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Migrant Entrepreneurs and the Digital Economy in the UK

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Declaration of Authorship

I, Narayan Prasad Bhattarai, hereby declare that this is my own original work and that the main content of this thesis has not previously been submitted to obtain any degree or qualification at any university or academic institution.

Signature:

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read 'N. Prasad Bhattarai', written in black ink.

Date: 03/09/2020

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Abstract

The primary objective of this thesis is to investigate how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services manage their human capital to adapt, innovate and network. Most previous studies have focused exclusively on low-skilled migrant entrepreneurs, and research on migrants in professional services has been very limited. Looking at the different experiences of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK, this study explores the transformation of their human capital related to their knowledge, experience and socio-cultural and economic capital in a quest for better businesses and improved lives to answer the following three questions: how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services can adapt their human capital to new host environments, how they transform their human capital to build innovation capacity for the digital age and how human capital relates to building a network for transnational and circular entrepreneurship.

Thirty-one Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in professional services who have set up their own businesses in the UK in the sectors of engineering, accounting, law, information technology (IT), health, education and money remittance services were interviewed between April to August 2018 using semi-structured interviews. Respondents were selected by means of theoretical and snowball sampling. During the second stage, revisit interviews to twenty-four entrepreneurs in September and October 2018 were undertaken. Additionally, a third stage included a focus group discussion with eight entrepreneurs in March 2019. This longitudinal approach to three interview stages was adapted to capture not only constructs but also processes to corroborate the findings from each stage and to ensure research rigour.

The thesis contributes to three theoretical avenues. First, it conceptualises on the process of talent adaptation in human capital theory. Second, the circular relationships between innovation, knowledge transformation and digital inclusion play an important role for human capital adaptation in the digital age. Third, the duality of networking processes and relationships is identified as a core mechanism of human capital transformation in home-host migrant entrepreneurship. Through these contributions, this thesis extends the definition of migrant entrepreneurs in its methodology and scope by focusing on those working in professional services, their human capital and the complex environment around them.

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Abbreviations

ACCA	Association of Chartered Certified Accountants
BBA	Bachelor's in Business Administration
BNCC	Britain Nepal Chamber of Commerce
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CNSUK	Centre for Nepal Studies United Kingdom
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
GP	General Practitioner
HCT	Human Capital Theory
HEFCE	Higher Education Funding Council for England
ICAEW	Institute of Chartered Accounts in England and Wales
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IDT	Innovation Diffusion Theory
IPO	Initial Public Offering
ISI	Institute for Scientific Information
IT	Information Technology
NRNA	Non-Resident Nepali Association
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
ONS	Office for National Statistics
PEU	Perceived Ease of Use
PU	Perceived Usefulness
QDAS	Qualitative Data Analysis Software
RBV	Resource Based View
RES	University Research Ethics Committee
SEMRBs	Small Ethnic Minority Retail Businesses
SeNSS-ESRC	South East Network for Social Sciences- Economic and Social Research Council
SEO	Search Engine Optimization
SMEs	Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises
TAM	Technology Acceptance Model
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UTAUT	Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the overall outline of the thesis entitled ‘Migrant entrepreneurs and the digital economy in the UK’. The research aims to explore the varying experiences of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the professional service sectors in the UK, and it employs multiple theoretical approaches to capture their human capital, technology innovation and transnational engagement in host-home contexts. This chapter comprises 11 main sections, which are: 1.1 Introduction; 1.2 Research Background; 1.3 Statement of the Problem; 1.4 Research Aims and Objectives; 1.5 Research Questions; 1.6 Research Methodology; 1.7 Significance of the Study; 1.8 Scope of the Study; 1.9 Research Contributions; 1.10 Thesis Structure and 1.11 Overall Conclusions. The next section elucidates the context of the current research.

