations, people construct organisations to accomplish things they cannot perform on their own. The elements of individual experience, knowledge of each other and that of the art and design world, and their constructions about each others' motivations and skills are at play in the decisions and strategies they make. As noted by Lindh de Montoya (2004: 59), decisions and strategies are embedded in the entrepreneurs' own personal beliefs and life philosophy, social milieu and position within it, their experiences and the narratives that they create in making sense of them. Relying on their individual knowledge and experiences as artists and designers in the creative industries field as well as their collective experience of starting the business in a business centre and getting assistance from another venture, the nascent entrepreneurs in this case decided to form the business outside an incubator or an environment of 'managed workspace' kind. Sharing a common interest in 'making KBrandArt work', they employed several strategies such as entering the Shell Live Award competition, having a 'marketing strategy' edge to their creative business with a focus on 'branding' in order to differentiate themselves from the competitor multi-media businesses. Keeping the 'production' in house was another strategy for differentiation from the other players such as advertising or marketing agencies, which usually draw on outsourced production of the advertising and marketing material and vehicle at the stage of implementing clients' chosen brand communications strategy.

Their projections of future that are linked to the motivational factors for start-up are worth examining. The nascent entrepreneurs used 'metaphors' (Morgan, 1997) to convey their ideas and perception for the future of the venture. Recently, Smith and Anderson (2004: 137-139) have provided a comprehensive account of academic work in entrepreneurship exploring the role of metaphor. The authors suggest that metaphors, as a part of the entrepreneurial narrative, often communicate moralistic messages. They are used to echo the underpinning role of moral actions within entrepreneurship, perpetuating

the importance and strength of use of metaphors in a wider societal context. In the current doctoral study, the nascent entrepreneurs were asked to make sense of their future through an image or a picture. The purpose of the questioning of this kind in an interview act was two-fold: Firstly, I wanted to facilitate their narrative construction about themselves because, having worked with the art and design students studying entrepreneurship, I came to understand that art and design graduates tend to convey their ideas and messages through objects, symbols or pictures more effectively. Secondly, I was aware of the powerful use of metaphors in organisational analysis (Morgan, 1980, 1997; Smircich, 1983; Chia, 1996b; Weick, 1998; Inns, 2002; Haslam, Posmen, Ellemers, 2003) and just recently in entrepreneurship research to my best knowledge at the time of the fieldwork and writing-up (e.g. Anderson, 2003, 2005; Thorpe, Gold, Holt et al., 2006).

As shown in Table 11.1, Denise's approach to constructing her KBrandArt narrative, which includes the motives for setting up KBrandArt, its present state and involvement in the regional creative industries sector, and its future reflects a remarkable clarity of her self-awareness that entrepreneurial process is a collective and emerging process with certain objectives relentlessly pursued. Denise described the future with a 'tall building with many floors and the KBrandArt team celebrating the success together with joy and laughter on the top floor'. This can be attributed to her dedication to the success of the enterprise as a collective entity. The 'many floors' suggest the stages that they have undergone and are still undergoing, reinforcing the developmental and phased nature of the entrepreneurial process. An entrepreneur constructs one floor after another. As she or he moves on building the layers of the work, the 'entrepreneurial dream' of 'reaching the top' becomes closer to attain. The construction of 'success image of KBrandArt' by Denise also reflects the way in which she personifies herself with the business as a high-performer or high-achiever. Denise's individual role in the venture can be best described as a 'strong leader' who adopts a participatory and transformational approach in her leadership. Considering the informal (i.e. their relationship as five friends) and formal organisation (i.e. the enterprise: KBrandArt) that are created and managed, she relies on 'entrepreneurial leadership qualities' (Kirby, 2002) in making the team work fluidly and

oriented towards short and long term business objectives during the business venturing process. The transformational aspects of her leadership pertains to 'boundary-spanning activity' that she is constantly engaged in creating the opportunity, for example, for the sectoral networking group leading to a formal organisation, and exploiting the corporate market with refined and sharpened product and service offerings. Taking a process-relational stance to defining entrepreneurship (see Chapter Five), these activities exemplify the notion of 'entrepreneurship as a process of creating', leading to a state of 'economic creativeness' (Anderson, 2005: 591).

Charles' view of the future is linked to his construction of the venture from a relational perspective, as featured in Table 11.1, and communicates his projection of future through an image of '*a peacefully working team of strong individuals who rely on each other for mutual support, have a strong sense of what is essential for success and lead productive lives-but not necessarily working in straight lines*'. Through this statement, he acknowledges the importance of 'working relationships between team members' and 'entrepreneurial awareness of working in a dedicated and focused manner with an objective to attainment of success'. This can be explained by 'brain' metaphor (Morgan, 1997), which focuses on complex interrelationships between parts leading a whole in an authoritative and productive way. His remarks (see Table 11.1) also reveal his mental models and drivers to get involved in setting up this business. A drive for 'independence', expressed as '*independence as opposed to ownership*' in his interview, and 'creativity' are the underlying factors, recognising that creative minds do not often follow linear paths. According to Charles, creativity should be at the centre of his work. Drawing an analogy between his girlfriend's job, who is a bank teller working in a small bank branch, his views can be explained by the use of a metaphor, 'bank as a machine', contrasted with a 'creative venture', like KBrandArt, which is an organic extension of nascent entrepreneurs' self as Art and Design graduates. Based on my observations of his actions during the meetings and daily conduct of the business, Charles' individual role in the team illustrates the role of a 'peace-maker' by showing the capacity to enact his role in facilitating the process of reaching a shared understanding of a particular situation, creatively framing the tensions between the nascent entrepreneurs over a decision. He

portrays more of a 'manager-type vision' in the team, using Chell et al.'s (1991) typology.

Paul's construction of the future involves his passion for an 'international business' in a lucid manner: '*an international business out front with us and with enough resources to develop all my brilliant creative ideas for further wealth creation*'. As reflected in Table 11.1, his future aspirations involve a comfortable life that is secured by an incoming wealth through assets that he has built up. The current stage in which they are operating can be best encapsulated in Denise's words as '*we have moved out from the comfort zone by embarking on this start-up activity*'. However, Paul, usually taking on the role of the 'implementer' in the team, has an ultimate objective of *'building assets'* over the years that would warrant reliable and constant 'economic capital'. Belbin's (1981) 'resource investigator' team role applies to Paul, as a nascent entrepreneur, who is constantly in pursuit of seeking and gathering resources, usually in the form of information and contacts. The entrepreneurial activities, in which Paul has been involved, has helped him develop entrepreneurial knowledge, understandings and actions. It is worth drawing an analogy here: The way he describes the start-up process as 'experimental' and 'self-taught' can be compared with the notion of 'learning by doing' as uncovered by Cope (2001, 2003, 2005)[14]. This learning element of the venturing process will be taken up in section 11.4.

Adam, leading the graphic design and print-based operations of the business, has always played a key role in visioning the business and formulating strategies alongside Denise. Rather than being a free-lancer and trying to wait for jobs to come along, he thought that it was better to be proactive and start his own business. He describes his meeting with the other members of the KBrandArt as a 'turning point' in his life because it paved the way for this synergistic team-work in order to commercialise their artistic practice by building on each other's competences. His view of future of the business is paradoxically mechanical: '*a clock that is intricate in its parts; carefully and neatly put together and*

[14] See Chapter Six for the discussion of his conceptualisation of entrepreneurial learning.

perfectly functioning in application'. There exists a strong emphasis on the 'whole' (the venture) that includes various parts (i.e. business lines and associated departments such as video, interactive design, graphic design as well as business functions such as marketing, finance, operations and personnel management), which were carefully engineered over the years. It is paradoxical because he recognises the dynamics of their business in the creative industries in terms of each client and each project being different and 'customised approach' and 'niche marketing' underscore their business activities. Despite the emerging nature of the business activity, he portrays a structured approach to conducting business, conveying an image of everything and everyone ticking along like clock-work. This is linked to how he enacts his role in the process of nascent entrepreneurship leading to forming and growing KBrandArt. By taking part in the steering group meetings of INO and reaching a wider pool of social contacts; and accessing key information and people, he enacts a role of an 'assembler'. Similar to Charles, he portrays more 'managerial' rather than 'entrepreneurial' characteristics in the team compared with Denise, Paul and Luke. His vision is rather mechanistic and conveys an image of a 'well-oiled machine' in describing the new venture.

Finally, Luke, relying on his creative faculties and interpersonal skills in his undertakings as a part of the team, he conveys a less ambitious but more energetic image talking through the drivers to get involved in this business venturing process: "*when we were faced with leaving University, it was just the obvious; none of us had had the time to look into what careers we could actually follow because we had been doing university and KBrandArt and so it was like right I can't wait to finish University so we can concentrate on KBrandArt*". He constructs the future in the form of himself as an 'entrepreneur': "*flying from one place to another pursuing new business opportunities; enjoying working with people I like; and providing products and services that satisfies them and myself*"". The metaphor of a 'butterfly' can be used to delineate Luke's construction of his entrepreneurial self. He brings positive energy and dynamism to the venture creation talks and actions by keeping an open mind to new ideas and portraying different images of possible futures to the other venture team members, constantly questioning the present leading to future. His individual role is very much of a 'questioner', 'challenger',

reflecting on the participant observation work that I carried out. His ego-centred vision has created tensions with the others at times. However, they seemed to find ways to move forward at the venture team meetings that I attended.

The central argument here is that discourses about future are related to the nascent entrepreneurs' past experiences, individual and collective construction of realities pertaining to the current and future state of the business, and the volume of capital that they draw on and aspire to attain. As argued earlier in Chapter Five, Anderson (2005: 596) suggests that entrepreneurship is about tomorrow, possible future states of being: '...each 'event' may be new and idiosyncratic', but it needs to have some basis in our existing meaning systems' and 'all action exists in continuity with the past, which supplies the means of its initiation' (Cassell, 1993 cited in Anderson, 2005). This will be further explained in Chapter 14, with reference to Bourdieu's conceptual tools, in the light of the notion of developing a dialogue between an 'established *habitus*' and 'emergent *habitus*'. The social constructionist approach taken in this research (as discussed in Chapter Two in relation to the works of Berger and Luckmann, 1966; Martin and Sugarman, 1996; K. J. Gergen, 1985, 1994, 1999; Chell, 2000; Nicholson and Anderson, 2005) has allowed these insights to emerge.

11.2.1 Transforming the business idea to a 'business opportunity'

As highlighted by the micro-level analysis in Table 11.1 (pp. 220-226), commercial viability of group exhibitions and other activities such as event organisations, which were carried out while they were at the university, sparked a business idea for a full-time venture. With different expertise and similar mindsets, they experimented with their group work for a while and identified that they could synergise their skills to embark on more serious joint project, which is setting up a creative media business with in-house production. The process of venturing is characterised as emergent, creative and iterative with low level of planning involved relative to the other two cases of the research project. This meant exploitation of contingencies rather than pre-existing knowledge about every aspect of the business development.

"We knew that the development of the company was not going to be plain sailing; it was going to challenge us and it still is. We are going to come up with things round the corner that we are not going to be aware of, that is quite exciting!" (Denise)

"I think in those early days when it was all new, and it still is now in the sense of company develops; new projects are taken on and a more sharpened direction is followed...when we first started even understanding how a business was run, that was really challenging which was on one hand quite stressful, but at the same time you got quite a buzz of it when you manage to get over the challenge. I think once you get that feeling inside you that get over little challenges as you are building up, there is quite buzz attached to it, the real sense of pride, not really pride but a sense of achievement you get from it..."(Denise)

'...when we were faced with leaving University, it was just the obvious; none of us had had the time to look into what careers we could actually follow because we had been doing university and KBrandArt and so it was like right I can't wait to finish University so we can concentrate on KBrandArt' (Luke)

The energy words that most of them used during the interviews reflect their excitement over the idea. Their belief in the teamwork, coupled with exposure to the relevant industry knowledge and contacts, has generated an active learning and can-do attitude. Although they did not follow a formal business incubation programme, 'the incubation period' that almost lasted for three years was very important to transforming the business idea to a viable business opportunity and to the development of their entrepreneurial competencies.

The business plan, which was written in May 2003 (KBrandArt Business Plan, 2003) in order to attract funding, articulates their start-up activity as a collective process:

"We have been operating KBrandArt for twenty two months. The business developed from our experiences and our shared ambitions during our time together as students at the University. KBrandArt was an extra-curricular activity that existed separately from the coursework that we were producing for our degrees...

Looking over the past, present and future of the business the passion has continued to grow for what KBrandArt is and what it is becoming. The dedication and hard work is transparent in both the work that KBrandArt produces and how the business has developed and grown....

The sustainable development of the business has been primarily through its people, community and profits in order to take the business forward".

The business plan notes the team won the Shell Live Award of the year 2002 in the region and was recognised for its team development. This background is then followed by their description of the business in the business plan:

"We offer a comprehensive multimedia design and production service to businesses and organisations that make it their business to communicate, such as marketing and promotional firms or departments, trainers and educators, and other creative businesses. Initially our client base was focused in the leisure and culture industries, working with a specialist clientele providing bespoke, creative imaging and presentation solutions. This base has opened up to include other markets, and we have now secured business in the corporate and local government sectors. In addition we service the multimedia and e-media industry as content providers, supplying photography, design, music, video, graphic design and illustration either on commission or as an agency for other creatives. We set our mission statement as follows: "KBrandArt offer a unique combination of cutting edge creativity and vision, with a comprehensive multimedia audio/visual presentation and production service to the increasing design-conscious commercial world".

This statement is interesting because it goes beyond a simple view of developing a multimedia business. They pride themselves on having a unique combination of skills i.e. creative artistic talents and marketing communications skills, which enables them to provide a combination of creative multimedia production and marketing strategy business. Drawing on the participant observation I conducted by attending the 'Monday board meetings' for ten months[15], as they call it, they underwent the process of sharpening their business and associated restructuring of the enterprise. As they have been always on the look-out for opportunities in the marketplace and strengthening their market positioning, they refined the business concept as 'brand communications agency with in-house production'. This will be taken up later in the following section of the chapter that discusses the social construction processes involved.

11.2.2 Social construction processes involved

Defining and redefining their business has been observed as a crucial part of their venturing process. At the team meetings, it was observed that the processes of sense making and developing understandings of the market, those of the needs/views of stakeholders (i.e. customers, suppliers, employees, the local community and government), and their own needs/rewards and future objectives as entrepreneurs facilitated the process of refining the business idea. The following narrative is an extract from the meeting talk notes and it illustrates the social construction process among these nascent entrepreneurs that form the venture team. In other words, it points out how a small team of nascent entrepreneurs construct, deconstruct and reconstruct meaning in relation to developing a venture through a generative dialogic process. As will be taken up later throughout the thesis, the 'generative dialogue' underlying venture creation and further development effort is one of the themes emerging in this research and concurs with the notion of 'generative characteristics of conversations' developed by Steyaert, Bouwen and Looy (1996), who studied organisational innovation as a joint

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[15] This included eighteen meetings in total during the period of June 2003-March 2004, as detailed out in Appendix III.

conversational event where new configurations of meaning are constructed in two case organisations as discussed in Chapter Six.

"[*Denise (D) opens the meeting by mentioning that Norman (N) has some agenda regarding brand positioning. Norman is the new addition to the team who has been brought in to help them frame the emerging business]:*

Norman: (introduces and explains the goal) Well, I have some form of internal document which sets out how we should talk about ourselves. What we do. How we do. Just looking at the process, KBrandArt Production's proposition is much clearer and clearly based in production in video whereas KBrandArt Studios' is basically in media. I see a number of issues here that you need to clarify. It is challenging but we should decide ..I started to say 'We' now. ..Going down that route, you should tell me 'hang on we are not confident' and we should find the way you feel most comfortable (talking to everybody).

Luke (L): That's why you are here to push us.

N: Yeah (soft laugh) First of all, I'm not sure what KBrandArt Studios does. Or KBrandArt generically. We are going out there and what do you stand for. We have got to be consistent in that respect. Consistency in how we present ourselves to the market offerings is a must. Then creating value strategically and creatively is the key issue in brand positioning. Production arm is very important and it is based in certain areas and it does underline your expertise. So, we can say we do these. All this brand communication stuff. But we have got the production arm as well.

[Denise (D) gives an example from one of the projects with a client. She reinforces Norman's view that the business should focus on the unique combination of creative marketing and production. She talks about how they can realise that by providing the technical side as well].

Norman (N) asks a question around the name 'Studios' to everybody:

N: What about Studios? Are you all comfortable with the name KBrandArt Studios?

Adam (A): Well, not really and we discussed this before but it is about the web site, isn't it?

D: You can still have the domain name.

N: I wouldn't be worried about the domain name. What we are, what we are offering through what is the key issue to clarify.

Luke (L): KBrandArt becomes the solution to the creative consultancy and productions is the technical side of it.

N: Where does the 'studios' fit then? I'm inclined to have KBrandArt and KBrandArt Productions.

A: KBrandArt does employ a range of activities.

D: But it doesn't cover the strategic studio.

N: It doesn't exclude it. At the moment, it doesn't imply it. When I am going to a meeting, I'm saying I'm from KBrandArt Studios because it is longer. Better than saying just KBrandArt. Then the implication is I'm from a media company or what?

D: The trouble for me, is KBrandArt clearer?

N: Adam is right. The name 'KBrandArt Studios' poses problem in people's minds. Something more strategic I'm after. I'm just thinking if it could work against us.

D: The whole future is very much on the people who we have. I mean the clients...[She does not appear to be sure of what she is saying...looking at the piece of paper in front of her]

N: Well, future seems to me lies in agency type of consultancy rather than studios. I don't think Studios implies that.

A: Lots of things happened in the Studios. So I don't want to ditch Studios but it might mean that it is mainly around the production. What about; is the strategy production and creation underneath? (Adam directs his question toNorman).

N: That's one of the things that I am coming to. We are not going to solve it here and then.

D: I've got to think in my head about how it communicates better

[She seems to be confused and worried. She turns to Adam and carries on talking]:

D: We should have 'KBrandArt' as the main name, Brands Communications Agency. Everything you produce is brand communications, a website or a video.

A: [replies] *Not exclusively. Everything we do is brand oriented.*

N: I think it is the issue of whether the name poses obstacles. Yes, everything we do is brand oriented but...[interrupted by Paul]:

[Paul (P) joins in the conversation. He is usually quiet and does not talk much at the meetings unless he is spoken to or he feels his interjection is necessary].

P: The question is should the name have to be explicit in that respect? (He is asking to Norman).

N: OK! If you take the name issue away for the moment, the thing is how much equity does it have? Are we going to use anything? Can we inject something into it? Does the word 'Studios' pose obstacles to where we want to be seen. (pause)

The next issue is it all about brand communication?

L: Well. Let's stick to the issue. What is brand? (asking to Norman)

N: [replies] *There is a wide interpretation of what a brand is. So, I would describe us as a brand communication agency...*

[Luke is not convinced and repeats his question]:

L: From what you're saying I don't get what your definition of brand is...

[Denise seems to be bored with all these 'conceptual talk' as she puts it at times when we have informal talks with her. She asks Luke]:

D: How do you define it then?

L: I don't know...Brand is about everything that touches the consumer...

[Talking to everybody but looking at Denise mostly, Adam argues]:

A: Your corporate identity in a way. Clients want us to produce campaigns of the highest creative standard to achieve their brand positioning or strengthening...whatever...

N: [replying in a reaffirming way] Yeah but the other thing is to deliver what you suggest. I mean the issue is to meld production side with the strategy side. So, rather than talking about disciplines like video, website, motion graphics or print design we need to also talk about marketing activities: advertising, PR, live events, digital marketing...Talking about those things support the fact that you guys are actually delivering the strategy side. We need to start talking about those things. Because what people want to see is that you are competent in this area. Two elements here: first, how we describe ourselves is the main issue...[interrupted by Denise]:

D: It is about selling a package that people can relate to.

[Denise reminds that they had this discussion almost a year ago but at that stage they weren't sure about what they were. Advertising agency or a brands agency or a creative production company? Norman continues]:

N: Why we need to be talking about advertising and direct marketing as well is because we are moving to the brand communications side. We are more than a creative production firm...

L: Are we? [asking to everybody] I am not quite sure.

D: [responding to L] We should be...When Freddie talked about the emphasis on the brands agency, I thought we might lose some of our advertising customers but we need to consider from whom we can get proper projects. Production side will continue...

N: Absolutely...It doesn't deny it at all".

This exemplifies the view of entrepreneurship as suggested by Anderson (2003, 2005) who describes it as a process of becoming. As discussed in Chapter Five, he argues that it is a transitive process and it may be recognised as enacting a future. Just as the

identification of the initial business opportunity, following entrepreneurial activities of refining the business concept, strategising for future and mobilising resources to actualise new possibilities are through their active engagement with each other and other stakeholders in the business community at large. With an intention to make sense of the venture community members' ongoing constructions of what is going on, one observation is that when engaging in the strategic matters of the business, such as steering the business towards certain direction as the above meeting talk conveys, they are simultaneously shaped by, and shape, their conversations in ways that allow them to proceed with the venturing process. Gergen and Thatchenkery (1996)'s conceptualisation of generative dialogue has the potential to be applied to this case study. They describe it as a meaningful interaction between parties as a part of a transformative process. The generative dialogue enables the participants, working collaboratively, 'to formulate models of understanding or action that incorporate multiple inputs' (Gergen and Thatchenkery, 1996: 368). Having the focus on the social construction processes, I observed the continual strategic exchanges between the nascent entrepreneurs through conversations at the meetings. This does not necessarily indicate that the members of the venture team, who take part in the conversations, have reached a shared understanding by the end of the meetings. There was a lot of woolly conversations. However, they seemed to manage to find ways to develop enough confidence to improvise and enact the business as a team. Certain team members (mainly Denise and Adam) were attempting to frame the process of creative thinking and conversing by steering the agenda towards accomplishing important tasks and thinking ahead. It is the collective enacting part of the process which cannot be separated from generative conversing. The actors involved in starting and developing the venture, KBrandArt, attempt to find ways to work together through exchanging views, interacting and constructing understandings about various issues of a venture. Paul, one of the nascent entrepreneur participants in this case, stated:

"Venture creation is such an iterative process that enormous effort has to be put in to ensure that whatever you are setting out is achievable. I mean the enterprise you're creating is going to meet the realities of the world, demands of your customers, your investors, your suppliers and even your staff. You're

continually reflecting on what you are providing to them and how you are doing this as well. Sometimes you have lengthy discussions about a problem or routine action between team members. But we get to some point eventually and move on. In this way, the decision you make or the way you act in one situation may be different than the previous one. To me, this is where you are putting your learning into motion and managing your business".

This reinforces the theme developed in this thesis that the venturing process is characterised by 'generative conversing and collective enacting' through which practical meanings and actions occurred between the venture community members spontaneously in the living responses to each other. Shotter and Cunliffe (2003: 17) describe this in organisational settings as 'it is the particular way in which we voice our utterances, shape and intone them in responsive accord with our circumstances that gives our utterances their unique, one-occurrent meanings...Put simply, meanings are created in the spontaneously coordinated interplay of people's responsive relations to each other'.

In an entrepreneurial context it is also associated with the idea of entrepreneurial managing as discussed in Chapter Six. What I have observed through my engagement with the research participants during the fieldwork observations (mainly venture team meetings) is that when the members of the venture community discuss their active jobs or opportunities as the two sub-headings of their meeting agenda, they are able to use their responses or the responsive instructions in the conversations to guide organising and assembling bits and pieces of information available to them. This parallels Weick and Roberts' (1993) conception of 'heedful interrelating' in a group. For example, they come to certain understandings about their relationships with each other, with their customers or regional bodies and try to identify different business opportunities. If nothing else, they are on the quest of networking opportunities to enhance their business. Focusing on the networking activity they engage in, the next section delineates how the nascent entrepreneurs in the case have joined wider communities.

11.2.3 Becoming a venture community: Formation of a regional networking organisation (Industrial Networking Organisation-INO)

Having different roles, complementary contributions or overlapping skills, the nascent entrepreneurs involved in the entrepreneurial activities of developing this venture, KBrandArt, sustain dense relations of mutual engagement and they become participants in other communities of practice through their involvement in the other tasks with the relevant parties to improve themselves. It therefore appears that the term 'venture community' is plausible to describe such a group of actors including nascent entrepreneurial team and other stakeholders. They perform their roles by joining wider communities at times and as Anderson (2003) points out stage their performances in ways that make sense to others. The questions of how they join other communities and how they deploy their social capital in order to obtain resources, ideas and raise the profile of their business in the larger business community find some answers in their networking approach.

As pointed out by Chell and Baines (2000), the strength of networking activity lies in the possibility of the individuals reaching actively and purposively outside their immediate close social circle and drawing upon information, advice, assistance from a large diverse pool. When the members of KBrandArt actively engage in such relational activities of networking through fellow entrepreneurs, friendship, regional and national business support agencies or customers, they see this as a fundamental part of both their personal change and that of the business. This is in tune with Johannisson et al.'s (2002) suggestion that collective innovativeness, flexibility and capacity is created by relationships between different agents in entrepreneurial settings. When reflecting on their involvement in initiating an industrial network named in this study as Industrial Network Organisation (INO), we had the following conversation with Denise:

> Denise: *"...there is a whole world outside. You have to seek out opportunities. Creating a business is about filling a gap in this industry. Creating INO is similar to creating KBrandArt. Filling a gap that exists because people do not*

*know each other. So we have seen the need to have a network within the region which could bring people together. Sixty-seventy five percent of businesses in the CI do not have office bases. That's a major thing in taking an active role in INO. If you are a copywriter or photographer or architect who work with your equipment and mobile phone, how do other people know about you? ...The network is about who knows who, so that who can help who? (*she starts drawing a figure on a piece of paper*). It is actually a big thing that you have got main figures, actors. Then you have other people around the central figure. In the network, it has got everybody tied into it. You have got to make sure that all these circles are connected and then building this person here and there who knows that person and that person...."*

Mine: "A sort of a relationship building?"

Denise: "Yes, exactly. It is basically a process...a process of creating something new. It is learning to do as well. And learning from those people who are more experienced, who have been in this business for a lot longer than we have. Or learning from each other when you come together by sharing different ideas, knowledge simply through chatting."

The INO has developed from the efforts of Denise and Adam, who strongly believed that they should give a shape to their networking activity, which should serve more than the purpose of forming strategic alliances. They initiated the network and put enormous time and effort in bringing the key players in the field regionally. The steering group included representatives from Derbyshire City Council (DCC), University of Derby, East Midlands Development Agency and other nascent and experienced entrepreneurs in the creative industries. Denise and Adam represented the KBrandArt.

INO is a good example of how KBrandArt team members are deliberately networked and trying to build this process of forming INO as a part of their own venturing process. In this way, they open up new business opportunities and give a structure to the networking activity in the creative industries by taking ownership of the emerging nebulous organisation. They have undergone a series of networking: They formed the venture by

growing into five people while they were at the University. That was a networking activity. And there were looser connections to people outside that small group of fellow students. They learned quite quickly of the need for networking with these other skills and expertise. 'Forming strategic alliances' appears to be the key activity throughout their business venturing process. It is important to understand the networking activity that these nascent entrepreneurs engaged in beyond the process of becoming a part of the network. It is also about leading a sectoral network organisation with a strong sense of ownership in order to raise the profile of the new venture. In an entrepreneurial sense, there was a higher order question involved: The question of 'whom do we need to ally in order to be able to take this business further' was coupled with 'how can we create a tighter network out of looser connections between people in the creative industries so that we will not only benefit from the networking activity but also be able to influence the future developments by taking the ownership of the initiative?'

The social organization of the enterprise relies on strategic exchanges of relationships with a number of stakeholders. When Denise and Adam, the nascent entrepreneurs of the case, had discussed the need for, and the possibility of, such a networking organisation that brings people in the regional creative sector together a while ago, the business owners, freelancers, representatives of the local government authorities (Derbyshire City Council, Business Link) and those of the RDA, EMDA, expressed their reservations and support at the same time. With KBrandArt's initiative, the first steps of the networking group were taken in the form of organising various meetings, forming the steering group and commissioning a consultancy project in order to better understand the realities of the creative industries and new business development in May 2003. The resultant consultancy report formed one of the crucial fieldwork texts in this study as used in Chapter 10 in order to delineate the regional characteristics of the creative industries in the East Midlands.

The following is an excerpt from my field notes reflecting on an INO meeting that I attended where the network members were discussing the possible ways of formalising

the networking organisation and organising the first public event in order to endorse the network:

"I learnt about this meeting just in the afternoon. KBrandArt team did not have their usual Monday board meetings for the last two weeks because Norman was on leave. His wife, Sarah, gave birth to their baby, Freddie. His picture, Norman holding him and looking very proud, was the main subject of the discussion we had with Denise and Adam when I went to the office last week to give my card and present for his new baby boy. I phoned in the afternoon. It was just one of my typical Monday morning or afternoon calls to confirm the meeting. Denise told me that they had the INO meeting and I asked if I could join. She said 'yes, why not'.

It turned out to be one of the most interesting fieldwork experiences. I was introduced to the attendees of the meeting by Denise as 'Mine, from University of Derby. She has been working with us for several months'. The way she used the phrase 'working with us' was very convivial and it certainly made me feel more comfortable as a researcher making observations and constantly taking notes.

I have been able to observe Denise and Adam in relation to people from different backgrounds with similar interests who gather around INO. Therefore, generating different discourses and interestingly playing different roles and portraying different images- different than the images that have been taking shape in my mind as members of the entrepreneurial team running KBrandArt so far.

The following is an effort to provide a narrative of the event with some important conversational aspects:

Denise(D) starts with apologies from Kelly (K- a small arts business owner) and then turns to Peter(P- a solicitor) who sits next to her and says:

D: It is your turn now.

P: Is it? Denise, if you want to.

Then he looks at Mike Kent (MK) who is sitting opposite to Peter (next to me) to make a start. Mike, with a confused look, asks 'Should I start?'.

Mike Kent (MK): Right. OK! I don't want to go through the minutes but it is important to mention a couple of things.

They have a one page A4 sheet in front of them. It lays down the agenda for the meeting with the people's names attached to each point/ task. So they are following the meeting agenda as set by Denise and sent to each of them in the morning. At the beginning of the meeting, Peter made a comment about receiving it this morning. Denise responded by saying 'Yes, as always I am very organised'.

The other document that they have is some parts of the INO consultancy report. Apparently, they have to decide on certain issues, which have been raised in the consultancy document regarding the structure of the new organisation, its legal status, the financial matters etc.

MK carries on:

MK: I copied the relevant pages this time rather than the whole thing. Simon, can you share it with Adam? I don't know why I have failed to have enough copies this time.

S: Fine.

Adam nods.

They start discussing the page entitled 'INO: Organisational Structure- Board of Directors). MK mentions the meeting he had last week with GOVEM (Government Unit of East Midlands). From that meeting, he brings in some regulatory aspects i.e. changes to legal requirements etc. Then he talks about organisational structure in terms of some amendments to the report. (As I understand they are going through the specific parts of the INO consultancy report to come up with a final document which will set the foundations of the new organisation and Mike was assigned to do this in a detailed manner at the earlier meeting). They look through the definition of the board of directors, which reads too broad according to Adam:

A: Do we need to be more specific about this?

(asking everybody)

P: Yeah, probably. And I think we should make the decision now as to what the definition should be.

MK: Right...

D: What does advocacy role involve? (asking Mike).

MK: Denise, basically it is more than giving some advice...(He quotes from page 18).

P: Is that what you mean?

MK: No, I've changed it. Two things really. What I was trying to do was to realise the responsibility of the chair really and add the advocacy role.

Martin seems to be uninterested in the conversation going on and he probes his opinion on discussing these details:

MR: In terms of funders, the specifics are not that important, are they? (asking to everybody in tone but looking at MK)

D: But things like remunerations...

MK interrupts Denise:

MK: I'll come back to that Denise.

D: OK! Cool.

P: How does paragraph 4 and 6 reconcile?

MK: I ponder that as well. I don't know how we will sort that out.

Now they all start paying extra attention to those paragraphs, reading them through.

Denise makes a joke about the writing style of the consultant. MK says:

MK: Paul tends to repeat himself, doesn't he? He has an ability of telling the same thing in three or four different ways.

Martin joins in the conversation saying:

MR: Yeah, 20 p for each word.

All laugh. They move on to the other appendix of the report which is INO financial plan. To Denise, it is important to know how much time they need to dedicate to INO when it starts operating:

D: I think there is a lack of grasp of how much time we need when this thing is up and running.

Mike agrees:

MK: yeah.

D: we are all professionals. One of the problems of these sorts of boards, people lack commitment because they do prioritise things. It is important to know whether the money is going to individuals or organisations...

They discuss this in relatively great detail. And this discussion leads to the legal status of the emerging organisation. As the discussion goes on and on Adam interjects:

A: Can we decide that at this stage we're not really interested in charity status?

S: I thought we are.

D: No, I don't think we are necessarily.

They move on discussing the specifics, regulations and implications of being a charity. They take the discussion forward and talk about the audit of INO accounts:

MK: I thought we are willing to open our accounts as a very nature of the organisation.

D: Yes, we are. We would like to be transparent and open.

They all agree. Then they shift the conversation to the wording of the financial plan. One decision they come up with is to replace the expenses with costs. They carry on with Appendix 6.2- funding costs. Martin identifies one point which is taken positively by the rest and yet they agree on the amendment as he suggests. They resolve the issue quickly on this matter:

D: Claps to Martin...

All laugh. Denise has been very positive and making jokes so far. Denise and Peter prompted the same question at the same time. Martin makes a comment stating that they are sharing the same brain. Peter responds ironically:

P: which is a bit worrying really because I think D has got a bigger one.

Martin, Peter and Denise laugh at this comment while the rest is reading the document.

They keep on talking the Appendix 6.2. word by word. Martin has been picking on things which are slightest details such as mostly unlikely should be most unlikely. They alter it accordingly. Then they move on to Table 8 and Mike reminds them that

they discussed this last time so his part of the meeting agenda is coming to an end but one final point remains: Consultant role?

Denise instantly joins after Mike's final words: consultant? Who and how? She starts informing them what she has done regarding her action point as set at the previous meeting and which constitutes the second item on today's meeting agenda.

D: After the discussion with EM Media, they are happy to dedicate one person as consultant. They also said they are also happy to help us to apply for extra funding. They will be able to give the money because they know the project from the beginning, they've worked with us. They know the report and they know that we know what we are doing and where we are going.

MR: This is one person one day a week?

D: Yes.

MK: Do we need to specify in this document that EM Media is going to provide this person?

D: I think so.

MR and P nodded. Agreeing with them MK says this is all he can think of at this stage and closes his session fulfilling his task as pointed number one on the meeting agenda.

They all appreciate Mike's contribution and thank to him. So what they have discussed so far is the first point of the agenda that Denise e-mailed to them this morning.

The other important issue is recruiting members to INO. This discussion is likely to take a while. They consent that delivering some tangible benefits will attract people to the website and subscribe to the network. Martin is very keen on these tangible benefits business. He goes on and on in terms of the implications of such things. The others remain quiet. Adam and Simon appear to be unconvinced with the ways Martin is suggesting to achieve this aim. Then Peter interposes and says 'let's leave it for now.

Denise says 'a clap to Peter. It was a bit chairing!. Slight laughter follows.

They go on talking the third item on the agenda: The main concern is private-public sector divide and appointment of directors accordingly.

P: We did discuss last time board being an interim board, didn't we?

MK: For 12 months.

P: Yes, maybe we should say in this document that directors will be appointed for 12 months. In short to medium term, INO will benefit having Martin as the director...

S: I am not sure. I just don't like the idea of Derby City Council (DCC) having a seat on the board which derives from a private sector driven initiative.. It is not about you personally Martin...

Seeming to be very keen on the post of Director, Martin tries to explain that he doesn't represent the DCC. Adam asks 'are you not an employee of the DCC'. Martin replies yes and no. Currently being the employee of DCC and holding this post, he says, doesn't mean that he will be looking at issues from DCC's perspective. Being the most convinced, Peter adds:

P: we obviously can say that hang on Martin. This view represents DCC and also we should be able to sack our directors, shouldn't we?

Adam puts his earlier question in a different way and asks whether Martin will still be an employee of the DCC when he comes and works one day with them on INO. Martin says yes and no and goes on and on about it.

Peter says 'we are not painting the devil on the wall here, are we?'. Denise says no. Playing the role of a mediator, she says 'on this matter it is important to get everybody's opinion and reach to some sort of agreement'.

They cannot reach a consensus at the end and moved on discussing the trading name, as Denise puts it, of the organisation. Martin says it is almost pointless to come up with an idea now. We should keep it as broad as possible. Denise makes a point about registering the company. Mike responded that so what is going to be the address of the company.

MK: I know we've got time for these things but inflicting on registration issue.

Mike puts emphasis on the reciprocal nature of this organisation. This discussion is followed by the one on the venue for next meeting. Denise talks about the nature of the event. She says she wants a broader appeal so inviting people across sectors and so on. Peter is focusing more on endorsing the INO as the main aim of the launch.

Final point on the meeting agenda was the minor amendments to the website. Adam takes over the conversation and elucidates some necessary changes.

Finally, Denise mentions the organisation called NESTA (the British Design Initiative) and she says she has been searching some alternative organisations and has come up with this. She gives brief information about it and says it could be something to further explore for future collaborations.

Simon made a final point and described the changing nature of CI working group, subgroups in DCC. How the subgroup was divided to two as workspace group and strategy group is the main issue. They all agreed that it is such an unnecessary move. Denise says:

D: Increasing bureaucracy nothing else.

S: Well, I think I've made my reservations about DCC clear by now, haven't I?

They agree that the date for next meeting is 2nd of March. They all appear to be happy about the time management of the meeting. Denise mentions:

D: Well, we've done well. Haven't we? Well done Peter as the chairman.

They all laugh and leave the office one by one. Martin stays a bit longer and discusses something with Denise by looking at a website.

The field-based work of this kind provides the opportunity to understand the emerging contexts in which strategic exchanges between stakeholders, which form the venture community, take place. Referring back to Table 8.4 in Chapter Eight (p. 164) where I discussed nine dimensions of social situations under observation, the analysis of the INO steering group meetings were shaped along the dimensions of context, actors, activities, participation, process, relationships, time period involved, objectives and finally,

meanings and values. The contextual base (i.e. KBrandArt's premises emphasising the values and objectives behind this initiative and welcoming the other stakeholders involved with fairly open and synergistic approach while at the same time reinforcing the ownership of the enterprise, INO) is especially significant to understand in an emerging business, where organisational members have shared histories and implicitly shared futures (O'Connor, 1997). The main actors, Denise and Adam, as the members of KBrandArt venture team, have shared a history together since the university years and they share a certain objective and a constructed view for future of their business and partnership. The other members of the INO involved in the steering group meetings have their own agenda and expectations from this networking activity; however, they gather around the table with a mutual objective and mission under the new organisational structure being created.

The efforts of the nascent entrepreneurs of the case, particularly those of Denise, and those of some participants such as MK, freelance copywriter, can be described as 'legitimacy building' through dialogue. As interactions occurred and especially as legitimacy claims were deemed to have failed, the 'legitimacy-seeking' behaviour was observed. For example, Martin's desire to be appointed as the Director of the newly created network organisation was not welcomed by some members of the group such as Simon who is a nascent entrepreneur in the creative sector of the region. It triggered the debate concerning the public-private sector divide. The formation of the INO is characterised by a bottom-up approach where the needs of the creative industries businesses in the region have been identified by the creative business founders themselves, who pushed their agenda through governmental and non-governmental organisations. In the eyes of those who participated in the conversation by arguing against the idea of having Martin as the director, the appointment of somebody from the Derbyshire City Council contradicts the nature of the enterprise and undermines its legitimacy as a private-sector driven initiative. For the participants such as Denise, Adam, Peter and Mike, it is important to make sure that a consensus of some sort will be reached about several aspects of the enterprise such as its legal status, registration of its

members, appointment of directors and marketing events. These exemplify 'legitimacy building' as they unfold during the venturing process.

In the subsequent steering group meetings that I attended, I observed how, and to what extent, the nascent entrepreneurs modify their claims in order to legitimise what they wanted to build, the INO, as the network organisation driven by KBrandArt in this particular case, in the eyes of others. Similar to O'Connor's (2004) study that demonstrates how legitimacy building emerges in conversations that entrepreneurs have among themselves, their audiences and their environments, the conversations about developing the network organisation, INO, shaping its direction and shaping their company narrative, KBrandArt, changed significantly over a period of several months. As with O'Connor's (2004) study, this research supports Gartner et al.'s (1992) conceptualisation of the emerging nature of entrepreneurial behaviour embedded in situations of ongoing change, ambiguity and equivocality. As discussed in Chapter Six, this is viewed as 'entrepreneurial managing' by changing the equivocality of interactions among a number of stakeholders into the non-equivocal interactions of an organisation (Gartner et al., 1992: 23). It involves legitimacy building, negotiation of meanings, enacting and promoting and sustaining co-ordinated effort by creating structures and systems of operating. It is also linked to performing certain actions and discourses while omitting certain others. The way in which Denise and Adam pursued the initiation of the networking activity under the new organisation, INO, and secured the funding from the local governmental agencies for the consultancy project in collaboration with others entailed certain performances characterised by power relationships as a part of the intervention programmes of the enterprise culture. In Steyaert's (2004: 20) terms, 'every performance is conversational in a broader sense, as its intertextuality introduces and omits certain discourses and power relationships, implying societal scripts of which some are hard to change while others can be resisted'. The conversations of the above kind reflect these 'performative' dimensions of nascent entrepreneurship, which also implies a dynamic and 'agentic capacity' of nascent entrepreneurs. The 'performativity' is a function of the volume of 'capital' under their 'disposition', the form of legitimised actions in relation to a '*habitus*' and 'field' (Tatli and Özbilgin, 2006). How do nascent

entrepreneurs generate different forms of capitals? What strategies do they employ to transform, allocate and distribute their volume of capital between different forms? These questions find some answers in the following section.

11.2.4 Capitals and transformation between different forms of capitals

Bourdieu's (1986, 1990; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992) conception of capital is a comprehensive one as presented in Chapter Two of the thesis. Capital is a term used by Bourdieu (1986) to represent more than 'resource', which individuals draw on in order to pursue their life projects. Capital has both facilitating and constraining characteristics. As discussed in Chapter Two, Bourdieu (1986) proposes four forms of capital: economic capital; symbolic capital that refers to attributes such as prestige, status and authority; cultural capital that indicates factors such as education and forms of language; and social capital that refers to institutionalised networks of relationships based on recognition (Özbilgin and Tatli, 2005). Bourdieu (1986: 248) proposes that social capital is 'the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition'.

The social capital that KBrandArt venture members attained, during the conception and gestation periods of the business start-up process in general and by creating the INO in particular, is the key throughout the business venturing process. This corroborates the Anderson and Jack's (2002) view of entrepreneurial network formation as an activity which provides the opportunity to observe the creation and use of social capital. They explain how individual entrepreneurs whom they studied used the networking process as ways of generating information sources, developing resources and as a mechanism for acquiring business potentials. They argue that networks are a series of bridges that link numerous individuals with different sets of resources. The experience of KBrandArt team members concurs with their argument. They are the main participants in the process, which Anderson and Jack (2002) describe as the creators of social capital.

