

Opportunity Identification of Migrant Entrepreneurs: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis of Influencing Factors

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“...all human beings are very creative - full of potential, full of energy.”

*Muhammad Yunus, Grameen Bank, Dhaka, Bangladesh, Noble Peace Prize Winner 2006
(Yunus & Bhuiyan, 2016, p. 3)*

“To see things differently than other people, the most effective solution is to bombard the brain with things it has never encountered before”.

*Gregory S. Berns, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, USA, Neuroscientist
(Berns, 2010, p. 8)*

To

Magnus, Cosima, Anaïs,

and

Gunar

with deep love and immense gratitude

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List of Abbreviations

BMWi	Bundesministerium für Wirtschaft und Energie (German Federal Ministry of Economics and Energy)	LR	Likelihood Ratio
CD	Cultural Distance	NUTS	Nomenclature des unités territoriales statistiques
CATI	Computer Aided Technology	ODM	Opportunity Development Matrix
cf.	confer (see)	OI	Opportunity Identification
ed./eds.	editor/editors	OE	Opportunity Evaluation
e.g.	exempli gratia (for example)	OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
et al.	et alii (and other)	SdSIM	Sachverständigenrat deutscher Stiftungen für Integration und Migration (Expert Council of German Foundations for Integration and Migration)
etc.	et cetera (and so forth)	SLR	Systematic Literature Review
EU	European Union	SRQ	Sub-Research Question
GDP	Gross Domestic Product	TEA	Total Early-stage entrepreneurial Activity
GRQ	General Research Question	UK	United Kingdom
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor	US(A)	United States (of America)
H x	Hypothesis x	UN	United Nations
i.e.	id est (that is)		
ibid	ibidem (in the same place)		
Info- comms	Information and communication enterprises		

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1 Executive Summary

Purpose: International migration increases globally and is one of humankind's key challenges. It affects international politics, raises controversial public opinions, and influences national societies. One particular challenge is appropriate social integration, and an effective pillar of it relates to labor market inclusion while discrimination frequently hinders this process. Migrants often turn toward entrepreneurship as an alternative option to unemployment. This option has proven to be viable with above-average rates of self-employment among migrants and a potential to identify more business opportunities than non-migrants. This doctoral dissertation aims at furthering our understanding of the distinct opportunity identification (OI) abilities of migrant entrepreneurs. In contrast to discussing migrant entrepreneurs' deficiencies, this dissertation emphasizes their potential. Cross-cultural influences and especially the contrasts between different contextual settings bring along a vast potential to identify different and more opportunities in comparison to non-migrants.

Previous Research, Research Gap and Questions: Entrepreneurship research analyzes the entire entrepreneurial process ranging from OI, Opportunity Evaluation (OE) to Opportunity Exploitation. Migrant entrepreneurship primarily focuses on exploitation leading to a research gap of understanding the antecedents of firm formation for migrant entrepreneurs. This dissertation addresses this research gap by explicitly focusing on a more profound understanding of migrant entrepreneur's distinct OI ability and aims at answering one overarching research question: To what degree do migrant entrepreneurs possess the ability to identify business opportunities? This question is related to four sub-research questions: (i) which individual- and context-related factors influence migrant entrepreneurs' OI ability? (ii) To what extent do different groups vary in their OI abilities? (iii) In which way does culture (especially cultural distance) affect OI among different migrant groups? (iv) To what extent are migrant entrepreneurs able to identify innovative and non-innovative opportunities?

Outline, Methods, and Empirical Setting: This dissertation comprises of four articles. It focusses on Germany and the UK as key global immigration countries with large, high-quality data sets. This focus offers the opportunity to profoundly analyze the empirical phenomenon by combining different data sets and deriving appropriate implications based on reliable data. Article 1 develops a theoretical model which relates individual- and context-related factors from the home and host country whose contradictions spur migrant entrepreneurs' OI abilities.

The article maps the model with a systematic literature review (SLR) against the existing literature. Article 2 is an empirically quantitative analysis comparing OI outcomes of migrants, regional in-migrants, and non-migrants in the UK. Article 3 quantitatively analyses the effect of Cultural Distance (CD) on different migrant groups' OI abilities with empirical data from Germany. Article 4 analyses OI and OE for refugees (forced migrants) – as OI and OE are expected to be interrelated processes – based on a theoretically derived opportunity development matrix (ODM) and tests it with primary data from Germany.

Results: The conducted SLR in Article 1 confirms the correct compilation of individual- and context-related factors within the theoretical model to identify non- and innovative opportunities. Article 2 provides empirical-quantitative proof that migrant entrepreneurs identify more opportunities than non-migrants. Migration has a positive effect for regional in-migrants' OI while non-migrants' OI-abilities improve through an inflow of migrants in their direct environment. Article 3 reveals an inverted-U-shape relationship between CD and OI which indicates that an intermediate level of CD helps to combine diverse knowledge sets in a new cultural setting in an interpretable manner to comparably identify the most opportunities. Article 4 verifies that refugees identify non- and innovative opportunities, OI is interrelated with OE while refugees map facets of their perceived desirability, feasibility, and integrity regarding entrepreneurial action in different OI and OE stages against individual, social, and economic spheres on a micro, meso, and macro level of the ODM.

Contribution to Theory: This dissertation contributes to the (migrant) entrepreneurship literature regarding a more profound understanding of migrant entrepreneurs' distinct OI abilities as the initial step within the entrepreneurial process. It interdisciplinarily develops theory based on research from entrepreneurship, sociology, and psychology while highlighting individual and context-related factors influencing OI. Also, it derives theoretical reasoning on migrant entrepreneurs' abilities to identify non- and innovative opportunities. Not last, with the formulation of the ODM, it brings theoretical insight into the complex OI and OE process by relating individual perceptions against micro, meso, and macro contexts.

Practical Implications: The results urge for the public acknowledgment of migrant entrepreneurs' potential to actively contribute to receiving societies and imply that it is worthwhile to support migrants with entrepreneurship programs. European migration policies need to be revisited to foster faster integration while the need for public visibility of migrant entrepreneurial role models and migrants' contributions for society increases. Also,

entrepreneurship education should be included in schools and kindergartens as entrepreneurship is not only of value for a society's economy but can become a tool for survival of individuals.

2 Introduction

2.1 Relevance of this Research Project

International migration continues to grow rapidly by more than 2.4% annually since 2000, reaching 257.7 million people globally in 2017, whereof about 61.1% target Asia or Europe with a large number residing in Germany and the UK which are among the 20 key global destination countries (United Nations, 2017a). Confronted with global challenges – as, for instance, climate change and its potential to increase conflict – the number of international migrants will potentially continue to increase (Barnett, 2003; Perch-Nielsen, Bättig, & Imboden, 2008; World Economic Forum, 2018). Migration is, hence, not only a crucial topic preoccupying national politics but of relevance on an international and global level (Naudé, Siegel, & Marchand, 2017). This trend will call for more global collaboration and solution seeking on international levels, to handle the consequences of migration on national levels (Lagarde, 2018).

One of the critical national challenges is (and will continue to be) the appropriate social integration of migrants into their new countries of residence, whereby one particularly effective pillar in this regard is labor market integration (Constant, Shachmurove, & Zimmermann, 2007; OECD, 2018; Naudé et al., 2017). While migrants often struggle to pursue appropriate jobs due to labor market discrimination – as, for example, a lack of recognition of their educational qualifications or language barriers – migrants generally show a higher tendency to become entrepreneurially active in comparison to non-migrants (OECD, 2018; Sequeira, Carr, & Rasheed, 2009; Xavier, Kelley, Kew, Herrington, & Vorderwülbecke, 2013; Zhou, 2004).

Especially public debates – but in some cases also scientific discussion – have often focused on migrants' deficiencies concerning labor market integration as well as their entrepreneurial endeavors, claiming that most of them are necessity instead of opportunity entrepreneurs (Naudé et al., 2017; Xavier et al., 2013). Recent publications in the field, however, show, that there seems to be a tendency towards acknowledging a distinct potential which migrants bring along into their host countries to become innovative and distinctive entrepreneurs (Soydas & Aleti, 2015; Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015; Vandor & Franke, 2016). The distinctiveness of these entrepreneurs becomes evident through diverse and innovative solutions for market gaps and resulting start-ups or firms (Hart & Acs, 2011; Saxenian, 2002). Furthermore, research and politics acknowledge that many migrant entrepreneurs can become vital drivers for economic growth and job-creation while bringing along distinct qualifications which help to

overcome the shortage of qualified labor in many European countries (Beyer, 2016; Lagarde, 2018).

With this dissertation, I challenge the still prevailing ideological assumption (Alvesson, & Sandberg, 2011) of migrant entrepreneurs' deficiencies as elaborated above and emphasize the alternative assumption on the other end of this continuum concerning their distinct potentials. In order to develop a better understanding of why migrant entrepreneurs possess the potential also to develop distinctive and innovative firms, it is necessary to address the antecedents of firm formation as well as the uniquely differing approaches to it between migrants and non-migrants (Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015; Vandor & Franke, 2016; Vinogradov & Jørgensen, 2017). According to Shane (2003), the antecedents of firm formation – or, in his words, opportunity exploitation – comprises of OI as a first, and OE as a second step (which I will elaborate on in more detail in Chapters 2.2 and 2.3). This dissertation focuses on the first step of migrant entrepreneur's OI to analyze and understand the origins which influence the above-described distinctive outcomes more profoundly. As OI and OE are expected to be interrelated processes (Ardichvili, Cordozo, & Ray, 2003; Hansen, Lumpkin, & Hills, 2011), I will touch upon the second step of the entrepreneurial process, namely OE, within this dissertation but underline that it is not the primary focus of this work. The next section will set out the research context, purpose and motivation of this research section and develop the related research question.

2.2 Research Context, Purpose and Motivation of this Research Project

The above-described empirical phenomenon has begun to attract scientific attention in the 1970s predominantly by US-American researchers who labeled the phenomenon *ethnic entrepreneurship*. Ethnic entrepreneurship has been discussed within different disciplines, among them anthropology, ethnology, geography, and sociology (Volery, 2007) while the latter may be considered the birthplace of the research domain. In one of the key publications on ethnic entrepreneurs, Waldinger, Aldrich, & Ward (1990) define ethnicity as “a set of connections and regular patterns of interaction among people sharing a common national background or migration experiences” (p. 33). Aldrich & Waldinger (1990) see ethnic entrepreneurs as ethnic individuals who “combin[e] resources in novel ways as so to create something of value” (p. 112). While many authors use the terms ethnic, migrant, immigrant and (im-)migrant entrepreneurship in interchangeable manners (Chaganti & Greene, 2002), I

emphasize that this research project focuses on those individuals who possess migration experiences. Hence, Waldinger et al.'s (1990) definition applies with the distinction that I focus on "people sharing a common national background [and, *note from the author*] migration experience" (p. 33). In this dissertation, I, therefore, refer to migrant entrepreneurs and migrant entrepreneurship going forward.

As mentioned above, US-American researchers were among the forerunners within the domain of migrant entrepreneurship; prominent publications in this regard are, for instance: Aguilera, 2009; Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; Bates, 1999; Fairlie, 1996; Herman & Smith, 2010; Light, 1972, 1984, 2004; Light & Bonacich, 1988; Light & Rosenstein, 1995; O'Brien & Fugita, 1982; Portes, 1995; Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993; Saxenian, 1999; Stiles & Galbraith, 2004; Waldinger et al., 1990. The topic was picked up in Europe in the 1980s, especially by researchers from the Netherlands and the UK (c.f., e.g., Barrett et al., 2001; Bhalla, 2009; Clark & Drinkwater, 2000, 2010; Jenkins, 1984; Kloosterman, 2000; Kloosterman, Van Der Leun, & Rath, 1999; Kloosterman & Rath, 1999, 2001, 2003; Rath, 2000; 2002; Şahin, Nijkamp, & Baycan-Levent, 2007). Research activities in Germany, however, have only increased significantly since the late 1990s which is partly due to Germany's late (official) recognition of being an immigration country – a fact to acknowledge with about 22.5% of the population having a migration background (Destatis, 2018; Hillmann, 2009; Riedel, 2007). Some prominent examples are for example: Constant et al., 2007; Constant & Zimmermann, 2004; Fertala, 2003, 2006, 2007; Goldberg & Şen 1997; Leicht, Humpert, Leiss, Zimmer-Müller, Lauxen-Ulbrich, & Fehrenbach, 2004; Leicht & Leiß, 2006; Lubert & Leicht 2000; Özcan & Seifert, 2000; Pütz, 2000, 2003; Pütz, Schreiber, & Welp, 2007; Sauer, 2004; Şen & Sauer 2005; SdSIM, 2010; Yavuzcan, 2003.

The migrant entrepreneurship literature identifies factors that encourage or hinder migrant entrepreneurship. The demand for ethnic-specific products like kosher food (Waldinger et al., 1990; Pütz et al., 2007) or markets with low economies of scale (e.g., sewing industry), in which high efficiencies can be achieved through self-exploitation, are favorable conditions (Waldinger et al., 1990; Kloosterman, 2000). Close social networks within ethnic groups also promote their entrepreneurial activities (Waldinger et al., 1990; Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993). Hindering factors may include, for example, educational deficits, a lack of recognition of foreign educational qualifications, the development of deficient business plans, low use of advisory services, discrimination (e.g., in granting bank loans) or limited niche markets

resulting in high closure rates (Hillmann, 2009; Leicht et al., 2004; Leicht & Leiß, 2006; Pütz et al., 2007; Schönberg et al., 2012; SdSIM, 2010; Sequeira, Carr, & Rasheed, et al., 2009).

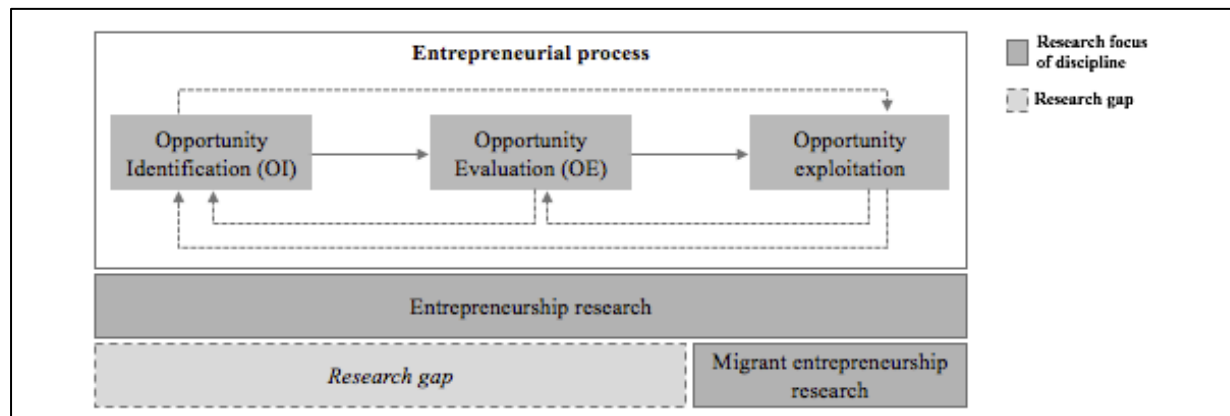
These and other factors found their ways into a wide range of different theories and models. Among the most prominent theories are the so-called (i) Ethnic Enclave Theory (cf., e.g., Wilson & Portes, 1980; Wilson & Martin, 1982; Auster & Aldrich, 2009), (ii) Middleman-Minority Theory (cf., Bonacich, 1973), (iii) Disadvantage Theory (cf., e.g., Light & Rosenstein, 1995) and the (iv) Cultural Theory (cf., e.g., Weber, 1958; Werbner, 2009; Pütz, 2000; Leicht et al., 2004; Masurel, Nijkamp, & Vindigni, 2004; Mars & Ward, 2009; Pollins, 2009), which shed light on different characteristics of migrant entrepreneurship and in some cases complement each other. The first two theories explain ethnic entrepreneurship based on the demand for ethnic-specific products or services that are satisfied by (co-)ethnic entrepreneurs. (i) Focuses on enclaves within the host societies, resulting in segmented markets (e.g., for ethnic-specific products or labor markets; Wilson & Portes, 1980). (ii) Explains the importance of intermediaries who, for example, introduce ethnic-specific products or services from their ethnic groups into the host society (Bonacich, 1973). The (iii) Disadvantage and (iv) Cultural Theory are considered fundamental theories in sociology. (iii) Explains the emergence of ethnic entrepreneurship as an alternative to unemployment due to the lack of human capital (e.g., language skills) and mobility (e.g., due to poverty) of migrants upon arrival in the host society (Light & Rosenstein, 1995). (iv) Points to the importance of cultural characteristics of ethnic groups (e.g., hard-working), which – as a specific resource – reinforce the path to ethnic entrepreneurship (Masurel et al., 2004).

Various models incorporate these theories in different forms and try to explain the phenomenon of migrant entrepreneurship holistically and not only by using single aspects (Volery, 2007). Widely recognized explanatory models include the *Interactive Model* by Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990 and Waldinger et al., 1990 as well as the *Mixed Embeddedness* approach by Portes & Sensenbrenner (1993), Portes (1995) and in particular Kloosterman et al. (1999). The Interactive Model is based on two underlying elements, namely the so-called *opportunity structure* (i.e., (labor) market conditions, legal framework conditions and access to property) and *group characteristics* (i.e., resource mobilization, resources and networks of ethnic groups, etc.), which together lead to specific ethnic strategies (e.g., self-exploitation; Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; Waldinger et al., 1990). This model shows, for example, that aspects of the Disadvantage and Cultural Theory have primarily influenced both underlying elements while the Ethnic Enclave and Middleman Minority Theory are in principle a form of ethnic strategies.

The Mixed Embeddedness approach shows that migrant entrepreneurship arises from a complex interplay between social, economic and institutional contexts. The approach relies on three assumptions: an opportunity must be (1) accessible to the ethnic entrepreneur in the sense of low market entry barriers, (2) perceivable as a revenue-generating option, and (3) concretely ascertainable and realizable (Kloosterman et al., 1999; Volery, 2007). Both the Interactive Model and the Mixed Embeddedness approach assume the existence of an opportunity (but not necessarily on the possible construction of an opportunity) that is acted upon by migrant entrepreneurs. Migrant entrepreneurs are, furthermore, mainly considered as traditional ethnic entrepreneurs who are less educated, self-involved and not innovative (Basu, 2006; Kloosterman, 2000; Leicht et al., 2004; Light & Bonacich, 1988; Waldinger et al., 1990). This relates strongly to the ideological assumption (Alvesson, & Sandberg, 2011) taken on in public debates which highlights migrant entrepreneurs' deficiencies as outlined in Chapter 2.1. In summary, researchers from sociology, ethnography, and anthropology have focused on elaborating the utilization of financial, social, and cultural capital by migrant entrepreneurs with an underlying in-house assumption of cultural and social value orientation (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011; Kloosterman et al., 1998; Marchand & Siegel, 2015; Wiley, 1967; Wilson & Portes, 1980).

In contrast, entrepreneurship research's underlying in-house assumption relates to a realist perspective based on the homo oeconomicus paradigm, whereby the entrepreneurial process is accentuated (Alvarez, Barney, & Young, 2010; Alvesson, & Sandberg, 2011; Shane, 2003; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Weber, 1978). When transferring the knowledge from migrant entrepreneurship into the domain of entrepreneurship research and taking a process-related view, it becomes evident that migrant entrepreneurship research focuses on the analysis of what Shane (2003) calls opportunity exploitation (cf., Figure 2.1; Aliaga-Isla, 2014). In his influential work, Shane (2003) points out three distinct steps of the entrepreneurial process, namely opportunity identification (OI), opportunity evaluation (OE) and opportunity exploitation. Thereby, Ardichvili et al. (2003) as well as Hansen et al. (2011) point out that these steps are multidimensional, interrelated, and iterative. At the center of this domain is the question of why some individuals identify opportunities and become entrepreneurially active (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). If one considers this generic entrepreneurship process depicted in Figure 2.1 independent of ethnic, cultural or religious backgrounds (Volery, 2007), it may be understood as an input-output model, while opportunity exploitation resembles its output.

Figure 2.1 Embedding the Domains of Entrepreneurship and Migrant Entrepreneurship Research Along the Entrepreneurial Process



Source: Own depiction based on Shane (2003), Ardichvili et al. (2003), and Hansen et al. (2011).

To understand migrant entrepreneur's abilities to not only develop non-innovative but also unique and innovative firms it is crucial to analyze aspects beyond the entrepreneurial output (opportunity exploitation) which has been addressed by migrant entrepreneurship research (Aliaga-Isla, 2014). The migrant entrepreneurship literature, on the one hand, prevalingly assumes the existence of an opportunity (e.g., Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Waldinger et al. 1990, Kloostermann et al., 1999). Entrepreneurship research, on the other hand, additionally elaborates on the individual construction of an opportunity through OI and OE processes leading to a specific entrepreneurial outcome by exploiting these opportunities (Alvarez & Barney, 2007; George et al., 2016; Shane 2003; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Both, OI and OE, are dominant themes in entrepreneurship research while the perspective on migrant entrepreneurs as a distinct group is not yet comprehensively captured even though research indicates that this perspective might provide meaningful insight for both disciplines (Clydesdale, 2008). Hence, to understand the distinct entrepreneurial outcomes of migrant entrepreneurs more profoundly, we need to combine the essences of both scientific disciplines – entrepreneurship and migrant entrepreneurship research. Combining these insights will help to address the specific research gap regarding an in-depth understanding of the antecedents of opportunity exploitation, namely OI (and OE) for migrant entrepreneurs (see Figure 2.1). Addressing this research gap by combining the insights of the two scientific disciplines mentioned above, opens up the possibility to challenge the ideological assumption of migrant entrepreneur's deficiencies and developing alternative perspectives concerning this group.

In 2006, Basu argued that OI must play a distinctive role for migrant entrepreneurs. He based his argument on Dobbin (1996) who assumes that the integration into several cultures and

different networks produces dual or multiple identities and cultures within individuals. These dual or multiple identities and cultures lead to greater creativity in the business environment and come closer to the character of a Schumpeterian entrepreneur (Basu, 2006). Furthermore, Basu (2006) assumes stronger attention and higher sensitivity towards the own environment, wherefore, such individuals possess the ability of entrepreneurial alertness (Kirzner, 1978). Consequently, and in opposition to the ideological deficiency assumption, I propose the assumption that not only non-innovative but also innovative forms of opportunities – related to a distinct entrepreneurial potential – must exist for migrant entrepreneurs.

This new research topic has been picked up recently by some scholars, as, e.g., Evansluong, 2016, Smans, Freeman, & Thomas, 2014, Soydas & Aleti, 2015; Sundararajan & Sundararajan (2015), Vador & Franke (2016), or Vinogradov & Jørgensen (2017), who have begun to delineate this potentially distinctive OI ability of migrant entrepreneurs by looking at, i.e., individual-related factors or cross-cultural experiences. Researchers call for the development of a broader and more holistic understanding of that phenomenon (Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015) by additionally looking at context-related factors influencing migrant entrepreneurs' OI (Dimov, 2007a, 2011; Welter, 2011). To address the research gap above, this dissertation, therefore, defines migrant entrepreneur's OI as its dependent variable and poses the following overarching, general research question (GRQ):

GRQ: To what degree do migrant entrepreneurs possess the distinct ability to identify business opportunities?

The GRQ relates to the defined dependent variable while the degree mentioned in the GRQ aims at understanding the magnitude of migrant entrepreneurs' OI but also at determining the quality of the entrepreneurial outcome regarding their innovativeness and non-innovativeness. To achieve this goal, I, furthermore, address the GRQ with three sub-research questions (SRQs) which define the independent variables within this dissertation:

SRQ 1: Which individual- and context-related factors influence migrant entrepreneur's ability to identify opportunities?

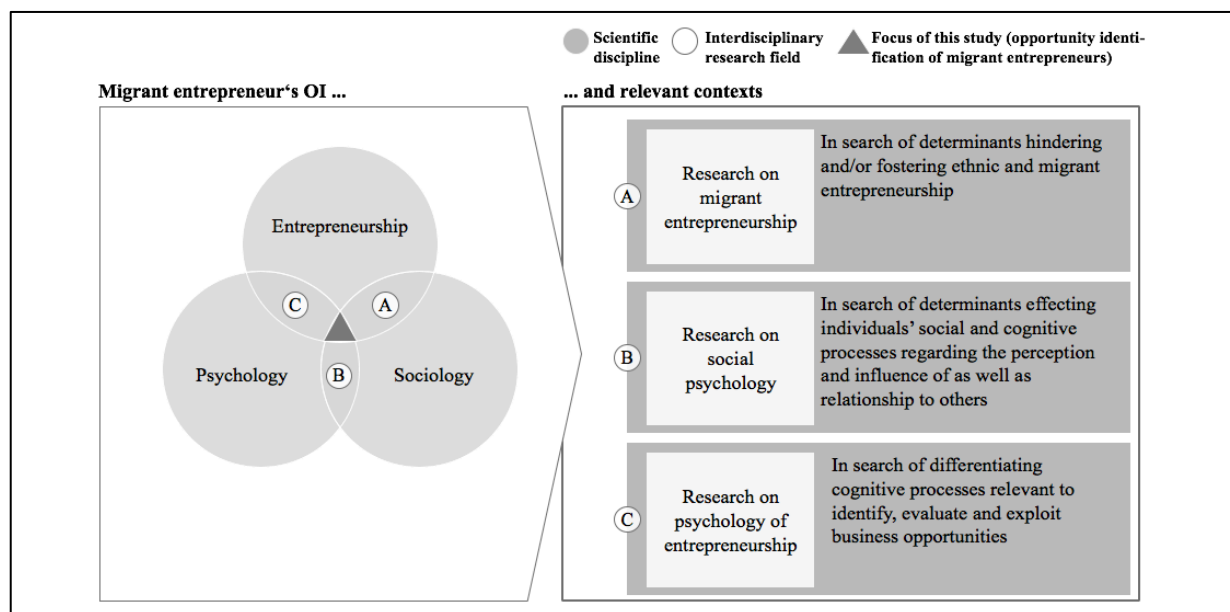
SRQ 2: To what extent does group membership affect (migrant) entrepreneurs' OI abilities?

SRQ 3: In which way does culture (especially cultural distance) affect migrant entrepreneurs' OI abilities?

2.3 Situating the Research Project into the Scientific Landscape

Different scientific disciplines play a vital role in this research project to address the research gap as well as the subsequent research questions identified above. Figure 2.2 shows that there are three main scientific disciplines relevant to address the central research questions: sociology, psychology, and entrepreneurship. The interfaces between the three disciplines concern (A) migrant entrepreneurship, (B) social psychology, and (C) the psychology of entrepreneurship, while this research project is located at the center of these three intersections addressing OI of migrant entrepreneurs.

Figure 2.2 Mapping the Scientific Field



Source: Own depiction.

All three major scientific disciplines have elaborated on the concept of opportunity and OI from different angles. From a *sociological* perspective, an opportunity arises as a result of external framework conditions (Aldrich, Jones, & McEvoy, 2009), i.e., due to the economic, political, institutional, cultural, social and/or residential environment (Auster & Aldrich, 2009; Jenkins, 1984; Jones et al., 2000; Mars & Ward, 2009; Waldinger et al., 1990; Werbner, 2009). These conditions, especially when changing, are important influencing factors for the emergence and identification of opportunities (Mars & Ward 2009).

Emphasizing the aspect of culture in this regard – to be understood as commonly accepted assumptions and beliefs manifested in values, norms, interpretation patterns, and behaviors (Hayton, George, & Zahra, 2002; Schein, 1990) – it becomes clear that it plays an important role not only at the macro but also at the micro level of social contexts. According to Bourdieu

(1986), an individual's so-called cultural capital is established in an internalized, objectified and institutionalized form within classes, which can lead to disadvantages for groups that do not belong to the dominant class or culture. In contrast, De Bruin (1998) understands cultural capital in social subgroups as an essential resource which – as long as it is reproducible and results in a habitus (Krais & Gebauer, 2014) – can lead to the development of opportunities (Firkin, 2003; Watts et al., 2007). Although the cultural dimensions are controversial according to Hofstede (1983), studies have verified that specific cultural characteristics (e.g., individualism) influence entrepreneurial activities within a country (Shane, 1992; Mitchell, Smith, Seawright, & Morse, 2000; Hayton et al., 2002). Consequently, the cultural framework conditions shape the (in-)formal economy and can be a driver for entrepreneurship and thus for OI (de Koning, Fey, & Doern, 2002; Pütz et al., 2007; Webb et al., 2009).

For a long time, *psychology* has examined opportunities and its perception, whereby the opportunity is the result of the OI process (Gaglio & Katz, 2001; Ward, 2004) because "opportunity [is a, *note from the author*] perceived means of generating economic value" (Baron, 2004, p. 1). OI may be understood as a process which relates to the "... ability to identify a good idea and transform it into a business concept that adds value and generates revenue" (Lumpkin & Lichtenstein, 2005, p. 457). Baron (2004) defines OI clearer as a "... cognitive process ... through which individuals conclude that they have identified an opportunity" (p. 1). Gaglio & Katz (2001), Gaglio (2004), and Baron (2006) describe OI as a sequence of specific psychological schemes, pattern recognition processes and cognitive heuristics – based on Kirzner's concept of entrepreneurial alertness - which is triggered by specific market situations, events or the market environment. Lumpkin & Lichtenstein (2005) and Grégoire, Barr, & Shepherd (2010) present OI as an iterative process in which existing knowledge and new information are incorporated to create new knowledge over time.

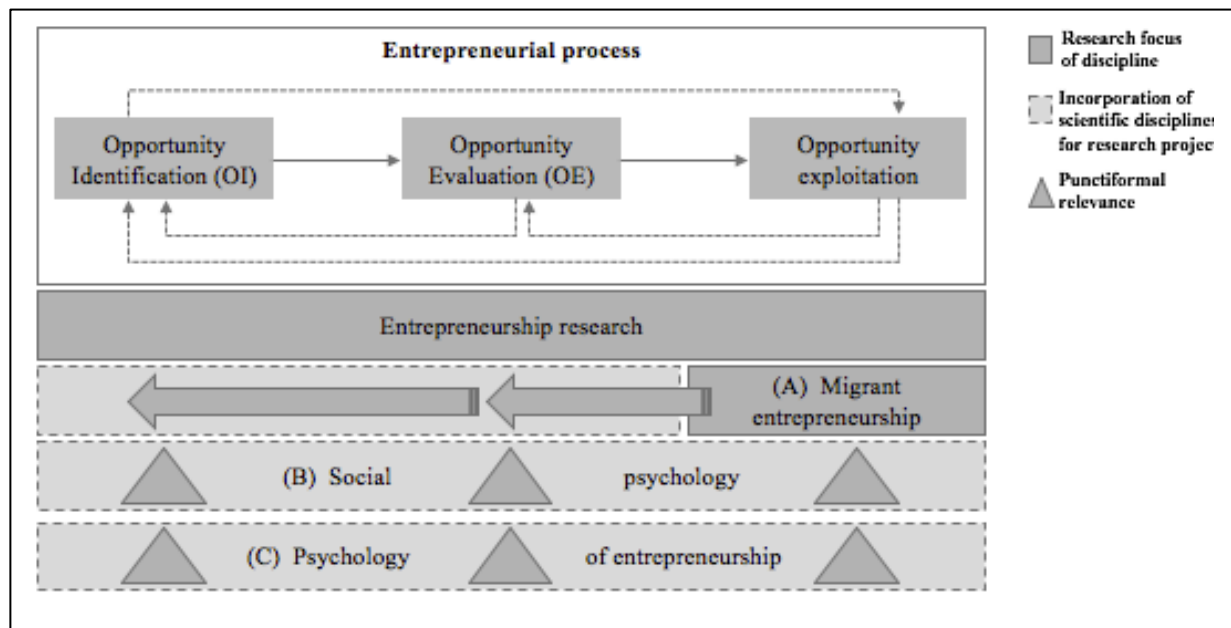
The emphasis on opportunity as a result of the OI process has become an integral part of *entrepreneurship* research (De Koning & Muzyka, 1999; Ardichvili et al., 2003; Grégoire et al., 2010; Short, Ketchen, Shook, & Ireland; 2010). The understanding of opportunity as well as its identification is considered as a core task in entrepreneurship (Gaglio & Katz, 2001; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), while two main perspectives exist regarding the concept of opportunity: discovery and creation theory (Alvarez & Barney, 2007). The first relates to Kirzner (1973, 1978) who assumes that opportunities objectively exist and wait to be discovered by an alert entrepreneur. The second goes back to Schumpeter's (1934b) creative destruction, according to which an entrepreneur constructs an opportunity. Both forms of

opportunities exist (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000) and differ between Kirzner's less innovative and Schumpeter's highly innovative opportunities (Shane, 2003). An opportunity may differ in its degree of innovation based on individuals' divergent knowledge and cognitive abilities for instance and, hence, the differences in individuals' OI processes (Shane, 2003; Smith et al., 2009) "... through which entrepreneurs search, capture and refine new ideas that lead to business opportunities" (Gundry & Kickul, 2007). Consequently, the idea is a pre-form that only matures into an opportunity through the OI process - triggered by information about external changes that entrepreneurs receive through their networks for instance (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Davidsson, 2015; Grégoire et al., 2010).

Sociology, psychology, and entrepreneurship are reciprocally influencing scientific disciplines, which are essential to address the core topic of this dissertation: OI of migrant entrepreneurs. To profoundly address this topic, it is essential to consider the interfaces between these disciplines as depicted in Figure 2.2. Intersection (A) relates – among other topics – to the research on migrant entrepreneurship, which is concerned with identifying determinants that foster or hinder migrant entrepreneurship as elaborated on in Chapter 2.2. In contrast, intersection (B) relates to the scientific field of social psychology which can be defined as the “study of the effects of social and cognitive processes on the way individuals perceive, influence and relate to others” (Smith, Mackie, & Claypool, 2015, p. 3). This includes the understanding about how the contextual setting of individuals, including society and culture, influences individual's interpretation or construction of their social environment and forms, e.g., social cognition, attitudes, behaviors, identity, decision making, norms, and conformity (Aronson, Akert, & Wilson, 2010; Baron, Byrne, & Branscombe, 2006; Crisp, 2015; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Stets & Burke, 2000). The third intersection, (C), is related to the psychology of entrepreneurship, which one would not necessarily define as a distinct scholarly field. However, specific psychological concepts play a significant role in each phase of the entrepreneurial process as depicted in Figure 2.1 (Frese & Gielnik, 2014; Hambrick, 2007) and briefly described in the paragraph above on how the scientific field of psychology addresses OI. In this regard, especially cognitive psychology and cognition research offer rich theories, concepts and empirically robust mechanisms – e.g., pattern recognition, perception, cognitive dissonance, or entrepreneurial intentions – to understand why individuals see and act upon identified opportunities (Krueger, 2005). When updating Figure 2.1 with Figure 2.3, we see where the different research disciplines come into play for the core topic of this dissertation.

Figure 2.3 shows that, in order to address the research topic of migrant entrepreneurs' OI appropriately, it is necessary to extend the findings from migrant entrepreneurship research onto the phases of OE and OI in particular. Furthermore, aspects of social psychology as well as the psychology of entrepreneurship are relevant all along the entrepreneurial process and are punctiformally to be included, especially during the phase of OI for this dissertation.

Figure 2.3 Relevant Scientific Disciplines For the Research on Migrant Entrepreneur's OI



Source: Own depiction.

The research topic has now been situated in the scientific landscape. The next section will provide an overview of the structure of this dissertation and explain the methods used to address the three research questions proposed above.

2.4 Structure of the Dissertation and Methods Used in this Research Project

Four different articles address the derived research gap based on the alternative assumption of migrant entrepreneur's OI abilities and potentials as well as the proposed GRQ and subsequent SRQs of this dissertation. These articles are briefly sketched out in Figure 2.4 below. Overall, the dissertation comprises of one conceptual paper which derives a theoretical model to explain the empirical phenomenon of above average entrepreneurship rates among migrants above as well as migrant entrepreneur's distinct OI ability (Article 1). The following three articles are empirically-quantitative articles, while Article 2 and 3 use secondary data from the UK as well as Germany and Article 4 is based on primary data sampling in Germany. With Germany and the UK being major global immigration countries (United Nations, 2017a) and having

appropriate and high-quality data sets available (e.g., data from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor or the German Federal Statistical Office, 2015), I am provided with a magnificent opportunity to analyze this data with regard to my research questions. Furthermore, with Germany's belated recognition of being an immigration country, it is reasonable to shed more light on Germany's migrant entrepreneurs and conduct further research with data from this country. Overall, this constellation provides an opportunity to develop policy implications based on data-driven research and analysis and not public opinions (cf., Brulle, Carmichael, & Jenkins, 2012).

Figure 2.4 Overview, Approach and Aspired Outcomes of the Four Articles Addressing the GRQ and SRQs within this Dissertation

Guiding GRQ & SRQs are addressed by four articles within this dissertation			
		Article No.	SRQs addressed	Article-related individual RQs	Aspired Outcome
GRQ: To what degree do migrant entrepreneurs possess the ability to identify business opportunities? SRQ 1: Which individual- and context-related factors influence migrant entrepreneur's ability to identify opportunities? SRQ 2: To what extent does group membership affect (migrant) entrepreneurs' OI abilities? SRQ 3: In which way does culture (especially cultural distance) affect migrant entrepreneurs' OI abilities?		1	1, 2	i. Which factors influence migrant entrepreneur's OI? ii. How do these factors relate to each other to spur migrant entrepreneur's OI?	- Conceptual: theory application and bridging (mixed embeddedness, capital and identity theory, cognitive dissonance) - Literature review - A theoretical model emphasizing factors that impact ME's OI - First verification of model
		2	1, 2	i. Which factors influence OI among immigrants, regional in-migrants and non-migrants in the UK? ii. How does OI vary between these groups?	- Theory application and bridging (structuration and identity theory, cognitive dissonance) - Empirical, quantitative - Theoretical explanations for ME's OI - Empirical evidence for stronger OI ability of MEs
		3	1, 2, 3	i. How does CD affect the individual abilities to identify entrepreneurial opportunities (in Germany)?	- Theory application (Ardichvili et al's, 2003, OI framework mapped against migration effects) - Empirical, quantitative - Empirical evidence for influence of CD on OI for different migrant groups within one country
		4	1, 2, 3	i. How do refugees identify and evaluate opportunities in their place of residence? ii. Which factors impact the development of their business ideas? iii. Can we distinguish different sets of factors that inform specific stages of the OI & OE process?	- Theory application and bridging (mixed embeddedness, capital theory, feasibility, desirability, integrity) - Empirical, quantitative - Theoretical framework development for refugee's OI and OE - Empirical evidence for strong entrepreneurial orientation of refugees and interrelated OI and OE process

Source: Own depiction.

The first article of this dissertation with the title "Migrant Entrepreneurs' Opportunity Identification: A New Theoretical Approach Mapped Against the Existing Literature" is a single-authored article and addresses SRQ 1 and 2. It aims at deriving influencing individual- as well as context-related factors and relating these factors meaningfully to each other to explain the distinct OI ability of migrant entrepreneurs. As individual- and context-related factors differ for each individual, the theoretical reasoning is fundamental for addressing SRQ 2 which helps to distinguish the differences in OI among different groups. Furthermore, this article theoretically reasons why the continuum between non- and innovative opportunities applies for migrant entrepreneurs, and, therefore, addresses the degree of migrant entrepreneur's OI outcomes regarding the aspect of quality. This article is conceptual and develops a theoretical model combining research from different scientific disciplines. It uses research regarding

opportunities (entrepreneurship research), the approach of mixed embeddedness (sociology and migrant entrepreneurship research), Bourdieu's capital theory (sociology research), identity theory (social psychology research) and cognitive dissonance (psychology research) to derive different influencing factors. In addition to that, the article uses a SLR to verify the influencing factors in the first step before conducting further empirical testing. The G-Forum Conference 2018 in Stuttgart, Germany accepted this article for presentation (cf., Table 2.1 below).

Following this, the second article of this dissertation, named "Home Country Effects on Opportunity Identification by Migrants in the United Kingdom", is a jointly written article by myself and Prof. Jonathan Levie, Ph.D. from Strathclyde University in the UK. It addresses SRQ 1 as well as 2, and also focusses on context- and individual-related factors influencing OI while examining the outcomes among different groups, namely migrants, regional in-migrants, and non-migrants in the UK. The first two articles are influenced by each other especially with regard to the interdisciplinary theoretical approach taken. Drori, Honig, & Wright (2009) argue that Bourdieu's capital theory and Giddens' structuration theory are both suitable to theorize on migrant entrepreneurship, wherefore, the first article uses Bourdieu's (1986) capital theory and the second article bases its theoretical elaborations on Giddens' (1984) structuration theory (also from sociology research). The introduction was written by Jonathan Levie, while Daphne Hering developed the theoretical reasoning of this article based on Giddens (1984), identity theory and cognitive dissonance (including the related hypothesis). The hypotheses were tested empirically using Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) data from 2012-2015 provided by Jonathan Levie. Daphne Hering worked on the initial testing using binary logistic regression analysis, while the final hypothesis testing was conducted and intensely refined by Jonathan Levie. Daphne Hering developed the discussion and conclusion. The first version of this article was presented at ISBE 2017 in Dublin, Ireland and nominated for a best paper award (cf., Table 2.1).