1.2 Research Background

The role of migrant entrepreneurs, their contributions and their success vary greatly and remains a controversial topic (Ndofor and Priem, 2011). Most previous studies have focused exclusively on low-skilled migrant entrepreneurs (Ishaq et al. 2010; Ram et al., 2017) and are thus characterised as a marginalised and underprivileged category of entrepreneurship (Khoir et al., 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008; Ram et al., 2017). However, some literature has unveiled that they have a unique social and cultural remittance (Chen and Tan, 2009), transnational network (Levitt and Jaworsky, 2007) and international experience (Molinsky, 2007). In the context of entrepreneurs in professional services, however, they are mainly highly skilled and are linked to more global, high-tech, knowledge-intensive and sophisticated businesses (Saxenian, 2002). This shows that there is a gap in understanding migrant entrepreneurs in professional services who may have differing experiences than lesser-skilled migrant entrepreneurs. Therefore, this study aims to contribute to how they deploy human capital gained in the home-host context to adapt to the host environment.

Recently, the importance of migrant entrepreneurs as innovators in professional services has grown dramatically (Harper-Anderson, 2019) because they are mobile, highly educated, self-initiated expatriates (Jokinen et al., 2008) who are more risk-orientated (Hart et al., 2015). Beyond the sectors of computer technology, engineering and financing, more recent focus has been given to the health sectors as, whilst writing this thesis, the COVID-19 crisis is still

alarming. Therefore, the demand of health professionals is likely to be unfulfilled in all kinds of economies (Scarpetta et al., 2020). In the fulfilment of such demand, some entrepreneurs are effectively adopting digital innovation (Daniel et al., 2015; Darch and Lucas, 2002; Reuber and Fischer, 2011), while the majority of enterprises are uneven and slow to adopt innovation (European Commission, 2015; Morgan-Thomas, 2016), which may have an adverse impact in the economy. However, this debate is rarely addressed in the context of migrant entrepreneurship research; hence, this study intends to explore the digital innovation practices of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services.

Migrant entrepreneurs contribute substantially both in their country of origin as well as in their host country (Head and Ries, 1998; Ratha and Plaza, 2011). They bring their knowledge, experience and socio-cultural and economic capital to their host countries in a quest for better businesses and improved lives. They also play an important role in facilitating trade and investment flows between the country of origin and the host country, creating more extensive business opportunities (Head and Ries, 1998; Ratha and Plaza, 2011). However, sometimes migrant entrepreneurship remains a source of polarised opinions. Some view migrants as talents and cross-border innovators (Fackler et al, 2019) or contributors to entrepreneurial activity when compared to non-immigrants (Peroni et al., 2016). Others, however, may consider migrants as a problem (Harrison et al., 2019) and a burden on the welfare systems of developed host countries (Razin and Wahba, 2015). These contradicting arguments might have undermined the contribution of migrant professionals; thus, understanding the experiences of how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services enact business activities in dual contexts is an important phenomenon that this study aims to explore.

Managing migrant human capital talents in the form of entrepreneurs is a daunting task. In this regard, understanding various strands of migrant entrepreneurs is more important than ever before as it has created a global concern from receiving and sending countries' perspectives. As migrant professionals in health sectors profoundly contribute to Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, those countries have now started recognising foreign degrees in response to the current COVID-19 pandemic (Scarpetta et al., 2020). Likewise, because of the lack of preparation to manage shrinking populations, migration would become compulsory for all nations, not optional (Gallagher, 2020). Although professionals are studied from a workforce talent perspective (see Doherty, 2013; Jokinen et al., 2008; Myers and Pringle, 2005), they are rarely considered from an entrepreneurial talent point of view. This indicates that there is a circular flow of entrepreneurial skill exchange that is poorly understood in entrepreneurship research.

The primary purpose of this thesis is to investigate how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services manage their human capital to adapt, network and innovate. Looking at the differing experiences of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK, this study seeks to answer the following three questions: How do migrant entrepreneurs in professional services adapt their human capital to new host environments? How does human capital relate to building a network for transnational and circular entrepreneurship? How do they transform their human capital to build innovation capacity for the digital age?

Many people originating from Nepal, famously known as the British Gurkhas, have become an image of bravery and honesty in the global sphere (Low, 2016), but their entrepreneurial engagement is poorly understood. Nepalese-origin entrepreneurs have been found in a wide range of different businesses, for instance, hotels and restaurants, real estate and renting, wholesale and retails and health and social work (Sims, 2008). Gellner (2013) indicated that the health professionals who arrived in the UK in 1970s and 1980s are involved in various businesses, including the health sector. The Nepalese diaspora is one of the fastest-growing ethnic minority communities in the UK (CNSUK, 2012; Laksamba et al., 2013; Sims, 2008); however, regarding Nepalese entrepreneurs, there are no formal records or research as of now, but there are many entrepreneurs who are engaged in entrepreneurship activities in professional services. This was noticed by the researcher during Nepalese diasporic gatherings, for instance, the annual meeting of the Non-Resident Nepali Association (NRNA) UK. Realising the research gap in migrant entrepreneurship research in professional services, the current study focuses its research on Nepalese-origin migrants in professional service sectors in the UK, who have rarely been studied from an entrepreneurship perspective.