This view of social capital in entrepreneurial networks results in the notion of social capital being a process of creating a condition for the effective exchange of information and resources. What Denise, the research participant, stresses in the above extract in section 11.2.3 (pp. 242-243) and also what I have observed through my involvement in the steering group meetings of the INO is beyond Anderson and Jack's (2002) argument. They argue that building a social capital bridge is simply a linking of individuals and a robust social capital bridge will enable its members to have better access to a richer range of resources and information. This applies to the networking activity that the nascent entrepreneurs in the case of KBrandArt conducted in the sense that they utilised people, other resources and information but also the networking activity has formed a significant part of their entrepreneurial identity construction and business construction. The social capital generated has both facilitating and constraining facets. They have shaped and reshaped their identities and their business through their engagement with other people who are parts of the network. These engagements have facilitated new routes to, for example, recruit a brand manager and restructure the emerging organisation; and also constrained some activities such as conducting their relationships with the local public sector organisations including the local government, RDA and university. What do we mean by entrepreneurial identity construction in relation to the construction of the business?

Initiating the idea for a networking organisation such as the INO and 'taking the lead in making the idea happen' adds to our understanding of entrepreneurial motives for power and ownership. 'Ownership' does not just mean ownership in the legal or financial sense, but the 'total identification with its success or failure' (Gibb, 1987: 24). The motivation and commitment that nascent entrepreneurs have to pursue the project of new venture creation from its early conception to its successful development define the notion of ownership. It is linked to their entrepreneurial emergence as individuals because they commit themselves to a project wholeheartedly by taking certain risks; develop a sense of their own identity as entrepreneurs including understanding what strengths and weaknesses they have in order to start-up, operate, sustain and grow this venture. The transitional points, for example developing the common university project to a fully-

fledged business, refining the business concept by structuring the business areas and recruiting people to take it one step further, forming strategic alliances, are key processes for exploring changes in the nascent entrepreneurs' construction of self. The transitional points that entrepreneurs go through reflect how they cope with challenges and overcome problems (Foss, 2004). How the nascent entrepreneurs in the KBrandArt case relate their artistic and creative side of themselves and their business to a social context, how they interpret these experiences of interacting with various stakeholders and drawing information and resources, how they cope with changes, how they develop ability to make more informed decisions for future are all fundamental questions in understanding entrepreneurs' identity construction.

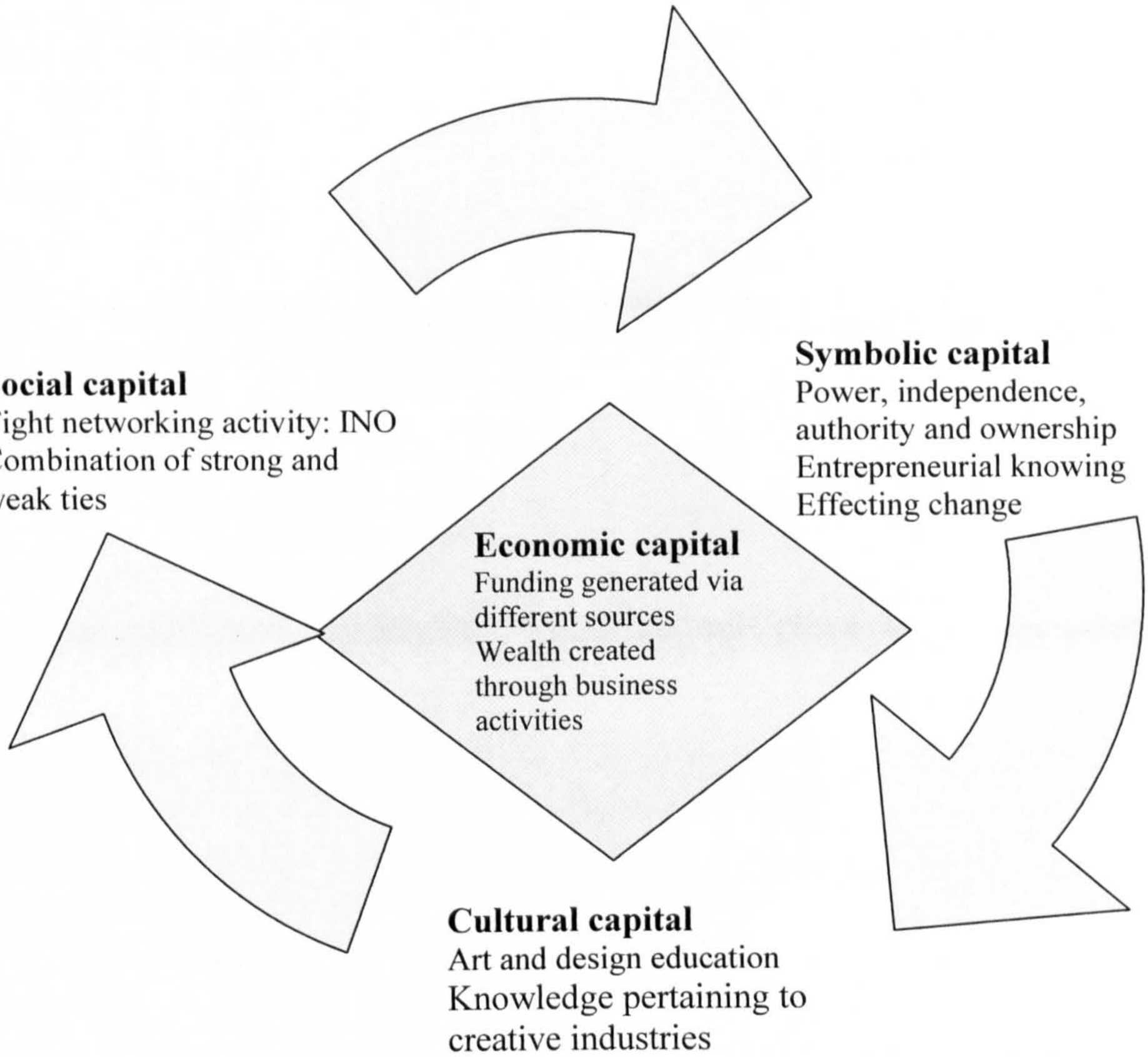
This entails building different types of capital throughout the process and transformation amongst capitals. For example, the cultural capital that they built in their respective art and design areas enabled them to start part-time production and develop a business opportunity by taking the work to larger scale as a full-time venture. The social capital that was created during the university years spans the development of various partnerships particularly in the early days of venture formation. Establishing their own business and ensuring its sustainability and growth are viewed as a measure of success based on which they generate symbolic capital in the form of 'power', 'ownership', 'independence' and 'effecting change' in their lives and the regional creative industries community.

I view the above mentioned entrepreneurial identity construction and business construction as the processes facilitated by the transformation of the social and cultural capital to symbolic and economic capitals. It is transformation to 'symbolic capital' because they develop their own personae as entrepreneurs which are associated with certain qualities of independence, power and ownership that have symbolic values. It is also transforming to 'economic capital' because they deploy the cultural capital (i.e. their artistic and design background) and social capital (i.e. networks, strategic alliances) to further develop the enterprise with an economic objective to generate wealth and profit. Symbolic capital of 'entrepreneurial knowing', which is described in Chapter Six by

referring to Politis (2005) as having two aspects that are 'opportunity recognition' and 'coping with the liabilities of newness', is also transformed to 'economic capital' in terms of pursuing business opportunities and generating wealth. This will be further discussed in relation to the process of entrepreneurial learning in section 11.4.

The spatial dimension of the processes of capital creation and transformation is worth noting. Anderson and Jack (2002) suggest that the production of social capital represents a useful investment as social capital endures beyond the transaction and beyond the life time of the firm. Although the members of KBrandArt, who have put considerable time and effort in initiating and developing the regional sectoral network, which manifested in the creation of the INO, seem to be uncertain about its short term returns, they agree on its benefits in the long run. This is also linked to the issue of developing different network mixes according to the development phase of the venture, as discussed in Chapter Five, with reference to Lechner and Dowling (2003), who suggest that firms need to build the necessary relations at different stages proactively. The following Figure 11.1 summarises the transformation between different forms of capital, conveying the 'economic capital' at the centre of the model in the context of nascent entrepreneurship.

Figure 11.1 Transformation between different forms of capital



The entrepreneurial actions described here are driven by the economic motives. Revisiting the perspectives of Chell (1997, 2000) and Steyaert (1998, 2003) on the economic aspects of the venturing process, the personal and social becoming (Chell and Baines, 2000) of the venture team members are steered by their intentions to generate wealth. They are very concerned with the expanding client portfolio and yet generating revenue streams. Fletcher and Watson's (2003) incorporation of 'making a living', which can be linked to 'small business ownership', to the definition of entrepreneurship gains a different dimension in this study: the individual and collective becoming of entrepreneurs are intertwined to their economic becoming characterised by their intention to accumulate

wealth by their risk-taking to enact the emerging business with ambition to grow it. Therefore, the drive behind the entrepreneurial process is beyond 'making a living', which is mostly associated with so-called 'life style entrepreneurship' or 'small business ownership', using Chell et al.'s (1991) typology in a slightly modified way.

11.3 Underlying processes: Entrepreneurial learning and managing

Referring back to the process-relational readings of entrepreneurship, it is possible to note the concurrence with Fletcher and Tansley's (2003: 4) view on 'entrepreneurial emergence' whereby it is described as '*a relational process- always occurring in relation to something else'* as discussed in Chapter Five. Such dialogical practices are used by the venture community members to coordinate strategic and everyday activities of the enterprise. As noted by Holman and Thorpe (2003), it is from within these ways of relating to each other that people can make sense of their surroundings and come to know the world around them. From a social constructionist standpoint, Hosking and Fineman (1990) supports this argument by suggesting that the way in which we come to know and what we know is based within these wider relational activities.

Encapsulating the emerging themes, the entrepreneurial process of venturing as a process of becoming through constructing, reconstructing the meanings, situations, problems and actions by the nascent entrepreneurs in the course of the business venturing process enables us to view the whole experience as a developmental process. Understanding their own strengths and weaknesses and changing role within the business as the venture develops is a strong indication of entrepreneurial learning. In relation to others, the nascent entrepreneurs of KBrandArt have come to know what works for them by encountering the short and long-term strategic aspects and everyday realities, issues and problems of the business. In Shotter's (1995) and Shotter and Cunliffe's (2003) terms, they develop their own 'practical theories' and become 'practical authors' who create a unique sense of their shared circumstances that enables them to act in ways intelligible to

each other[16]. Rae (2004b) discusses 'practical theory' as a resource in entrepreneurial learning, highlighting its implicit, intuitive, tacit and situated characteristics. In essence, the process of developing practical theories is a part of nascent entrepreneurs' learning, which involves change in their thinking and constructing patterns and in their subsequent actions. Therefore, 'practical theory' becomes a component of their 'cultural capital', which offers a more distinguished concept, compared to 'resource', to illuminate entrepreneurial learning.

Referring back to Table 11.1 (pp. 220-226), most of the nascent entrepreneurs in the case study emphasised the role of 'learning by doing' in their venturing experience. What is immediately striking about considering this dimension of their entrepreneurial learning is that the metaphor of a 'maze' (Learned, 1992) becomes pertinent in explaining the new venture creation process that nascent entrepreneurs go through. The nascent entrepreneurs in the case find their way by navigating through an intricate and usually uncertain and confusing network of interconnecting pathways. They have learnt to choose the most suitable pathway, which works for the situation in a particular context at a particular time, to exit the maze and proceed with the venturing process. The 'entrepreneurial managing' side of the argument is connected to finding ways to take the venture forward by enacting what they are learning by changing the equivocal interactions to non-equivocal ones, in interaction with the stakeholders involved and therefore by adapting and modifying these practices.

In addition to the themes cited in the entrepreneurial learning literature, such as learning to explore business ideas and create a viable business opportunity, learning how to garner resources, learning to manage yourself and others as the venture grows, learning inter-related functions of the business (i.e. marketing, finance and operations), this research has revealed that entrepreneurial process is more complex and can be understood from a multi-level perspective that links micro-level learning (personal learning of nascent

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[16] To recap the debates concerning 'practical theory', the idea was developed by Argyris and Schön (1975) in their work entitled Theory in Practice in organization studies. Key aspects of Bourdieu's (1977, 1990) work on 'theory of practice' have been discussed in Chapter Two (pp. 50-54). In entrepreneurship literature, Rae's (2004b) work can be given an example to the application of the idea.

entrepreneur) to meso and macro dimensions. In this case study, the entrepreneurial learning process involves learning to legitimise the business (KBrandArt venture) and other related enterprise activity (i.e. creation of the sectoral network organisation, INO); learning to perform certain discourses (e.g. constructing a business plan for the Shell Live Award competition for example or restructuring the departments of the business and communicating the business concept to clients via redesigning the website); changing 'unexpected' to their favour and tapping on the strategic alliances that they form in a context of creative industries and enterprise culture. These activities reflect the interwoven nature of the entrepreneurial learning process at micro, meso and macro levels as depicted in Table 11.2:

Table 11.2 Entrepreneurial learning process with its micro-meso-macro level dimensions

Aspects	Micro-level	Meso-level	Macro-level
Learning to identify business opportunities	√	√	√
Learning to garner resources	√	√	√
Learning to manage yourself	√	√	
Learning to manage different functions of the business	√	√	
Learning to legitimise the business (as a part of learning to cope with the liabilities of newness)		√	√
Learning to form strategic alliances (strategic networking capacity)		√	√
Learning to change equivocal interactions to non-equivocal ones		√	
Learning to perform certain discourses while omitting others (performative capacity)	√	√	√
Learning to get lessons from failures and successes	√	√	
Learning to use and exert influence (developing agentic capacity)	√	√	

11.3.1 Role of 'critical incidents' and 'learning episodes'

There is a growing body of literature acknowledging that significant 'events' or 'episodes' impact on entrepreneurial learning (Chell, 1998; Cope, 2001, 2003, 2005; Rae and Carswell, 2000). As discussed in Chapter Six, nascent entrepreneurs develop certain understandings and meanings while responding to meaningful opportunities and

problems. Their entrepreneurial learning experience is emergent as they learn from such formative experiences (Chell, 1998; Cope, 2005). In their study, Rae and Carswell (2000) demonstrate the importance of wider 'learning episodes' where entrepreneurs have provided evidence of seminal periods of learning that have influenced their entrepreneurial formation.

The use of critical incidents technique in the current research has been delineated in Chapter Eight, with particular reference to technique developed in entrepreneurship research by Chell (1998, 2001) and Chell and Tracey (2005). The nascent entrepreneurs of the case were asked to identify 'critical incidents' or 'significant occurrences' over the period of business venturing process. In the current research, it was interesting to explore what 'criticality' meant in their eyes and which 'occurrences' they chose. Equally, the examination of different meanings attached to the same incident by different venture team members shed important light on the socially constructed nature of entrepreneurial learning process. Table 11.3 shows the following critical incidents that have been reported by the nascent entrepreneurs in the KBrandArt case:

Table 11.3 Examples to critical incidents reported by the nascent entrepreneurs

Nascent entrepreneur	Critical incident reported
Denise	Winning the Shell Live award Getting the Princess Trust Fund Creating the Industrial Networking Organisation (INO) Recruiting Norman as the brand manager
Charles	Creation of the interactive department of the business Winning the Shell Live award
Paul	Recruiting Norman as the brand manager Moving to new premises Creating the Industrial Networking Organisation (INO)
Adam	Creating the Industrial Networking Organisation (INO) Recruiting Norman as the brand manager
Luke	Moving out of the business centre Recruiting Norman as the brand manager

These incidents exemplify key 'moments' or 'movements' during the business venturing process. Winning the Shell Live award in the East Midlands Area in 2002 marks a turning point in terms of getting recognition and raising the profile of the enterprise activity that they were engaged for some time. This is linked to the discussion made in section 11.3.2 that highlights importance of the efforts to legitimise the start-up process, that includes various activities from creating a legal entity, developing prototypes of products and services to developing higher-level, credible and trustful relationships with stakeholders in the region (Davidsson, 2006: 73). The small volume of economic capital combined with larger volume of social capital generated helped the venture team build confidence in what they were doing and expand on the entrepreneurial activities that they had started.

A more recent and mutually acknowledged incident has been recruiting Norman as the brand manager in September 2003 whilst I was undertaking my fieldwork. The meanings that they attached to this incident are worth exploring. Denise, as the Managing Director of the business, attributed its criticality to keeping the business 'fresh' and dynamic, team management of the venture, additional skill base, practical advice to help build the company and growth:

> *"Denise: After the first few years in the business, you might feel that you are in a little 'comfort zone' but you have to wake yourself up and think: 'stop it and get on the ball; keep pressing forward'. I think it is easy for people to slip into comfort zones, I think you have to be mentally self-driven to make sure you don't slip into it. When you are managing a company, there is nobody looking over your shoulder so much; it is very lonely at the top, shall we say, but it has changed because we brought in Norman...I can bounce off ideas off Norman and it is an interesting dynamic- bringing in new people!*
>
> *Mine: Can you expand on this please, Denise?*
>
> *Denise: Bringing in Norman was a good moment, it was refreshing! It was something we had been waiting for. We had been talking about needing someone to increase the sales, bring an extra skill base to the business to help*

develop the company; and kind of be a someone who has been in the industry for a while and could act as an outside perspective looking and could help build the company...all the advice we had had in the past had been very 'textbookish' and when Norman came in and gets the guts of the company and sees what is actually going on and sees different potential and opportunities. We had worked with Norman on a three-month kind of basis, just on projects that came in on a contractual basis and then we thought if we bring him in on this and started working full time just think what we could manage with just having an extra person in, so by bringing him in full time it definitely made a difference, a real difference!...Bringing an extra person you are bringing in extra hands that could potentially double your turnover if there is only two of you selling and bringing the company in different directions.

Mine: Exactly! You have just started to grow the business...

Denise: I think that's really, it is something that I was not really more supported. I am not asking Business Link to give me support. I think its understanding that once a company gets into its third year there is a lot of dynamics at play and to grow that company in the right way that suits that company is really important, I think it is more crucial than the start-up phase, in a sense.

Mine: Why?

Denise: Because the growing bit can really be different to a company in its turnover and it can change it from mainly sitting in that comfort zone area to really making an impact on the economy and just give a new breath of life. I suppose at the growth stage, and depending on how they grow because there is a lot of advice on how to start a business, I think all that is fine and take care of virtually, I think when you are growing you need somebody who can come in and observe things closer, and be able to give practical and outside perspective, that they understand not just generic stuff. Because when you are growing, it is important to ask the question of which way do you grow first. At the moment we are quite fortunate we can grow by the video department, from getting freelancers in and employ that way...I think every company must go

through this, this stage, you either change for the better or you stand still or you go down. They are three really obvious things you are going to do; but I think by making change it is only going to have positive effect really. Even if you make a mistake...because you learn from it really.

Mine: I was going to ask how you relate this to learning really...entrepreneurial learning particularly

Denise: Learn by doing"

The above conversation with Denise, which was a part of the follow-up interview with her, highlights not only the meanings that she attributed to the key 'moment' and 'movement' of bringing in Norman as the brand manager during their business venturing journey but also hints at the key learning episodes around it. She views Norman as somebody who can help them grow the business in revenue terms but also vision for the future of the business. Therefore, the criticality of this incident is two-fold: it is a 'short-term tactical' move as well as a 'long-term strategic move' made by the venture team. As discussed earlier in Chapter Six, nascent entrepreneurship is imbued with three modes of organising, which are vision, strategic organising and tactical organising (Lichtenstein et al., 2006). This critical incident of recruiting a brand manager and the meanings attached to the incident by the research participants can be cited as an example to such modes of organising. Wickham (2004: 268) argues that entrepreneurial vision is a picture of the new world that entrepreneurs fit an understanding of why people will be better off, the source of new value that will be created, and relationships that will exist. 'It specifies a destination rather than a route to get there' (Wickham, 2004: 268). In this case account, Norman, the new recruit to the company, is considered by Denise, as the managing director of the venture, as an important catalyst towards such an organisational change, which is characterised by refining the business concept, by guiding the venture team along the 'tough' journey of growing the business, and by attracting other people to the venture.

The way in which Adam views Norman's recruitment to the venture as a critical incident is linked with this strategic planning process. His emphasis is on mundane and daily

aspects of conducting the business, such as improving their capacity to appeal to different types of clients, getting recognition from the market as well as shaping the direction of the business:

> "*Adam: Taking on Neil on board was a decision that would come up in meetings every month or so that we felt we didn't have; when we, for example, are tendering for work we know our way of doing it but we don't know if it is an acceptable way of doing it. As far as our peers or the industry is concerned, that is not the issue but it is what clients are used to seeing; that is the issue. And obviously we can't go to our competitors and say how do you pitch for work. And so we were looking for an older wiser head to get involved in our business in some way. Somebody with experience from industry who could tell us the way we were operating: if it was fine as it was or whether there were serious points lacking. One idea was to get some kind of non-executive chairman who would be sitting on board meetings once a month and just look at the way our business was going and use his experience from the industry for the last 30 years...Norman has not exactly come in that capacity. He has come in a lot more full time, a lot more hands-on but he has still got experience from industry, which admittedly we have now got our own experience but it very much the experience we have made ourselves not received knowledge in a sense. So it has been quite important to throw that into the mix. ..So it has been a big dramatic change but it wasn't a hard decision to make. It was something we knew we wanted. The hard part was finding the person to provide that... It is one of the reasons we set up INO: to get that kind of mutual knowledge sharing. Creating INO was critical. We thought we might find potential employees as well but we knew it would take time*"

Adam connects one critical incident, employing Norman, with another one, creating the networking organisation, INO:

Mine: Can you elaborate on the development of the INO?

Adam: Things are moving on, but slowly. We have got the consultancy report, I mean the business plan for INO. Now we have handed our comments back to them. They are just tidying up, but we are hoping that it is going to be signed off in the next couple of weeks. We can move on and actually start to implement it...At the moment INO is a loose consortium of interested individuals and companies and turn it into something a lot more formal with a membership rosta, a website portal that people can actually find out more information about and get services from in some way and be quite strict with plans, a series of events and seminars over the next year or so. In a kind of real world sense we trust to gain any benefit out of that. The whole thing does need to be formalised a lot more and so that we are having to work less and other people are involved in doing the work. And we can grow the network and grow it more organically; actually get some real committed members, not necessarily at the steering group level but people who come to the events regularly and can see the benefits of getting mutual business from each other. We can find as I said earlier more potential employees or just freelancers or people we can use; because we are going to need to grow again in about six months to a year. We are going to want to take on freelancers that we can trust and that we know and we are struggling to find them at the moment for the projects. We could do with more programmers to help with the website. I could do with more just basic art workers to implement my ideas and start to make them happen but we don't know many people. INO is a fairly big network but we are still struggling to find people we would trust to do work for us... It is in our interest if INO keeps going and grows...By its nature it is collaborative. Everybody has always needed to buy in skills or look to collaborate through mutual grounds...So finding that quite a few companies work that way in partnership for various things and it gives us greater flexibility because different companies might offer different specialisms..."

Adam sees the development of the INO as a beneficial movement for their business and for the region, considering the dynamics of the creative industries. Knowledge sharing, finding more qualified and trustworthy workforce and collaborations between people by venturing on mutually interesting and rewarding projects form the core themes in the above extract from his interview. His learning experience that surrounds the development of the INO is characterised by developing an enhanced understanding of importance of the social capital that a nascent entrepreneur in the creative industries should generate and tap into; having a more flexible and collaborative outlook in the way they pursue their business; creating more opportunities and thinking through 'possibilities, not certainties'.

The entire experience of creating the INO has been a steep learning curve according to Denise, whose storyline was located within the macro-field dynamics of enterprise culture, for example how nascent entrepreneurs perceive government programmes and approach to funding such initiatives and find their way to work through the politics and bureaucracy involved:

"What we did with INO is we started something, the really interesting thing it is a great opportunity and we laid down the opportunity for the government to make an opportunity of, by helping to get it off the ground. I think I have learned quite a bit to do with the politics involved with Government and Councils and everything and I have met very interesting good people and I have met a lot of people who seem to be employed. I have got good insight to the public sector, positive and negative and I am probably more sceptical of it but I think it is going to be once it gets of the ground we can show you what the potential is in respect of the network. I am very impatient! I would like to get it off the ground quicker because I would like it to happen."

'Making things happen' is an expression that she used firmly on another occasion where they held the first largest social event, which brought the people together in order to endorse the new INO that they had created. Denise, as the Director General of INO as it

appeared on the Power Point slides that she used, opened her talk, which lasted for not more than a minute, with the importance of INO for them and the region and concluded with the capacity that she has as a person who creates and makes things happen:

> *"INO is very important for us to get together and create a synergy. I was here three years ago and when I prompted this idea, people were sceptical about it. Here I am today! We are formalising INO as a company soon. So people who know me know that I will do what I promise to do. I make things happen. Thanks"*

Her entrepreneurial qualities of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1995) and determination surface out in her talk above and in various other conversations that we had during the course of the fieldwork. The meanings that she attributes to this critical 'movement' of developing the INO pertain to the learning more about the macro field dynamics including governmental programmes and institutions as well as raising the profile of KBrandArt, the venture that they created, in the regional context of creative industries. From a social constructionist standpoint, creating an organisation of these multiple relational possibilities produces power dynamics. As Hosking and Hjort (2004: 260) point out, '...talk of the entrepreneur is very obviously (though implicitly) talk about power. It seems that one can form this (entrepreneurial) life by constructing power over others'. Creating the INO in the region, organising a social event to endorse the networking organisation (INO) and making an announcement of this nature (the quote presented above) can be described as 'multiple, simultaneous, and inter-related inter-acts' (Hosking and Hjort, 2004: 261), which involve multiple contexts and multiple actors. The examples include discourse of the new venture KBrandArt leading a regional networking initiative, that of the regional development agency supporting nascent entrepreneurs in the creative industries, and that of the local university's initiatives to establish better links with the nascent entrepreneurs and small business community in the region as a part of their remit through newly founded Centre for Entrepreneurial Management, funded by HEIF. Paul, another nascent entrepreneur of the team, has similar views that pertain to the creation of the INO and associates it with the meso and macro qualities of the

business venturing process, including raising the profile of their enterprise, creating further business lines, regional trading and communicating the right message with the people of the creative industries in the region.

The above-mentioned event was a social event in January 2004 that I attended fully in the form of participating in the talks, networking activities and knowledge sharing. The INO's aim was conveyed in the publishing material for the event that formed a fieldwork text in this research as follows: '*The aim is to create a sustainable network for independent creative businesses in the greater Derby area that encourages growth through collaboration and creates a collective voice for the industry*'.

The discussions that I had with people who were running or working for creative businesses in general and discussions with the KBrandArt team members shed significant light on how business-led networks such as INO was perceived to have the potential to unlock creativity and enterprise and to influence the creation of an entrepreneurial culture by fostering partnerships, collaboration and exchange of ideas. These are considered as defining market forces in the creative industries. It is important to shape the attitudes and perceptions of people who work in the creative industries towards being more enterprising and entrepreneurial; create new markets; expand production chains; encourage diversity and deliver business support and even financial assistance, as captured in Chapter 10.

The nascent entrepreneurs in the case demonstrate some entrepreneurial qualities of responding to the dynamics of the macro-field in which their business venturing process is embedded. They do shape such dynamics and they are shaped by them. For example, critical incidents of the above-mentioned nature, namely recruiting a brand manager to help shape the direction of the business or creating an industrial networking organisation, reflect how they develop their vision and communicate it among themselves and to the outside world. In their study that examines relationships between owner managers and first line managers, Chell and Tracey (2005) developed a model, which includes five

components: competency, role, style, vision and an emotional bond comprising trust and mutual respect. Vision is defined as the ability of an individual to conceptualise their plans in vivid mental pictures (Chell and Tracey, 2005: 585). In sharing their vision for the venture, the nascent entrepreneurs used different metaphors as demonstrated in Table 11.1 (pp. 220-226) and analysed in section 11.2 of this chapter. Their vision as to the future of the business varies from 'a tall building with many floors curved with timber and glass' to 'a clock that is intricate in its parts; carefully and neatly put together and perfectly functioning in application', synchronising with their individual roles in the business and also emerging entrepreneurial and organisational identities. As highlighted by Chell and Tracey (2005), vision is contingent upon a number of factors including a tacit knowledge of market, leadership style and personal aspirations of the entrepreneurs involved. The way in which the research participants communicated their vision through metaphors and such mental pictures of how they see the future of their business is a powerful indication of their entrepreneurial biographies, ambitions and how these ambitions should be fulfilled in their lives.

11. 4 Conclusions to the chapter

This chapter has presented the business venturing experience of five nascent entrepreneurs, progressing from their informal organisation during the University years to the formal organisation, the venture, anonymously called KBrandArt. Their business venturing process is defined by heedful interrelating (Weick and Roberts, 1993) of micro (individual nascent entrepreneur's biography and capitals), meso (their relationships with broader venture community and associated actors; and their creation of a *habitus*) and macro (dynamics of enterprise culture and creative industries) level aspects.

This case has been the principal case account of the current research, drawing on a prolonged and intense engagement with the nascent entrepreneurs through participant observation, in-depth interviews and documentary analysis. The next chapter presents the second case, Rosie's venturing story in creating R-Games in the context of a university incubator. The case account reads differently compared to the KBrandArt case, mainly

due to the main data collection method being a lengthy in-depth interview. The following case should be read in conjunction with Tables 8.2 (p. 154) and 9.2 (p. 191), outlining the research methods and writing-up framework underpinning the construction of the case study.

Chapter Twelve: Setting up R-Games

Rosie's Venturing Story

12.1 Introduction to the chapter

This case account presents a business venturing process that a nascent entrepreneur underwent within the context of the regional university's incubator centre[17]. She was a Law and Business student at the university while at the same time she was a taxi-driver. The Enterprise Challenge competition of the University changed her life dramatically and contributed to make her 'entrepreneurial dream of creating a game business' happen. Her venturing story is characterised by relentless pursuit of a business opportunity with a strongly communicated objective of 'being rich and important'. The process that she went through concurs with the emergent approach to the entrepreneurial process, and paradoxically with the planned approach, as will be explained in the following sections of the case. Her Law and Business background and training through business mentoring and support program in the incubation centre helped her develop her entrepreneurial awareness and commitment for a successful start-up from the early days.

The case study is structured in three parts: In line with the first research question, the first part delineates the business venturing process. This is followed by a discussion of underlying processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing in the second part. The learning process is characterised by developing entrepreneurial competencies as well as learning how to generate and transform different forms of capital that can be recycled within the process of start-up. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key arguments and lessons from her case account.

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[17] See Tables 8.2 (p. 154) and 9.2 (191) for the research methods and writing-up framework respectively, used in constructing this case account.

12.2 Venturing process

Rosie was earning her living as a taxi-driver before she began her degree course at the University of Portsmouth. Her business experience was limited to the extent to which she worked for the advertising firm, which was jointly owned by her partner and brother. The decision to go back into the education and study for a university degree was ignited by her frustration with the jobs she did and her enthusiasm and willingness to develop herself and fulfil a sense of achievement:

> "*I was left with no jobs or qualifications when my brother and my partner fell out and decided to end the business. I then worked as a taxi-driver for so many years just for living but it was very frustrating because I am intelligent and I have got a brain. I cannot hold a job that doesn't give the stimulation that I need to keep going. Then I had a second daughter. And for a long time I felt like all I was doing just being a full-time mother. I couldn't live like that any longer and that's how I took the courage to take a step to come back to education and do a degree.*"

As presented in Chapter Six, nascent entrepreneurs' start-up reasons include self-realization, financial success, personal satisfaction and independence (Carter et al., 2003). Rosie's story exemplifies these motivations, highlighting the cultural and social capital that she developed as a result of her formal education, previous work experience and enterprise training in the incubator environment. A combination of these factors (Davidsson and Honig, 2003) helps the nascent entrepreneur, Rosie, deal with the complexities and human interactivities of the venturing process, advancing through the start-up process and moving rapidly towards infancy and adolescence phases.

During the years that she was taxi-driving, she came up with the idea for her board game. The game would feature taxis as pieces and the players would have to make their way around a board featuring tourist attractions, trying to pick as much fare possible. It was a

simple but original idea for a game. When she approached some game companies to sell the idea, she did not receive any support and she encountered so many obstacles:

> "*What I had done with my taxi-driving was I did come up with the idea for this board game. I envisaged a Portsmouth board and the taxi firm that I worked for as the playing instrument and I thought the tourist attractions in Portsmouth would be the destinations on the board. I did a bit of research and I contacted some game companies but I always got the doors closed on me. They all sign-posted me to agents and at the moment you get to agent, they want to see a finished production line or sample. So you just can't go with an idea*!"

It was not until the time she spotted posters for the Enterprise Challenge competition run by the University that she gave serious thoughts to actualise this and took the first step to turn her business idea to an opportunity:

> "*When I enrolled with my Law degree, in my first semester, I saw the advert for 'Enterprise Challenge 2003' and 15,000 pounds prize for. I didn't think they would accept an idea for a game and I almost did not enter. HD, who organized the challenge, really encouraged me and finally persuaded me to enter. On the day of the deadline I bumped into her in the Union and at that point Louise, my daughter, had been really ill and I hadn't completed the application forms. However, she gave me some additional time...Stage 1 of the Enterprise Challenge is an entry form. It is an excellent way of doing it because what the forms asks you: what to put like an introduction? What is your idea? Who are your competitors? Who are your customers? How would you market or advertise it? Where do you see yourself/your business in five years time? That was the first time that I ever had actually sat down and written something about my game. I wrote my goal down and it really got me thinking and I won the first prize. I won a £ 1,000!*"

She spent the £1,000 on securing her intellectual property rights and getting a prototype made. At the same time, she was refining her game concept and she decided to design a game board featuring London streets and tourist attractions and she named her game 'Destination'. This was an important decision she made upon which I will reflect later in this section. She entered the stage two of the Enterprise Challenge:

> *"It took me a few months to get the game concept right and also to write my business plan for the Enterprise Challenge, stage two. Stage two of the competition is where your business plan and a prototype are presented. I won £ 2,000 at stage two and I used that money to set up my game company, R-Games, to pay the legal costs and get in the incubation unit, get technical service, get my business card printed etc."*

It was a steep learning curve that she was going through: developing the game concept (i.e. the product), dealing with legal issues (i.e. intellectual property rights) and constructing a business plan, which entailed an in-depth consideration and analysis of the market, resourcing the venture (i.e. finance, people and knowledge) and operational issues. As discussed earlier in Chapter Six (pp. 108-109), these activities constitute important entrepreneurial endeavours in the conception and gestation phases of nascent entrepreneurship (Aldrich, 1999), moving towards 'infancy' stage. The boundaries between these stages are hazy. At the time of the interview (August 2004), Rosie, the nascent entrepreneur, was moving towards 'the infancy stage' characterised by the fledgling new venture, R-Games. Developing her understanding as to how to start a business', she made a few mistakes along the way:

> *"I wasn't informed about the intellectual property rights...So really the money that I paid on patenting the product was wasted and I am not going to use the patent. What is worth that I had done? I registered the trademark and the design and the copyright was granted to protect my game".*

After moving to the incubation unit, the venturing process took momentum mainly due to the mentor support and access to networks available. Through a constant process of negotiations and exchanges (Watson, 2001b, 2003; Rae, 2002, 2003) with people in her social circle, her business started to emerge as a consequence of the interplay of the variety of interests, understandings and initiatives of the parties involved. Her main interest was to take off the business and move towards the ultimate aim of growing a successful venture. The mentors in the incubator centre were interested in helping her develop her new venture, which would add to their 'repertoire of success stories' in the university; and took certain initiatives such as organising the Enterprise Challenge competition and providing guidance to the nascent entrepreneur for her entry to the competition. These interactivities between all actors involved represent the meso-relational dynamics of the venturing process. It concurs with Fletcher's (2003) arguments pertaining to the constructive aspects of new business venturing, embracing the dynamic processes of 'organisational emergence' and 'identity formation' as nascent entrepreneurs make sense of the world through interactions within their *habitus* and field (see Chapter Six for a fuller discussion).

Rosie decided to take a year out of her degree in order to get R-Games off the ground. The search for sponsorship to cover the cost of initial production and sorting out the usual administration stuff required for setting up a business were amongst the activities that she engaged in. In carrying out such start-up activities, she marks the importance of support networks, which indicates that even solo-nascent entrepreneurship is a collective activity:

> *"I got enormous support from my two mentors in the incubation centre and from the University in general...It was proven that I had the idea for the game years ago when I was working as the taxi-driver. I tried to look into ways to get my product into the market. I kept coming up against brick-walls because I was on my own. Since I came to the University, every door has been opened. Coming to the University, taking steps to do what I do now is the best thing that I've ever done".*

Taking lessons along the way as to how and with whom to deal with, she found the person who did the illustrations to recreate the board and the box for the game. Through him she got the contacts for the factory in India, who also produces games such as Monopoly, to manufacture her game at a low-cost and high-quality. Networking does have a significant bearing on the intensity of the entrepreneurial activity she engaged in:

> "*Through networking I got the contacts for the factory in India. This was through the guy who did the illustrations for me. This is to illustrate how effective networking is...This factory in India is jointly owned by X and Y and it is the highest quality but ultimately the lowest price...With the cost of production coming down, I no longer needed that £35,000. In actual fact, all I needed per edition would be £6,000 plus the VAT. So you are looking for £12,000. Obviously it is just for the production and promotion or advertising is not included. At least I knew that I could get my product manufactured. To get me to the stage that where I have got to finish the production of samples, to give them to distributors, who were trying to get orders. So I then had to decide: Having failed with the earlier sponsorship attempts I was back to square one. How can I raise the money to do it? This was the main question*!"

Seeking funding proved to be the most difficult part of the venturing process. She was faced with the inflexibility and rigidity of the banking system in general and the small business loan schemes in particular:

> "*I went to the bank and I wanted to get a loan and it was declined because I am a student and I don't have a regular income...I then tried to go through my bank for this small firms loan guarantee scheme but they said that because at that moment I didn't have any confirmed orders, even though it is a fantastic idea in their eyes it was still speculative. They wanted to see enough purchase orders to cover the entire production of the game. But to get the purchase orders I needed to get the samples. To get to the samples, I need the funding.*"

Her reading of this situation (i.e. lack of financial support from the financial institutions) brought about significant decisions. Having made strenuous efforts to secure funding from such financiers, she was left with the sponsorship option. However, she was able to turn this situation, which was perceived to be negative, to a favourable one by making the decision of developing the Portsmouth edition of the game at the same time with the London edition because she could attract sponsorship for the Portsmouth one relatively easily and use the money for the initial costs of both editions. This is again a good illustration of an entrepreneurial decision making process (Chell, 2001), which embodies characteristics such as turning a problem into an opportunity, speediness, flexibility and adaptability, and closeness to the market:

> "*There has never been a Portsmouth game and at that point I had already decided that I want to do the London edition first because I could get it ordered by Hamleys and then I have a good grounding for further editions. I want to do the Portsmouth edition but why wait for next year to do it? Why not do the Portsmouth edition at the same time with London and raise enough money through sponsorship for both? Because it was covered by the local press that I had been to the University, I had won this competition and I'd organized a launch at Hamleys. I could now go to people at Portsmouth who knew about what I was doing*".

She configured her sponsorship relationships creatively in order to secure sufficient and long-term financial resources. She approached a large local organization, who had sponsored the Enterprise Challenge, and secured an initial £2,000 funding. Using her weak ties (Granovetter, 1973, 1983; Jack and Anderson, 2002) effectively, she generated further sponsorship opportunities:

> "*I am glad that I hadn't stated that I wanted £500 from the first sponsor. I am just glad that I asked for an offer. They provided £2,000 and the lowest I got was £1,000. From that point onwards the minimum I got was £1,000. I then got the sponsorship from Marriott Hotel, Cascade Shopping Centre, Portsmouth*

Football Club, the news, the local radio and lots of others. I have established strong relationships and raised enough money from the Portsmouth edition to cover both London and Portsmouth. So that's all for sponsorship".

A series of important decisions followed this one, such as to launch the London edition in the Hamleys in the week beginning the 25th of October which is a half-term week and well-advance of Christmas, to raise the profile of the business with press coverage, to launch the Portsmouth edition in mid November to catch the Christmas sales and to price the product at £18.99. These decisions involved understanding and evaluating what the customers are looking for, pitching the product at a price customers would be willing to pay, developing creative insights into customers' buying habits and understanding the norms or conventions in the market place. From an entrepreneurial standpoint, the decision-making process that Rosie went through can be cited as an example of how strategic choices carry an implicit entrepreneurial outlook, deriving from the specific individual characteristics and experience (micro level qualities); the specific relationships, with, for example, business mentors, sponsors, and customer groups, involved in setting up the R-Games (meso level qualities); and the specific market sector, creative industries, (macro level qualities), towards which those strategic choices are addressed. These constitute significant aspects of the venturing process just as constantly seeking for creating further business opportunities, tapping on resources and knowledge, which people in your social circle possess, do:

"...To get to where I have got to now, everything to me has been a networking exercise...Even with the computer game version: Again Nick P put me in contact with the person who does computer games for Virgin. The Pro-Vice Chancellor of the University got in contact with the Department of Creative Technology and they cherry-picked up a master student to develop a prototype for me for the computer game version. He is going to develop it as a part of his final project, which means he will work hard on it. And then I will have a pretty working prototype to show Richard Branson and offer this: Every Virgin flight that comes to the UK, they all have little computer screens on the back of the

seats. I believe that they have actually something called 'Destination' on that. It fits perfectly because my game is called 'Destinations-London'. So it is a matter of how I can sell my game as a computer game to a company like Virgin!"

Relentlessly and consistently dedicating her time, effort and resources to developing her new venture, Rosie redefined the business concept as a 'souvenir game' rather than a 'family-fun game' as she got a better understanding of the business, market and industry and was provided with support from her mentors in the incubation centre, who provided some direction. She explains how she elaborated the business concept as follows:

"*I was promoting this as a family fun game. That could be distributed in mainstream stores nationwide but has the extended market of tourism because it features all the attractions in London and Portsmouth. Through my mentors' advice and help what I have been really realizing is actually my niche market: My niche market is the 'award-winning souvenir game'...There are lots of board games but there isn't another award-winning souvenir game. It is award winning because I won the award for the Challenge...So the 'award-winning souvenir game' can be adapted to any capital city of any country and be sold as souvenir but also has an extended market of being sold as a family fun game distributed in the mainstream stores*".

The use of the new concept 'award-winning souvenir game' is three-fold: First, she emphasises her unique selling point by differentiating her business venture particularly when presenting it to potential investors. Second, she considers this as a good way of rectifying the problem of seasonality of the business. Third, she creates further business opportunities (i.e. developing editions of the game for other capital cities and licensing them out), which is at the heart of entrepreneurial process:

"*Through refinement of the business concept my answer to the potential investors' question of 'How are you going to compete with all these other*

games?' is that I am not competing with all these games. My niche market is the souvenir. I am targeting the tourists who want to buy souvenirs but I can also sell it as family fun game. Because 70-80 % of games are sold every Christmas period, it is seasonal. However, souvenir games can be sold throughout the year because people travel the world. They get souvenirs from the airports or Regent Street because it is an attraction itself-Hamleys is. I could also do a New-York edition, Rome, Paris, San Francisco, Sdyney, anywhere in the world! I may possibly license out other editions".