"The Impact of Cultural Distance on Opportunity Identification of Migrant Entrepreneurs" is the third article of this dissertation and jointly written by Daphne Hering and Dr. Matthias Jan Mrożewski of the Technical University of Berlin, Germany. The article addresses the SRQs 2 and 3 mainly, while it also touches upon SRQ 1. It comprises a deep-dive on the context-related aspect of culture, and cultural distance (CD) in particular, and contributes to the understanding of the interplay between the home and host country culture (also strongly influencing individual-related factors) to predict its impact on entrepreneurship, and more specifically on OI (cf., Chapter 2.3). Matthias Jan Mrożewski wrote the introduction. Daphne Hering

developed the theory section using theory from different scientific disciplines (entrepreneurship, sociology, migrant entrepreneurship, psychology). The theoretical reasoning is based on Ardichvili et al.'s (2003) OI framework and mapped against the effects of migration to derive a hypothesis of an inverted U-shape relating OI and CD to each other. This hypothesis is tested empirically using self-employment data of different migrant groups in Germany from the 2011 Census data of the German Federal Statistical Office and combined with a CD measure based on Hofstede's cultural dimensions (2014, 2018) developed by Daphne Hering. She additionally conducted the initial hypothesis testing based on multi-curve linear regression analysis. Matthias Jan Mrożewski revised the analysis by applying ordinary least-squares regression for a later version of this article. Daphne Hering developed the discussion and conclusion which were revisited by Matthias Jan Mrożewski. Table 2.1 shows that the first version of this article was presented at ENTRE 2016 in Krakow, Poland and printed in the conference's proceedings. A second version of the article was presented at G-Forum 2016 in Leipzig, Germany and nominated for a best paper award.

The last article of this dissertation, named "Entrepreneurial Perceptions among Refugees – The Interrelation of Opportunity Identification and Evaluation as well as their Link to Perceived Feasibility, Desirability, and Integrity" addresses SRQs 1, 2, and 3. It is a jointly written article by Daphne Hering and Dr. Maren Borkert of the Technical University of Berlin, Germany. This article focuses on a specific migrant group, namely forced migrants¹ or so-called refugees, and aims at answering three research questions. (i) How do refugees identify and evaluate business opportunities in their new place of residence? (ii) Which factors impact the development of their business ideas? (iii) Can we distinguish different sets of factors that inform specific stages of the process of OI and OE? As OI and OE are expected to be interrelated processes, which Chapters 2.1 and 2.2 have outlined, this article extends the view on OI and incorporates OE as part of the identified research gap. Maren Borkert wrote the introduction, which has been revised by Daphne Hering, and sketched the initial theoretical frame. The theory was jointly revised by both authors to develop the opportunity development matrix (ODM) which includes theoretical reasoning from disciplines as entrepreneurship, sociology, and psychology while

¹ According to the International Organization for Migration, forced migration is considered "a migratory movement in which an element of coercion exists, including threats to life and livelihood, whether arising from natural or man-made causes (e.g. movements of refugees and internally displaced persons as well as people displaced by natural or environmental disasters, chemical or nuclear disasters, famine, or development projects)" (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011, p. 39). I apply the term of forced-migrants in this dissertation as it clearly outlines refugees as a subgroup of migrants.

Maren Borkert wrote the theoretical part of this article. The ODM represents the basis for the empirical testing based on a questionnaire, mainly developed by Daphne Hering, which was distributed to roughly 2,390 refugees, gaining a response rate of 36.2% (N=865). Daphne Hering conducted the empirical analysis using cluster analysis. Both authors jointly discussed the results, discussion, and conclusion which Daphne Hering wrote down. The following Table 2.1 provides an overview of the submission and publication records of the four articles.

Table 2.1 Submission and Publication Records for the Four Articles of this Dissertation

No.	Title	Author(s)	Submission and publication record
1	Migrant Entrepreneurs' Opportunity Identification: A New Theoretical Approach Mapped Against the Existing Literature	Daphne Hering	- This version has been submitted to and accepted for presentation at the 22nd Annual Interdisciplinary Conference on Entrepreneurship, Innovation, and SMEs - G-Forum , Stuttgart, Germany, September 2018.
2	Home Country Effects on Opportunity Identification by Migrants in the United Kingdom	Daphne Hering, Jonathan Levie	- The first version has been submitted to, accepted for presentation, and nominated for a best-paper award at International Small Business and Entrepreneurship (ISBE) Conference , Dublin, Ireland, November 2017. - The here included, 2 rd , revised version of this article will be submitted to the journal Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice (impact factor: 5.321, 5-year impact factor 8.082 (Sage Publications, 2018)).
3	The Impact of Cultural Distance on Opportunity Identification of Migrant Entrepreneurs	Daphne Hering, Matthias Jan Mrożewski	- The first version has been submitted to, accepted for presentation, and printed in the proceedings of the ENTRE Conference , April 2016, Krakow, Poland - A revised version has been submitted to, accepted for presentation, and nominated for a best-paper award at 20th Annual Interdisciplinary Conference on Entrepreneurship, Innovation, and SMEs - G-Forum , Leipzig, Germany, October 2016. - The here included, 3 rd , revised version of this article will be submitted to the journal Entrepreneurship and Regional Development (impact factor 2.791 (Taylor & Francis, 2018))
4	Entrepreneurial Perceptions among Refugees - The Interrelation of Opportunity Identification and Evaluation as well as their Link to Perceived Feasibility, Desirability, and Integrity	Daphne Hering, Maren Borkert	- The paper will be submitted to the journal Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice (impact factor: 5.321, 5-year impact factor 8.082 (Sage Publications, 2018)).

Source: Own compilation.

Overall, the articles in this dissertation focus on migrant entrepreneurs in Europe, specifically in Germany and the UK. While the Articles 1, 2, and 3 aim at furthering the understanding of migrant entrepreneurs' distinct OI abilities. Article 4 extends this view to gain a better understanding of OI and OE processes of a specific migrant group: forced migrants or refugees.

The next four chapters present all four articles. Thereafter, an overall summary of findings and discussion for these papers including the impact of this dissertation follows. The dissertation ends with an overall conclusion.

Article 1

**Migrant Entrepreneurs' Opportunity Identification:
A New Theoretical Approach Mapped
Against the Existing Literature**

Daphne Hering

(1st version of the article)

3.1 Abstract

Migrant entrepreneur's opportunity identification (OI) abilities slowly gain more attention in the entrepreneurship literature. Research shows that migrant entrepreneurs have a high potential to OI, especially regarding those that cannot be perceived by non-migrants. This potential leads to the need for the development of a theoretical model explaining individual and contextual factors from the home and host country which influence the number and types of opportunities identified by migrants. In this paper, I propose such a theoretical model and combine different strands of theories from sociology, psychology and entrepreneurship research. Before verifying this model empirically, a systematic literature review is conducted to test the model in a first step, which helps to verify the constructs used, define further elements to be considered in the model, and open paths for future research in order to verify the theoretical model.

Keywords: migrant entrepreneur, opportunity identification, systematic literature review, Bourdieu's theory of practice and capital, mixed embeddedness, spatial context, Schumpeter, Kirzner, identity, identity conflict, cognitive dissonance

JEL Codes: D82, F22, J15, J24, L26, R23, Z13, Y10

3.2 Introduction

Migration developed into one of the critical global topics at present due to a high number of roughly 258 million international migrants globally in 2017 (United Nations, 2017b). Labor market integration is one essential element to re-settle and integrate into new societies for migrants (Ager & Strang, 2008). I define migrants here as individuals possessing a socio-cultural set of "connections and regular patterns of interaction among people sharing a common national background [and, *note from the author*] migratory experience" (Waldinger, Aldrich, & Ward, 1990, p. 33) from their home to a different host country. While migrants often experience labor market discrimination in the host countries, they develop alternative strategies and become entrepreneurs for example (Levie, 2007). Research shows that migrants are generally more likely to pursue a career in entrepreneurship in comparison to non-migrants (Vandor & Franke, 2016). This fact may be explained through several reasons as, for instance, a stronger risk-taking behavior due to their migration experience (Hugo, 2014), cross-cultural

experiences (Vandor & Franke, 2016), or the desire to gain status in the host society (Soydas & Aleti, 2015). Another reason that research has put forward recently is the tendency of migrants to on average identify more and very different entrepreneurial opportunities (cf., Article 2 of this dissertation). To this day, research on migrant entrepreneurs' opportunity identification (OI) abilities cannot fully explain why this group identifies more opportunities and why this might be distinctively different from non-migrants (Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015; Vandor & Franke, 2016). Among others, Sundararajan & Sundararajan (2015) call for the development of a theoretical model to explain this phenomenon and base their theoretical reasoning for developing a theoretical framework on migrant-specific capitals. Recent literature from sociology and entrepreneurship suggest that not only individual-specific but also other factors, as, for example, context in which migrants are embedded in, need to be considered when developing a model that captures these migrant entrepreneur's OI-related variables more broadly (Dimov, 2007a; Kloosterman, 2010; Waldinger et al., 1990; Welter, 2011). This paper addresses this research gap by posing two research questions: (i) which factors influence migrant entrepreneur's OI? (ii) How do these factors relate to each other to spur migrant entrepreneur's OI?

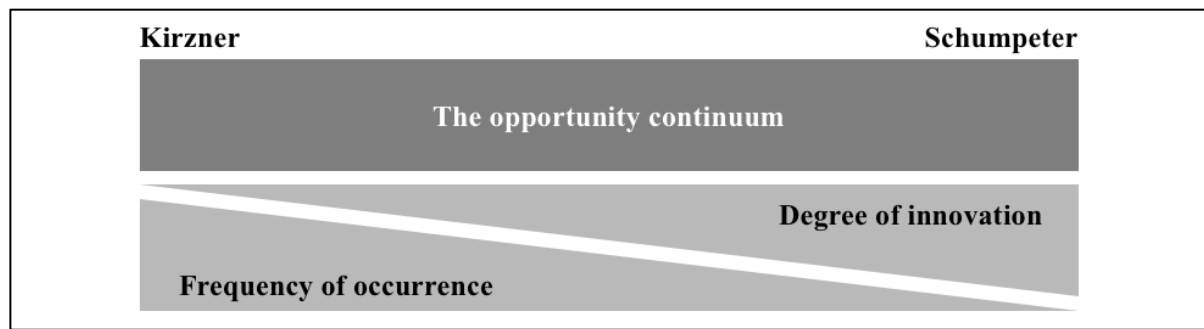
Several steps are taken to answer these research questions. This paper begins with a literature review to show different perspectives on opportunities and define OI. Subsequently, different strands of sociology- (e.g., Bourdieu's theory of practice and capitals), psychology- (e.g., cognitive dissonance) and entrepreneurship- (e.g., discovery and creation theory) related theories are drawn upon to develop a theoretical model which explains individual differences of migrant entrepreneur's OI. This paper, then, applies a systematic literature review (SLR) as a first step to review and revise the theoretical model, while the subsequent 'Data and Methods' section explains its stages. 'Analysis and Findings' of the SLR are thenceforth presented and adjacently discussed. The paper ends with concluding remarks.

3.3 Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

3.3.1 Perspectives on Opportunities

Shane (2003) as well as Shane & Venkataraman (2000) consider individual differences to OI as central to the understanding of entrepreneurship, which they define as “the discovery and exploitation of profitable opportunities” (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000, p. 217). Based on Casson (1982), Shane (2003) defines these opportunities as circumstances “in which a person can create a new means-ends framework for recombining resources that the entrepreneur believes will yield a profit” (p. 18).

Alvarez and Barney (2007) contrast Schumpeter’s (1934b) creation and Kirzner’s (1973) discovery and theory which are the two most discussed schools of thoughts on opportunities. Kirzner (1973) on the one hand advocates that an alert individual who firstly possesses “... the ability to notice ... opportunities that have hitherto been overlooked” (p. 48) and secondly gains differential access to already available information can discover a priori objectively and independently existent opportunities (Drucker, 1985; Eckhardt & Shane, 2003; Kirzner, 1973; Phillips McDougall, Shane, & Oviatt, 1994; Ray & Cardozo, 1996; Shane, 2003). The entrepreneur equilibrates markets with Kirznerian arbitrage-type opportunities (Anokhin, Wincent, & Autio, 2011; Shane, 2003). Schumpeter (1934b) on the other hand suggests that an entrepreneur – as a creative innovator – constructs opportunities mentally and socially based on new information that becomes available to the entrepreneur as a result of environmental transformations, e.g., new regulations, technologies or trends (Sarasvathy, 2001, 2001; Shane, 2003). In summary, Schumpeter-type opportunities relate to rare but novel opportunities with a disequilibrating function for markets in comparison to Kirzner-type opportunities which occur frequently and have a somewhat imitative character with an equilibrating function for markets (Shane, 2003). Scholars increasingly agree that both types of opportunities exist (Anokhin et al., 2011; Edelman & Yli-Renko, 2010; Grégoire, Shepherd, & Schurer Lambert, 2010; Mainela, Puhakka, & Servais, 2014a) and represent the endpoints of what I call the ‘opportunity continuum’ rather than distinct categories. As Figure 3.1 shows, this continuum ranges from less innovative, common Kirznerian opportunities to highly innovative, rare Schumpeterian opportunities.

Figure 3.1 The Opportunity Continuum

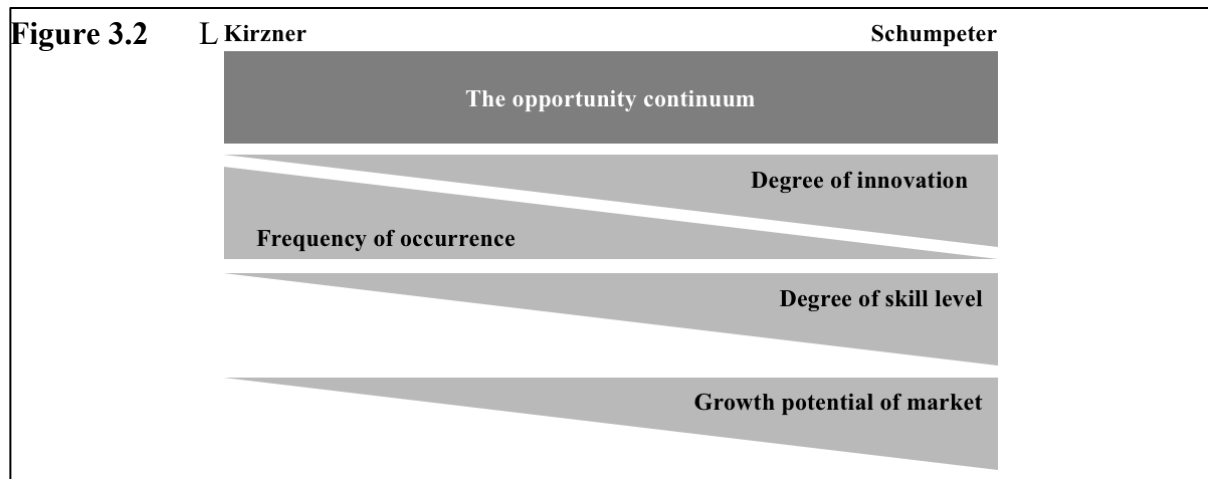
Source: Own depiction based on Shane (2003).

Linking the opportunity continuum to the definition of OI, DeTienne and Chandler (2007) show the interconvertible utilization of the terms opportunity recognition, identification, and creation in the literature. In their view, opportunity recognition rather relates to Kirzner-type opportunities while opportunity creation rather relates to Schumpeter-type opportunities. Hence, they suggest using OI as the term encompasses of all types of opportunities within the opportunity continuum of Figure 3.1 which seems to be a valid approach for this paper.

OI is defined “as efforts to make sense of signals of change (e.g., new information about new conditions) to form beliefs regarding whether or not enacting a course of action to address this change could lead to net benefits (for instance, in terms of profits, growth, competitive jockeying, and/or other forms of individual or organizational gains)” by Grégoire, Barr, & Shepherd (2010a, p. 415). OI is an iterative, multidimensional (Hansen, Lumpkin, et al., 2011; Lumpkin & Lichtenstein, 2005b) cognitive process of alert individuals (Baron, 2004), which is predicated on psychological schemes, pattern recognition processes, and cognitive heuristics and prompted by external causes as, e.g., new regulations, technologies or particular market conditions (Baron, 2006b; Gaglio, 2004a; Gaglio & Katz, 2001b). Individuals conclude the OI process with a personal belief in the existence or non-existence of an opportunity (Grégoire et al., 2010a, 2010b; Shepherd, McMullen, & Jennings, 2007).

While the Schumpeterian and Kirznerian perspectives have different implications for OI (Shane, 2003), their common and central element is the individual’s divergent access to knowledge (Ardichvili, Cordozo, & Ray, 2003; Ray & Cardozo, 1996). Also, the contrasting views above illustrate that individual’s interaction with their environment influences OI (Dimov, 2007a; George, Parida, Lahti, & Wincent, 2016). On this account, Welter (2011) and Dimov (2007a, 2011) emphasize the importance of considering an individual’s context in entrepreneurship research.

It is important to mention that most articles in the migrant entrepreneurship literature link opportunities that migrants pursue predominantly to Kirznerian opportunities (Basu, 2006). Kloosterman (2010) argues, though, that migrants in urbanized developed economies pursue different types of opportunities depending on their contextual embeddedness in combination with their resources. By matching the supply in terms of individuals' resources to the demand side with respect to the growth potential of markets, Kloosterman (2010) maps out 4 quadrants of entrepreneurial opportunities for migrant entrepreneurs to pursue: (i) highly-skilled migrants in stagnating markets, (ii) low-skilled migrants in stagnating markets, (iii) low-skilled migrants in expanding markets, and (iv) highly-skilled migrants in expanding markets. While especially quadrants (ii) and (iii) and partially (i) exemplify Kirzner-type opportunities, Kloosterman (2010) argues that highly-skilled migrants in stagnating markets only have a slim chance of survival but moving to expanding markets in the fourth quadrant allows for Schumpeterian entrepreneurship. This argument allows for linking opportunities identified by migrants to the opportunity continuum above which Figure 3.2 further presents. Figure 3.2, thereby, opens the space to discuss opportunities ranging from Kirznerian to Schumpeterian opportunities in relation to migrant entrepreneurship.



Source: Own depiction inspired by Shane (2003) and Kloosterman (2010).

The following two sections combine different sociological strands of theory to derive contextual and individual factors that explain the decision to migrate. Then, the application of the concept of mixed embeddedness as well as Bourdieu's theories of practice and capital will help to explain individual differences in migrants' OI.

3.3.2 Contextual and Individual Factors Leading to the Decision to Migrate

The decision to migrate can be explained using two related perspectives from the migration literature, namely, the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) and migration as a household livelihood strategy (De Haas, 2010). Within NELM migration is seen as a result of risk-sharing behavior of households or families rather than an individual. The aim of migration is (i) to diversify the household's resource portfolio (e.g., labor and resulting income) in order to maximize household income and spread income risk (Stark & Levhari, 1982); and/or (ii) to overcome restrictions with regard to economic activities or investments in the place of origin (De Haas, 2010).

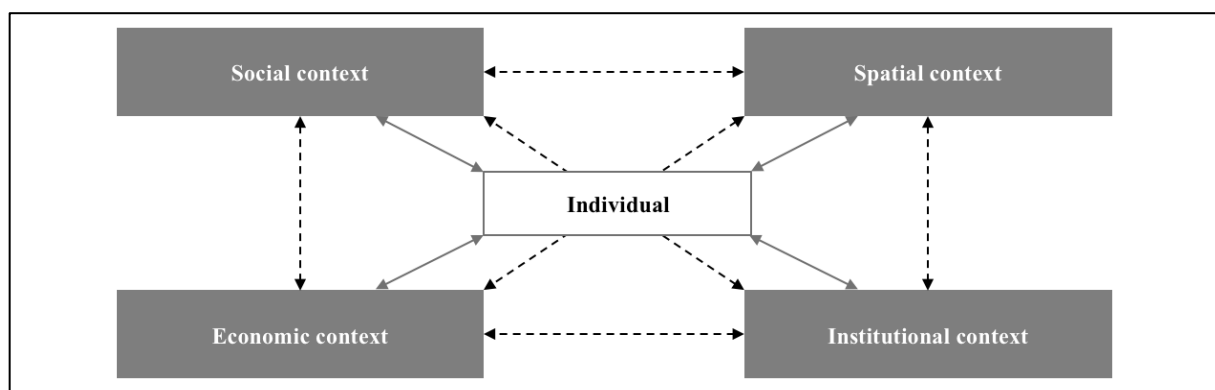
In the perspective of migration as a household livelihood strategy, livelihood encompasses material, social and human resources and activities which secure the requirements of living (Carney, 1998; De Haas, 2008). A livelihood strategy is defined as “a deliberate choice of a combination of activities by households and their members to maintain, secure, and improve their livelihoods” (De Haas, 2010, p. 244). This strategy will likely take into account the actors' aspirations, and perception of relative income- and wealth-generating opportunities and access to resources in the home and host location. One may evaluate migration in this regard as a means of diversifying, securing or in the long-run improving a household's standard of living (De Haas, 2008; Ellis, 1998).

De Haas (2010) shows that both perspectives are closely linked to each other and argues that when integrating both concepts to international and regional in-migration respectively, one may evaluate migration as a broader household livelihood strategy in order to diversify income. However, whole households do not necessarily migrate but rather those household members who are regarded as best-suited to pursue the risk-sharing strategy or improvement of a household's livelihood condition (Stark & Levhari, 1982). This paper, therefore, recognizes the role of the household in an individual's decision to migrate, while focusing on the migrating individual for the remainder of this paper.

Integrating both perspectives, De Haas (2008) argues that the complex interplay of social, economic and institutional context factors may constrain an individual's livelihood in their place of origin (i.e., spatial context) and lead to the decision to migrate. Relatedly, Martin & Taylor (1996) have identified the so-called migration hump, according to which emigration increases once a country has achieved a certain degree of development because individuals only then possess the necessary capital – be it financial or educational for instance – to leave their

home country. They argue that migration decreases gradually only after the achievement of later stages of development since individuals then perceive a satisfactory degree of development leading to a livelihood they would like to pursue. Development in this context relates not only to economic, institutional or demographic development but also comprises the Bourdieusian human, social, economic and cultural capital that individuals can draw from (De Haas, 2008, 2010). Viewing the individual with their capitals as embedded within their contextual square as presented in Figure 3.3, we can see why individuals might decide to migrate. For example, individuals with a given set of capitals and aspirations may see their chances of achieving their aspired livelihood in their home country as low, given the current trajectory of its development (De Haas, 2005; Marchand & Siegel, 2014), but more positive elsewhere. This assumption may, for example, be a result of information received from emigrants through their social network (De Haas, 2010). When this happens, individuals may look for a better location to migrate to in order to pursue these potential opportunities and improve their livelihood (De Haas, 2010; Yankow, 2003).²

Figure 3.3 The Contextual Square: The Individual and their Opportunity Structure as Extended Mixed Embeddedness



Source: Own illustration inspired by Kloosterman (2000, 2010), Kloosterman et al. (1999), De Haas (2010), and Welter (2011).

The contextual square is conceptually similar to what Bourdieu (1977) calls ‘field’; i.e., the social context within which an individual operates (Davis, 2014; McNay, 1999; De Haas, 2010). Not only does the individual’s positioning within but also its interaction with the field (or

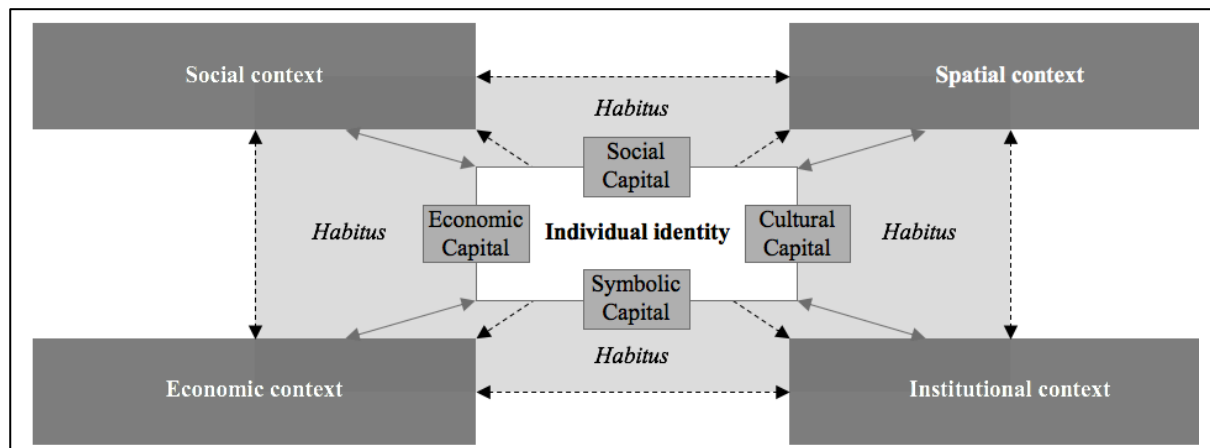
² The theories used to explain migration above relate predominantly to economic migrants which resemble the most significant share of all international migrants, while refugees and asylum seekers, for instance, account for 25.9 million or 10.1% of all international migrants (United Nations, 2017; UNHCR, 2018). When considering different migrant groups in more detail (e.g., forcibly displaced people or refugees in particular) other theories or additional aspects may have to be considered to explain their decisions to migrate.

possibly multiple fields, as Bourdieu (1977) points out) reflexively and transformatively form an individual's social identity (McNay, 1999; Mead, 1934; Stets & Burke, 2000; Wry & York, 2017) while its transformation is a gradual process as Reay (2009) emphasizes. Stoyanov (2017) defines social identity as a “system of shared cognition, language, and behavior, ... [which, *note of the author*] can serve as an interpretative system” (p. 2) of the field. The enactment of the internalized social identity within the field (Jenkins, 2014), is what Bourdieu (1977) calls ‘habitus’. In other words, habitus may be interpreted as a mediator between individual identity and the field (McNay, 1999) and represents an embodied sense of codes of behavior as well as options for action within the field (Pret, Shaw, & Drakopoulou Dodd, 2016; Sewell Jr, 2005; Tatli, Vassilopoulou, Özbilgin, Forson, & Slutskaya, 2014). Habitus, therefore, has a temporal dimension and is field- and individual-specific and so may adapt if an actor enters a different field or if the field itself changes (De Clercq & Voronov, 2009; McNay, 1999).

The dynamic, bilateral interaction between an individual and its contextual square (Welter, 2011) is additionally influenced by what Bourdieu (1986) calls ‘capital’. Capital – defined as “social resources, power, or energy” by Patel & Conklin (2009, p. 1049) – is embodied within individuals (Bourdieu, 1986), who – directed by their habitus – compete for capitals in order to gain a dominant position in the field (De Clercq & Voronov, 2009; Drakopoulou-Dodd, McDonald, McElwee, & Smith, 2014). Individuals can acquire and amass different types of capital, which Bourdieu (1986) distinguishes more precisely into economic, social, cultural (including human capital), and symbolic capital. Economic capital relates to tangible and intangible (e.g., intellectual property) assets, savings, as well as income (Pret et al., 2016) and is at the root of the other three types of capital as economic capital can – at a certain transformational effort or cost – be converted into the other types of capitals (Bourdieu, 1986). Social capital, Bourdieu (1986), argues, “is the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintances ...” (p. 21). Furthermore, he distinguishes cultural capital into three states: (i.) long-lasting individual dispositions (i.e., embodied state), (ii.) cultural goods (i.e., objectified state), (iii.) education qualifications (i.e., institutionalized state) while the latter relates to Becker's (1964) widely accepted concept of human capital. Pret et al. (2016) exemplify that the last form of capital, symbolic capital, can be created through the accumulation of social and cultural capital and includes reputation, prestige, publicity and tangible symbols of accomplishment (e.g., diplomas, trophies, and awards).

The field may strongly influence the distribution of the different types, forms and amount of capital across individuals (Bourdieu, 1986; De Haas, 2010; Pret et al., 2016). And because field, identity, habitus, and capital will differ individually, it follows that the contextual square – which Figure 3.4 below further develops – has a flexible form for each individual with a unique cognitive “map” with which individuals navigate their environment (Dimov, 2007b; Stryker & Burke, 2000; Wry & York, 2017).

Figure 3.4 The Contextual Square: A Dynamic Interplay Between Contextual Factors Influencing an Individual and its Capitals in the Home Country



Source: Own depiction inspired by Bourdieu (1977, 1986), De Haas (2010), Kloosterman (2000, 2010), Kloosterman et al. (1999), and Welter (2011).

Applying Bourdieu’s theory of practice to the experience of migration, an individual might decide to migrate if the field constrains the distribution of and competition for the desired degree of capital accumulation. As Drori, Honig, & Wright (2009) have suggested in their study on transnational entrepreneurs, migrants possess a home country habitus which is built on prior experiences and knowledge and, hence, functions as a discrete information source (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Radulov & Shymanskyi, 2014). When gradually transformed in the new host country field into the host country habitus, elements of the home country habitus will remain and offer distinctive ways to interpret new information in their new host country field (Schneider, 1989; and see Article 3 of this dissertation).

3.3.3 Contradicting Home and Host Country Contextual Squares leading to Opportunity Identification

To gain their aspired degree of capital accumulation or improve their livelihoods, migrants often take on job-related opportunities (De Haas, 2010). A low degree of fit between job and qualification (Levie, 2007a) and labor market discrimination (Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; Light & Rosenstein, 1995; Pütz, Schreiber, & Welp, 2007) often disallow migrants to achieve

their goals in the intended manner wherefore migrants open the space for alternative options, including entrepreneurship (Hart & Acs, 2011; Kloosterman et al., 1999; Waldinger et al., 1990).

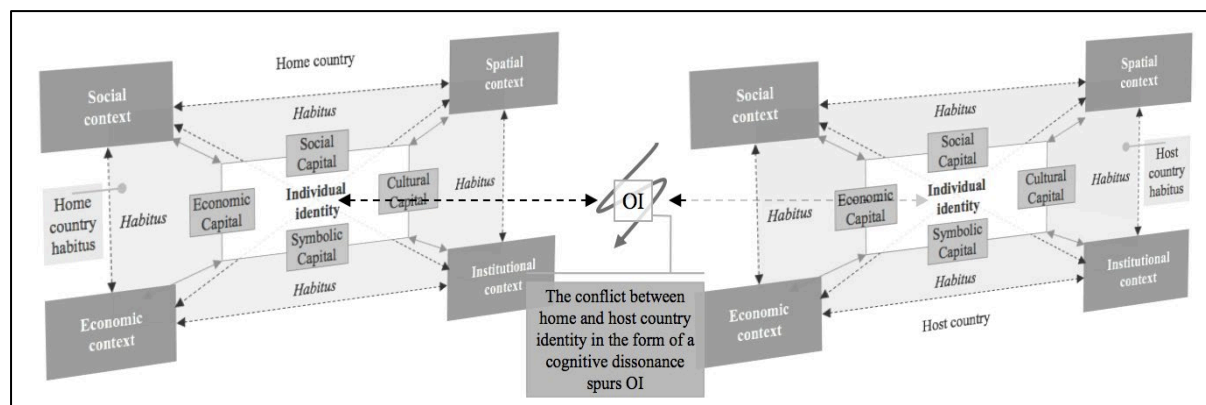
Kloosterman et al. (1999) introduced the approach of mixed embeddedness to explain how migrants became entrepreneurs in economies like the Netherlands. This concept builds on Polanyi (1957) and Granovetter (1985) who argued that economic activities are not autonomous but constrained by economic as well as non-economic institutions, and thus, are *embedded* in a socio-cultural and political context. Kloosterman et al. (1999) further developed the embeddedness concept by introducing the social role of groups of individuals with similar cultural heritage.

Mixed embeddedness populates the host country field construct with *social, economic* and *institutional* context factors. The complex, dynamic interplay between these three contexts forms so-called opportunity structures (Waldinger et al., 1990) within which individuals are positioned (Kloosterman et al., 1999). It recognizes three levels of analysis: micro (the individual); meso (the community surrounding the individual) and macro (the broader societal context, at a regional or national level). The opportunity structure represents market conditions and scope for business creation and ownership at the meso level (community) of analysis, although macro-level institutions such as business regulations, for example, may influence it. If one applies “*interactionist* approaches whereby agency and structure are linked in a meaningful way ... [then, *note from the author*] agency is seen as reflexive actor” (Kloosterman, 2010, p. 33), and we can place the individual at the micro level as one who may identify or shape opportunities within the opportunity structure at the meso level.

Furthermore, this paper adds Welter's (2011) call for considering the spatial context (e.g., geographic or urban versus rural regions) in entrepreneurship research into this line of argument, which is of considerable importance as it influences the social, economic and institutional context and hence individual action. The contextual square in Figure 3.3 is, therefore, a depiction of an advanced model of mixed embeddedness, where their social, economic, institutional, and spatial context influences an individual's action. In this view, the individual may be constrained but also enabled by the opportunity structure within which they are embedded, supporting our theoretical reasoning of migration above.

Dimov (2007b) argues that opportunities need to be seen within the context in which they arise. Thereby, a significant spur to OI is environmental change (Stevenson & Gumpert, 1985); for a migrant, moving from home to host country amounts to a significant environmental or contextual change. In Bourdieusian terms, migrants perceive inconsistencies between old and new fields resulting in a dissonance between old and new or to be adapted habitus as the home country habitus – or their known sense-making mechanisms and behavioral patterns – may not be (entirely) applicable to the new field (Radulov & Shymanskyi, 2014). The dissonance activates individuals to find a resolution (Bourdieu, 1990, 1999) and if they are to operate within the new field, they will require a new habitus, although they may never lose (at least parts of) their home country habitus and identity (Basu, 2006; Dobbin, 2005). Migrants can perceive this state as an identity conflict in terms of cognitive dissonance (Davis, 2014; Lorenz, Ramsey, & Richey, 2018), which Festinger (1962) defines as a psychologically uncomfortable state that individuals attempt to alter. One may visualize this as a lack of comfortable fit between the individual's home and host country habitus, which in turn is a consequence of their different fields. To illustrate this, Figure 3.5 depicts the two fields as imperfectly coinciding advanced mixed embeddedness or contextual squares. This lack of fit allows for combining new information and idiosyncratic knowledge from the old and new field which then serves as a source of information asymmetries and may lead to OI (Radulov & Shymanskyi, 2014; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

Figure 3.5 Conflicting Contextual Squares of Home and Host Country Leading to OI



Source: Own depiction inspired by ideas from Bourdieu (1977, 1986), De Haas (2010), Kloosterman (2000, 2010), Kloosterman et al. (1999), and Welter (2011).

Figure 3.5 illustrates that the theoretical modeling allows for explaining a migrant-specific source of OI and that clashes between fields may not occur in non-migrants if they stay in their residential areas throughout their lives (Levie, 2007; Levie & Hart, 2011). Furthermore, Figure 3.5 may be related to the above discussion on the types of opportunities migrant entrepreneurs

identify. As Kloosterman (2010) clarified, migrant entrepreneurs' opportunities are a function of the interplay between individual resources and context (or in Bourdieusian terms: between capitals and field). Applying this to the theoretical argumentation above, the degree of innovation with regards to migrants' opportunities should depend on three aspects: a) on the degree of quality of the contextual factors, b) the amount of capital an individual can acquire, and c) the intensity of the clash between the different field.

The model above tries to address the call by migrant entrepreneurship researchers for the development of a theoretical model that helps to explain differences in OI between migrants and non-migrant (cf. e.g., Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015). In this model, I tried to address the complex dynamics between individual and contextual factors that spur OI for migrants in a unique manner.

Before empirically testing this theoretical model, I conduct a systematic literature review (SLR) on OI of migrant entrepreneurs as a first step to verify the model. The next section will explain the data and methods used to conduct the SLR and map the findings against the theoretical model. A discussion of the results will follow afterward and identify the limits of as well as areas of further improvement for the model depicted in Figure 3.5 before ending with concluding remarks.

3.4 Data and Methods

SLRs are regarded as an appropriate method within entrepreneurship research (George et al., 2016; Jones, Coviello, & Tang, 2011). This SLR leans on Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart's (2003) recommendations for conducting such a process along different stages and phases to ensure a replicable process. Appendix 3.1 highlights the different phases of this SLR in detail. As migrant entrepreneurs' OI just recently began to attract research interest (cf., Figure 3.6 below) and is discussed by different disciplines (e.g., sociology, economics, business studies, geography, etc.; cf., Figure 3.7 below), I included a wide range of migrant- (e.g., migrant, migrant, in-migrant, transnational, expatriate, etc.), migrant-entrepreneur/-ship- (e.g., migrant/migrant/ethnic entrepreneurship/enterprise/start-up, etc.) and OI- (e.g., opportunity identification/recognition/creation/perception, etc.) related terms (cf., Appendix 3.1) into the keyword search. The different disciplines apply different terms in their scientific discussions or

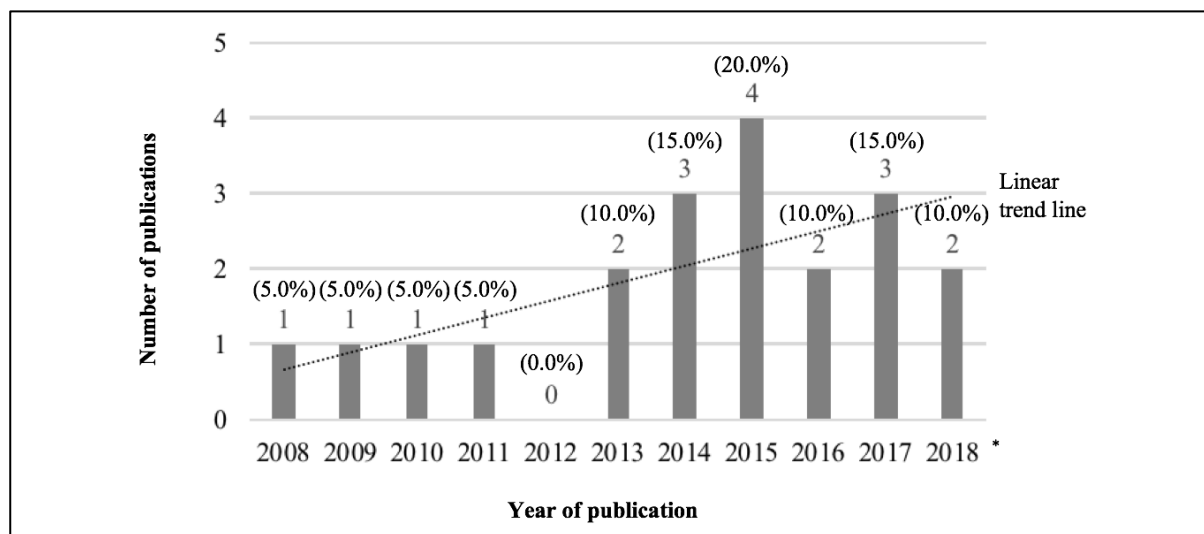
use similar terms yet with different connotations. Furthermore, one may argue that especially the term ‘opportunity’ can be applied in multiple contexts with different meanings.

I conducted the keyword search by developing keyword clusters (e.g., migrant, migrant, refugee, ethnic, forced migrant, transnational, foreign-born, expatriate, diaspora; cf. Appendix 3.1 for detailed cluster descriptions). An ‘OR’ function, then, combined the terms within the keyword clusters. The ‘AND’ function subsequently combined the clusters to receive articles related to the overall topic of migrant entrepreneur’s OI. The articles stem from EBSCO’s Business Source complete (1886 – May 4, 2018) and Web of Science (1956 – May 4, 2018). I accepted all resulting English-written articles and excluded articles from journals not listed in the Social Science Citation Index as well as double listed articles retrieved from both databases which resulted in 208 articles. Of the 208 articles, each abstract was thoroughly read and color-coded according to relevant keywords, migration backgrounds, the location of study, and applied methods. Each article was assessed and classified according to their direct relevance and applicability to the topic. Articles were classified a) “yes” if they were clearly related to migrant entrepreneurs *and* OI (or related keyword, cf., Appendix 3.1), b) “no, indirect” if they were either related to migrant entrepreneurs *or* OI or only indirectly mentioned the relationship in focus or c) “no” if the article was not related to any aspect of the relationship in focus. This process was conducted twice to reduce interpretation errors and resulted in 23 articles classified “yes”, 28 articles classified “no, indirect”, and 157 articles classified “no”. For the remaining 23 articles, a reading guide was developed (cf. Appendix 3.2), and each article was read carefully and analyzed accordingly. Through this process three articles formerly classified as “yes” were classified “no, indirect”, leading to a total of 20 articles remaining in the SLR. The 20 remaining articles were furthermore analyzed against a mapping tool (cf. Tables 3.1 and 3.2) to analyze to which degree each article related to aspects of the theoretical model.

3.5 Analysis and Findings

3.5.1 Descriptive Analysis

Figure 3.6 demonstrates that this research topic has only been picked up since 2008. Although only a small number of articles have been published on the topic in focus, the linear trend line in Figure 3.6 shows an increase in the number of publications over the past ten years. The topic seems to have attracted more research interest from 2013 onwards.

Figure 3.6 Number of Publications in Count and Percent (N=20; *as of May 4, 2018)

Source: Own analysis based on articles listed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 presents an overview of the 20 articles analyzed in this SLR. Of the 20 articles, 12.5% are conceptual papers and 87.5% are empirical studies.³ Table 3.1 also shows that most studies applied the focus term migrant or migrant entrepreneur. Some studies used more than one term or even various terms (e.g., paper no. 4) and used them interchangeably. Table 3.1, furthermore, exemplifies that different migrant or ethnic groups were sampled to analyze migrant entrepreneurs' OI in more detail.

Of the empirical studies, 54.3% were qualitative and 45.7% quantitative studies.⁴ Thereof, most studies were conducted in Europe (42.9%) and the other studies were conducted in Oceania or Asia (17.1% each), the Americas (11.4%), Africa (5.7%) or globally (5.7%).⁵ Two studies (11.4%) did not contain a location specification.

³ In cases where two study types applied (e.g., when a qualitative and quantitative method was applied), I weighted each study type with a factor of 0.5 to calculate the percentages, overall adding up to 100.0%.

⁴ Again, in cases where two study types applied (e.g., when a qualitative and quantitative method was applied), I weighted each study type with a factor of 0.5 to calculate the percentages, overall adding up to 100.0%. This also lead to a total count of 13.5 empirical studies.

⁵ In cases where two geographic regions were under analysis (e.g., Europe and Asia), I weighted each region with a factor of 0.5 to calculate the percentages, overall adding up to a total of 14 (100.0%).