The current study follows a multi-theory approach with a focus on human capital combined with technology adoption perspectives and employs an interpretive research methodology. Thirty-one Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the professional services of engineering, accounting, law, information technology (IT), health, education and money remittance services were interviewed between April to August 2018 using semi-structured interviews. Those respondents were selected by means of theoretical and snowball sampling. During the second stage, revisit interviews with twenty-four entrepreneurs in September and October 2018 were undertaken. Additionally, a third stage included a focus group discussion with eight entrepreneurs in March 2019. This longitudinal approach to three interview stages was adapted to capture not only constructs but also processes to corroborate the findings from each stage and to ensure research rigour. The thesis contributes to three theoretical avenues. First, it conceptualises the process of talent adaptation in human capital theory. Second, circular

relationships between innovation, knowledge transformation and digital inclusion plays an essential role in human capital adaptation in the digital age. Finally, the duality of the networking process and relationships is identified as a core mechanism of human capital transformation in home-host migrant entrepreneurship. Through these contributions, this thesis extends the definition of migrant entrepreneurs in its methodology and scope by focusing on those working in professional services, their human capital and the complex environment around them.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

There is limited knowledge about digital migrants in professional services and how their journey from employment to a global entrepreneurial career is translated in the digital economy. They have differing success rates as some are more successful than others (Ndofor and Priem, 2011). This problem questions whether human capital in migrant entrepreneurs must be managed better. Ethnic and migrant entrepreneurs in sectors other than the professional are mostly found to be underperforming and a low-margin domain of entrepreneurship (Ishaq et al., 2010; Khoir et al., 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008). However, some migrant entrepreneurs in professional industries are accounted as being more successful (Saxenian, 2002). Nonetheless, like in the other sectors, they also have differing success levels. This is because many often strive to adapt to their host environments, either as migrants who see business as the only way to integrate or in professional services by choosing between employment and entrepreneurship. With digital innovation, some firms are growing (Daniel et al., 2015; Darch and Lucas, 2002; Reuber and Fischer, 2011), while the majority are lagging behind due to uneven and slow innovation adoption (European Commission, 2015; Morgan-Thomas, 2016).

Another ambiguity concerns networking since some studies argue that migrant entrepreneurs are new to the host environment, subsequently limiting their scope of networking to the broader communities (Baik et al., 2013; Petersen and Pedersen, 2002), while others claim that migrant entrepreneurs have the unique social resources of the 'diaspora' to gain access to both their country of origin as well as their host environment (Denk et al., 2012; Joardar et al., 2014). Therefore, there is a gap in understanding the issues faced by migrant entrepreneurs that may result in economic and social implications due to their uneven performances. These grounds raise the question of why migrant entrepreneurs in professional areas have a different experience and how they navigate these barriers in their entrepreneurial journey. The following issues require investigation in addressing the problems of understanding the differing experiences of migrant entrepreneurs as they are conditioned in the host-home situation:

- Adaptation of human capital to integrate into new host environments

- Innovation and continuous human capital transformation practices
- Building networks driven by human capital

1.4 Research Aims and Objectives

The primary objective of this thesis is to contribute to expanding knowledge in the field of ethnic and migrant entrepreneurship in the UK. To achieve such an overarching objective, this thesis investigates the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs in the UK through a sample of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in professional services. The following are the complementary objectives designed to achieve that principal aim.

1. To investigate how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services manage their human capital to adapt to the new environment. Chapter four is designed to achieve this objective by discussing the human capital approach to adapt to new environments.
2. To explore how migrant entrepreneurs adopt innovation for digital inclusion and continuous human capital transformation. This objective is achieved through the exploration of human capital for innovation adaptation in chapter five.
3. To examine how migrant entrepreneurs utilise human capital to build a network for transnational and circular entrepreneurship. In obtaining this objective, the study discusses the mechanisms of circular networking in chapter six.