The opportunities are endless according to Rosie. It is a matter of having the drive, determination and belief to succeed. In her own words:

"*If you have got enthusiasm and the drive and determination to make something happen, then it will happen. Something I have learned to accept that failure is a lesson to get for future success...I made the contacts, used all of them to generate further resources. I got the sponsorship. I found the perfect illustrator. I made the most optimum manufacturing deal...etc. This is all success. Every little thing, every hurdle you get over is a success itself*'.

In an interview for the University's local magazine she cites her passion and deployment of social networks as the key for the venturing process: "*I've had so much support, sometimes even from complete strangers. I think people are always willing to help if your passion for something really shines through. I always bring the conversation round to the game when I meet someone because you never know who you are talking to and what opportunities could come up*" (Fieldwork document, R1: 14). In the same magazine she reiterates the entrepreneurial qualities that she holds when answering the question concerning the future: "*Once the business is up and running, I'll get straight back into my Law and Business degree. Doing a law degree was always an ambition of mine, but I never dreamt I'd end up forming my own business along the way. After I graduate I hope to specialise in intellectual property rights, and if anyone dares to infringe one of my copyrights, trademarks or patents, then I will pay myself to sue them*!"

On a final note, she was featured in The Times Higher Education Supplement where she described the entire journey of creating R-Games as a learning experience: "*The launch and the sales are work-based learning*" (The Times Higher Education, 2004: 1). Entrepreneurial learning and managing, which underpinned the nascent business venturing process that she went through, is the concern of next section.

12.3. Underlying processes: Entrepreneurial learning and managing

Revisiting Deakins (1996: 21), entrepreneurship involves a learning process, an ability to cope with problems and learn from them. It is important to identify key issues in the learning and development process of entrepreneurship. One of Rosie's mentors, who came to visit while I was interviewing her, stated the following, which encapsulates her entrepreneurial learning experience:

> *'If you asked me what her unique qualities are, I would say her dedication, hard work and self-belief in her capabilities. She learnt over this period of start-up that 'mistakes are acceptable' and we learn better by failing at times. 'Success breeds success' has been her motto throughout and her passionate and ambitious nature has brought about her relentless pursuit of the business idea and looking backward and forward when acting upon circumstances.'*

This statement reveals a number of important and interrelated aspects of entrepreneurial learning: The first aspect is the notion of entrepreneurial commitment and awareness facilitating the learning process. The second aspect is learning from experience, particularly from unsuccessful ones. This area has been highlighted by the entrepreneurship scholars, who have argued the need for further empirical research as pointed out in Chapter Six. The importance of learning from critical incidents is integral part of the process. The third aspect is the relationship between learning and enacting, which is considered as 'entrepreneurial managing' in this study. These dimensions are in tune with Cope's (2005) recent framework of a learning perspective of entrepreneurship,

which put forwards entrepreneurial preparedness, learning history, learning task, critical incidents and generative process of entrepreneurial learning as the key components that have been delineated in Chapter Six.

The first dimension is entrepreneurial commitment, which is related to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1995) and enduring personal characteristics (Shaver and Scott, 1991) that predispose entrepreneurs to entrepreneurial activity, according to Greenberger and Sexton (1988). Based on 'traits-approach' of entrepreneurship, this is a rather narrow conceptualisation of entrepreneurial commitment. In addition to such personality characteristics, it is used in this study to include entrepreneurs' reading and construction of circumstances embedded in particular contexts and yet their relentless pursuit of business opportunities. Entrepreneurial awareness is a type of competence that nascent entrepreneurs should develop during their venturing journey and it includes transforming the business idea to a viable business opportunity with a realization of the marketability of a new product or service. This is deemed as one crucial component of a 'competence bloc' that entrepreneurs require in contemporary knowledge-based economy as suggested by Eliasson (1996 cited in Harrison and Leitch, 2005), who construed entrepreneurs as 'experimenter managers' that continually engage in learning.

Entrepreneurial commitment to cope with the liabilities of newness (Politis, 2005) and associated uncertainty and risk is considered very much linked to the entrepreneurial awareness, which is a function of interrelated components such as formal training and education, tacit knowledge and higher level learning. These form the elements of 'cultural capital' (Bourdieu, 1986) that the nascent entrepreneur, Rosie, has developed during her business venturing experience. The opportunity to obtain advice from the mentors in the incubator centre has generated tremendous value to Rosie in starting the business. Similarly, the relationships with other incubator tenants have enabled Rosie to exchange information, find access to appropriate networks, and share resources. Therefore, the incubator context and its external networks have been useful to 'social capital' building because it linked Rosie with various service providers (such as the technology student for the development of the computer version of her game), venture

capitalists and other suppliers. As discussed earlier in Chapter Four, Duff (1994) argues that an incubator adds value by bringing together an array of skills and by selecting individuals who can most successfully tailor their services to the needs of new venture creators. Rosie's case exemplifies this, depicting a nascent entrepreneur positioning herself in a university incubator context where she can exploit and connect information from surrounding networks (Totterman and Sten, 2005), weak ties effectively. These ties through network relations (i.e. social capital) have supported the creation of new ties later on. The dialectical transformation between the social capital and cultural capital is observed in Rosie's venturing experience. The exchange of relationships, which can be accomplished in multifaceted ways so that it leads to exchange of knowledge and other resources, is fundamental for the social and economic organisation of a new venture, even in the case of solo-entrepreneurship, as demonstrated by Rosie's story. Such exchanges of relationships form the basis for entrepreneurial learning process of a solo-entrepreneur.

As captured in Chapter Two and exemplified by the case of KBrandArt, in Chapter 11, social capital can present a wide range of opportunities and also constraints. Similarly, Johannisson et al. (2002) highlight that personal ties combine economic and social concerns that provide the enterprise with a broad range of opportunities and constraints. For example, in dealing with patenting issues, Rosie felt the need to rely on the mentors' advice. She was, in a way, constrained, by relying on this interaction to acquire a specific resource for her new venture, intellectual property.

The second facet of entrepreneurial learning is learning from experience. Rosie continually sought information within a broad domain of an enterprise idea with its associated market (i.e. customers, suppliers, designers and competitors) and enterprise field forces (investors, sponsors, national and local government institutions, university and its incubation centre) based on her networks and limited information sources. She had no prior experience and few benchmarks to access to knowledge and resources and also to evaluate whether the information or resource she has gathered is appropriate to take the venture forward. This is one of the main differences between the learning of

nascent entrepreneurs and experienced ones. As discussed in Chapter Six, experienced entrepreneurs are more likely to search for information and resources based on their past experiences in terms of routines and information sources that have worked well in the past (Politis, 2005: 404).

An integral part of the process of experiential learning is 'learning from critical incidents'. Learning from critical incidents is powerful, as captured in the previous case, a team of nascent entrepreneurs forming KBrandArt. Similarly, at the interview, Rosie was asked to describe and reflect upon the critical incidents experienced throughout the business venturing process. She identified three critical incidents: winning the Enterprise Challenge competition, securing the first sponsorship money and moving into the University's incubation centre. It has been discussed in Chapter Six that exploring 'critical incidents' (Chell, 1998) and learning episodes (Rae, 2003; Cope, 2005) around these critical incidents can provide us with useful insights to entrepreneurial learning process, which is an 'iterative process' (Minniti and Bygrave, 2001). Rosie has identified that winning the Enterprise Challenge competition has been phenomenal. It has spurred the way forward for the realisation of her 'business start-up dream'. The process of learning from the incident includes the importance of developing self-efficacy, alertness to opportunities and moving fast and flexibly to proceed with an idea (submitting the application form for the competition in this situation).

Moving into the university incubator and forming and developing the venture within an incubator context have influenced her business venturing experience tremendously due to the intensity of the exchange of resources (including know-how and know-who), and that of relationships and the resultant process of building up cultural and social capitals that later transform into economic capital in an economic activity of enterprise. The discussion in the preceding section, 12.2, hints at her learning experience surrounding this critical incident by demonstrating the ways in which she developed contacts, took lessons in terms of how, with whom to deal with, in dealing with various aspects of the new venture creation (such as patenting, funding, and legal aspects).

Given the importance of economic capital, the meanings that she attaches to the third critical incident, securing the first sponsorship money, relate to her learning to formulate and carry out strategic moves concerning an important aspect of nascent entrepreneurship, which is funding the new venture. The decision to develop the Portsmouth edition of the business at the same time as the London edition and seeking sponsorship from local organisations in Portsmouth was a strategic move. This resulted in her successful attempt to secure the first sponsorship from a large local organisation, who had sponsored the Enterprise Challenge competition of the University.

The third and final aspect of entrepreneurial learning pertains to the interrelated nature of entrepreneurial learning and enacting, from a social constructionist perspective[18]. Viewing entrepreneurship as a social process, where enterprise arises from social and economic exchange (Holmquist and Lindgren, 2002) as a consequence of performance for different audiences (Anderson, 2005), the link between entrepreneurial learning and enacting is crucial. The nascent entrepreneur, Rosie, is considered here not simply as an economic agent but also an individual performing different roles in different contexts (Anderson, 2005). Entrepreneurial learning therefore involves developing insights into improvisation which includes the interpretation, response and performance in a given situation (Cornelissen, 2004 cited in Anderson, 2005). This calls for a mastery of the process, involving the need to plan for the predictable and to respond to the unpredictable (Anderson, 2005: 589). In Rosie's case, the entrepreneurial process has a dual nature: planned and emerging. Planned and emerging dynamics paradoxically co-exist in her case. Planned aspects of the process mainly derives from the business planning process undergone and staged writing up of a business plan as a Business student, entering the University's Enterprise Challenge competition and later developing her business in the context of a university incubator. Emerging aspects outweigh the planned aspects, as depicted by the previous case account, KBrandArt. As narrated in the preceding section of the thesis, section 12.2, developing the business concept, seeking funding, and forming strategic alliances with the manufacturer and other suppliers and distributors are all

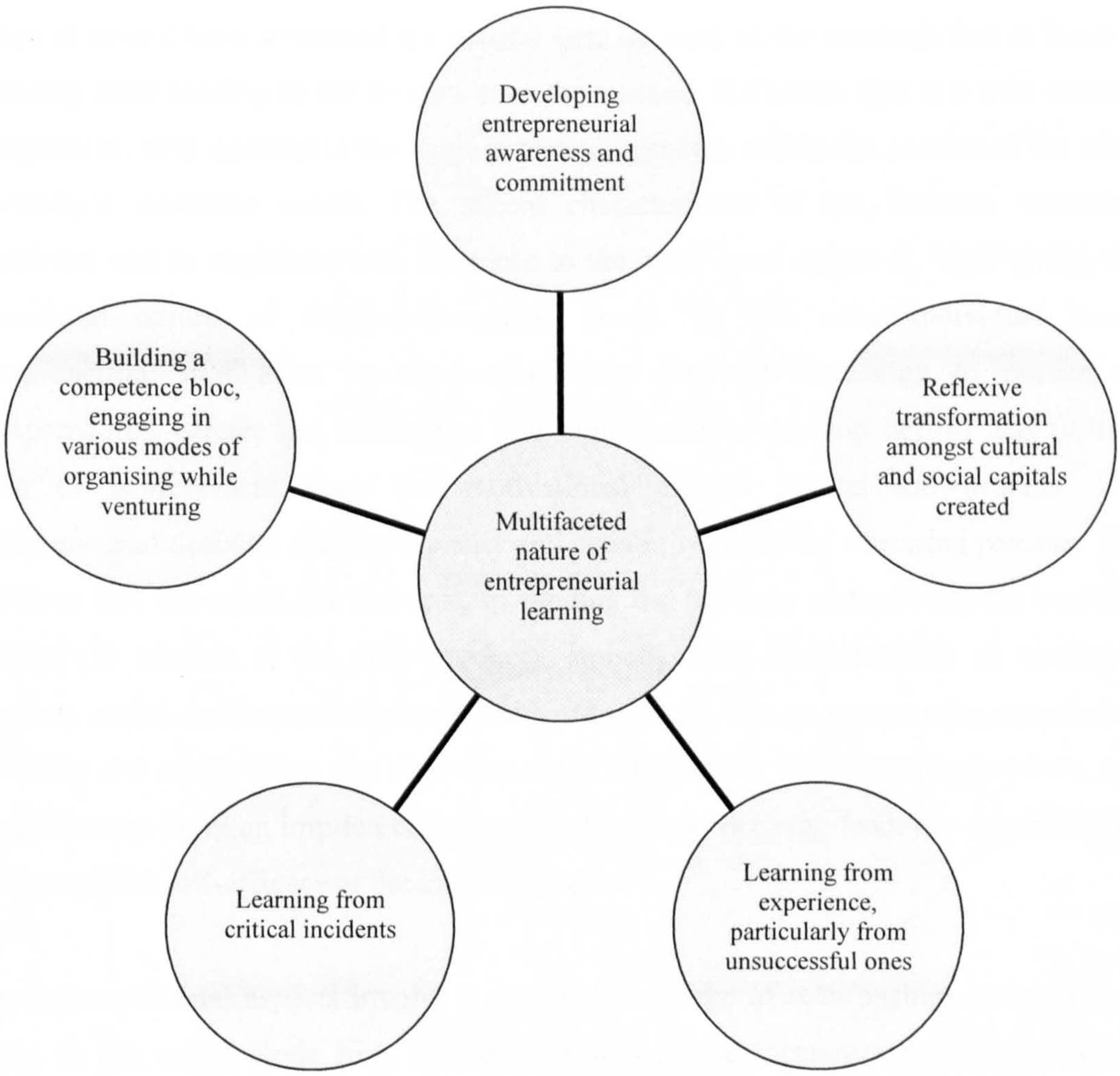
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[18] See Chapter Two for the discussion on the basic assumptions of social constructionism and Chapter Three for the formulation of the research questions, taking into account these assumptions.

emergent processes. As discussed in Chapter Six, entrepreneurial managing calls for finding ways to take the venture forward by enacting what the nascent entrepreneur is learning as a part of her personal, social and economic becoming through accomplishing strategic and everyday tasks (Alstete, 2002; Steyaert, 2003), dealing with uncertainties and changing the equivocal interactions among a number of different actors into non-equivocal interactions of an organisation (Gartner et al., 1992). This can be cited as an example to her improvisation, in the context of a university incubator, which enables generation of specific patterns of interactions in order to pursue the business opportunity that she developed and organise the creation of the new venture, R-Games; and continuous and creative adjustment to change. This is related to the notion of 'generating habitus' through entrepreneurial practice as will be illuminated in Chapter 14.

As discussed in Chapter Six with reference to Lichtenstein et al.'s (2006) study, the nascent entrepreneurship process that Rosie has gone through involves three modes of organising: vision, strategic organising and tactical organising. There is no hierarchy between these three modes in the process of nascent entrepreneurship. They constitute equally important modes of organising. The nascent entrepreneur moves in and out of three different modes concurrently during the process. An example to vision mode of organising includes writing up of the business plan leading to winning the Enterprise Challenge award. The strategic mode of organising can be exemplified by the development of the business concept as a souvenir-game and the subsequent tactical move involves seeking sponsorship for both London and Portsmouth editions of the game. Given these characteristics of the nascent entrepreneurship, the multifaceted nature of entrepreneurial learning, as experienced by Rosie, is shown in the following Figure 12.1:

Figure 12.1 Multifaceted nature of entrepreneurial learning



Three modes of organising carried out during the business venturing process (Lichtenstein et al., 2006) call for building entrepreneurial competence blocks such as skills and capability (know-how) and knowledge base, specifically technical and functional (know-what), and networking (know-who) (Chell, Karataş-Özkan and Nicolopoulou, forthcoming). These areas also map onto the creation of different forms of capital during the process, including 'know-who' and 'know-what' that are embodied in cultural and symbolic capitals and 'know-who' that is a part of the social capital.

12.4 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter I have presented the second case account of the research that is Rosie's venturing story leading to the formation of the venture, R-Games. She is a solo nascent entrepreneur, who underwent the venture creation process within the context of the local university's incubator centre. The salient characteristics of her business venturing experience can be explained with reference to the multi-level approach, highlighting the interrelated nature of micro-meso-macro levels. At the micro-individual level, entrepreneurial motivation is worth-mentioning. Her self-realisation to pursue an entrepreneurial career, her willingness and enthusiasm to develop herself and fulfil a sense of achievement form the motivational aspects behind the process. Her entrepreneurial decision making capacity and capability mark the venturing process: The decisions that she made, for example, in funding the business and refining the business concept (in relation to the core product), embody such characteristics as turning a situation, which can be perceived as a problem by others, into an opportunity, speediness, flexibility and adaptability, and closeness to the market. Her vision, strategic moves, and tactical moves carry an implicit entrepreneurial outlook, deriving from her determination to succeed and self-efficacy at the individual level.

The meso-relational aspects involve a strategic exchange of relationships with multiple actors in her social circle (e.g. business mentors in the incubation centre, financiers, customer groups and suppliers) in order to enact the entrepreneurial activities of creating a new venture, including envisioning new possibilities and future scenarios for her new business. Her entrepreneurial commitment, as described above as a part of the micro-level qualities, and awareness to cope with the complexities and newness of the process, has facilitated the entrepreneurial learning process. The incubator context and its external networks have been useful to build up social capital and cultural capital (in the form of entrepreneurial know-how and tacit knowledge developed as a part of the business mentoring and enterprise training), which are transformed to economic capital, engaging in an economic activity of a new enterprise development. Her entrepreneurial learning experience has been described in the chapter as a multi-faceted process, with learning

from critical incidents being a significant aspect. Finally, it should be noted that all of the above mentioned processes (i.e. entrepreneurial decision making, transformation amongst various capitals, entrepreneurial learning and managing) are embedded in the enterprise culture discourse, with potential or nascent entrepreneurs construed as 'champions' and supported by some institutional forces such as higher education institutions (i.e. the university incubator) and persistently neglected by the funding institutions, from the perspective of the nascent entrepreneur of the case study, Rosie.

The following case account presents different dynamics of business venturing process whereby a nascent corporate entrepreneur, Richard, engages in a new venture activity that emanates from an existing business concept and culture, namely a spin-off activity, as constructed by the research participant himself. The case should be read in conjunction with Tables 8.2 (p. 154) and 9.2 (p. 191), outlining the research methods and writing-up framework underpinning the construction of the case study.

Chapter Thirteen: Creating JV-Games

Richard's story of forming a joint venture

13.1 Introduction to the chapter

This case account is generated to reflect a story of the business venturing process as experienced by a nascent corporate entrepreneur, Richard, drawing on two interviews (in November 2002 and July 2003) with him at different stages of the entrepreneurial process and one interview with the CEO (February 2004) of the one of the parent companies forming the joint venture[19]. Paralleling the notion of 'enterprising person' (Chell, 2004b), as discussed in Chapter One, is the 'nascent corporate entrepreneur' who is able to champion new initiatives in established organisations by coming up with new business ideas and pursue them towards a full venture, applying Westhead and Wright's (1998) typology in an integrative way. This case presents different dynamics of the entrepreneurial process of business start-up as it emanates from an existing business concept and culture, as a spin-off activity. The main parent company, GW, acts almost like an 'incubator'. Richard, which is an anonymous name used, is viewed as the nascent corporate entrepreneur, who acted as a powerful figure in relentlessly pursuing the business idea of an online game and leading the construction of a business model and proposition that brought about the development of the joint venture, JV-Games. Despite its unique characteristics, this case account presents a real and vivid example to the nascent entrepreneurship process (Aldrich, 1999) from which some lessons will be drawn and integrated to the cross-case analysis discussion in Chapter 14.

The chapter is structured in three parts: The first part discusses the business venturing process that marks the importance of the fit between the parent firm's business and corporate culture and the entrepreneurial activity. The process shows resemblances to the

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[19] See Tables 8.2 (p. 154) and 9.2 (p. 191) for the research methods and writing-up framework respectively, applied in constructing this case account.

new venture formation in the previous two cases presented. It also demonstrates unique characteristics due to a number of factors such as the interface of the corporate culture and the development of the joint venture and existing capitals that include intellectual property and a resource set of money, equipment and people. The second part follows with a discussion on the entrepreneurial learning and managing processes that develop as the underlying processes of business venturing, which is characterised somewhere between 'emergent, creative and iterative process' and 'a planned, structured and analytical process'.

13.2 Venturing process

JV-Games, which is a joint venture between two large established companies GW and CE, was established in June 2001 to create a multi-player online computer game set in the Warrior world. GW is a marketer of a Hobby which involves collecting, modelling, painting soldiers and tabletop war-gaming with whole armies of these soldiers. In the CEO's terms "it is a niche business that designs, manufactures, distributes and sells everything an enthusiast needs to play tabletop war games in the fantasy world of Warrior" (GW Annual Report- Fieldwork document, 2002: 2). Their partner in JV-Games venture, CE, is a major UK computer games developer. JV-Games is therefore a case of two organisations joining together because of different skills, knowledge and strategic complementarity. GW provides the intellectual property that is the core game concept, Warrior world, which has been designed and sophisticated for twenty years and CE supplies technological expertise i.e. software management in order to create a subscription based online game. The business opportunity can be described as the capitalisation on an unmet market niche. In nascent corporate entrepreneur, Richard's terms:

"...JV-Games Ltd brings together the skills and expertise that GW and CE have got and the similarity is we provide the long term profit through management of resources and created business expertise. All these are combined in this particular theme. GW is planning the project having the Warrior background.

CE is providing the online games technology. They are developing the software and project management. That's what CE is good at....actually creativity comes from GW. It is actually merging a kind of creativity and expertise....We have developed expertise which makes the JV- Games work."

The process of forming the JV-Games appears to be an entrepreneurial initiative stemming from the efforts of both partners in quest for potential opportunities for new business. The founder of the JV, Richard, articulates how this initiative has emerged out of serendipitous discussions and negotiations between the managers of both parties in the following words:

"*...John....new business development manager in GW had a conversation with Karl, who is the chairman of CE group in private, 'we should do something together'. It was one of these almost chatting in a bar literally drinking beer all the time....John's job in the GW is to identify potential partners, potential opportunities for new business. In the period six months after that nothing really happened and then CE came back to us and said 'we have got a game engine, a software, we can show a game world in a CD so we can do Warrior'...We got very excited....And it moved quite quickly towards the end of 2000...There is a potential here through subscription based gaming and the business model attached to it, actually creating a new business*".

Richard, who has been working for the GW as project manager on a number of projects, got very excited and shared the same conviction with John that a computer game version of the Warrior world would appeal to their niche market. The business idea of an online subscription-based game rather than a simple computer game was of Richard's who saw the potential to differentiate their product and service offerings by capitalising on an 'unmet market need' (Chell, 1985; Bygrave and Hofer, 1993). At the time of the idea development, Sony's Everest was the only online game business of similar kind. Richard calls this period as the 'business idea development period' that was followed with the period pertaining to the 'business model development'. These two periods correspond to

'conception' and 'gestation' phases respectively, according to Aldrich's (1999) nascent entrepreneurship model, as reviewed in Chapter Six. They are not mutually exclusive phases. A series of interrelated entrepreneurial activities take place in these two stages of nascent entrepreneurship, as will be reflected later in the chapter with reference to the studies that have been covered in Chapters Four to Six of the thesis.

At the time of the interviews, the project was due to deliver the live game in Spring 2004. Both partners were working on the core technical and game design elements and the programmers were working in conjunction with GW artists to ensure that the look and feel of the game was true to the deep and powerful imagery of the Warrior world (GW Annual Report, 2002: 6). Highlighting the need to understand the venturing as a process, the focus is on the substantial aspects of this process in a temporal and contextual framework. Having different roles, complementary contributions or overlapping competences, people involved in the activities of the JV-Games sustain dense relations of mutual engagement and they may become participants in other communities of practice through involvement in other tasks (Wenger, 1998; Lesser and Everest, 2001). For instance, GW artists who co-operate with CE software developers in WO participate in the other product developments or initiatives of the GW such as card games and pursue the practices of another venture. These constitute meso-relational aspects of the business venturing process, explained in terms of 'generating *habitus*' that facilitates 'heedful interrelating' (Weick and Roberts, 1993; Chell and Tracey, 2005) amongst the members of a so-called 'venture community' in this research[20].

Exploiting the intellectual property of Warrior fantasy world, the JV-Games initiative can be seen as taking the core business of battle games into virtual world:

> *"The core business has always been battle games but also we are now moving into fiction, Warrior novels, online games, collectible card games. What we do is we occupy a niche of our making. We are fantastic niche marketers...So we are broadening that niche to other areas. So the JV-Games is a part of that*

[20] Compare KBrandart case that is presented in in Chapter 11.

broadening strategy. Not exactly broadening but replicating-replicating that niche..."

The unique characteristics of the parent firm's (GW) business and culture have influenced the way in which the business idea was pursued and the opportunity for JV-Games was created. Hobby business aimed at the youth market and male middle class professionals coupled with a corporate culture that encourages belonging for both staff and customers have acted as 'catalysts' for the formation of the creative enterprise, JV-Games, as a powerful vehicle of penetrating into the market in a sophisticated way with the help of the technological advances, the Internet. From the outset, the business concept has developed as an international creative business where players can communicate with other interested players and form an online community. This strengthens their social affinity with the hobby and creates further attachment to products and product innovations

Moving this idea forward has required a sound business model, which was developed by Richard in collaboration with the business development manager and CEO of the GW and the managers of similar level from the CE. The period of developing the business model includes developing the business plan with all aspects that is product development, marketing, selling, customer relations and it has been built upon the JV agreements-development agreements between the two parties that took shape within the previous period of business idea development. The central actor during this period is Richard, the JV manager or the nascent corporate entrepreneur as described in this study, who has been working with the WO board which consists of three GW directors and two CE ones.

In reflecting on how the director of the main parent company, GW, has communicated the decision making process leading to JV-Games, some aspects of the corporate culture, such as 'a can-do attitude', 'synergistic approach, 'championing the innovative ideas and people', 'a sense of achievement among people', join with business characteristics including 'understanding the customers and market dynamics' (Fieldwork document/ JV Games 2: Corporate values of GW). In line with the study of Lockett et al. (2002) as

discussed in Chapter 4, GW acts almost like an incubator that facilitates the new business development process by supplying prerequisites, including the inputs such as human (e.g. Richard-nascent corporate entrepreneur, Tim, the CEO of the parent company who extends his help/input in strategic matters, and GW artist designers who develop the product-game), physical (e.g. GW's workspace to develop the game), and social (e.g. strategic partnership with the software company, CE). The following is an excerpt from the interview transcript with Tim, the CEO of GW that highlights the above-mentioned aspects of the corporate culture, which can be summed up as 'entrepreneurial qualities' in Stevenson and Gumpert's (1985) sense, that is to say, opportunistic rather than resource-driven:

> *'Tim: In the past any new venture we started we start with no resources. It depends absolutely on an individual who is passionate about achieving things. And we give them space both physical and mental and let them get on with it. ..We just allowed many of our new business lines to grow organically and naturally. Without any clever plans and without any very clear intentions, we just know: Is it a good idea? Do we think we will be good at this? OK. Let's try! Whereas JV-Games is quite different. We had no idea how to write a computer game so we had to find a partner. We had no management expertise so we needed somebody who wanted to do it. We knew it would be very expensive. So we had to decide whether it was worthwhile risking a very large amount of money on it... Then it was the decision making process which was based on the conviction that the market was worth trying to enter. We have never done any 'internal rates of return' calculations or trying to work out how we are going to get our money back. We always know that if we do our jobs properly we will always make money.*
>
> *Mine: What does 'doing our jobs properly' mean?*
>
> *Tim: It means providing a first class product and servicing what the customer wants. If you are dealing in a niche market, we always are, a niche market survives because they are able to provide what that niche wants. Precisely what it wants and to serve it well. These are crucial things. ..And that's what we are*

very good at. That's what our expertise is. It isn't designing soldiers; it is understanding market places and knowing how to exploit them'.

Ironically, the venturing process presents emergent and dynamic properties with competence-based evaluations made throughout. It is ironic because the parent company presents a context that can be described as an 'incubator' for the spin-off activity, where more planning is expected to be involved from the early days of the venturing process (compare R-Games that is presented in Chapter 12). This also reflects one of the important characteristics of the creative enterprises of this kind, which can be explained as the harmonisation between market knowledge, management of creative activity and competences within the business, individual entrepreneurial effort and the corporate support for channelling this effort into a successful commercial venture.

In November 2002, at the time of the first interview, Richard, the nascent corporate entrepreneur, was at a stage of forming his own venture team that would work with the software management team comprising 40-45 people in the office. He had two members of staff and the technical staff from the CE partner. By the time of the second interview that took place in July 2003, he had recruited all of the key department heads, showing a progression from a business model building with six functional areas to staffing the key functions. The six functional areas of the business include finance and operations, marketing and PR (public relations), technical services, customer services, human resources and game design (JV Contract/Business Plan-Fieldwork document, 2002).

"*...there are six functional areas to the business. Five of them now have a manager and they are starting to develop and recruit staff. So since I last saw you in November time, JV-Games as the joint venture company has now started to focus on what we will be doing of the task as opposed to just the game design part of it because as we move towards the game launch in a years time, all of those functional areas of the business will need to be up and running. We are about a year away from that and customer services team will need to be in place and the technical services will need to be in place.*" (Richard)

The business venturing process involves a number of discrete but overlapping stages. In this case study, the stage of business opportunity development, which includes opportunity formation, opportunity development and opportunity refinement, is closely interrelated with the stage of planning and modelling the business, which seems to be overlapping with the stage of 'being in business'. The first stage is termed 'discovery' in the literature by some scholars (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Gartner et al., 2003; Daviddsson, 2005) or 'exploration' by some others (Politis, 2005). This research shows that the process is characterised by exploring the viability of a business idea and transforming it to a business opportunity in relation to key stakeholders in the venture community rather than 'discovering' something that exists out there. The notion of 'value creation' forms a key element in this stage of exploration in the process of business venturing. 'Value' has a dual meaning here: value for the market (customers) and value for the parent company, GW, and its stakeholders, including the nascent corporate entrepreneur. As discussed earlier in Chapter 10, value creation takes different forms in the creative industries: value of the creative content of the interactive software as perceived by its audience and its commercial success are key components.

This stage of exploration involved finding strategic partners as one of the key activities in which Richard was engaged:

> "*We have just closed two deals. One is with a marketing distribution partner. Marketing distribution partner for the game is SG, a Japanese company. They will be actually manufacturing the game and distributing the game across the world for us. We have also just closed a deal with AT&T who will be providing us with server host and band-with. So those two key delivery partners are now in place*".

Developing these partnerships is a lengthy process that involves negotiation and participation in selected networks. This corresponds with Leadbeater and Oakley's (1999) argument that participation in selected networks, influencing opinion-formers and being talked about in the right way are crucial and learned aspects of entrepreneurial working in the creative industries. Following the competency-based approach permeating the parent firm, Richard has been looking for partnership relationships on the basis of complementary skills, which underpinned his approach in starting the JV-Games as a joint venture with CE in the first place. Chell and Tracey's (2005) model of effective interrelating between owner-managers and first line managers in small firms can be applied to the relationships between the members of the two partners (GW and CE) forming the new venture, JV-Games. The main components of the model comprise competencies, role perceptions, management style and vision. The ability to spot the opportunity for a subscription based online game, capitalising on the established game concept, which forms the intellectual property developed by GW, and the ability to exercise heedful interrelating with CE to develop the online product can be cited as examples to competencies. Role perceptions include shaping the interactions between the people of two parent companies within a broader scheme of 'role system', formalised by the JV Contract. For example, Richard, as the champion of the business idea, is the head of the new venture, leading a number of 'visionary, strategic and tactical modes of organising' (Lichtenstein et al., 2006) during the process of developing the JV-Games. Drawing on the corporate values of GW, he shapes and communicates the vision for the new venture to the members of the new organisation and the market. Chell and Tracey (2005: 586) note that development of an entrepreneurial vision calls for a 'transformative leadership style' whereby the leader develops and fulfils the vision by empowering the organisational members through an emphasis on devolved decision-making, personal development, and co-operative working environment.

Understanding the market and responding to changing market needs can be cited as key overarching activities for all modes of organising (vision, strategic moves, tactical modes) in both 'conception' and 'gestation' stages. Talking through the process of forming partnership relationships for different functions of the business, Richard alludes to the dynamics of the computer games industry and how JV-Games has shaped its own path embedded within this part of the creative industries:

'In the computer games industry generally you have developers often small or smallish teams; although over a period of time they are getting larger. CE, our partner, are a games developer and developers do work for publishers and the publishers say they want a car racing game or they want this kind of racing game . They will go and look at two, three, four developers and choose a developer to invest their money into developing the game 2-3 million pounds or whatever it costs. They will then publish the game manufacture. The boxes they will do and the packaging put it through stores, sell the units, take their money, pay the developer on a royalty on sales. It is a very common model inside the computer games industry. What we are doing is slightly different. Because of the nature of the joint venture, I mean, the GW are funding the venture development and CE are developing the game at cost, those developer-publisher relationships are slightly unusual. So what we are looking for from a publisher isn't development funding, all we are looking for is somebody who is skilled at manufacturing, distributing, retailing and promoting computer games; it is not what we are good at. It is not a core competence of JV-Games: Neither for CE, as a game developer who are used to giving their finished games over to publishers to manufacture and distribute, nor for GW because GW are focused as a core business on tabletop war-games and retailing through its own stores'.

The decision making process leading to the choice of the publisher partner illustrates the agentic capacity of the nascent corporate entrepreneur:

> *'How we went about choosing the publisher partner was we got together with materials of the game so that we could show people the game, its tools and technology and what it looked like. We visited lots of publishers about probably eight eventually. We narrowed that eight down to about three or four and over a period of time it became very clear that like many business arrangements this was a personal choice: who, I thought, would be able to do the job; who understood what we were offering in terms of where we split for them and where would they split for us. All the other bits and pieces got together so that really took place between about October and eventually it ran until the end of April so about six months'.*

Social capital that Richard generated and deployed throughout the venturing process has been vital in developing partnership agreements. Choosing the technology (host) partner has been through taking advantage of the CE's (joint venture partner) connections and involved 'less selling' as an activity compared with the process of looking for a publisher partner. This is connected with 'legitimacy building'. Suffering from the liability of newness, founders of 'entirely new activities, by definition, lack the familiarity and credibility that constitute the fundamental basis of interaction' (Aldrich and Fiol, 1994: 647). The more confident the nascent entrepreneurs get in their product and service offering, their own skills as a venture team, and the strong image that they are portraying to the market, the less they feel the need for legitimising their business to others. Richard talks about 'matrix of requirements' for choosing the technology partner due to the confidence that they developed in their game concept and business model:

> *'We were able to develop and scale the business in such ways that we just have a matrix of requirements now. So we went and visited the host and technology partners; we looked at their facilities; we talked to senior people. We were*

customers to them, actually quite valuable customers and so they were quite keen to sell their companies to us and eventually we got down to two companies and then decided to go with one'.

Financially, GW has continued to invest its money into the venture for the last two years and will go on for another year as a part of the three year development cycle. The financial arrangement is as follows in Richard's words:

'GW is funding the development with cash finance; CE is developing the game at cost so what I am paying for is staff salaries only plus some essential overhead and some other central fixed costs. That means that at the end of the development CE will have developed it without costing CE any money. GW will have invested its money into the game and then both partners will get a return on their investment through the operation of a successful game'.

'GW, myself included of course, is carrying the financial risk in the partnership. The safeguards for GW is that if the venture doesn't start to deliver profits until all of the investment funding has been paid so that any profits generated by the earlier operation go to repaying the original cash investment because CE will effectively be at zero. They will have developed the game for three years but it will not have cost them any money because we are paying cost as GW. So once the game goes into profit, it pays GW and me back before it then starts to return profits to both partners'.

Reflecting on the challenges and difficulties encountered during the business venturing process, Richard refers to establishing and maintaining the synchronisation between the partners of the joint venture. As with the self start-ups, the venturing process relies on organisation and management of social exchanges between various stakeholders. The dynamics of a joint-venturing process, spinning-out from two established organisations with different corporate cultures and different levels of maturity, present further challenges pertaining to the management of social exchanges. Lines of accountability and

responsibility change in an arrangement of this kind. It calls for a skilful management of relationships on the part of Richard, which is far more demanding compared with an independent start-up activity:

> *'One that requires most attention is keeping the goals of the JV partners aligned and maintaining the relationship of the partners...People don't have similar levels of investments and returns; then immediately you are dealing with a disparity between joint venture partners. It is much more difficult to hold that joint venture focus because you are trying to hold two companies which might have dissimilar stages of development, dissimilar stages of growth, and keep them aligned over a very long period, and I think that is still one of the biggest challenges'(Richard)*

> *'GW is actually very methodical and structured in the way it deals with its people and processes whereas CE is, I would use the word, 'whimsical'. When you are in a solely owned, privately owned business somebody can actually just do what they want effectively and focus the priorities of the business rapidly in different areas: OK we need to put some more effort into this and more effort into that. I think that CE being involved in a three-year relationship to get a game to launch and then a three-year relationship with that is quite stretch; it is a six-year relationship. For a company that has only been in existence for ten years, that is a very long period of time. It is actually maintaining the relationships between two unevenly aged partnerships. I would say it is almost like having a five year-old child and a teenager in your house. They can get on sometimes but then they argue sometimes, but that is just about maturity and companies in different stages in maturity require different things; see things differently. Short-term, medium-term and long- term goals, internal decision making processes, all of that within a business when a business is privately held with a single often charismatic entrepreneur at the core of it, it can move very quickly, it can change very quickly, it can respond very quickly. When you have a mature business like GW that has a lot of internal structure, 160 stores,*

global operations, you know, decisions have to be considered thoroughly and planned in a medium to long term and then implemented on a global scale, rather than one person saying let's go and do this...In summary, managing the relationship between the two entities and making sure that we both stay focussed on ultimate goal, is probably one of the biggest challenges, particularly when the return and the investment isn't exactly equal.'(Richard)

These quotes from the second interview with Richard are of particular import on a number of counts: First, it is reminiscent of coping with challenges of managing relationships amongst various stakeholders in the context of new venture development, using agentic and performative capacity that cannot be divorced from the setting. Unlike a start-up process that is managed by an entrepreneur or a team of entrepreneurs, as the other cases of the research present, where the nascent entrepreneurs are often faced with creating a culture in the new enterprise, Richard encounters the problem of aligning the cultures, objectives and processes of two organisations, which are inherently very different than one another. Second, his views of managing this partnership shed significant light on his construction of an 'entrepreneurial culture' versus 'administrative culture', using Chell's (2001) typology. In Richard's eyes, CE represents a medium-sized entrepreneurial company that is flexible and can adapt their strategies to suit different and changing circumstances while GW is an indicative of an 'administrative culture' characterised by complex, structured organisation with a high degree of planning involved in strategy making and implementation. On the other hand, CE lacks financial resources to operate fully, which is symptomatic of an SME at a growth stage. Third, his construction of the parent company that he used to be affiliated with, differs in an appreciable way from that of the CEO of the company, who has made claims of an entrepreneurial culture which is manifest in championing new business ideas such as JV-Games.

In terms of the *habitus* that Richard is endeavouring to establish within the newly founded venture, 'total visibility' and 'collegiate relationship' between the venture team members are the key. His leadership skills are congruent with Kirby's (2002)

conceptualisation of an 'entrepreneurial leader' that focuses on participatory rather than autocratic and dictatorial leadership style as well as flexible and adaptive approach to managing a venture team. The 'collegiality' applies as a principle not only to managing the venture team in place but also managing the partnership relationships including the relationship between the joint venture partners. Concerned with the future of the business, Richard is confident about its success measured in terms of, first, the profit that the venture will generate for himself and for the partners, second, the impact that the venture will have on reinforcing the GW brand.

13.3 Underlying processes: entrepreneurial learning and managing

The business venturing process precipitates certain know-how and skills. There is strong link between the type of business and the skills of the nascent corporate entrepreneur. Richard refers to the skills of community management i.e. managing a gaming community through publication, product design and development as being fundamental in this business:

> *'...in terms of online game, online game is all about product design and development. Once you are alive then it is about managing a subscription based community'.*

Engaging with customers in distinctive ways is of particular significance in a creative enterprise of this kind because there needs to be a symbolic exchange between producer and audience so that the 'audience', customers, can identify themselves with the enterprise. This is what Rae (2005: 191) calls 'cultural diffusion' through which the venture engages the customer as an active participant, not simply as a passive consumer. It puts additional demands on the entrepreneurs of such creative enterprises as they need to build on their 'creative artistic faculties' and also develop 'persuasion' and 'motivation' skills in order to emotionally engage with the customers.

Richard has gone through a learning curve since they started the discussions about an online game business, which culminated in setting-up the JV-Games. Similar to nascent entrepreneurs, he had to develop 'new resource skills' (Baum and Locke, 2004: 589). The ability to envision opportunities and capability in garnering resources are what Richard has in common with nascent entrepreneurs, who are self-starters, in the sense that 'the ability to acquire and systematise the operating resources needed to start and grow an organization' (Baum and Locke, 2004: 589) pertains to his case. His new resource skill does not apply to finding capital as there is a financial back-up by the parent company from which the spin-off venture emerged. However, it applies to developing the strategic partnerships for various functions of the business and human resources in developing the new venture with its new operations and systems. This involves learning how to use his agentic capacity to perform certain discourses in order to enact the venture development, as exemplified in choosing the strategic partners for the new venture and managing the dynamics of the relationships amongst the members of the parent companies. It includes making informed choices and decisions, and managing the meso-level processes of legitimacy building and creating a harmonious relationship between partners that lead to successful execution of the business venturing activities.

Building on his enculturation in the corporate culture of the GW, his learning process can be constructed as somewhere between an emergent, unstructured and structured learning. In his case, 'what works' is a combination of carefully strategising for the several functions of the business, responsibility to partners and customers together with developing, in Rae's (2005) terms, the 'feel' and 'approach', through experience, for the creative business.

13.4 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter, I have presented the final case account of the research, JV-Games. The case account captures a story of the business venturing process as experienced by a nascent corporate entrepreneur, Richard. The case conveys different dynamics of the entrepreneurial process of business start up since the new venture emanates from an

existing business concept and culture as a 'spin-off activity' as described by its founder, Richard. The venturing process demonstrates similarities to the new venture creation presented in the preceding case accounts. Meso-level aspects, including emergent, relational and iterative aspects, of the process are similar. At the micro-level, the founder of the new venture is equipped with key resources such as the intellectual property (game concept), an initial resource set of money, equipment, and people through the parent companies. This may present itself as somewhat different from the process of 'nascent entrepreneurship' as captured in Chapters 11 and 12 of the thesis. However, the way in which Richard created the business opportunity and harnessed these resources to execute the new venture resembles the new venture creation process that nascent entrepreneurs of the other cases underwent. Therefore, all three cases pertain to the entrepreneurial process of nascent entrepreneurship, which is a practice that needs be contextualised culturally and historically through experiential learning (Steyaert, 2005). The different contexts (i.e. outside an incubator, inside an incubator, spin off from a parent company that acted as an incubator) in which such entrepreneurial practices take place carry more weight in cross-examining three case accounts than the notion of separating out the final case as a case of business venturing experienced by a nascent corporate entrepreneur. The process exemplifies nascent entrepreneurship as illustrated in the case study. The following chapter presents a more elaborate analysis of the social construction of nascent entrepreneurship at micro-meso-macro levels, drawing on a summary of the core themes that emanated from three case accounts.