Table 3.1 Overview of Articles Examined in the Systematic Literature Review

Paper No.	Author, year	Type of study	Terms used for entrepreneur type									Studied sample of (group of entrepreneurs)	Location of study (if applicable)	Geographic region ^c	Theories used in article
			Conceptual	Empirical Qual. ^a Quant. ^b	In-migrant (Im-)Migrant	Transnational	Diaspora	Expatriate	Refugee	Ethnic	Return migrant				
1	Aliaga-Isla, 2014			X	X							Migrants, general	Spain	Europe	Human capital theory
2	Bodolica & Spraggon, 2015		X					X				Western female expatriates	UAE	Asia	Discovery and creation view
3	Bizri, 2017			X					X			Refugee	Lebanon	Asia	Social capital theory
4	Emontspool & Servais, 2017	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	N/A	N/A	N/A	Various (Ethnic Entrepreneur-ship, Middlemen minorities, etc.)
5	Griffin-EL & Olabisi, 2018		X		X							Africa migrants	South Africa	Africa	Structuration theory
6	Hugo, 2014		X	X	X				X			Refugees, general	Australia	Oceania	Segmented assimilation
7	Korsgaard, Ferguson, & Gaddefors, 2015		X		X							Danish in-migrants	Islands of Denmark	Europe	(Mixed) embeddedness, spatial context
8	Lassalle & McElwee, 2016		X		X					X		Polish migrants	UK	Europe	Mixed embeddedness, spatial context
9	Lorenz, Ramsey, & Richey, 2018		X	X				X				Expatriates, general	USA	Americas	Experiential learning theory
10	Mayer & Meili, 2016		X		X	X						Im- and in-migrants	Switzerland	Europe	N/A
11	Pathak, Laplume, & Xavier-Oliveira, 2013			X						X		Ethnics, general	13 transition economies (Croatia, Russia, etc.)	Europe, Asia	General and ethnic entre-preneurship theory, ethnic fractionalization
12	Saxenian & Sabel, 2009	X	X		X		X					Migrants, general	Taiwan	Asia	Diaspora networks
13	Sequeira, Carr, & Rasheed, 2009			X	X	X						Latino transnationals	USA	Americas	Typology of transnational firm types, planned behavior
14	Smans, Freeman, & Thomas, 2014			X	X							Italia migrants	Australia	Oceania	Social network theory
15	Soydas & Aleti, 2015		X		X							Turkish migrants	Australia	Oceania	Migrant entrepreneurship
16	Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015	X			X							N/A	N/A	N/A	Human, cultural, social, economic capital

Table to be continued on next page

Table 3.1 *Continued: Overview of Articles Examined in the Systematic Literature Review*

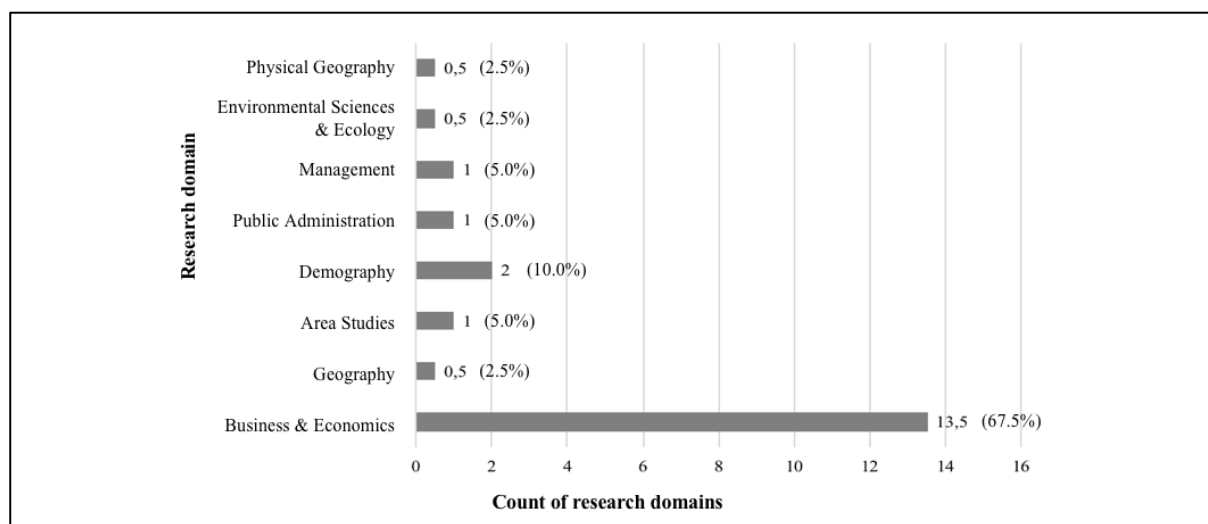
Paper No.	Author, year	Type of study		Studied sample (group of entrepreneurs)								Studied sample (group of entrepreneurs)	Location of study (if applicable)	Geographic region ^c	Theories used in article
		Conceptual	Empirical	In-migrant	(Im-)Migrant	Transnational	Diaspora	Expatriate	Refugee	Ethnic	Return migrant				
17	Urbano, Toledano, & Ribeiro-Soriano, 2011	X		X	X							Various (Moroccan, Chinese, etc.)	Spain	Europe	Institutional economics
18	Vaaler, 2013		X	X			X					Migrant diasporas	Global	Global	Transaction Cost Economics
19	Vandor & Franke, 2016		X	X				X			X	Migrants, return-migrants, general	Austria	Europe	Migrant, expatriate, international entrepreneurship; Discovery and creation view
20	Vinogradov & Jørgensen, 2017		X	X								Migrants	Norway	Europe	Resource-based view, human and financial capital

Notes: *X* = directly mentioned; *a* Qualitative; *b* Quantitative; *c* Regions allocated according to the UN Statistics Division (United Nations, 2018a)

Source: Own analysis based on papers mentioned in column 'Author (Year)'.

The last column of Table 3.1 gives an overview of the theories applied in these studies which shows that theories from different disciplines are applied and regarded as suitable to explain the phenomenon of migrant entrepreneurs' OI. Theories from sociology (e.g., migrant entrepreneurship, middleman minorities or human and social capital theory) entrepreneurship research (e.g., discovery and creation theory), psychology (e.g., experiential learning theory), economics (e.g., institutional economics or transaction cost economics) or management research (e.g., resource-based view) were applied in these articles. Figure 3.7 additionally analyzes the research domains that are attached to the journals in which these articles were published and exemplifies a wide range of domains which attract the research topic of interest. Most articles (67.5%) were published in business and economics related journals which may be explained with the focus on OI and its scientific origin in entrepreneurship research (cf., e.g., George et al., 2016).

Figure 3.7 Research Domains of Publications in Count and Percent (N=20)



Notes: Some journals of the 20 articles had two attached research domains. To calculate the percentages, double research domain entries were weighted by the factor 0.5.

Source: Own analysis based on articles listed in Table 3.1.

3.5.2 Analysis of Findings

To analyze the articles of the SLR against the theoretical model developed above, I developed a mapping tool based on the reading guide (cf., Appendix 3.2). Table 3.2 presents the results of the mapping tool which begins with analyzing the terms used in the articles concerning OI.

Most articles apply the terms OI and opportunity recognition, but it becomes apparent that most of the articles use these and other terms interchangeably without defining them and making a clear distinction between the opportunity outcomes related to the term. Only articles 15, 19, and

20 make a direct connection between the terms and Kirznerian or Schumpeterian outcomes, which paper 19 exemplifies:

“The content of each interview log was rated independently by two coders (Krippendorff, 2004; Stemler, 2001) who determined whether two particular types of cognitive strategies had been applied: (1) the use of cross-cultural knowledge about customer problems, markets, and ways to serve them in the discovery of Kirznerian arbitrage opportunities, and (2) the application of such knowledge for the purpose of Schumpeterian creative recombination” (Vandor & Franke, 2016, p. 397).

When analyzing home country related context factors, it becomes clear that they are of relevance within the articles, yet, are only touched upon infrequently (in comparison to host-country-related capitals). If articles mention them, they mostly focus on the institutional or economic context of migrant entrepreneurs. For example, paper 14 states that “... immigrant entrepreneurs have existing knowledge of the [country of origin’s, *note from the author*] economic and political environment” (Smans et al., 2014, p. 149). Paper 8 furthermore explains:

“In addition Polish [ethnic minority entrepreneurs, *note from the author*] EMEs compare the Scottish opportunity structure with the situation of entrepreneurs in Poland: If I compare my situation of entrepreneur in Poland to the one here, I must say that it was a very good surprise for me. In Scotland, you do not need to pay to start your own business. You do not need to worry. In comparison, there is a huge number of documents needed plus multiple costs ... Here I can improvise. This system encourages businesses. D. Bookshop.” (Lassalle & McElwee, 2016, p. 271).

The picture looks different when looking at individual related factors in the home country, especially when focusing on individual capitals. Paper 16 mentions that “migrant’s social capital has been studied as the various ties or relations they have in their host and home countries (Zhou, 2004; Jack & Anderson, 2002)” (Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015, p. 37). Paper 2, for example, relates to cultural capital in the home country with the following statement:

“Having completed a design course at school, Georgie Hearson pursued photography as a higher national diploma. She assumed various short-term jobs until she uncovered an opportunity to work with British Broadcasting Corporation that commissioned photographers for different programs. In 1999, Georgie followed her husband to Malaysia ...” (Bodolica & Spraggon, 2015, p. 988).

The articles discussed here put a clear focus on social and cultural capital regarding individual home country related factors. Individual identity or habitus resulting from the home country do not play a significant role in the analyzed articles.

When turning to host country related factors, there is an apparent shift towards a broader recognition of both, context and individual related factors. The articles infrequently mention spatial context, but paper 2 exemplifies this in the following manner: “[s]he started managing the magazine from home, keeping the physical office in the Ras al Khaimah free zone” (Bodolica & Spraggon, 2015, p. 989). Paper 7 furthermore exemplifies the focus on spatial context with the following quote:

“From the coding of the local spatial context we develop the concept of placial embeddedness to denote the entrepreneur’s knowledge and use of the physical, cultural, and historical landscapes on their respective islands, as well as the entrepreneur’s strong concern for the wellbeing of the local island communities” (Korsgaard et al., 2015, p. 4)

Social, economic, and institutional contexts are essential discussion elements within the articles. In paper 9, Lorenz et al. (2018) state that “research on creativity and the discovering of novel ideas has emphasized that creativity is a social process which goes beyond the central actor and includes the social environment (Perry-Smith, 2014; Zhou, Shin, Brass, Choi, & Zhang, 2009)” (p. 4). Furthermore, article 11 relates to the economic context by explaining that a “large shadow economy may draw in individuals with lower levels of opportunity recognition, while those with higher levels of opportunity recognition may be more readily able to spot opportunities in the official economy” (Pathak et al., 2013, p. 245). Lastly, paper 17 recognizes that “... at the macro level, existing studies have identified the impact of the institutional context in the host and the home country from a governmental point of view as well as from community perspective (Chen and Tan, 2009; Portes, 2003; Waldinger and Fitzgerald, 2004)” (Urbano et al., 2011, p. 122).

Table 3.2 Mapping the Reviewed Papers Against the Theoretical Model

Paper No.	Terms used related to OI					Type of opportunity		Home country related aspects									Host country related aspects													
								Context			Capital			Individual			Context			Capital			Individual							
	Recognition	Creation	Identification	Discovery	Perception	Other	Kirznerian	Schumpeterian	Social	Economic	Institutional	Spatial	Social	Cultural	Economic	Symbolic	Identity	Habitus	Social	Economic	Institutional	Spatial	Social	Cultural	Economic	Symbolic	Identity	Habitus	Identity conflict	Cognitive dissonance
1					X									(X)										X				(X)		
2		X		X		X	X	X					X	X			X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	(X)
3		X				X					X		X	X			X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	(X)
4	X	X	X					X				X	X	X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	(X)	(X)	(X)	(X)	(X)	(X)
5			X					(X)		X	X		X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	(X)	(X)
6										X	X			X						X	X			X	X	X		(X)	(X)	
7		X												X					X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		(X)	(X)	
8	X		X							X	X		X	X					X	X	X	X	(X)	X	(X)	X	X	X	(X)	(X)
9	X		X	X	X	X		X					X	X					X	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X	X
10	X						(X)		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		(X)	(X)	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	(X)	X	X	X
11	X																		X	X	X			X			(X)	(X)		
12			X					X		X			X	X					X	X			X	X	X	X		(X)		
13			X							X			X	X	X				X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
14	X		X	X				X	X	X	X	(X)	X	X					X	X	X	X		X	X	X		(X)		
15	X		X				X	X					X	X	X				X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	(X)	
16	X							X		X	X		X	X		X				X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	
17			X				(X)		X	X	X		X	X	X	X			X	X	X		X	X	X		(X)	(X)		
18			X	X				(X)						X					X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	(X)	(X)
19	X		X				X	X					X	X					X		X	X	X	X	X		(X)	(X)	X	(X)
20	X	X	X	X	X		X	X					X						(X)	X	(X)		(X)	X	X		(X)	(X)		(X)

Notes: X Explicitly mentioned or circumscribed; (X) Indirectly mentioned or only mentioned vaguely without detailed discussion

Source: Own analysis based on papers mentioned in Table 3.1.

When addressing the individual capitals in the host country, Table 3.2 shows that each article discusses cultural capital. Paper 6 highlights, for example, that

“[l]anguage barriers are especially important with 36.5 per cent of first generation refugee-humanitarian settlers rating themselves as not speaking English well or at all at the 2006 census. ... [But, *note from the author*] the unemployment rate decreases and labour force participation increases as proficiency in English increases” (Hugo, 2014, p. 36).

Furthermore, paper 4 mentions that

“[e]xpatriates for example have lived for longer periods of time in different contexts and possess the knowledge and contacts that enable them to engage in business activities across borders (Connelly, 2010). In one of these contexts, they identify advantageous opportunities corresponding to their novel knowledge or skills” (Emontspool & Servais, 2017, p. 272).

The latter quote exemplifies that it is also related to social capital which can be furthermore found in article 15, where Soydas & Aleti (2015, p. 157) discuss that

”[t]he strength of an “ethnic enclave” relates to the social capital supporting migrant entrepreneurs operating businesses in migrant neighbourhoods and serving the migrant community within the enclave as well as the broader economy (Zhou, 2004)”.

In paper 20, financial capital in the host country is related to OI by Vinogradov & Jørgensen, (2017, p. 222-223) by analyzing that “[t]he identification of international opportunities is therefore perceived as relatively more capital-intensive by native than by migrant entrepreneurs.” Finally, symbolic capital related to the host country gains a stronger emphasis in comparison to home country related symbolic capitals in these articles. Soydas & Aleti (2015, p. 161) examine “[i]mportant factors influencing the second-generation [migrants, *note from the author*] to become entrepreneurs [which, *note from the author*] relate to intrinsic motivators such as ambition, creative expression, autonomy and the need for status.” Saxenian & Sabel (2009) state the impact of host country symbolic capital in the following manner:

“[d]espite this attention to positive developmental impacts, much of the newer literature ... continues to treat the diaspora as an asset, valuable insofar as it adds to the home country’s stock of capital not through remittances, but in intellectual property or reputational capital or related forms of wealth” (p. 383).

Table 3.2 reveals evidence that some of the papers discuss the constructs of individual host country identity, habitus, identity conflict, and cognitive dissonance. However, the constructs are often not directly mentioned and rather circumscribed. In article 13, Sequeira et al. (2009)

relate to host country identity by saying that they “believe that the attitudes migrants hold toward their host country may influence their perception of opportunities ...” (p. 1025), whereby attitudes may be related to shared cognitions in the host country as part of the identity. Furthermore, Sundararajan & Sundararajan (2015) not only point to host country identity but also to habitus by emphasizing actions undertaken by migrants, which they formulate as follows: “[i]t must be noted that studies related to transmigrants, i.e., migrants who make decisions, take actions, and develop identities in social networks that connect them to two or more societies simultaneously (Schiller, Basch & Blanc-Szanton, 1992), ...” (p. 38). One might even argue that all articles mention host country related habitus when interpreting migrant entrepreneurship as a host country related behavior to navigate the new context. That is why all articles are marked with at least an indirect mentioning of habitus in the host country context. The analysis concerning identity conflict becomes a bit more challenging, as it is specific to the theoretical model but not commonly discussed in the literature. Nevertheless, article 2 exemplifies this with the following paragraph:

“Claire, who was expecting her first child, was confronted with many questions about doctors, pregnancy clothes, and maternity classes. Since she was not the only mother-to-be who was struggling with finding answers, Claire discovered the opportunity that objectively existed in the market. She was alerted to the opportunity (Kirzner, 1997) of starting a magazine that would gather all the information for expecting couples. With her background in public relations/retail and using the advice from a friend who formerly owned a publishing company, Claire decided to exploit the opportunity (Shane, 2003). Her motivation to start the business can be explained by pull factors derived from her personal interests (i.e. motherhood) and need for self-accomplishment (Itani et al. , 2011)” (Bodolica & Spraggon, 2015, p. 989).

The author’s most unexpected finding became evident in paper 7, which focuses on the aspect of cognitive dissonance. While this article explicitly mentions the aspect of cognitive dissonance in relation to migrant entrepreneurs’ OI, only three other papers touched upon this aspect indirectly. Lorenz et al. (2018) explain that

“[r]esearch on the impact of cognitive dissonance and creativity support the notion that novel ideas are generated during times of cognitive change and conflict. Expatriates likely undergo this cognitive conflict in the initial adaptation phase of the international assignment, resulting in an increase of creativity (Fee & Gray, 2012)” (p. 12).

The analysis of this SLR shows that the papers written on the research topic in focus touch upon all aspects of the theoretical model developed above. Thereby, some factors were discussed more thoroughly, as, for example, cultural capital from the home country or social capital in

the host country. Other factors were only mentioned rarely, as, for instance, the spatial context in the home country or identity conflict and cognitive dissonance in the host country. None of the papers included in the SLR discussed all aspects of the model or developed a similar theoretical model. The next section discusses the implications of these findings for the theoretical model, explain the limitations of the SLR and present avenues for future research.

3.6 Discussion

3.6.1 Implications for the Theoretical Model

The analysis of the SLR has different implications for the theoretical model derived above. First of all, papers 7 and 8 indicate in addition to the analysis above, that migrant entrepreneurs not only draw on home and host country related factors but potentially also on further contexts (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Lassalle & McElwee, 2016). Korsgaard et al. (2015) highlight in their discussion on regional in-migrants the use of non-regional networks to acquire financial capital or diverse knowledge and advice. Diverse contexts are also relevant for transnational or expatriate entrepreneurs, which do not only develop entrepreneurial activities between home and host countries but also focus on further contextual settings (Bodolica & Spraggon, 2015; Sequeira et al., 2009; Vinogradov & Jørgensen, 2017). These aspects indicate for the theoretical model, that comparing only two contextual squares might not be sufficient and that the cognitive dissonance between the contextual squares might even rely on more than two contextual settings.

Additionally, several papers in the SLR have indicated that the factors within the model may, on the one hand, need to be weighted to determine their effect of migrant entrepreneur's OI (Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015; Urbano et al., 2011; Vinogradov & Jørgensen, 2017). Questions which arise in this context are, for example, if cultural capital acquired in the home country is equally important than that acquired in the host country or whether symbolic capital has the same weight as social capital. On the other hand, one could also argue that only the relative magnitude of each factor is relevant for the model as some stronger valued factors may outweigh other undervalued factors. Overall, in-depth analysis of the relevance of factor weightings as well as a multiplicative or additive relationship between the factors with concerning the OI outcome is necessary.

Understanding the effect of each factor is additionally essential to determine the opportunity outcomes and whether Kirzner- or Schumpeter-type opportunities are likely to be related to the weighting of the factors. On that account, Lorenz et al. (2018) discuss in paper 13 how innovation is related to the capitals and cognitive as well as meta-cognitive capabilities of the individual. This line of argument indicates a need to potentially develop an even more profound understanding of the cognitive perspectives related to the OI outcomes for the theoretical model.

Furthermore, paper 9 suggests that it might be of importance to consider a distance measure between the contextual squares, for example in the form of a geographical (Smans et al., 2014) or even cultural distance measure (cf., Article 3 in this dissertation). The distance measure can influence the degree of contextual embeddedness in the host country, the capital accumulation options, and hence host country identity, habitus, the degree of identity conflict and consequently the degree of perceived cognitive dissonance. Also, Lassalle & McElwee (2016) hint at the fact that cultural proximity between co-ethnics in the host-country might function as a mediator for identity conflict. In addition to that, not only the cultural or geographic distance measure affects the number and types of opportunities identified by the migrant entrepreneur, the size, form, and quality of the social context and capital impacts those outcomes as well.

Moreover, articles 7 and 8 emphasize that the mixed embeddedness related opportunity structure is dynamic (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Lassalle & McElwee, 2016) while paper 17 incorporates the aspect of time in the analysis (Urbano et al., 2011). It might, therefore, be important to consider the aspect of time for the further development of the model as Hundt and Sternberg (2016) furthermore point out. Time may influence the structure of the contextual square and offer different contextual conditions for entrepreneurial opportunities (Waldinger et al., 1990). It may also influence the cultural assimilation of migrant entrepreneurs in the host country and, hence, determine, for example, the degree of capital accumulation or cognitive dissonance perceived in the host country (Smans et al., 2014; Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015).

In summary, it seems as if the theoretical model already covers a wide range of relevant factors and has the power to explain how the interaction between these factors leads to OI since single factors cannot be sufficient to explain migrant entrepreneur's OI (Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015). However, the discussion above has shown that the theoretical model has to, additionally, determine the relevance of further contextual squares, potentially consider weights of and the

mathematical interaction between single factors as well as the aspect of time, and potentially implement a distance measure between the contextual squares.

3.6.3 Implications for Policy and Practice

Albeit that this article does not yet comprise any empirical testing of the theoretical model on migrant entrepreneur's OI abilities, literature provides indications that some potential practical implications may arise from the theoretical model and results of the SLR. The development and initial SLR-check of the theoretical model is an attempt to draw attention to the unique potential migrant entrepreneurs can bring along instead of discussing migrant entrepreneurs' deficits only, which is frequently upheld in some scientific and but mostly public debates (Naudé et al., 2017). The reasoning behind the model may be used to influence public opinions on migrant entrepreneurs' potential when appropriately communicated. The theoretical reasonings of Chapter 3.2 may help to develop a better understanding regarding the potential innovativeness migrant entrepreneurs and their businesses can, which may impact economic systems in the host countries in the long run. Furthermore, it could influence the mindset of financiers of potential migrant entrepreneurs and businesses to reduce the often-cited discrimination concerning credit awards (Leicht et al., 2004; SdSIM, 2010). Lastly, the unique potential migrant entrepreneurs can bring along is a significant argument to convince local founding teams to include co-founders with migration backgrounds. This understanding may help to develop different perspectives on their identified opportunities but also use diverse skill sets to exploit these opportunities differently than others which may lead to competitive advantages.

3.6.2 Limitations

Despite the theoretical contribution in combination with the SLR-related outcomes improving the conceptual understanding for the further development of the theoretical model, this paper has some limitations. The theoretical model developed above is complex and includes a variety of different variables. The empirical testing of this model will prove as complex as some single variables, e.g., institutional context, will have to be constructed with several different sub-variables. These sub-variables will again need to be connected or even appropriately weighted to gain an appropriate balance concerning the overall variables and their connection among each other to not overrate single variables.

Another aspect, which needs attention, is that even though this model was developed to explain migrant-specific OI abilities, it might be applicable for the understanding of other

entrepreneurial activities. The shattering of the home and host country contextual squares may not only influence migrant-specific OI abilities but potentially also influence the development of different, potentially innovative, opportunity exploitation strategies. Therefore, it is essential to assess the fields of application for this model.

Furthermore, a single author conducted the SLR. This fact may lead to interpretation biases concerning the selection process of the articles, the content analysis of the articles based on the reading guide and mapping the papers against the theoretical model. Conducting the SLR with more than one author would have been advisable to reduce these biases (cf., Jones et al., 2011; Foss, Henry, Ahl, & Mikalsen, 2018).

In addition, the quality assurance process of the scientific articles included in the SLR may be debatable. The author included all articles that were listed in the Social Science Citation Index but did not impose a minimum requirement for impact factors of the related journals. The reasoning behind this relies on the fact that the research topic in focus is novel and, hence, imposing a minimum requirement for impact factors would have reduced the sum of the overall limited number of 20 articles included in the SLR. If all articles without an impact factor were excluded, only 16 articles would have remained in the review process. With an additional minimum requirement of an impact factor of 1.0, only 11 articles would have remained in the sample. Due to the novelty of the research topic, I decided to keep the impact barrier low to gain a broader understanding of the theoretical reasoning and studies conducted in this area.

Due to conducting the SLR based on EBSCO's Business Source Complete and Web of Science, books and book chapters were excluded. This is to be mentioned as a critical fact because most of the relevant and impactful literature in the past 45 years on migrant and ethnic entrepreneurship came from disciplines as, for example, sociology or geography which especially in earlier years focused on book rather than journal article publications (cf., e.g., Basu, 2006; Kloosterman, 2000; Light & Bonacich, 1988; Light & Rosenstein, 1995; Waldinger et al., 1990). Waldinger et al., for example, began to discuss opportunity structures in 1990 which is related to the theoretical modeling above. Therefore, the SLR may have missed some theoretical implications for the further development of the model. At the same time, it is necessary to balance this argument, since the results of the SLR excluded all articles that were not directly related to OI and migrant entrepreneurs. The SLR may have excluded the books and book chapters during the literature selection process of the SLR as OI generally does not play an explicit role, or no direct link between OI and migrant entrepreneurship exists, because

the topic has only gained scientific attention in the past ten years (see Figure 3.6). However, these books and book chapters have provided essential arguments for the development of the theoretical model.

Lastly, the above-drawn implications for policy and practice assume the verification of the theoretical model. Overall, these implications certainly need further close examination and empirical verification.

3.6.3 Suggestions for Future Research

From a theoretical perspective, it is crucial to understand further whether two or more contextual squares resemble the basis for migrant entrepreneur's OI. Also, theoretical reasonings need to be developed to potentially determine weights for single macro- (e.g., institutional or economic context) and micro-level (e.g., social or cultural capital) factors as well as whether and, if yes, how to include the aspect of time. Moreover, theories on relevant and appropriate distance measures between the contextual squares need to be evaluated to determine whether and how to include this into the model. For this purpose, further theories need to be considered from the sociological, entrepreneurship, geographic and psychological literature in order to decide upon the number of relevant contextual squares, factor weights, time-relevance and appropriate distance measures that relate to and generate the cognitive dissonance spurring OI in migrant entrepreneurs.

The SLR provided a diverse range of articles including conceptual as well as empirically qualitative and quantitative studies. The analysis of these different studies showed that the conceptual but especially the qualitative studies as, e.g., Bodolica & Spraggon's (2015) article provided in-depth information on different aspects of my theoretical model and even discussed factors of my model that were not in focus of their own research goals. On this account, it is important to develop a mixed methods approach to triangulate the findings from the different methods in the verification process of the theoretical model (Fayolle & Liñán, 2014). In a first step, one or more qualitative studies are therefore necessary to understand the impact of each factor mentioned in the model in more detail. While qualitative studies can only provide analytical results but no statistically generalizable results (Smans et al., 2014; Yin, 2009), quantitative studies subsequently need to be undertaken to verify whether the theoretical model generally finds application and an appropriate theory of migrant entrepreneur's OI can be deduced from it or not. Furthermore, the mixed-methods approach, as well as the triangulation of the findings, need to cater to the development or verification of appropriate factor weights

of the theoretical model. The model certainly needs to be appropriately connected to the number and types of opportunities migrant entrepreneurs identify.

Lastly, articles 14 and 17 among others, illustrate that the research topic in focus becomes more prominent in different research areas, while there still is only a small amount of exchange between the research areas (Smans et al., 2014; Urbano et al., 2011). It would, therefore, be fruitful to intensify the discussions between the different research fields and encourage interdisciplinary research collaborations to gain different perspectives on the topic.

3.7 Conclusion

This paper began with setting out two research questions for this paper. (i) Which factors influence migrant entrepreneur's OI? Moreover, (ii), how do these factors relate to each other to spur migrant entrepreneur's OI? This paper followed the recent calls in the literature to develop a theoretical model which explains the individual differences in migrant entrepreneur's OI and answered these two research questions. The paper approached the initial verification of this model with the conduct of an SLR including EBSCO's Business Source Complete and Web of Science on the research topic in focus. The SLR revealed that the model might contribute to the understanding of migrant entrepreneurs' distinct ability to identify opportunities. More importantly, the SLR disclosed that several aspects of the theoretical model need further elaboration. For example, it is necessary to understand if the number of relevant contextual settings which migrant entrepreneurs are embedded in and draw resources from might be larger than two and to which extend the factors included in the model need to be weighted. In summary, the SLR showed different pathways for future research to hopefully develop an appropriate theory from the model to explain migrant entrepreneurs' OI as well as the related OI outcomes which would strengthen the outlined potential practical implications.

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3.9 Appendix

Appendix 3.1 Methodological Procedure for Conducting the SLR

Step	Explanation	Result
<i>A</i>	<i>Planning identifying criteria for SLR</i>	
A.1.	Identify research gap and need for SLR	Introduction
A.2.	Development of a theoretical model to guide SLR	Theoretical framework
<i>B</i>	<i>Conducting the review</i>	
B.1.	Defining relevant keywords and keyword clusters	
B.1.1	<i>Individual related</i>	<i>Process/outcome related</i>
	Migra-tion/nt/s, immigra- tion/nt/s, in-migra-tion/nt/s	Entrepreneur/s/ship, entrepreneurial
	Return-migra-tion/nt/s	Self-employed/employment
	Refugee/s, Forced migrant/s	Start-up, start up, startup
	Ethnic, ethnicity, ethnical/ly	Business foundation
	Transnational/s	New business
	Expatriate/s	New enterprise
	Diaspora	Migrant business
		Starting a business
		Opportunity discovery/creation/ recognition/identification/ emergence/perception
B.2.1.	Cluster description and outcomes in Web of Science	
B.2.1.1	Cluster 1 migr* OR immig* OR refugee* OR ethni* OR forced migr* OR in-migra* OR return migra* OR expat* OR transnational* OR diaspora*	833,227 articles
B.2.1.2.	Cluster 2 business found* OR start-up OR startup OR start up OR new business* OR new enterprise* OR migrant business* OR entrepreneur* OR self-employ* OR starting a business	229,860 articles
B.2.1.3.	Cluster 3 Opportunity discovery OR opportunity creation OR opportunity recognition OR opportunity identification OR opportunity emergence OR opportunity perception	56,341 articles
B.2.1.4.	Cluster 4 Cluster 1 AND Cluster 2 AND Cluster 3	157 articles
B.2.2.	Cluster description and outcomes in EBSCO	
B.2.2.1.	Cluster 1 migr* OR immig* OR refugee* OR ethni* OR forced migr* OR in-migra* OR return migra* OR expat* OR transnational* OR diaspora*	195,025 articles
B.2.2.2.	Cluster 2 business found* OR start-up OR startup OR start up OR new business* OR new enterprise* OR migrant business* OR entrepreneur* OR self-employ* OR starting a business	264,545 articles
B.2.2.3.	Cluster 3 Opportunity discovery OR opportunity creation OR opportunity recognition OR opportunity identification OR opportunity emergence OR opportunity perception	4,233 articles
B.2.2.4.	Cluster 4 Cluster 1 AND Cluster 2 AND Cluster 3	63 articles
B.3	Total cluster 4 outcome from EBSCO and Web of Science (May 4, 2018)	220 articles
B.4.	Deleting doubled articles retrieved from EBSCO and Web of Science	- 12 articles
B.5.	Total number of articles in SLR process	= 208 articles
B.6.	Quality assessment of the articles	
	Each abstract was read by the author and colour coded to ensure that the article's abstract was related to the key-words (red) and if possible mentioned the migration background of the studied groups (purple), country where the study was conducted (green), applied methods for the study (blue). This process was conducted twice to ensure a proper article classification.	
B.6.1.	Abstracts that where clearly related to migrant (or related key-word) entrepreneur' OI (or related keyword) were classified "yes"	23 articles

Appendix 3.1 to be continued on next page

Appendix 3.1 *continued* Methodological Procedure for Conducting the SLR

Step	Explanation	Result
B.6.2.	Abstracts that where indirectly related to migrant (or related key-word) entrepreneur' entrepreneur' OI (or related keyword) were classified "no, indirect"	+ 28 articles
B.6.3.	Abstracts that did not at all relate to migrant (or related key-word) entrepreneur' OI (or related keyword) were classified "no"	+ 157 articles
	Total number of articles in SLR process	= 208 articles
B.6.4.	Each article classified "yes" was read by the author applying a specifically developed reading guide (cf. C.1.) and mapping tool (cf. C.2). Thereby, further 3 articles were excluded and classified as "no, indirect" as they only partially touched upon the topic of interest, e.g., the article only examined OI generally without deliberately focusing on migrant entrepreneurs or generally analysed migrant entrepreneurs without touching upon OI.	23 articles - 3 articles
	Total number of articles classified "yes" in SLR process	= 20 articles (Table 3.1)
C	<i>Data extraction and synthesis</i>	
C.1.	The author the developed a reading guide to thoroughly analyze and quote relevant passages to the SLR and the theoretical model	Appendix 3.2
C.2.	The author the developed a mapping tool to analyze to which degree each article relates to aspects of the theoretical model	Table 3.2

Source: Own protocol inspired by Tranfield et al. (2003).

Appendix 3.2 Reading Guide/Sheet of Analysis for Articles Classified “Yes” (Mapping Tool Base)

		Article number	
General Information	Title		
	Author(s)		
	Year		
	Journal		
	Volume		
	Issue		
	Pages		
		Characteristics	Description
Overview of study characteristics	Studied Sample		
	Studied Group		
	Location of Study		
	Geographic region of study		
	Keywords		
	Key Findings		
		Terms	Definition
Definitions			
		Aspects of analysis	Description and/or citations of findings
Home Country	Context related	Home country context	
		Social context	
		Economic context	
		Institutional context	
		Spatial context	
	Individual related	Capitals from home country	
		Social capital	
		Economic capital	
		Cultural capital	
		Symbolic capital	
		Home country habitus	
		Home country identity	
Host country	Context related	Host country context	
		Social context	
		Economic context	
		Institutional context	
		Spatial context	
	Individual related	Capitals in host country	
		Social capital	
		Economic capital	
		Cultural capital	
		Symbolic capital	
		Host country identiy	
		Host country habitus	
		Identity conflict	
		Cognitive dissonance	
Others	e.g., theories used		

Source: Own development of reading guide and sheet of analysis.

Article 2

**Home Country Effects on Opportunity Identification
by Migrants in the United Kingdom**

Daphne Hering and Jonathan Levie

(2nd, revised version of the article)

4.1 Abstract

We use structuration theory to hypothesize the effect on opportunity identification (OI) of a range of inconsistencies between old and new contexts and frames for individuals experiencing contextual change. Hypotheses are tested using UK Global Entrepreneurship Monitor data on local business OI, applying multilevel binary logistic regression. We find that migrants' OI is shaped by home and host country characteristics, including the home nation's wealth, institutional quality, entrepreneurial activity and a distinct host country language proficiency effect. We find that OI among regional in-migrants, and life-long residents (non-migrants) in locales of high immigration, is just as high as among migrants.

Keywords: Migrant entrepreneur, opportunity identification, Giddens' structuration theory, social identity

JEL-Codes: C32, D80, D82, F22, J15, J24, J60, L26, Z13

4.2 Introduction

According to the United Nations (2016b), economically developed countries gained 58 million, or 63.7% of all new international migrants between 1990 and 2015, while the United Kingdom (UK) hosted the fifth largest concentration of migrants in the world: nearly 9 million or roughly 13.8% of its 65 million population. Schwartz (2004) suggests that wealthy nations attract migrants and thereby become more heterogeneous, and that GDP per capita correlates with ethnic heterogeneity because immigration contributes to economic success. One way migrants contribute economically is through entrepreneurship; migrants in developed countries tend to have higher entrepreneurial activity rates and higher business growth expectation than non-migrants, unlike in developing countries where the opposite tends to be the case (Xavier, Kelley, Kew, Herrington, & Vorderwülbecke, 2013; Xavier et al., 2013). However, culture may mediate the association of national wealth with ethnic heterogeneity; Schwartz (2004) suggests that it is the egalitarian and autonomous culture of wealthy nations that attracts migrants rather than the wealth itself.

In the UK, public opinion is more divided on the economic merits of immigration than any other country in Europe, with a clear split between younger graduates and older less educated individuals (National Centre for Social Research, 2017). Rising immigration rates have had

unanticipated consequences, including a decision to withdraw from the European Union and an increase in race hate crime (The Migration Observatory, 2017). Against this background, we explore how a known antecedent of entrepreneurial activity, namely, opportunity identification (OI), varies between migrants, regional in-migrants who were born in the UK, and UK-born individuals who have never migrated from their region of birth.

Using Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) data for 2012 downloaded from www.gemconsortium.org, we compared the proportion of ‘yes’ responses of first generation migrants and non-migrants to the survey item “There will be good opportunities for starting a business in your local area in the next six months”. We estimated a country average OI rate of 28.4% for first generation migrants, compared with 25.7% for non-migrants, across 24 innovation-driven countries (developed nations according to the World Economic Forum classification scheme). For the UK, the rates were 33.1% for migrants and 25.5% for non-migrants.⁶ For 31 efficiency-driven (developing, but not very poor or totally commodity-dependent) countries, the country average rates were a much closer 36.9% and 37.9%. This suggests that OI rates among migrants in developed countries tend to be higher than among non-migrants. So far, though, we do not fully understand why migrants to developed countries are more likely to spot new business opportunities than non-migrants.

Prior studies of OI focus on the role of general and specific human capital, social capital, and national as well as regional institutional effects (George et al., 2016). (Levie, 2007a) argued that migrants might be more likely to spot opportunities in their host location because they draw on home and host country experiences to bring a fresh perspective to their new surroundings. Dimov (2007a, 2011) and Welter (2011) emphasize that it is necessary to consider the individual’s context in order to analyze why some people identify more opportunities than others. In this paper, we combine these two views by applying structuration theory (Giddens, 1984) to propose that contrasts between the home and host country contexts creates access to differential knowledge and, hence, an increased scope for OI among migrants in contrast to non-migrants. Additionally, we theorize about why regional in-migrants occupy an intermediate position in identifying opportunities. We consider migrants as individuals who have re-located from their home country (i.e. country of birth) to a different, ‘host’ country,

⁶ This is mirrored in country average early-stage entrepreneurial activity (TEA) rates among 24 innovation-driven countries of 8.8% for first generation migrants and 7.9% for native-born (13.6% compared with 8.3% for the UK). By contrast, the country average TEA rate among 31 efficiency-driven countries was 13.5% for first generation migrants and 14.3% for native-born.

while in-migrants have re-located from their home region to another, ‘host’ region of their home country. Life-long residents, which we call non-migrants here, have lived in their home region (of their home country) all their life (Levie, 2007).

We begin the literature review by defining opportunities as well as OI and deploy Giddens’ structuration theory to explain differences in OI between migrants, in-migrants and non-migrants. Our hypotheses are tested empirically using multilevel binary logistic regression analysis with a large database drawn from the UK GEM Adult Population Survey (2012-2015). The results confirm our hypotheses and show that migrants’ OI is influenced by home and host country factors, while non-migrants are influenced by local and regional characteristics, including the density of migrants in their area. Regional in-migrants are in an intermediate position. Following that, we discuss these results by highlighting our theoretical and empirical contributions, reviewing the limitations of our study and deriving implications for entrepreneurs, government policies as well as future research.

4.3 Literature Review and Hypothesis

To set the arena for our analysis we begin by defining opportunities and OI. While the literature on opportunities provides many definitions (Hansen, Schrader, & Monllor, 2011), we employ Shane's (2003) definition of entrepreneurial opportunities, inspired by Casson (1982), as situations “in which a person can create a new means-ends framework for recombining resources that the entrepreneur believes will yield a profit” (p. 18). The two most prominent schools of thought on opportunities are Kirzner’s (1973) discovery theory and Schumpeter’s (1934b; c.f., Alvarez & Barney, 2007) creation theory. The essential difference between them is that Kirznerian opportunities exist independently of the observer, while Schumpeterian opportunities are cognitively shaped using new information, which is often based on perceived changes in the environment, e.g. new technologies or social trends (Baron, 2006; Edelman & Yli-Renko, 2010; Webb, Ireland, Hitt, Kistruck, & Tihanyi, 2011). In other words, Schumpeterian opportunities dis-equilibrate markets with novel opportunities, and these are much rarer than Kirznerian opportunities which ‘restore’ equilibrium through arbitrage (Shane, 2003).

DeTienne and Chandler (2007) point out that different terms, namely opportunity recognition, identification, or creation are used interchangeably in the literature. They propose use of the

term OI since opportunity creation describes Schumpeterian opportunities and opportunity recognition describes Kirznerian opportunities. The term OI includes both Schumpeterian and Kirznerian opportunities, and we find it most applicable to this study.

The identification of opportunities can be described as a multidimensional and iterative (Hansen, Lumpkin, & Hills, 2011; Lumpkin & Lichtenstein, 2005) cognitive process (Baron, 2004). Grégoire et al. (2010a) define this OI process “as efforts to make sense of signals of change (e.g., new information about new conditions) to form beliefs regarding whether or not enacting a course of action to address this change could lead to net benefits (for instance, in terms of profits, growth, competitive jockeying, and/or other forms of individual or organizational gains)” (p. 415). The result of this process is the individual’s subjective belief that an opportunity exists or not (Grégoire et al., 2010a; Shepherd, McMullen, & Jennings, 2007). This cognitive process is based on certain cognitive heuristics, psychological schemes and pattern recognition processes within an alert individual which is spurred by exogenous factors as, e.g., special market situations (Baron, 2006; Gaglio, 2004; Gaglio & Katz, 2001). The key to OI is the individual’s differential access to knowledge (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Ray & Cardozo, 1996). Opportunities are identified based on the interaction of individuals with their environment (Dimov, 2007a; George et al., 2016). This means that individuals have different predispositions to identify opportunities. Some of these may be innate and some may be based on past experience.

Furthermore, Welter (2011) and Dimov (2007a, 2011) stress that entrepreneurship research needs to profoundly acknowledge an individual’s context, as it provides (potential) entrepreneurs with opportunities and differential access to knowledge. Therefore, we will deploy Giddens’ (1984) theory of structuration in the next section. This theory has not gained much attention in entrepreneurship research, but it helped us to explore the mutual influence of an (potential) entrepreneur as agent and context or structure on OI (Jack & Anderson, 2002). We will initially use structuration theory to explain an individual’s decision to migrate. Then, we will expand the theory to the new contextual setting in which migrants and regional in-migrants find themselves and theorize on how and why adaptation processes by these migrants to their new context can lead to differences in OI between migrants, regional in-migrants and life-long residents (non-migrants).

4.3.1 Giddens' Structuration Theory and the Decision to Migrate

The theory of structuration developed by Anthony Giddens (1984) sees an individual as a knowledgeable agent who possesses the capability to act intentionally, and reflexively monitors social action. Reflexive monitoring is understood as an internally embedded, routinized process of rationalization (in terms of intentionality) and motivation of action, in which the agent continuously monitors the activities that other agents exhibit and are supposed to demonstrate in their day-to-day social activity or routine. Reflexivity is, hence, “deeply involved in recursive ordering of social practices” (Giddens, 1984, p. 3) across time and space. Giddens understands time and space as “the temporal and spatial dimensions of life” (Gross, 1982, p. 83). ‘Time’ in this sense is not necessarily to be understood as the chronological order of time; it rather emphasizes repetitive action at a certain time, e.g., being at work at 9:00am every day. ‘Space’ may also comprise different dimensions from country, to region, a city, house or room, and ‘space-bound’ can be interpreted as a repetition of action in the same space, e.g., working in the same office every day. Daily routines are, hence, predictable habitual procedures ordered across time and space which provide “ontological security expressing an autonomy of bodily control” (Giddens, 1984, p. 50).

According to Giddens (1984) agents act within ‘structures’, which we will call ‘context’ to be consistent with the entrepreneurship literature. Welter (2011) categorizes context into institutional, economic, social and spatial context. In Giddens' (1984) view, context is characterized by ‘rules’ – normative and codes of signification – and ‘resources’ – both authoritative and allocative. Authoritative resources represent the coordination of an agent's activity, while allocative resources relate to the command of material objects; both types of resources are detailed in Table 4.1. These rules and resources resemble the structural properties of a social system, while an agent may be part of different (overlapping) social systems (Whittington, 2010). According to Giddens (1984), each social system is reproduced through regular, and subsequently repeated (Gross, 1982) social practices of agents as well as the relations between actors or groups which are bound in time-space. When agents engage with one another in a situation of co-presence, Giddens (1984) speaks of ‘encounters’. The interaction of encounters, however, depends on the agent's social positioning in time-space, which underlies certain rules and obligations within a specific social system. These clusters of rules which are associated in encounters may be equated to specific knowledge about the social context and are – in Giddens' words – ‘frames’. Framing, thence, orders and regulates agents’

activities and provides them with meaning and security. An example of a primary frame would be language.

Giddens (1984) emphasizes that the reproduction of social practices across time-space reproduce the social system and, hence, the context “has no existence independent of the knowledge that agents have about what they do in their day-to-day activity” (Giddens, 1984, p. 26). This is what Giddens calls the ‘duality of structure’, underlining the mutual dependency between agent and context, while context is always enabling and constraining. Structuration resembles, therefore, the settings which govern the continuity or change of certain contexts.

Table 4.1 Types of Resources

Allocative resources		Authoritative resources	
1	Material features of the environment (raw materials, material power sources)	1	Organization of social time-space (temporal-spatial constitution of paths and regions)
2	Means of material production/ reproduction (instruments of production, technology)	2	Production/ reproduction of the body (organization and relation of human beings in mutual association)
3	Produced goods (artifacts created by the interaction of 1 and 2)	3	Organization of life chances (constitution of chances of self-development and self-expression)

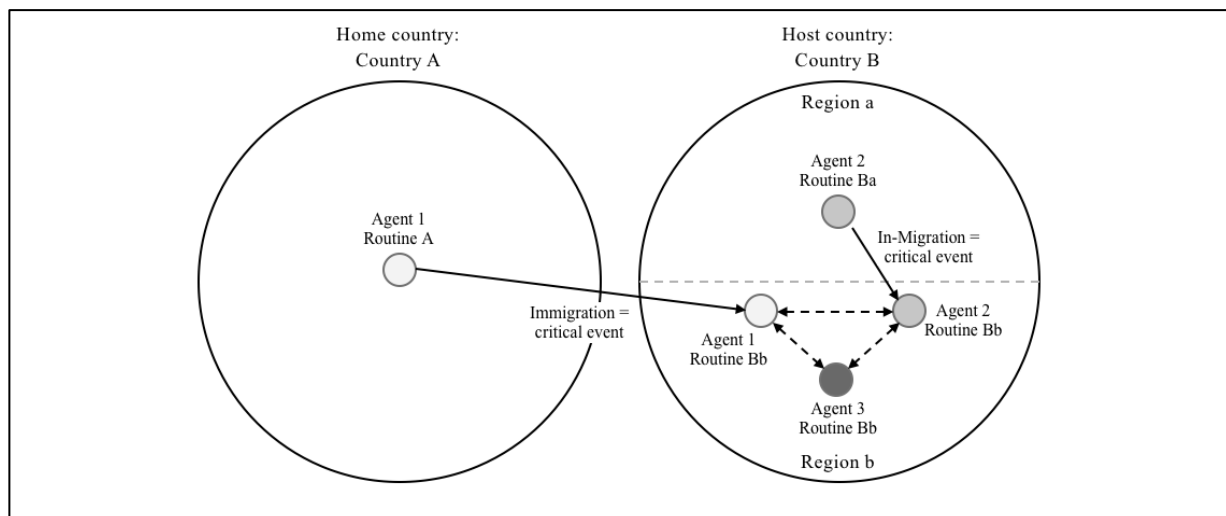
Source: Giddens (1984, p. 258).

In Giddens’ (1984) view, agency comprises the capability to act intentionally and, thus, implicates power – the capacity to gain results and an instrument to achieve (personal) freedom. Power assumes a context of domination and can be exerted through the control over different types of resources which are distinguished in Table 4.1. Agents have the motivation to achieve an aspired degree of power within a context, while power also mirrors “the [agents’, *note from the author*] choice of strategy that depend on resources available to them” (Drori, Honig, & Wright, 2009, p. 1010). If an agent perceives that he/she cannot achieve their intended degree of control over resources (examples of resources are displayed in Table 4.1) they enter a state of what Giddens (1984) calls contradiction, which resembles a perceived discrepancy between the structural principles of the social system and the envisioned degree of power or living conditions. Migration may, in this perspective, be regarded as an act of reflexive self-regulation, in which an agent perceives a different (host-country) context as more enabling and, thus, decides to establish a new order of life elsewhere. Reflecting Giddens (1984), Goss & Lindquist (1995) point out that “migration can then be conceived as a process whereby individuals transcend the limits to presence-availability and negotiate their way across boundaries between locales in order to establish presence and control over resources in a distant place” (p. 334).

4.3.2 Conflicting Home and Host Country Contexts as a Source of Knowledge Creation and Opportunity Identification

Many, if not most, individuals migrate to another country to improve their living conditions by pursuing a job-related opportunity (De Haas, 2010). Some face difficulties when pursuing their job-related aspirations due to labor market discrimination (Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; Light & Rosenstein, 1995; Pütz, Schreiber, & Welp, 2007) or find that the job they pursued does not fit their qualifications or aspirations (Levie, 2007; Li, Isidor, Dau, & Kabst, 2018). These empirical findings support the structuration perspective in that the host country context in this case prohibits agents to gain an intended degree of power over resources and forces them to consider alternative strategies including entrepreneurship to overcome these obstacles (Hart & Acs, 2011; Kloosterman, Van Der Leun, & Rath, 1999; Waldinger, Aldrich, & Ward, 1990). We now apply this perspective to the specific case of migration and entrepreneurship. We summarize our arguments in Figure 4.1 and Table 4.2.

Figure 4.1 Migration and Contextual Re-Positioning of Actors



Source: Own depiction based on Giddens (1984).

Table 4.2 Comparing the Effects of Migration Between Migrants, In-Migrants and Non-Migrants

Aspect of migrating into new context	Migrant (agent 1)	In-migrant (agent 2)	Non-migrant (agent 3)
Experience of critical situation	Yes	Yes	No
Change in time	Yes	Partially yes	No
Change in space	Yes	Yes	No
Change in routine	Yes	Partially yes	No
Shattered trust	Yes	Partially yes	No
Change in discursive consciousness	Yes	Partially yes	No
Change in practical consciousness	Yes	Partially yes	No
New codes apply	Yes	Partially yes	No
New frames/framing applies	Yes	Partially yes	No
New positioning necessary	Yes	Partially yes	No*
Shattered Social identity	Yes	Partially yes	No
New social integration necessary	Yes	Partially yes	No

Notes: *Partially yes only in case of in-migrants or migrants entering the context

Source: Own analysis.

Migration into a new context is depicted in Figure 4.1 as moving into the host country B for a migrant, or region b for a regional in-migrant, is a critical situation or event from a structuration theory perspective. A critical situation is a circumstance in which a taken-for-granted routine is profoundly disrupted. Time and space change through the act of migration. As depicted in Figure 4.1, the routine of a migrant (agent 1) changes from routine A to a new routine Bb, the routine of a regional in-migrant (agent 2) needs to be adapted from routine Ba to routine Bb, while the routine of a non-migrant (agent 3) remains the same. In other word, the routine of a migrant is expected to change in a more profound manner than the routine of a regional in-migrant, and that of a regional in-migrant more than the non-migrant's routine.

As agent 1, 2 and 3 are now co-present in context Bb, only agent 3 (non-migrant) has the full range of knowledge regarding the local "rules and tactics of practical conduct" (Giddens 1984, p. 90) relevant to maintaining his daily routine. The routine of a regional in-migrant (agent 2) certainly changes in space but might find reasonably fast adaptation in time as migrating from one region to another means that the national-level rules of action in the context remain the same, while regional differences apply. This does not hold true for migrants (agent 3), though there may be a wide variation in difference in national-level rules of action between home and host countries.

Giddens (1984) believes that agents have a strong motivation to restore or re-integrate routines in time and space. As elaborated above, routines provide agents with trust that a certain routine occurs in a known manner and hence provides a sense of safety for the agent's existence. In circumstances where this is not the case, e.g., through migration, the agent's basic security system as well as their practical and discursive consciousness are shattered. Practical consciousness refers to "psychological mechanisms of recall which are utilized in a context of

action” (Giddens, 1984, p. 49) or, more broadly speaking, the knowledge about rules, tactics and codes, thus, the frame of a social system which they are a part of. One may think of practical consciousness as a unique cognitive map with which individuals navigate their context (Dimov, 2007b, Stryker & Burke, 2000, Wry & York, 2017). Discursive consciousness resembles the agent’s articulateness or ability to speak a certain language.

Migrants have to re-frame their habitual practices and routines, find a new position within their new social context(s) and, hence, engage with new encounters to build new social relations. Migrants with social skills will find their new social positioning within an alien context more quickly and easily. These new “[r]ules involved in social positions are normally to do with the specification of rights and obligations relevant to persons having a particular social identity” (Giddens, 1984, p. 89). Social identity may be defined as a “system of shared cognition, language, and behaviour, ... [and, *note from the author*] can serve as an interpretative system” (Stoyanov, 2017, p. 2) of the context. The interaction of an individual with as well as the individual’s positioning within a context shapes their social identity (Mead, 1934; Stets & Burke, 2000; Wry & York, 2017) in a reflexive and transformative manner (McNay, 1999). In other words, the agent’s social identity exists in relationship to the context (Welter, 2011) and needs to be redefined when change happens but changes only slowly over time (Reay, 2009).

For a migrant, moving from home country A to host country B (cf., Figure 4.1) amounts to a significant contextual change, a critical event. We interpret the migrant’s felt experience of their host country B in Giddens’ terms as at least a dissonance, if not a shattering of practical and/or discursive consciousness, that is the result of inconsistencies between old and new contexts and frames (Shepherd & Haynie, 2009). This prompts the agent to seek a resolution in terms of bringing consistency to their habitual practices and routines. A migrant’s accepted patterns of behavior and sense-making mechanisms – their home country routine, social identity, practical and discursive consciousness – are a distinctive source of knowledge in terms of prior experiences and prior knowledge (Li et al., 2018) which may not be applicable in the host country context (Radulov & Shymanskyi, 2014). This can undermine or even shatter the agent’s basic security system. On the other hand, a migrant’s home country routine can also serve as a distinct source of information in terms of prior knowledge and experience (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Radulov & Shymanskyi, 2014), and offer distinctive ways to interpret new information in their new host country context (Schneider, 1989; cf., Article 3 in this dissertation). But if they are to navigate this new field, the migrant will require an adapted or

even new routine and social identity, although they may try to keep certain aspects of their home country routines and identities.

Research shows that this can lead to an identity conflict – as the home country identity shows inconsistencies with the new context's frames (Shepherd & Haynie, 2009) – in the form of cognitive dissonance (Davis, 2014) within migrants, which may be defined as an psychologically uncomfortable state which individuals try to overcome (Festinger, 1962). Studies have shown how clashes between different contexts can lead to creative adaptation and new opportunities (e.g., Lester & Piore, 2004; Stark, 2009; Reay, 2009). In the same way, we see this change of contexts as a source of information asymmetries and/or new combinations of information from the home and host country, which may lead to OI (Radulov & Shymanskyi, 2014; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Through a structuration theory lens, we interpret OI arising from this change of contexts as an act of reflexive self-regulation as it helps to re-define the migrant's identity in the new context. The wide range of information that a migrant draws upon, in combination with different learning and thinking skills they have acquired in their home country, leads to a different combination of that knowledge, and hence to the identification of very different opportunities, to others (Dimov, 2007a, 2007b, Li et al., 2018). OI therefore resolves both the identity conflict and the modalities of the context (Shepherd & Haynie, 2009). Indeed, this source of OI is unique to migrants⁷. At the other end of the migrant scale, individuals who have lived all their lives in the same community (non-migrants) are likely to have acquired a routine that resists signals of difference or change to their environment (Levie, 2007; Levie & Hart, 2011). Hence, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Migrants have a higher tendency to identify opportunities for starting a business in their local area than regional in-migrants or non-migrants, *ceteris paribus*.

Hundt & Sternberg (2016) point out that “[r]egional context conditions may vary considerably even though they belong to the same national environment. This may in turn lead to significant differences in entrepreneurial activities between regions” (p. 277). When looking at Table 4.2 in this regard, it becomes obvious why regional in-migrants occupy an intermediate OI position.

⁷ While we do not focus on start-up activity per se, we note that exploiting an opportunity may, for many migrants, be a way of resolving this cognitive dissonance, e.g., by filling a market gap in the host country for products or services that are present in the home country – or vice versa.

The overall host context (host country B, Figure 4.1) remains the same, e.g. with regard to national laws, but regional differences may still lead to the perception of cognitive dissonance and the necessity for social identity adaptation. As Table 4.2 shows, regional in-migrants experience spatial change and to a certain degree a change in time as elaborated above and may have to re-adapt their daily routines to a greater or lesser extent depending on the strength of regional differences within the country. In general, we expect their general perception of trust as well as their practical and discursive consciousness (language) might experience some disruption but they will adapt quickly to the regional customs. This holds also true for codes and frames; integration into the new social context and the development of a new positioning and identity will require some time, but overall, the degree of their identity conflict and the range of information asymmetries will likely be lower than among migrants. Therefore, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Regional in-migrants occupy an intermediate position to identify business opportunities for starting a business in their local area with migrants showing higher and non-migrants showing lower OI rates, *ceteris paribus*.

As outlined in Table 4.2, non-migrants do not go through the degree of change that regional in-migrants or migrants go through. Hence, they do not experience a shattering of their mental maps which would trigger a dissonance within their social identity of their home and host locations leading to OI, unless, of course, their context changes about them. As Welter (2011) points out, spatial proximity can even lead to over-embeddedness in the context, where no new knowledge is created.

As we argued above, change in contexts leads to a recombination of prior knowledge and new information, which is a key driver of OI. In this line of argument, non-migrants face no identity conflict between contexts. However, migrants are not evenly distributed across geographic space, with some neighborhoods experiencing high proportions of migrants. Some neighborhoods become migrant enclaves (Wilson & Portes, 1980), often with high proportions of individuals from the same country (Kloosterman, 2010). This changes the context of non-migrants in these neighborhoods, bringing contrasts between present and past routines, frames and, thence, contexts into sharp relief. This leads to the development of new information and knowledge (Li et al., 2018) and we therefore expect that this recombination of prior knowledge and new information would lead to an increase on the prevalence of OI among non-migrants in these changed contexts. We, therefore, hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3: The higher the density of migrants in the community, the higher the likelihood that a non-migrant will identify opportunities for starting a business in their local area.

OI is spurred by a wide set of different factors (George et al., 2016). In the next section, we will, therefore, theorize on further home and host country-related factors that influence migrants' OI. Yet, we note that these additional factors will not be sufficient to fully explain migrant OI. Migrants may differ from non-migrants on attributes which are not related to the act of migration but which influence OI – for example, education level or a family business background, or other business experience.

4.3.3 Further Home and Host Country-Related Factors Influencing Migrants' Opportunity Identification

4.3.3.1 Home country related factors

De Haas (2008) points out that migration propensities are determined by “the level of development *relative* [original emphasis] to other places and countries” (p. 17). Development in this context relates not only to economic, institutional or demographic development but, in the structuration perspective, comprises the power agents can exercise and, hence, resources they can draw from. Agents, therefore, decide to migrate to another country or contextual setting in order to pursue aspirations and improve their livelihoods (Martin & Taylor, 1996; Rueda-Armengot & Peris-Ortiz, 2012; Yankow, 2003). Given that resources differ according to level of development, we would expect to see more OI among migrants from less developed to more developed economies, the greater the difference in development between home and host country. The stage of development in the home country is often indicated by a country's GDP per capita relative to that of other countries (Carree, Van Stel, Thurik, & Wennekers, 2002; Jeng & Wells, 2000; Kwon & Arenius, 2010). Therefore, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: The greater the (positive) difference between a migrant's host country GDP per capita and their home country GDP per capita, the higher the likelihood that a migrant will identify opportunities for starting a business in their local area.

Furthermore, the institutional context, which North (1990) sees as “constraints that shape human interaction” (p. 3) and human behavior more generally (Ajzen, 1991), may lead to a decision to migrate (De Haas, 2010). An institutional context that is characterized by low

quality and does not permit agents to achieve an aspired degree of power in terms of control over resources due to, e.g., low rule of law, leads to the state of contradiction as elaborated above. To gain the intended degree of power over a certain envisioned set of resources, the reflexively self-regulating agent decides to migrate to a new contextual setting of higher institutional quality. These migrants are likely to appreciate the new context more highly than non-migrants or those migrants from equally high quality institutional contexts (Alvarez & Urbano, 2011; De Haas, 2010). The higher appreciation and positive attitude towards the new context may in turn increase their potential to identify opportunities (Sequeira et al., 2009). This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: The lower the institutional quality in a migrant's home country relative to their host country, the greater the likelihood that they will identify opportunities for starting a business in their local area.

Prior knowledge is a consistent theme in the OI literature (Shane, 2000). As individuals pass through life, they pick up an idiosyncratic set of information and experiences. This has been variously termed the 'knowledge corridor' (Cliff, Jennings, & Greenwood, 2006) and 'experience corridor' (Corner & Ho, 2010). Part of this experience may be observing entrepreneurs directly (e.g., parents or friends) or indirectly (e.g., visibility of entrepreneurs in the media or the local community). It is known that exposure to entrepreneurs may increase entrepreneurial self-efficacy, defined as "self-confidence in [the entrepreneurial, *note from the author*] domain ... based on the individuals' self-perceptions of their skills and abilities" (Wilson, Kickul, & Marlino, 2007, p. 389), and also lower levels of uncertainty towards entrepreneurship (Alvarez & Urbano, 2011; Baycan-Levent, Nijkamp, & Sahin, 2008; Soydas & Aleti, 2015). Entrepreneurial self-efficacy might, therefore, also lower the perceptual barriers to identifying opportunities for starting a business (Kickul, Gundry, Barbosa, & Whitcanack, 2009; Wilson et al., 2007).

If migrants come from a home country context that has a high level of entrepreneurship, they will have accumulated knowledge and past experience about entrepreneurship in their home country which will help to resolve identity conflict they are confronted with in the host country (Shepherd & Haynie, 2009). Due to a potentially more positive attitude towards entrepreneurship – through the experience in a context that values entrepreneurship – and the application of their home country knowledge on entrepreneurship in their host country context they are, therefore, naturally more likely to identify entrepreneurial opportunities in their host

country (Kickul et al., 2009; Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015; Welter, 2011). Hence, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 6: The greater the prevalence of entrepreneurship in a migrant's home country relative to their host country, the more likely they are to identify opportunities for starting a business in their local area.

4.3.3.2 Host country related factors

To identify opportunities, individuals need to be able to interpret their context with the help of their internalized mental maps drawn by their practical and discursive consciousness. Language is – as elaborated above – a primary frame and essential for an agent's discursive consciousness. Discursive consciousness, or articulateness, helps agents to understand information flows and is, therefore, a key factor to redefine the agent's social positioning and integration in the agent's new host country's social context. In a study of Australia migrants, Chiswick and Miller (1995) found that “exposure to English prior to migration has an important effect on language attainment in Australia” (p. 259). Migrants who know the language of their host country are able to define and navigate their host country context more successfully than those who still have to learn the language (Chiswick & Miller, 1995; Giddens, 1984). The more proficient that migrants are in the language of their host country, the easier it is to integrate with regards to the social context (e.g., to make friends), economic context (e.g., to find a proper job), institutional context (e.g., to understand laws and regulations, etc.) and spatial context (e.g., find a new home). Furthermore, those migrants who are more proficient in the language of the host country, and come from countries that even speak the same language (in the UK context, this would include, e.g., USA, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, Ireland, South Africa) will be able to make sense of their environment much faster than those who have to learn the language once they arrive in the host country. This is because they not only speak the same language but are also able to interpret symbols and cues, and hence, local frames, in a better manner because they share a common Anglo-Saxon cultural heritage (Inglehart & Oyserman, 2004). Migrants who are less proficient, and who are able to survive within an ethnic enclave of people speaking their own language, may be trapped in their home country identity, and less likely to encounter opportunity-rich dissonance. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 7: The higher the proficiency of migrants and their home country peers in the language of their host country, the higher the likelihood that they will identify opportunities for starting a business in their local area, *ceteris paribus*.

4.4 Data and Methods

4.4.1 Sample

Our sample consists of four pooled cross-sectional survey samples, each of approximately 8000 adults aged 18 to 64, who were interviewed between 2012 and 2015 as respondents in the annual UK GEM Adult Population Survey. In total, our final sample (after excluding missing values) comprised 1,317 migrants from 75 different countries to the UK, 7,604 regional in-migrants and 17,519 non-migrants in the UK. Respondents were sampled randomly within each of the four UK nations by a reputable market research firm using CATI technology and an 85%/15% landline/mobile split to reflect the proportion of mobile only households in the UK.

Binary logistic analysis was used to test the seven hypotheses. Data was created for ward level, local authority level, Government Office Region level, and home country level, and multi-level modelling was used to test and account for the possibility that migrants from the same home country, and non-migrants in the same region, might act in similar ways.

4.4.2 Measures

Our dependent variable was formed by asking all respondents, irrespective of their entrepreneurial intentions or activity: "in the next six months will there be good opportunities for starting a business in the area where you live?" This provides a dichotomous variable ('yes' versus 'no' or 'I don't know').

The predictor variable for hypothesis (H) 1 and H2 was a three-category measure of origin that was based on the country or home nation of origin and how long the individual had been in the region in which they now resided. For H3, the predictor variable was a measure that used the 2011 census to calculate the percentage of non-UK-born individuals in the respondent's electoral ward. For H4, World Bank estimates of GDP (purchasing price parity dollars) per capita in 2011 were used to measure wealth per capita. We used the Global Competitiveness Index measure of quality of public institutions in 2011 (or nearest available year) for H5;

specifically, the sub-index GCIA_01_01. For H6, we calculated the average early-stage entrepreneurial activity rate in the home country for the period 2012 to 2015 using GEM data downloaded from www.gemconsortium.org. Lastly, we calculated the proportion of migrants from each host country who had English as their native language or spoke English very well or well, using 2011 Census data, categorized by gender and age group as the predictor variable for H7.

We used year of survey, gender, age, ethnicity, education, occupation, and business experience, self-efficacy and region as control variables to verify whether the predictor variables affect OI beyond the impact of the controls. All of these have been shown in prior work to affect OI and/or entrepreneurial activity. Table 4.3 and 4.4 present the descriptive statistics of and correlations between the variables used in the study while Tables 4.5 to 4.7 show all variables used in the analysis.

Likelihood ratio (LR) tests showed that before the addition of our home country predictor variables, migrants from the same home country tended to have similar OI behavior, violating the assumption of independence of errors. However, after adding our home country predictor variables, the LR tests were not significant, suggesting that our predictors were accounting for the home country effect. For the overall sample and for non-migrants only, tests at the NUTS3 level (an EU-wide nomenclature for geographical regions) and Local Authority level suggested common behavior within regions. Therefore, the data was clustered at the NUTS3 level which provided the best compromise between cluster sample size and number of clusters, and robust standard errors were estimated for these models.

4.4.3 Analysis and Results

Tables 4.3 and 4.4 provide an overview of the descriptive statistics and correlations related to our measures. Table 4.5 shows the result of testing H1, controlling for a wide range of other factors that affect OI at the individual, local and regional level. It shows that the odds of a regional in-migrant or migrant identifying opportunities are over 20% higher than that of a non-migrant. This does not support H1 or H2; there appears to be a “migration effect” rather than an “migrant effect” in our sample; regional in-migrants appear to have the same levels of OI as migrants, and both of these groups have significantly higher odds of OI than non-migrants.

Table 4.3 Descriptive Statistics

No.	Variable	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.
1	In the next six months will there be good opportunities for starting a business in the area where you live?	32287	0,00	1,00	0,27	0,44
2	Migrant status: non-migrant, in-migrant, immigrant	31635	1,00	3,00	1,53	0,61
3	Natural log of percentage of non UK-born population in electoral ward	30801	-4,56	-0,38	-2,88	0,79
4	Natural log of difference in wealth per capita between home country and UK, 2011	32118	900,64	91073,32	36136,50	5151,13
5	Difference in quality of public institutions between home country and UK, 2011	32102	2,42	6,11	5,28	0,29
6	Average TEA rate in home country, 2012 to 2015	1683	3,46	41,46	11,62	7,82
7	% proficiency in English language of migrant peer group (home country, gender, age group, 2011)	32172	1,00	3,00	2,90	0,31
8	Year of survey	32301	2012	2015	2013,53	1,08
9	Gender: Female vs. Male	32301	0,00	1,00	0,47	0,50
10	Age group (5 categories 18-54)	32301	2,00	6,00	4,18	1,39
11	Ethnicity	32301	1,00	4,00	1,11	0,48
12	WhiteBritish vs. other ethnic groups	32301	0,00	1,00	0,86	0,35
13	Education: graduates, non-graduate education, no qualifications	32109	1,00	3,00	1,71	0,58
14	Occupation	30906	1,00	6,00	1,99	1,57
15	For-profit employees vs. Other	32301	0,00	1,00	0,35	0,48
16	Family business background	32243	1,00	3,00	1,39	0,67
17	Agree with statement: Know someone who started a business in last 2 years	32234	0,00	1,00	0,28	0,45
18	Agree with statement: Have skills, knowledge and experience to start a business	31695	0,00	1,00	0,43	0,50
19	Agree with statement: You will often see stories in the public media about successful new businesses	31515	0,00	1,00	0,54	0,50
20	Agree with statement: stopped operating a business in last 12 months	32289	0,00	1,00	0,02	0,13
21	Agree with statement: Expect to start a business in next 3 years	31701	0,00	1,00	0,08	0,27
22	Agree with statement: Tried to start a business in the last year	29448	1,00	2,00	1,98	0,13
23	Agree with statement: Have started a business before	26118	1,00	2,00	1,93	0,26
24	Long term employment preference	28278	1,00	4,00	1,74	0,64
25	UK region	32301	1,00	12,00	8,63	3,36
26	% of early stage entrepreneurs in working age population in Local Authority area, 2002-2015	32301	0,02	0,21	0,06	0,02
27	Natural log of numbers of enterprises in Local Authority area as % of population, 2011	32301	-4,37	0,59	-3,52	0,36
28	Natural log of number of information & communication enterprises* in Local Authority area as % of population, 2011	32301	-8,98	-2,16	-6,72	0,69
29	Electoral wards grouped in siths by Index of Multiple Deprivation (harmonised accross UK nations)	30808	0,00	1,00	0,59	0,49
30	Home nation: England, Wales, Scotland or N. Ireland	32301	1,00	4,00	2,16	1,08
31	Population density (people per hectare) census, 2011	32301	0,10	138,70	11,61	17,95
32	Natural log of enterprise births by local authority, 2011	32301	-6,62	-1,42	-5,80	0,36

* *Abbreviation: infocomms*

Source: Own analysis.

Table 4.4 Correlation Matrix Between Variables Used in Models

No. Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	
1 In the next six months will there be good opportunities for starting a business in the area where you live?	1,000																																
2 Migrant status: non-migrant, in-migrant, immigrant	0.069***	1,000																															
3 Natural log of percentage of non UK-born population in electoral ward	.080***	.195***	1,000																														
4 Natural log of difference in wealth per capita between home country and UK, 2011	0.021***	-.338***	-.175***	1,000																													
5 Difference in quality of public institutions between home country and UK, 2011	-.031***	-.485***	-.203***	.862***	1,000																												
6 Average TEA rate in home country, 2012 to 2015	.107***	b	.172**	-.451***	-.422***	1,000																											
7 % proficiency in English language of migrant peer group (home country, gender, age group, 2011)	-.028***	-.462***	-.367***	.382***	.542***	.071***	1,000																										
8 Year of survey	.064***	-.043***	-.0004	-.0009	-.015***	-.012	-.0008	1,000																									
9 Gender: Female vs. Male	.084***	-.012*	.023***	-.016***	-.0009	0.003	-.0008	.029***	1,000																								
10 Age group (5 categories 18-54)	-.054***	.131***	-.075***	.021***	.026**	0.001	.066***	-.069***	-.070***	1,000																							
11 Ethnicity	.028***	-.254***	.340***	-.470***	-.442***	.516***	-.381***	.017***	.023***	-.098***	1,000																						
12 White/British vs. other ethnic groups	0.006	-.263***	-.261***	.281***	.371***	-.110***	.368***	-.016**	-.0009	.076***	-.541***	1,000																					
13 Education: graduates, non-graduate education, no qualifications	-.093***	-.164***	-.103***	.044***	.063***	-.059*	.079**	-.006	.021***	.097***	-.061***	.072***	1,000																				
14 Occupation	-.065***	0.005	.017**	-.012*	-.012*	.116***	-.014*	.029***	-.113***	0.006	.054***	-.041***	.155***	1,000																			
15 For-profit employees vs. Other	.035***	-.021***	.016**	-.0007	-.0009	-.054*	-.0009	-.029***	.183***	-.160***	0.006	.018***	.034***	-.348***	1,000																		
16 Family business background	.082***	.071***	.036**	-.039***	-.040***	.127***	-.042***	-.01	.041***	-.056***	.055***	-.062***	.091***	-.042***	.012*	1,000																	
17 Agree with statement: Know someone who started a business in last 2 years	.213***	.033***	.022**	0.000	-.0009	0.034	-.017***	-.0001	.070***	-.101***	.018***	-.021***	-.117***	-.089***	.022***	.119***	1,000																
18 Agree with statement: Have skills, knowledge and experience to start a business	.179***	.094***	.016**	-.024***	-.033***	0.029	-.029***	-.0007	.179***	.058***	.026**	-.018***	-.136***	-.131***	.048***	.168***	.245***	1,000															
19 Agree with statement: You will often see stories in the public media about successful new businesses	.138***	.013*	.026**	-.038***	-.042***	.065***	-.031***	.130***	.051***	-.0005	.038***	-.048***	-.043***	-.019***	0.008	.024**	.054***	.056***	1,000														
20 Agree with statement: stopped operating a business in last 12 months	0.01	.039***	0.011	-.015***	-.017***	0.015	-.018***	.014*	.040***	0.008	.017***	-.019***	-.026***	0.007	0.000	.029***	.079***	.097***	0.002	1,000													
21 Agree with statement: Expect to start a business in next 3 years	.155***	.094***	.069***	-.081***	-.096***	.106***	-.089***	0.000	.088***	-.101***	.108***	-.080***	-.069***	0.004	.043***	.105***	.150***	.195***	.030***	.063***	1,000												
22 Agree with statement: Tried to start a business in the last year	-.050***	-.029***	-.017***	.022***	.021**	-.0028	.030***	-.0001	-.029***	.045***	-.031***	.030***	.024***	0.002	-.0005	-.034***	-.087***	-.080***	-.012*	-.060***	-.162***	1,000											
23 Agree with statement: Have started a business before	-.053***	-.089***	-.0002	.021**	.029**	-.0014	.015*	.017**	-.057***	-.153***	0.001	0.001	.026***	-.0005	.013*	-.102***	-.066***	-.249***	-.0008	b	-.079***	.028***	1,000										
24 Long term employment preference	-.142***	-.048***	-.044***	.047***	.052**	-.088***	.058***	-.0005	-.129***	.092***	-.076***	.061***	-.028***	.030***	-.019***	-.103***	-.155***	-.229***	-.053***	-.044***	-.209***	.079***	.050***	1,000									
25 UK region	-.077***	-.138***	-.383***	.088***	.095***	-.128***	.232***	.020***	-.012*	.034***	-.174***	-.037***	.026***	0.01	-.035***	-.021***	-.024***	-.039***	.014*	-.017***	-.044***	.022***	.025***	.027***	1,000								
26 % of early stage entrepreneurs in working age population in Local Authority area, 2002-2015	.067***	.146***	.353***	-.073***	-.089***	.143***	-.216***	-.0001	0.005	-.0007	.155***	-.070***	.067***	-.0005	-.0004	.070***	.038***	.059***	.017***	0.003	.047***	.017***	-.043***	-.046***	-.366***	1,000							
27 Natural log of numbers of enterprises in Local Authority area as % of population, 2011	.054***	.083***	.159***	.014*	0.003	-.0034	-.015***	-.001	-.001	.021***	-.026***	-.096***	-.038***	-.023***	0.000	.084***	.019***	.037***	.035***	-.0002	.011*	-.0001	-.049***	-.022***	-.156***	.510***	1,000						
28 Natural log of number of Information & Communication enterprises in Local Authority area as % of population	.107***	.184***	.553***	-.105***	-.118***	.136***	-.248***	0.003	.018***	-.017***	.192***	-.0005	-.096***	-.019***	.036***	.022***	.033***	.045***	0.003	.020***	.058***	-.013*	-.026***	-.033***	-.637***	.473***	.297***	1,000					
29 Electoral wards grouped in sibs by Index of Multiple Deprivation (harmonised across UK nations)	.042***	-.044***	.025***	.024**	-.056*	.047***	.095***	0.001	.029***	-.067***	.052***	-.088***	-.001	.045***	.022***	.034***	.035***	0.003	-.0005	-.0003	-.025***	0.003	-.016***	.067***	.155***	.081***	1,000						
30 Home nation: England, Wales, Scotland or N. Ireland	-.057***	-.117***	-.213***	.078***	.076**	-.118***	.190***	.024***	-.016***	.027***	-.156***	-.171***	.013*	0.003	-.034***	-.0006	-.025***	-.041***	.027***	-.016***	-.035***	.020***	.030***	.016***	.812**	-.273***	.034***	-.542***	.021***	1,000			
31 Population density (people per hectare) census, 2011	.040***	.127***	.607***	-.159***	-.181***	.171***	-.423***	.012*	.017***	-.071***	.341***	-.215***	-.070***	.032**	-.0006	0.005	.012*	0.000	.019***	0.005	.062***	-.015***	0.012	-.047***	-.344***	.280***	-.137***	.470***	-.105***	-.287***	1,000		
32 Natural log of enterprise births by local authority, 2011	.101***	.178***	.567***	-.117***	-.130***	.131***	-.294***	-.015***	.011*	-.037***	.221***	-.015***	-.081***	-.014*	.041***	.030***	.037***	.041***	0.01	.013*	.056***	-.019***	-.025***	-.036***	-.620***	.502***	.382***	.836***	.036***	-.572***	.499***	1,000	

Notes: Significant codes: '***' $p < 0.001$, '**' $p < 0.010$, '*' $p < 0.050$; b Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

Source: Own analysis.

Table 4.5 Results of Multilevel Binary Logistic Regression Predicting OI, Showing Odds Ratios and Robust Standard Errors (N = 26,675) *p<.1; ** p<.05, *** p<.01

Variable	OI	Sig.	SE
Migrantstatus (non-migrants are base group)			
In-migrants	1.22	***	0.04
Migrants	1.23	***	0.07
Year of survey (2012 is base case)			
2013	1.10	*	0.06
2014	1.29	***	0.07
2015	1.41	***	0.10
Female versus male	0.86	***	0.03
Age group (18 to 34 is base group)			
18-24yrs	1.25	***	0.08
25-34yrs	1.18	***	0.07
35-44yrs	1.15	***	0.06
45-54yrs	0.99		0.04
Ethnicity (White is base ethnic identity)			
Mixed	1.03		0.15
Asian	0.93		0.10
Black	1.13		0.15
White British versus other ethnic	1.32	***	0.08
Education (graduate is base group)			
Non-graduate education	0.89	***	0.03
No qualifications	0.67	***	0.05
Occupation (working 30 or more hours a week is base group)			
Working 8-29 hrs a week (p/time)	1.07		0.05
Homemaker or full-time carer	0.84	***	0.07
Not working - unemployed, retired, sick, disabled	0.73	***	0.05
Student	0.88	**	0.07
For-profit employee versus others	0.99		0.03
Family business background (none is base case)			
Did not work in family business	1.18	***	0.05
Worked in family business	1.07		0.06
Agree with statement:			
Know someone who started a business in last 12 months	2.10	***	0.07
Have skills, knowledge and experience to start a business	1.45	***	0.05
You will often see stories in the public media about successful new businesses	1.79	***	0.06
Stopped operating a business in last 12 months	0.64	***	0.07
Expect to start a business in next 3 years	1.80	***	0.09
Tried to start a business in last year	0.99		0.15
Have started a business before	1.17	***	0.07
Employment preference (self-employment is base category)			
Employed by others	0.69	***	0.02
No preference / It depends	0.68	***	0.04
Neither/I do not want/need employment	0.72	**	0.10
Not asked because retired or disabled	1.00		0.08

Table to be continued on next page

Table 4.5 *Continued* Results of Multilevel Binary Logistic Regression Predicting OI, Showing Odds Ratios and Robust Standard Errors (N = 26,675) *p<.1; ** p<.05, *** p<.01

Variable	OI	Sig.	SE
UK region (Northern Ireland is base region)			
South West	1.43	***	0.16
South East	1.33	**	0.14
East	1.32	**	0.15
London	0.93		0.11
West Mids	1.10		0.11
East Mids	1.26	**	0.14
Yorks & Humber	1.26	*	0.16
North East	0.91		0.11
North West	1.21	*	0.13
Wales	1.03		0.09
Scot	1.25	*	0.13
% of early-stage entrepreneurs in working age population in Local Authority area, 2002 to 2015	1.07		1.52
Natural log of number of enterprises in Local Authority area as % of population, 2011	1.14		0.10
Natural log of number of infocomms in Local Authority area as % of population, 2011	1.13	**	0.06
Electoral wards grouped in sixths by Index of Multiple Deprivation (harmonised across UK nations, highest level is base)			
Level 1 (lowest)	0.76	***	0.08
Level 2	0.87	***	0.05
Level 3	0.88	***	0.05
Level 4	0.95		0.06
Level 5	0.94	**	0.04
Natural log of percentage of non UK-born population in electoral ward	1.15	***	0.04
Constant	0.85		0.31
NUTS 3 random effects			

Source: Own analysis.

Table 4.6 shows the result of testing H3, for a subsample of non-migrants only. It shows that the odds of a non-migrant identifying opportunities increases significantly as the proportion of migrants in their electoral ward increases. For each one unit increase in the natural log of the proportion (an increase in migrants amounting to around 2.7% of the ward population), the odds of a non-migrant identifying opportunities increases by 18.2%, holding the other factors in the model constant.