Chapter Fourteen: Towards a Multi-layered Interpretation of Nascent Entrepreneurship in the Creative industries: Revisiting Bourdieu's Orienting Tools

14.1 Introduction to the chapter

This research draws on social constructionism that acknowledges the human agency and active perceptual constructions of the members of a society (Martin and Sugarman, 1996; Gergen, 1985, 1994, 1999; Chell, 2000; Nicholson and Anderson, 2005). Given this departure point, Bourdieu's theoretical constructs (1977, 1986, 1990, 1993, 1998, 1999, 2003), already applied in organisation studies by taking a multi-level stance by Özbilgin et al. (2005), Özbilgin and Tatli (2005) and Özbilgin (2006), acted as orienting tools in this research. The micro level concepts of dispositions and capitals have served the purpose of analysing and explaining the business venturing process at the individual-nascent entrepreneur level. The meso-relational level concept, such as *habitus* and the dynamics that are shaped by and shape the *habitus,* has been very instrumental in puling together the relational, negotiated, situated, agentic and performative characteristics of the business venturing process whereby nascent entrepreneurs act in relation to numerous stakeholders in multiple settings, through strategic exchanges. The micro and meso level entrepreneurial activities are embedded in the macro field of enterprise culture, with its driving forces such as higher education institutions, business development and support programmes, and rapidly growing industries such as creative industries in the context of the current research.

This chapter presents a 'grounded' analysis of the case accounts and insights generated; by encapsulating the key themes that have emerged from the research, and by revisiting the analytical tools, established in Chapter Two, in three parts: micro level, meso-relational level, and macro level. These are not mutually exclusive categories: the emphasis is on the interfaces between these three levels. The social construction of

business venturing process is elucidated with reference to a complex and emergent process whereby individual nascent entrepreneurs (micro level) actively and relationally form their new enterprises as a part of a broader venture community (meso-relational level), which is embedded in the macro field of enterprise culture with its institutions and education programmes (Karataş-Özkan and Murphy, 2006).

14.2 Micro level qualities: Nascent entrepreneurs

Nascent entrepreneurs are those who create business opportunities and pursue them by initiating serious entrepreneurial activities that culminate in forming new and viable enterprises (Aldrich, 1999; Chell and Oakey, 2004). Entrepreneurial process, which the participant nascent entrepreneurs go through, is a process characterised by their temporal and contextual constructions of past and present experiences and their imaginations of the future. Discourses about the future are related to the nascent entrepreneurs' past experiences, individual and collective construction of realities pertaining to the current and future state of the business, and the volume of capital that they draw on and aspire to attain. As argued earlier in Chapter Five, Anderson (2005: 596) suggests that entrepreneurship is about tomorrow, possible future states of being: '...each 'event' may be new and idiosyncratic', but it needs to have some basis in our existing meaning systems' and 'all action exists in continuity with the past, which supplies the means of its initiation' (Cassell, 1993 cited in Anderson, 2005). The social constructionist approach taken in this research[21] has enabled these insights to emerge. This section of the chapter summarizes three interrelated themes that emanated from the current research. The themes include relationship between 'individual biographies and entrepreneurial learning', the importance of 'capitals and transformation between capitals', and 'agentic and performative capacity of nascent entrepreneurs'.

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[21] As discussed in Chapter Two in relation to the works of Berger and Luckmann (1966), Martin and Sugarman (1996), Gergen (1985, 1994, 1999), Chell (2000) and Nicholson and Anderson (2005).

14.2.1 Individual biographies and entrepreneurial process from a learning perspective

People draw on their background, life stories and interpret them meaningfully to develop their personal theories (Martin and Sugarman, 1996). The process of entrepreneurial learning of the nascent entrepreneurs studied highlights the significance of situations, relationships and people, and endows them with specific meanings, based on the entrepreneurs' personal interpretations of intended business development. Rae (2002, 2003) terms this 'personal theories of entrepreneurs'. However, he does not fully explain how they are shaped in relation to their own individual biographies, including age, gender and educational affiliation.

For example, Denise (The MD of KBrandArt), as a young, 25 years-old, dynamic woman, an art and design graduate, the daughter of well-educated parents, developed her understanding and technical knowledge pertaining to business founding and her ability to manage herself and the team. The development of such knowledge and capability drew on her cognitive and relational capacity, as well as her cultural capital (her art and design education and sectoral know-how). In a similar vein, Rosie, who was earning her life as a taxi-driver and studying Law and Business at the same time as a young woman and a mother of two, embarked on the journey of business venturing. Her entrepreneurial learning arose from her formal education in law, as well as the training that she received from personnel at the university incubator. This is inextricably linked to sources of informal experiential learning through her creative and problem solving capacity as she sought to deal with the exigencies of life as a young mother and aspiring entrepreneur. Richard (the head of the JV-Games) relied on his business competencies that he had developed over the years in the parent company as well as his relational capacity in developing his entrepreneurial understanding, knowledge and actions.

Bourdieu's (1977, 1990) concept of dispositions is of a particular use in explaining the micro-level aspects of nascent entrepreneurship in terms of the importance of individual dispositions in shaping the process of business venturing, and the underlying process of

entrepreneurial learning. In his *Outline of Theory of Practice* Bourdieu (1977) introduces the notion of 'dispositions' as an analytical concept that includes cognitive and affective individual attributes, including three layers of meaning: firstly, as an outcome of an organising action; secondly, the way of being as in habitual existence and action; and finally, a tendency, propensity, or inclination (Özbilgin and Tatli, 2005: 862), as discussed in Chapter Two.

The examination of nascent entrepreneurs' dispositions offers greater opportunities than the examination of attitudes in understanding their entrepreneurial motivations, tendencies to start up their own business, and in generating insights into both social and cognitive elements of their entrepreneurial learning. In the case of KBrandArt, the experience of higher education in art and design with a particular exposure to possibilities to commercialise such activity creates a context that disposes the potential student entrepreneurs to develop tendencies and preferences towards enterprising activities, which are followed by such entrepreneurial actions as putting the venture team together and attracting some funding. These actions can be demonstrated as exemplary of their engagement in entrepreneurial practice. Similarly, Rosie, the nascent entrepreneur of the venture R-Games, developed a strong tendency to set up her own business, coming from a lower socio-economic class. She was disposed to make her own way up in the society through education and entrepreneurial activity. The university context, which is highly influenced by the current discourses of enterprise culture and is able to facilitate the development of student entrepreneurship, disposed her to develop a more realistic and structured approach to starting her own business. In the case of Richard, a corporate culture that champions corporate entrepreneurship created dispositions to create a new venture by transforming a business idea to a viable business opportunity. The capitals that nascent entrepreneurs draw on, and aspire to attain, form another important aspect of micro-level characteristics of nascent entrepreneurship, as discussed in the following section.

14.2.2 Capitals and transformation between capitals

The application of Bourdieu's concept of capital in the process of nascent entrepreneurship has generated interesting insights. Resources that nascent entrepreneurs need to acquire for the business development process are well-studied in the entrepreneurship literature from a number of angles (Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven, 1996; Lichtenstein and Brush, 2001; Chell and Oakey, 2004). Capital is a term that is conceptualised by Bourdieu, and utilised in this research, as a more encompassing term than 'resource', as discussed in section 2.5.2 of Chapter Two (pp. 54-56) . Capitals are those on which nascent entrepreneurs draw on, develop, and to which they attain, in the process of entrepreneurship. It has both facilitating and constraining characteristics.

'Social capital' has been defined as the sum of the actual and potential resources that can be deployed through membership in social networks (Bourdieu, 1986) in Chapter Two. All three case accounts have illustrated facilitating aspects of social capital in the form of the actual or potential resources, which are tied to possession of a lasting network of relationships based on mutual acquaintance and recognition (Bourdieu, 1986: 248). The nascent entrepreneurs of the case, KBrandArt, created contacts in their immediate social circle while they were university students, which was a networking activity that endowed them to build this social capital. Their networking activity has taken a more structured and institutionalised form by steering the creation of the INO, industrial networking organisation. The social capital, which these nascent entrepreneurs have drawn on from early days of the venturing process, and have attained during the conception and gestation periods of the process by forming strategic alliances with other creative businesses, RDAs, local university and governmental organisations through formalised networking activity, has been crucial. The large volume of social capital created has facilitated numerous ways of acquiring useful market information, developing financial and legal resources, and ultimately creating business opportunities. Social capital that they have generated has been instrumental and powerful in their relentless economic and social struggle in the process of business venturing.

At the INO steering group meetings I have also observed constraining aspects of social capital. Social capital has brought about 'quick and obligatory reciprocity' in the form of 'perceived need to reciprocate to certain individuals and institutions as a response to their contribution to the development of the INO'. An example pertaining to their venturing process is inclusion of a public officer (an enterprise officer from the local council) in the INO as a board member with high levels of authority and decision making capacity.

In Rosie's case, developing the venture inside the incubator centre of the local university has meant building social and economic capital, by getting access to financiers, service providers, suppliers and business mentors. The incubator has provided a context in which the nascent entrepreneur can exploit and connect information from surrounding networks. The cultural capital, which she has developed through her degree studies and training by attending a mentoring scheme provided by the business mentors and enterprise educators of the centre, has been influential in further developing her understanding of the importance of social capital for entrepreneurial process. The transformation between different forms of capital (cultural-social-economic and symbolic) is identified in Rosie's experience, as in the other two case accounts in Chapters 11 to 13. Constraining aspects of social capital have also been inferred from Rosie's case. For example, she was constrained by relying on an exchange of interactions with her mentors in dealing with patenting issues, and some other legal aspects of the venturing process, as demonstrated in Chapter 12, with reference to a quote from her interview.

Richard's (the actor of the third case study) cultural capital has been one of his strongest assets in embarking on the business venturing process. Having worked in a corporate environment of innovative and entrepreneurial nature, developed sound knowledge of the game concept, that of the niche market to which it appeals and associated marketing strategies, he has been equipped with high volume of cultural capital. His economic capital is in the form of Funding from the parent company in a scheme of JV (joint venture) agreements; and social capital comprises capital developed through parent company's ties. Those interrelated forms of capital have acted as 'enablers' by facilitating the business venturing process and execution of numerous entrepreneurial

activities, including forming strategic partnerships with manufacturer and supplier organisations, creating a harmonious relationship between JV partners, building the venture team and developing several functions of the business. In all three cases, symbolic capital is represented in the form 'ownership', 'power', 'independence' and effecting change in their lives and regional creative industries community.

The case accounts suffice to argue the importance of the notion of capital in nascent entrepreneurship. Bourdieu's (1986) notion of capital is relational and process oriented (Everett, 2002). Capital is created through a multiplicity of relations, such as observed in the incubator centre, industrial networking organisation, new venture, and the education system. For entrepreneurship researchers this means viewing the entrepreneurial process of new venture creation embedded in a field of relations, one wherein entrepreneurs relentlessly and constantly strive to accumulate capital, which is considered as a form of 'power' for entrepreneurial enacting. How a composition of different forms of capital at nascent entrepreneurs' 'disposition' (Bourdieu, 1977, 1990) affects their 'performativity' (Butler, 1997; Bell, 1999; Tatli and Özbilgin, 2006)[22] is the concern of next section.

14.2.3 Agentic and performative capacity of nascent entrepreneurs

One of the liberal philosophies that entrepreneurship is based upon argues for 'human intentionality' and 'freedom of choice' (Bird, 1988; Shaver and Scott, 1991; Pittaway, 2000, 2003, 2005). This thesis demonstrates that there are more complex processes that account for what we term as 'entrepreneurial process of business venturing', and the interrelated processes of 'entrepreneurial identity construction' and 'entrepreneurial learning', which are essentially imbued with relational, context and time specific, and, agentic and performative dynamics. The accounts of nascent entrepreneurs studied during my fieldwork depict 'agentic and performative capacity' as a constitutive and implicit component of entrepreneurial activity. A nascent entrepreneur makes a determined effort

[22] See Butler, 1997 for the introduction of the concept of performativity; see Bell, 1999 for a discussion on the application of the concept in organisation studies; see Tatli and Özbilgin, 2006 for the application in the area of diversity management.

to create a new organisation, engaging in a social and economic activity, enacting certain roles and performing certain discourses in certain contexts.

This conclusion has been arrived by applying the social constructionist approach that acknowledges the human agency and active perceptual constructions between the members of a society (Nicholson and Anderson, 2005). It was shown through the case account, KBrandArt, that the nascent entrepreneurs involved pursued a networking activity under a new organisation (i.e. INO) by attracting support from other business owners in the local creative industries and also from governmental organisations in terms of funding and publicity. The efforts of the nascent entrepreneurs can be described as, and involve, complex human interactivities. These interactivities are underscored by the processes of (a) legitimacy building in the context of multiple stakeholders, (b) negotiation of meanings, and (c) enacting, promoting and sustaining co-ordinated effort by creating platforms for exchange of resources. In the case of KBrandart, legitimacy building involved building legitimacy of the new venture, KBrandArt, as the driving force of the new initiative, INO, and establishing the legitimacy of the INO itself. Negotiation of meanings included negotiation of meanings as to what INO should seek to achieve; what it should constitute; how it should be framed strategically, legally and operationally. Exchange of resources was achieved by forming a steering group that comprised a broad spectrum of people in the local creative industries; by holding regular meetings; by commissioning a consultancy project to map out the enterprise activities in the Derbyshire creative industries; and by formalising the networking activity under a charity organisation. These processes triggered debates over public-private sector divide at some steering group meetings, which I attended as a researcher, and some efforts were made to endorse the bottom-up approach that underpinned the creation of the INO. The overall approach was that the needs of the creative industries in the region have been identified by the creative business founders themselves, who pushed the agenda through governmental and non-governmental organisations. This meant performing certain actions and discourses while omitting others. For example, the nascent entrepreneurs felt the need to include somebody from the local city council on the board of the new organisation. Similarly, they sought funding from the local RDA to commission the

consultancy project, which again served the purpose of justifying and legitimising the overall activity of creating a new networking organisation for the creative enterprises in the region.

Revisiting the conceptualisation of 'performativity'[23] (Butler, 1997; Bell, 1999; Tatli and Özbilgin, 2006), Rosie and Richard, the other participant entrepreneurs in the study, pursued their business venturing endeavour in interaction with various stakeholders, by managing an intricate web of strategic relationships and performing in strategic ways that will enable them to increase the capitals at their dispositions. Rosie acquired a significant volume of cultural capital through her Law and Business studies and enterprise training programme, while developing social capital at the same time through networking. Her entrepreneurial awareness and agentic capacity have increased over time as she has managed to transform different forms of capital into each other. She was able to perform in entrepreneurial ways in her search for funding and a manufacturer for her game, drawing on the advice and support that she was getting from her enterprise mentors in the incubator centre. These exemplify what is actually meant by 'agentic and performative capacity' of nascent entrepreneurs as revealed by this study.

The central argument of this section is that nascent entrepreneurship is a social process whereby nascent entrepreneurs create a new venture to actualise their ideas for a product, service or process by relationally and relentlessly pursuing business opportunities; by developing their agentic and performative capacity as entrepreneurs so that they can engage in strategic exchange of relationships. 'Agentic and performative capacity' is also a distinctive component of entrepreneurial identity.

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[23] See the discussion on 'performativity' in Chapter 11 as a function of interrelated components including the volume of 'capital' under the nascent entrepreneurs' 'disposition', and the form of legitimised action in relation to 'habitus' and 'field'.

14.3 Meso-relational level qualities: Forming venture communities

Nascent entrepreneurship is characterised by a social exchange of relationships. The nascent entrepreneurs that participated in this study have formed or joined broader communities of people, termed as 'venture communities' in the research. The meso-relational level qualities of their entrepreneurial experience can be encapsulated in three interconnected themes: business venturing as a process of generative exchange by developing *habitus* through entrepreneurial experience, co-construction of entrepreneurial and organisational identities, and entrepreneurial learning from critical incidents.

14.3.1 Business venturing as a process of generative exchange: Developing *habitus* through entrepreneurial practice

The academic discourse on entrepreneurial process of venturing identifies the necessary and sufficient conditions of the business venturing process and leaves untouched the social construction of the variety of characteristics and forms that this process may generate in practice (Chell, forthcoming, 2007). This research has generated insights into the social construction of various forms of nascent entrepreneurship as experienced, and constructed, by the research participants, (i.e. nascent entrepreneurs and enterprise educators and mentors) and the researcher herself.

The business venturing process by the nascent entrepreneurs involved processes of sense-making and developing understandings of the market and those of the views of the stakeholders, in addition to refining their own future objectives and rewards. We can discern in the social constructionist writings of Anderson (2003, 2005) an approach that describes the process of entrepreneurship as a process of becoming, which is transitive and about enacting a future. As a part of their entrepreneurial becoming, the nascent entrepreneurs that are presented in the case accounts have engaged in strategic exchanges with numerous actors, including, for example, financiers, suppliers, distribution partners, and the officers of RDAs and local universities. Generative dialogues and formulating

models of understandings and actions are fundamental characteristics of such modes of engagement in strategic exchanges.

This research has illustrated that entrepreneurial process of new venture creation is characterised by developing practical meanings and actions as a result of the spontaneously coordinated interplay (including spontaneous exploitation of contingencies at times) of nascent entrepreneurs' responsive relations to each other (as in the case of KBrandArt in which a team of nascent entrepreneurs interacting with each other exists) or other relevant stakeholders in the venture community. Their venturing process is grounded in this venture community, and given shape and direction, by patterns of enduring exchanges, which Bourdieu (1977) describes as '*habitus*'. Rosie's responses and actions, for example, in relation to her mentors in the incubation centre or the financiers when she was seeking sponsorship, reflected such exchanges. Richard's actions in executing the creation of the new venture within the framework of JV partnership also exemplify this notion of *habitus*.

These responsive relations do not always present themselves as smooth or straightforward relations without any tensions or contingencies involved. In the venture team meetings in the case setting of KBrandArt, debates and contradictory arguments have been observed, when shaping the direction of the business, as exemplified in Chapter 11 through presentation of a meeting talk. However, they seemed to take forward the process of developing the venture through 'heedful interrelating' (Weick and Roberts, 1993) and by deciding on actions that are deemed to be the most appropriate responses endowed with meaning and interest.

The analysis of case accounts show that the nascent entrepreneurs have developed a 'feel for the game' during the business venturing process. Their entrepreneurial experience is characterised by developing meanings, sharing understandings and pursuing their business ideas through various vehicles in interaction with numerous stakeholders. The experience that I refer to does not consist in a stock of technical knowledge, as some scholars such as Minniti and Bygrave (2001) or Politis (2005) have posited, but rather in

a 'relational' posture, which can be defined by the concept of *habitus* whereby the micro-individual and macro-field (structural) conditions existing in a state of interplay (Bourdieu, 1986; Özbilgin et al., 2005) can be explored. As a meso-relational concept, *habitus* offers a more critical alternative to the concept of culture as discussed in Chapter Two. Revisiting Bourdieu's (1977: 72, 95) definition of *habitus,* it is argued that he also connects it to the micro level of agency (Özbilgin and Tatli, 2005), as discussed earlier in Chapter Two:

> '[Habitus is] the strategy generating principle enabling agents to cope with unforeseen and ever-changing situations...as system of lasting and transposable dispositions, which integrating past experiences, functions at every moment as a matrix of perceptions, appreciations and actions that made possible the achievement of infinitely diversified tasks' (Bourdieu, 1977: 72, 95).

This conceptualisation of habitus denotes a historically constituted, shared generative schema of perceptions, appreciations and actions, mediating between structure and agency (Nash, 1999) or connecting structure and agency in a dialectical relationship (Gorton, 2000), which enables the (re)production of social practices by individuals in a social group (Bourdieu, 1985). One can problematise the use of '*habitus*' in explaining nascent entrepreneurship as the concept of *habitus* implies a regulatory mechanism that is contrary to the workings of entrepreneurs[24]. Entrepreneurship is about 'creativity' or 'producing' new worlds rather than 'reproducing' (Hjort, 2003a; Steyaert, 2005). In other words, entrepreneurs tend to break the mould, work to their own rules and set new precedents. Hence they do not simply reproduce extant social practices. However, nascent entrepreneurs' activities do shape, and are shaped by, the dynamics of meso and macro level aspects of the entrepreneurial process, including the market forces of an industry or region and institutional forces of the enterprise culture. Therefore, nascent entrepreneurs engage in a dialogue between 'established *habitus*' and 'emergent *habitus*'. Learning element of this dialogue involves developing practical theories of what works or what doesn't, developed during the course of 'entrepreneurial socialisation' that they go through in the process of business venturing. These practical theories are internalised

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[24] This is also related to Martin and Sugarman's (1996) thesis of getting beyond the social determinism of socio-historical structures as implicit in some forms of social constructionism.

and transformed to dispositions that generate meaningful practices within a social space, which is the field where entrepreneurs relentlessly pursue entrepreneurial practices to achieve their objectives. Therefore, it is this understanding of 'habitus' that is applied in this research, which recognises the meso-relational aspects of nascent entrepreneurs' engagement in the entrepreneurial activities of starting a business, by drawing on their individual past experiences, current understandings and interactions with a view to enact the future through strategic exchanges with various social actors in the field and developing practical theories from an entrepreneurial learning perspective.

The way in which it is applied in this research illustrates its strength of illuminating the business venturing process as a generative exchange between the members of a venture community, involving the nascent entrepreneurs formulating and adjusting their responses, strategies and actions during the course of 'entrepreneurial socialisation'. It allows one to inquire into the relational judgements embodied in such features of strategic exchanges and tactics in the course of business venturing. The creation of the INO by the nascent entrepreneurs of the case KBrandArt, Rosie's involvement in Enterprise Challenge competition and subsequent decision to set up the new venture in the incubation centre of the local university and Richard's pursuit of his business idea through a joint venture partnership framework can all be given as exemplars of such relational judgements embodied in their strategic exchanges, while striving for the establishment and growth of their new business.

How do nascent entrepreneurs, relating to habitus-based perceptions, meanings and actions in the field of enterprise culture, with its government agents, banks and universities providing business incubation or education programmes and creative industries, construct their entrepreneurial identity and the identity of their organisations? This question is the concern of next section.

14.3.3 Co-construction of entrepreneurial and organisational identities

The identity construction of nascent entrepreneurs involves choices (Pittaway, 2000) that over time lead to entrepreneurial decisions. These choices and decisions are associated with a number of interrelated factors across the cases including a cultural foundation and importance of education in upbringing, significance of creativity and independence in choosing education and experience of creative industries in the community. Their 'entrepreneurial becoming' is described as emergent, dynamic and interlinked with the 'organisational becoming', using Fletcher's (2004) words, that is embedded in their social and historical contexts, as illuminated from a social constructionist standpoint. In reflecting on the KBrandArt case, the organisations that they have created (both KbrandArt and INO) are used as agents of change to effect change in their lives and their communities. This also applies to the story of Rosie, who actively used her business idea that culminated in a venture, R-Games, as an agent of change, to change her life from being a taxi driver to a successful young entrepreneur (29 years old) that was featured in national, local TV and newspapers. Her entrepreneurial identity is characterised by her entrepreneurial endeavour to break patterns, pursue new directions in life and choose her own way by actualising a business idea in the form of a new enterprise.

The main process involved in the reciprocal production of entrepreneurial identity and business identity is the dialectical enactment of 'ceremonial' and 'remedial' work, which are terms put forward by Gherardi (1994) in gender studies. In the case of Rosie, the distinctive features of ceremonial work includes cultivating public relations, by attending social events, delivering speeches to enterprise communities including students as a nascent entrepreneur, forming strategic alliances; and enhancing the corporate image and personifying the company. The remedial work includes defining the unique selling point of the product that positions the product in the market as a souvenir game and finding alternative ways of funding. In the case study of five nascent entrepreneurs who formed the KBrandArt, the ceremonial work includes similar activities of raising the profile of the new venture by taking part in, and winning the Shell Live Award competition, and creating a sectoral networking organization. Their aversion to public policies for new enterprise creation in specific sectors, more specifically, providing incubators for nascent

entrepreneurs in the creative industries, can be interpreted as remedial practices necessary to ensure that KBrandArt is effectively imbued with an independent corporate image as a creative business, a brand communications agency, which symbolically sustains entrepreneurship.

The case accounts also demonstrate the spatial dimension of entrepreneurial identity, as a recurrent theme in the entrepreneurship research (Anderson, 2003; Foss, 2004). The efforts and identity construction processes of the nascent entrepreneurs are shaped by and also shape the current discourses and institutions of enterprise culture. The nascent entrepreneurs studied in this research perform two essential actions of identity formation: identification and differentiation (Melucci, 1982 cited in Bruni, Gherardi and Poggio, 2005). When they talked about themselves as entrepreneurs in the interviews, they tended to emphasise their opportunistic, creative and risk taking characteristics, thereby representing themselves as entrepreneurs in the community, comparing with other entrepreneurs. The nascent entrepreneurs in the case of KBrandArt differentiated themselves from other groups (other student/nascent entrepreneurs in the region) by pursuing a business venturing route outside an incubator, focusing on their independent and corporate image. At the interviews, they made frequent reference to the notion of independence as a significant component of an entrepreneurial image and identity. Rosie, the nascent entrepreneur of R-Games, talked about herself as a self-believer and determined young woman who led a difficult and challenging life and is ready for further challenge on the way to realise her dream of starting her own company and being very successful. This can be cited as an example to her identification with other entrepreneurs. This can be cited as an example to her identification with other entrepreneurs. The dimension of differentiation is evident in her talk. She differentiates herself from other student entrepreneurs who took part in the Enterprise Challenge competition. She also differentiates herself from those who have established businesses in the same university incubator centre in which she is located.

14.3.4 Entrepreneurial learning through experience and critical incidents

This research has revealed that entrepreneurial process is more complex than its earlier conceptualisations as a cognitive (e.g. Young and Sexton, 1997; Minniti and Bygrave, 2001) or social process (e.g. Cope, 2001, 2003, 2005; Rae, 2002) and can be understood from a multi-level perspective that links micro-level learning (personal learning of nascent entrepreneur) to meso (relational) and macro (contextual) dimensions. Through a further examination of the case accounts, it is argued that entrepreneurial learning has a multifaceted nature that can be explained by paying greater attention to complexities and subtleties of the process. In the case of KBrandArt, it is shown that the entrepreneurial learning process involves learning to transform creative artistic practice to a commercially viable business idea, learning to understand the dynamics of the creative industries and forming strategic alliances in the sector and influencing opinion-formers and policy makers towards certain initiatives. Learning to raise their profile and legitimise their venturing activity (KBrandArt venture) by steering a sectoral collaboration (i.e. creation of the sectoral network organisation, INO) is another aspect of their entrepreneurial learning. Equally, learning to perform certain discourses (e.g. constructing a business plan for the Shell Live Award competition for example or restructuring the departments of the business and communicating the business concept to clients via redesigning the website) and learning to cope with ever-changing situations, and even fashioning such situations in creating favourable social and economic relations, characterise their entrepreneurial learning .

Using 'critical incidents technique' (Chell, 1998) as explained in Chapter Eight, 'significant occurrences' were examined as catalysts for entrepreneurial learning. In order to gain a 'richer account' of entrepreneurial learning, the participants were encouraged to elaborate on their actions and responses in the context of these incidents and how their behaviour changed since then. Their construction of 'criticality': what they considered as critical cannot be divorced from the *habitus* of the venture community.

The research acknowledges the importance of such critical incidents in instigating new forms of behaviour. An integral part of the learning process is the relationship between

the reflection on these incidents and subsequent decision making. It is from these incidents that nascent entrepreneurs make transferences to other situations. Of particular interest is the complex relationship between the reflective process as 'learning episodes' and pursuit of entrepreneurial activities during the venturing process as they unfold. All case accounts demonstrate that generative nature of learning is prevailing as a result of learning episodes from such incidents. This contributes to 'entrepreneurial preparedness' (Harvey and Evans, 1995; Cope, 2005) of individuals as they accumulate entrepreneurial know-how and competences during new venture development process. This aids us to better understand the interrelated themes of 'cumulative learning', 'stock of knowledge' (Minniti and Bygrave, 2001), or 'learning history' in entrepreneurial contexts by unravelling the key learning incidents, relationships between them and how they influence later entrepreneurial actions.

'Prior learning' informs the entrepreneurial tasks of sustaining and growing the business once the venture is established. In case of KBrandArt, the nascent entrepreneurs have developed understandings of the creative industries context, national and regional developments pertaining to new enterprise creation and the nature of their business as a 'niche marketing' business. This has played an appreciable role in shaping the future direction of the business and preparing themselves to tackle the challenges, at least contemplating strategies to deal with foreseen challenges. Rosie's account demonstrates that nascent entrepreneurs' earlier frustrations with the financiers, for example, and the lessons drawn from such incidents influences the attitude and approach taken to external-financing of the business, which has significant implications for expanding the business.

14.4 Macro-level properties: Field of enterprise culture and creative industries

The nascent entrepreneurs' experiences of new venture creation and entrepreneurial learning are embedded in the macro-field. Such experiences can be seen as historically contingent constructions that arise out of a discourse including policies, programmes, texts produced, interpreted by a broader set of actors in a social context (the members of

a 'venture community' as discussed in the earlier section). Furthermore, discursive activities of nascent entrepreneurs often draw strategically from broader societal discourses consisting of enterprise culture and creative industries discourses in this research. The nascent entrepreneurs under study made sense of such discourses in particular ways and made attempts to fashion preferable social relations that would help them enact their entrepreneurial performances. The macro-level qualities of the process of nascent entrepreneurship, as studied in this research, are embodied in two key themes: perceived institutionalising forces of enterprise culture and those of creative industries.

14.4.1 Perceived institutionalising forces of enterprise culture

As with entrepreneurship, the term 'enterprise culture' is difficult to conceptualise (Ritchie, 1991), having a series of different meanings and implications (Fairclough, 1991; Morris, 1991; Selden, 1991; Carr and Beaver, 2002; Chell, 2004b) as discussed earlier in Chapter Four. In the UK the decade of 1980s was characterised by individualism, the pursuit of personal wealth, and emphasis put on 'enterprising' qualities of individuals and 'self-employment', which encapsulate the enterprise culture philosophy of the Thatcherite era. As a part of the 'popularisation' of entrepreneurship as a political ideology that occurred throughout the globe during the 1980s (Huse and Landstrom, 1997; Hjort, 2003b), several political interventions to encourage new business formation and to improve the situation of small businesses were mounted in the UK by the Conservative government. The shift away from a 'culture of dependency' on the welfare state to one of personal responsibility and self-reliance (Keat, 1991; Wheelock and Baines, 1998; Peters, 2001) was a strong element of what Morris (1991: 34) describes as a 'cultural engineering'. A nation of self-reliant and enterprising individuals was viewed as the panacea for Britain's social and economic ills (Heelas and Morris, 1991; Cope, 2001).

There have been several critiques of the enterprise culture philosophy and its associated policies and programmes of Thatcherite era, as captured in Chapter Four. The re-emergence of enterprise culture rhetoric under New Labour in the post-1997 era marks a different approach to 'marketing of entrepreneurship', which has highlighted

entrepreneurial activity as a 'socially beneficial' activity, dispelling the perception of entrepreneurship as an individualistic pursuit of personal wealth (Atherton, 2004; Chell, 2004b). Major policy programmes have been initiated, elevating high-growth entrepreneurship, mainly 'science entrepreneurship' and more recently 'social entrepreneurship'. Arguably, there exists a political consensus as to the importance of entrepreneurship and an increasing acknowledgement of the need to be more focused and to create a more conducive environment for enterprise and entrepreneurship. However, the post-1997 discourse of enterprise culture still emulates an 'over-loaded' notion of enterprise. The differences from that of Thatcherite era in terms of raising 'team-enterprise' have been noted, bringing about promotion of enterprise education as agent of change and development. The Higher Education Institutions have been given a crucial role to play in facilitating entrepreneurial activity, as discussed in greater detail in Chapter Four. One major facet of the pervasion of enterprise culture is the increase in the numbers of educational institutions teaching entrepreneurship courses and providing incubation programmes (Jack and Anderson, 1999).

Given the preceding summary of the discussion on the enterprise culture in the UK, the case studies and interviews with the enterprise educators and university incubation managers reveal a more positive attitude towards collaboration between nascent entrepreneurs and universities. Although some aspects (such as financial and legal support) of the structuring forces of enterprise culture[25] have been criticised strongly by the nascent entrepreneurs involved, the importance of working with entrepreneurship 'academics' and 'educators' has been recognised by the research participants. Nascent entrepreneurs in the KBrandArt case interpreted the forces of enterprise culture, mainly university incubators, differently and in fact 'negatively' at the outset and they opted for an 'independent' start-up, endorsing the 'autonomous' and 'self-reliant' image of business start-up in the creative industries. They collaborated with the local university that they graduated from on different levels, such as initiating a sectoral networking

[25] These forces include RDAs, universities, national and local government, non-governmental institutions providing business support programmes, incubation programmes, and various other enterprise initiatives.

organisation and participating in a doctoral research that mirrors some important characteristics of their business venturing experience back to them, and, in a way, facilitates reflection upon their own entrepreneurial endeavour and learning process attached to it. Therefore, they become 'reflective practitioners' and attuned to engaging in both 'art' and 'science' aspects of the entrepreneurial process, as argued by Jack and Anderson (1999). This also pertains to Richard's experience because his participation in the current research through two interviews facilitated an exchange of relationships between his new venture and the local university. The parent company's CEO was already involved in higher levels of 'entrepreneurship training' as a visiting Professor. The prevalent corporate culture, from which the new venture was created as a spin off, was influential in accommodating such a positive approach to involvement with higher education institutions.

A differing perception of the mechanisms of enterprise culture by Rosie, the nascent entrepreneur who set up her business in the local university's incubator centre, is worth noting. Her case accentuates the importance of university incubators as conducive environments for networking, facilitating more informed accomplishment of entrepreneurial activities during the business venturing process, and developing entrepreneurial know-how that have helped her cope with complex tasks and relationships with various stakeholders (i.e. financiers, suppliers, mentors, and customers). This draws a parallel with Gibb's (2002b) argument, as presented in Chapter Four, that effective entrepreneurship education and incubation programmes call for the creation of a context that reflects the actual experiences of entrepreneurs.

14.4.1.1 Perceived role of enterprise educators and mentors

Perceived role of enterprise educators and mentors is an important theme that emerged from this research. The second group of research participants[26], including enterprise educators and university incubator managers, drew attention to giving 'direction' and

[26] See Table 8.2 (p. 154) for the research questions and different group of participants to address the questions.

equipping nascent entrepreneurs' with access to knowledge and resources. The following extract from the interview transcript with an incubator manager, who is also an experienced enterprise educator, shows that he advocates the benefits of the notion of 'nurturing' the business at different stages of the nascent entrepreneurs' during the business venturing process in an incubator context:

"It is important to surround them with a lot of infrastructure, how to finance, how to get legal information, how to network. And ensuring that its infrastructure is actually in place to enable them to move the business forward. And then when they leave the incubator, they understand how a business operates...Big problem with incubation, big critique is that it is a very protective environment. They don't want to leave them or when they leave the incubator, they have got to face the harsh world outside and to be able to survive in that harsher environment.

In 1990s, in particular, there was a backlash in America. Because Americans were saying that these were too comfortable environments. People do not leave them, when they do leave, they don't survive. I would argue that the trouble with incubators is to make sure that they have prepared for an exit strategy. What you are doing is working with nascent entrepreneurs on an exit strategy. As with a child... If a baby is premature, you can't get her or him out and say 'that's it, get on with it'. You nurture the baby. What I am saying is incubation is about nurturing, working with them at different stages of their evolution and development. That links us to what we are trying to do here is to build up links, relationships with SMEs. They don't easily build up relationships with public sector companies.

Because traditionally, there is a fear of universities. Many entrepreneurs, small business managers have a negative feeling, partly because of their fear of the higher education (HE) system. Partly because they may enter the business without any formal qualifications whatsoever. For them, HE is a move from

reality. The government strategy is to try to get them through things like TCS, STEP (Science Technology Enterprise Programme) and to build up links with HE, business community, small business community. Trying to get universities to believe in small businesses and trying to get small businesses to believe in universities that they can help them. If we can manage to work with businesses at the pre-formation stage through incubator, then we can work with them after they exit the incubator. We won't have any problems trying to attract them in because we have been with them, we have worked with them and we are continuing to work together".

This highlights an increasing importance placed upon changing attitudes of the small business community towards universities in general and enterprise education and training in particular, as discussed in Chapter Four, as a broader rhetoric of collaboration between universities and business community. Hence, the role of enterprise educators and mentors in such incubation programmes is more focused, with a view to equipping nascent entrepreneurs' with know-how and know-who that are required for the business venturing process. This draws a parallel between what is discussed in section 4.3.1 of Chapter Four, conveying a shift towards facilitating the business development process (Barrow, 2001; Totterman and Sten, 2005), rather than providing a shared office facility at an affordable space as the initiatives of 'managed workspace' (Kirby, 2002) have done. The idea of endowing nascent entrepreneurs with business knowledge and helping them get access to the relevant people; information and other sources is prevailing in the current understanding of 'incubators' and training programmes. The following remark by one of the research participants, who is an enterprise educator, demonstrates this shift quite clearly:

'Incubators are not only basic premises. We have moved forward from the idea of managed workspace. There are two main problems which businesses, start-ups face: one is premises and two is know-how. Initially, incubators were seen as solving the first of the two: a kind of easy in, easy out; often links to a secretarial support. They were seen as providing low cost accommodation in

quality environments and within a longitudinal frame. You were often given reception facilities and financial service. Gradually, we have begun to recognise that it is important to find a solution to such premises to make them more effective. They have got to be backed by the knowledge support. What we are doing in most quality incubators is that we are combining it with different forms of mentoring, training and working with people to ensure that they understand the principles of doing a business'.

University incubators and entrepreneurship education and training can become instrumental in providing a fertile arena for nascent entrepreneurship, provided a critical approach is taken in the development of such programmes informed by research and practice. The way in which nascent entrepreneurs perceive these forces of enterprise culture can be influenced by such hybrid approaches that combine theory and practice (Jack and Anderson, 1999) and tailored to the particular needs at particular stages of their developmental trajectory in the course of the business venturing process.

14.4.2 Perceived market forces of creative industries

Revisiting the governmental definition (DCMS, 1998) as presented in Chapter 10, the term 'creative industries' marks 'individual creativity' combined with arts skills; generation of marketable products having the potential for wealth and job creation; and development of such commercially viable products whose value lies in their 'intellectual properties'. As discussed earlier, such a definition encompasses a vast range of businesses. Therefore, one has to be careful in using the term 'creative industries' due to the range and diversity of what may be labelled as 'creative business' (i.e. a business operating in the creative industries). The businesses that were under scrutiny in this research include a brand communications agency, a souvenir game business with interactive side developing alongside the core product, and an online subscription-based interactive game business. These businesses correspond to the process of value creation described for creative sector in the literature (e.g. Bilton and Leary, 2002; Brown, 2004;

Raffo et al., 2000). Due to intangible nature of the products and services, their commercial value is contingent upon how the audience/customer endows them with meanings. An advertising campaign or promotional material may appeal to a particular group of people because of the life style reasons and it can change their construction of the products and services advertised and subsequently buying behaviour. Similarly, during an interactive game session the value that players are finding is a function of various factors, including the symbolic value that customers are finding in terms of excitement, achievement and success by winning others as well as the 'belongingness' to a group of fellow players of the game that speaks the same game language and shares a similar passionate approach.

The nascent entrepreneurs studied in the research acknowledged that a fundamental characteristic of the creative sector is a 'customised approach', which entails a direct connection to the specific market and facilitating a symbolic exchange between the producer and customers. As discussed in Chapter 13, Rae (2003, 2005) uses the term 'cultural diffusion' to illuminate the process of symbolic exchange through which the venture engages the customer as an active participant, not simply as a passive consumer. In the case of R-Games, this meant Rosie, the nascent entrepreneur, trying to refine her game concept as a 'souvenir game' and develop its interactive/computer version that will be installed in aeroplanes for tourists travelling to London. Richard, the nascent corporate entrepreneur of the case JV-Games, paid a great deal of attention to getting the game content right and establishing a strong customer services infrastructure. In the case of KBrandArt, this meant sharpening their business concept by segmenting the market and offering more customised and refined products and services. This affected the venture development process in the later stages, stages that might be described as 'strategic' and 'tactical' according to Lichtenstein et al. (2006), in terms of restructuring the organisation with three key departments, KBrandArt Studios, KBrandArt Interactive and KBrandArt Strategy; and furthermore, recruiting a brand manager that will help them develop the marketing strategy side of the business. In the participant observation sessions and interviews, they often referred to the creative sector in the UK being characterised by a vast number of free lancers or self-employed people who work on an ad-hoc, contractual

basis with creative businesses such as themselves. Given this awareness, they have worked with a number of freelancers on a variety of projects since the establishment of the venture. However, their decision to employ a full time permanent employee as a brand manager was a crucial one in reflecting their readings of successful creative businesses in the sector and taking a longer term strategy in moulding their business.

The initial size and mode of the organisational form of all three ventures fit with what is termed as a 'micro-business' that reflects a feature of the creative industries, in line with the earlier discussion in Chapter 10, with reference to the works of Cunningham (2003, 2005) and Raffo et al. (2000). However, this is not considered to be a distinctive characteristic of these creative businesses in this research, as most start-ups of this nature would be similarly 'micro-businesses'. A more longitudinal research would shed light on this aspect in terms of how these ventures fit with the overall characteristics of the creative sector, including growth rate and size.

What is crucial in this research is that how these nascent entrepreneurs perceive the current discourses of creative industries and fashion their actions in establishing favourable exchanges of social and economic relationships through networking. As noted in Chapters 10 and 13, participation in selected networks, influencing opinion-formers and being talked about in the right way are crucial and learned aspects of entrepreneurial working in the creative industries (Leadbeater and Oakley, 1999). The nascent entrepreneurs who set up KBrandArt opted for not forming the venture inside the local university incubator facilities for creative industries due to their perception of an entrepreneurial creative venture being independent, autonomous and self-sufficient. Furthermore, two of the nascent entrepreneurs, Denise and Adam, put in a determined effort and time in initiating a sectoral networking organisation, INO, which evolved from a series of loose connections amongst people in the creative industries in Derbyshire to a structured organisation with its website, board, mission statement, activities and membership structure in two years time. INO was perceived to have the potential to unlock creativity and enterprise and to influence the creation of an entrepreneurial culture by fostering partnerships, collaboration and exchange of ideas. These are considered as

defining market forces in the creative industries. It is important to shape the attitudes and perceptions of people who work in the creative industries towards being more enterprising and entrepreneurial; create new markets; expand production chains; encourage diversity and deliver business support and even financial assistance, as captured in Chapter 10. The nascent entrepreneurs in the case demonstrate some entrepreneurial qualities of responding to such dynamics of the macro-field in which their business venturing process is embedded. It is a reflexive process: They do shape such dynamics and they are shaped by them.