Table 4.6 Results of Multilevel Binary Logistic Regression Predicting OI for Non-migrants, Showing Odds Ratios and Robust Standard Errors (N = 17,519) *p<.1; ** p<.05, *** p<.01

Variable	OI	sig.	SE
Natural log of percentage of non UK-born population in electoral ward	1.18	***	0.05
Year of survey (2012 is base year)			
2013	1.07		0.08
2014	1.26	***	0.09
2015	1.38	***	0.11
Female versus male	0.82	***	0.03
Age group (18 to 34 is base group)			
18-24yrs	1.28	***	0.10
25-34yrs	1.18	**	0.09
35-44yrs	1.14	*	0.08
45-54yrs	0.95		0.06
Ethnicity (White is base ethnic identity)			
Mixed	1.04		0.23
Asian	0.82		0.14
Black	0.80		0.15
White British versus other ethnic	1.22	**	0.11
Education (graduate is base group)			
Non-graduate education	0.93	*	0.04
No qualifications	0.77	***	0.07
Occupation (working 30 or more hours a week is base group)			
Working 8-29 hrs a week (p/time)	1.03		0.06
Homemaker or full-time career	0.77	**	0.09
Not working - unemployed, retired, sick, disabled	0.72	***	0.06
Student	0.84	*	0.08
For-profit employee versus others	0.97		0.05
Family business background (none is base case)			
Did not work in family business	1.15	***	0.06
Worked in family business	1.05		0.07
Agree with statement:			
Know someone who started a business in last 12 months	2.24	***	0.11
Have skills, knowledge and experience to start a business	1.51	***	0.07
You will often see stories in the public media about successful new businesses	1.81	***	0.07
Stopped operating a business in last 12 months	0.62	***	0.10
Expect to start a business in next 3 years	1.86	***	0.13
Tried to start a business in last year	1.13		0.22
Have started a business before	1.28	***	0.09
Employment preference (self-employment is base category)			
Employed by others	0.70	***	0.04
No preference / It depends	0.69	***	0.05
Neither/I do not want/need employment	0.68	**	0.13
Not asked because retired or disabled	0.97		0.11
UK region (Northern Ireland is base region)			
South West	1.63	***	0.21
South East	1.68	***	0.23
East	1.55	***	0.23
London	1.19		0.20
West Mids	1.19		0.16
East Mids	1.37	**	0.19
Yorks & Humber	1.44	**	0.24
North East	0.96		0.17
North West	1.50	***	0.20
Wales	1.15		0.14
Scot	1.37	**	0.18
% of early-stage entrepreneurs in working age population in Local Authority area, 2002 to 2015	0.22		0.40
Natural log of number of enterprises in Local Authority area as % of population, 2011	1.30	**	0.16
Natural log of number of infocomms in Local Authority area as % of population	1.05		0.07

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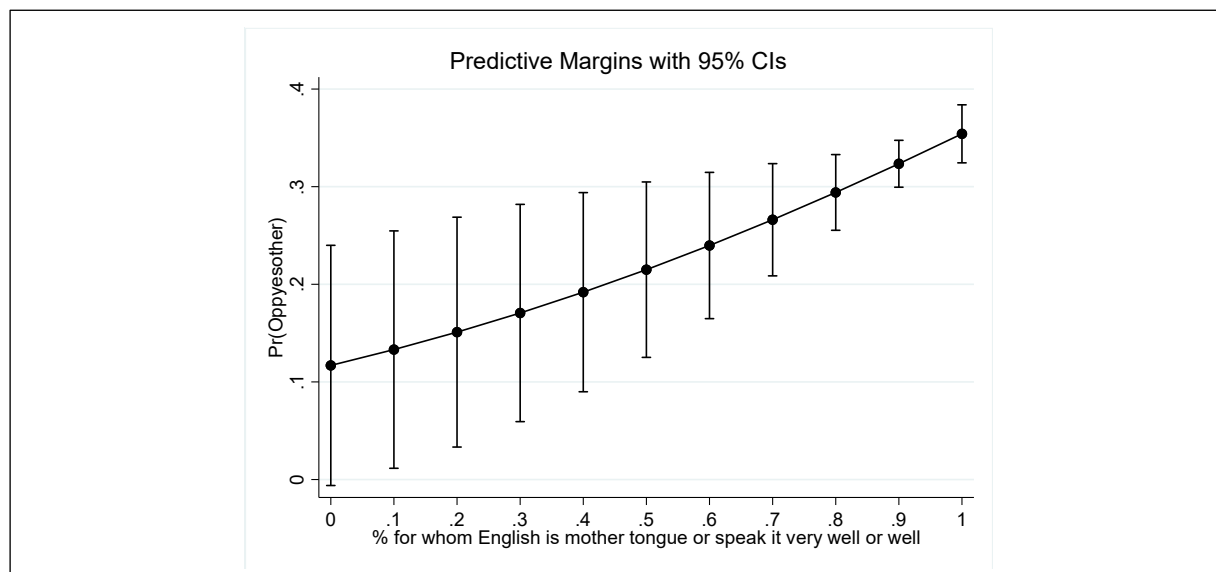
Table 4.6 *Continued* Results of Multilevel Binary Logistic Regression Predicting OI for Non-migrants, Showing Odds Ratios and Robust Standard Errors (N = 17,519)
*p<.1; ** p<.05, *** p<.01

Variable	OI	sig.	SE
Electoral wards grouped in sixths by Index of Multiple Deprivation (harmonised across UK nations, highest level is base)			
Level 1 (lowest)	0.70	**	0.10
Level 2	0.86	**	0.06
Level 3	0.88	*	0.07
Level 4	0.95		0.07
Level 5	0.92		0.06
Constant	0.76		0.37
NUTS 3 random effects	0.01		0.01

Source: Own analysis.

Table 4.7 shows the results of testing H4, H5, H6 and H7. H4 is weakly supported (10% level of significance) but the direction is as expected, with the odds of OI increasing as the difference in wealth between the home and host country increases. H5, H6 and H7 are all supported at least at a 5.0% significance level. The relatively high odds ratio for the effect of English language proficiency (H7) is notable. To ease interpretation, Figure 4.2 plots the marginal effects in terms of changes in probability of OI for 10.0% rises in English language proficiency among the respondent's peer group. This shows an approximate doubling in the probability of OI if the peer group is proficient in English. Table 4.7 also shows that OI among migrants appears to be relatively independent of personal demographic characteristics or location, unlike non-migrants, and notably is not significantly affected by the proportion of migrants in the electoral ward in which they live – again, unlike non-migrants. Business experience and entrepreneurial self-efficacy however did have strong effects. Although the results are not shown here as we did not hypothesize it, we also found that, mirroring the home country effect for migrants, there was a "home nation" effect where Scottish and Northern Irish regional in-migrants were less likely to identify business opportunities in their host location than English regional migrants.

Figure 4.2 The Effect of English Language Proficiency of Migrant Peer Groups on the Probability of OI



Source: Own analysis.

Table 4.7 Results of Multilevel Binary Logistic Regression Predicting OI for Migrants, Showing Odds Ratios and Robust Standard Errors (N = 1,317) *p<.1; ** p<.05, *** p<.01

Variable	OI	sig.	SE
Natural log of difference in wealth per capita between home country and UK, 2011	1.19	*	0.12
Difference in quality of public institutions between home country and UK, 2011	0.79	**	0.09
Average TEA rate in home country, 2012 to 2015	1.04	***	0.01
% proficiency in English language of migrant peer group (home country, gender, age group), 2011	5.46	**	4.05
Year of survey (2012 is base year)			
2013	0.78		0.17
2014	1.19		0.25
2015	1.13		0.23
Female versus male	0.96		0.14
Age group (18 to 34 is base group)			
18-24yrs	0.68		0.20
25-34yrs	1.19		0.28
35-44yrs	1.41		0.32
45-54yrs	0.91		0.21
Ethnicity (White is base ethnic identity)			
Mixed	0.89		0.32
Asian	0.95		0.21
Black	0.73		0.25
Education (graduate is base group)			
Non-graduate education	0.82		0.12
No qualifications	0.50	*	0.19
Occupation (working 30 or more hours a week is base group)			
Working 8-29 hrs a week (p/time)	2.05	***	0.42
Homemaker or full-time carer	1.21		0.52
Not working - unemployed, retired, sick, disabled	1.23		0.36
Student	1.62		0.55
For-profit employee versus others	1.47	**	0.22

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Table 4.7 *Continued* Results of Multilevel Binary Logistic Regression Predicting OI for Migrants, Showing Odds Ratios and Robust Standard Errors (N = 1,317) *p<.1; ** p<.05, *** p<.01

Variable	OI	sig.	SE
Family business background (none is base case)			
Did not work in family business	1.54	**	0.26
Worked in family business	0.86		0.16
Agree with statement:			
Know someone who started a business in last 12 months	1.94	***	0.29
Have skills, knowledge and experience to start a business	1.82	***	0.27
You will often see stories in the public media about successful new businesses	1.61	***	0.23
Stopped operating a business in last 12 months	0.89		0.34
Expect to start a business in next 3 years	1.58	**	0.28
Tried to start a business in last year	2.52		1.58
Have started a business before	0.81		0.16
Employment preference (Self-Employment is base category)			
Employed by others	0.44	***	0.07
No preference / It depends	0.57	*	0.17
Neither/I do not want/need employment	0.20	**	0.15
Not asked because retired or disabled	0.95		0.37
UK region (Northern Ireland is base region)			
South West	1.37		0.57
South East	0.62		0.24
East	1.39		0.59
London	0.69		0.27
West Mids	1.18		0.48
East Mids	0.62		0.31
Yorks & Humber	1.49		0.69
North East	0.95		0.62
North West	0.48	*	0.20
Wales	1.05		0.26
Scot	0.93		0.26
% of early-stage entrepreneurs in working age population in Local Authority area, 2002 to 2015	1.13		5.34
Natural log of number of enterprises in Local Authority area as % of population, 2011	0.97		0.23
Natural log of number of infocomms in Local Authority area as % of population, 2011	1.41	*	0.24
Electoral wards grouped in sixths by Index of Multiple Deprivation (harmonized across UK nations, highest level is base)			
Level 1 (lowest)	0.47	*	0.20
Level 2	0.68	*	0.16
Level 3	0.77		0.18
Level 4	0.77		0.18
Level 5	0.88		0.20
Natural log of percentage of non-UK-born population in electoral ward	0.95		0.11
Constant	0.27		0.41

Source: Own analysis.

4.5 Discussion

4.5.1 Contribution

This is the first comprehensive study of the impact of home country characteristics on migrant OI in a host country. Our theoretical contribution is to use structuration theory to link the migrant entrepreneurship literature to the OI literature. In doing so, we answer a call for research to bring OI into context (Dimov, 2007a, 2011; Welter, 2011) and contribute to Shane

and Venkataraman's (2000) question of why some individuals identify opportunities and others do not.

Our empirical contribution is to show, using a large UK sample of migrants, regional in-migrants and non-migrants, that the act of migration affects OI, controlling for relevant demographic characteristics. It also shows the significant and positive effect that migrants have on OI among their UK-born neighbors, at a time when the UK government is actively trying to reduce immigration. More than this, we find that inconsistencies between old and new contexts and frames that are associated with enhanced OI among migrants are also associated with regional in-migrants and with non-migrants whose contexts change, in the former case because they have moved contexts (regional in-migrants), and in the latter because their context has shifted around them (non-migrants). Surprisingly, and contrary to H1 and H2, the effect of these two little-studied changed contexts is quite similar to the effect due to migration, as shown by the similar odds ratios for each of these three effects. However, this unexpected finding does lend support to our argument for a common mechanism, based on structuration theory. It is noteworthy also that ethnicity, as we measured it, did not show as a significant variable in our study. We return to this finding below.

4.5.2 Limitations

Our study benefited from a large sample size, but even though we know that migrants are highly heterogeneous, we were unable to conduct a more finely grained analysis than that of nationality, and a somewhat coarse-grained four-fold measure of ethnicity. Within many nationalities, for example Indians, migrants from different ethnic groups or locations have widely differing home nation contexts, frames and social identities to draw on. While we knew if they had a family business background, we were unable to distinguish individuals from the same country who had highly entrepreneurial cultural backgrounds from those who had none at all. Thus, our measurement of home country context is imperfect, and this is reflected in the fit of our empirical models: the Pseudo R square for the migrant model was .16.

In his 2015 article, Davidsson argues that the term entrepreneurial opportunity is flawed due to unclarity of the construct as well as the term's implied positive or favorable connotation. Instead of using entrepreneurial opportunity he proposes to enhance research on the construct by delineating it with three alternatives. 'External Enablers' shall help to analyze the "aggregate-level circumstance", 'New Venture Ideas' shall enhance the understanding of "imagined future ventures" and 'Opportunity Confidence' shall describe the "subjective

evaluation of the attractiveness of a stimulus”, namely external enablers and/or new venture ideas (Davidsson, 2015, p. 676). Even though, we adhered to the construct of OI due to the fact that the GEM questionnaire precisely relates to it (more specifically to the term opportunity recognition), we believe that Davidsson’s idea is worthwhile investigating in more detail and that structuration theory could be a potential framework to gain a deeper understanding in this regard as it “provides a common language for exploring the diverse approaches to opportunity research” (Chiasson & Saunders, 2005, p. 748).

4.5.3 Implications

Our theoretical and empirical contributions lead to a range of possible implications for (1) individuals, (2) government policy makers and (3) research. Beginning with the implications for individuals, our results suggest that people who change their environment to gain a fresh perspective e.g., by travelling to other regions of the same country or even abroad, are more likely to identify new business opportunities than if they stay at home. To put it in neuroscientist Gregory Berns’ (2010) words: “[t]o see things differently than other people, the most effective solution is to bombard the brain with things it has never encountered before” (p. 8).

Business owners might wish to note that migrants are, therefore, likely to bring new perspectives into their businesses and, thus, allow new opportunities to be identified. Remarkably, migrants also increase OI in non-migrants amongst whom they settle. Equally, we encourage migrant individuals to recognize the value of their home country (or region) knowledge and experiences as this holds the potential to identify opportunities which non-migrants will not be able to see.

Second, our finding that migrants have a higher tendency to identify opportunities has important implications for national, regional and local government policies. In the specific case of the UK, our results suggest that a significant reduction of immigration to the UK would reduce OI overall, directly and also indirectly by reducing OI among non-migrants whose contexts might have changed as a result of the migrant presence. Our finding of a positive English language proficiency effect on OI suggests that some of the predicted reduction in OI in the UK could be offset by facilitating English language learning among migrants who are already there. In order to reduce race-hate crimes and improve the image of migrants in the UK, much more could be done to educate the population on the positive impact migrant entrepreneurs can have on society. Our findings also underline the value of diversity for entrepreneurship specifically and society in general. Traditionally, UK government policy has been to seek a multi-cultural

society, but there are signs of a decline in commitment to this policy during the period of our data collection (cf. <http://www.mipex.eu/united-kingdom>). Our findings suggest, however, that multiculturalism can generate the first critical stage of entrepreneurial value creation – OI – by enabling individuals to retain a home country identity as well as a host country identity.

Our surprising finding that regional in-migration has the same effect size on OI as immigration suggests that regional and local governments might benefit from actively considering ways of attracting regional in-migrants (including returnee emigrants) to their region. Interestingly, and supporting our findings here, Reuschke (2015) found using a longitudinal panel survey that individuals who migrate from one region to another are more likely to become self-employed than those who do not. Regional governments in peripheral regions might consider how they could attract regional in-migrants and returnee emigrants.

Thirdly, our implications for research relate to our use of structuration theory to generate testable hypotheses. Structuration theory has only rarely been applied to entrepreneurial phenomena (Jack & Anderson, 2002; Chiasson & Saunders, 2005), and tends to be controversial when it is suggested as a potentially fruitful theory (Mole & Mole, 2010; Sarason, Dillard, & Dean, 2010). Yet, structuration is one possible meta-theory (Mole & Mole, 2010) which helps to analyze the dynamic interplay between agent and its contexts (Sarason, Dean, & Dillard, 2006). Sarason et al. (2010), thereby, underline the duality, and hence, the reciprocal relationship between agent and context, and explain that both constructs are not to be seen separable which may be a further step to understanding an opportunity's uniqueness. In accordance to Giddens (1984), Sarason et al. (2010) stress the restricting and/or enabling character of the context for and agent's OI which in our case is especially helpful to explain the differences in OI with regard to (in-)migration.

To further our understanding of migrants' OI, we propose to develop studies based on our framework in different contextual settings and evaluate home and host country effects for migrants in different countries. For example, the comparison of OI outcomes of single migrant groups (e.g., Turkish migrant entrepreneurs) in different contextual settings (e.g., UK, Germany, Netherlands, France, USA, etc.) would increase our understanding of home country contextual factors on OI. Alongside the theoretical framework, it would then be possible to analyze the context-related structural differences in those countries and develop a map of differences, relate them to differences in OI and derive policy suggestions of structural improvements to increase migrant OI and subsequently foster entrepreneurship. Additionally,

the analysis of OI outcomes of different migrant groups within one host country would open up pathways to understand host country contextual factors on OI more profoundly. We would also encourage an analysis of the impact of the home and host country contextual settings on the type of opportunities migrants and regional in-migrants identify and pursue.

4.6 Conclusion

We applied structuration theory to OI among individuals with different migration experiences, deducing and testing seven hypotheses. In doing this, we were able to theoretically analyze why and empirically show (in the UK) that migrants tend to have a higher OI rate in the host country than non-migrants. Specifically, we showed how a range of inconsistencies between old and new contexts and frames generated elevated levels of OI. Our application of structuration theory to the context of migration generated some surprising, but internally consistent, findings. Our overall finding is that it is not the act of migration that elevates the likelihood of OI. Rather, it is internal dissonance caused by inconsistencies between old and new contexts. Indeed, one does not have to migrate to experience this effect: remarkably, and predicted by our theory, the higher the proportion of migrants in a locale, the higher the likelihood of OI among non-migrants in those locales. Overall, migration is a much-maligned activity, yet our study shows how and why it can boost a developed nation's economy, revealing new ways to create value not only for migrants but also for in-migrants and non-migrants.

4.7 Article-Related References

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Article 3

**The Impact of Cultural Distance on
Opportunity Identification of Migrant Entrepreneurs**

Daphne Hering and Matthias Jan Mrożewski

(3rd, revised version of the article)

5.1 Abstract

National culture is regarded as an important factor influencing an individual's motivation to engage in entrepreneurship. However, current literature on the role of culture for entrepreneurship is incomplete as it focuses on cultural differences between countries and neglects the fact that due to significant migration flows cultural differences are increasingly relevant in a within-country context. In this paper we focus on the impact of cultural distance on the ability to identify opportunities by individuals migrating from one country to another. We draw on Ardichvili et al.'s (2003) theory of opportunity identification and integrate it with the concepts of migration and cultural distance thus providing a framework to analyze the interplay between a migrant's cultural distance towards the host country and his/her opportunity identification ability. We, furthermore, conduct a quantitative empirical analysis leveraging individual-level data of migrant entrepreneurs from 2011 German Census and propose a novel way of calculating cultural distance in a within-country-setting using country-level data on national culture from Hofstede. We find empirical evidence for an inverted U-shaped relationship between cultural distance and opportunity identification ability of migrant entrepreneurs which points to an optimal cultural distance level from an entrepreneurial point of view. Our findings have relevant implications for theory and practice.

Keywords: migrant entrepreneur, migrant entrepreneurship, opportunity identification, cultural distance, inverted U-shape relationship

JEL-Codes: A120, C20, F22, L26, Z13

5.2 Introduction

National culture is regarded as an important factor influencing an individual's motivation to engage in entrepreneurship (Davidsson, 1995; Mueller & Thomas, 2001; Wennekers et al., 2007) and understanding its influence on entrepreneurial action is "of considerable theoretical and practical value." (Hayton et al., 2002). It therefore comes as no surprise that the above link was receiving research attention for several years which resulted in a considerable amount of publications ranging from theoretical discourses (Lee & Peterson, 2000) and literature reviews (Hayton et al., 2002) to empirical investigations on a country-level (cf., e.g., Autio et al., 2013; Dheer, 2017; Linan & Fernandez-Serrano, 2014; Laskovaia et al., 2017; Mueller & Thomas, 2001; Pinillos & Reyes, 2011; Thomas & Mueller, 2000; Shane, 1992, 2003). Despite

disagreements regarding the exact characteristics of a cultural context which optimally supports entrepreneurship development (cf., Hofstede et al., 2004; Shneor et al., 2013) the studies mentioned above commonly find that culture is significantly linked to entrepreneurial action whereas some authors claim culture to be one of the most important driver of entrepreneurship (Hayton et al., 2002; Pinillos & Reyes 2011; Shinnar et al., 2012).

Despite the impressive amount of research on the link between culture and entrepreneurship, the literature mentioned above is still facing an important research gap. It is focused on cultural differences *between* countries and, hence, does not account for the fact that culture is not only playing a role in a cross-country context but is also increasingly relevant in a within-country-context. This is due to significant global migration flows leading to situations in which cultural differences do not only exist between countries but significantly change cultural contexts within countries (United Nations, 2016a). Thus, when moving to another country migrants not only bring their home country culture with them, but they also acquire elements of the host country's culture. Hence, scientific discussions on culture and entrepreneurship are incomplete without discussing potential interactions between an entrepreneur's home and host country cultures.

The interplay between national culture of home and host country can be investigated by the means of cultural distance (CD), a concept introduced by Kogut & Singh in 1988, which is frequently used in international business research (cf., Beugelsdijk et al., 2018) and recently found its way into the migration literature (e.g., Belot & Ederveen, 2012; Lundborg, 2013). This important cultural concept, however, has not found its way into entrepreneurship research, yet. The consideration of cultural distance in the entrepreneurial context, however, appears to be highly relevant for two reasons:

- (i) migration is a key global trend and one of the most important societal challenges of the 21st century (International Organization for Migration, 2015; United Nations, 2009, 2016). At present migrants account for significant shares of the overall population in many countries around the world⁸ (United Nations, 2017a). Therefore, scientific discussions on culture and entrepreneurship will have to increasingly focus on aspects of

⁸ According to data of United Nations (2017a) the share of migrants in the overall population of major economies such as Germany, United Kingdom and United States is approximately at 15%.

CD and its role for opportunity identification (OI) which is at the center of entrepreneurship research (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Shane, 2003).

- (ii) migrants tend to be more entrepreneurial than natives (cf. Borjas, 1986; Basu, 2006; Levie, 2007). Thereby, the influence of culture on the decision to engage in entrepreneurship is particularly relevant for migrants (Light, 1973). Understanding the influence of CD on entrepreneurship can help to effectively shape integration as well as entrepreneurship policies in the growing number of countries with significant shares of migrants.

For these reasons the investigation of CD and its impact on migrant entrepreneurship is important. We address this research need in this article and pose the research question on how CD affects individual abilities to identify entrepreneurial opportunities.

In answering this research question, we contribute (1) theoretically, (2) methodologically and (3) empirically to the research discussion. First, we integrate the concepts of migration and CD into the opportunity stream of the entrepreneurship literature and provide a framework to analyze the interplay between a migrant's CD towards the host country and entrepreneurial behavior. For this, we draw on Ardichvili, Cordozo, & Ray's (2003b) framework and extract four factors influencing opportunity identification (OI). We elaborate how each factor is affected by migration and explain how culture and more precisely CD between home and host country impacts the OI ability of migrant entrepreneurs. We, thus, respond to claims from the ethnic entrepreneurship literature underlining the distinct abilities of migrants to identify entrepreneurial opportunities (Basu, 2006; Waldinger et al., 1990) and shift the focus from the analysis of culture to the investigation of CD as a predictor of entrepreneurial action. Based on the theoretical discussion we hypothesize a non-linear, inverted U-shape relationship between migrants' CD and his or her ability to identify opportunities.

Second, we propose a novel methodology of integrating individual level data of migrants from the German Census 2011 with national-level data on culture from Hofstede (2018) to calculate CD measures for different migrant groups. This lays ground for future studies on CD of migrants *within* countries.

Finally, we find empirical support for our hypothesis on migrant's CD and the ability to identify opportunities which we measure with self-employment data of migrant groups from 57 countries in Germany. We show that CD is an important predictor of entrepreneurial action and

that there is an optimal CD level which provides individuals with the highest OI ability. This demonstrates that the relationship between culture and migrant entrepreneurship is more complex than predicted by earlier studies on migrant entrepreneurship (e.g., Borjas, 1986; Basu, 2006; Levie, 2007).

5.3 Theoretical Background

5.3.1 Defining Entrepreneurship, Migrants and Opportunity Identification

Following Shane and Venkataraman (2000), we define entrepreneurship as a field that is "concerned with the discovery and exploitation of profitable opportunities" (p. 217): Entrepreneurship is performed by "individuals who start their own businesses" (Bhide 2000, p. 29), namely entrepreneurs. Accordingly, the question why some individuals and not others identify opportunities and engage in entrepreneurship should be at the center of entrepreneurship research (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Shane, 2003). To address this claim, we firstly look at a specific group of individuals, explicitly migrants. Migrants are distinct as they are united by a socio-cultural set of "connections and regular patterns of interaction among people sharing a common national background or migratory experience" (Waldinger et al., 1990, p. 33). Secondly, we have to gain an understanding of the entrepreneurial opportunity, is a situation "in which a person can create a new means-ends framework for recombining resources that the entrepreneur believes will yield a profit" (Shane, 2003, p. 18, based on Casson's (1982) elaborations). Opportunities are the result of the antecedent OI process (De Koning & Muzyka, 1999; Gaglio & Katz, 2001; Grégoire et al., 2010a; Short et al., 2010; Ward, 2004). Baron (2004) defines OI as a "cognitive process ... through which individuals conclude that they have identified an opportunity" (p. 1). OI is an iterative process (Lumpkin & Lichtenstein, 2005a) based on psychological schemes, pattern recognition processes and cognitive heuristics that is triggered within an alert entrepreneur by the market environment, special market situations, or events (Baron, 2006; Gaglio, 2004; Gaglio & Katz, 2001). Consequently, entrepreneurial action is a context-related construct and, thus, embedded in a particular social context, whereby the (potential migrant) entrepreneur's cognitive processes and behaviors are shaped by the interaction with the environment (Alvarez & Barney, 2007; Muzychenko, 2008; Shane, 2003; Zahra et al., 2005). National culture may be considered as one of many defining parameters of an (migrant) entrepreneur's environment (Hayton et al., 2002; Mitchell et al., 2000).

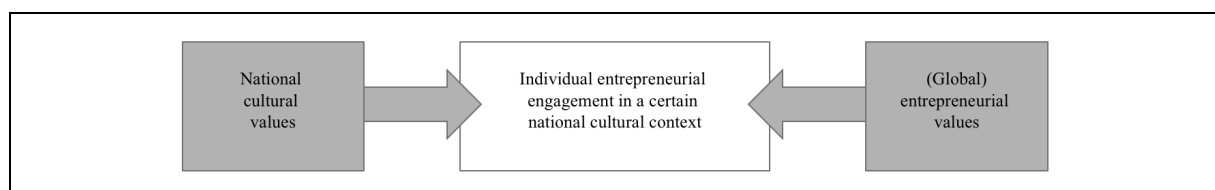
5.3.2 Defining Culture and Cultural Distance

Culture is a complex construct, and defining the phenomenon remains an equal challenge to date (Muzychenko, 2008; Shenkar, 2015; Sousa & Bradley, 2008). Social scientists describe culture “as a set of parameters of collectives that differentiate each collective in a meaningful way” (Dorfman and House 2004, p. 15). Culture may be understood as a “system of values, beliefs, and attitudes that are shared by members of a society” (Muzychenko, 2008, p. 370). Hofstede (1998) notes that culture is the description of a society not of an individual, while this system of values, beliefs, and attitudes leads to a “collective programming of the mind” (Hofstede, 1991, p. 5) that distinguish groups of people from one another.

In this context, value-belief theory argues that this system of values and beliefs impact behaviors of individuals, groups, and institutions that are associated with a certain culture (House & Javidan, 2004; Shinnar, Giacomin, & Janssen, 2012). Furthermore, this system influences the way of how certain behaviors are viewed as legitimate, acceptable, and effective (Hofstede, 1998; House & Javidan, 2004) and provide an implicit understanding of societal rules (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992). Thus, value systems are “one of the most powerful constructs that delineates national culture” (Muzychenko, 2008, p. 370).

Alongside the socio-economic aspects, starting a business has also a cultural dimension (Chand & Ghorbani, 2011). Culture is one of the most important factors influencing the individual ability to identify opportunities (Shinnar et al., 2012) and the decision to engage in entrepreneurship (Hayton et al., 2002; Nguyen, Bryant, Rose, Tseng, & Kapasuwan, 2009; Pinillos & Reyes, 2011). Irrespective of their national origin, entrepreneurs share a set of cultural values (McGrath et al., 1992). Yet, some of these values mirror the value system of an entrepreneur’s national culture (Mueller & Thomas, 2001). This interplay of national cultural and entrepreneurial values is demonstrated in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 The Influence of National Cultural and Entrepreneurial Values on Entrepreneurial Engagement



Source: Own illustration based on McGrath et al. (1992), Mueller & Thomas (2001), Muzychenko (2008).

An individual who is engaged in entrepreneurship (or is able to identify opportunities) in a certain national culture may, however, not necessarily be engaged in entrepreneurship in a different cultural context (Muzychenko, 2008). It is, therefore, necessary to develop a certain cultural fit between the national and entrepreneurial cultural value set to engage in entrepreneurship in a given cultural context (Hayton et al., 2002; Mitchell et al., 2000; Muzychenko, 2008).

When national cultural values differ among a migrant population with regard to the indigenous population within a given country, we speak of cultural differences among these populations (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992; Mitchell et al., 2000). The national cultural differences between populations may be measured as national CD which we define as “the degree to which the cultural norms in one country are different from those in another country” (Morosini et al., 1998, p. 139). Focusing on migrants, we revise this definition to the degree to which the cultural norms of a migrant population are different to the indigenous population⁹.

5.3.3 Effects of Migration and Cultural Distance on Opportunity Identification

In this section we conduct a theoretical discourse on four factors distinctively influencing migrant entrepreneur's OI which are extracted from Ardichvili et al. (2003) framework. We will theoretically deduce the impact of CD on (1) entrepreneurial alertness and information asymmetries, (2) prior knowledge (3) local social networks, and (4) entrepreneurial personality traits.

5.3.3.1 Migration, Cultural Distance, Entrepreneurial Alertness, and Information Asymmetries

Basu (2006) proposes that OI plays a distinctive role for migrant entrepreneurs. Thereby, he takes on Dobbin's (2005) proposition that migrant entrepreneurs' involvement in different cultures generates dual or multiple identities in individuals. These individuals tend to be more creative, entrepreneurially alert and sensitive to their environment (Basu, 2006; Kirzner, 1979) because they possess distinct knowledge and experience of different cultures (Basu, 2006; Levie, 2007b). This may be classified as an information advantage leading to information

⁹ It may be noted that the conceptualization and measurement of CD remains challenging and are heatedly debated (Dow & Larimo, 2009; Shenkar, 2015). Referring to our subsequently analyzed data set, we focus only on exogenous cultural differences on the national cultural while neglecting furthermore important aspects as language, institutional, perceived psychic distance, etc. (cf., e.g., Dow & Larimo, 2009; Johanson & Vahlne, 1977). Our conceptualization of national CD will be explained in the Methodology section of this paper.

asymmetries, which is fundamental for the identification of opportunities (Kirzner, 1979; Mathews & Zander, 2007; Shane, 2000; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Accordingly, individuals who possess better access to information and have the cognitive abilities to process this information, identify more opportunities and engage more likely in entrepreneurship (Hayek, 1945; Kirzner, 1978; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Singh et al., 2008; Venkataraman, 1997).

According to Schneider (1989), culture “is thought to influence the way of perceiving, thinking, feeling and evaluating, it is expected to affect the process by which the environment is ‘known’ and responded to” (p. 152). Culture has therefore also an impact on information availability and processing by the individual. Consequently, individuals who migrated from one cultural environment to another, develop a second “mind set” and not only get access to different information but can also interpret information in a different way (e.g., market information, pricing, etc.), both preconditions for identifying opportunities (Kirzner, 1973). In short: migrants see the world differently than natives and as a consequence identify a wider set of entrepreneurial opportunities (Levie, 2007; Min & Bozorgmehr, 2003). Levie (2007) refers to this phenomenon as the “opportunity perception advantage” (p. 146) of migrants, which is particularly distinctive when strong ties remain with their home countries (Basu, 2006; Levie, 2007).

Consequently, we argue that culture and specifically CD between home country and host country positively impacts the OI ability of migrants. However, this mechanism is strongly dependent on the CD between the migrant’s home country and the destination country. Hence, the greater the CD between home and host country the more different information is available to the alert migrant entrepreneur and the larger the probability to identify different opportunities. In other words, if an individual migrates to a culturally distant country the cultural “mind set” will largely differ between migrant and indigenous entrepreneur, wherefore more opportunities will fall into an alert entrepreneur’s “field of view”. Accordingly, with increasing CD the entrepreneurial ability to identify opportunities should grow as well. We depict this proposition in diagram 1 of Figure 5.2.

5.3.3.2 Migration, Cultural Distance and Applicability of Prior Knowledge

When migrating to an unfamiliar cultural territory the previously adopted cultural patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving (Kluckhohn & Murray, 1961) and, thus, the individual’s affective and cognitive or sense-making processes are negatively affected (Gudykunst & Kim,

1992; Muzychenko, 2008). A migrant entrepreneur may, therefore, not be able to accurately perceive and interpret the alien cultural environment and is, thus, not able to (a) predict the behavior of the indigenous people or (b) show appropriate behavioral responses (Gudykunst, 1993, 2004; Ruben, 1976; Ruben & Kealey, 1979). The idiosyncratic prior knowledge leading to the ability to understand local needs as prerequisites for OI in a different cultural environment (Birkinshaw, 1997; Mainela, Puhakka, & Servais, 2014b) is, therefore, of limited usability. This effect may gradually diminish over time as individuals adapt to their new environment (Ruben & Kealey, 1979), yet, the magnitude of the CD may impact the time span. Thus, migrants from culturally distant countries will adapt slower to the local environment than migrants from countries which are culturally close. On this account, we reason that the ability to identify opportunities with regard to prior knowledge is negatively influenced by CD. This effect increases the larger the CD which is displayed in diagram 2 of Figure 5.2.

5.3.3.3 Migration, Cultural Distance, and Access to Local Social Networks

Another important factor giving access to information are social networks (Ardichvili et al., 2003; De Koning & Muzyka, 1999; Mainela et al., 2014). Granovetter (1973) argues that weak ties, thus, casual acquaintances, bridge information sources and provide valuable access to unique information. Entrepreneurs frequently use their networks to gather information, wherefore, networks are an influential element to identify opportunities (De Clercq et al., 2010; De Koning & Muzyka, 1999; Hills, 1995). Those entrepreneurs highly utilizing their networks leverage wider knowledge and increase the number of opportunities identified (Brüderl et al., 2009; Ucbasaran et al., 2008).

The access to these important local networks may initially be blocked for migrants (Waldinger et al., 1990a), as trust is necessary to reduce the uncertainty of a foreigner's behavior and to build relationships to locals (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992). To build trustful relationships, not only the knowledge of linguistic codes is important but also of cultural rules for forming acquaintances (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992; Stoyanov, 2017). Thereby, the development of cultural competence – the effective- and appropriateness of one's behavior in an new cultural context (Lustig & Koester, 1999) – as well as cultural intelligence – the competence to interpret the behavior of indigenous people the way their compatriots would (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004) – play a decisive role to countervail these initial drawbacks (Muzychenko, 2008).

Migrants try to overcome this shortcoming by building transnational (Clydesdale, 2008) as well as strong local migrant or ethnic networks (Light & Bonacich, 1988; Portes & Sensenbrenner,

1993; Waldinger et al., 1990). These networks provide, e.g., access to distinct knowledge or seed capital (Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; Light & Bonacich, 1988). Yet, these migrant or ethnic networks do not allow access to the entire potential scope of available knowledge and, thus, only partially compensate for the drawback of (at least an initially) blocked access to local networks. Therefore, we assume in the context of networks that the number (and potentially the quality or types) of opportunities identified is (at least partially) reduced with an increase in CD (cf. diagram 2 of Figure 5.2).

5.3.3.4 Migration, Cultural Distance, and Entrepreneurial Personality Traits

Ardichvili et al. (2003) mention the impact of personality traits on OI and emphasize the importance of optimism and creativity in this context. Optimism is related to entrepreneurial self-efficacy, which is an antecedent of OI (Krueger & Dickson, 1994; Krueger, 2000; Neck & Manz, 1996). Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as “the belief in one’s capability to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). The belief in one’s capabilities, therefore, leads to the ability to achieve intended results. From this a significant construct for OI, namely entrepreneurial self-efficacy, evolved (Forbes, 2005). Entrepreneurial self-efficacy is “the strength of a person’s belief that he or she is capable of successfully performing the various roles and tasks of entrepreneurship” (Chen et al., 1998, p. 295). Self-efficacy is task-related and positively impacts the effort exerted on a task (the ability), which successively improves the task performance and, thus, the outcome of the task (Eden, 1993; Muzychenko, 2008). As elaborated above, migration and the exposure to an alien culture shatters an individual’s affective and cognitive sense-making mechanism (Gudykunst, 1993; Gudykunst & Kim, 1992; Ruben & Kealey, 1979) which leads to a state of ‘culture shock’ (Moran et al., 2007). As the individual’s affective and physiological states significantly impact the de- or increase of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), culture shock is expected to negatively impact (entrepreneurial) self-efficacy, and thus reduces the ability to identify a large number of opportunities in the destination country (Muzychenko, 2008).

Since self-efficacy is also a pre-condition of creativity (Bandura, 1997), decreasing self-efficacy consequently has a negative effect on an individual’s creative abilities. Furthermore, cultural shock goes hand in hand with various stress situations affecting creativity negatively. Migrants often find themselves in so-called evaluative situations having to fulfil expectations of their spouse or family abroad, and even their own expectations related to the decision to migrate. Highly evaluative situations, however, have a negative impact on creative performance

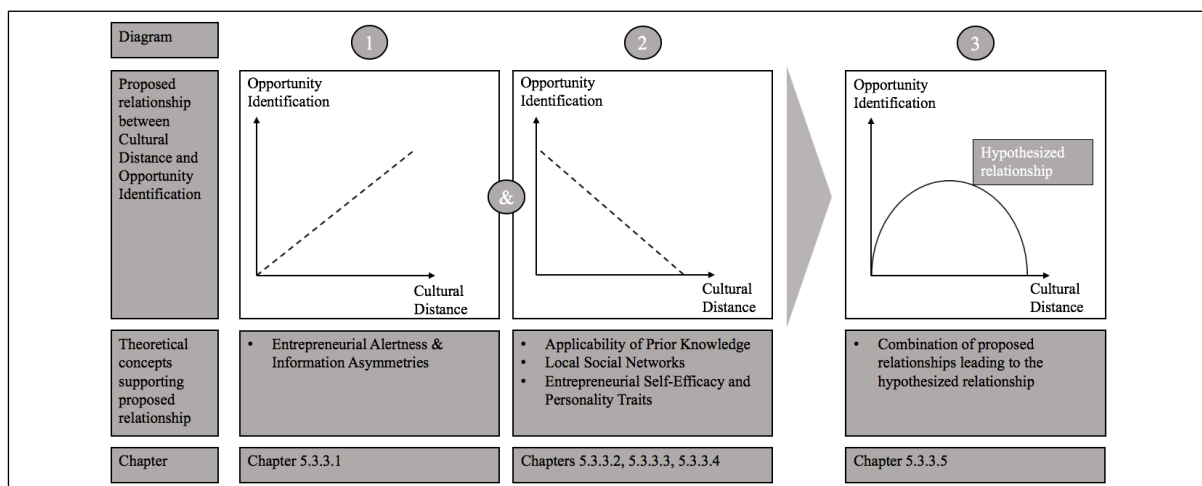
as found by Byron et al. (2010) who underline that creativity is negatively affected in situations in which individuals feel that something is uncontrollable. Migration may be regarded as an uncontrollable process, especially when culturally and linguistically distant migrants are dependent on other individuals (e.g., migrations offices, translators, friends in the host country) and hence cannot control certain elements of the migration process. Finally, creativity results from social interactions and the lack of access to social networks resulting from a migrant's CD constrains a migrant's creative potential (Sosa, 2011).

We, therefore, conclude that both optimism and creativity are negatively affected by CD, wherefore, an increase in CD increases cultural shock and hence reduces optimism and creativity which again results in a smaller number of opportunities identified by migrant entrepreneurs (cf. diagram 2 of Figure 5.2 below).

5.3.3.5 Summarizing Remarks and Hypothesis Deduction

Ardichvili et al. (2003) propose a direct positive relationship between personality traits and prior knowledge on social networks. In our case, this would lead to a negative effect on social networks, which we have argued above. According to Ardichvili et al. (2003) the relationship between social networks and entrepreneurial alertness is positive, which would lead to a negative effect on entrepreneurial alertness in our case. Yet, we discussed above that in the case of migration, entrepreneurial alertness as well as the according information asymmetries would show a positive effect on OI with regard to CD. Hence, there seems to be an additional effect that might interfere in this relationship, which might allow for a non-linear relationship in this case.

Multiplying our effects could indicate a negative non-linear relationship, and, thus, allow for hypothesizing an inverted U-shape relationship. This can be regarded as sensible, when arguing that migrants who have a low CD are able to navigate the alien environment in an easier manner, adapt faster to local circumstances, and – besides supporting home country or transnational networks – are able to develop trustful relationships in a faster manner to enter local networks. Therefore, they are able to make use of their prior knowledge faster and do not severely suffer from culture shock. Yet, a point exists where CD becomes too large and the before mentioned positive effect changes into a rapidly developing negative effect. Hence, navigating the alien environment is not as easy anymore, building trustful relationships becomes more difficult and, therefore, the applicability of prior knowledge is difficult and culture shock shatters optimism. Diagram 3 in Figure 5.2 summarizes this discussion.

Figure 5.2 The Theoretically Proposed Relationships Between CD and OI

Source: Own depiction.

In summary, the negative consequences associated with the diminishing applicability of prior knowledge, lack of access to social networks and increasing negative effects of a cultural shock would be expected to overtake the ability to identify opportunities resulting from a superior access to information from two “worlds”. Therefore, we theorize that after a certain point, increases in CD will be counterproductive to gains in OI. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between CD and OI is curvilinear (inverted U-shape) with the highest OI at a medium level of CD.

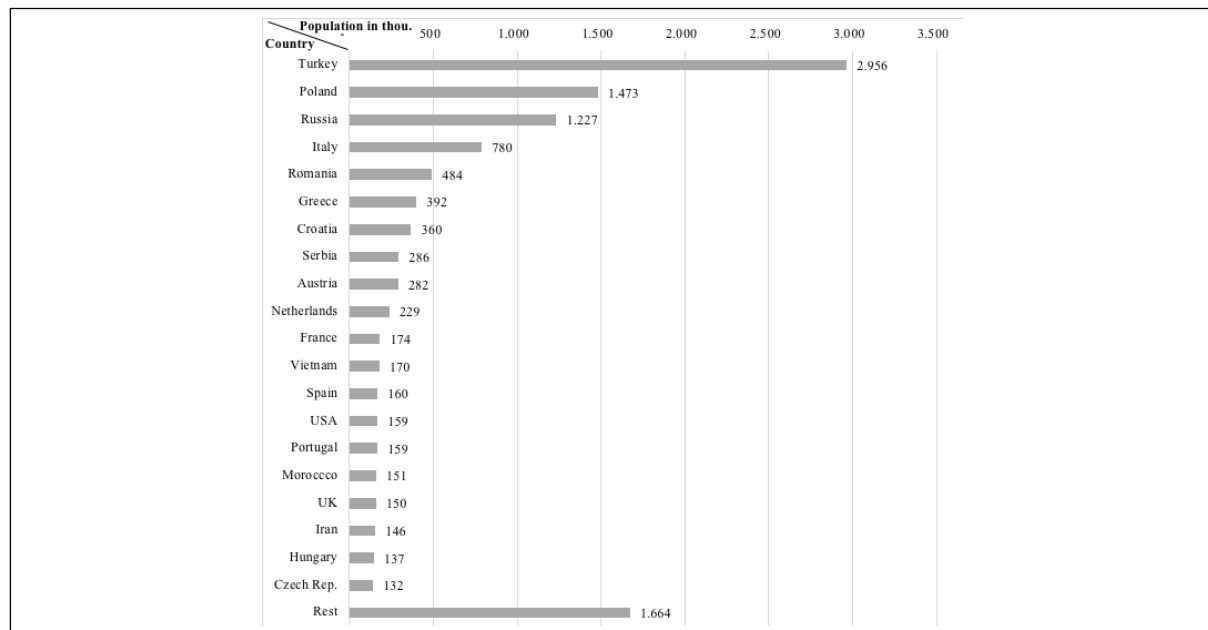
5.4 Methodology

5.4.1 Data Sources

To empirically investigate hypothesis 1, we combine census data from the German Federal Statistical Office with Hofstede’s dimensions of national culture. The census data provides detailed information of Germany’s migrant population making up for 19.5% (approximately 16 million people) of the total German population (81.8 million people in 2011; 65.8 million people without migration background). Thereof, the largest populations originate from Turkey (18.5%), Poland (9.2%) and the Russian Federation (7.7%). For our study, we focus on all (im-) migrants that migrated to the Federal Republic of Germany since 1949 and all foreigners born in Germany as well as all Germans born in Germany with at least one parent who migrated or was born as a foreigner in Germany (German Federal Statistical Office, 2015). Figure 5.3

provides an overview of Germany's migration population by the 20 most important countries of origin based on data from the German Federal Statistical Office (2012).¹⁰

Figure 5.3 The 20 Most Important Migratory Groups in Germany by Population in 2011, in Thousands ('000)



Source: Own calculation based on data from the German Statistical Office (2012).

5.4.2 Variables

5.4.2.1 Dependent Variable

To measure OI, we follow Shane (2003) and make use of an important proxy proving the existence of opportunities: self-employment. The antecedent of an existent opportunity is its identification, hence, an OI process followed by the conclusion of the identification of an opportunity (Shane 2003). Therefore, we use migrants' self-employment rates in Germany as a proxy which is retrieved from the 2011 Census by the German Federal Statistical Office (2012) and provides individual level data with regard to country of origin and employment status.

Since Hofstede data are on a national level we initially faced a lack of data compatibility. We solved this by aggregating the individual level census data to the macro-level by calculating the self-employment rate for each country of origin group. We aggregated the data in a two-step process to the country level. First, we sorted individual cases according to their country of origin

¹⁰ Data stem from 2011 and do not mirror the significant inflow of refugees in 2015.

(migration background). Second, we calculated the self-employment rate for every country of origin by dividing the total number of self-employed by the total number of individuals from a certain migratory group. This approach led to 177 observations in total.

5.4.2.2 Independent Variable

To establish the CD measure, we leveraged Hofstede's dimensions of national culture which explain cultural differences between countries along six dimensions, namely power distance (PDI), individualism versus collectivism (IDV), masculinity versus femininity (MAS), uncertainty avoidance (UAI), long-term orientation (LTO) and indulgence versus restraint (IND) (Hofstede 2018). Hofstede (2018) data indeed provide information on cultural characteristics of countries, but they do not inform about the CD between home and destination or host country. Thus, we used the Euclidean distance formula¹¹ to calculate the CD for each migratory group based on the six Hofstede dimensions.

$$D_o = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (o_i - d_i)^2},$$

where: D_o is the CD of country of origin o (migration background),
 o_i is the Hofstede dimension of the country of origin (home country), with:
 o_1 is PDI of the country of origin (home country),
 o_2 is IDV of the country of origin (home country),
 o_3 is MAS of the country of origin (home country),
 o_4 is UAI of the country of origin (home country),
 o_5 is LTO of the country of origin (home country),
 o_6 is IND of the country of origin (home country),
 d_i is the Hofstede dimension of the destination country (host country, in this case: Germany), with
 d_1 is PDI of the destination country (host country),
 d_2 is IDV of the destination country (host country),
 d_3 is MAS of the destination country (host country),
 d_4 is UAI of the destination country (host country),
 d_5 is LTO of the destination country (host country),
 d_6 is IND of the destination country (host country).

Hofstede's six cultural dimension indices are used as the country of origin, or host country measures for migrant entrepreneurs in Germany. The cultural dimensions for Germany function as the destination, or host country variables. Although combining the CD measures based on the Hofstede (2018) data set with the 2011 census data led to an overlap of 76 countries of

¹¹ Based on the above mentioned preceded factor analysis, we assume that Hofstede's dimensions are orthogonal and, thus, (at least to a large extent) independent of each other. Due to this assumption we are not applying the widely used formula developed by Kogut & Singh (1988) but apply the Euclidean distance formula to calculate the CD for each migratory group with respect to Germany. Hereby, we calculate the distance by taking the square root out of the squared sums of the differences between the country of origin (migration background) value and the destination country (in this case Germany). The Euclidean distance formula, thereby, calculates the shortest distance between data points, which we regard beneficial for our analysis.

origin, our final data set entails only 57 countries, including Germany. This is due to an audit of our syntaxed data file by the German Federal Statistical Office. As some results only included a small number of data points, the German Federal Statistical Office reduced the sample to 57 countries due to protection of data privacy. It, thus, encompasses only countries with sufficiently many data points to prevent from identifying individuals.

We account for the evolution of Hofstede's understanding of culture and distinguish between the traditional CD measure calculated based on the four traditional Hofstede (1980) dimensions PDI, IDV, MAS and UAI (variable called CD4) and extend it by LTO (variable called CD5) which was included in 1991 (Hofstede 1991) as well as IND (variable called CD6) which was added in 2010 (Hofstede, 2011).

5.4.2.3 Control Variable

Like similar country-level research (e.g., McMullen et al., 2008; Wong et al., 2005) our research is confronted with the problem of a relatively small sample size. Due to this, we chose a parsimonious approach when deciding on the control variable. We include the economic development level of the migrants' home countries measured by GDP per capita as a control variable into our models. This is because GDP is a general indicator for a country's market structure and technological sophistication (Furman et al., 2002). It might be expected that migrants from a country with a similar economic development will on average come with human capital, know-how and skills which better fit the market needs of a technologically advanced country such as Germany and therefore will have an OI advantage. Furthermore, entrepreneurial opportunities exploited in emerging countries are different than those in advanced economies which is due to different levels of market saturation (Mrożewski & Kratzer, 2017). Thus, migrants from countries with different market structures might be focused on situations which would be regarded as opportunities in their home countries but not in Germany (e.g., imitative opportunities). We, therefore, expect a positive relationship between the GDP per capita measure of the home country and the according migratory group's self-employment rate in the host country. Table 5.1 gives an overview of the variables used in our study.

Table 5.1 Variables

Variable	Abbrev.	Operationalization	Variable type	Source
OI	OI	Self-employment as % of total migratory population	Dependent	German Statistical Office (2011)
CD (4 dimensions)	CD4	Euclidean distance measure calculated with PDI, IDV, MAS, UAI	Independent	Hofstede database (2018)
CD (5 dimensions)	CD5	Euclidean distance measure calculated with PDI, IDV, MAS, UAI, LTO	Independent	Hofstede database (2018)
CD (6 dimensions)	CD6	Euclidean distance measure calculated with PDI, IDV, MAS, UAI, LTO, IND	Independent	Hofstede database (2018)
Economic development level of home country	GDPcap	Logarithm of GDP per capita	Control	World Bank database (2018)

Source: Own listing based on sources mentioned in Table 5.1.

5.5 Results

5.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

According to census data, 3.7 million Germans are self-employed (5.6% of the German population, hence, those without migration background) as well as 0.7 million people with migration background (4.4% of the overall migrant population). This result is already worth mentioning as it contrasts findings that migrants tend to be more entrepreneurial than natives (e.g. Borjas, 1986; Basu, 2006; Levie, 2007).

The countries with the lowest CD to Germany are not surprisingly its neighbors Switzerland (CD6 = 28.7) and Luxembourg (CD6 = 31.2). The culturally most distant countries to Germany are Ghana (CD6 = 112.6) and Colombia (CD6 = 104.5). A ranking of countries based on the CD to Germany can be found in the Appendix 5.1 of this study. Table 5.2 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations between the variables used in our study¹².

Table 5.2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std.-Dev.	OI	CD4	CD5	CD6	GDP cap
OI	57	1.300%	14.900%	6.880%	3.130%	1.000				
CD4	57	0.000	84.370	51.840	19.584	-0.283*	1.000			
CD5	57	0.000	108.000	66.860	21.807	-0.252*	0.823**	1.000		
CD6	56	0.000	112.560	70.607	21.996	-0.219	0.785**	0.984**	1.000	
GDP cap	57	1358.800	100738.700	23385.384	22821.658	.0483**	-0.517**	-0.567**	-0.545**	1.000

Source: Own calculations based on data from Hofstede (2018), German Federal Statistical Office (2012), World Bank (2018).

¹² The sample including CD based on six dimensions entails 56 countries only as Israel does not report data for the indulgence Hofstede measure and is therefore excluded.

5.5.2 Regression Results

To test our hypothesized relationship, we use ordinary least squares regression across a linear and a non-linear model. Using the three CD measures (CD4, CD5, CD6), we come up with six models in total. Table 5.3 presents the regression results.

As we can see in Table 5.3, model 1, 3, 5 test the direct effects of the relationship between CD and OI of migrant entrepreneurs. It shows a slightly negative relationship between the z-standardized CD variable and OI which is not significant, though. Model 2, 4 and 6, furthermore, test the nonlinear effects, including the squared CD variables. In all three cases we find a significant negative relationship between CD and OI (model 2: $\beta = -0.193$, $p < 0.100$; model 4: $\beta = -0.239$, $p < 0.050$; model 6: -0.229 , $p < 0.050$). The additionally explained variance (change in R square) ranges from 3.0% in model 2, to 4.2% in model 6. Changes in R square are statistically significant at $p < 0.050$ in all three cases. We therefore verify our hypothesis of an inverted U-shape relationship between CD and OI.

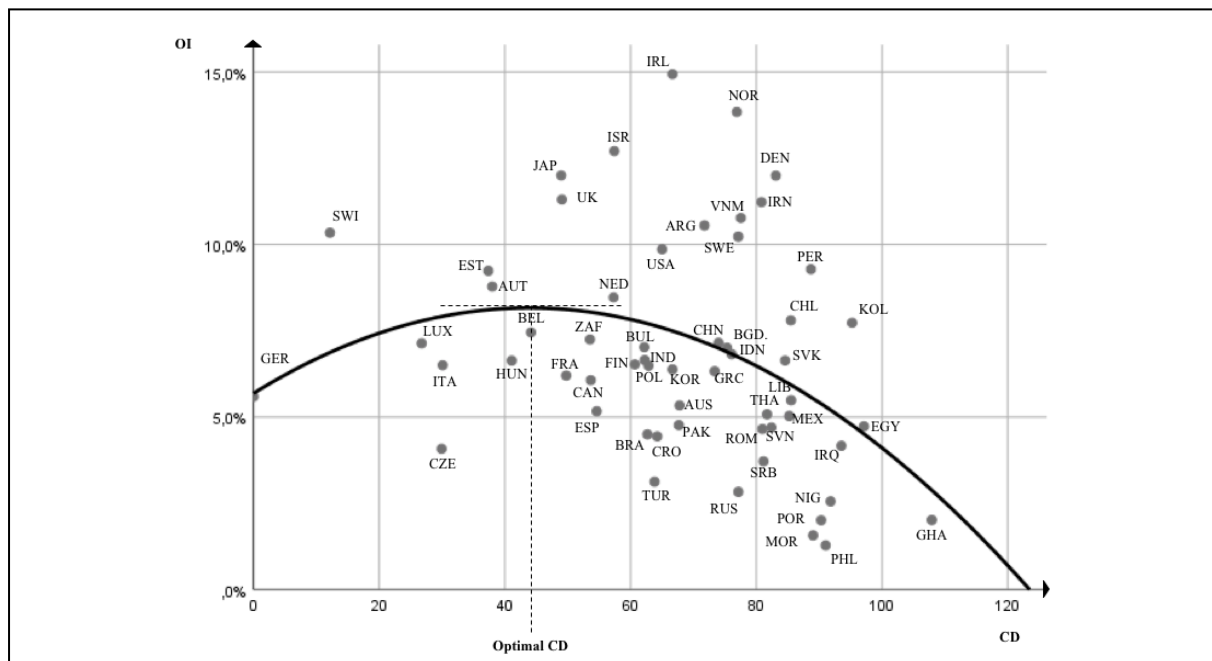
Table 5.3 Regression Results (N=57)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
	Direct effect of CD4	Non-linear effect of CD4	Direct effect of CD5	Non-linear effect of CD5	Direct effect of CD6	Non-linear effect of CD6
R sq.	0.235	0.265	0.235	0.275	0.225	0.267
Adj. R sq.	0.207	0.223	0.206	0.234	0.196	0.224
Change in R sq.		+ 0.030 [^]		+ 0.040*		+0.042*
	Std. beta	Std. beta	Std. beta	Std. beta	Std. beta	Std. beta
Control variable						
GDPcap (log)	0.460**	0.474**	0.502***	0.460**	0.502***	0.467**
Independent variables						
CD4	-0.045	-0.125				
CD4 x CD4		-0.193 [^]				
CD5			0.033	-0.114		
CD5 x CD5				-0.239*		
CD6					0.054	-0.064
CD6 x CD6						-0.229*

Notes: Significant codes: '***' $p < 0.001$, '**' $p < 0.010$, '*' $p < 0.050$, '[^]' $p < 0.100$, one-tailed tests

Source: Own calculations based on data from Hofstede (2018) and German Federal Statistical Office (2012).

Figure 5.4 shows the inverted U-shaped relationship between migrant's CD and OI. Looking at CD we can define a continuum between small and large CD. The estimated curve begins with a low ascent until reaching its maximum level of OI at about one third (so-called 'optimal CD') which is followed by a comparably strong decline in OI.

Figure 5.4 Inverted U-Shaped Relationship Between CD and OI

Notes: CD is measured by CD5 and OI in self-employment in % of total population; three letter country code abbreviations are elaborated in Appendix 5.2

Source: Own depiction based on own calculations.

5.6 Discussion

5.6.1 Contribution

In this article we shift the focus from analyzing culture on a cross-country basis to analyzing it within a country. Thereby, we account for the global trend of migration and the growing role of cultural differences within countries. Furthermore, we focus on the role of CD for entrepreneurship and more precisely for the OI process which is a novelty itself. In doing so, we extend the entrepreneurship and migration literature in an important way by arguing that it is not culture per se which influences a migrant's decision to engage in entrepreneurship but rather the CD between a migrant's home and host country. Hence, we give an explanation why current literature on culture and entrepreneurship does not agree on the optimal cultural environment, yet (Hofstede et al., 2004; Shneor et al., 2013). Some previous studies are hypothesizing that countries with a cultural profile consisting of low PDI, high IDV, high MAS and low UAI will have more individuals with entrepreneurial values (Hayton et al., 2002; Hofstede et al., 2004; Shane, 1992, 2003). At the same time other studies hypothesize that high PDI, low IDV, low MAS and high UAI are creating a cultural profile which runs counter to entrepreneurial values. Consequently, individuals are pushed into entrepreneurship as the only

way to escape the non-desirable cultural context in large corporations or state institutions (Hofstede et al., 2004). In line with other studies arguing that it is necessary to investigate interactions between culture and third variables to sufficiently explain its role for entrepreneurship, we argue that in the case of migrants it is necessary to investigate the interplay between the culture of the home and host country to predict its impact on entrepreneurship, and more specifically on OI.

By analyzing the role of CD for a migrant's access to information, usability of prior knowledge, access to social networks, and personality traits we hypothesized and found evidence for a non-linear relationship in the form of an inverted U-shaped curve. Our results confirm the importance of a certain degree of diverse and, yet, specific knowledge resulting from CD. Looking at the continuum scale of CD, we can subsume that migrant entrepreneurs with a small CD towards the host country enjoy the advantage of a high degree of local integration, e.g. within networks, while lacking the important superior access to information as suggested by Kirzner (1973). Migrant entrepreneurs at the large CD end of the continuum have access to diverse or very different knowledge but lack a minimum degree of cultural proximity, which reduces their ability to identify opportunities in a certain cultural context. Both extremes face problems with OI. Only an optimal interplay of diverse knowledge as well as context-related interpretability of knowledge and cultural proximity including cultural adaptability increases OI – and entrepreneurial activities in the long term – as “optimally” distant migrant entrepreneurs are able to combine their distinct knowledge with the local cultural rules of the entrepreneurial game.

At the same time, the cultural proximity advantage overweighs a wide cultural knowledge base according to the results found in the analysis. This conclusion can be drawn from the circumstance that our inverted U-shape curve comes with a low ascent in the first third of the CD continuum which is followed by a comparably strong decline in OI. This might be a sign that factors which might be regarded as being related to knowledge (e.g., better access to information resulting from migration) are less important than more practical factors (e.g., applicability of prior knowledge; access to local networks). This is not surprising as at the end of the day becoming self-employed is more about “doing” than “knowing”.

We, furthermore, contribute to the existing research on migrant entrepreneurship by responding to the call for research on OI of migrant entrepreneurs (Basu, 2006) and propose a theoretical and methodical framework to analyze a migrant's CD in different country settings. We

therefore lay ground for future studies shedding light on the distinct abilities of migrant entrepreneurs with regard to their OI abilities which again contributes to “understanding the influence of national culture on entrepreneurship [, which, *note from the author*] is of considerable theoretical and practical value” (Hayton et al., 2002, p. 33). However, our methodical approach can be used also in migrant literature dealing with cultural distance and its impact of other important entrepreneurial aspects, e.g. innovative behavior, start-up success, etc..

5.6.2 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Despite our contributions, we acknowledge that our research focuses on external factors influencing migrant entrepreneurs’ OI. Future research, therefore, needs to further investigate internal factors (e.g., cognitive capabilities, risk aversion, etc.) that shed light on migrant entrepreneurs’ distinct OI capabilities.

We acknowledge that the theory development above takes a static view on the relationships between CD and OI. Time might certainly be a decisive factor balancing the impact of CD on OI. This depends on a migrant entrepreneur’s willingness to develop coping mechanisms, i.e., cultural competences, in the alien environment (Muzychenko, 2008; Waldinger et al., 1990). Also, we cannot make a clear statement about the individual weights of each factor which we theorized upon above and how these weighted factors would be affected by CD and, hence, influence the amount of identified opportunities.

Furthermore, our CD measurement based on Hofstede’s indices is debatable. Notwithstanding this, we regard our research as a thought-provoking impulse combining aspects of culture, CD and migrant entrepreneur’s OI abilities. Yet, we admit that the concept of culture – while not even having looked at sub-cultural effects, e.g. within regions – is too complex and multifaceted to be comprehended within a simplified measurement. Nevertheless, as of now, we are able to picture a simplified view of migrant entrepreneur’s CD towards their host country which is applicable to all countries used by Hofstede given that corresponding census data would be available. However, future research needs to develop further comprehensive conceptual models and corresponding empirical investigations to understand the complex facets of migrant entrepreneurs’ distinct ability to identify opportunities. It would be reasonable to compare these results using the World Values Survey data on culture for example. We had to refrain from this option because we were not able to find enough matching pairs between the countries surveyed by the World Values Survey and our Census data set.

Moreover, cultural differences within countries are not only caused by migration from outside but also due to cultural differences across regions within a country. For example, the CD between a major city and a village in the U.S might be higher than the difference between the U.S. and another country. As we are using Hofstede's country-level data, our analysis does not yet allow for this level of detail.

With our results we are able to provide initial empirical evidence for the distinct OI abilities of migrant entrepreneurs which Basu (2006) is claiming. In this case we investigate the impact of CD of migrant entrepreneurs and yet, there are further facets of culture or other factors, e.g., risk propensity or creativity (Shane, 2003), that need to be analyzed in more detail. At the same time, these initial results call for the development of a theoretical framework that sheds light on the distinctiveness of migrant entrepreneur's OI abilities.

In addition, we operate with the German Federal Statistical Office's definition of 'migration background' and, therefore, include first and second-generation migrants in our analysis. In a next step, we need to separate these two groups and analyze their discrete OI patterns. We assume that the OI abilities of these two groups will differ as the second generation of migrants will already have developed certain cultural coping mechanisms. This further analysis might generate results of higher significance.

5.6.3 Practical Implications

Our findings also underline the importance of understanding migration as a potential for fostering entrepreneurship and innovation and, thus, economic growth. This study shows that migrant entrepreneurship may be considered as a great potential to increase entrepreneurial action and, thus, economic growth. To do so, public entrepreneurial support programs need to create different options for migrant entrepreneurs to achieve OI advantages by moving towards an optimal CD level. Those migrant entrepreneurs from countries located at the small CDs end should, e.g., be engaged in entrepreneurial exchange programs to allow access to information not available in the home country and thus to develop a diverse knowledge base. To unfold the potential of migrant entrepreneurs located at the large CD end, their local integration needs to be supported in different ways ranging from access to local entrepreneurial networks to training in intercultural communication and the local language. At the same time, as migrant entrepreneurship literature often suggests, hurdles, as e.g., access to seed capital, need to be reduced continuously for migrant entrepreneurs (Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; Kloosterman &

Rath, 2001; Leicht et al., 2004) to create equal opportunities for a group of entrepreneurs, often underestimated.

Our study has furthermore an important implication for innovation managers and entrepreneurs as it underlines the importance of interculturalism in team building. Thus, our findings show that both individuals located at the small CD end as well as individuals located at the large CD end entail certain advantages and disadvantages when it comes to their OI ability. It might be expected that moving along the CD/OI curve is not only possible on an individual level as discussed above but also at group or team level. Thus, bringing individuals with different CD levels together within a team should allow mutual learning effects and hence help the team members to move towards the CD optimum from an entrepreneurial perspective.

5.7 Conclusion

We made use of Ardichvili et al.'s (2003) theoretical framework on OI and mirrored it against the effects of migration and CD to deduced a hypothesis on migrant entrepreneur's distinct OI ability regarding CD. Thereby, we theoretically analyzed and empirically showed that the relationship between migrants' CD and their OI ability takes the form of an inverted U-shape. Our findings show that an optimal level of CD regarding the host country produces the highest OI results for migrants. Additionally, we have discussed how to achieve better OI results for groups at the outer ends of the CD spectrum. We furthermore showed a methodical approach how CD can be investigated within a country context. We thus hope to have laid ground for future studies analyzing the relationship between CD of migrants and their economic behavior in different country settings.

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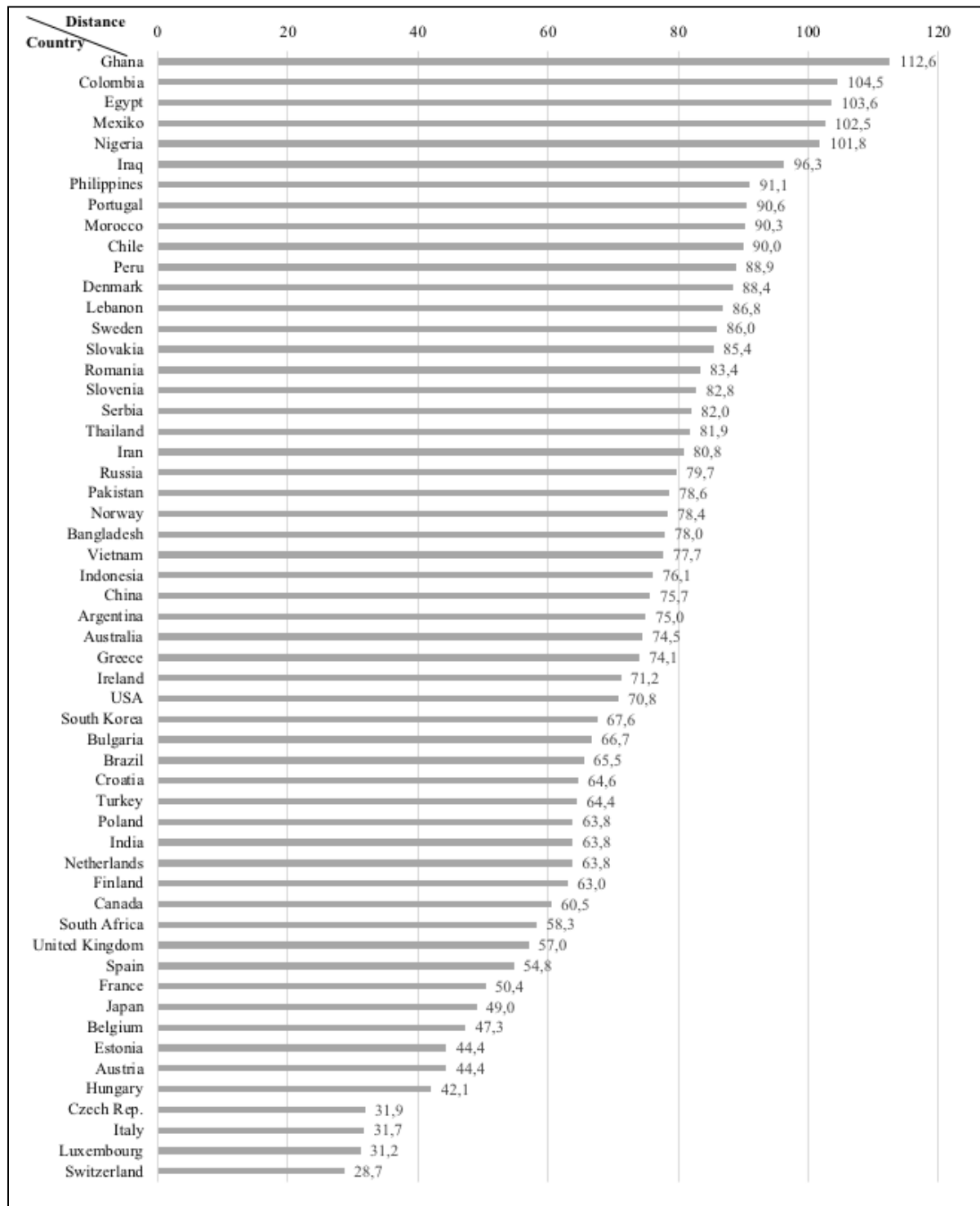
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5.9 Appendix

Appendix 5.1 CD Between Different Migratory Groups in Germany Based on 6 Hofstede Dimensions



Source: Own calculations based on Hofstede (2018).

Appendix 5.2 Three Letter Country Codes for Figure 5.4

No.	Un Code	Country	No.	Un Code	Country
1	ARG	Argentina	36	LUX	Luxembourg
2	AUS	Australia	37	MAR	Morocco
3	AUT	Austria	38	MEX	Mexico
4	BEL	Belgium	39	NGA	Nigeria
5	BGD	Bangladesh	40	NLD	Netherlands
6	BGR	Bulgaria	41	NOR	Norway
7	BRA	Brazil	42	PAK	Pakistan
8	CAN	Canada	43	PER	Peru
9	CHE	Switzerland	44	PHL	Philippines
10	CHL	Chile	45	POL	Poland
11	CHN	China	46	PRT	Portugal
12	COL	Colombia	47	ROU	Romania
13	CZE	Czech Republic	48	RUS	Russian Federation
14	DEU	Germany	49	SRB	Serbia
15	DNK	Denmark	50	SVK	Slovakia
16	EGY	Egypt	51	SVN	Slovenia
17	ESP	Spain	52	SWE	Sweden
18	EST	Estonia	53	THA	Thailand
19	FIN	Finland	54	TUR	Turkey
20	FRA	France	55	USA	United States
21	GBR	United Kingdom	56	VNM	Viet Nam
22	GHA	Ghana	57	ZAF	South Africa
23	GRC	Greece			
24	HRV	Croatia			
25	HUN	Hungary			
26	IDN	Indonesia			
27	IND	India			
28	IRL	Ireland			
29	IRN	Iran, Islamic Republic of			
30	IRQ	Iraq			
31	ISR	Israel			
32	ITA	Italy			
33	JPN	Japan			
34	KOR	Korea, Republic of			
35	LBN	Lebanon			

Source: United Nations Trade Statistics (2018a).

Article 4

**Entrepreneurial Perceptions among Refugees –
The Interrelation of Opportunity Identification and Evaluation as well as
their Link to Perceived Feasibility, Desirability, and Integrity**

Daphne Hering and Maren Borkert

(1st version of the article)

6.1 Abstract

Refugee entrepreneurship is an under-researched area with high potential for research, policy, and practice. This paper explores the interrelated processes of opportunity identification (OI) and evaluation (OE) among refugees. This paper proposes a theoretical model, based on theories from economics, sociology, and neuroscience. It systemizes factors for venture creation from the individual, social, and economic sphere against which refugees evaluate perceived feasibility, desirability, and integrity of their entrepreneurial intentions. We empirically test our framework with 584 refugees showing a keen interest in entrepreneurship and robust clusters of potential Kirzner- and Schumpeter-type entrepreneurs among them.

Keywords: refugee entrepreneurship, opportunity identification, opportunity evaluation, perceived feasibility, perceived desirability, perceived integrity

JEL-Codes: F22, J15, J24, J60, L26, Z13

6.2 Introduction

The number of international migrants has continued to grow from 173 million in 2000 to 258 million in 2017 (United Nations, 2017a, 2018b).¹³ This trend has brought the topic of migration to the top of many national and international agendas (Naudé et al., 2017). In 2015, the world held its breath when hundreds of thousands of people from crisis-ridden countries like Syria, Afghanistan, and Iraq ventured to enter Europe in the hope for more secure and prosperous lives (UNHCR, 2016). The incident showed how Europe is irrevocably changing through migration and revealed fundamental controversies among European Union (EU) member states which cumulated in the collapse of the EU border system and pointed out the limits of borders in a globalized, interconnected world (Boerzel & Risse, 2017; Fijnaut, 2015).

At that time, Germany was at the center of attention and migration movements (Eurostat, 2016). Suspending EU rules on registering asylum seekers in the first EU state refugees entered, the German chancellor, Angela Merkel, ordered a temporary open-door policy (Merkel, 2015). This order allowed for more than a million people to enter the country and is one of the primary

¹³ Along with international migration, the overall world population is growing as well (from 6.2 billion in 2000 to 7.5 billion in 2017). Consequently, the percentage of migrants in the world population remains relatively stable (United Nations, 2018b).

receiving countries for (Syrian) refugees in Europe (Eurostat, 2016; Merkel, 2015). Her decision and its drawbacks lead to political controversies increasing anti-immigrant sentiments in Germany and Europe (Boerzel & Risse, 2017; Borkert, Fischer, & Eiad, 2018) with an intense discussion about the costs of refugee accommodation (Borkert et al., 2018; Bruehl, 2016).

Initially, German economists were optimistic about the intake of refugees and its economic consequences which could bring an end to the increasing shortage of qualified professionals in the country (Astheimer, 2016). Nowadays, economists agree that high investments are needed to integrate refugees into the German labor market and that most refugees will remain net transfer recipients for the foreseeable future¹⁴ (Astheimer, 2016; Bahnsen, Manthei, & Raffelhüschen, 2016; Bruehl, 2016; Fratzscher & Junker, 2015). When policies miss out to integrate the ‘second generation’ of newcomers into the domestic labor market, the long-term costs of the recent refugee influx in Germany are estimated to amount to a total of 1.6 trillion Euros (Bahnsen et al., 2016).

Interestingly, all (scientific or public) estimates, do not consider self-employment (Astheimer, 2016; Bahnsen et al., 2016; Bruehl, 2016; Fratzscher & Junker, 2015). These projections implicitly assume that refugees’ potential to create value or generate employment through entrepreneurship is insignificant (Bruehl, 2016). However, a wide range of studies on migrant entrepreneurship exist and provide evidence that foreign nationals contribute significantly to creating jobs and economic prosperity (OECD, 2010, 2011; Bratti, Benedictis, & Santoni, 2018; Felbermayr, Grossmann, & Kohler, 2015; Rath & Kloosterman, 2000). According to the OECD (2010, 2011), in 13 out of 25 studied countries, migrants exhibit higher rates of self-employment than natives. Studies show that migrants’ social and business networks have a positive, and economically significant effect on exports (Bratti, 2018; Felbermayr et al., 2015; Parsons & Winter, 2014; Rauch, 1999, 2001). Domestically, migrant entrepreneurship contributes to, e.g., revitalizing ailing shopping districts in cities, introducing new products, and developing new (‘ethno’) marketing strategies (Rath & Kloosterman, 2000; Kloosterman et al., 1998; Wiley, 1967; Wilson & Portes, 1980).

¹⁴ For example, accommodation costs are estimated to amount for 30.1% or 878 billion Euros of Germany’s GDP (Bahnsen et al., 2016)

In Germany, around 170,000 migrants become self-employed every year, being responsible for every fifth start-up with an above average start-up rate, predominantly fostered by academics (Leifels, 2017; Metzger, 2016). Research suggests that migrant entrepreneurs invest more weekly hours in their start-up projects, found more often in teams, and create more jobs (Leifels, 2017). Furthermore, migrant entrepreneurs use external funds equally often, and of similar amounts, as other founders but finance their projects less often with bank loans while relying on liabilities and the help of relatives and friends (Light, 1972, Light & Bonachic, 1988; Leifels, 2017). Scholars argue that migrants are generally more entrepreneurial than natives because of specific, differentiating characteristics: they stay optimistic even when things go wrong, never give up, and are willing to take risks (Esipova, Ray, & Pugliese, 2013; Neville, Orser, Riding, & Jung, 2014). However, start-up rates among migrants are heterogeneous across countries, and entrepreneurial behavior does not depend on personal characteristics alone but is shaped by the recipient economy's context, particularly its geographic and economic development-level factors (Vorderwuehlbecke, 2013).

Focusing on the specific migrant group of refugees, scholars agree that there is no doubt that refugee entrepreneurship exists globally (Ghelli, 2017; Ndege, 2018; Parater, 2016), but comprehensive scientific data on the phenomenon is rare. In this paper, we address this aspect in an attempt to move beyond the predominant perception of refugees being 'passive victims of circumstance' (Ghorashi, 2005). This paper recognizes individual agency and acknowledges the – entrepreneurial – choices available, even in the face of crisis and refuge. While many refugees are initially restricted to pursue an entrepreneurial career due to their asylum statuses, we look at the antecedents of entrepreneurial activity, namely opportunity identification (OI) and opportunity evaluation (OE). This research focuses on the following questions: (i) *How do refugees identify and evaluate business opportunities in their new place of residence?* (ii) *What factors impact the development of their business ideas?* (iii) *Can we distinguish different sets of factors that inform specific stages of the OI and OE processes?* Based on a quantitative survey of 584 interviewed refugees in five central receiving countries, it explores the intertwined loops of OI and OE among potential future entrepreneurs with direct refugee experience. Identifying elements of choice and constraints (concerning refugees perceived feasibility, desirability, and integrity) this paper reveals the social, economic, and individual factors that influence the process of decision making when starting a new business as a refugee in a foreign country. In the following section, we lay out the theories and concepts relevant to the topic of OI and OE among refugees, migrants, and entrepreneurs in general. Subsequently,

we present our methodological approach and surveyed data. The paper concludes with the discussion of results, a future outlook and some remarks on studying diversity in entrepreneurship.

6.3 Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

In this section, we will lay out the theoretical basis for our empirical research. We focus on (potential) refugee entrepreneurs and their way to identify and evaluate economic opportunities in their new environment. Article 1 of the Geneva Convention, as amended by the 1967 Protocol, defines a refugee as

‘a person who owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it’ (UNHCR, 2010, p. 14).

Unlike the single definition of the term refugee, entrepreneurship research provides a great variety of (competing) definitions. This paper follows Shane & Venkataraman’s (2000) definition, who state that entrepreneurship is “concerned with the discovery and exploitation of profitable opportunities” (p. 217). Shane (2003) extends this definition by describing it as “an activity that involves the discovery and exploitation of opportunities to introduce new goods and services, ways of organizing markets, processes, and raw materials through organizing efforts that previously had not existed” (p. 4). An entrepreneur is, hence, a person who acts upon the identification of an opportunity and captures economic rewards derived from exploiting it. This view includes self-employment as well as the creation of a new business that employs others (Bosma, Codiras, Litovski, & Seaman 2012; Shane, 2003).

While some authors argue that refugee entrepreneurship requires separate analyses (Cortes, 2004; Fong, Busch, Armour, Cook Heffron, & Chanmugam, 2007; Lyon, Sepulveda, & Syrett, 2007), it has been often studied as a niche of ethnic and migrant entrepreneurship (Fong et al., 2007; Gold, 1992; Lyon et al., 2007; Wauters & Lambrecht, 2008). Established disciplines discuss migrant entrepreneurship with remarkable differences. On the one hand, scholars from sociology, anthropology, and ethnography tend to concentrate on migrant businesses from the time of their existence onwards, inquiring how migrants make use of (cross-border) cultural,

social and financial capital for entrepreneurial activities (e.g., Kloosterman et al., 1998; Marchand & Siegel, 2015; Wiley, 1967; Wilson & Portes, 1980). On the other hand, a realist perspective of how opportunities are discovered and exploited dominates research in business and economics. In line with the prevailing *homo oeconomicus* paradigm, they emphasize the entrepreneurship process over social or cultural value orientation (Alvarez, Barney, & Young, 2010; Shane, 2003; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Weber, 1978). To maintain the strengths of both approaches, we explore the reciprocal process of OI and OE among refugees interested in starting businesses and highlight how they navigate the complex landscape of social, economic, and individual factors in their decision-making processes.

The fundamental concept of this paper, namely *entrepreneurial opportunity*, is widely recognized as a core concept in the field of entrepreneurship research (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), and an increasing number of studies have attempted to illustrate the nature and sources of entrepreneurial opportunities (Eckhardt & Shane, 2003; Dutta & Crossan, 2005). In compliance with current scientific paradigms, Alvarez et al. (2010) point out that opportunities either

- a) exist objectively and independently of individual perceptions (realist approach),
- b) are being formed and exploited by individuals who interpret a phenomenon within a particular environment in a unique way and by doing so create a new reality to seize it (constructionist approach), or
- c) are being created by individuals through their actions who reflect and re-adjust their actions according to market reactions (evolutionary realist approach).

While the realist approach is often labeled as discovery theory and associated with the work of Hayek (1945) and Kirzner (1973) among others, the roots of the evolutionary realist approach, marked as creation theory, is attributed to Schumpeter (Alvarez et al., 2010). Some authors see Schumpeter's and Kirzner's perspectives not as mutually exclusive, but as alternatives to different types of possibilities that can simultaneously coexist in the economy (Holcombe, 1998; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Fu-Lai Yu, 2001).

However, there is an overall tendency to link entrepreneurial activities and individuals to a specific type of opportunity. Thus, 'Schumpeterian' and 'Kirznerian' opportunities would require and relate to 'Schumpeterian' and 'Kirznerian' entrepreneurs. In the view of the first, the entrepreneur is an innovator who generates new business ideas, embodies them in high-

growth companies, undermining the economic profitability of existing firms, hence, leading to a dynamic process of ‘creative destruction’ (Schumpeter, 1934b). In the view of the latter, an entrepreneur is an arbitrageur who is passively alert and benefits from the uneven distribution of knowledge to exploit opportunities that arise from market imperfections (De Jong & Marsili, 2010; Kirzner, 1973). In the past, business scholars have extensively elaborated on the elements that distinguish Schumpeter’s and Kirzner’s view on entrepreneurship concerning a) innovative versus imitative business ideas (Samuelsson & Davidsson, 2009) or b) patterns of OI through innovation versus alertness (Craig & Johnson, 2006). Shane (2003) proposes a five-dimensional framework to differentiate Schumpeterian and Kirznerian opportunities. According to him, Schumpeterian opportunities are market disequilibrating, innovative and rare while they require new information and involve creation (*ibid*). On the contrary, Kirznerian opportunities are market equilibrating, less or even non-innovative and common, requiring new information, and are discovered (*ibid*). Considering the different types of opportunities that exist, the question of how opportunities are identified and evaluated comes to the fore.