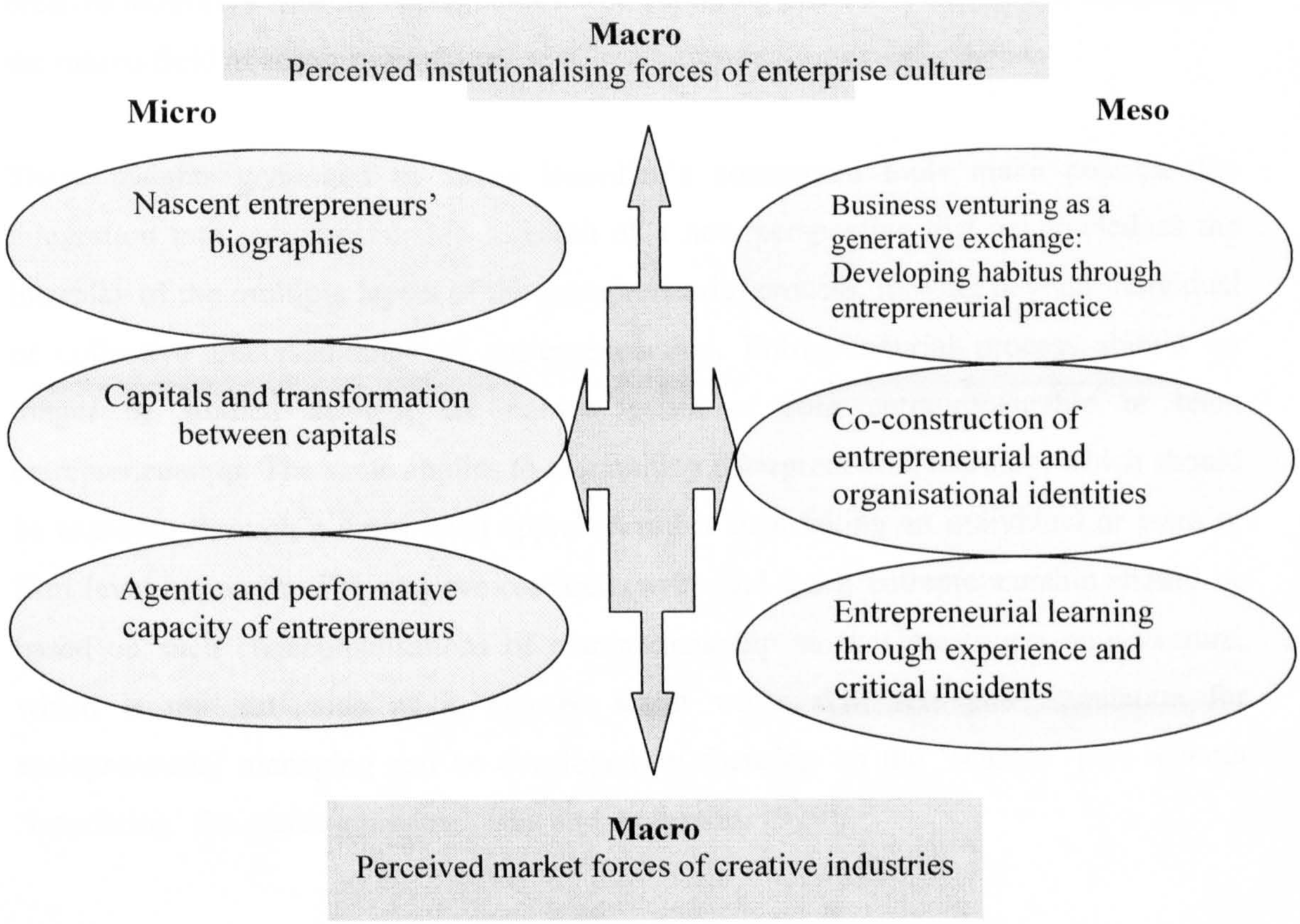
In concluding this section on the perceived market forces of creative industries, it is important to note the interface of macro-meso level dynamics in terms of the need for political, economic and strategic support for the creative industries, as discussed in Chapter 10. If it is the case that nascent entrepreneurs often rely on formal or informal networks to transform their creative work to a commercially viable one through value adding entrepreneurial activities, a thorough understanding of their needs, and, subsequently, tailored support programmes are fundamentally important, while maintaining the integrity of their creative work. A research participant, the manager of the incubator facility for the nascent entrepreneurs in the creative interviews, used the metaphor 'bauhaus synergy' to signify networking and generative exchange of relationships in the creative industries environment, and established a link between creativity and enterprise, which entails a careful approach to the development of enterprise support programs for potential or nascent entrepreneurs in the creative industries:

> *"There is a community of practitioners which feed off each other's creativity. I use the term 'Bauhaus Synergy'. When turning this building into a real incubator, we shouldn't jeopardise this creative environment. We should remain in this luxurious position to maintain the space for that creative inheritance. Our job is to increase the support available so that they can voluntarily access and develop a structured view about commercialising their work; and they can get closer to funding bodies and training bodies as well".*

14.5 Moving beyond an individual or collective perspective of nascent entrepreneurship towards a multi-layered understanding

A social constructionist approach enables us to take into consideration different stakeholders during the business venturing process and address their needs more effectively. Social constructionist approaches offer a view of the way in which social order and transformation is rooted in joint-sense making and identity-construction. These social processes precede and underpin accounts of organizational development and changing business models as the results of the interplay of markets, culture, large institutionalizing forces or networking, relationships and personal entrepreneurial learning and managing (Downing, 2005: 188). Therefore, they should be examined at these intersecting levels – micro, meso and macro (Karataş-Özkan and Murphy, 2006: 119). A multi-layered understanding of nascent entrepreneurship from a learning perspective has been arrived in this thesis, integrating micro, meso and macro dimensions of the process. The key themes are summarised in the following Figure 14.1:

Figure 14.1 A multi-layered conceptualisation of nascent entrepreneurship



The social construction of nascent entrepreneurship is explicated with reference to a dynamic and emergent process, which is imbued with an interplay of micro-meso-macro level qualities of the process of business venturing. Nascent entrepreneurs (micro level) disposed to start up their own businesses, relentlessly and relationally pursue their business ideas and form their new enterprises by drawing on a combination of different forms of capital (e.g. cultural and social capitals), with an objective to attain other forms of capital (e.g. economic and symbolic capitals). Their agentic and performative capacity as entrepreneurs in transforming capitals to each other and engaging in strategic exchanges with the social actors in the field are important facets of the business venturing process. They are explained by meso-relational level qualities such as developing *habitus* through entrepreneurial practice, co-construction of entrepreneurial and organisational identities and entrepreneurial learning through experience and critical incidents. All of these processes are embedded in the macro-field of enterprise culture with its institutional

forces such as government agents, banks and higher education institutions; and in the creative industries with its market forces. The venturing process is shaped by, and shapes, the macro-field of enterprise culture.

These insights generated by using Bourdieu's conceptual tools make possible the integration into entrepreneurship research of a new perspective that acknowledges the interplay of the multiple layers of the entrepreneurial process, moving beyond individual or collective understandings of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial process should no longer be studied through the narrow prism of solo entrepreneurship or team entrepreneurship. The same applies to researching entrepreneurial learning, which should be explored through a multi-level approach rather than taking an individual or team or firm level approach. The way we research, write and teach entrepreneurship should be based on such conceptualisations of entrepreneurship so that creating a new venture, which is the 'art' side of it, can be learnt while skill sets and foundation for entrepreneurial managing can be developed by focusing on the 'science' part without 'interfering' the crafting process (Jack and Anderson, 1999).

14.6 Conclusions to the chapter

In this chapter I have sought to take the analysis of the case accounts to another level, which is interpretation according to Wolcott (1994), by revisiting Bourdieu's orienting tools at micro/meso/macro levels as established in Chapter Two. Nascent entrepreneurship is conceptualised from a multilayered perspective by taking into account the interplay of micro, meso and macro level qualities of the process.

PART FIVE

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Synopsis

This part includes the final chapter, Chapter 15, conveying a summary and conclusions of the thesis. The research aims and questions are revisited and the key conclusions of the study are summarised by discussing with specific reference to conceptual frameworks developed in this research. These frameworks have been constructed by drawing on the fieldwork accounts and are explored in conjunction with the conceptual issues identified from the literature on nascent entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial process and entrepreneurial learning. The implications of the findings are discussed in relation to theory development, academic researchers, practitioners and academic-practitioner collaboration. The limitations of the research are identified. The key areas for further research are highlighted. My journey of studying this research degree is presented from a learning perspective.

The Structure of the Thesis

What is worth knowing?
Philosophical debates

Part One: Foundation of the Thesis

What do we believe about the nature of reality?
Ontological debates

How do we know what we know?
Epistemological debates

What questions should we ask?
Disciplinary debates

Part Two: Disciplinary debates

How should we study the world?
Methodological debates

Part Three: Methodology Matters

How do we personally engage in inquiry?
Reflexivity debates

What are the research accounts? What insights into the subject have been generated through this research?

Description, analysis and interpretation
of the research cases

Part Four: Case accounts: Description, Analysis and Interpretation

What conclusions can be drawn from the study in order to address
the research questions?
What are the implications for academics and practitioners?

Part Five: Concluding Remarks

Chapter Fifteen: Summary and Conclusions

Chapter Fifteen: Summary and Conclusions

15.1 Introduction to the chapter

Entrepreneurship is a nebulous concept, a collection of taken-for-granted assumptions (Hjort, 2003; Steyaert and Hjort, 2003; Gartner, 2004; Steyaert, 2005), which are tacitly and explicitly informed by the 'logic of practice', in Bourdieu's (1990, 1998) terms. We assume that we share a common understanding of the concept through socialization or tacit knowledge through social education. Entrepreneurship (both as a discipline and practice) provides a platform that transcends the dichotomy of agency-structure, which exists on the platform of knowable, foreseeable and observable (Steyaert, 2005). This thesis demonstrates nascent entrepreneurship as a socially constructed process, which means that it is historically, geographically and discursively specific. In this thesis, I do not make any claims of generalisability. The case accounts are only examples. However, they are very rich and vivid examples of nascent entrepreneurship.

The chapter is presented in four sections. The key themes that emerged from the research are discussed in the first section, revisiting the research questions set out. This discussion is followed in the second section by highlighting the contribution made to the ongoing debate in the entrepreneurship studies and practice. Academic-practitioner collaboration is viewed as the key and this is highlighted in relation to training and educating nascent entrepreneurs in particular. My learning experience as a novice researcher coupled with my experience as an entrepreneurship and enterprise educator towards the end of my doctoral study is presented in the third section. Limitations and suggestions for further research are outlined in the fourth section. The summary of the chapter is made in the final section.

15.2 Revisiting the research aim, objectives and questions

The research aim, objectives and questions were refined in the course of the research study. The focused remained on studying new venture creation process from an entrepreneurial learning perspective. The overall aim was identified as follows:

'The current research seeks to generate a greater understanding of the nascent entrepreneurs' learning and managing experiences by exploring their perspectives in relation to the enterprise culture and education discourses in the UK'.

To address this overall aim, three research objectives and questions were specified, as originally presented in Chapter Three.

First research objective:

1. To understand the social construction of the business venturing process as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs.

Associated research questions were formulated as:

- What is the nature of business venturing process as experienced by nascent entrepreneurs?
- How do the selected nascent entrepreneurs view the process in terms of its salient characteristics?
- What are the processes of social construction involved?

The social construction of the business venturing process is elucidated in this research with reference to a complex and emergent process whereby individual nascent entrepreneurs (micro level) actively and relationally form their new enterprises as a part of a broader venture community (meso-relational level), which is embedded in the macro field of enterprise culture with its institutions and education programmes.

The social constructionist literature on entrepreneurship shows considerable interest in process-relational aspects of business venturing and is receptive to inter-relationship between process, social interactions, language and discourse in shaping entrepreneurial outcomes (e.g. Steyaert, 1998, 2003, 2004, 2005; Anderson, 2003, 2005; Fletcher and Tansley, 2003; Fletcher and Watson, 2003; Nicholson and Anderson, 2005). This study was not about evaluating the entrepreneurial process or about finding out 'what actually happened' during the process and how it affected 'entrepreneurial performance' (Anderson, 2005). Rather it sought to explore how the nascent entrepreneurs narrated their entrepreneurial experience and how they viewed this experience from a learning perspective.

The research accounts illustrate that in practice the business venturing process contains both emergent and planned elements, in approach and content. With regard to emergent approaches to new venture creation (e.g. Fletcher, 1997, 2002, 2003; Steyaert, 2003; Anderson, 2005), the study illustrates the importance of creativity and how nascent entrepreneurs create new business opportunities by actualising implicit possibilities into new contexts (Steyaert, 1998). By drawing on one's earlier experiences and capitals that have been generated (cultural, social, economic or symbolic capitals), nascent entrepreneurs engage in a transformative process. This process is characterised by the interaction of structural and agentic forces at multiple levels. A process-relational conceptualisation of entrepreneurship was taken into account in this research by drawing on the studies of scholars including Stevenson and Gumpert (1985), Stevenson and Jarillo (1990), Chell (2000, 2001), and Fletcher and Watson (2003), as discussed in Chapters One and Four:

*Entrepreneurship is the process through which people with ideas for product, service or process relentlessly and relationally pursue business opportunities without regards to alienable resources currently available and with an intention and motivation to create wealth and accumulate capit*al.

From this thesis it can be argued that one needs to reconsider the underlying motivations for entrepreneurial endeavours at the micro-individual level (i.e. nascent entrepreneurs' level). The intrinsic motivation of entrepreneurs is not only wealth creation but also the need to position themselves in society as 'creators' and 'owners' and 'change agents'. This requires acknowledgement of human will power and belief for personal and social change, which can also be viewed as an existential challenge.

The thesis has generated insights into 'agentic and performative capacity' of nascent entrepreneurs as a constitutive and implicit aspect of entrepreneurial activity. The analysis of case accounts have shown that nascent entrepreneurs make a determined effort to create a new enterprise. They do this by engaging in social and economic activity on certain forms of capital that they have developed and by engineering situations and relationships that allow them to enact their entrepreneurial role. One of the interesting findings from the study is that 'performativity' is a function of micro, meso, and macro level concepts, including the volume of 'capital' inherent in the nascent entrepreneurs' 'disposition', and the form of legitimised action in relation to '*habitus*' and 'field'. The participant nascent entrepreneurs in the study have pursued their entrepreneurial endeavour in interaction with various stakeholders, by managing an intricate web of strategic relationships and performing certain discourses in strategic ways that will allow them to enhance the capitals at their disposition. The transformation between different forms of capital has been a significant part of the process in all three cases. The strength of such a transformation lies in its potential to shape and strengthen entrepreneurial identity, which is closely linked to organisational identity developed in the creative industries context.

Second research objective:

2. To explore how nascent entrepreneurs develop meanings, understandings and actions while engaged in entrepreneurial activities of business venturing.

Associated research questions were formulated as:

- How do nascent entrepreneurs develop meanings, understandings and actions while engaged in entrepreneurial activities of venturing?
- What are the important facets of their entrepreneurial learning experience?

Drawing on the social construction processes underscoring the business venturing process, the current research sought to explore the entrepreneurial experiences of the participants from a learning perspective. A need to move beyond the cognitive approaches to entrepreneurial learning has been well-acknowledged in the literature (Cope, 2003, 2005; Rae, 2002, 2004, 2006). Social constructionist or 'constructivist'[27] approaches have been advocated in exploring learning process of entrepreneurs and subsequent teaching programmes. In a very recent article, Binks, Starkey and Mahon (2006) highlight the need to understand nascent entrepreneurs' development of human and social capital over the simple cognitive assimilation of skills and/or knowledge[28]. Flowing from a social constructionist premise, and moving beyond the current social constructionist explanations of entrepreneurial learning (Cope, 2003, 2005; Rae, 2002, 2004, 2006), entrepreneurial learning can be understood from a multi-level perspective that links micro-level learning (personal learning of nascent entrepreneur) to meso (relational) and macro (contextual) dimensions, combining a number of sub-themes. As illustrated in Figure 14.1 (p. 337), the sub-themes include developing capitals, agentic and performative capacity, and dispositions at micro-individual level; learning to enact business venturing as a strategically generative process, learning through experience and critical incidents and learning to form an entrepreneurial identity aligned with the organisational identity developed, at the meso-relational level. These sub-processes of entrepreneurial learning are all embedded in macro-field of enterprise culture. Through a further examination of the case accounts, it is argued that entrepreneurial learning has a multifaceted nature that can be explained by paying greater attention to complexities and subtleties of the process, by analysing the above mentioned sub-processes carefully.

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[27] See the Cardiff papper in Appendix II for a discussion on the distinction between constructionism and constructivism.

[28] Such cognitive approaches to entrepreneurial learning have been criticised in Chapter Six.

The participant nascent entrepreneurs in this study, who have drawn on their personal repertoire of life experiences, capitals, and agentic and performative capacity, have constructed meanings and understandings, pertaining to the entrepreneurial activities in which they were engaged, through experience and critical incidents. Concurrently, they have developed entrepreneurial actions of creating, recognising and acting on opportunities, which include creating resources, forming strategic alliances, entrepreneurial decision making and 'enaction' (Gartner et al., 1992; Anderson, 2005). Entrepreneurs' construction of the realities of the new world that they are creating cannot be divorced from the *habitus* of the venture community, which is a strategy generating schema that is actively developed in the social interaction of nascent entrepreneurs with numerous stakeholders in the field.

Practical meanings and actions are generated as a result of the spontaneously co-ordinated interplay of nascent entrepreneurs' responsive relations with relevant stakeholders in the venture community. Practical theories (Rae and Carswell, 2001) of what works or what doesn't are developed during the course of 'entrepreneurial socialisation', which is a part of the process in developing '*habitus*'. These practical theories are internalised and transformed into dispositions that generate meaningful and strategic relationships and practices within a social space that is 'field'.

The learning process of nascent entrepreneurs can be best encapsulated by the notion of 'entrepreneurial becoming' (Anderson, 2005) that is described as an emergent and dynamic process; and interwoven with 'organisational becoming' (Fletcher, 2002, 2003). That's why one of the sub-themes of the multi-level framework that is generated in this research is 'co-construction of entrepreneurial and organisational identities'. The reciprocal production of entrepreneurial identity and business identity is imbued with a dialectical enactment of 'ceremonial' and 'remedial' work, which are terms borrowed from Gheardi (1994) in her research in gender studies. As discussed in section 14.3.3, both the ceremonial and remedial work include strong elements of entrepreneurial learning. Ceremonial work of cultivating public relations, raising the profile of the

business through several initiatives and activities, and forming strategic alliances calls for developing entrepreneurial skills and competences such as creativity, independent and generative thinking and opportunity creation. Remedial work of, for example, engineering solutions to perceived problems, fashioning adverse interactions in way that would serve a positive purpose during the venturing process involves learning to cope with these situations and developing contingencies.

Third research objective:

3. To examine how the aforementioned processes (i.e. business venturing and entrepreneurial learning) relate to the enterprise culture in the UK, with its higher education institutions (providing a variety of forms of enterprise education or business support and development services).

Associated research questions were formulated as:

- How do the processes of business venturing and entrepreneurial learning relate to the macro field of the UK enterprise culture, with its higher education institutions supplying a variety of forms of enterprise education or business support programs such as incubation programs?
- How are micro-individual (nascent entrepreneur), meso-relational (venture community and generated '*habitus*') and macro-field (forces of enterprise culture and market forces of creative industries) facets of nascent entrepreneurship interrelated?

These questions are addressed by looking into the characteristics of the venturing process at each level (nascent entrepreneur, venture community and field of enterprise culture and creative industries) in Chapters 10 to 14. As a part of the enterprise culture, the role of higher education is fundamental in providing an environment for nascent entrepreneurs whereby they can get support and guidance in the early stages of their venturing process; have access to knowledge, information and other resources through situated learning and mentoring via entrepreneurship courses and benefit from incubation schemes in order to

enhance their understanding of setting up a business and improve their networking activity. Some might view the incubators restraining the essence of a creative business, which is creative independence. However, one should take a critical approach and gauge the advantages and disadvantages of independence and collaboration through an incubation scheme, looking at the issue from a nascent entrepreneur's perspective. From the perspective of incubation managers and enterprise educators that are involved in the development of such initiatives, programmes should be designed to address this particular need of potential or nascent entrepreneurs in the creative industries, i.e. the need of retaining creative integrity of their work. Therefore, incubator spaces and training programmes should serve the purpose of having them get access to relevant people, information, funding and training opportunities to commercialise their creative work.

A multi-layered understanding of nascent entrepreneurship from a learning perspective challenges the perceived tension, in the academic and policy environments, particularly in the university incubators, between the pursuit of creative practice and the preparation of nascent entrepreneur for entrepreneurial process. The two are not necessarily incompatible. This view proposes that addressing the enterprise side of art and design practice does not de-value creativity. It enhances it by providing a context for the transfer of creativity to commercial success. In line with the arguments of numerous scholars in the field, this calls for rethinking conventional models for business incubation programmes and entrepreneurship and enterprise training. The agenda for higher education should be re-gauged by taking a holistic approach with an understanding of nascent entrepreneurs' motivations and needs through an appreciation of the nature of capital that they hold and are willing to attain (at the micro level); that of organisational issues, i.e. new enterprises that they create, entrepreneurial practice that is developed as a part of a broader venture community that includes agents from RDAs, universities and stakeholders in the market- meso relational level, and macro forces of enterprise culture, driving the development and implementation of numerous business support programmes.

15.3 Contribution to the ongoing scholarly debate

This section presents the contribution of the current research to the academics and practitioners with a focus on the academic-practitioner collaboration.

15.3.1 Relating to the entrepreneurship scholars

Recently there has been a proliferation of studies in the subject domains of nascent entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial learning, as discussed earlier in Chapter Six. A multi-level approach has not been taken whereby individual entrepreneurs' learning (micro-level) can be examined in relation to the development of entrepreneurial learning at the meso-relational level by becoming a part of 'venture communities', which are embedded in certain socio-cultural and economic milieu (macro-level). The current study has aimed to address this gap in our understanding. By cross cutting the boundaries of levels of analysis –the nascent entrepreneur, the venture team, the nascent entrepreneur and associated actors, the macro field of enterprise culture-, this thesis offers an eloquent explanation of a complex web of human interactivities involved in nascent entrepreneurship. The social constructionist paradigmatic approach has enabled me to examine critically nascent entrepreneurship and its underlying processes of entrepreneurial learning and managing in detail. The convergence of two interrelated research trends offers timely momentum in studying nascent entrepreneurs' experiences of learning and managing: An increasing recognition of qualitative approaches to research in general (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, 2000; M. M. Gergen and K. J. Gergen, 2000) and the growing appreciation of narrative and discursive approaches to entrepreneurship in particular (Hjort and Steyaert, 2003; Hjort, 2004; Hosking and Hjorth, 2004; Anderson, 2005), which are often underpinned by social constructionist, critical theorist or postmodernist perspectives, provide a fertile ground for us, entrepreneurship scholars, to generate insights into the real lives of entrepreneurs.

The social constructionist approach has been one of the latest waves of entrepreneurship research. My thesis, I hope, contributes to these movements of the discipline, as highlighted by Steyaert and Hjort (2003), by studying the processes of social construction surrounding nascent entrepreneurship from a learning perspective. We will see more examples of this nature in the near future, as it happened in other disciplines such as organization studies. Through a combination of theories (i.e. social contructionist approaches to entrepreneurship and use of relational frameworks through the works of Bourdieu, Özbilgin and his co-workers) and explicating the intricacies of theoretical frameworks, I have attempted to contribute to the entrepreneurship discipline, which is conceived by Steyaert (2005: 3), as 'a fertile middle space, a heterotopic space for varied thinking, a space that can connect to many forms of theoretical thinking and where many thinkers can connect to, a so-called inter-discipline or rhizome that breaks with the idea that science is linear, progressive and cumulative'. The need for such insightful research in entrepreneurship studies is acknowledged by Gartner, Davidsson and Zahra (2006) in their recent article. The authors invite entrepreneurship scholars to engage in further dialogues that combine various theoretical and disciplinary perspectives.

15.3.2 Relating to the practitioners

The stories of the KBrandArt team and Rosie are instructive for those nascent entrepreneurs that consider setting up a business outside or inside an incubator setting respectively, and as a way to understand how different strategies in pursuing business opportunities and garnering resources can be utilised. The KBrandArt case is also redolent of how social exchanges impact on the entrepreneurial story and the venture. The facilitating and constraining aspects of social capital are worth considering in engaging in networking activity and engineering ties with stakeholders in the venture community. Richard's story of business venturing exemplifies an entrepreneurial process in the form of a spin-off activity and the dynamics of the process overlap with, and differ from, the other two cases. In essence, the case accounts provide rich and vivid examples to the process of nascent entrepreneurship.

Nascent entrepreneurs have a great deal to learn from, not only, the insights generated by a study of this nature but also from the research process (the fieldwork including participant observation of a researcher attending their board meetings and conversing with them through interviews or informal conversations during the course of the fieldwork). Nascent entrepreneurs need to view their own experiences as a process. A fertile dialogue between academics and nascent entrepreneurs can be created. Nascent entrepreneurs can use and integrate input of researchers, as they have done so through a management report and discussions about the research outcomes. Corporations have been known to work with academics for years. It is timely to argue that nascent entrepreneurs should understand the synergistic power of, and mutual benefits from, working with academics and researchers in order to integrate, academics' input, their thinking and their frameworks, in their process of new venture creation.

Entrepreneurship and enterprise educators and business mentors form another group of practitioners to which I aim to relate through this study. The learning process of nascent entrepreneurs has been examined in an in-depth manner in this research and it has been concluded that entrepreneurial learning is a complex process that calls for a combination of networking, skills and knowledge base, specifically technical and practical knowledge, in order to explore business ideas and create business a viable business opportunity, learning how to garner resources, learning to manage yourself and others as the venture grows, and learning inter-related functions of the business (i.e. marketing, finance and operations) (Chell, Karataş-Özkan and Nicolopoulou, forthcoming). The complex nature of the process and inter-relatedness of several learning activities should be well-understood by educators and mentors in the area of entrepreneurship so that they can cater for the variety of the needs of the nascent entrepreneurs in different industries and in different phases of their new venture creation process. As a consequence, effective methods of teaching and mentoring can be devised. Based on the insights from real life case accounts, practitioners of entrepreneurship teaching and business mentoring can develop the content and methods of education programmes in the way that will equip potential or nascent entrepreneurs with access to knowledge and other resources (such as people, networks of people, legal advice) and help nascent entrepreneurs understand the

emergent and complex nature of the entrepreneurial process. In this way, they will be aware of challenges and can devise ways to overcome them, as argued by many others such Ronstadt (1987), Jack and Anderson (1999) and Cope (2003).

These are the areas where the academic-practitioner collaboration lies. The development of education and business support programmes informed by the research of this nature will benefit the members of a venture community, including nascent entrepreneurs, enterprise officers and mentors of local governmental institutions or RDAs (through programs of 'training the trainers'). At the policy-makers level, policy needs to be informed by current thinking on relevant issues pertaining to nascent entrepreneurship in the creative industries and their entrepreneurial learning. This research has added to this thinking, generating relevant insights and issues arising from nascent entrepreneurs' perceptions of the dynamics of enterprise culture and creative industries, gathered during this study.

15.4 Researcher's learning experience

My learning experience throughout the PhD journey (2002-2006) can be best elucidated by reflecting on my development on three levels: academic, practitioner and personal.

As an academic, I had the opportunity to review and learn about a large body of literature in overlapping domains (i.e. entrepreneurship, management, and organisation studies), which is evolving, expanding internationally, including the movements between different perspectives. I have been contributing to these movements by studying the subject from a social constructionist standpoint at the doctoral level, and adding new dimensions by applying relational approaches and developing a multi-layered perspective to the social construction of the process of nascent entrepreneurship, as discussed earlier in this chapter. I learnt to study real cases and generate insights from the cases, through a close and prolonged engagement with the research participants, about the relational process

pertaining to the creation of new ventures. The research methods training[29] and practice in the field, enabled me to develop sound research skills. This facilitated the beginning of my engagement in rigorous qualitative research by developing critical approaches to the subjects studied. It has been a journey of discovery and I have gone through a steep learning curve during the process. Some of my research skills were elaborated in participating in other research projects[30]and leading one of them (e.g. grant holder and the principal investigator of a research project commissioned by a national study into the equality and diversity issues in the SET departments of UK HEIs) and writing the reports and other research outputs (i.e. publications) from the projects (see Appendix X for a list of projects that I worked on during my doctoral study and publications that emanated from such projects).

I have become a practitioner myself in completing the thesis, particularly in the last two years of my research study. I have become an educator in entrepreneurship. I have developed my professional practice by combining research and teaching activities. More specifically, I have learnt a great deal about developing curricula, new course units and subsequent teaching material informed by my scholarly activity in entrepreneurship. I undertook my teacher training course, namely PCAP (Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice), which paved the way for the beginning of a more critical and reflective journey as an entrepreneurship educator. This included a better understanding of the theoretical underpinnings and practical applications of teaching and learning. Drawing on my theoretical and empirical understanding of how nascent entrepreneurs learn, I have learned and applied very useful concepts and frameworks during the PCAP training. Over the duration of the writing-up phase of the doctoral study, the PCAP experience contributed further to my development of learning the theoretical basis of

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[29] One crucial aspect of the training has been the formal training through the taught part of my studies that brought about an award of PG Certificate in Research Methods at the University of Derby, as mentioned in Chapter Seven.

[30] These projects include research on gender and SET -Science, Engineering and Technology- entrepreneurship funded by the Institute of Physics, multi-cultural research into the career choice of MBA students from a perspective of management versus entrepreneurship, research on social entrepreneurship and educational framework for social entrepreneurs, and finally a study on strategic partnerships and collaborations between innovative networks funded by the SET2 Partnership (see Appendix X).

teaching in the higher education context and practical issues through discussions with the fellow colleagues on the course. I developed and delivered new courses on entrepreneurship to undergraduate students. I designed a new course entitled 'Introduction to Entrepreneurship' to Art and Design Students as a part of the redesigned curriculum in the School of Art. This professional practice of developing and delivering such a course unit was strongly informed by my doctoral research activity in the area of nascent entrepreneurship in the creative industries, from a perspective of learning.

Personally, I had the opportunity to work and study at the same time, and to live abroad and learn about, and integrate within, a different cultural setting. Working within a community of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship scholars has helped me develop capacity to analyse personal experiences and life projects. The entire experience, of being a research student, teaching assistant and later a full time lecturer, has improved my self-reflexivity through fieldwork, work meetings, evaluations, peer observations, and reviews of curriculum, those of business plans, strategic plans, and involvement in new course/ degree developments.

15.4 Limitations and suggestions for future research

The study was methodologically robust and rigorously designed and implemented, although there are ways in which it could be improved or could have been done differently. With regard to research methods, as discussed in Chapter Eight, there are practical problems with participant observation and multiple interview studies over time, which point to the difficulty of securing and maintaining access to case organisations. Participant observation work was deemed to be fundamentally important for research of this nature and therefore the access was relentlessly pursued. However, the ways in which the access was pursued could have been different and saved considerable time for the fieldwork. Instead of writing formal letters to enterprises, one should tap into the existing contacts in the immediate academic circle and explore fieldwork opportunities, if possible.

Given the difficulties associated with participant observation as a method, another approach could be asking the research participants (particularly in the case of KBrandArt) to keep a diary and provide regular diary updates. This would allow the immediacy of the experience to be captured, and also provide accounts of important phenomena during the business venturing process, in a relatively unobtrusive manner. The trade-off is that participant observation is a very critical method for social constructionist research. It enabled me to decipher the social construction processes, by analysing the meeting talks or daily interactions amongst the venture team members.

The research has been undertaken with a selected number of participants, in line with the axioms of Naturalistic Inquiry as presented in Chapter Seven. The use of Naturalistic Inquiry as a guiding framework meant that the insights generated by the research are presented as idiographic interpretations rather than for generalisability. I do not make any claims of generalisability in this research. Due to the highly 'rich' nature of the case accounts constructed, the interpretation of such empirical material has suggested certain perspectives of a somewhat broader nature, which have been presented in Chapter 14. The cross-case analysis could have been improved by inviting the research participants (from all three cases) to come together as groups for discussion in order to create a sense of deeper involvement with the study and reflect on each others' experiences. This was not possible due to practical limitations.

A longitudinal study that explores learning experience of nascent entrepreneurs, particularly at times of crises, in the period following the initial stages of new venture creation, would shed further light on the dynamics of the process. Given the time and financial constraints, I could only provide a snapshot of their venturing process, studied over a certain period of time. This suggests an area for further research that could continue to illuminate the focal areas of nascent entrepreneurs' learning process. The suggestions for future research can be summarised as follows:

- Longitudinal research could track participants over time, to illuminate the links between their entrepreneurial learning and performance of their new ventures.

- The current research concentrated on a team of nascent entrepreneurs that developed their venture outside an incubator, another nascent entrepreneur who set up the venture within the local university's incubator centre, and a nascent corporate entrepreneur who spinned-off the venture from a parent company that acted as an incubator. Further research could focus on each group separately to enhance understanding of that particular segment.

- Multi-layered understanding of nascent entrepreneurship has potential l to be applied in further research, in other industrial settings, an in other sub-domains of entrepreneurship research, such as female entrepreneurship and ethnic entrepreneurship. More specifically, there is some merit in examining micro, meso and macro dimensions of the entrepreneurial process that such groups of entrepreneurs go through, placing an emphasis on gender and ethnicity dimensions.

15.5 Conclusions to the chapter

This chapter has presented an overall summary of the research findings with the contribution made to academics and practitioners. The research project has fulfilled its aim of generating a greater understanding of the nascent entrepreneurs' learning and managing experiences by exploring their perspectives in relation to the enterprise culture and education discourses in the UK. By taking a multi-level perspective embedded in the social constructionist paradigm, the research has generated insights into the social construction of nascent entrepreneurship. The social construction of the business venturing process is elucidated with reference to a complex and emergent process whereby individual nascent entrepreneurs (micro level) actively and relationally form their new enterprises as a part of a broader venture community (meso-relational level),

which is embedded in the macro field of enterprise culture with its institutions and education programmes. The limitations of the research and areas for further research are identified. The researcher's learning experience has been presented with a view to explaining that this research has paved the way for the beginning of a long journey of becoming a good social science researcher!

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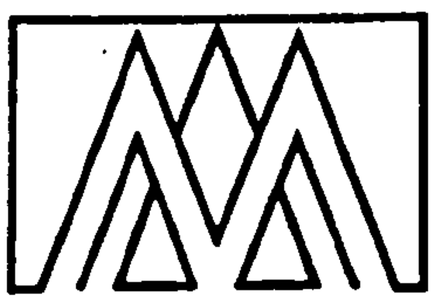
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APPENDIX I
FIRST PAGE OF ÖZBILGIN AND TATLI'S (2005) ARTICLE

• *Academy of Management Review*
2005, Vol. 30, No. 4, 855–877.



BOOK REVIEWS

Walter R. Nord
Book Review Editor

Book Review Essay: Understanding Bourdieu's Contribution to Organization and Management Studies[1]

Outline of Theory of Practice, by Pierre Bourdieu. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1977.

The Logic of Practice, by Pierre Bourdieu. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 1990.

Practical Reason: On the Theory of Action, by Pierre Bourdieu. Cambridge: Polity Press, 1998.

An Invitation to Reflexive Sociology, by Pierre Bourdieu and Loic Wacquant. Cambridge: Polity Press, 1992.

By Mustafa Özbilgin and Ahu Tatli, Queen Mary, University of London.

Pierre Bourdieu (born August 1, 1930; died January 23, 2002) was a French sociologist and philosopher whose works left an indelible mark on the field of educational and cultural sociology in the latter half of the twentieth century. Drawing on earlier works of Marx, Durkheim, Weber, and Saussure, Bourdieu's work established itself a unique place in the fields of sociology, philosophy, and active politics. Posthumously celebrating Pierre Bourdieu's over twenty seminal works and his overall contribution to the field of sociology, we seek to explain how the business and management literature may benefit from a deeper engagement with his contributions.

Despite his many influential writings, a literature search in the three Academy of Management journals generates only very few citations (e.g., Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) of his works, indicating that introducing his four key texts, listed above, could help remedy the scant attention to his works from the mainstream of organization and management studies. Everett (2002) has noted this absence and pointed to Bourdieu's reflexive and critical approach to social scientific inquiry as his potential contribution to organization studies. We argue here that Bourdieu's work can contribute to organization and management studies in three substantial ways: through (1) offering a conceptual framework for a multilevel research agenda in organization and management studies, (2) presenting an epistemological and methodological framework for tackling issues of reflexivity in the research process, and (3) proposing a methodological and epistemological way to overcome the dualities between structure and agency and objectivism and subjectivism.

In recent years there has been a rising interest in multilevel research in organizational studies (Dansereau, Yammarino, & Kohles, 1999; House, Rousseau, & Thomas-Hunt, 1995; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Klein, Tosi, & Cannella, 1999) Coupled with the trend of exploring the dynamics governing organizations at multiple layers is an increasing attendance to relational perspectives in organizational research (Bradbury & Lichtenstein, 2000; Kyriakidou & Özbilgin, 2005). In this review we argue that Bourdieu's works can potentially contribute to multilevel and relational research practice and theory building in organizational studies at two major levels. First, organizational studies may benefit from the insight brought in by Bourdieu at the level of critical engagement with the issues pertaining to the questions of research philosophy, ontology, and epistemology. Second, utilization of Bourdieuan concepts may advance the ongoing discussions of relational methodologies and

[1] We express our gratitude to Professor Walter Nord for his insightful comments and suggestions, which helped us to improve the paper. We also thank Mine Karataş-Özkan for her generosity with her invaluable insights and references, which helped us to strengthen the linkages between organizational research and Bourdieu's works.

APPENDIX II
ERU (Cardiff, 2002) PAPER

EMERGING APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS: A SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONIST PROPOSAL TO ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING IN ORGANISATIONS

Paper presented at the Annual Employment Research Unit (ERU) Conference, Cardiff University, Cardiff, 12-14 September

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ABSTRACT

In an effort to clarify alternative approaches to organisational analysis, this paper is concerned to stimulate the debate on how an inquiry of organisational phenomena can be accomplished. This calls for a consideration of different perspectives and highlighting the need to understand, we have focused on critical theory, postmodernism and social constructionism. We offer illustrations of different examples of research to produce insights about organisations. With a social constructionist leaning, we believe that the role of the researcher is to convey different understandings about a phenomenon by capturing and honouring the voices of those who are studied. In pursuing this objective of going beyond abstract theorising, a social constructionist approach is adopted in the current doctoral research which seeks to understand the phenomenon of entrepreneurial learning from the perspective of those who experience it.

INTRODUCTION

Since Burrell and Morgan (1979) wrote Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis and provided the four-paradigm grid, increasing attention has been devoted to understanding the emerging approaches to organisational analysis. Deetz (1996) suggests that their influence relates to the researchers' desire to locate themselves within a particular paradigm and thus legitimising their approach. In Deetz's (1996, p.191) words, "it gave each of us a kind of asylum...we happily accepted the newfound capacity to present ourselves to mainstream critics as doing fundamentally different, but legitimate, kinds of research and began to work on concepts and evaluation criteria within our now produced as different and unitary communities".

Researchers are increasingly expected to demonstrate a reflexive understanding of the particular positions they adopt in undertaking research (Johnson and Duberley, 2000) on management and organisations. This expectation is manifest in our interest to understand different approaches to organisational analysis. This consideration has been highlighted by scholars (e. g. Deetz, 1996, 2000, Gioia and Pitre, 1990, Lewis and Grimes, 1999, Poole and Van de Ven, 1989, Weick, 1999) who covered different issues surrounding the debate in such journals as

EMERGING APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS:
A SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONIST PROPOSAL TO ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING IN ORGANISATIONS

Academy of Management Review, Administrative Science Quarterly, Journal of Management Studies, Journal of Management Inquiry, Organisation, Organisation Studies.

As suggested by Burrell and Morgan (1979), the starting point to comprehend different approaches in analysing organisations is that all approaches to social science are based on interrelated sets of core assumptions regarding ontology, human nature and epistemology (Morgan and Smircich, 1980). Based on this assumption or similar ones, there have been various attempts to classify research approaches in general and in organisational analysis in particular (e.g. Alvesson and Deetz, 1996, Easterby-Smith et al., 1991, 2002, Grint, 1998, Hardy and Clegg, 1997, Johnson and Duberley, 2000, Lincoln and Guba, 1985). These research traditions are most often called 'paradigms' referring to 'entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques and so on shared by the members of a given community' (Kuhn, 1970, p.175). Each practitioner community is characterised by a consensus, which is 'grounded in a tradition that bases their work around a shared way of thinking and working within an established network of ideas, theories and methods' (Johnson and Duberley, 2000, p.68).

Burrell and Morgan (1979) had identified functionalist, interpretivist, radical humanist and radical structuralist paradigms in organisational analysis. More recently, Hardy and Clegg (1997) adopted Alvesson and Deetz's (1996) framework and identified four research approaches as normative, interpretive, critical, and postmodern. Normative approaches maintain a consensual relationship with the existing social order and seek to establish law-like relations between objects based on nomothetic science in order to address issues of efficiency, order and control (Alvesson and Deetz, 1996). They are therefore associated with the use of scientific-technical knowledge, the method of positivism and the assumptions of normal science (Hardy and Clegg, 1997, p.7). Burrell and Morgan (1979) had classified them under functionalism where the key concept is that of the organisation as a system, which is functionally effective if it achieves its goals defined through rational decision-making. From an interpretivist position, the organisation is a social site, a special type of community which shares important characteristics (Deetz, 1996). The focus is on social rather than economic aspects of organisational activities and the aim is to show how particular realities are socially produced and maintained (Alvesson and Deetz, 1996, Deetz, 1996, Hardy and Clegg, 1997). Having its roots in the interpretivist paradigm, social constructionism[1] has emerged more recently (Schwandt, 1994). According to constructionists knowledge and truth are created, not discovered by the mind and they emphasise the pluralistic character of reality expressible in a variety of symbol and language systems (see Gergen, 1991, Bruner, 1986). Organisations, from a social constructionist view, are culturally and historically unique sites where members collectively engage in the construction of a social reality (Berger and Luckmann, 1966). Critical theory, on the other hand, sees organisations as social historical creations accomplished in conditions of struggle and domination, a domination that often hides and suppresses meaningful conflict (Deetz, 1996, p. 202). Postmodernism has gone beyond this idea of domination and provoked the investigation of aspects of organisational life previously deemed wholly inappropriate for serious scientific consideration (Hancock and Tyler, 2001, p. 63). Issues such as asymmetrical power relations, employee subjectivity, reflexivity and even the ontological status of organisations have all been moved further to the forefront of the research agenda (Cooper and Burrell, 1988, Hancock and Tyler, 2001).