We agree with Lumpkin and Lichtenstein (2005) in defining OI as an iterative process based on the “ability to identify a good idea and transform it into a business concept that adds value and generates revenues” (p. 457). Grégoire, Barr, & Shepherd (2010a) highlight that the outcome of this process is the individual’s subjective conviction that an opportunity exists or not (Grégoire et al., 2010a; Shepherd, McMullen, & Jennings, 2007). Despite relevant differences, both the objective discovery theory and subjective creation theory, point to the centrality of our second core concept, that is, OE. According to Haynie, Shepherd, & McMullen (2009), OE is defined as assessing the attractiveness of introducing new goods, services or business models to markets, which is a future-oriented process and takes the shape of a first-person assessment. “That is, the entrepreneur’s evaluations of whether to act on a potential opportunity are not focused on whether the opportunity is “attractive to someone” – but instead focused on whether the opportunity is “attractive to me” in the context of the existing knowledge, skills, abilities, and resources of the venture” (Haynie et al., 2009, p. 338). OE is, hence, a process of ambiguity reduction by which an individual assesses (a series of) events (e.g., opportunities) and circumstances with regard to whether or not they are seen as a desirable and feasible future reality (Dimov, 2010; Shepherd et al., 2007; Williams & Wood, 2015). While desirability and feasibility assessment can take a third-person form, scholars usually focus on first-person evaluations as they are expected to be linked to entrepreneurial action (McMullen & Shepherd, 2006; Mitchell & Shepherd, 2010; Wood & Williams, 2014). OE is a

highly subjective and interpretive process which can lead to deviating if not conflicting results. In fact, when confronted with the same circumstances and events, individuals will reach different conclusions about the opportunities they face, because they have access to different information, interpret data differently, or have different mental templates about the opportunities they face (Baron, 2006; Casson & Wadeson, 2007; Foss & Klein, 2012; Klein, 2008; Krueger, 2000). Hastie (2001), thus, derives the individual attractiveness of an opportunity from the personal cognitive image of an ideal opportunity compared with the actual opportunity circumstances. Individuals develop opportunities through iterative OI and OE assessments and compare mental images of these opportunities based on their knowledge and experiences (Ardichvili, Cordozo, & Ray, 2003; Hastie, 2001; Hastie & Pennington, 2000). Due to these reasonings, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1: OI and OE are not separate but interrelated concepts where refugees identify, evaluate and refine potential business opportunities in an iterative process.

This approach fails to explain, however, why individuals start businesses (and may end up leading businesses successfully) even when they know that the (economic) circumstances are not in their favors. In other words, the rational-choice approach evokes the image of an entrepreneur carefully considering business-related factors of influence. It neglects the non-economic determinants of venture creation which must be integrated into the analysis if we entirely want to understand OI and OE processes among (potential) entrepreneurs, particularly in a situation of refuge and flight. Our theoretical model (cf., Figure 6.1 below), thus, capitalizes on both, factors from the economic, social, and individual sphere to explore how potential refugee entrepreneurs compare ideal and actual opportunity circumstances for venture creation. Different layers conceptualize the various dimensions that shape the opportunity structures for refugees to start-up against which the potential entrepreneurs evaluate the desirability, feasibility, and integrity of their business idea against the opportunities for venture creation.

In economics, research on perceived desirability and feasibility of entrepreneurial opportunities dates back to the 1970s as well as 1980s and has mainly flourished in the intersection between entrepreneurship research, psychology, and neurosciences (Ajzen, 1991; Krueger, 1993, 2000; Krueger et al., 2000; Shapero, 1975, 1985; Shapero & Sokol, 1982). Shapero and Sokol's (1982) model of the entrepreneurial intent proposes that entrepreneurial intentions derive from feasibility and desirability perceptions plus a propensity to act upon opportunities. They define *perceived desirability* as the degree to which one finds the prospect of starting a business to be

attractive. *Perceived feasibility* is the degree to which one believes that she or he is personally capable of starting a business (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). The latter is closely related to perceptions of self-efficacy (Ajzen, 1987) which strongly influence entrepreneurial intentions, defined as the commitment to start a business (Krueger, 1993). Shapero argues that attitudes toward entrepreneurship (perceived feasibility and perceived desirability) should partly derive from prior exposure to entrepreneurial activity (Shapero, 1975; Shapero & Sokol, 1982) and affect intentions (and, thus, behavior) through changing attitudes. Krueger (1993) tested Shapero & Sokol's model and examined the direct effects of feasibility and desirability perceptions on the propensity to act on entrepreneurial intentions. He shows that the breadth and positiveness of prior exposure are significantly associated with perceived feasibility and perceived desirability, respectively (Krueger, 1993). Perceived feasibility and desirability are, therefore, essential parameters when evaluating opportunities, wherefore, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Perceived feasibility is a constant parameter of OE for refugees.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived desirability is a constant parameter of OE for refugees.

Besides perceived feasibility and perceived desirability, newly arrived migrants and refugees faced a third dimension of OE, i.e., the *perceived integrity* of their business idea. Newcomers, both migrants and refugees, are on the fringes of domestic and international legal systems that inform and structure their entrepreneurial intentions. Whether a person is recognized as a refugee, entitled to reside in the long run, and able to access the labor market or not is determined by the complex, often ambivalent and quickly changing landscape of international refugee law, domestic migration and asylum laws, as well as labor market regulations (Zincone, Penninx, & Borkert, 2011). To capture these parameters, our conceptual model integrates the dimension of 'integrity' against which migrants gauge entrepreneurial intentions. *Perceived integrity* shall, thus, be defined as the degree to which one believes that the own business idea corresponds to the current legal-political framework, social, and regulations. Perceived integrity, therefore, affects not only OE but also OI as opportunities shall – at least in the formal economy – match the contextual structures and frameworks of a refugee's place of residence in an integer manner. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

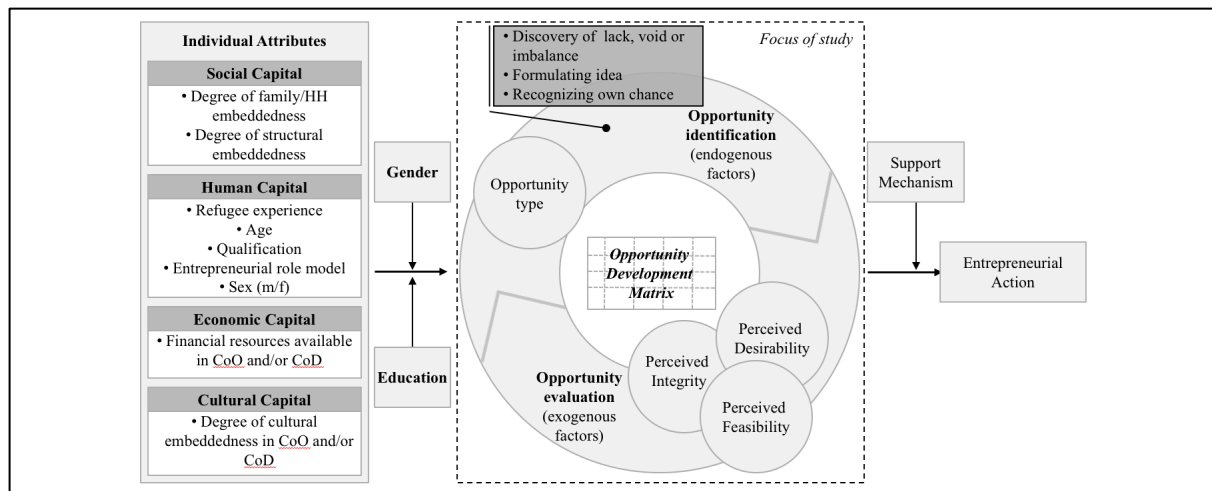
Hypothesis 4: Perceived integrity is present at all stages of OI and OE.

Even if OE takes the shape of a first-person assessment (Haynie et al., 2009), entrepreneurship takes place within the realm of social reality (McBride, 2014, 2015). Entrepreneurial intentions

are, hence, shaped by factors from the individual, economic, and social sphere as illustrated in our conceptual model (cf., Figure 6.1 below). The relevance of these array of factors has been theorized as the ‘mixed embeddedness’ approach and tested for migrant entrepreneurs by Kloosterman, Leun & Rath (1999). Building upon the work of Polanyi (1957), the ‘mixed embeddedness’ approach models the interplay of economic, social, and institutional factors, also across borders, for constituting opportunity structures for migrants’ entrepreneurial activities in the formal as well as informal sector (Kloosterman et al., 1999). Applying the ‘mixed embeddedness’ approach to the process of OI and OE among (potential) refugee entrepreneurs, our model accounts for the relevance of context and community (in terms of social networks) and, hence, for the micro, meso and macro level of social interaction for entrepreneurial actions (Aldrich & Fiol, 1994; Aldrich & Zimmer, 1986; Dimov, 2010; Jack & Anderson, 2002; McKeever et al., 2014; Uzzi, 1997; Wiley, 1967; Wilson & Portes, 1980). Building on Granovetter (1985) who disclosed the influence of social and cultural factors on economic exchange, our approach has been informed by the growing recognition of entrepreneurs (both individually and collectively) as (plurally) socialized actors (Hoang & Antoncic, 2003). With a view on turning the social embeddedness of entrepreneurs into assets for future venture building, our theoretical model capitalizes on the theoretical groundwork of Bourdieu (1985) as well as Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) on human (cultural, social, economic and symbolic) capital. In an attempt to explain the differences of children’s school performance and academic achievements in the French education system in the 1960s, they define *cultural capital* as personal assets including all of the material and symbolic goods (e.g., education, intellect, style of speech, and dress) that promote social mobility in a stratified society (Bourdieu, 1985; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977). As to *social capital*, there is no set and commonly agreed upon definition of it (Robison et al., 2002). Social capital is about the value of social networks, bonding similar people, and bridging between diverse people, with norms of reciprocity (Dekker & Uslaner 2001; Uslaner, 2001). On the bridging note, Bourdieu and Wacquant (1992) define social capital as “the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition” (p. 119). Emphasizing the bonding aspect, Putnam (1995) theorizes social capital as “features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit” (p. 67).

Drawing on the concepts and theories illustrated above, we conceptualize venture foundation among refugees as an iterative process of decision-making in which individuals identify and evaluate opportunities with regard to their perceived desirability, feasibility, and integrity. Individual, social and economic factors situated at the micro, meso and macro level of society shape this decision-making process (cf., Figure 6.1). Central to our conceptual model is what we call the ‘Opportunity Development Matrix’ (ODM, cf., Table 6.1) representing the various factors that have been identified to be of relevance to entrepreneurial decision-making, especially among foreign nationals (Aldrich & Fiol, 1994; Jack & Anderson, 2002; Uzzi, 1997; Wiley, 1967; Wilson & Portes, 1980). The columns in the ODM (cf., Table 6.1), visualize the evaluation dimensions, while the rows capture the different types of factors.

Figure 6.1 Conceptual Framework: Refugee Entrepreneurship Precedents



Source: Own elaboration and depiction.

Table 6.1 Opportunity Development Matrix

Sphere	Level	Perceived Feasibility	Perceived Desirability	Perceived Integrity
Individual	Micro	• Skills, abilities, knowledge	• Values	• Personal plans for life
	Meso	• N/A	• N/A	• N/A
	Macro	• N/A	• N/A	• N/A
Social	Micro	• Personal contacts	• Perceived prestige	• Rules & norms
	Meso	• Social community & networks	• Reputation (peer group)	• Implicit community regulation/social control
	Macro	• Social structure (castes, layers)	• Entrepreneurial culture	• Residence law
Economic	Micro	• Financial resources available	• Personal profit	• Labor law
	Meso	• Competitive environment	• Potential market	• Industry regulations (craft/guild)
	Macro	• Economics circumstances	• Economic effect	• Economics regulations

Source: Own elaboration.

As Table 6.1 shows, the vertical axis of the ODM portrays the various layers of comparison between a person's imagined business and the factual circumstances to realize the business idea (i.e., the 'objectified' business opportunities). In this sense, foreign nationals gather information to assess whether or not their business idea is desirable, feasible, and compliant with existing norms and regulations (illustrated in the columns of Table 6.1) (Ajzen, 1987; Krueger, 1993; Shapero, 1975, 1982; Zincone et al., 2011). The latter relates to the aspect of integrity whereby opportunities are mentally tested for their compliance with the given legal-political framework, market regulations, and future personal plans. This testing holds particularly true for refugees faced with the necessity to gauge their entrepreneurial ideas against the given legal-political framework in the host country (social sphere) which determine not only whether they can open up their businesses but also the type of businesses they establish (Rath & Swagerman, 2011, 2016). Due to the highly regulated craft's industry in Germany, for instance, foreign nationals have been denied to open up tailor shops to which they responded to by creating clothing and repair shops (Leicht, Strohmeyer, Leiss, Philipp, Welter, & Kolb, 2009). Besides the written-out legal framework, also more or less implicit or unspoken market regulations (as in the case of structural discrimination) have an impact on the possibility and type of venture creation among migrants and refugees. As a study commissioned by the German Ministry of Economics and Technology reveals migrants, founding businesses in knowledge-based industries, report disadvantages in customer acquisition due to their foreign accent (Jung, Unterberg, Bendig, &

Seidl-Bowe, 2011). In consequence, written and tacit regulations determine the choice of business and the pursuit of entrepreneurial activities by migrants and refugees from the social and economic sphere. Entrepreneurial activity is also evaluated against the integrity with individual plans, i.e., whether or not starting a venture aligns with personal (short and long-term) plans regarding continued residence, re-migration or further migration movements.

On the horizontal axes of the ODM, factors which impact entrepreneurial decision-making are classified as belonging either to the individual, social, or economic sphere. The individual sphere represents personal factors ranging from individual skills to personal values like independence and personal fulfillment influencing the individual readiness to become an entrepreneur. The social sphere determines the social circumstances for venture creation such as the need to provide for a family but also the existence and accessibility of social ties and networks. To provide for a family or to be independent of welfare benefits may, for example, be a strong individual and social incentive towards entrepreneurship among refugees even when economic conditions are not ideal or encouraging.

As it has been formulated for social and women entrepreneurs (Gupta, Turban, & Pareek, 2013; Orhan & Scott, 2001), we assume that migrant and refugee entrepreneurs may decide to move against less favorable economic conditions, if the anticipated profits from the individual and social sphere are expected to act as compensation or counterbalance (or when there is just nothing left to lose). Hence, besides economic rationales (e.g., to compare expectations on future profits against economic circumstances) also individual (e.g., personal fulfillment and ability) and social rationales (e.g., family desirability and social feasibility of entrepreneurship) can be expected to play a vital role in OE among (potential) refugee entrepreneurs (Braeuninger & Tolciu, 2010; Jung et al., 2011; Leicht, 2005; Leicht et al., 2009). Lastly, the economic factors entail the much-studied business aspects of starting-up and include the financial resources available to a person, expected returns on investment as well as market analysis, among others (Jung et al., 2011; Leicht, 2005). We designed the ODM for this study in an attempt to provide an analytical framework capable of grasping the complexity of the OE process. Without any claims of completeness, it is the conceptual basis that informed the development of our quantitative questionnaire and survey as presented in the following section.

6.4 Data and Methods

6.4.1 Sample

We collected our sample from an online survey distributed to Kiron Open Higher Education students. Kiron is a social start-up based in Berlin, Germany, which developed an online education platform to help refugees gain higher education degrees in business and economics, mechanical engineering, computer, social as well as political sciences (Kiron Open Higher Education gGmbH, 2017b). Refugees usually are unable to attend universities in their countries of residence due to legal requirements (e.g., documents of high school degrees), language difficulties, financial requirements (e.g., tuition fees) and limited university capacities. Kiron refrains from these constraints and offers their higher education program online with complementary offline services (e.g., mentoring programs) (Kiron Open Higher Education gGmbH, 2017; Reynolds, Autio, & Hechavarria, 2009). We chose to interview Kiron students due to two reasons. First, Kiron's student database gave us direct access to registered refugees. Second, refugees voluntarily registered in an educational institution may be considered as those strong-willed to set up their lives in their host countries, including their preparation for the labor market (Zikic, Bonache, & Cerdin, 2010) which may include entrepreneurial endeavors (Levie, 2007).

For this study, we developed an online survey in English which seemed most appropriate as Kiron refugee students were studying online while being spread globally and required to speak English in order to participate in the program. The online survey was developed from February until April 2016 and pre-tested with 10 Kiron Higher Online Education students from May 6 until 27, 2016. The revised and finalized survey was distributed to 2,390 registered students from June 13 until July 22, 2016.

As Kiron revealed that only about half of the registered students were active participants in the program, we distributed the link to the online survey in five batches containing a maximum of 480 student ID numbers per week via email to ensure high participation rates. Each batch was reminded every second day to fill in the survey over a period of two weeks. The data collection process resulted in an overall response rate of 865 refugee students (36.2%) which included 281 (32.5%) students that dropped out during the online survey process, leaving a net sample size of 584 (24.4%) completed surveys. After deleting those surveys with missing data 220 valid responses remain for our analysis as the total adjusted net sample. Table 6.2 displays the main characteristics of the sample.

Table 6.2 Sample Characteristics

Characteristic	Outcome in count	Outcome in percent
Surveys sent	2'390	100.0
Surveys returned	856	36.2
Dropped out of survey	281	11.8
Net sample size	584	24.4
Deleted surveys due to missing data	364	15.2
Adjusted net sample size	220	9.2

Source: Own analysis.

6.4.2 Measures

Our online survey contained 42 items which operationalized our theoretical model depicted in Figure 6.1. Guided by theory and literature we used as many validated items as possible from well-tested entrepreneurship surveys, namely those developed and tested by Hills (1995), Nicolaou, Shane, Cherkas, & Spector (2009), Reynolds et al. (2009; GEM), Karimi, Biemans, Lans, Chizari, & Mulder (2016) to ensure reliability and validity of the measures. This is mirrored by our α_{cron} of 0.84. In addition, we applied refined measures for general descriptive variables, as, e.g., gender, which we operationalized by adapting the gender identity variable of the census bureau of New Zealand (Stats NZ Tatauranga Aotearoa, 2016) which gave us seven additional categories beyond male and female. In cases where none of the validated surveys were able to give us appropriate items, we developed our items to grasp all elements of the theoretical model, which we describe in detail below.

Besides specifically indicated items, we operationalized our items by applying a six-point Likert scale ranging from (1) “I strongly agree” to (6) “I strongly disagree”. In order to better detect positive and negative entrepreneurial tendencies among refugees, we chose to apply an even Likert scale but also gave an option to answer “I don’t know”. Also, the literature suggests that a six-point Likert scale offers a higher probability of obtaining normally distributed variables (Leung, 2011) as well as generating good validity and reliability results (Chang, 1994, Chomeya, 2010).

Opportunity Identification (OI). To measure OI among refugees, we split our OI items into two categories, namely opportunity characteristics and OI-activities, which Table 6.3 below shows. Opportunity types comprise statements that resemble thoughts and believes about what is important to identify opportunities and relate to Shane's (2003) dimensions comparing Schumpeterian and Kirznerian opportunities. OI-activities relate to active identification of opportunities. Our *opportunity characteristics* contain 7 items: (i) “New information is important to see good business opportunities” (OT 1 in Table 6.3 below; relates to Shane's

(2003) elaboration on the requirement of new information or not), (ii) “Creativity is very important to see good business opportunities” (OT 2 in Table 6.3 below; modified from Hills (1995) and refers to the aspect of creation versus discovery), (iii) “New ideas are key to building a successful business” (OT 3 in Table 6.3 below; item is concerned with innovative or less innovative opportunities), (iv) “To build a business I have to build a market” (OT 6 in Table 6.3 below; operationalizes the disequilibrating or equilibrating function of opportunities), (v) “In the area where I live, I see plenty of good opportunities to start a business in the next 6 months” (OT 7 in Table 6.3 below from Reynolds et al. (2009) and refers to rare or common opportunities), (vi) “Starting a business is an adventure” (OT 4 in Table 6.3 below), and (vii) “I follow my ideas even against resistance” (OT 5 in Table 6.3 below). Items (ii) and (v) were taken from existing surveys while the other statements were developed by ourselves. We added items (vi) and (vii) to underline the span between Schumpeterian and Kirznerian opportunities.

We adapted the two items which we used for the *OI-activity* section from different existing measures. With “I have a special alertness or sensitivity towards business opportunities in my environment” (OI 1, cf., Table 6.3; Karimi et al., 2016) we relate to Kirzner’s concept of alertness. “I often see opportunities to start-up new businesses (even though I may not start/found the business)” (OI 2, cf., Table 6.3) by Nicolaou et al. (2009) captures the identification of opportunities.

Table 6.3 Operationalization of the Opportunity Development Matrix (ODM)

Sphere	Level	Code	Opportunity type	Source	Code	OI - Activity	Source			
Opportunity		OT 1	• New information is important to see good business opportunities.	Own	OI 1	• I have a special alertness or sensitivity towards business opportunities in my environment.	Karimi et. al, 2016			
		OT 2	• Creativity is very important to see good business opportunities.	Hills, 1995 (modified)	OI 2	• I often see opportunities to start-up new businesses (even though I may not start/ found the business).	Nicolaou, 2009			
		OT 3	• New ideas are key to building a successful business.	Own						
		OT 4	• Starting a business is an adventure.	Own						
		OT 5	• I follow my ideas even against resistance.	Own						
		OT 6	• To build a successful business I have to build a new market.	Own						
		OT 7	• In the area where I live I see plenty of good opport. to start a business in the next 6 month.	Reynolds et al., 2009						
Sphere	Level	Code	Perceived Feasibility	Source	Code	Perceived Desirability	Source	Code	Perceived Integrity	Source
Individual	Micro	IF1	• I have the knowledge, skills and experience required to start a new business.	Reynolds et al., 2009	ID1	• In the country where I come from, most people consider starting a new business a desirable career path.	Reynolds et al., 2009 (modified)	II1	• Starting my own business is the best way to build up a new life in the country where I am at the moment.	Own
	Meso	IF2	• N/A	N/A	ID2	• N/A	N/A	II2	• N/A	N/A
	Macro	IF3	• N/A	N/A	ID3	• N/A	N/A	II3	• N/A	N/A
Social	Micro	SF1	• I know exactly whom to ask to get financial support to set up a business.	Own	SD1	• N/A	N/A	SI1	• I can imagine that refugees who are starting their own business are highly respected in the country where I am at the moment. • To start a business I need to know the culture of the country where I am at the moment.	Own
	Meso	SF2	• Being engaged in different cultures helps me to see good business opportunities.	Own	SD2	• N/A	N/A	SI2	• For my business idea I will benefit from understanding different cultural contexts.	Own
	Macro	SF3	• I see good opportunities for refugee businesses in the country where I am at the moment.	Own	SD3	• In the country where I come from, those who are successful at starting a new business are highly respected.	Reynolds et al., 2009 (modified)	SI3	• N/A	N/A
Economic	Micro	EF1	• I do have the financial means to set up a business.	Own	ED1	• My motivation to start my own business is to earn a lot of money.	Own	EI1	• N/A	N/A
	Meso	EF2			ED2	• I know exactly what to sell to whom and how to sell it.	Own	EI2	• N/A	N/A
	Macro	EF3	• The economic situation in the country where I am at the moment allows me to set up a business.	Own	ED3	• N/A	N/A	EI3	• I know the laws and rules of the country where I am at the moment to set up a business. • I know the laws and rules to set up a business in more than one country.	Own Own

Source: As indicated above.

Opportunity Evaluation (OE). OE by refugees was measured by operationalizing each array of the ODM (cf., Table 6.3). We operationalized each sphere with regard to perceived (i) feasibility, (ii) desirability, and (iii) integrity, whereby the individual sphere relates only to micro-level elements while the social and economic sphere relate to different levels (micro, meso, and/or macro level) if applicable and/or evaluable by the interviewees. As discussed in the theory section, some arrays are not evaluable for an interviewee as the refugees' current legal status would not yet allow for an appropriate assessment (cf., e.g., EI1 or EI2 in Table 6.3). We discuss the detailed operationalization of each array below.

(i) Perceived Feasibility. As Table 6.3 shows, we operationalized the individual micro-level element (IF1) of "skills, abilities, knowledge" with a modified GEM item "I have the knowledge, skills, and experience required to start a new business" (Reynolds et al., 2009). For the social sphere, we developed three items in total, one for each of the micro, meso and macro levels. We operationalized SF1 concerning personal contacts with "I know exactly whom to ask to get financial support to set up a business". The social community and networks element (SF2) was operationalized with the statement "Being engaged in different cultures helps me to see good business opportunities". The element of social structure (SF3) was transformed into the item "I see good opportunities for refugee business in the country where I am at the moment". The economic sphere includes two items, operationalizing the micro- and macro-level, which were both developed by ourselves. EF1, capturing financial resources available, was transferred into "I do have the financial means to set up a business". EF3, referring to the economic circumstances, was operationalized with "The economic situation in the country where I am at the moment allows me to set up a business".

(ii) Perceived Desirability. The individual micro-level, ID1, for perceived desirability, was operationalized with an existing item from Reynolds et al. (2009, GEM) to capture refugees' value beliefs: "In the country where I come from, most people consider starting a new business a desirable career path". The social dimension, regarding the entrepreneurial culture which refugees internalized and makes an entrepreneurial endeavor desirable, was operationalized on the macro level with another modified GEM-variable "In the country where I come from, those who are successful at starting a new business are highly respected" (Reynolds et al., 2009). The item is related to the home country perception of entrepreneurial culture as we believe it would not be possible for the refugees to fully assess the entrepreneurial culture and reputation in their current country of residence. We operationalized the economic sphere on the micro- and meso-level and omitted the macro-level as the analysis of the economic effect was assumed to be an

ambiguous task for refugee interviewees. ED1 – personal profit – was transformed into “My motivation to start my own business is to earn a lot of money” while ED2 – potential market – was operationalized using the variable “I know exactly what to sell to whom and how to sell it”. Both items were developed by ourselves.

(iii) Perceived Integrity. For the individual micro-level variable III1, we created the item “Starting my own business is the best way to build up a new life in the country where I am at the moment” which captures personal plans for life as depicted in Table 6.1 and Table 6.3. Furthermore, for the social sphere, we only operationalized the micro and meso level due to assessment complexity of the macro level for our interviewed refugees. SI1 – rules and norms – was converted with our own items into “I can imagine that refugees who are starting their own business are highly respected in the country where I am at the moment” as well as “To start a business I need to know the culture of the country where I am at the moment”. SI2 – implicit community regulation/social control – was transformed into the item “For my business idea I will benefit from understanding different cultural contexts”, also developed by ourselves. We operationalized the economic sphere only at the macro level due to the assessment complexity of EI 1 and EI2. EI 3 – economic regulations – was captured by two items, namely “I know the laws and rules of the country where I am at the moment to set up a business” as well as “I know the laws and rules to set up a business in more than one country”. Both are statements that we have not taken from other sources (cf., Table 6.3).

Overall, the individual spheres along the three pillars described above additionally resemble the operationalization of Bourdieu’s capitals. For example, the item IF1s relate to human capital, SF1 to social capital, EF1 to economic capital, and the second item in SI1 to cultural capital. In addition to that, we added 2 items related to entrepreneurial role models in the human capital context (“There is at least one person in my closer family who is a business owner” by Reynolds et al. (2009) and “I admire at least one person who owns a business”, developed by ourselves). Furthermore, we developed the item “Arab cultures help me to start-up a new business in the country where I am at the moment”, which relates to the refugees’ cultural capital.

6.5 Analysis and Results

6.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

To conduct our analyses, we used SPSS. Our net sample comprises 584 participants, whereof 83.9% are male, and 15.5% are female while diverse gender, as well as no answer, make up for 0.6%. The refugees in our sample are mainly located in Europe, primarily in Germany (51.0%), France (7.4%), and Sweden (2.7%). 8.4% reside in Turkey, 6.0% in Indonesia, and 24.5% in different locations around the globe which seems to reflect the current refugee inflow adequately. The respondents in our sample are relatively young, while 5.0% are below 20 years, 59.4% are between 20 and 29 years, and 28.8% are between 30 and 39 years. 6.8% of the sample is above 40. Most of them have a bachelor's degree (44.3%) or graduated from secondary school (29.3%) followed by other educational degrees (9.9%), vocational training (6.2%) and master's degrees (5.8%). Thereby, 55.8% have finished their education before leaving their home countries. Overall, they seem to have substantial entrepreneurial experience from past experiences (39.9%), while 29.8% proclaim to be serial entrepreneurs. Table 6.4 gives an overview of the descriptive characteristics of the sample and additionally distinguishes between the net sample (as described above) and the adjusted net sample of 220 participants. Table 6.5 provides information about the variables' means, standard deviations and their correlations of the capital and moderator variables. We find a positive correlation between gender and age, while, interestingly, the completion of education shows a slightly negative correlation with age. This result might resemble the fact that those having started their education at an early age had to leave the country and were not able to finish their education. Entrepreneurial experience and serial entrepreneurship are positively correlated but negatively correlated with age, indicating that younger participants possess (serial) entrepreneurial experience. Table 6.6 displays the descriptive statistics for OI and OE variables related to the ODM which we will discuss in more detail in the Cluster Analysis section below.

Table 6.4 Descriptive Sample Statistics

Descriptive Variable	Values	Net Sample		Adjusted Net Sample	
		Count	In percent	Count	In percent
Age	<20	29	5.0	7	3.2
	20-29	347	59.4	121	55.0
	30-39	168	28.8	70	31.8
	40-49	31	5.3	18	8.2
	50+	9	1.5	4	1.8
	Total	584	100.0	220	100.0
Gender	Male	490	83.9	192	87.3
	Female	90	15.4	27	12.3
	Diverse & other	2	0.3	1	0.4
	No response	2	0.3	0	0.0
	Total	584	100.0	220	100.0
Education	Primary School	11	1.9	4	1.8
	Secondary School	171	29.3	63	28.6
	Vocational Training	36	6.2	12	5.5
	Bachelor degree	259	44.3	103	46.8
	Master degree	34	5.8	16	7.3
	Doctorate degree	7	1.2	2	0.9
	Other	58	9.9	18	8.2
	None of the above	8	1.4	2	0.9
	Total	584	100.0	220	100.0
Completed Education	Yes	326	55.8	131	59.5
	No	258	44.2	89	40.5
	Total	584	100.0	220	100.0
Main locations	Germany	297	50.8	108	49.1
	Turkey	49	8.4	19	8.6
	France	43	7.4	12	5.5
	Indonesia	35	6.0	12	5.5
	Sweden	16	2.7	6	2.7
	Other locations globally	144	24.7	63	28.6
	Total	584	100.0	220	100.0
Entrepreneurial experience in the past	Yes	233	39.9	96	43.6
	No	319	54.6	112	50.9
	I don't know	32	5.5	12	5.5
	Total	584	100.0	220	100.0
Serial entrepreneurs in the past	Yes	174	29.8	62	28.2
	No	389	66.6	150	68.2
	I don't know	21	3.6	8	3.6
	Total	584	100.0	220	100.0

Source: Own analysis.

Table 6.5 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of Capital and Moderator Variables (** p<.01; * p<.05)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Age	28.33	7.22	1.00						
2 Gender	1.88	.59	.02	1.00					
3 Level of education	3.73	1.60	.20**	.06	1.00				
4 Completion of education	1.44	.50	-.11**	.07	.06	1.00			
5 Entrepreneurial experience	1.66	.58	-.20**	.01	-.07	.05	1.00		
6 Serial entrepreneur	1.74	.52	-.19**	-.08	-.07	.09*	.40**	1.00	
7 Training	1.99	1.08	-.05	-.03	-.01	.07	.08	.05	1.00
8 Kiron education	1.76	0.90	-.04	-.08	.01	.01	.02	.04	.032**

Source: Own analysis.

Table 6.6 Descriptive Statistics for OI and OE Variables, Including Human and Social Capital

	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
1 Starting a business is an adventure.	560	2.09	1.06																											
2 New ideas are key to building a successful business.	575	1.55	0.67	.107*																										
3 To build a successful business I have to build a new market.	547	2.82	1.31	.167**	.237**																									
4 New information is important to see good business opportunities.	566	1.68	0.77	.158**	.286**	.191**																								
5 Creativity is very important to see good business opportunities.	571	1.53	0.75	.115**	.232**	.158**	.326**																							
6 I have a special alertness or sensitivity towards business opportunities in my environment.	510	2.67	1.2	.190**	.075	.277**	.239**	.156**																						
7 I often see opportunities to start-up new businesses (even though I may not start/found the business).	530	2.58	1.29	.170**	.057	.110*	.167**	.171**	.351**																					
8 In the area where I live I see plenty of good opportunities to start a business in the next 6 month.	508	3.25	1.49	.177**	.047	.079	.155**	.142**	.309**	.412**																				
9 I follow my ideas even against resistance.	550	2.51	1.25	.134**	.125**	.201**	.174**	.247**	.176**	.161**	.125**																			
10 In the country where I come from, those who are successful at starting a new business are highly respected.	567	2.23	1.27	.019	.087*	.157**	.111**	.104*	.140**	.064	.115*	-.014																		
11 In the country where I come from, most people consider starting a new business a desirable career path.	546	2.58	1.24	.110*	.110*	.212**	.156**	.125**	.156**	.148**	.091*	.015	.439**																	
12 I can imagine that refugees who are starting their own business are highly respected in the country where I am at the moment.	529	2.36	1.4	.065	.044	.053	.044	.126**	.135**	.080	.174**	.099*	.132**	.120**																
13 I see good opportunities for refugee businesses in the country where I am at the moment.	536	2.92	1.54	.081	.109*	.074	.043	.138**	.223**	.224**	.411**	.129**	.143**	.130**	.437**															
14 The economic situation in the country where I am at the moment allows me to set up a business.	519	3.03	1.64	.030	.032	.089*	.026	.090*	.216**	.194**	.345**	.087	.088*	.077	.425**	.634**														
15 I know the laws and rules of the country where I am at the moment to set up a business.	482	3.3	1.52	.046	.146**	.202**	.052	.071	.259**	.074	.233**	.108*	.138**	.197**	.172**	.312**	.293**													
16 I have the knowledge, skills and experience required to start a new business.	542	2.68	1.34	.132**	.201**	.188**	.215**	.166**	.262**	.223**	.313**	.215**	.114**	.143**	.048	.218**	.186**	.405**												
17 I do have the financial means to set up a business.	538	4.17	1.64	.038	.003	.179**	.074	-.027	.214**	.106*	.217**	.039	.062	.126**	.040	.190**	.260**	.281**	.331**											
18 I know exactly whom to ask to get financial support to set up a business.	463	4.05	1.56	.018	.024	.202**	.024	-.002	.183**	.056	.250**	.086	.029	.129**	.084	.152**	.221**	.418**	.334**	.593**										
19 My motivation to start my own business is to earn a lot of money.	563	3.02	1.32	.087*	.070	.216**	.137**	.096*	.161**	.105*	.084	.038	.148**	.142**	.011	.106*	.089*	.223**	.167**	.225**	.258**									
20 Starting my own business is the best way to build up a new life in the country where I am at the moment.	551	2.37	1.43	.137**	.130**	.149**	.092*	.176**	.235**	.079	.288**	.170**	.154**	.114**	.338**	.437**	.399**	.356**	.294**	.230**	.136**	.203**								
21 To start a business I need to know the culture of the country where I am at the moment.	576	1.89	1.15	.120**	.115**	.062	.196**	.158**	.101*	.101*	.059	.074	.066	.024	.160**	.087*	.123**	.122**	.056	.077	.034	-.012	.145**							
22 Arab cultures help me to start up a new business in the country where I am at the moment.	519	3.74	1.58	.025	.026	.012	-.012	-.010	.058	.036	.170**	.009	.042	.042	.178**	.189**	.239**	.263**	.166**	.216**	.241**	.080	.252**	.058						
23 Being engaged in different cultures helps me to see good business opportunities.	556	2.02	0.98	.128**	.211**	.155**	.224**	.261**	.152**	.209**	.105*	.117**	.101*	.162**	.151**	.139**	.078	.069	.182**	.033	.137**	.100*	.157**	.238**	.227**					
24 I know the laws and rules to set up a business in more than one country.	481	3.39	1.45	.027	.137**	.236**	.038	.008	.189**	.166**	.255**	.145**	.124**	.206**	.111*	.243**	.197**	.553**	.439**	.316**	.455**	.255**	.260**	.046	.197**	.214**				
25 I know exactly what to sell to whom and how to sell it.	527	2.83	1.33	.027	.170**	.236**	.153**	.088*	.217**	.227**	.303**	.199**	.115**	.159**	.044	.188**	.161**	.373**	.552**	.299**	.374**	.228**	.330**	.074	.146**	.229**	.580**			
26 For my business idea I will benefit from understanding different cultural contexts.	532	2.18	0.95	.147**	.179**	.150**	.213**	.199**	.191**	.218**	.143**	.085	.035	.083	.120**	.188**	.120**	.169**	.300**	.077	.136**	.041	.168**	.161**	.049	.331**	.267**	.377**		
27 I admire at least one person who owns a business.	535	2.13	1.03	.187**	.229**	.076	.197**	.330**	.071	.172**	.134**	.100*	.072	.047	.091*	.117**	.104*	.126**	.183**	.013	.093*	.027	.139**	.187**	.049	.311**	.080	.174**	.325**	
28 There is at least one person in my closer family who is a business owner.	535	2.85	1.61	.065	.095*	.072	.088*	.086*	.113*	.137**	.177**	.025	.220**	.229**	.116*	.206**	.146**	.159**	.238**	.155**	.224**	.046	.108*	.114**	.104*	.150**	.187**	.225**	.222**	.284**

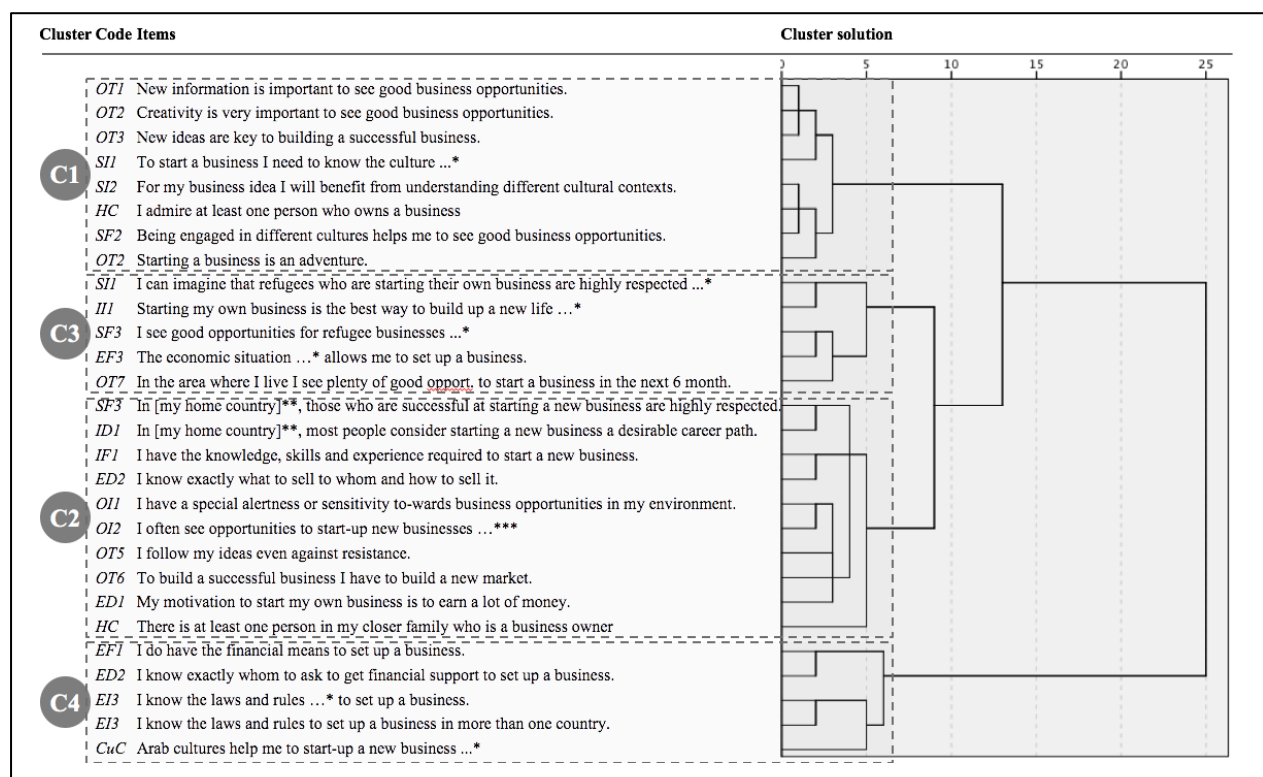
* p < .05, ** p < .01

Source: Own analysis.

6.5.2 Cluster Analysis

To address our research questions on (i) how refugees evaluate business opportunities, (ii) which factors influence the further development of their business ideas, and (iii) the set of factors reflecting their current stage of entrepreneurial engagement, we conducted a hierarchical cluster analysis. Applying the Ward method and using squared Euclidean distance to measure intervals led to the best clustering results regarding interpretability. We received a four-cluster solution for $N = 220$. Figure 6.2 displays the resulting dendrogram with its cluster solution.

Figure 6.2 Cluster Analysis: Dendrogram



Notes: * in the country where I am at the moment; ** the country where I come from; *** (even though I may not start/fount the business)

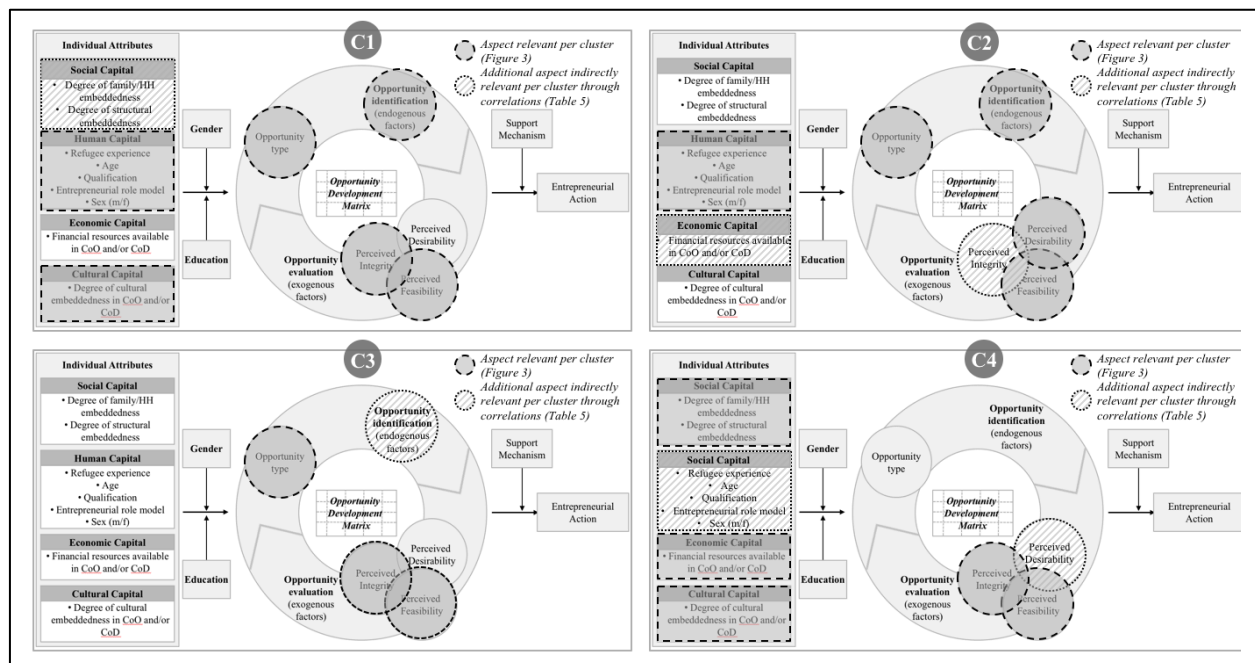
Source: Own analysis based on SPSS.

As Figure 6.2 reveals, cluster C1 contains eight and C2 ten variables, while C3 and C4 include five items each. Cluster C1 is the second largest cluster, as shown in Table 6.7, and has the largest share of females. Most refugees are between 20-29 years, have a Bachelor's degree and are located in Germany. 70.7% are interested in building a new business and would like to set up their new business in Germany.

C1 includes variables that relate to the opportunity types (OT 1, OT 2, OT, and OT 4, cf., Table 6.3 and Figure 6.2) resembling the consent toward the Schumpeterian opportunity aspects

regarding the requirement of new information for opportunity creation and innovation. Furthermore, C1 focuses on aspects related to perceived feasibility (SF 2) and integrity (SI1, SI2, also relating to cultural capital) which are linked to the social sphere on the micro- and meso-level. Lastly, this cluster includes the human capital variable “I admire at least one person who owns a business”. Table 6.6 indicates, furthermore, that C1 indirectly touches upon IF1 and SF1 (Table 6.3) with correlations of 0.300 and 0.377 respectively and are, hence, drawing indirectly on their human and social capital when being engaged in an early stage opportunity seeking process. Figure 6.3 depicts the cluster results and matches them against our theoretical model.

Figure 6.3 Matching Cluster Outcomes with the Theoretical Framework



Source: Own analysis.

Table 6.7 Overview of Cluster Specific Observations

Item	Cluster W1		Cluster W2		Cluster W3		Cluster W4	
Size N		58		54		42		66
In percent (out of 220)		26.4		24.5		19.1		30.0
Gender ¹ Female		17.2		13.0 ⁸		9.5		9.1
Male		82.8		85.2 ⁸		90.5		90.9
Age group ^{1,2}	20-29	58.6	20-29	48.1	20-29	50.0	20-29	60.6
	30-39	31.0	30-39	38.9	30-39	33.3	30-39	25.8
	<20	6.9	40-49	7.4	40-49	11.9	40-49	12.1
Level of education ^{1,2}	B.A.	48.3	B.A.	46.3	B.A.	50.5	B.A.	50.0
	High school	27.6	High School	27.8	High school	28.6	High school	30.3
	Voc. training ⁴	10.3	M.A.	11.1	Voc. training ⁴	7.1	Other	7.0
Education completed ^{1,3,5}		55.2		64.8		47.6		66.7
Current location ^{1,2}	Germany	55.2	Germany	55.6	Indonesia	23.8	Germany	60.6
	Turkey	10.3	France	7.4	Germany	14.3	Turkey	7.6
	France	6.9	Netherlands/Turkey	5.6	Turkey	11.9	Sweden/France	4.5
Entrepreneurial experience in the past ^{1,3}		25.9		55.6		42.9		50.0
Serial entrepreneurs ^{1,3}		15.5		42.6		19.0		33.3
Interest in building new business ^{1,3}		70.7		83.3		47.6		74.2
Potential industry of new business ^{1,2}	Accommodation/Food ⁶	24.1	Cons. goods/Retail ⁹	16.7	Cons. goods/Retail ⁹ &	19.0	Electr./IT ⁷	19.7
	Electr./IT ⁷	22.4	Education, Telco. ¹⁰ , Electr./		Education		Accommodation/Food ⁶	15.2
	Education	8.6	IT ⁷ & Media/Entertainment ¹¹	11.1	Electr./IT ⁷	16.7	Cons. goods/	12.1
					Construction	11.9	Retail ⁹	
Potential location of new business ^{1,2}	Germany	53.4	Germany	50.0	Germany	31.0	Germany	53.0
	Turkey	8.6	Different locations ¹²	7.8	Australia	9.5	Sweden/France	4.5
	Sweden/France	5.2	France	5.6	USA/Turkey	7.1	South Africa	3.0

¹ In percent within cluster² Top 3 answer categories are listed per cluster³ Percentage of within cluster answers with regards to answer “yes”⁴ Vocational or Technical Training⁵ The item relates to whether the education a refugee was enrolled in was completed before leaving the country⁶ Accommodation & Food⁷ Electronics & IT⁸ The survey also retrieved information about other gender specifications which make up for 1.8% within W2⁹ Consumer goods and retail¹⁰ Telecommunications¹¹ Media and Entertainment¹² Respondents indicated that they were interested in building a business across different countries or continents

Source: Own analysis.

Figure 6.3 shows that C1 refugees relate to their individual cultural and human capitals and attributes while creatively seeking opportunities in a new cultural context. Hence, they are undergoing a self-discovery process in their new environment and are engaged in an early OI process while evaluating a potential entrepreneurial endeavor against their perception of integrity and feasibility by querying what they value in entrepreneurship. This fact is underlined by only touching upon the micro and meso levels in the social sphere in their evaluation process and not yet considering macro-level factors. We named this cluster the *Creative (Schumpeterian) Cultural Entrepreneurs*: refugees who see entrepreneurship as an opportunity to creatively deploy their cultural knowledge to develop innovative ideas in a new context. The creative process is at the center of attention, while these refugees not yet define a concrete business idea.

As Table 6.7 sets forth, C2 is the third largest and male-dominated cluster. The cluster again is relatively young and has the largest share of 30- to 39-year-old refugees, which mostly have a Bachelor's or high school degree and reside in Germany. C2 has the largest share of refugees with entrepreneurial and even serial entrepreneurship experience, while 83.3% of respondents are interested in building a new business, especially in Germany.

C2 comprises the human capital related role-model variable "There is at least one person in my closer family who is a business owner". The cluster includes the opportunity type variables OI 5 and 6 and the two OI-activity variables, namely OI 1 and OI 2. Comparing Table 6.3 and Figure 6.2, C2 contains the perceived feasibility variable IF1 (also relating to human capital) as well as the perceived desirability variables, ID1 and SD3, both relating to the role model dimension of human capital, as well as ED1 and ED2. As Figure 6.3 shows, C2 refugees draw on their human capital and are engaged in actively identifying and evaluating opportunities. The OE-related variables are linked to the individual, social and economic sphere on micro, meso and macro level while being interlinked with the active identification of entrepreneurial opportunities.

When considering Table 6.6, IF1 additionally shows thought-provoking correlations with SI2 (0.300) and the two EI3 variables (0.405 with "I know the laws and rules of the country where I am at the moment to set up a business" and 0.439 with "I know the laws and rules to set up a business in more than one country"). These correlations hint at the fact that perceived integrity might play a background role when actively identifying opportunities. IF1, furthermore, shows correlations with EF1 (0.331, related to economic capital) and EF3 (0.334), indicating that the

economic factors related to perceived feasibility might play an indirect role when focusing on OI.

Cluster C2 has advanced along the entrepreneurial process into a stage of actively perceiving opportunities. Refugees in this cluster show a strong willingness to become entrepreneurs, while the cluster reveals a complex process of evaluating an identified opportunity and bringing it in relationship to the individual, social and economic context. We named this cluster *Analytic Entrepreneurs* who see entrepreneurship as the desired goal while evaluating what kind of entrepreneurs they might like to become.

It is unclear, however, whether C2 refugees prefer to look for Schumpeterian or Kirznerian opportunities as the cluster comprises OT 5 and 6 which relates to the Schumpeterian rebel, disequilibrating markets but also touches upon Kirzner's concept of alertness (OI 1). One could argue for a tendency towards Schumpeterian opportunities since the cluster contains the most refugees with (serial) entrepreneurial experiences and a strong willingness to become entrepreneurs. These refugees, therefore, scan their environment more intensely for opportunities than others, wherefore OT 5 and 6 would hint at a potential to identify Schumpeterian opportunities.

C3 is the smallest, and again male-dominated, cluster with half of the refugees being between 20 and 29 years old as Table 6.7 illustrates. The cluster comprises the largest share of refugees having a Bachelor's degree and are, interestingly, mainly located in Indonesia. 42.9% possess entrepreneurial experience, and 47.6% claim an interest in building a new business, but 31.0% potentially target Germany as a location to set up their new businesses.

C3 includes the opportunity type variable OT7 referring to the identification of mainly Kirznerian type opportunities. This cluster, furthermore, includes the perceived feasibility variables SF3 and EF 3 on the macro level as well as the perceived integrity variables II1 and SI2 on the micro level (cf., Table 6.3 and Figure 6.2). This cluster touches upon all three spheres, namely the individual, social and economic sphere. Table 6.6 reveals an additional attention-grabbing correlation between OT7 and OI2, namely the active identification of opportunities with 0.412, hinting at the fact that OI activity may still be present alongside this cluster.

The refugees of C3 have a business opportunity in mind, and they are keen on setting up a business in order to build up a new life in their current country of residence since the country's

economic situation allows for it. Mapping micro and macro factors, these refugees perceive entrepreneurship as a feasible and integer matter, suiting their current situation and fulfilling economic means which supports their aspiration to become entrepreneurs. This means-end relationship as well as the refugees' evaluation of potentially becoming a Kirznerian entrepreneur within their targeted new environments, led to our conclusion of naming this cluster the *Kirznerian Refugee Entrepreneurs*.

Finally, C4 is the largest cluster with the most significant share of male participants as Table 6.7 reveals. The cluster is young with 60.6 % between 20 to 29 years. Half of them possess a Bachelor's degree while further 30.3% have a high school degree. 60.6% reside in Germany with substantial entrepreneurial experience and 33.3% being serial entrepreneurs. 74.2% would like to set up a new business mainly with the focus on Germany.

C4 takes the cultural capital variable "Arab cultures help me to start up a new business in the country where I am at the moment" into account and incorporates, as Table 6.3 and Figure 6.2 show, the perceived feasibility variables SF1 (also relating to social capital) and EF1 (also relating to economic capital) as well as both perceived integrity variables for EI3. Within this cluster, micro and macro factors are evaluated on the social and economic sphere while bringing these in relation to the individual's social, economic and cultural capitals. When taking Table 6.6 into account, we find that several variables show stronger correlations with the perceived desirability variable ED2 on the economic sphere at the meso level. SF1 correlated at 0.374, the first EI 3 variable ("I know the laws and rules of the country where I am at the moment to set up a business") at 0.373 and the second EI3 variable ("I know the laws and rules to set up a business in more than one country") at 0.580 with ED2. Perceived desirability might, therefore, play a background role for this cluster as well as IF1, the human capital related, perceived feasibility variable regarding skills and experiences as it correlated with SF1 (0.334), EF 1 (0.331), EI3.1 (0.405) and EI3.2 (0.439).

When looking at Figure 6.3, it becomes clear that OI does not play a role for this cluster (anymore). C4 focuses on OE in combination with their capitals. It seems as if they have progressed along the entrepreneurship cycle. These refugees aim at becoming entrepreneurs and map micro and macro factors (meso factors only indirectly) to elaborate how they could implement a business with having the financial means or support in place. They know the legal requirements within their current country of residence but also of other countries. With their

Arab cultural background, they see options to expand their business across borders, wherefore we named this cluster *Transnational Business Builders*.

As Figure 6.3 depicts, the four clusters represent refugees in different stages of the entrepreneurial, pre-founding process. It becomes clear that, especially when looking at C1, C2, and C3 that OI related factors are interlinked with OE supporting our first hypothesis (H) that OI and OE are interrelated concepts with which refugees evaluate potential business opportunities in recurring phases. C4, however, does not completely represent this picture which might be due to the fact that C4 refugees could potentially be located at a later stage of the pre-founding process, where active OI or opportunity refinement may not play a predominant role anymore. Furthermore, we find support for H2, when looking at Figure 6.3, as perceived feasibility is a constant parameter of OE in all clusters. The picture differs when mirroring H3 against our results. Perceived desirability seems to be especially relevant when refugees identify opportunities as Figure 6.3 shows with C2. This result may be explained through the fact that perceived desirability – the degree to which refugees find the prospect of starting a business to be attractive – is especially triggered or prominent when identifying an opportunity. Furthermore, perceived desirability becomes only indirectly relevant in C4 of Figure 6.3 through correlations. Refugees of this cluster could be engaged in a later stage of the pre-founding process, and this result might indicate that the indirect relevance of perceived desirability here relates to a final assessment of entrepreneurial intent before exploiting the opportunity. Finally, H4 is only partially supported through Figure 6.3, revealing that perceived integrity is relevant for all stages but not when refugees actively identify opportunities; in C2 it seems only indirectly relevant when integrating the correlation results. This fact may relate to the reasoning that integrity becomes more prominent when profoundly evaluating a potential opportunity against the current contextual setting and its potential exploitation.

6.6 Discussion

6.6.1 Contributions

Our study provides an innovative theoretical foundation, some novel methodological approaches, and striking empirical results. We theoretically contribute through the establishment of our theoretical framework (cf., Figure 6.1), by interrelating OI to OE and can show with our empirical analysis that OI and OE are interrelated concepts based on non-linear, cyclical processes. Figure 6.3 depicts that refugees are engaged in different stages of the

entrepreneurial process, going back and forth between different types of opportunity perceptions, active OI and OE.

We, furthermore, contribute theoretically through the development of the ODM (cf., Table 6.1) as we can combine existing constructs of perceived feasibility and desirability and show the importance of additionally integrating the aspect of perceived integrity, especially for potential refugee entrepreneurs. Moreover, the ODM distinguishes the different perception pillars along the three different spheres, namely individual, social and economic, while subdividing them across micro, meso and macro levels. With our study, we contribute empirically as we show that this framework proves to be a testable construct revealing thought-provoking results on the different pillars' and spheres' relevance at different stages of the OI and OE processes.

Methodologically, we contribute through the operationalization of Shane's (2003) opportunity typology, as depicted in Table 6.3, and can reveal empirically that refugees show tendencies to identify not only Kirznerian but also Schumpeterian opportunities. With many refugees having higher education degrees, innovative and creative destruction opportunities become relevant for this group which only slowly gains attention by some scholars engaged in researching migrant entrepreneurship (e.g., Saxenian, 2002 or Kloosterman, 2010). This fact reveals an enormous economic potential for receiving societies which has not yet been realized publicly (Bruehl, 2018; Rath & Kloosterman, 2000; Saxenian, 2002). This potential not only relates to economic growth of but also to establishing efficient pathways of local (labor market as well as societal) integration into receiving societies (Brixy et al., 2011).

Lastly and against public perceptions, we can contribute empirically by showing that refugees are not passive agents (Ghorashi, 2005). With our study, we are able to show that refugees are deliberately seeking new ways to establish a living in their new contextual settings. In line with Brixy et al. (2011), we can show that many refugees are actively looking for potential opportunities and see entrepreneurship as a means to fulfill their goal of establishing a new living.

6.6.2 Limitations

Despite its innovativeness, this study has some limitations. First of all, we did not fully operationalize the ODM (cf., Table 6.3) and make a stronger distinction between the different types of individual capital variables. We considered this limitation carefully when conducting the study as our sample was not able to fully rate all aspects of the ODM including the market

reality and assess potential opportunities due to their legal status, wherefore, we did not want to overwhelm our sample. Furthermore, refugees' legal statuses did not allow for conducting a study beyond the evaluation of opportunities as this group cannot (yet) become – at least formally – entrepreneurially active. We were able to identify different entrepreneurial clusters among these refugees, yet it is not clear whether these clusters are fixed typologies or whether they reveal different phases through which refugees pass through along the entrepreneurial process. Overall, with our empirical testing, we only sampled data revealing a snapshot related to one specific group in a specific context within the pre-founding phases of the entrepreneurial process, which leads to the implications of the study.

6.6.3 Implications

6.6.3.1 Theoretical and Empirical Implications

To entirely verify our theoretical model, it is of importance to operationalize the non-operationalized blind spots within the ODM which we discussed above. The ODM then needs to be tested again with different samples which can assess all aspects of the ODM as our refugee sample was not entirely able to do so.

As our collected data only resembles a snapshot within the entrepreneurial cycle and we would like to understand the cyclicity between OI and OE in more detail, it is necessary to conduct a longitudinal study, measuring all aspects of the theoretical model and the ODM at different points in time. It would additionally be of advantage to derive samples from different groups to fully reveal cyclicity and carve out the process-related relevance of different factors integrated into our model. Moreover, the empirical testing of our model and the ODM would profit from explicitly conducting country comparisons to filter out context related differences along the founding cycle.

Since our study ends with testing OE due to the refugees' legal statuses, entrepreneurial activity was not able to be researched in detail. Hence, it would be of interest to conduct an additional study with the same sample at a different point in time, analyzing their entrepreneurial activity. Multi-level logistic regression analysis could be helpful to assess opportunity type, OI and OE related effects on refugees' entrepreneurial outcomes and actions.

6.6.3.2 Practical Implications

The cluster analysis reveals that the refugees sampled in our study show previous experience as well as a keen interest in and strong motivation towards becoming entrepreneurially active. For refugees to become entrepreneurially active, different support mechanisms need to be in place which aim at supporting the establishment of refugees' entrepreneurial endeavors and through this enhance their integration processes within their new contexts.

These support mechanisms may include (business- or entrepreneurship-related) consulting services from culturally sensitive and experienced consultants understanding the specificity of refuge and the different cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, business planning seminars which support refugees in putting their entrepreneurial ideas into practice are essential. Perhaps, setting up tandem relationships between established local entrepreneurs and potential refugee entrepreneurs would facilitate the development of fast integrability into local customs and economies for refugees.

Lastly, institutional support mechanisms are of great importance to become entrepreneurially active and to quickly achieve local integrability. As research on migrant entrepreneurship highlights, one key obstacle of becoming entrepreneurially active is access to financial capital (cf., e.g., Light & Bonacich, 1988; Waldinger, Aldrich, & Ward, 1990; Leicht et al., 2004). While our sampled refugees reveal access to financial capital, one may assume limited access to financial capital through their networks as the general migrant entrepreneurship literature reveals (ibid). Developing Schumpeterian opportunities into established businesses may require more substantial financial investments which at the same time have the potential for economic growth opportunities benefiting the receiving countries. Hence, the development of financial or investment vehicles targeted at the development of refugee entrepreneurship is critical.

6.7 Conclusion

The inflow of refugees, especially into Europe, and Germany in particular, is a morally and politically charged topic in the ongoing public debates (Borkert et al., 2018; Brühl, 2016; Hendow, Pailey, & Bravi, 2016). The cost arguments of integrating refugees into their new societies within the political discussions only presume passive refugee agents (Ghorashi, 2005) and do not necessarily relate them to their potential of becoming an entrepreneurially active and a contributing part of society (OECD 2010, 2011). While the formal and especially legal

conditions constrict a rapid and active integration (Hendow et al., 2016), our study shows that refugees have versatile potentials, including their strong aspirations to become entrepreneurs as they perceive entrepreneurship as a potential means to integrate into their new contextual settings. The field of refugee entrepreneurship should, therefore, be utilized not only for research but also for politics and practice. All in all, this study reveals the importance of studying diversity in entrepreneurship.

6.8 Article-Related References

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7 Summary of Findings and Overall Discussion

7.1 Summary of Findings

The four articles presented above address the overarching GRQ as well as the three SRQs proposed in the introduction from different angles. In article 1, I theoretically reasoned why migrant entrepreneurs possess the ability to identify innovative and non-innovative opportunities. Moreover, I developed a theoretical model based on Kloosterman et al.'s (1999) mixed-embeddedness approach, Bourdieu's (1986) capital theory, identity theory as well as cognitive dissonance. This model includes contextual and individual factors of the home and host country as well as their contradicting effects leading to OI of migrant entrepreneurs. Based on the conducted SLR, I was able to verify my arguments and the factors included in the model before further empirical testing needs to be conducted, while the SLR provided avenues for further development of the model (e.g., including the aspect of time, potentially weighing the factors as well as including a distance measure between home and host country). This article bridges sociological, (migrant) entrepreneurship and psychological research and addresses especially SRQ 1 by providing a theoretical model that includes relevant individual- and context related factors influencing migrant entrepreneurs distinct OI ability. The contradicting effects between the home and host country's contextual squares provide answers to SRQ 1 and offer an explanation why migrant entrepreneurs often possess a stronger OI ability than non-migrants who do not experience these kinds of contradictions. Furthermore, the model addresses SRQ 2 and provides initial reasoning for why different migrant groups with different home country contextual squares may show disparities in their abilities to identify business opportunities.

Article 2 provides an alternative theoretical development to Article 1's application of Bourdieu's (1986) capital theory using Giddens' (1984) structuration theory. This approach is based on Drori et al.'s (2009) argument that both theoretical approaches apply to address the phenomenon of migrant entrepreneurship. With our empirical testing based on binary logistic regression analysis, we can answer SRQ 1 and 2 by showing that migrant entrepreneurs identify more opportunities in comparison to non-migrants. Additionally, we are able to show that regional in-migrants seem to be equally affected by changes in context as immigrants and are also able to see more opportunities than non-migrants. Even though non-migrants see fewer opportunities than migrants, they are affected by the inflow of migrants and see more business opportunities as the share of migrants in their electoral wards increases. We are, furthermore, able to empirically show that clashes between a migrant's home and host country based on certain contextual factors influence migrant entrepreneur's OI in the host country. We showed

this with the analysis of the differences in GDP between home and host country as well as the institutional context and the differences in institutional quality, for instance. Also, the prevalence of entrepreneurship in the home country, as well as migrant's English language proficiency positively affect migrant entrepreneur's OI in the host country. These are some factors relevant to answer SRQ 1 which asks for the individual- and context-related factors influencing migrant entrepreneurs OI ability.

The third article provides a deep-dive on the OI-influencing factor of culture, and cultural distance (CD) in particular, for migrant entrepreneurs and provides answers to SRQ 1, 2, and 3. We based our theoretical reasoning on Ardichvili et al.'s (2003) OI-framework and mirrored it against the effects of migration to hypothesize an inverted U-shape relationship between migrant entrepreneurs' OI abilities and CD. Due to a low sample size, we are only able to indicate that this relationship exists empirically, showing that migrants with an intermediate CD to the host country (in this case Germany) can see the most opportunities. We, therefore, address SRQ 2 by showing that CD seems to affect different migrant groups in their OI ability. Furthermore, we are also able to address SRQ 1 and 3 to show that the context related aspect of culture influences migrant entrepreneur's OI abilities. Moreover, we can differentiate the degree of OI outcomes regarding its magnitude as many migrant groups possess the ability to see more opportunities than non-migrants (in this case the German population). Groups which are culturally too close or far apart from the host country's culture see fewer opportunities.

Article 4 of this dissertation addresses the distinct OI abilities of migrant entrepreneurs but extends the analysis towards the evaluation of opportunities by a specific migrant group, namely forced migrants, which we call refugees in the article. We develop a theoretical framework which links refugee's capitals to the interrelated OI and OE process, while our opportunity development matrix (ODM) explains OE explicitly. Our empirical analysis shows a strong willingness of refugees to become entrepreneurs. Furthermore, we show that OI and OE are interrelated processes through which refugees mirror individual- (e.g., own skills) and context-related (e.g., host country's economic situation) factors against their potential entrepreneurial endeavor. This article highlights different individual- and context-related factors relevant for different OI and OE stages and provides answers to SRQ 1 and 3. It sheds light on a specific migrant group and provides a new angle for approaching SRQ 2 regarding OI abilities of different migrant groups.

7.2 Overall Discussion

Within this dissertation, the four articles have contributed especially to the entrepreneurship and migrant entrepreneurship literature on different levels, namely theoretically, methodologically, and empirically. *Theoretically*, I contribute especially by developing a sophisticated theoretical model relating individual- and context-related factors from the home- to the host-country whose contradictions explain the distinct OI abilities of migrant entrepreneurs (Article 1). The contradicting contextual squares (including context- and individual-related factors) are not only helpful to explain migrant-specific OI-abilities but may also be applicable in their single non-contradicting dimension to explain differences in OI-abilities among entrepreneurs in general. This model, hence, addresses three different calls for research: (i) the call for developing a model explaining migrant entrepreneurs distinct OI-abilities (e.g., Basu, 2006; Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015); (ii) the call for furthering the understanding of why some individuals see more opportunities than others (e.g., Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Shane, 2003), and (iii) the call to include the aspect of context to further our understanding of entrepreneurship (Dimov, 2007a, 2011; Welter, 2011). These calls for research are furthermore addressed by using an alternative theoretical approach in Article 2. The contextual contradictions mentioned above are, moreover, outlined in a different manner by our theoretical mirroring of the effects of migration, and CD within one country in particular, against Ardichvili's (2003) OI-framework (Article 3).

In addition, Article 1 contributes theoretically by introducing the opportunity continuum and relating migrant entrepreneur's OI potential to the continuum. This theoretical elaboration is an important basis for underlining migrant's potential to not only identify non-innovative Kirzner- but also innovative Schumpeter-type opportunities.

Article 4 contributes theoretically by introducing an innovative theoretical framework which relates OI and OE as interrelated processes to each other. Furthermore, this article contributes by developing the ODM which maps aspects of perceived desirability, feasibility, and – as a particular novelty – integrity against the individual, social and economic spheres of OE on a micro, meso, and macro level. This approach accumulates the complex structures related to OE which may reach a wider applicability beyond potential refugee entrepreneurs.

Overall, all four papers base their theoretical contributions on interdisciplinary approaches, bringing together research findings from the fields of entrepreneurship, sociology, migrant entrepreneurship, neurosciences, psychology, social psychology as well as psychology of

entrepreneurship to address the unique abilities of migrant entrepreneurs foremostly to identify – but also to evaluate – opportunities. This dissertation, therefore, underlines the importance of interdisciplinary research in the context of migrant entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship to further develop our understanding of specific phenomena within these fields.

The *methodological* contributions of this dissertation relate especially to the usage and combination of different large and high-quality data sets (e.g., German and UK Census data, UK GEM data, World Bank Data, Global Competitiveness Index from the World Economic Forum; Articles 2 and 3). This helped to address migrant entrepreneurs' OI abilities with different empirically quantitative methods. In addition, our own operationalization of the ODM and the built upon primary sampling among refugees is noteworthy.

Empirically, this dissertation contributes by showing that migration can affect OI and that (potential) migrant entrepreneurs are able to identify more business opportunities than non-migrants (Article 2, 3). Another surprising novelty within this dissertation is that we can show that even migration within a country may be considered as a beneficial mechanism of change in contexts which can contribute to identifying more opportunities among in-migrants (Article 2). Moreover, even for non-migrants, who experience contextual changes in their environment due to an inflow of migrants in their neighborhoods, we can empirically show that this group identifies more opportunities. This result is an important empirical finding as it challenges the ideological assumption of migrants' deficiencies (cf., Chapter 2) and provides empirical evidence for the alternative assumption looking at migrant entrepreneur's potential.

In addition, we are able to underline that change in contexts helps to see things differently through our empirical findings in Article 3. Here, it is not culture per se but the CD between different migrant groups within one country, in this case in Germany, and the host country's culture that influences OI. This empirical analysis underlines the importance of finding the optimal interplay between diverse knowledge and context-related interpretability of knowledge and, hence, a certain degree of cultural proximity and adaptability towards the host country's context to identify more opportunities.

Finally, while I have introduced the opportunity continuum in Article 1, we are able to show through our empirical analysis in Article 4 that migrants, and in this case forced migrants or refugees, have the potential to develop innovative business ideas based on Schumpeter's opportunity characteristics (Shane, 2003). This result is specifically of importance as migrant

entrepreneurs are often characterized as entrepreneurs who rather identify Kirznerian opportunities (Kloosterman, 2010) which relates to the above-mentioned ideological as well as (initial) migrant entrepreneurship's in-house assumption (cf., Chapter 2). Furthermore, we can reveal refugees' drive to become entrepreneurially active and their willingness to be active members within their countries of residence.

7.3 Limitations

While the specific limitations of each study conducted for this dissertation are outlined in each article, I would like to take an overall perspective on the limitations of this dissertation at this point. In this dissertation, I set out the claim to challenge the ideological assumption outlined in Chapter 2 by challenging this assumption and looking at the potential of migrants to identify business opportunities in contrast to highlighting their deficiencies. I would like to balance the views and striking theoretical and empirical findings within my dissertation with De Haas' (2010) argumentation that one has to be careful with being too optimistic about the effects of migration and abilities of migrant entrepreneurs. He argues that one shall also consider the pessimistic stances of these effects, which means for this dissertation to underline that not every migrant possesses the ability to identify more and potentially also distinctively innovative business opportunities. As a result, one has to acknowledge that both assumptions regarding migrant entrepreneurs' deficiencies and potentials may be considered valid.

Furthermore, this research has a regional focus on Europe – on Germany as well as the UK in particular – even though the study conducted in Article 4 includes globally dispersed refugees who are registered at an educational institution based in Germany (Kiron Higher Education). One has to consider that different geographic regions with, e.g., different entrepreneurial contexts, as well as migration histories and policies (e.g., Canada, USA, Australia), may reveal other results for the types of studies conducted in this dissertation due to different macro-, meso-, and micro-level contextual factors.

Lastly, the research conducted in this dissertation has a focus on theory development and tested aspects of it empirically with quantitative methods. Since the research focus on migrant entrepreneurs' distinct OI abilities is a reasonably recent topic, it may be advisable to additionally conduct empirically qualitative studies to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon and to further theory building for this research topic.

7.4 Implications

7.4.1 Implications for Future Research

The articles in this dissertation draw on different theoretical strands to derive a better understanding of why (potential) migrant entrepreneurs might possess a different ability to identify opportunities. This understanding might become more profound when adapting the proposed model in Article 1 with further individual-related aspects, especially from psychology research as, for instance, perceptions, intentions, deeper structures, or learning as Krueger (2005) points out. He, furthermore, emphasizes that the different empirical methods used in cognition research may extend our knowledge base in this regard and may help to present the individuals and cognitive effects of migration on the perception of opportunities by (potential) migrant entrepreneurs.

The implication outlined above may also help to further our understanding of migrant entrepreneur's unique ability to identify not only Kirznerian but also Schumpeterian opportunities. It is of essence to further address the opportunity continuum outlined in Article 1 and understand its antecedents and develop appropriate methods to operationalize and test it for the differences among migrants but also non-migrants. The comparison of potentially different underlying structures as well as their results regarding the degree of innovation are valuable for extending our understanding on differences in OI abilities among migrants but also in contrast to non-migrants and entrepreneurs in general.

In addition to the above, an advisable next step concerning this dissertation would be the operationalization of the theoretical model derived in Article 1 as well as its empirical testing with migrants. It might be advisable to test it with diverse migrant groups within one country to gain an understanding of variances related to contextual and individual factors. To prove the model's validity further testing in different country settings would be a valuable addition. Moreover, testing with an operationalized single contextual square may be advisable for non-migrants to a) compare the outcomes to migrants and b) to understand OI differences among potential entrepreneurs in general.

Going forward, it would be helpful to verify the empirical outcomes of Article 2 with data from different countries to verify our striking results regarding OI-abilities of migrants, in-migrants as well as non-migrants in different countries. Conducting comparable studies outside of the European context could, in particular, provide different insights due to the contextual

differences outlined in Chapter 7.3. In addition to this, it would be advisable to take on the idea of measuring the effects of CD on OI as outlined in Article 3 in different country settings. Adaptations in the measure, as well as the methodological approach, would be helpful to gain more significant results. One could test the effects of CD on OI by using individual instead of country-level data and direct OI measures instead of indirect (i.e., self-employment rates) for instance. Lastly, it would be valuable to test the ODM developed in Article 4 further but aim at testing it among different migratory groups and compare the results to non-migrants in order to gain an understanding of differences among the groups as well as the OE outcomes. The ODM might be an applicable tool to further our understanding of OE among entrepreneurs in general and not only for refugees. Overall, the studies conducted within this dissertation open different avenues for future research to improve our understanding regarding this new research area of migrant entrepreneurs OI abilities.

7.4.2 Implications for Policy and Practice

The results of the studies conducted in this dissertation not only provide pathways for future research but have direct implications for policy and practice, especially as these implications can be based on empirical data and findings. This is particularly to be emphasized with regard to the increase of public opinions against migrants and migration (cf., Articles 2 and 4 of this dissertation) which may in many cases be considered as propaganda (related to the ideological assumption outlined in Chapter 2) and not fact-based argumentations (Brulle, Carmichael, & Jenkins, 2012).

Having De Haas' (2010) balancing argument in mind (cf., Chapter 7.3), this dissertation provides empirical evidence for migrant entrepreneurs' potential to see more business opportunities than non-migrants. This result influences the entrepreneurial process outlined in Chapter 2.2 and Figure 2.1 and may lead to higher exploitation rates, which Article 3 indicates and different other studies show (cf., OECD, 2018; Sequeira, Carr, & Rasheed, 2009; Xavier, Kelley, Kew, Herrington, & Vorderwülbecke, 2013; Zhou, 2004). Thence, migrant entrepreneurs have a strong potential to contribute to the economy of their host countries. As migrant entrepreneurs are also confronted with high closure rates (Leicht et al., 2004), it is crucial to develop target-group oriented entrepreneurial support programs which help migrants to develop robust and viable business concept. These support programs, including continuous interval-coaching by experienced (migrant) entrepreneurs, should last beyond the pre-founding stages to help along the exploitation and implementation phases of migrant firms.

Migrant entrepreneurs bring along the potential to identify and realize innovative business ideas which may require substantial capital investment for their vital implementation (Hart & Acs, 2011; Lerner, Sorensen, & Strömberg, 2011). It is, therefore, of essence to reduce capital access discrimination (Leicht et al., 2004, SdSIM, 2010). Providers of financial capital – be it, e.g., funds, venture capital investors, or banks – need to be sensitized of this fact to evaluate migrant entrepreneurs' business ideas in fair terms. In addition to this, European countries need to economically review their entrepreneurial context conditions to allow for these innovations to be developed and to thrive. Europe needs comparable innovations as, for instance, the US-based Tesla-, Apple-, or Google-type companies (Dams, Gassmann, & Heuzeroth, 2018) to compete economically up to eye level globally.

These explanations, furthermore, imply that policy needs to revisit the terms of migration applied in the European context (Lagarde, 2018). The outcomes of this dissertation not only show that migrants possess the ability to identify more business opportunities but also provides ideas for matching migrants to countries. Besides using criteria regarding skill requirements for a country – as the Australian government is inquiring for example (Australian Government, 2008) – policy could evaluate the applicability of CD measures for entrepreneurial matchmaking concerning a country's cultural context. These kinds of approaches can foster and improve international and global collaboration of governments to address the challenges of migration and find appropriate measurements to distribute migrant among different countries, which EU member states often discuss (Trauner, 2016).

The (potential) contributions of migrants and migrant entrepreneurs are often not known or seen by society (OECD, 2014). In 2017, the German Ministry of Economics and Energy hosted a conference on German-Turkish Entrepreneurs called German-Turkish Companies – Impulses for vital Small and Medium Sized Businesses (BMWi, 2017a; BMWi, 2017b). Within this conference, I directly addressed the former Minister, Brigitte Zypries, and initiated the development of a social media campaign which promotes Turkish entrepreneurs' achievements and portrays them as role models within the German society (BMWi, 2017b; BMWi, 2017c). The Ministry's official Facebook page (cf., <https://www.facebook.com/bundeswirtschaftsministerium/>) played several examples of the videos in 2017, which Appendix 10. lists. This idea and outcome is one example – but most certainly still not sufficient – of developing visibility and public images of migrant entrepreneurs while promoting them as social and entrepreneurial role models. It is advisable for policy and practice to increase these

efforts and also show that migrants' entrepreneurial activity can enhance non-migrants' entrepreneurship potential, too.

On a final note, Article 4 has shown that refugees show a strong willingness to become entrepreneurs in their place of residence and that entrepreneurship may be considered as a tool for survival in a situation of crisis and integration into their new contexts. Many refugees intend to be active members of and to give back to their receiving societies (Article 4; cf., also Korac, 2003). Politics should, therefore, consider the improvement and acceleration of integration processes – under consideration of advisedly assessing individual cases – by, e.g., offering options to become entrepreneurially active, which is often hindered by refugees' asylum statuses (Lagarde, 2018; IMF, 2015). Directing these thoughts on a higher level towards its impact on an individual, one may consider entrepreneurship as a mechanism for survival. Thence, policy and practice shall regard teaching entrepreneurship from early ages on. Entrepreneurship can be a tool to prepare individuals for life in general, wherefore, entrepreneurship education may be considered as a subject in schools (Wilson, Kickul, & Marlino, 2007) or even kindergartens (and may it only be the education of entrepreneurial values; Christianti, Cholimah, & Suprayitno, 2015). Several initiatives to promote teaching entrepreneurship exist, as, for instance, Prof. Dr. Sven Ripsas' transfer of the US-based Network for Teaching Entrepreneurship (NFTE, <https://www.nfte.de>) to Germany or The Boston Consulting Group's initiative of Business@School (<https://www.business-at-school.net/>). Practice and policy shall, also, evaluate the options of introducing entrepreneurship as an integral part into school and kindergarten curricula on a country level.

8 Overall Conclusion

This dissertation has outlined a major, and increasing, trend of global migration and one angle of social integration, namely through the appreciation of migrant entrepreneurship for receiving societies. Migrants can possess distinct abilities to identify more and diverse business opportunities in comparison to non-migrants. This view helps to balance the perspective of focusing on migrant's deficiencies – which strong public opinions in Europe have been highlighting (cf., e.g., Boerzel & Risse, 2017) – and to underline the possible potential migrants can also bring into society to strengthen economies among other aspects.

The research conducted within this dissertation provides new theory development relating individual and contextual factors to each other which explain migrants' distinct abilities to identify opportunities. Also, it provides empirical evidence that migrants can identify more business opportunities than non-migrants and underlines the positive effects of migration for non-migrants to develop stronger entrepreneurial views. Furthermore, it shows that migrants, especially forced migrants or refugees, are not passive but active actors with a strong willingness to contribute to receiving societies. While this research focuses – especially with its empirically quantitative studies – on the European context, it opens avenues for future research. It outlines the extents to which the developed theories may be refined and tested qualitatively or quantitatively. Also, it highlights how the empirical studies could be repeated with different groups and in different countries to reach stronger validation of its results.

This dissertation is a valuable addition to the entrepreneurship and migrant entrepreneurship literature and provides different essential implications for policy and practice. These implications range from the development of appropriate entrepreneurial support programs for migrants, revision of migration policies, improvement of public visibility regarding migrants' contributions for society as well as portraying migrant entrepreneurial role models, to fostering the inclusion of entrepreneurship education in schools and kindergartens.

All in all, one may recapitulate that migration is and will continue to be one of the key challenges for humankind. While it affects national societies directly, it is essential for national governments to collaborate and solve these challenges globally (IMF, 2015). This doctoral thesis hopefully contributes to mastering these challenges by providing empirical evidences that provide pathways to encounter these challenges with a more positive, integrative, and contributive perspective for all members of societies: migrants and non-migrants.

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10 Appendix

Appendix 10.1 List of Videos Promoting German-Turkish Entrepreneurs by the German Federal Ministry of Economics and Energy

Video No.	Portrayed entrepreneur (profession, company)	Source/access to video
1	Süreyya Inal (Founder and owner of a tax consultancy; Steuerbüro Inal)	https://www.facebook.com/bundeswirtschaftsministerium/videos/1208107375982985/UzpfSTcwNzkxMDI4MzoxMDE1ODY3MzcwMDQyMDI4NA/?q=Bundesministerium%20für%20Wirtschaft%20und%20Energie%20türkische%20unternehmer
2	Civan Ucar (Founder and owner of a hairdresser company, Civan Coiffeur)	https://www.facebook.com/bundeswirtschaftsministerium/videos/1230979103695812/UzpfSTcwNzkxMDI4MzoxMDE1ODgxMjQxODAyMDI4NA/?q=Bundesministerium%20für%20Wirtschaft%20und%20Energie%20türkische%20unternehmer
3	Mehmet Yüksel (Family company successor for a food retail trading company, Netpa Foods GmbH)	https://www.facebook.com/bundeswirtschaftsministerium/videos/1212479035545819/UzpfSTcwNzkxMDI4MzoxMDE1ODY5ODY3OTg2NTI4NA/?q=Bundesministerium%20für%20Wirtschaft%20und%20Energie%20türkische%20unternehmer
4	Nare Yesilyurt-Karakurt (Founder and owner of an intercultural domestic nursing company, Deta-Med Hauskrankenpflege)	https://www.facebook.com/bundeswirtschaftsministerium/videos/1236515133142209/?q=Bundesministerium%20für%20Wirtschaft%20und%20Energie%20türkische%20unternehmer

Source: As indicated in this table.