It is not intended in this paper to establish the superiority of one paradigm over another. Each paradigm has its own distinctive language which offers a unique means of classifying and construing the objects encountered during researchers' engagements with the world (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). This engagement is not only shaped by the nature of inquiry but also researchers' background, personal values, gender, social class and ethnicity and those of the people in the organisation or community under study. The role of the researcher is increasingly a focal concern in organisation theory where the traditional (modernist) assumption that the researcher is an objective

observer is challenged by interpretivist, constructionist, critical and postmodernist approaches which position the researcher within the frame of the study (Calas and Smircich, 1991, Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, Hatch, 1996, Linstead, 1993, Martin, 1990, Van Maanen, 1988). Denzin and Lincoln (1998, p.4) described the researcher as the 'bricoleur' who understands that research is an interactive process shaped by all these factors and who also knows that researchers all tell stories about the worlds they have studied. Thus, different ontological and epistemological assumptions are deployed in undertaking research on organisations and the narratives, or stories researchers tell are accounts informed by those assumptions and hence 'framed within specific storytelling traditions, often defined as paradigms' (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998, p.4). Yet, as argued by Lewis and Grimes (1999), it is essential to understand and communicate with different paradigms in researching organisations because diverse views may enrich our understandings of organisational complexity, ambiguity and paradox. However, locating oneself within a particular paradigm and conducting research accordingly is a highly personal matter and novice researchers who try to find their own natural place should have an understanding of different approaches.

This article is concerned to reinforce this need to clarify alternative approaches to organisational analysis and to stimulate the debate on the emerging approaches. Encouraging attention to different aspects of various approaches, the paper focuses on critical theory, postmodernism and social constructionism by illustrating examples of research attempting to reveal complexity and ambiguity of organisations. As new researchers to the area admittedly drawn to the social constructionism, the writers seek to share their intellectual debate to researching entrepreneurial learning in complex organisational settings. The term 'entrepreneurial learning' is adopted because the emphasis is on the intrinsic processes of forming and managing a venture and learning is considered to be the central process.

We begin by outlining the philosophical assumptions underpinning each approach. A brief overview of the perspectives of major contributors is offered to the reader. We then discuss the main implications in researching organisations by listing some examples of research. One particular example has been selected for each approach and analysed against the background provided. The table 1 illustrates the three examples. Finally, we propose a social constructionist approach to entrepreneurial learning.

Table. 1 The selected examples of research

Critical Theory	Broadbent and Laughlin (1997)	Developing empirical research: an example informed by a Habermesian approach
Postmodernism	Hooper and Pratt (1995)	Discourse and rhetoric: the case of the New Zealand Native Land Company
Social Constructionism	Watson (1994)	In Search of Management: Culture, Chaos and Control in Managerial Work

CRITICAL THEORY AND OR GANISATIONAL ANALYSIS

The term critical theory refers to scholars and commentators related to the work of the Frankfurt School. According to Alvesson and Deetz (2000, p.35), critical studies include a larger group of researchers who are different in theory and conception but who share important discursive features in their writings. Table 2 demonstrates the development of critical theory based on the classification of Alvesson and Deetz (2000) and on the works of Alvesson and Willmott (1992, 1996). These theories offer philosophically and socially grounded

critiques of the dominant ideology in Western society and the institutions which reproduce that ideology (Grimes, 1992, p. 26).

At the core of the critical theory lies a desire to develop a more rational, enlightened society through a process of critical reflection upon the organisation and efficacy of existing institutions and ideologies (Alvesson and Willmott, 1996, p. 67). In that respect both critical theory and postmodernism are oriented, in different ways, to questioning established social orders, dominating practices, ideologies, discourses and institutions (Alvesson and Deetz, 2000). The critical theorists, especially Habermas (1984, 1987) focus on the incompletion of the positive potentialities of the Enlightenment project and the domination of the certain groups' interests (see Adorno and Horkheimer, 1979). The postmodernists also focus on the dark side of the Enlightenment project, its exclusions, and the concealed effects of reason and progress but they see the entire project as inherently being wrong (Alvesson and Deetz, 2000, p. 15).

Critical theory seeks 'not just to study and understand society but rather to critique and change society' (Patton, 2002, p. 131). This coincides with the disappointment of many researchers with the normative approaches to organisations and their questioning of philosophical assumptions underlying such approaches. Critical researchers enter into an investigation with their assumptions on the table, so no one is confused concerning the epistemological and political baggage they bring with them to the research site" (Kincheloe and McLaren, 1994, p. 140).

At the ontological level, critical theorists believe in the consensus between different realities. Through this commitment of a consensus theory of truth, critical theory attempts to 'occupy some intellectual space between foundationalism and relativism' (Johnson and Duberley, 2000, p. 146). Critical researchers are defined by Kincheloe and McLaren (1994) as the ones who attempt to use their work as a form of social or cultural criticism and who accept that 'all thought is fundamentally mediated by power relations that are social and historically constituted; that facts can never be isolated from the domain of values or removed from some form of ideological inscription; that language is central to the formation of subjectivity and that certain groups in any society are privileged over others' (p. 140).

Table 2. Development of critical theory

The Frankfurt School: Adorno and Horkheimar (1979) Fromm (1941) Marcuse (1955, 1964)	They focused on individuals who were frustrated, oppressed and confused by the contradictory claims and practices of modern capitalist societies and were potentially receptive to the revitalization of Enlightenment ideas about autonomy and the development of Responsible citizenship. They took a large number of factors into account in their explanations: from nationalist struggles to oppressive social relations and forms of socialisation that fostered the mass formation of authoritarian personalities.
Habermas (1971, 1972, 1979, 1984, 1987, 1989)	He located the philosophical dimension of Marxism in the concern to derive 'from the contradiction of existing society, the concept of that very society as well as the standard for its critique and the idea of critical practical activity' (McCarthy, 1978, p. 135). He has a more balanced approach to social world maintaining that current configurations are not all inappropriate with the supply of various models. The traditional Marxist interpretation is a classless society whereas Habermas sees this in terms of a society able to communicate rationally and openly with one another. His critical theory is therefore built upon the creative power of language and discourse.
Braverman (1974)	He confronts the conventional view of better-trained, better-educated and thus upgraded

	working population in academic discourse. Inspired by Marxism, he conceptualises emancipation as a matter of radically changing social relations. There is an emphasis for push for a classless society in which the co-ordination of productive activity is based on consensual social relations.
Alvesson and Willmott (1992, 1996)	They believe critical theory provides a critical constructive intellectual counterpoint to mainstream management and organisation studies. Critical theory has the strength of being sufficiently broad to serve as a source of critical reflection on a large number of central issues such as epistemological issues, notions of rationality and progress, technocracy and social engineering, autonomy and control, communicative action, power and ideology. They suggest that the irrationalities and contradictions associated with The theory and practice of management make it fertile ground for the application and development of critical theory. When investigating the World of organisation, the challenge is to show and explore how the abstract reflections of critical theory can have relevance for illuminating and transforming mundane realities of organisational work.
Deetz (1992a, 1992b, 1994, 1995)	Conceptualising organisations as political systems draws attention to the ways large corporations serve as primary sites where different values, forms of knowledge and groups' interests are articulated and embodied in decisions, structures and practices. In modern societies they make most public decisions on the use of resources, the development of technologies, the products available and the working relations among people. However, the common uncritical acceptance of corporations as naturally existing commercial entities, and concern with managerially conceived issues of efficiency and effectiveness have led many analyses to be uninterested in relation to organisational processes of control and exercise of power. He signifies the need for such studies that investigate these processes rather than ones that are concerned with the operation and enhancement of managerial control.
Giddens (1973, 1976, 1979, 1984)	He examined 'the socially conditioned production of asymmetrical life-chances', in terms of access both to material goods and to the cultural faculties required to enjoy them (1973, p. 130 in Whittington, 1992). He introduced the term 'structuration' with which he intended to consider how classes operate and are experienced in practice. For Giddens, structuration involves not only the Marxian stress on the capitalist division of labour, but also concern for enterprise authority relationships and factors within the community. Thus working class structuration may be influenced by ethnicity and gender, while managerial structuration involves interpersonal contacts, friendships and marriage ties. Giddens (1985) proposes the state as a generic form of organisation: a collectivity in which knowledge about the conditions of system reproduction is reflexively used to influence, shape or modify that system reproduction' (p. 18). This implies a suggestion that organisations can be moved in some coherent and explicit direction (Whittington, 1992). Giddens (1990) resists postmodernist pessimism as to the possibility of humanly engineered progress. His 'multidimensional' (1990, p. 12) characterisation of the modern world brings capitalist production together with the issues of ethnicity, gender, knowledge and the state. The conflicts between these dimensions open up a space for human agency (Whittington, 1992).

The main themes found in critical theorist writings encompass ideology, power, domination, organisation structure, rationality, interest and communication and emancipation of actors (Alvesson and Willmott, 1996 and Grimes, 1992). These are similar to postmodernist writings despite considerable differences in approaches. As will be clarified in the following section, both place emphasis upon the social, historical, political construction of knowledge, people and social relations (Alvesson and Deetz, 2000). Both approaches see organisations as

increasingly relying on a form of instrumental reasoning which is privileging the means over ends and allowing certain groups accomplish their ends through dominating others. Critical theory's response to such problems is to facilitate organisational change through consensus and the aim of researcher is to guide changing organisational processes, whereas postmodernists reject such consensus and urge for organising against domination but such a move will be bounded by the force of our own subjective domination[2]. Critical researchers, therefore, recognise they are value laden, immersed and active in their projects (Grimes, 1992). They set forth the impact of their interest on their research and explore the social consequences of research findings by helping organisational members to understand their condition for organisational change (Grimes, 1992, p. 29).

Given these philosophical roots of the critical theory, its contribution to organisational studies can be significant. Critical theory expands concerns beyond technical and economic foundations of phenomena studied in organisational settings and offers a critical way of understanding by embracing social, philosophical and historical underpinnings. As such, it calls for the ethnographic studies in organisational research to convey the dynamics of cultural, social and historical settings. Consistent with the commitment to a reflective research [3], the conduct of critical ethnographic studies of organization presents an opportunity for participants (i.e. members of organisation) to speak out in a way that can moderate and challenge the adequacy of more 'totalising' accounts of organisation (Alvesson and Willmott, 1996, p. 180). As Forester (1992) puts it, critical ethnographic work allows us to understand organisational activities in their contexts, but 'the very context itself is not given but made, inherited and appropriated in subtle political ways' (Heritage, 1984 in Forester, 1992, p. 47).

In 1992 Alvesson and Willmott listed some of the growing literature in organisation and management studies from a critical perspective, when they edited the book *Critical Management Studies*.[4] Before analysing the work of Broadbent and Laughlin (1997), we draw attention to other examples in the table 3 including the ones (i.e. Gleadle and Hailey, 2002, Nyland, 2002, Paula, 2002 and Pearson, 2002) presented at the Managerial Work seminar hosted by University of Cambridge as the sixth in a series of Critical Management Studies Seminars. They are not directly guided by the critical theory. Rather, some of them draw inspiration from Weber or Marx in analysing organisational life. However, they all take a critical epistemological approach to organisational work and as suggested by Reed (2002) at the same seminar, they are such examples of research which may provide the basis for developing more explanatory powerful substantive theories of managerial work and organisation.

Table 3. Examples of analysis from a critical approach

Collinson et al. (1990)	They draw on their empirical investigation into the recruitment practices of 45 companies in five industries, undertaken mainly in 1983-5 using participant observation of these processes as well as other approaches. They found that discriminatory practices were widespread, that they were facilitated by divisions and power imbalances between 'line' and 'personnel' functions, and that they were reinforced more often than resisted by the attitudes and practices of women and trade unions. Resisting the 'determinist' theorising of many approaches to structure as well as to managerial intentions, they emphasise the importance of self and identity for both men and women, and above all the necessity for understanding 'contradictions' at all levels.
Gleadle and Hailey (2002)	Their study will explore how employees interpret and cope with change through the refinement of narratives of self-identity in the face of senior management efforts to regulate the identity of staff.

Knights and Willmott (1993)	The objective of the research, which is based on an intensive case study of an insurance company, is to examine the corporate strategy as an aspect of management control. They found that a new system of budgeting and expenses control was a crucial element of the transformation of the company from its paternalistic traditions into an aggressive, competitive financial services company. The research contextualises the development of budgeting and expenses control in the case organisation within the changes in British economy. They argue that budgeting and accounting control in that company has a complex genealogy revolving around a number of conditions coinciding at a particular pint in time. They reveal a variety of tensions, contradictions and resistances to the new management regime that placed obstacles in the way of an effective implementation of the new accounting and management controls (p. 1).
Nyland (2002)	His working paper addresses a historical issue that most critical theorists believe they do understand, that is the place of Taylorism in the evolution of management thought. The paper focuses on a weakness in critical management studies that the development of critical theory has not been accompanied by the development of critical practice.
Pearson (2002)	Based on a recent doctoral research, she has studied the transformation of managerial practices through role-play in the National Audit Office. The NAO is an organisation which is currently attempting to become more flexible and agile in their managerial practices in order to reinforce their competitive standing within the field of public sector auditing. She has revealed how the NAO is using role-play as a way of exploring the relationship between the personal development of staff and the enhancement of creativity, innovation and teamwork, with the anticipated increase in productivity and profit.

A longitudinal research conducted by Broadbent and Laughlin (1997) is examined in this paper. Accounting has been considered as one of the areas where critical methodologies (eg. Laughlin, 1987) have been effectively developed (Mingers, 1992). Broadbent and Laughlin's (1997) study is concerned with generating understandings of the effects of accounting on organisations as a whole. They used 'middle range thinking' developed by Laughlin (1995) who used Habermas' discourse theory in the exploration of accounting systems in organisational contexts[5]. He suggests the use of a three-stage discursive process to build understanding of the organisational context. Consistent with the aim of critical theory in researching organisations, this approach is considered as 'having the potential to promote emancipatory strategies for organisational members' (Broadbent and Laughlin, 1997, p. 623). The research, which has been continuing since 1989, concerned the implementation of new legislative changes in two sites, GP practices and schools. The interactive and reflective nature of the research is evident as they have deliberately sought to promote sufficient understanding in order to allow those members of organisations under study to develop their own strategies to deal with the changes.

Taking Laughlin's (1987 in Laughlin, 1995) three-stage discursive processual approach, they describe the research as the one where the participants (i.e. the researchers and those who are the subject of the research) have different involvements at different stages. This methodological approach requires the researchers to be active in the first stage of the process during which they enter the organisation to gather insights that will be subjected to processes of discourse in which common understandings of the research focus are reached. Clearly, it reflects a recognition of a consensus based reality at the ontological level. Emphasising the historical and current conditions of organisations, they seek to understand the organisational processes from the point of view of the participants through an 'informed ethnography' where the empirical observations are guided by the theoretical framework of Habermasian discourse unlike the pure ethnographic approach (Broadbent and Laughlin, 1997, p. 627). The second stage consists of the formulation of critical theorems through discussions of the insights gained at the first stage and this is guided by the Habermasian discourse approach. The critical theorems are next used as the basis

for further discussion between the researcher and the researched: This is the 'stage of enlightenment', because both parties are intended to become enlightened about each other's perceptions of the situation (Broadbent and Laughlin, 1997, p. 628). Finally, the selection of strategies is undertaken by the members of the organisations studied in order to accomplish the overall aim of the research. According to this view, the researchers make the researched aware of the possibilities, but 'emancipation necessarily involves that the researched rather than the researcher becomes proactive in developing their own strategies' (Broadbent and Laughlin, 1997, p. 639).

Seeking to understand the process of change, they found that it was not only dynamic but also messy. In the context of these ongoing encounters and discourses, members of the organisations were selecting strategies on an ongoing basis (Broadbent and Laughlin, 1997, p. 641). They argue that this type of approach, informed by a methodological and theoretical framework developed from Habermas, is a fruitful way of approaching organisational development. In their own terms, 'the approach is one which does engage with the real organisations, it aims to enable organisational actors to develop their own strategies on the basis of a mutually generated understanding of the organisation in question' (p. 645). The research is, therefore, deeply rooted in the ontological and epistemological positioning of the critical theorist perspective which seeks for a consensus based reality through the researchers' engagement in discourse with organisational members in order to facilitate change. It is an illuminating example of the philosophical assumptions and the aims of research from the critical standpoint. It aims to undermine 'the veneer of a stable reality that organisational members take for granted' (Putnam et al., 1993, p. 225). Hence, in critical theory, through a more open forums of expression and a type of discourse aimed at mutual understanding, there is a hope for the production of social consensus and social agreements that better fulfil human needs (Alvesson and Deetz, 2000). However, postmodernism explained in the following part, rejects such a consensus suspecting the replacement of old illusions with new ones (see Foucault, 1980, 1982).

POSTMODERNISM AND ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS

Although relatively new to organisational studies, postmodernism has grown popular in the social sciences (Kilduff and Mehra, 1997) and is considered by some to be one of the twentieth century's greatest challenges to established knowledge (Wisdom, 1987, p.5). Postmodernism has been viewed as an enterprise that calls for the 'death of reason'; 'the death of all scientific inquiry' (Fish, 1996, Hassard, 1993, Kilduff and Mehra, 1997, Power, 1990, Rosenau, 1992). Its growing influence is a reaction of disappointment with the oversimplified, narrow approaches to organisational research among some scholars (see Carter and Jackson, 1993, Gergen, 1992, Kilduff, 1993, Rosenau, 1992).

As Kilduff and Mehra (1997) pointed out, any precise definition of postmodernism is likely to be disputed because the postmodernist label includes many diverse intellectual trends. 'There is no unified postmodern theory or even a coherent set of positions' (Best and Kellner, 1991, p.2). This very diversity is one of postmodernism's distinguishing characteristics (Kilduff and Mehra, 1997, Kroll, 1987).

Unlike modernism or positivism, where there is a faith in the existence of 'objective, fixed reality', postmodernism recognises different realities; 'differences'. (Derrida, 1978, Foucault, 1980, 1982, Parker, 1992, Power, 1990). Radavich (2001, p.6 in Patton, 2002, p. 100) asserts that 'postmodernist discourse is precisely the discourse that denies the possibility of ontological grounding'. Inspired by Foucauldian (1970, 1980, 1982) power/knowledge/discourse, Derrida's (1978) deconstructionism (see Cooper, 1989), Lyotard's (1984) essay on postmodern condition and Baudillard's (1983) simulations (see table 4 for the development of postmodernist

thought), postmodernists emphasise the importance of the symbolic and cultural elements involved in the construction of different realities (Ogbor, 2000). 'Every knowledge is contextualised by its historical and cultural nature' (Agger, 1991, p. 121). Therefore, scientific truth and knowledge is viewed as a construction/ reconstruction of language in localised contexts (Ogbor, 2000). Since different truths are associated with different cultural, historical and ideological backgrounds, social science becomes 'an accounting of social experience from these multiple perspectives of discourse rather than a larger universalistic and cumulative enterprise committed to the inference of general principles' (Ogbor, 2000, p. 606). The only option of the researcher is 'to produce a text that reproduces these multiple versions of the real, showing how each impinges and shapes the phenomenon being studied' (Denzin, 1997, p. 13). This is manifest in the studies of organisations from postmodernist perspectives as will be illustrated by some examples later in this section of the paper.

Postmodernist epistemology suggests that the world is constituted by our shared language and that we can only 'know the world' through the particular forms of discourse our language creates (Hassard, 1993, p.3). This resembles with the social constructionist approach to construction of meanings, where there is a focus on language as a form of social action (see Burr, 1995 and Shotter, 1995). However, the similarity ends there. Social constructionism places emphasis on 'sharedness', 'negotiation' and the primary function of language is to facilitate these processes in order to create and maintain various patterns of social relations (Shotter, 1995). Deriving from Derrida's deconstructionism, which is based on the notion that knowledge and discourse have to be 'constructed' from a 'chamelonic' world (Cooper and Burrell, 1988, p. 98), in postmodernist paradigm, our language games are continually in flux, meaning is constantly slipping beyond our grasp and thus can never be lodged within one term (Lyotard, 1984). Thus, language does not capture or represent reality, a posture called 'crisis of representation' (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000, Turner, 1998 in Patton, 2002, p. 100).

Table 4. Development of postmodernist thinking

Foucault (1977, 1979)	His notion of power: power is a semi-stable network of alliances but the centre of concern is the human subject rather than the organisation. Subjects are constructed by power but do not 'have' power. Power should be configured as a relation between subjects: the micro-physics of everyday life. Contemporary organisations are maintained not by any consensus or by the covert systems of bodily surveillance and discipline which are built into the framework of organisations.
Baudrillard (1968, 1970, 1972, 1976) (1983a, 1983b)	He suggest a break between the modernist approach and the postmodernist one and develops a set of propositions to conceptualise this transition: While modern organisation theory is characterised by the increasing social differentiation of structural functionalism, postmodernist social theory will be defined as a process of 'de-differentiation'.
Derrida (1973, 1976, 1978, 1981, 1982)	His postmodernism is founded on a deconstructive approach which illustrates how superficial are the normative structures of the social world. Social action is encapsulated by ambivalence, which serves as the motive to organise. The ambivalence is located in the concept of the text which refers to the interplay of discourses and the stage upon which the process of deconstruction is enacted. In deconstruction theory, Derrida's goal is to expose the inherent contradictions which reside in any text.

Lyotard (1984) Lyotard and Thebaud (1985)	Lyotard defines postmodern discourse as the search for instabilities. His epistemology is a language-game approach in which knowledge is based on nothing more than a number of diverse discourses, each with its own rules and structures. The notion of language-game includes the idea of contest which gives rise to social action. Domination is vitalised not through the complete annihilation of one opponent by the other, but maintaining a state of continuous difference.
Clegg (1975, 1979, 1990)	He proposed to analyse organisations as sites of power built from the bricolage of whatever materials may be at hand. Organisations and environments are arenas where differentially powerful agencies, exercising different control of these resources, in complex

Lyotard (1984) in challenging the traditional modes of philosophical and scientific inquiry asserts that postmodernist epistemology reflects an appropriate approach to understand organisations in a postmodern society, as one of complex and rapid change, because postmodernism is concerned with knowledge of a plurality of diverse language forms. Based on the key notion of 'differences', Clegg (1990) sees the postmodern organisation as the one which is based on a 'de-differentiated' form, unlike the modernist bureaucratic organisations. Organisations are as settings where 'differentially valued resources are competed for by differentially powerful agencies, exercising differential control of these resources, in complex games with indeterminate rules' (Clegg, 1990, p. 85). Linstead (1993) suggests that we can understand such complex games and power relations through what he calls 'deconstructive ethnography', perceiving organisations as being multi-authored texts. Postmodernists suggest that it would be possible to detect how these multi-authored texts partially inscribe an identity upon members of an organisation (Ogbor, 2000, p. 607).

Having laid down the ontological and epistemological roots, one of the implications associated with postmodernism is the rejection of grand theories. It instead emphasises the co-existence of a multiplicity and variety of situation-dependent ways of life (Burr, 1995). This notion of particularity is manifest in the postmodern writing style which seeks to give as much vivid immediate detail about the case to the reader as possible (Kilduff and Mehra, 1997).

Building on Kilduff and Mehra's (1997) study whose focus is on how postmodern discourse can inform and enrich organisational research, table 5 illustrates various examples of organisational analysis from a postmodern perspective irrespective of whether the authors identified themselves as postmodernists. As pointed out by Marsden and Townley (1996) there is little empirical research being undertaken by postmodernist analysts. Hardy and Clegg (1997) relate this to the desire of postmodernists who sometimes "distance themselves from those who experience and consume the phenomena around which they construct their academic endeavours" (p. 11). Therefore, instead of conducting empirical work, scholars are urged to spend their time with other scholars (Hardy and Clegg, 1997) and to be more like philosophers (Burrell, 1994). This has been one of the greatest criticisms of postmodernism and of critical theory to some extend. Reflective empirical work is strongly recommended by some scholars (see Alvesson and Deetz, 2000) as many theoretical texts have shown limited understandings of organisational contexts and the lives of members.

Table. 5. Postmodernist examples of organisational analysis

Chia (1996)	Invites the reader to consider deconstruction as being central to the study of organisation and Sees organisation as an effect of efforts to organise, i.e. efforts to organise, efforts to create order 'out of disorder'.

Cooper and Burrell (1988) Burrell (1988), Cooper (1989)	The emphasis is on the inherent stability of organisation where the discourses are no more than changing moves within a game That is never completed. The focus is on 'the production of organisation', rather than the organisation of production.
*Ely (1995)	She shows how sex roles are more stereotypical and problematic in firms with relatively low proportion of senior women in an organisation. She reflects on the voices of the women who assess power games in organisations.
Knights and Morgan (1991)	They used Foucault's discursive practises to show the construction of person and world in the discourse of corporate strategy. "Strategic discourses engage individuals in practises through which they discover the very truth of what they are-'strategic actor'"(p. 260).
*Kondo (1990)	Identity is negotiated, open, shifting, ambiguous, the result of culturally available meanings and the open-ended power-laden enactments of those meanings in everyday situations. Texts and selves are crafted productions within very social contexts.

**based on an empirical research*

There exists a fundamental shift in the ontological status of organisation, as contrasted with the established normative thinking which takes organisations as given and the role of the researcher to be a neutral observer of this given entity (Weiskopf and Willmott, 1999). What is 'real' in a postmodern thinking is not entities but the 'emergent relational interactions and patterning that are recursively intimated in the fluxing and transforming of our life worlds' (Chia, 1996, p.177). Hence, postmodern theorizing and thinking of organisation is founded on ontology of becoming rather than being (Willmott, 1999).

The attempt to introduce the postmodernist perspective to organisational analysis is made through examining Hooper and Pratt's (1995) work. It provides an illustrative example to a case study of an organisation called the New Zealand Native Land Company (NZNL) which is a story of the conflict developed between the European directors and indigenous shareholders during the short period of its existence from 1882 to 1890. The authors do not identify themselves as postmodernists. However, they explicitly take a Foucauldian power/discourse perspective in analysing the accounting discourses of an organisation. In the brief history of the NZNL, they show how rhetoric/discourse was a power which was seized to promote the interests of directors over those of investors were advanced. Having assembled the particular historical episode of NZNL based on an archival search (i.e. archival records of the company, parliamentary reports, and articles from contemporary newspapers), they emphasise emerging discourses in relation to the particular organisational context which was a subset of a wider colonial discourse.

Taking Arrington and Schweiker's (1992) view on accounting, which suggests that "accounting knowledge can only be a linguistic product, made up of words, sentences, symbols, numbers, equation and statistics and therefore language not 'facts' is the empirical stuff of knowledge" (p. 516), Hooper and Pratt (1995) analyse how the use of language in the company's financial and auditing reports can be a powerful management strategy and serve political interests. Their study exemplifies how the discursive practices of accounting can create differences, and hide as well as reveal financial reality and that accounting information can be used by certain groups to redistribute income, wealth and power within an organisation. It has been shown in the case of the NZNL that 'much of what passed for accounting information served to legitimise the activities of a power elite who controlled the company' (Hooper and Pratt, 1995, p. 33). It is worth noting that the attention drawn to how power is exercised through the use of particular concepts to represent the constructed reality of organisations has strong resonances with the critical theory and social constructionist approaches to organisations.

Following their work and having been encouraged to understand how organisational texts and discourses privilege and reinforce the power structure of the dominant groups within organisations, we conclude this part by referring to Ogbor's (2000) article whose purpose is an ideology-critique of entrepreneurial studies. He employs the notion of deconstruction in order to question the knowledge claims of the entrepreneurial texts/discourses. He points out the necessity of examining how ideology penetrated the discourse on entrepreneurship and the research interests and approaches. He calls attention to the problematic nature of the concept of entrepreneurship which is reflected in a history of efforts by entrepreneurial researchers to explain 'who' is an entrepreneur and 'what' constitutes entrepreneurship (Ogbor, 2000, p. 615). In the case of research in entrepreneurship, he maintains, the tendency to reify myths into measurable abstracts has given rise to a conviction that the characteristics of entrepreneurship can be abstracted, classified, codified and operationalised via mathematical models having no relevance to reality. This position is broadly shared by others such as Cope and Watts (2000), Deakins and Freel (1998) and Gibb (2001) who also claim that when researching entrepreneurship in organisations we need to provide a rich and grounded understanding of the phenomenon in question.

The next section of this paper is an effort to challenge existing approaches to entrepreneurial learning and to provide a discussion about how an analysis on learning of venture teams in complex organisational settings can be accomplished from a social constructionist perspective. The following part will lay the groundwork by illuminating the assumptions of social constructionism.

SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM AND ORGANISATIONAL ANALYSIS

Social constructionism, as an intellectual movement, has arisen from and is influenced by a variety of disciplines and traditions. Its sociological roots go back to the Mead's (1934) 'symbolic interactionism' whose fundamental view is that as people we construct our own and each other's identities through our everyday encounters with each other in social interaction (Burr, 1995). The major contribution comes from Berger and Luckmann's (1966) *The Social Construction of Reality* in which they argued that human beings together create and then sustain all social phenomena through social practices. They proposed that as individuals engage in the construction of their personal meaning, collectives engage in the construction of social reality. In psychology, social constructionism has been influenced by Gergen's (1973, 1985) writings. Later, Gergen (1973, 1985, 1989, 1991, 1994, and 1999) together with Shotter (1993a, 1993b, 1995) and Burr (1995) have become major contributors to the social constructionism. Table 6 shows the development of this intellectual tradition. According to Burr (1995), its cultural backdrop is postmodernism, but, as we will clarify below, as an epistemological approach there are considerable differences between the emphases of social constructionism and those of postmodernism.

Table 6. Development of social constructionism

Berger and Luckmann (1966)	Human beings together create and then sustain all social phenomena through social practices. They see three fundamental processes as responsible for this: externalisation, objectivation and internalisation. People externalise when they act on their world, creating some artefact or practice by telling a story. This then enters into the social realm; other people retell the story or read the book and once in this social realm the story begins to take on a life of its own. The future generations are born into a world where this idea already exists and they internalise it as a part of their consciousness.

Burr (1995)	Social constructionism as a loose collection of theoretical Perspectives is underpinned by four main assumptions: a critical stance towards taken-for-granted knowledge, historical and cultural specificity, knowledge is sustained by social processes and knowledge and social action go together.
Dachler and Hosking (1995)	Social processes are theorised as language based processes of co-ordination and co-ordinations construct Self in relation to other. They view relating as an ongoing process of construction carried out on the basis of language. Communicative processes are constructed in many kinds of relation and not only written and spoken words: It is possible to view all acts and artefacts as potential texts. In this sense, a text is any action available to be made relevant or irrelevant, meaningful or meaningless by being co-ordinated with in some way.
Gergen (1973, 1985, 1989) (1991, 1994, 1999)	All knowledge is historically and culturally specific, and we must therefore extend our enquiries beyond the individual into social, political and economic realms for a proper understanding of the evolution of social life. Knowledge is socially created through constructions between people.
Hosking and Morley (1991)	Identities are negotiated in the course of negotiating social realities and social order. Organising is p erformed, not by a single actor, but by multiple identities through their relations with one another. Actors construct social orderings in relation to what they perceive to be 'issues'- major changes in the status quo. Actors do so through interrelated cognitive, social and political processes of organising. These are processes in which actors negotiate their own descriptions of issues (social and cognitive) and seek to influence the descriptions of others (social and political).
Shotter (1984, 1989, 1993a) (1993b, 1995)	People should be seen as knowledgeable, socially accountable agents, and the authors of their own socially constructed individuality or identities. We- as the researchers- should move away from the individual, 3rd person, external observer stance who collects fragmented data from a position socially outside of the activity observed towards a more relational, Interpretative approach, in which outcomes occur as a result of joint action between all the participants involved.

The key assumptions of social constructionism can be noted from Gergen (1985) as a critical stance towards taken-for-granted knowledge, historical and cultural specificity, a focus on processes, specifically on interaction and social practises and finally language as a form of social action. The social constructionist view of reality is that people construct it between them through daily interactions in the course of social life. At the ontological level, thus, there is a belief in multiple realities – socially constructed multiple realities. Hosking and Bouwen (2000) suggest that 'constructionism assumes a relational ontology, in other words, all social realities are viewed as interdependent or co-dependent constructions existing and known only in relation' (p. 129). Research itself is considered as an ongoing relational process of construction (Hosking and Ramsey, 2000) and the value-laden researcher and the participants in a particular cultural and historical setting are equally parts of this construction process. The notions of ontology and epistemology are left joined rather than treated as separate in this view (Hosking and Ramsey, 2000). Therefore, multiple realities are constructed through an interactive research. Gergen (1999) calls this 'collaborative inquiry' which may take different forms such as ethnographic research or participatory action research.

Given the ontological, epistemological and axiological assumptions of social constructionism, we will touch on the significance of social processes as units of analysis and groups- collective entities- as the level of analysis in organisational research. The aim of inquiry, hence, shifts from structures, or outcomes to processes- more specifically from organisation to organising, from organisational knowledge or discourse to the process of learning: How certain phenomena or forms of knowledge are achieved by people in interaction forms the main focus of inquiry from a social constructionist view (see Burr, 1995, Easterby-Smith et al., 2002 and Gergen, 1999).

By placing an emphasis on the everyday interactions between people and relating as an ongoing process of construction, language is considered having a social function rather than private (see Burr, 1995, Czarniawska-Joerges, 1993, Gergen and Thatchenkerry, 1996 and Shotter, 1993b, and Shotter, 1995, Watson, 1994a). As suggested by Shotter (1995), the primary function of various forms of communication is not the representation of things in the world, nor the giving of outer expression to already well-formed inner thoughts, but consists in the creation and maintenance of various patterns of social relations' (p. 128). As such, to use a language is to relate oneself to others in some way in organisations and the persuasive nature of our talk is crucial in organising (Shotter, 1995). The role of language and discourse in studying organisational phenomena has been recognised significant not only by social constructionism but also by postmodernism as illustrated above. However, social constructionism focuses on its constructive nature i.e. sharing and negotiating meanings whilst there is an emphasis on deconstruction of the self and others in the postmodernist view.

The work of Tony Watson (1994, 2000) is an illuminating example as it draws on a study of managerial work in a large organisation with a social constructionist leaning. In *In Search of Management,* Watson (1994) constructs a case of managerial work in a particular cultural and historical setting. This is done through artfully creating a text- a story which tells us the views and feelings of others. As he explained elsewhere (Watson, 2001), the analysis is written in a way that privileges the words of the people who were interviewed, accepting all the time that it is dealing with 'what people say' as opposed to what is objectively the 'case'(p. 224). The role of the author is seen to be the creator of the account (Watson, 2001, p. 224). Thus, the account which is constructed and the process of writing as a constructive process itself are outcomes of a process of sense-making (Weick, 1995) by researcher and researched (Watson, 1995).

Taking a social constructionist epistemology, Watson (1994a) defines organisations as 'sets of ongoing human relationships utilising various technologies in which people cooperate to achieve tasks which would otherwise not be possible, either at all or from an equivalent resource base'(p. 32). The emphasis is on strategic exchanges between people in organising and managing. The processes of making sense, sharing and negotiating are emphasised in order to understand the managerial work in organisations. This implies investigative methods which take one close to individuals, which allow close attention to the way people use language and which enable the researcher to relate closely the individual to the context in which they work (Watson, 1994b, p. 82). The research design was, therefore, selected as the participant observation within the management team of a single organisation combined with detailed interviews with a cross section of that group of managers. As a researcher, he influenced the research in the very process of studying it. The 'biasing role of the interviewer's voice is thus made audible to the reader who is thus better able to contextualised respondents' words than is frequently the case in social science research texts' (Watson, 1995, p. 309).

We seek to draw attention to the subject of organisational learning in concluding this part as it has of a particular relevance to the current research. It has been researched or theorised in a variety of ways and the literatures can be seen to be dominated by a strong emphasis on learning outcomes from a normative approach rather than processes (Easterby-Smith et al., 2000, Gherardi, 1999 and Hosking and Bouwen, 2000). Table 7 reviews some of the OL literature and clearly the normative stance is dominant. [6]However, there is an increasing recognition of the need for a more dynamic, processual view of organisational learning (Bouwen and Hosking, 2000, Crossan et al., 1999 and Hosking and Bouwen, 2000). As suggested by Reason (1994), social constructionism allows a participatory world view and offers new and rich possibilities for interests in learning processes, relations and social interactions. Gheardi (1999) also criticises that common constructions of organisational learning reflect a realist ontology and

recommends constructionist epistemology. She has been one of the few researchers who take a social constructionist view to learning in organisations and challenge the traditional technical views of learning. Organisational learning is ascribed to the members' collective construction of knowledge. The examples of such work inspired by the social constructionism include Brown and Duguid (1991), Cook and Yanow (1993), Gherardi and Nicolini (2000, 2002), Huysman (2000), Lave and Wenger (1991), Nicolini and Meznar (1995), Wenger (1998, 2000) and Yanow (2000). The attention is on the1 processes through which individual or local knowledge is transformed into collective knowledge as well as the process through which this socially constructed knowledge influences, and is part of, local knowledge (Huysman, 2000, p. 136). Easterby-Smith et al. (2000) calls this movement the revolution which 'overturned the previously dominant model which implicitly conceptualised learners as individual actors processing information or modifying their mental structures, and substituted it with an image of learners as social beings who construct their understanding and learn from social interaction within specific socio-cultural and material settings' (p. 787). We aspire to this view of learning in the current doctoral research which intends to explore the learning experience of teams in complex organisational settings.

Table 7. Review of Organisational Learning (OL) literature

Authors	Aim(s) of the study/ research	Type of the study/research	Level of analysis	Theory(ies) or framework (s) drawn
Normative Approach				
Bontis et al. (2002)	to understand the relationship between the stocks and flows of learning across levels in an overall OL system.	empirical	multilevel	There is a positive relationship between the stocks of learning at all levels and business performance. The misalignment of stocks and flows in an overall OL system is negatively associated with business performance.
Buckler (1998)	to compare the key elements of his learning process model with other current learning practises in the UK.	empirical	multilevel	Learning embraces the acquisition of existing and the development of new knowledge, attitudes and skills; the application of knowledge, attitudes and skills in existing or new contexts all with the purpose of improving the performance of the organisation.
Crossan et al. (1995)	to review the assumptions of OL researchers along three dimensions: unit of analysis, cognitive/behavioural emphasis and the learning performance relationship.	theoretical	multilevel	Learning is a process of change in cognition and behaviour, and it does not necessarily follow that these changes will directly enhance performance.

Crossan et al. (1999)	to develop an OL framework to address the phenomenon of strategic renewal	theoretical	multilevel	An OL framework that incorporates the dynamic multilevel nature of the phenomenon and captures the interplay between process and level: the 4I framework of OL contains four related sub-processes- intuiting, interpreting, integrating, and institutionalising-that occur over three levels: individual, group and organisation.
Fiol and Lyles (1985)	to clarify the issues of definition of OL so that a better theory can be built	theoretical	organisation	OL means the process of improving actions through better knowledge and understanding. This is achieved through cognitive development and behavioural development at different levels.
Fraser and Novak (1998)	to demonstrate that concept of mapping is a technique which can be used by organisations to assist employees in learning and communicating effectively.	empirical	multilevel	As individuals develop their cognitive skills, such as problem solving through pictorial representations in concept maps, their working relationship and work attitude improve significantly.
Goh and Richards (1997)	to draw a correlation between organisational characteristics and management practises based on Garvin's (1993) notion of OL, which is concerned with transferring knowledge and modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge.	empirical	organisation	An organisation actively manages the learning process through distinctive policies and managerial practises.
Huber (1991)	to contribute to a more complete understanding of OL through elaboration of four constructs: knowledge acquisition, information distribution, information interpretation and organisational memory.	theoretical	multilevel	An information-processing perspective that can be applied at individual, group, and organisational levels of analysis. An entity learns if, through its processing of information, the range of its potential behaviours is changed.

Levitt and March (1988)	to examine the processes of OL by focusing on organisational routines and experiential lessons of history.	theoretical	organisation	Organisations are seen as learning by encoding inferences from history into routines that guide behaviour.
March (1991)	to examine the exploration of new possibilities and the exploitation of old certainties in OL.	theoretical	multilevel	The essence of exploitation is the refinement and extension of existing competences, technologies, and paradigms. Its returns are positive, proximate, and predictable. The essence of exploration is experimentation with new alternatives. Its returns are uncertain, distant and often negative.
Reynolds and Abletts (1998)	to understand the relationship between OL and the process of change.	empirical	organisation	Learning organisation is defined as the taking place of learning that changes the behaviour of the organisation itself. Continuous learning leads to continual change and learning facilitates response to change.
Smith et al. (1996)	to incorporate OL into the resource-based view.	theoretical	organisation	OL is a strategic capability and that resource-based theory must be able to incorporate OL if it is to explain adequately the process of achieving sustainable competitive advantage.
Yeo (2002)	to present an evaluation of cognitive and behavioural approaches to learning in the light of their methodological differences.	theoretical	multilevel	A preliminary theoretical framework has been developed and it asserts that OL is a collective entity that draws upon various disciplines in management and organisational theories.
Interpretive Approach				
Weick (1991)	to understand the potential uniqueness of OL in ways which link that uniqueness to what we already know about individual learning.	theoretical	multilevel	Different intellectual strategies are offered based on different understandings of organisations and learning.
Williams (2001)	to capture the essential process of OL and to adopt a definition of learning which is applicable to both individual and OL.	theoretical	multilevel	A belief-focused process model of OL: Learning is a process in which relatively stable changes are brought about in the way we see things and behave in pursuit of goals. Individual and collective sense-making is what all this is about.
Social				

Constructionist Approach				
Brown and Duguid (1991)	to indicate the nature and explore the significance of working, learning and innovating.	empirical	group	Conceiving an organisation as a community-of communities, learning is fostered by fostering access to and membership of the target community of practice. Communities-of practice continue to develop a rich, fluid, noncanonical worldview to bridge the gap between their organisation's static canonical view and the challenge of changing practice.
Cook and Yanow (1993)		empirical	multilevel	Organisational knowing and learning are always intimately bound to a particular organisation. OL is understood as the acquiring, sustaining, or changing of intersubjective meanings through the artifactual vehicles of their expression and transmission and the collective actions of the group.
Gherardi and Nicolini (2000), (2002)	to understand how people learn to cope with the knowledge embedded in their community, and the knowing nested in a constellation of practices.	empirical	group	Learning in a constellation of interconnected practises can be described as a brokering activity situated in a discursive practice which reflects situated bodies of knowledge to the minimum extent necessary to perform the discursive community. Knowledge is constantly structured and it is dynamic and provisional.
Wenger (1998, 2000)	to explore the structures of social learning systems in organisations.	theoretical	group	Communities of practice are the basic building blocks of a social learning system where members are bound together by collectively developed understanding of what their community is about and they hold each accountable to this sense of joint enterprise and build their community through mutual engagement, interacting with one another. As a consequence they remain important social units of learning even in the context of much larger systems.
An alternative approach to critical theory and postmodernism				

Blackler & McDonald (2000)	to explore the links between power, expertise and OL.	empirical	organisation	OL can be conceptualised as the movement between familiar and emergent activities and between established and emergent social relations. The dynamics of power, mastery and collective learning are inseparable.

**see Notes 6.*

SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONIST PROPOSAL TO ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING

The phenomenon of entrepreneurial learning from the perspectives of those who experience it forms the focus of our inquiry. Table 8 outlines the previous literature on the subject. 'Entrepreneurship' or 'entrepreneurial behaviour' has been defined in many different ways in the academic discourse. However, among scholars who attempt to conceptualise entrepreneurial behaviour, there is at least general agreement on it involving recognising opportunities and capitalising on them by forming and managing ventures. (see Christensen et al., 1994, Ireland et al., 2001, Kirzner, 1973, Shane and Venkataraman, 2000, Stevenson, 1997, Stevenson and Gumpert, 1985, Thompson, 1999, Ucbasaran, 2001). The central aim of this research is to understand the learning experience of a set of actors who are involved in these processes of forming and managing ventures in complex organisations.

Table 8. Review of Entrepreneurial Learning (EL) literature

Author (s)	Aim(s) of the study/ research	Type of the study/ research	Level of analysis	Theory(ies) or framework (s) drawn
Normative Approach				
Chaston et al. (1999a)	to compare the perceptions of the learning needs and styles among UK support service advisors and small firm managers.	empirical	small firms and small firm advisors	There is a perception gap between support agencies and small firms in relation to the need to adopt an organisational learning philosophy to upgrade areas of management practice and whether the prevalent level of learning style in most small firms could result in the creation of flexible, proactive organisations.

Chaston et al. (1999b)	to examine the relationships between organisational learning, organisational capability and performance.	empirical	owners/managers in SMEs	There is a positive relationship between organisational learning and organisational competence. The proponents of learning should give emphasis on the idea that firms should vision their future and adopt the concept of organisational learning as the most effective philosophy to acquire new core competences.
Matlay (2000)	to examine organisational learning in the small business sector of the UK economy.	empirical	small businesses	Although learning can occur in the majority of small businesses in the sample, only a minority of these manage new knowledge strategically to sustain and advance their competitive advantage.
Honig (2001)	to examine different learning strategies employed by nascent entrepreneurs and intrapreneurs in an effort to identify more successful strategies for various organisational forms.	empirical	individuals	An observable relationship between learning strategy and intrapreneurial versus entrepreneurial activity. Intrapreneurs were found to utilise learning strategies focusing on organisational consensus, while entrepreneurs were found to utilise strategies that were more flexible and adaptive. Learning strategy does matter and it is possible to identify the strategies normatively employed for different types of nascent organisations.
Minniti and Bygrave (2001)	to develop a model of EL which describes the learning process characterising entrepreneurial behaviour.	theoretical	individuals	A model of EL as a calibrated algorithm of an iterated choice problem in which entrepreneurs learn by updating a subjective stock of knowledge accumulated on the basis of past experience.
Interpretive Approach				
Boussoura and Deakins (1999)	to understand the importance of learning process in entrepreneurial development within the high technology small firms (HTSFs) for developing marketing strategies.	empirical	small firms	High technology development can occur after an initial non technical start-up. The non technical start-up provides an important preparation for the entrepreneur through the learning experience, providing the basis for the development of more advanced marketing strategies for the technology based development.

Cope and Watts (2000)	to explore parallel processes of personal development and organisational growth within small businesses, focusing primarily on the role of critical incidents within the wider process of EL.	empirical	small business owners	Critical incidents as learning experiences: entrepreneurs face prolonged and traumatic critical periods or episodes and such periods influence their level of learning. There is a need for mentoring support programmes designed to help entrepreneurs to interpret critical incidents as learning experiences in order to increase the power of learning outcomes.
Deakins and Freel (1998)	to examine the process of entrepreneurship and EL in SMEs.	empirical	SMEs	For SMEs to grow, entrepreneurs must be able to learn from decisions, from mistakes, from experience and from their networks. The ability of entrepreneurs to maximise knowledge as a result of experiencing these learning events will determine how successful their firm eventually becomes.
Rae (2000), Rae and Carswell (2000)	to understand how people develop entrepreneurial capabilities through learning: 'emergent entrepreneur' who is discovering through the processes of entrepreneurial formation.	empirical	individual entrepreneurs who are either small or growing business owners	Development of entrepreneurial capability: the process of entrepreneurial emergence and 'living theory' of entrepreneurship.
Approach has normative tendencies				
Sullivan (2000)	to identify the learning process and its importance to the survival and growth of SMEs: to investigate whether training, education and mentoring could be tailored to meet their needs.	empirical	individual entrepreneurs within the context of SMEs.	Effective learning served through a mentoring relationship where clients are encouraged to engage in reflective learning. Life cycle approaches may assist in planning the provision of training and support.
Young and Sexton (1997)	Focusing the cognitive processes of learning, to acquire an understanding of the processes which enable practising entrepreneurs to learn, as they manage their growing businesses.	theoretical	individual entrepreneurs	Entrepreneurs learn processively, and it also identifies their motives for learning. These processes are mainly cognitive processes of the acquisition, retention, and use of entrepreneurial knowledge.

Taking a social constructionist approach, whose emphasis is on social interactions through which our shared versions of knowledge are constructed (Burr, 1995, Gergen, 1985), the level of analysis is 'venture teams' and studying groups in their culturally and socially situated natural environments can give us a legitimacy to tell the

readers more about this social nature of learning. This is steered by our ontological and epistemological assumptions. Since constructionism emphasises the relational qualities and the multiplicities of social realities, venture teams can be studied as a vehicle for generating accounts and interpretations in organisations which are not objective entities but socially constructed phenomena (Berger and Luckmann, 1966).

There are two main related research questions which constitute the focal points of the research; however, we have no qualms about altering that focus if new accounts emerging from the fieldwork make it relevant to do so. The first question of 'how team members learn' poses several other questions related to the nature of this learning process: How do they attribute meanings to events? How do they share understandings about the features of a venture as what it is about, what it does well and poorly, what the problems are and how they should tackle with them. How do they negotiate such meanings? Sense-making can be a useful framework for this inquiry as it might provide answers to how they construct what they construct, why and with what effects (see, Pye, 2002, Weick, 1995). Strategic exchange perspective (Watson, 1994) is another frame of reference signifying the 'strategically shaped' nature of the exchanges between organisational members. As articulated by Watson (1994), we can see human actions "as being strategic as it is shaped in some way by the need of individuals or of groups with the challenges of their environment. And organisational activities are strategic in so far as they shape the organisation to help to cope with the challenges of its environment and hence to survive into the future" (p. 26).

This connects us with the second question of the research: How can team members, who are actively involved in this strategic exchange process, and who learn through engaging with each other, with the other teams and senior management and with their environment, shape organisational change? Can they navigate a shift by putting their learning into practice? Dawson's (1994) processual framework and Pettigrew's (1985 in 1987) contextual approach provide analytic tools to examine the process of change in organisations.

The approach meets the call for case study research, reflecting the richness of particular contexts and generating deeper understanding of it, but allowing a contribution to knowledge which can be transferred to other settings (see Berman-Brown, 1995, Clyde, 1983, Easton, 1992, Eisenhardt, 1989, Gibb and Wilkins, 1991, Gummesson, 2000, Hamel et al., 1993, Hartley, 1994, Stake, 1994, 1995 for case study approach). Given our broad aims, it is necessary to consider a number of sources (Denzin, 1970). These include organisational texts-specifically, historical documents or reports regarding the planning and formation of the venture, current documents, statistical reports, internal memos, and other related documentation-; interviews with the team members and with senior management as well as participant or non-participant observations of, and informal discussions about daily work of the organisation. The limitations in terms of the quality of access to an organisation and difficulties of analysing a large volume of accounts are considerable but the benefits of this type of approach, we believe, far outweigh these problems.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This paper has sought to stimulate reflection on how an inquiry of organisational phenomena can be accomplished. We have attempted to show what critical theorist, postmodernist and social constructionist can offer to organisational research. Consideration of each of these approaches will highlight their weaknesses and strengths and suggest improvements that may help us in analysing organisations.

By undertaking analyses and disseminating research findings that are empirical, historically situated and insightful (Forester, 1993, p.13), critical theory, postmodernism or social constructionism can contribute to the reconstruction

of organisational phenomena. Focusing on injustices and inequalities, critical theorist researchers intend to show the reader how a particular dominant reading surfaces in organisational life (Putnam et al., 1993). Engaging collaboratively with those less powerful, the role of the researcher is to identify strategies for change (Laughlin, 1995, Patton, 2002, Steffy and Grimes, 1986,). Postmodernism, which is relativistic in stance like social constructionism and critical theory to some extend, stresses how the discourses or social constructions in organisations inscribe an identity upon members of an organisation (Ogbor, 2000). In Patton's (2002) words, they are 'presumed to serve someone's interests, usually those of the powerful' (p. 101). Thus, the postmodernist researchers do not have simply a relativist perspective but also are concerned with advocating their preferred values (Weiss, 2000, p. 717) in deconstructing organisational discourses.

We agree with Patton (2002) in wishing to place emphasis on the multiple realities constructed by people and the implications of those constructions for their lives and interactions with others. The capturing of these different perspectives of the members of an organisation allows us, as social constructionist researchers, to provide an account to the readers who can then construct their own understanding. The researcher's role is to assist readers in the construction of knowledge (Stake, 1994). The final report is, therefore, narrated as a story which carries the message that multiple voices are needed to be heard and honoured (Patton, 2002). Hatch (1996) has alerted us to face a problem of organisation researchers to relate the research to the interests, needs, and concerns of those who hope to use the products of their knowledge creation efforts. By positioning ourselves outside the practitioners' world, researchers face increasing demands to interpret their findings and state their implications from within the practitioners' frame (Hatch, 1996, p. 372)- from that of the members of the organisation under study. Yet, if the ideals of social constructionism are to be realised, the role of the researcher and the quality of the report constructed is crucial in going beyond abstract theorising to stimulate different understandings.

Sharing the concern that we have to move from abstract modes of communicating knowledge to more narrative ways of conveying insight and understanding (Czarniawski, 1997), we believe that social constructionist approach can contribute to organisational research in general and can enrich the understanding of the learning experience of venture teams in particular. Consistent with social constructionism, no attempt is made to raise one approach or perspective over others, nor is there any intention to suggest that there is one way of conducting a research from a social constructionist standpoint. However, we do not wish to guide organisational change processes as critical theorists would. We believe that it is our duty to represent the voices of the participants without losing the sharedness and negotiation of meanings in the creation and maintenance of various patterns of social relations (Shotter, 1995). What we are convinced is that the approach we have presented in this paper is a robust proposal, which offers some opportunities to enrich understandings about the phenomenon of entrepreneurial learning.

Endnotes:

[1] The terms 'constructionism' and 'constructivism' are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature. We use the term 'social constructionism' rather than 'constructivism' as adopted by Guba and Lincoln (1989) because as argued in Burr (1995), Gergen (1985) recommends the use of constructionism', since 'constructivism' is sometimes used to refer to a particular kind of perceptual theory in psychology and could cause confusion. Furthermore, Bouwen and Hosking (2000) make a useful distinction between constructivism, social constructivism and social constructionism: In constructivism, the mind is considered to construct reality within a systematic relationship to the external world (the work of Piaget is referred), whereas in social constructivism, internal processes are understood to be influenced by social relations. The focus is still on 'internal, cognitive processes' of construction of meanings. However, social constructionism centres communication processes as the vehicle in which self and world are in ongoing construction.

[2] Alvesson and Deetz (2000) provide a discussion on relating critical theory and postmodernism. They show the similarities and differences and they believe that they can contribute to organisational studies together. They suggest two options for further research: One option is to work with unresolved tensions within a text where one follows different themes of postmodernism and critical theory without attempting synthesis, working with the tensions and contrastive images. The other option is to allow space for various discrete voices in texts through conducting multiple interpretations of the same phenomenon from both critical theory and postmodernist positions.

[3] Steffy and Grimes (1986) offers a lucid explanation of reflective research. They suggest that critical theory requires that researchers expand their critique to include the cognitive intent, or aim, of research. It implicitly assumes that researchers infuse their values and beliefs into the research enterprise. There is an interaction with the members of the research enterprise and according to Habermas (1971), the professed aim of critical theory is the practical change of organisational structures to facilitate the emancipation of the institutional actors.

[4] The examples given by Alvesson and Willmott (1992) included the works of Bendix (1956), Child (1969), Anthony (1977, 1986), MacIntyre (1981), Storey (1983), Knights and Willmott (1986), Jackall (1988), Reed (1989). In a more recent study, Alvesson and Deetz (2000) give other examples of work with a critical theory orientation such as Alvesson (1996), Deetz (1994), Knights and Willmott (1987, 1989, 1990, 1993), Mumby (1987, 1988) and Rosen (1985, 1988). As mentioned by Alvesson and Willmott (1996), there are a number of examples of ethnographic-type studies of organisational work that are informed by a broadly critical standpoint (e.g. Filby and Willmott, 1988, Knights and Collinson, 1987, Kunda, 1992). See Alvesson and Willmott (2002), Ezzamel et al. (2001) for more recent studies.

[5] Laughlin (1995) suggested that expressing the assumptions in the context of choices that have to be made before undertaking any empirical research, it is possible to cluster these concerns under three broad labels of 'theory', 'methodology' and 'change'. The choice in relation to 'theory' involves deciding on a view about the nature of the world (Burrell and Morgan's ontology) and what constitutes knowledge and how it relates to the current focus of investigation (Burrell and Morgan's epistemology). The choice of methodology involves a position on the nature and the role of observer in the discovery process. The choice in relation to change involves a position on whether the investigation is intentionally geared to achieve change. He recommends that we should think of these three choices on three different scalars ranging from high to low (see page 68 for the figure) and he adopts a 'middle range thinking' since it argues a case for taking a mid-point on each of the three continuums (theory, methodology and change). He privileges Habermesian critical theory, which is built on the creative power of knowledge and discourse.

[6] It is crucial to note the difficulty of identifying the approaches for some studies in drawing the table 7. The ontological and epistemological assumptions are not explicitly made in such studies as well as the different methods of data collection and analysis associated with different approaches are used in one study. However, we have attempted to reflect our understanding against the background we have provided in the paper. For a better understanding of the distinction between interpretivism and social constructionism, Schwandt's (2000) chapter on 'Three Epistemological Stances for Qualitative Inquiry: Interpretivism, Hermeneutics, and Social Constructionism' in the Handbook of Qualitative Research is recommended.

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APPENDIX III

AN ACCOUNT OF RESEARCH ACTIVITIES THROUGHOUT THE DOCTORAL STUDY

Abbreviations: E: Entrepreneurship; OL: Organisational Learning; EL: Entrepreneurial Learning; SC: Social constructionist; PA: Processual approach; ET: Entrepreneurial teams; CoP: Communities of Practice; O & M: Organising and managing; NI: Naturalistic Inquiry; RM: Research methods; DoS: Director of Studies; CO: Case organisations; BAM: British Academy of Management; ISBA: Institute of Small Business and Administration; WS: workshop; INO: Industrial Networking Organisation

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Phase I: Orientation phase: January 2002-November 2002			
Engaging with E, OL and EL literature (throughout the phase)	Researcher/ notes	Background knowledge/conceptual frameworks	Refining research ideas
Immersing in methodological issues: alignment with SC, PA and NI (RM modules) (throughout the phase)	Researcher/Notes DoS / Other research students	Grounding research Philosophy/ analytical frameworks/ emerging research design	Informing all aspects of the research
Attending supervisory meetings (throughout the phase)	Researcher/ DoS/ Notes Supervisors	In-depth discussions regarding the scope and nature of the research	Further thinking about research ideas/ Shaping the direction of research
Attending Complexity Seminars: Hertford (January-February. 2002)	Researcher/ notes Other scholars	Complexity frameworks in studying organisational phenomena	Informing the researcher about different ways of researching processes in organisations
ISBA WS: Lancaster Research paradigms (19 Mar 2002)	Researcher/ Notes Other research students and scholars	Research Philosophies/ designs	Exposure to different Philosophies and ways of conducting research
Submitting Research Design/ Strategy Assignment (May 2002)	Researcher DoS Supervisor	Comments by the supervisors	Further thinking and engaging with issues raised.
Identifying criteria for CO and contacting companies (from Jul 2002 onwards)	Researcher/ DoS/ Supervisors	Criteria for selection/	Constructing the research proposal

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Submitting Data Management assignment (Oct 2002)	Researcher/ DoS	Comments by the DoS	Taking up these comments and those from Cardiff in constructing Brighton paper
Presenting Brighton paper at the Doctoral Track of the ISBA conference (12-15 Nov 2002)	Researcher/ DoS Other scholars	Feedback given by the participants at doctoral consortium/ Suggestions regarding fieldwork settings	Exploring different field settings in line with the research aims: Inc. Further reading on complexity app.
Overview of field settings: November 2002-May 2003			
Meeting with TK (CEO of the GW) (JV-Games) (18 Nov 2002)	Researcher/Notes DoS/ Supervisor	Ideas on criteria for selection of companies	Securing access to WO
Fieldwork visit JV-Games (Interview with Richard- the nascent corporate entrepreneur) (25 Nov 2002)	Researcher/notes Participant Tape recorder JV Contract Articles about the online game industry	Interview transcripts Observation notes	Transcribing the interview. Analysing the documents.
Attending the supervisory meetings (throughout the phase)	Researcher/ Notes DoS/ Supervisor	Discussions regarding the concern, nature and design of the research	Developing insights about the practice of carrying out processual research or applying some abstract concepts, ideas in practice.
Engaging with literature on E, EL, ET, O & M, CoP	Researcher/Notes	Frameworks, concepts and different theoretical approaches	Refining research objectives. Developing better understanding of the field.
Collecting documents about companies Corresponding with university incubator officials (throughout the phase)	Researcher/ Notes	Secondary sources/ Arranged meetings with people at the Inc setting (s)	Framing the interview guide(s) for different settings
Fieldwork visit Midlands Incubator (Attending the first meeting of the incubator team) (02 Dec 2002)	Researcher/ Notes Participants	Observation transcripts/ Meeting notes/ Company documents	Informing researcher about the Inc setting and its suitability/ Analysing first account of the Inc setting

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Fieldwork visit Midlands Incubator Attending the meeting of the incubator team (11 Dec 2002)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Tape recorder	Observation transcripts/ Meeting notes/ Company documents	Analysing the second account of the Inc setting
Attending the supervisory meeting with Mary, Bill, David (17 Dec 2002)	Researcher/ Notes DoS Supervisors	Comments on the Incubator paper	Further thinking the Incs as the setting and possible integration of three different settings
Attending ISBA WS: London Case Study Design (18 Dec 2002)	Researcher/Notes Other research students and scholars	Perren and Monder's article on case study design/ Different applications of technique	Further reading and thinking about case study design
Writing-up conceptual framework paper (Jan 2003)	Researcher/Notes DoS	Research Philosophy/processual framework/strategic exchange perspective/ complexity approach	Further thinking about the applications in the current research/ Use of feedback to give the shape of the RD7 report research
Submitting the abstract of the Durham conference paper (28 Jan 2003)	Researcher DoS Supervisor	Brief description of research at that point in time	Reflecting briefly on the research account/ Thinking about the writing up the full paper
Attending the meeting of Inc A team regarding a product development (28 Jan 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants	Observation transcripts/ Company documents	Analysing the third account of the Inc setting
Meeting with the IT Director of the British Midlands (04 Feb 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Research protocol DoS Richard Hucker Participant: Richard Dawson	Meeting notes	Negotiating access with the company official
Interviewing CEO of the Thames Incubator (20 Feb 2003)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcripts Observation notes Company documents	Analysing the initial accounts

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Interviewing the manager of South East Innovation Centre (28 Feb 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview tape Observation notes Company documents	Transcribing the tape and processing the raw account to be used for the ISBA paper
Submission of the RD7: Progress Report (13 Mar 2003)	Researcher/ Notes DoS	Progress report	Getting feedback from the supervisors on the final report. Further thinking for the transfer viva.
Interviewing Neil Simpson (Ennovations UK) to explore any possibility of fieldwork (16 Apr 2003)	Researcher/notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcripts Observation notes	Transcribing the interview. Using some ideas in the conference papers. Decision: not to pursue with the case company for further research.
Phase II: Focused exploration phase: May 2003- April-May 2004			
Submission of full paper to the BAM conference organisers (30 Apr 2003)	Researcher DoS Fieldwork accounts	First draft of the paper submitted to the conference	Further thinking on the research out of discussions with the DoS.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt Interview with Denise (MD of the venture) to explore any possibility of fieldwork (01 May 2003)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcripts Observation notes	Analysing the transcript. Discussing the case with DoS. Making further efforts for an in-depth access to the case company.
Attending the BAM Doctoral Clinic at the Manchester Met Uni. (06.May 2003)	Researcher/Notes Other doctoral students Facilitators Other researchers	Feedback on the fieldwork settings in relation to research aims.	Further thinking in choosing and approaching case organisations.
Fieldwork visit: (Interview with DK - Enterprise educator/ incubator manager- SouthWest incubator). (08. May. 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript Notes Case documents	Analysing the transcript. Using it as a case material for the ISBA paper.

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Presenting a paper (earlier version of the BAM paper) at the Hertford symposium (09 May 2003)	Researcher Audience Notes	Feedback on the paper	Further thinking on the research.
Meeting with PR (JCB) to explore any possibility of fieldwork (13 May 2003)	Researcher/Notes Participant	Meeting notes Company documents Contact names for fieldwork	Contacting the relevant people at JCB Branded Products (new venture).
Interview with MR (Creative Industries Business Development Officer- DCC-Head of Banks Mill incubator) (16.May.03)	Researcher/Notes Participant	Interview transcript Documents on CI in Derby.	Analysis of interview data Using the data for understanding the context for KBrandArt case (CI in England and in Derby)
Meeting with Denise (KBrandArt) to secure further access (05 Jun 2003)	Researcher/ Notes DoS Research protocol	Meeting notes	Agreeing on for observation work.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (09. Jun. 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes	Generating questions on the issues they are discussing. Analysing the observation notes/ actions.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (16 Jun 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes	Generating questions on the issues they are discussing. Analysing the observation notes.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (23 Jun 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (30 Jun 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt Interview with Denise (02 Jul 2003)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript. Observation notes. Confidentiality agreement.	Analysing interview account.
Receiving feedback from the reviewer of the BAM conference paper (04 Jul 2003)	Researcher DoS Draft paper Reviewer's comments	Revised paper	Further thinking on the research. Submitting the revised paper to the conference organisers on 14. Jul. 2003.
Fieldwork visit JV-Games (Interview with Richard) (04 Jul 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript Observation notes	Analysing interview account.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (07 July 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (14 Jul 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Submission of Durham conference full paper. (17. Jul. 2003)	Researcher DoS Draft paper	Final draft of the paper	Further thinking on the research.
Submission of the first company report to KBrandArt (feedback to the case organisation) (04 Sep 2003)	Researcher Emerging findings	Company report	Setting a meeting date for discussing it with venture team members.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (04 Sep 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants (New team member) Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (08 Sep 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (11 Sep 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Attending BAM 2003 Doctoral Day. Presenting an account of the research to date. (13-14 Sep 2003)	Researcher/Notes Other doctoral students Facilitators Other researchers	Feedback on research and on presentation skills.	Using feedback for further progress.
Attending the BAM conference. Presenting the paper at the Annual 2003 BAM conference. (16 Sep 2003)	Researcher/Slides DoS Audience	Feedback on the paper and on the research in general.	Discussing the comments with my DoS and further thinking on the conduct of fieldwork.
Attending the Durham conference. Presenting the paper at the 2003 International Entrepreneurship Conference. (17 Sep 2003)	Researcher/Slides Audience	Feedback on the paper.	Further thinking for the progress of the research.
Submitting the University Incubators paper to the ISBA conference organisers (19 Sep 2003)	Researcher DoS Draft paper	Final full paper	Utilising it for the context part of the thesis.
Drafting a tentative thesis outline and submitting it to the DoS (19 Sep 2003)	Researcher	Tentative thesis outline.	Drafting the first sections.

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Meeting with JA (JCB) to explore if there is any scope for me in joining their venture team as a researcher. (19 Sep 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participant Research protocol	Meeting notes Need for market research	Discussion the potential consultancy project with my supervisors and other relevant people from the School. Intention: Using the project as a way to get access for fieldwork.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (22 Sep 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Interview with Adam) (24 Sep 2003)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript	Analysing the interview account.
Fieldwork visit (KBrandArt) (Interview with Paul). (10 Oct 2003)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript	Analysing the interview account.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Interview with Charles) (17 Oct 2003)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript	Analysing the interview account.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (27 Oct 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (03 Nov 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Presenting the incubation work at the EMSEN conference in Leicester. (06 Nov 2003)	Researcher/ Slides Audience	Feedback on the support mechanisms for enterprise development in general.	Taking the comments on board for the context part of the thesis.

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Attending the ISBA 2003 Doctoral Day. (11 Nov 2003)	Researcher/Notes Other doctoral students Facilitators Other researchers	Discussion at the tracks about conducting doctoral research.	Learning from others' experiences.
Attending the Annual ISBA Conference. Presenting the University Incubators paper (13 Nov 2003)	Researcher/Slides DoS Audience	Feedback on the paper.	Using the paper and comments for the context part of the thesis. Using the comments for the journal paper.
Meeting with JA (JCB) to secure the desired access and to agree on the consultancy project (14 Nov 2003)	Researcher DoS Richard Mayer John Atkinson	Meeting notes	Access – agreed Consultancy project: agreed on the action points.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the team meeting) (17 Nov 2003)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Interview with Luke) (05 Dec 2003)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript	Analysing the interview account.
Attending supervisory meetings (throughout the phase)	Researcher/ DoS/ Notes Supervisors	In-depth discussions regarding the fieldwork and direction of the research.	Further thinking about the direction of the research.
Re-engaging with the literature reviewed to date alongside the analysis of fieldwork accounts. (throughout the phase)	Researcher/Notes Literature	Further notes on analysis.	Relating the research accounts to the previous studies.
Reviewing the most recent literature. (throughout the phase)	Researcher/ Notes Literature	Further notes on analysis.	Relating the research accounts to the previous studies.

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending an INO meeting) (21 January 2004)	Researcher/Notes Participants Fieldwork documents (INO Consultancy Report)	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk and fieldwork document.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending a team meeting) (03 Feb 2004)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Fieldwork visit (Interview with Tim-CEO of the GW) (04 Feb 2004)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript	Analysis of interview transcript
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the INO meeting) (16 Feb 2004)	Researcher/Notes Participants Fieldwork documents (INO business plan)	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk and fieldwork document.
Attending the BAM Doctoral Workshop on NVivo (March 2004)	Researcher/ Notes Instructor Course material Other participants	Course notes Guidelines pertaining to how to use NVivo for data analysis	Further thinking as to how to analyse the interview material generated so far through NVivo.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the INO meeting) (2 March 2004)	Researcher/Notes Participants Fieldwork documents (INO business plan)	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Attending the venture team meeting) (9 March 2004)	Researcher/ Notes Participants Fieldwork journal	Observation notes Meeting talk records	Generating conversation material. Analysing the meeting talk.
Writing two conference papers (BAM and EURAM) (April 2004)	Researcher DoS Draft papers	Two conference papers	Further thinking about the development of the research accounts.
Developing the draft chapters of the thesis throughout the period	Researcher Literature Research accounts DoS	Draft chapters	Shaping the thesis.

Phase III: Writing-up April-May 2004-June 2006			
Activities	**Instruments**	**Accounts**	**Use of accounts**
Developing the draft chapters of the thesis (Apr/May 2004-Dec 2005)	Researcher/Notes Supervisor Draft chapters	Comments on the draft chapters by the Supervisor	Further improvement of the draft chapters.
Fieldwork visit KBrandArt (Follow-up interview with Denise) (25 May 2004)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript	Analysis of the interview transcript.
First meeting with the new Supervisor (02 July 2004)	Researcher Supervisor Thesis outline	Discussion on the scope and nature of the study	Further thinking as to how to take the work forward.
Fieldwork visit R-Games (Interview with Rosie) (25 August 2004)	Researcher/Notes Participant Tape recorder	Interview transcript	Analysis of the interview transcript
Presentation of the BAM conference paper (30 Aug-3 Sep 2004)	Researcher/Slides Audience	Feedback on the research methods/conceptualisation and findings	Taking the comments on board to develop a book chapter.
Submission of a book chapter (September 2004)	Researcher Draft chapters	Final version of the book chapter	Further thinking as to how to develop the study further
Continuous analysis of research accounts; writing up, and submission, of the draft chapters, to the Supervisor throughout the period	Researcher Supervisor Draft chapters	Supervisor's feedback	Further improvement of the chapters.
Attending a training session on NVivo as a part of the Faculty's research training programme (24 May 2005)	Researcher/Notes Instructor Training material	Guidelines as to how to further analyse the interviews NVivo files	Preparing the interview data for NVivo and creating project documents.

Activities	Instruments	Accounts	Use of accounts
Attending the supervisor meetings throughout the period	Researcher/Notes Supervisor Draft chapters/thesis	In-depth discussions on the chapters of the draft thesis.	Further improvement of the chapters of the thesis.
Submission of the draft thesis to the Supervisor (Dec 2005)	Researcher Supervisor Draft thesis	Supervisor's feedback	Further improvement of the thesis.
Re-submission of the draft thesis (April 2006)	Researcher Supervisor Draft thesis	Supervisor's feedback	Revisions in line with the Supervisor's comments.
Final editing of the thesis (April-June 2006)	Researcher Draft thesis	Improved draft thesis	Preparation for the final submission

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APPENDIX IV
EXAMPLE TO A RESEARCH PROTOCOL

RESEARCH PROTOCOL

LEARNING and MANAGING DURING NEW VENTURE CREATION

The scope of the research: The current research is about the learning and managing experience of teams who are involved in creating new ventures. The project is fully funded by the University of Derby and a part of a three-year PhD programme. The School intends to accelerate its research output in two defined areas of entrepreneurship and future HRM. The two areas will assist the Centre for Entrepreneurial Management which aspires to create and share practical understanding of entrepreneurial management. We believe that entrepreneurial management is a new way of thinking and working and our Centre pursues the objective of providing a fresh kind of practical learning to stimulate this approach.

There is a growing emphasis on the need to engender an entrepreneurial orientation in companies of all sizes. Firms try to find fundamentally new ways of doing business in order to create new value. Learning how to seize opportunities and to take initiatives to make things happen is critical in this process. Venturing is viewed as a process in this research and it consists of several stages i.e. an opportunity must be identified; the opportunity must be evaluated; resources must be acquired and those resources must be managed to start up, to survive and to expand. **Applying this processual approach to venturing, the current research seeks to gain an in-depth understanding of the learning and managing experience of teams involved in the above activities, in three different settings**: First setting is a joint venture where two companies combine their resources to form a new business seeking financial return for the investors. Second one is a lone company going through corporate venturing on its own. And the third one is an incubator organisation as a venture established within a university in order to support new venture creation without having a partnership or any financial benefits in return.

Our learning from your organisation will lead to a report for your organisation, and the possible developing of teaching materials for the School and academic papers.

Case study approach will be adopted in order to reveal the complexity and particular nature of the above processes in relation to their social contexts. The project calls for a prolonged engagement with team members. We intend to collect the information through interviews, observation and available documents. An initial round of interviews will be designed to elicit general issues around the activities of team members. These initial interviews are expected to serve to highlight other issues to be taken up with subsequent more-open-ended interviews and observation. Together we anticipate these processes will enable us to identify critical themes in the learning and managing processes of teams.

The issues of time and confidentiality: In order to save time and not to disrupt your normal operations, interviews will be timed to fit within your constraints, with the permission of those involved. All contributions from individuals will be kept strictly confidential. A report of our study will first come to your organisation, at which stage you will be asked to indicate sensitive information.

The Researcher: Mine Karatas-Ozkan
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APPENDIX V

OBSERVATION DATA SUMMARY SHEET

KbrandArt

Venture team meeting (Board meeting)/ 4 Sep 2003 (5:30-7:30)

Venue: KBrandArt offices

Participants:

Norman (N- a new member of the team working on brand positioning), Denise (D), Adam (A), Paul (P) and Luke (L) and Mine (M).
Charles was not attending because he was in Ireland.

Agenda:
Brand positioning process, vision and values.
Funding: £ Alert
(These two items were on the meeting agenda sheet that Denise distributed to the team members including myself).

Denise opened the meeting with her concern of better organising the business (venture) at this transition stage by referring to the need for more meetings. Then she introduced Norman's agenda regarding brand repositioning for that evening.

Record of the meeting talk:

Norman: (introduces and explains the goal) Well, I have some form of internal document which sets out how we should talk about ourselves. What we do. How we do. Just looking at the process, Production's proposition is much clearer and clearly based in production in video whereas Studios' is basically in media. I see a number of issues here that you need to clarify. It is challenging but we should decide. I started to say 'We' now.

Going down that route, you should tell me 'hang on we are not confident' and we should find the way you feel most comfortable (talking to everybody).

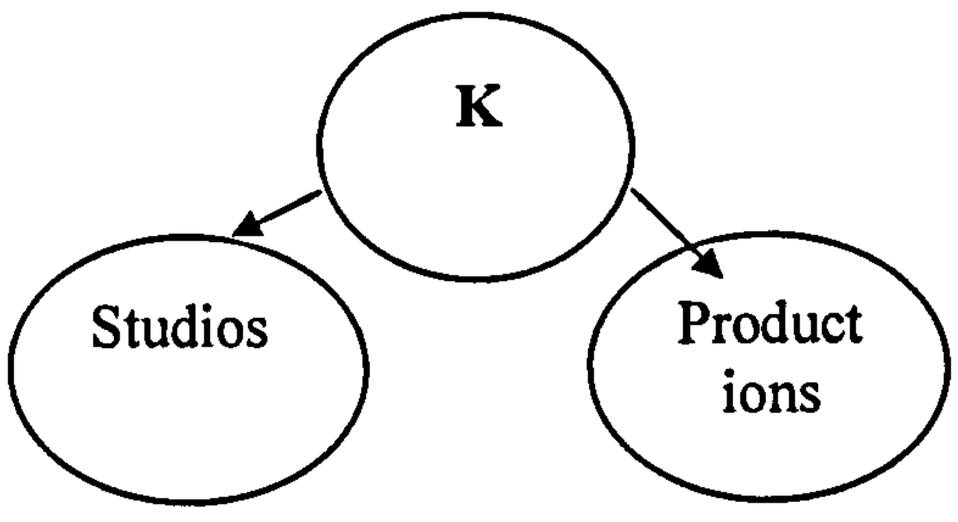
L: That's why you are here to push us.
N: Yeah (soft laugh) First of all, I'm not sure what KBrandArt Studios does. Or KBrandArt generically. We are going out there and what do you stand for. We have got to be consistent in that respect. Consistency in how we present ourselves to the market offerings is must. Then creating value strategically and creatively is the key issue in brand positioning. Production arm is very important and it is based in certain areas and it does underline your expertise. So, we can say we do these. All this brand communication stuff. But we have got the production arm as well.

[Denise gave an example from the XYZ Building Society. How they can realise that by providing the technical side as well].

[Norman asks a question around the name 'Studios' to everybody]:
N: What about Studios? Are you all comfortable with the name KBrandArt Studios?
A: Well, not really and we discussed this before but it is about the web site, isn't it?
D: You can still have the domain name.
N: I wouldn't be worried about the domain name. What we are, what we are offering through what is the key issue to clarify.

L: KBrandArt becomes the solution to the creative consultancy and productions is the technical side of it.
N: Where does the 'studios' fit then? I'm inclined to have KBrandArt and KBrandArt Productions.
A: KBrandArt does employ a range of activities.
D: But it doesn't cover the strategic studio.
A: It doesn't exclude it. At the moment, it doesn't imply it.
When I am going to a meeting, I'm saying I'm from KBrandArt Studios because it is longer. Better than saying just KBrandArt. Then the implication is I'm from a media company or what?
D: The trouble to me is KBrandArt clearer?
N: Adam is right. The name 'KBrandArt Studios' poses problem in people's minds. Something more strategic I'm after. I'm just thinking if it could work against us.
D: The whole future is very much on the people who have. I mean the clients...(not sure of what she is saying...looking at the piece of paper in front of her)
N: Well, future seems to me lies in agency type of consultancy rather than studios. I don't think Studios implies that.
A: Lots of things happened in the Studios. So I don't want to ditch Studios but it might mean that it is mainly around the production. What about is the strategy production and creation underneath? (directing the question to Norman).
N: That's one of the things that I am coming to. We are not going to solve it here and then.
D: I've got to think in my head about how it communicates better (seems confused and worried). (turns to Adam and explains) We should have 'KBrandArt' as the main name, Brands Communications Agency. Everything you produce is brand communications, a website or a video.
A: (replies) Not exclusively. Everything we do is brand oriented.
N: I think it is the issue of whether the name poses obstacles. Yes, everything we do is brand oriented but...(interrupted by Paul):
P: (joins in the conversation- usually quiet and does not talk much at the meetings unless he is spoken to or he feels his intervention is necessary) The question is should the name have to be explicit in that respect...(asking to N)
N: OK! If you take the name issue away for the moment, the thing is how much equity it does have. Are we going to use anything? Can we inject something into it? Does the word 'Studios' pose obstacles to where we want to be seen. (pause)
The next issue is it is all about brand communication.
L: Well. Let's stick to the issue. What is brand? (asking to Norman)
N: (replies) There is a wide interpretation of what a brand is. So, I would describe us as a brand communication agency...
L: (not convinced and asking again) From what you're saying I don't get what your definition of brand is...
D: (seems to be bored with all these conceptual talk as A puts it at times when we have informal talks and D asking Norman) How do you define it then?
L: I don't know...Brand is about everything that touches the consumer...
A: (talking to everybody- looking at Denise)
Your corporate identity in a way. Clients want us to produce campaigns of the highest creative standard to achieve their brand positioning or strengthening...whatever...
N: (replying in a reaffirming way) Yeah but the other thing is to deliver what you suggest. I mean the issue is to melt production side with the strategy side. So, rather than talking about disciplines like video, website, motion graphics or print design we need to also talk about marketing activities: advertising, PR, live events, digital marketing...Talking about those things support the fact that you guys are actually delivering the strategy side. We need to start talking about those

things. Because what people want to see you are competent in this area. Two elements here: first, how we describe ourselves is the main issue...(interrupted by Denise):
D: It is about selling a package that people can relate to.
(Denise reminded that they had this discussion a year ago but at that stage they weren't sure about what they were advertising agency or a brands agency).
N: Why we need to be talking about advertising and direct marketing as well is because we are moving to the brand communications side. We are more than a creative production firm...
L: Are we? (asking to everybody) I am not quite sure.
D: (replying to L) We should be...When N talked about the emphasis on the brands agency, I thought we might lose some of our advertising customers but we need to consider from whom we can get proper projects. Production side will continue...
N: Absolutely...It doesn't deny it at all.
L: Calling it KBrandArt Productions is like a cult that combines...He draws and shows his figure to people around the table:



He explains this by going through the figure.
N: I'd like to go through this positioning process for Productions and Studios as well.
L: Yeah, I'd like to be more involved in the website side as well. I'm working with John, freelance person I'm bringing in.
N: (asking L) Who is he? (D answers)
D: Roger's brother.
N: Oh yes, I came across him. That's great.
D: He is quite experienced.
L: Yeah. He will share some of his ideas.
D: Yes. Why not. If we are happy, we can carry on working with him.
N: The other thing we don't do here is that the research. We need to know what clients or other people think of us. I have got a research guy. I mean a PR guy locally. I could bring him in...
.....
N: As long as you have got somebody and you ask the right questions it is fine. Getting an absolutely crystal understanding of what the client wants and is committed to is the hardest thing. Once you get it, you can work on what stuff to bring in.
A: Well, yes it is about listening to business requirements, asking questions and finding answers. But they (clients) also want the project to be executed on time ...(interrupted by Denise):
D: Fast, efficiently and affordably.
N: Yeah. A creative and sophisticated approach. What I'm up to here is to make sure you guys get comfortable with what the description of the business is. And you are confident in talking about it.
I've also played around with vision and you know what we are trying to achieve here. I don't know what ambitions you set out guys when you set up KBrandArt.

D: (reinforcing the need to answer Norman's question) Yeah. I'm really interested in hearing your personal objectives guys. ..Why did we start KBrandArt? Just the personal reasons I'm interested in (asking L, P and A).
P: I think we originally wanted to do creative work and we thought the best way is to turn what we already started to a business. Less constraint than working for somebody…That was the initial thought. I think!
D (a soft laugh-replying): Less constraint? Hmm…yeah. More stress I would say…
L: (joins in) High ambitions. I think we wanted to become a bigger production agency…We saw KBrandArt and then we saw different scenarios within the KBrandArt world. And plans came quite quickly, didn't they?
D: I think we've gone through a massive learning curve. Learning of what is realistic, doable! Moving from a comfort zone to something wow….
(All laughter)
We've come to a point that the whole thing (she refers to the organisation) has become a family life. Now I feel that it got stagnant. I feel talking to each other is like talking to ourselves and not listening to…So I feel that we have to something about this.
……
(They discussed that they should stay in the corporate market because Denise believes that it is more reliable).
Luke (adds to what Denise is saying): Yeah. It is good to push yourself. Yes, the music industry is not reliable but we liked the certain element of it and produced some good stuff. If we can use the mix of music and visual, that's great.
….
Denise responding to Luke:
D: You have been talking for the last 5 minutes: music market, corporate market, digital and video…it sounds very confusing. It is very confusing to hear it so we have to do something about it to communicate clearly what we are doing here. We have to be clear. I mean clear objective of where we want to go eventually…(asking to everybody)
It is getting the balance right, I think. It's the tough thing! Meanwhile, we have to run the business and…(interrupted by Norman):
N: …bring the money in…
D: Absolutely….
….
L: Production side is critical to me. We need to look at the jobs and map out what we need to carry on doing and improve on.
N: (asking to L) At what level?
L: What do you mean?
N: I mean do we sell ourselves as the production company, as the graphics or video? You've got to be careful about the message. People will think about how you can manage such a diverse range of activities. You have to have a 'credible package'.
(Norman linked this to long term objectives of the business and business planning)
…..
D (responding to N): It is easier for you to talk about all this…Management, long term objectives…But again this family thing! How are we going to outsource the management? Yes, you tell us all these business planning stuff but just the practical side of it? I don't know how we will implement all these…Certainly, we see you as the first step.
N: Yes. There needs to be some sort of business attitude in place. And it is a developmental process. I mean we are talking about stages. What drives a business is brand. What I do here is to help you to communicate your brand and make that relationship with clients stronger. What we are offering is brand communications and what we are trying to do here for ourselves in

KBrandArt is brand strengthening communication. It is about adding value and getting away from business bullshits.
D (responding to N): Certainly we need to get away from that 'cliché' stuff.
N (responding to D): This is a bit more than that. Things that I talk about... Hmmm...The equation is complex...I am sorry for not being very explicit. I can see I've caused some confusion here... What I am trying to say is what we strive to do is to build strong relationship between the client's brands and its target audience. That's just my sort of take on it. It might be wrong, right. So again what matters is what you guys think about it... (talking to everybody).
A: Sorry! I'm beginning to switch off a bit...
D: Norman, maybe repeat what you've just said.
N: Right! Perhaps it is easier to think about it in terms of benefits to clients. Taking Derbyshire as an example. That video engaged in every aspect of branding., knowing the customer....
L (asking to N): So what we want to get across to clients? Engage with them. Everything from a single frame to a whole CDRom or video is about strengthening the relationship with clients.
N (adding to L): the other thing is you should talk about why you are unique.

(N talked about portfolio work, business driven benefits...etc.)
N: I'll stop here. I'm conscious of the time but we should run another session next week. We should have a clear idea of how we talk about ourselves. We will take it from there...
D: Charles is very good at planning the website out and implementing it.
(Norman's mobile phone rang and he apologised and left the room to answer his phone).
....
D: So, the next item on the agenda is website.
(They discussed ideas about the website. How appealing it should be and technical details...)
(N came back to the meeting room)
....
A: Sort of reinforcing the message...
N: Yes but you need to let people know what you are doing.
D: You have to digest it first and then sell it to others...
(A reminded the next item on the agenda. As the meeting lasted longer, A appeared to be rather uncomfortable and impatient).
A: Yes, next: legal issues? (asking to Denise)
D: Yes, shareholders stuff. I'm sorting that out. We may need to meet in my house next week to finalise a couple of things. Sorry Norman! That's a bit of ownership issue and we should discuss it ourselves.
N: Fine! Absolutely...
(D turns to the next item. She usually has an agenda items written on an A4 sheet and gives it to the others at the beginning of the meeting).
(Next item: Funding £ Alert ...This is how it is put on that sheet).
D: We will get 40% of the development fund from Business Development Agency. This is Objective 2 Area stuff...
(She asked their wish list on the equipment because they are getting some money from regional business support agencies- 50% funding on equipment).

(The other item on the agenda: Live jobs: They are talking about client X).
N: What should be our next step?
D: I'm just thinking if we should set ourselves a target, do some research on?
N (answers): Shall we consider a presentation emphasising the local elements?
D: I think that would be better. So any volunteers to work on this? (asking to everybody)
(It was only Norman who raised his hand and they all laughed. At the end, they agreed that N and A will work together. A was rather reluctant though).

(Denise went through other agenda items quickly and asked the team if there were any other key things to go through. 'Priority things' she called).
(She explained how she should sort out particular things).
Next item: INO feedback
Denise said she would provide her feedback on the INO consultancy report/ document. She says:
S: It is extensive and it ticks the right boxes in terms of funding, mapping out the industry but as a document, as a practical document to us, it needs to be more informative she said.
(She didn't ask if anybody else would like to read it and comment on it).
N had left the meeting room just before D moved on to the INO report. He was working in his cubicle and D asked if they were quite positive about Norman who started for a week now.
Responses:
L: Very positive…
P: Early days…
A: No comments…

The meeting ended with a discussion on ongoing projects and related tasks. Denise asked me if I could stay in the room for a while and share my opinions about a marketing campaign pitch that they would prepare in response to the brief that they received from the University of Derby. We had a short conversation and I provided her some information about the University's recent student/staff facilities (e-learning platform etc.) and restructuring of the departments. I answered her questions and accepted her invite to the brainstorming session that was scheduled for the following week.

Researcher's initial thoughts/ideas:
This is one of the most crucial meetings that I attended. It is mainly about refining the business concept, which is an integral part of the entrepreneurial process. It is also a powerful illustration of social construction between a team of nascent entrepreneurs. The way in which they interact with each other and construct meanings/understandings (and agree on actions at times) during an active engagement in the strategic matters of the business is a salient aspect of this meeting. Furthermore, the nascent entrepreneurs reflected on their personal objectives/motivation to set up this venture, collectively. This was very interesting and illuminating.

Initial analysis: Key themes emerging from the observation data:

Page(s)	Salient Points	Themes/Aspects
1	Consistency in how we present ourselves to the market offerings is must. Then creating value strategically and creatively is the key issue in brand positioning. Production arm is very important.	VENTURING PROCESS: REFINING THE BUSINESS CONCEPT/ MARKET PERCEPTION LEARNING PROCESS: DIFFERENT FUNCTIONS OF BUSINESS
2	KBrandArt becomes the solution to the creative consultancy and productions is the technical side of it.	VENTURING PROCESS: INDIVIDUAL/COLLECTIVE DEFINITION OF THE BUSINESS
2	The whole future is very much on the people who have. I mean the clients… Well, future seems to me lies in agency type of consultancy rather than studios. I don't think Studios implies that.	VENTURING PROCESS: TRANSITIVE PROCESS/ ENACTING A FUTURE

3	L: Well. Let's stick to the issue. What is brand? N:...There is a wide interpretation of what a brand is. So, I would describe us as a brand communication agency... L: From what you're saying I don't get what your definition of brand is... D: How do you define it then? L: I don't know...Brand is about everything that touches the consumer... A: Your corporate identity in a way.	<u>VENTURING PROCESS</u>: SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF MEANINGS <u>LEARNING PROCESS</u>: NEGOTIATING MEANINGS EQUIVOCAL INTERACTIONS
3	N:As long as you have got somebody and you ask the right questions it is fine. Getting an absolutely crystal understanding of what the client wants and is committed to is the hardest thing. Once you get it, you can work on what stuff to bring in. A: Well, yes it is about listening to business requirements, asking questions and finding answers. But they (clients) also want the project to be executed on time ... D: Fast, efficiently and affordably. N: Yeah. A creative and sophisticated approach. What I'm up to here is to make sure you guys get comfortable with what the description of the business is. And you are confident in talking about it.	<u>VENTURING PROCESS:</u> DYNAMICS OF CREATIVE INDUSTRIES CUSTOMIZED APPROACH <u>LEARNING PROCESS:</u> LEGITIMISING THE BUSINESS DEVELOPING CONFIDENCE AGENTIC CAPACITY
3-4	N: I've also played around with vision and you know what we are trying to achieve here. I don't know what ambitions you set out guys when you set up KBrandArt? D: Yeah... I'm really interested in hearing your personal objectives guys. ..Why did we start KBrandArt? Just the personal reasons I'm interested in. P: I think we originally wanted to do creative work and we thought the best way is to turn what we already started to a business. Less constrained than working for somebody...That was the initial thought. I think! D: Less constraint? Hmm...yeah. More stress I would say... L: (joins in) High ambitions. I think we wanted to become a bigger production agency...We saw KBrandArt and then we saw different scenarios within the KBrandArt world. And plans came quite quickly, didn't they?	<u>VENTURING PROCESS</u>: ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION OBJECTIVES DISPOSITIONS AUTONOMY/INDEPENDENCE <u>VENTURING PROCESS</u>: IDENTIFYING THE OPPORTUNITY PLANS/GARNERING RESOURCES
4	D: I think we've gone through a massive learning curve. Learning of what is realistic, doable! Moving from a comfort zone to something wow!.... We've come to a point that the whole thing (she refers to the organisation) has become a family life. Now I feel that it got stagnant. I feel talking to each other is like talking to ourselves and not listening to...So I feel that we have to something about this.	<u>LEARNING PROCESS</u>: SETTING REALISTIC GOALS FACING CHALLENGES MANAGING RELATIONSHIPS RESOLVING ISSUES/ PROBLEMS

APPENDIX VI
EXAMPLE TO AN INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interview with Rosie (Nascent entrepreneur of the venture, R-Games)

- <u>Business venturing process:</u>
  Personal goals/objectives
  Personal motivation
  Entrepreneurial activities engaged in
  Support/Advice
  Problems/challenges
  Entrepreneurial decisions
  Being an entrepreneur: What is about?
  Networking/relationships
  Future of the business/entrepreneur: Any image?

- <u>Entrepreneurial learning:</u>
  Reflections on the start-up process
  Failures/successes
  Lessons taken
  Social learning
  Educational background/training
  Impact on future actions
  Critical incidents

- <u>Context</u>
  Support mechanisms
  Obstacles

  Incubator environment
  Characteristics of the industry/market

APPENDIX VII
INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

R-Games Interview with Rosie
25 August 2004, 11:00-12:30
Her office in the local University's incubation centre

Mine: Can you please talk through your background leading to starting this venture?
Rosie: I went to college again to do my A levels after a break. After a couple of years, them my brother and my partner set up a business together and it seemed like a really good idea to work with them. They thought that with my experience in the jobs I had done in the time away from the college, I could help them to move the business forward. So I left the college again to work for them.
Mine: What sort of a business was it?
Rosie: It was advertising, an advertising company. At the time, it seemed like a very good idea but then after six months they fell out in a big way. I was left with no jobs or qualifications when my brother and my partner fell out and decided to end the business. I then worked as a taxi-driver for so many years just for living but it was very frustrating because I am intelligent and I have got a brain. I cannot hold a job that doesn't give the stimulation that I need to keep going. Then I had a second daughter. And for a long time I felt like all I was doing just being a full-time mother. I couldn't live like that any longer and that's how I took the courage to take a step to come back to education and do a degree...And I was lucky that I kept all my of my work done at the college. I had worked very hard and got straight As but I hadn't done the exams. But I kept the work and sent all of it with my UCAS form.
Mine: How old were you at the time?
Rosie: For university?
Mine: Yes.
Rosie: I was 25. So I sent everything off and got an unconditional offer, which was brilliant and I was very happy about that. What I had done with my taxi-driving was I did come up with the idea for this board game. I envisaged a Portsmouth board and the taxi firm that I worked for as the playing instrument and I thought the tourist attractions in Portsmouth would be the destinations on the board. I did a bit of research and I contacted some game companies but I always got the doors closed on me. They all sign-posted me to agents and at the moment you get to agent, they want to see a finished production line or sample. So you just can't go with an idea! They want to see the finished thing. So a lot of hurdles. My youngest daughter...She was still very young. So it is a full time job looking after a child. So in the end I left it for a while until I came to the University.
When I enrolled with my Law degree, in my first semester, I saw the advert for 'Enterprise Challenge 2003' and 15,000 pounds prize for. I didn't think they would accept an idea for a game and I almost did not enter. HD, who organized the challenge, really encouraged me and finally persuaded me to enter. On the day of the deadline I bumped into her in the Union and at that point Louise, my daughter, had been really ill and I hadn't completed the application forms. However, she gave me some additional time...Stage 1 of the Enterprise Challenge is an entry form. It is an excellent way of doing it because what the forms asks you: what to put like an introduction? What is your idea? Who are your competitors? Who are your customers? How would you market or advertise it? Where do you see yourself/your business in five years time? That was the first time that I ever had actually sat down and written something about my game. I wrote my goal down and it really got me thinking and I won the first prize. I won a £ 1,000!

So I used the £1,000 to pay a patent lawyer for my patent application to secure my intellectual property rights and to have a local guy do me a prototype. In the next few months, I worked from the game play...It took me a few months to get the game concept right and also to write my business plan for the Enterprise Challenge, stage two. Stage two of the competition is where your business plan and a prototype are presented. I won £ 2,000 at stage two and I used that money to set up my game company, R-Games, to pay the legal costs and get in the incubation unit, get technical service, get my business card printed etc. ...all sorts of stuff that I needed to set up my limited company. It costs money. So I used money for these.

Mine: Were you getting any kind of advice? For example you said you made the patent application? Did you know about IPR?

Rosie: I didn't. And actually I am not quite sure that I was actually correctly advised on that because I now know that there is no point for me to put in a two-year patent application unless it is for patenting a product that has got a completely new innovative concept, if you like. So a board is not a new concept; plastic pieces are not a new concept. The example I usually give is that some games have got a plastic dome in the middle of the board with a bit of aluminium and a dice on side. You flick it and it flicks the dice. Those three components together have created an invention, a new way of throwing a dice. So that is patentable but my product isn't. So really the money that I paid on that was wasted and I am not going to use the patent. What is worth that I had done: I registered the trademark and the design (She shows the documents)...and the copyright was granted. So those three ways were to protect my game. This year I won the Enterprise Challenge again as my R-Games company. It wasn't just for the product. It was for company and all the different versions that I can do. All the research and development that I had done. So it was for everything. It wasn't just one product. All the sub-contracts that I can do. Other different products that R-Games can do. I was very pleased to win that money. I am going to sponsor the Enterprise Challenge next year. I am not going to enter it.

Mine: That's great. Wonderful idea!

Rosie: Yes, it will be nice. It means that my logo will be on the board as the sponsor. And it is giving something back that you feel you owe to.

Mine: Yes, exactly.

Rosie: You asked me if I did get some help/advice from anybody. I do have two mentors in the incubation centre, XYZ Inc. They are both fantastic. The staff at the XYZ Inc always helped me. Even the head of department helped me do my own cash flow. Ralph was my formal mentor. Heather was always there for me anyway. Juliet was one of my mentors. In research and development, Mick is always there when I need him. He helped me a lot. The University have been brilliant. I got enormous support from my two mentors in the incubation centre and from the University in general...It was proven that I had the idea for the game years ago when I was working as the taxi-driver. I tried to look into ways to get my product into the market. I kept coming up against brick-walls because I was on my own. Since I came to the University, every door has been opened. Coming to the University, taking steps to do what I do now is the best thing that I've ever done...It sounds a bit...(pause) but it is true. When you are 18, you take it for granted, the University education. When you have got children, you have got to sacrifice your job and everything to take steps to come back to education. And then you haven't done it for a while. Quite daunting (pause).

Mine: You mentioned that you won another £2,000 and moved into the incubation centre. Departing from that point onwards, can you talk through your venturing process in greater detail? Obviously, you have got mentors, all this sort of support. You are studying Law and getting enterprise training as well.

(We were interrupted by a telephone call. She answered the phone and talked to a distributor for 2 minutes. I was reading the University's student magazine, in which she was featured).

Rosie: Sorry about this.

Mine: That's Ok. I was just saying that you embarked on this venture idea. I was reading this magazine...you took a year out of your degree. I am very much interested in how you made all these decisions at different stages of venturing, manufacturing, technology side etc.

Rosie: All the decisions that I have made. It all happened. Nothing was actually planned strictly from the beginning. When I came to last summer, when I won the Stage 2, I took some holidays. And then in October last year, when I was still taxi-driving, I met this guy. We got talking. To cut a long story short, he was very impressed of what I was doing. He offered me to see a business angel that would give me the money to start-up. I thought he was serious because he gave me a small amount of money to help towards getting things started. When he came to my office for the contract, he started changing his attitude and delaying me. This went right through till February of this year. At that time I was going to be using a company called ABC for the manufacturing of the game. It was going to cost about £35,000 to get the first production of 2,500 units, including shipping everything. Cash money, they asked for. Originally this chap was going to be loaning me, if you like, £ 35,000 but when it came to the last stage, contract stage; he wouldn't give me the contract. And then eventually late January, he said to me: 'OK. We are going to London to see my lawyer'. And of course he didn't take me to his lawyer. He took me to see a show. So, without going to too much detail, he was all lying. A bit of something that happens in life happens in business, too. It is now something that I am very aware of. I am now very careful. But he was hoping to get more than what the venture was: a board game. It was wrong. I walked away from it. I thought that I am not going to pursue this any further. I'd rather not have the money and I am back to square one. However, in time that he kept me waiting, through networking I got the contacts for the factory in India. This was through the guy who did the illustrations for me. This is to illustrate how effective networking is...This factory in India is jointly owned by X and Y and it is the highest quality but ultimately the lowest price...With the cost of production coming down, I no longer needed that £35,000. In actual fact, all I needed per edition would be £6,000 plus the VAT. So you are looking for £12,000. Obviously it is just for the production and promotion or advertising is not included. At least I knew that I could get my product manufactured. To get me to the stage that where I have got to finish the production of samples, to give them to distributors, who were trying to get orders. So I then had to decide: Having failed with the earlier sponsorship attempts I was back to square one. How can I raise the money to do it? This was the main question! So, I went to the bank and I wanted to get a loan. It was declined because I am a student and I don't have a regular income. I do but because I am a student so you can't just borrow money. I don't own my home at the moment, because I am still a student, so that I can use it as a security. I then tried to go through my bank for this small firms loan-guarantee scheme. But they said that because at that moment I didn't have any confirmed orders, even though it is a fantastic idea in their eyes, it was still speculative. They wanted enough purchase orders to cover the entire production of the game. But in order to get the purchase orders I need to finish production of samples. To get the samples, I need the funding. I need...It was just complete cash! That was what they were saying at the time. I need the money, how can I raise it? I had a chat with some guys here (she refers to the incubation centre) for sponsorship. I knew that I wouldn't get too far with London edition. People to go for a London edition...because big London companies, they advertise on national television. So for them to pay money on board game that is only having a couple of hours and printed to begin with isn't worth. However, it has never ever been a Portsmouth board game and at that point I had already decided that I want to do the London edition first because I could get Hamleys order it and then I have got a good grounding for further editions. I want to do the Portsmouth edition but why wait for next year to do it? Why not do the Portsmouth edition at the same time with London and raise enough money for sponsorship Portsmouth. Because it was covered by the local press that I had been to the University; I had won this competition and I had organised a launch at Hamleys. So I could now go to people in Portsmouth who know about what I was doing; they had seen it in the local paper. I went to WL first. WL actually had sponsored the Enterprise Challenge.

They knew about me, about the competition and the money that I had won. I went to see the CEO of WL and said 'Look, I am doing a Portsmouth edition. Here is the outline that I have done so far for the London one. Would you sponsor it?'. And when he asked 'how much do you want?', I didn't say I just wanted £500 because that's what I was going to ask for initially. I said 'actually I am asking for an offer for sponsorship. I am not greedy and I don't what to put you under pressure'. He asked' can you give me a clearer idea because I need to know roughly how much do you want?' I said 'I know how many companies I want on the box so if you go on the box I am hoping to get between one and two thousand pounds for each person'. And then he went on his note: £2, 000. I said 'would you mind if I had a letter from you to confirm that?'. He agreed and gave a me a letter with £2,000. WL, Wow! I took the letter with me to AL Cars, who is the cab company that I worked for. I said 'Look, I am doing a Portsmouth board game and I worked for you. On the box, I would like to have 'AL Cars' on the front of a taxi. And they loved it. So the office manager took me down to see the MD of Southsea. I walked through the door and he said 'hey, I saw you in the paper. Fantastic idea!' (Laughter)…So they gave me a thousand pounds, they gave me a letter (pause)…
From that point onwards I didn't ever get £2,000. I only got £1,000 because people look at the lowest amount. I am glad that I hadn't stated that I wanted £500 from the first sponsor. I am just glad that I asked for an offer. They provided £2,000 and the lowest I got was £1,000. From that point onwards the minimum I got was £1,000. I then got the sponsorship from Marriott Hotel, Cascade Shopping Centre, Portsmouth Football Club, the news, the local radio and lots of others. I have established strong relationships and raised enough money from the Portsmouth edition to cover both London and Portsmouth. So that's all for sponsorship.
The London edition has gone off to India now. And the Portsmouth edition has just been completed and I need to finalise a couple of things for that. The plan is that the London one is going to be launched in the week beginning the 25th of October. That's Hamleys in London, half-term week. I should be really busy and I will get lots of press coverage and everything. And then mid-November I am expecting to launch the Portsmouth edition, probably in C Shopping Centre. And then I can actually sell it myself, make £15 profit on each unit as well as I can have them in a retail store. And I do believe that the Portsmouth one will sell well over Christmas because there has never been a Portsmouth board game ever. It is a very original thing. So it is going to be colourful, it is going to be great! So lots of things happened since then. I have been short-listed for a BBC programme called Dragon's Den, which has to do with investment and then I have got a contract…and actually this is another good example of networking because the Enterprise awards I was presented with my award by a chap called XY and then at his keynote speech he said: 'in business it is always very important to get to the top. Don't ignore the bottom but get to the top'. Now he set up the Virgin Empire with Richard Branson and bear in mind that he said in business you need to get to the to; so I then went up him afterwards and I said 'look, here is my business card. You said get to the top. I want a direct contact with Richard Branson'. After a couple of months, last week I received an e-mail from him saying that 'Richard Branson will be happy to see me in due working days'. And then I got a phone call next day saying that he actually changed his mind and he wanted me to take part in his TV show instead, which is being shot in America. What I have to do is a pitch to compete with other contestants. I have got nothing to lose but it is just great way in! If I hadn't asked XY, if I hadn't said 'look, here is my business card; you said how to do it and practically I am asking to do it. It worked. It is very exciting! I will let you know what happens with that.
Mine: Oh, please do so.
Rosie: If my pitch that I do is included in the show and it goes on TV in the USA, for me as a business person, my business profile would go up a little bit. I mean, because I was selected by him to do it.
Mine: Great way of raising business profile.
Rosie: It is, isn't it?
Mine: And you never know what is going to happen?

Rosie: True. You don't know...Every (she stops)... "...To get to where I have got to now, everything to me has been a networking exercise...Even with the computer game version: Again Nick P put me in contact with the person who does computer games for Virgin. The Pro-Vice Chancellor of the University got in contact with the Department of Creative Technology and they cherry-picked up a master student to develop a prototype for me for the computer game version. He is going to develop it as a part of his final project, which means he will work hard on it. And then I will have a pretty working prototype to show Richard Branson and offer this: Every Virgin flight that comes to the UK, they all have little computer screens on the back of the seats. I believe that they have actually something called 'Destination' on that. It fits perfectly because my game is called 'Destinations-London'. So it is a matter of how I can sell my game as a computer game to a company like Virgin!"
I would like to license it to them so that I can get into their internal system. If I can manage it, then it will be 'Yes, I have done it! I did it! I did what I set out to achieve!' Everything has been real! (She stops and continues with an example).
I should mention the Industry Days in the schools where I did a workshop and gave a keynote speech to the kids at year 11, all 14 and 15 years old. At the workshop they developed their own board game incorporating how to produce ideas to do things. I got them to get their head around as to how to set up their own game company and make them think things like sponsorship, market positioning, and think about trademark issues and copyrights and getting them to think about how to further develop original ideas for a game business. And I truly enjoyed it; but for me, obviously I wasn't paid for it...How I see it: a keynote speech in front of 200 kids, that's direct marketing. It is another 200 kids that might go and buy it. So I don't mind doing it. It is also a good practice to present in front of 200 people. That's something I really didn't like doing initially...(pause)
Mine: You certainly got me and got your husband to your circle by your game...(laughter)
...
Rosie: Originally I was promoting this as a family fun game. That could be distributed in mainstream stores nationwide but has the extended market of tourism because it features all the attractions in London and Portsmouth. Through my mentors' advice and help what I have been really realizing is actually my niche market: My niche market is the 'award-winning souvenir game'...There are lots of board games but there isn't another award-winning souvenir game. It is award winning because I won the award for the Challenge...So the 'award-winning souvenir game' can be adapted to any capital city of any country and be sold as souvenir but also has an extended market of being sold as a family fun game distributed in the mainstream stores.
Through refinement of the business concept my answer to potential investors' question of 'how are you going to compete with all these other games?' is that I am not competing with all these games. My niche market is the souvenir. I am targeting the tourists who want to buy souvenirs and it is a perfect souvenir but I can also sell it as a family fun game. Because 70-80% of games are sold every Christmas, family fun game is seasonal but souvenir game can be sold throughout the year because people travel the world. They get souvenirs from the airports or Regent Street because it is an attraction itself-Hamleys. I could do a New York edition, Rome, Paris, San Francisco, Sydney, anywhere in the world. I may possibly license-out the other editions. I have got to do some more research as how to sort-out trademark issues, so that I can make sure the copyrights. At the moment I don't really know if there is any other board games out there called Destinations. It is very hard to find out. You can look it up in the search engines in the computer. I have got to find out and be sure. I know that there isn't any in the UK and my UK-registered trademark is pretty safe but I want to make sure that I can register in another company.
...

In terms of the future funding, I have got my options open for me. I have got investors interested in my business but my theory is 'is it worth giving up 40% of my company?' At the moment I don't want to lose control of my business...

(We are interrupted by Ralph's –her mentor- visit to Rosie's office. Rosie introduced me to him. I had met him before at the SEEDA event that I met Rosie. When Rosie told him about my research, he stated the following: 'If you asked me what her unique qualities are, I would say her dedication, hard work and self-belief in her capabilities. She learnt over this period of start-up that 'mistakes are acceptable' and we learn better by failing at times. 'Success breeds success' has been her motto throughout and her passionate and ambitious nature has brought about her relentless pursuit of the business idea and looking backward and forward when acting upon circumstances.' This was a very illuminating statement about Rosie).

(Then he asked her a few questions about some specific venturing activities. They had a discussion for about 5 minutes and then he left after a 15 minutes conversation in total).

Rosie: Sorry for this.

Mine: Not at all. That was great. It was a very interesting conversation, very relevant. I was just thinking about this fear of losing control of your business and obviously opportunity costs attached to it?

Rosie: This is all related to my personality. By nature I am quite bubbly. I have got to try to be a professional businesswoman. I try to stand back and look at things calmly. Although I might think something is a good idea at a time, I need to think carefully about things. Even this Virgin thing. You know, I could get very excited about that and I might end up being stood up if I am not careful because Richard Branson hasn't become a billionaire by being a nice businessman. He is known for being a very harsh businessman in order to get here. I respect to him but I have got to make sure that I am protected as well. Taking a part in a TV show, I have got the opportunity to do my pitch for my computer game version to try to get it on the Airlines but I could end up, if I am not careful, taking the idea way from me anyway. How can I compete with such businessmen?

On the investment side, it is a double-edged sword: Take investment, you have got money, then working capital, pay for things that need to be paid; and you get extra things by gaining contracts-sometimes better. But the downside of that is that if they insist on 40% of your business, which is what a lot of venture capitalists coming up with as I learn from my mentors and other entrepreneurs in the incubation centre, what happens? I don't actually give anybody even 5% of my company. If they insist on 40% or for more, I have to give it for investment capital. If I give another 20% away for more investment, I end up with only 40% myself; and I lose control completely. Two of them take over the business and I have got not company left. I have got to be very careful. I just want to keep everything minimal. In an ideal world, I would like to be able to just get a loan that I need to do the promotion stuff and retain 100% but then I wouldn't have the extra contacts.

Owning your own business, it is all very complex, emergent. I am a law student, studying law. Compared to my law education, being in a business is completely different.

Mine: Probably even more complicated than what we teach in the business schools?

Rosie: You have got so many dimensions to think about: intellectual property, then product development, the marketing, distribution, advertising and competition. In between, you have to get the contracts in, PR and media to sort out, funding, which is a big problem, manufacturing, and trying to establish the company to start actually making money. There is so much thing to do. Even getting the duty and UK handling, I didn't have a clue but need to be sorted out. And getting different quotes from people, it is all administration. I was going to defer my law degree for another year but I decided that I will restart in September. Instead of doing Law LBE with Business, I will be doing BA Combined Studies Law and Business Enterprise. It is work-based learning. I will get accreditation for what I have done last year and this final year I will get credits for continuing to work in my company. I will do a couple of law and management units. It is brilliant because I don't have to delay my degree for another year and my company will have grown without losing my interest in my degree. I came here to get my degree. That's a commitment I made. Doing a law degree was an ambition of mine because I'd always taken interest in the projects and I did this bit with the

business. Law and Business degree, it is quite a high class, isn't it? If you do law and business degree, people think if you can do it, you are quite intelligent. I will graduate as I envisaged. Next summer I will be able to get on a stage and get my diploma and say: 'Yes, I have done it! I have got my degree!'....(some irrelevant talk)
Mine: Are you employing somebody at the moment?
Rosie: Not at the moment but I want to and will do soon. I want to employ my brother because he is good at what he does. He has got lots of skills in lots of different areas. So he will be an asset to the company. And then as the company grows, I will employ more people. I am looking forward to having staff because it means that I am not on my own any more. It feels so lonely at times. There isn't so much you can do on your own. Most of the start-up companies become successful because of the staff they employ. ..(pause)
Mine: Can you reflect on the learning process while carrying out all these activities?
Rosie: Starting a venture takes a lot of courage, lengthy hours of work...If you have got enthusiasm, the drive and determination to make something happen, then it will happen. Something I have learned to accept that failure is a lesson to get for future success...I made the contacts, used all of them to generate further resources. I got the sponsorship. I found the perfect illustrator. I made the most optimum manufacturing deal...etc. This is all success. Every little thing, every hurdle you get over is a success itself. You can go to Hamleys and think that 'oh, I am not successful yet because I haven't conquered the world..' (pause).
Mine: There is no limit to that.
Rosie: Yeah, exactly (pause).
Mine: As you suggested you are very talented in turnings things around and dealing with challenging situations?
Rosie: I think so. I don't like routine. When I used to work for the advertising company before I went back to college, I hated it. Some people are very happy doing that. They like the routine.....and they have got their payslips at the end of the week or month and they are secure....
When I was doing that I felt trapped. I didn't like it. I didn't like being bossed around by someone who is earning only 50% more than me. When I did taxi-driving, I didn't actually mind taxi-driving because I was my own boss. I took my car out if the garage whatever time I want. I log on to the computer, I deal with the jobs coming in. I have a break when I want to. I log off at the end of my shift, take the car back. If I have a problem, I don't need to contact anybody; I don't ask anyone. You are self-employed as a taxi-driver. Then I didn't have to take order from anybody and I didn't mind doing it. I was self-employed. Obviously, it wasn't entrepreneurial but you know I could handle doing that. But I like meeting people, I didn't mind doing that. But I don't think that I can go back to a job where I have to take instructions/orders from somebody else. I don't know but you have to have willpower and the guts as well. You sacrifice a lot when you are doing something like this. I have been working days and nights. I haven't paid myself a penny yet because I haven't made money yet but I put all my time and effort by believing that I will get the rewards at the end of it.
That's another reason I'm reluctant on the investment side. I don't like the idea of someone else taking 40% of the company that I worked so hard to get off the ground.
I have got some people here (in the incubator) just saying 'you should do it; get investment; in five years time you just sell the company and make money'. I have worked so hard for this and not yet seen the outcomes. In five years time I might be bored with it and just exit the business. But in order to get there, I should have full control of the development. ..
...
I have a good product. You should believe in your product. I am sure that Portsmouth edition will go down very well as well, which will help short-term cash flow. That's another reason why I thought I should go ahead with it (pause).
Mine: When you talked through your experience of taxi-driving, you said it was good because you were self-employed, mentioning 'control of your own time, independence etc'. But then you mentioned that it wasn't very entrepreneurial. Why? What is your understanding of being entrepreneurial?

Rosie: With taxi-driving, there is no..(she stops). When I do all my enterprise talks, the last thing I always say that enterprise is all about recognising opportunity and then acting upon opportunity and taking it forward! With taxi-driving there is not really any opportunity in terms of 'big ideas' and 'making big money' or 'big products meeting the market', you are very limited...Taxi-driving is boring after a while. It is not challenging. It did pay for my university fee. I don't do it much now; I am fully focused on my venture.
Mine: What do you regard as your ultimate goal in business?
Rosie: My ultimate goal is to have my brand 'Destination' recognised as an award-winning souvenir game. When people go on holiday, they will look out for it to bring back with them. R-Games, I would like it established and well-recognised as a game company and I have got lots of plans, if you like. There is lots of products that I can do but on a personal level, I want to make lots of money, own my house, have a good car that I don't have to think about financing. As a student last couple of years have been a lot of struggle. I am very honest about it. I struggle sometimes financially. I worry about things. When I worry about things, I lose my appetite and I can't eat. So you know with success, my health will also improve. ...
Again, I am being very honest and open about all these worries, because again people who start up businesses, entrepreneurs, do all go through all these emotions. They are going to worry about money; they are going to worry about all sorts of stuff because it is not always clear-cut....You have got that accountability, responsibility on your shoulders. There is a lot to think about and take on board if it is your own business.
Mine: Rosie, if you could picture your goal, what kind of an image would that be?
Rosie: Business or personal?
Mine: Business...and personal in fact...
Rosie: A picture of somebody (she stops)...somebody very successful on a personal level. To have the same business profile like Richard Branson or someone who had started with nothing and gone that far. I want my game, products to be distributed globally.
Mine: I am conscious of the time, Rosie. You have talked through your start-up experience openly and mentioned successes as well as hurdles. Can you think of any critical incidents (the concept had been explained to her at the outset of the interview when I went through the interview guide) or significant occurrences during the process?
Rosie: Any critical incidents? Obviously, winning the enterprise challenge was very important. An important turning point. It was phenomenal because it opened the door to make my dream true. After that, of course, moving into the incubator was critical along the way. I met lots of people; exchanged ideas, contacts. Mentoring scheme has been very useful. And what else? (pause) I suppose also winning the first sponsorship money is another example to a critical incident because, again, I was able to use the first confirmation letter to generate further funding. It is all about how to take it another step forward really....(she stops)
Mine: Rosie, thank you very much. This has been an immensely useful and interesting interview.

APPENDIX VIII
LIST OF CODES

Theme	Sub-theme	Code
Business venturing process (BVP)	Personal biography (PB)	BVP-PB
	Entrepreneurial motivation (EM)	BVP-EM
	Dispositions (D)	BVP-D
	Forms of 'Capitals' drawn on/created (C)	BVP-C
	Transformation between capitals (TC)	BVP-TC
	Business opportunity (BO)	BVP-BO
	Start-up activities (SA)	BVP-SA
	Decision making (DM)	BVP-DM
	Managing relationships (MR)	BVP-MR
	Managing different functions of the business (MDF)	BVP-MDF
	Forming strategic alliances	BVP-FSA
	Obtaining support/advice (OSA)	BVP-OSA
	Problems and challenges (PC)	BVP-PC
	Creativity dimension (CD)	BVP-CD
	Future goals/direction (FGD)	BVP-FGD
Entrepreneurial learning (EL)	Social learning (SL)	EL-SL
	Critical incidents (CL)	EL-CL
	Constructing entrepreneurial identity (CEL)	EL-CEL
	Learning by experience (LE)	EL-LE
	Generative exchange (GE)	EL-GE
	Developing agentic and performative capacity (AC)	EL-APC
	Practical theory/what works (PT)	EL-PT
	Sense-making (SM)	EL-SM
	Negotiation of meanings (NM)	EL-NM
	Legitimising the business (LB)	EL-LB
	Contextual learning (CxL)	EL-CxL
	Changing equivocal interactions to non-equivocal ones (CEIN)	EL-CEIN
	Educational background/training (EBT)	EL-EBT
Context (C)	Enterprise/Business support programs (EBP)	C-EBP
	University incubators (UI)	C-UI
	Dynamics of 'Creative Industries' (CI)	C-CI
	Entrepreneurship/Enterprise courses (EEC)	C-EEC
	Socio-economic and political dimensions (SEP)	C-SEP

APPENDIX IX
INTERVIEW DATA SUMMARY SHEET

Case: R-Games

Research participant: Rosie
(Her mentor, Ralph, visited her during the interview and contributed to the discussion).

Interview date/venue: 25 August 2004; R-Games offices, local University's incubator centre.

Interview agenda: Interview guide (see Appendix VI) used, outlining the key topics in relation to research questions (and implicitly levels of analysis-micro-meso-macro). The interview guide was explained to the participant at the outset of the interview.

Interview transcript: Produced on 31 August 2004 (see Appendix VII for the full transcript of this interview)

Brief summary of salient themes:

Her personal biography: Educational background/ current status: Law & Business
Mother of two children
30 years old
Previous work experience at her brother's advertising firm
Taxi-driver

Venturing process: Entrepreneurial motivation/disposition towards wealth creation
(personal wealth/recognition/autonomy/being her own boss)
Developing the business opportunity
Refining the business concept towards souvenir game
Start-up activities (legal and technical aspects)
Setting up the venture in the local university's incubator
Dealing with different functions of the business
(starting a business: multi-dimensional process)
Importance of funding
Networking: Using contacts (weak ties mainly)
Organising activities on various levels (strategic/tactical and daily)
Future: a successful, rich business woman/ a global business

Entrepreneurial Learning: Gaining self-confidence
Self-determination/Entrepreneurial commitment
Learning from failures/experience
Defining success
Critical incidents: Winning the EC competition,
Moving into the incubator
Winning the first sponsorship money
Managing relationships: social capital
Raising entrepreneurial awareness throughout the process

APPENDIX X

LIST OF RESEARCH PROJECTS CARRIED OUT DURING THE WRITING-UP PERIOD OF THE DOCTORAL STUDY

Funded research projects

1) Research project on women academics' involvement in enterprise activities
   Funding body: Institute of Physics
   Grant holder: Prof Elizabeth Chell
   Principal co-ordinator: Mine Karatas-Ozkan

   *Report delivered to the Institute of Physics in July 2005:
   Chell, E., Karatas-Ozkan, M., Read, R. and Wilson, L. (2005) 'Women's involvement in technology transfer activities from physics and engineering departments within the UK universities', Institute of Physics, London.

   * Journal paper:
   Chell, E., Karatas-Ozkan, M. and Read, R. (submitted, 2006) 'Gender and science entrepreneurship: Women academics' involvement in technology transfer activities in the UK universities', submitted to a special issue of the British Journal of Management in March 2006, awaiting decision.

   *Conference paper:
   Chell, E., Karatas-Ozkan, M. and Read, R. (2006) 'Gender and Technology Transfer' accepted for presentation at the High Technology Entrepreneurship Track of the 26th International Congress of Applied Psychology, July 16-21, 2006, Athens, Greece.

2) Research project on female and male participation in high level economic and employment activities in the areas of innovation, invention, R & D and the commercialisation of intellectual property rights within the science, engineering and technology (SET) sectors.
   Grant holder and principal investigator: Mine Karatas-Ozkan
   Funding body: Small Enterprise Research Unit (SERU), University of New Castle (Joint funding by ESF and ESRC)

   *Report delivered to the SERU in June 2006:
   Karatas-Ozkan, M. (2006) 'An analysis of University of Southampton's SET employee profile and pertinent policies and programmes', Unpublished report, University of Southampton, Southampton.

3) SetSquared Partnership (SSP) research on models of collaboration in enterprise activities.
Grant holder: Prof Elizabeth Chell
Principal co-ordinator: Dr Katerina Nicolopoulou
Researcher: Mine Karatas-Ozkan

*Conference paper:
Chell, E., Cox, J., Nicolopoulou, K. and Karatas-Ozkan, M. (2006) 'Models of collaboration in enterprise activities: a critical evaluation', Accepted to the Entrepreneurship and Innovation Track of the British Academy of Management Conference (BAM) 2006, Belfast.

Collaborative research projects

1) Multi-cultural research project on career choices of MBA students from entrepreneurial career versus employment perspective:
This is an international research project undertaken in collaboration with colleagues from Israel, USA, Hungary, Turkey, Spain, China, Cyprus, Greece and other UK universities.
I collected the first wave of data with our full time MBA cohort in October 2005; the second wave of data will be collected in June 2006.

* Book chapter:
Dexter, B., Inal, G., Karatas-Ozkan, M. and Tanova, C. (accepted for publication in 2007) 'Career choices and values of MBA students: A comparative study of the students in the UK and North Cyprus', in M. Ozbilgin and A. Malach-Pines (eds.) Career Choice in Management and Entrepreneurship: A Research Companion (Edward Elgar Publishers).

* Journal paper:
Inal, G., Karatas-Ozkan, Tanova, C. and Dexter, B. (submitted in 2006) 'Towards a comparative approach to understanding career choices and values of MBA students in the UK and North Cyprus' , an abstract submitted as a part of the special issue submission to the journal, The Counselling Psychologist (ISI ranked journal), by Prof Ayala Palach-Mines in February 2006.

*Conference paper:
Ozbilgin, M., Kusku, F. and Karatas-Ozkan, M. (2006) 'A relational approach to understanding career choices and values of MBA students', accepted for the presentation at the Career Studies Track of the the 26th International Congress of Applied Psychology, July 16-21, 2006, Athens, Greece.

2) Research activities in the area of social entrepreneurship

Publications:

*Journal paper:

Chell, E., Karatas-Ozkan, M. and Nicolopoulou, K. (submitted in 2006) 'Towards a model for social entrepreneurship education: policy drivers, core themes and competencies', Submitted to Personnel Review in January 2006- awaiting decision.

*Conference papers:

Nicolopoulou, K. and Karatas-Ozkan, M. (2006) 'Towards a relational approach to social entrepreneurship', accepted for presentation at the Relational Approaches to Organization Studies Track of the European Academy of Management Conference, Oslo, 17-20 May 2006. *Nominated for the Best Paper Award.

Karatas-Ozkan, M., Nicolopoulou, K. and Kerrigan, F. (2006) 'The role of the arts in the social enterprise: One style social marketing for all?', accepted for presentation at the Creative Industries Track of the British Academy of Management Conference (BAM) 2006, Belfast. *To be developed to a journal paper in September 2006.

Chell, E., Karatas-Ozkan, M. and Nicolopoulou, K. (2005) 'Towards a Greater Awareness and Understanding of Social Enterprise and Entrepreneurship: a Research Agenda', Paper presented at the British Academy of Management (BAM) 2005 Annual Conference, Entrepreneurship and Innovation Track, Said Business School, University of Oxford, 13-15 September, Oxford.

*Working paper:

Chell, E., Karatas-Ozkan, M., Nicolopoulou, K (2006) Social Entrepreneurship Education models, National Council for Graduate Entrepreneurship, online publication, series editor Pittaway, L.

*Special issue proposal:

Following on the workshop on Social Enterprise and Entrepreneurship that was organised and held in March 2006, a special issue proposal on social entrepreneurship was submitted to the journal entitled Entrepreneurship and Regional Development. I am a co-editor with Prof Chell and Dr Nicolopoulou.

3) Research activities in the area of gender and family business

Publication:
* Conference paper:
Gokdogan, A., Karatas-Ozkan, M. and Nicolopoulou, K. (2006) 'Women in Turkish family businesses: Drivers, contributions and challenges', Submitted to the Entrepreneurship and Innovation Track of the British Academy of Management Conference (BAM) 2006, Belfast.

4) Research activities in the area of gender and human resource management profession

Publication:
* Journal paper:
Karatas-Ozkan, M. Ozbilgin, M. and Herman, R. (submitted in 2006) 'A historical perspective to the gendered development of the human resource management profession in the UK', Submitted to Management and Organisational History in January 2006-awaiting decision.

5) Research activities in the area of global knowledge workers from a perspective of equality and diversity.

*Special issue proposal:
A special issue proposal on 'global knowledge workers' from a perspective of equality and diversity was accepted by the editorial board of the journal, Equal Opportunities International. This special issue that is co-edited by Dr Katerina Nicolopoulou and Ahu Tatli (Queen Mary, University of London) will be published in 2007, which will generate a journal paper in the form of guest editor's introduction to the special issue.

6) Research activities in the area of high technology entrepreneurship

Publication:
* Conference paper:
Karatas-Ozkan, M. and Nicolopoulou, K. (2006) 'Nascent technology entrepreneurs: Setting a business in Malaysia', accepted for presentation at the High Technology Entrepreneurship Track of the 26th International Congress of Applied Psychology, July 16-21, 2006, Athens, Greece.