Intending to contribute to the knowledge of entrepreneurship, this research presents the entrepreneurial experiences of the rarely studied professional migrant entrepreneurs in the UK. While investigating different experiences of migrant entrepreneurs, this thesis examines the adaptation of innovation fit for the digital economy as well as their endeavour for better integration in a host business environment and expanding businesses in the transnational landscape. This will involve assessing how migrant entrepreneurs contextualise and update their knowledge in new environments and exploring what encourages them to adopt digital means and integrate themselves into the host business environment.

1.5 Research Questions

The research inquiry will involve assessing how migrant entrepreneurs contextualise and update their knowledge in new environments and exploring what encourages them to adopt digital means and integrate themselves into the host business environment, as well as maintain relationships in their country of origin for business possibilities alongside social and family relationships. Looking at the differing experiences of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK, this study explores the transformation of their human capital related to their knowledge,

experience and socio-cultural and economic capital in a quest for better businesses and improved lives to answer the following three questions:

- How can migrant entrepreneurs in professional services adapt their human capital to new host environments?
- How do they transform their human capital to build innovation capacity for the digital age?
- How does human capital relate to building a network for transnational and circular entrepreneurship?

This research is strategically designed to capture migrants' experiences through interviews that intend to respond to research questions through interpretation. This strategy drives the research design, which connects the research questions with data and defines the tools and procedures that are used to collect and fit the data with the questions (Punch, 2009).

1.6 Research Methodology

This study employed an interpretive research methodology that is suitable to investigate social phenomena (Crotty, 1998) as it aims to investigate the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs and to explore how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services manage their human capital to adapt, network and innovate. In particular, the interpretive approach (Walsham, 1995) provided a guideline for the research design and data collection as a proposed iterative process of data collection and analysis and as a means of reaching a research outcome. Semi-structured interviews (Creswell, 2009) were conducted to capture perceptions and life experiences from the real business world as this method was appropriate for the under-researched Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs.

A sample of 31 Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs from professional service industries were selected and interviewed by means of theoretical and snowball sampling methods (Saunders et al., 2005). The sampling size was defined by reaching a level of response saturation (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The respondents included migrant entrepreneurs from engineering, accounting, health, law, education, IT, money transmission and business management sectors. The first-stage interviews were conducted at the entrepreneurs' workplaces between April and August 2018, lasting an average of 35 minutes. The interviewing and transcribing tasks were carried out in quick succession to capture any relevant information instantly and iteratively (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). The interviews were self-transcribed and analysed using ATLAS.ti, a qualitative research software suitable for handling different data sources (Friese, 2019) in an iterative cycle. The data analysis provided the researcher with emerging themes,

which encouraged reviewing the interviewees between September and October 2018 with the aim of corroborating and collecting further data to obtain any new information regarding any possible changes in their opinions from their earlier responses. A longitudinal approach (McCoy, 2017) to the three interview stages (first interview, second interview and focus group discussion), as stated in chapter three, was adapted to capture not only constructs but also processes to corroborate the findings from each stage and to ensure research rigour. In qualitative research, reliability, preferably termed as confirmability or dependability, represents replicability, whereas validity, preferably termed as credibility and plausibility, refers to an accurate reflection of the studied phenomenon (Lewis et al., 2014). Thus, this research thoroughly follows the quality criteria for the interpretive entrepreneurship research as suggested by scholars (Klein and Myers, 1999; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Yardley, 2000).

1.7 Significance of the Study

Broadly, it is evident that our understanding of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services operating in a global digital economy is limited (Ferreira et al., 2015), but it is a significantly growing area of interest as professional talents are emerging in demand globally (Gallagher, 2020). The current research draws fresh insights from Nepalese-origin migrant entrepreneurs and contributes by adding value in the domain of migrant entrepreneurship. Empirical insights accounted in the research has explored adaptation strategies of the particular ethnic community regarding conducting business in a dual context in the digital economy. Mainly, there are two reasons as to why this study is significant. First, migrant entrepreneurs in professional sectors are growing (Harper-Anderson, 2019), but research in this area is very limited. Second, their business success varies greatly (Ndofor and Priem, 2011). These contradictions instilled curiosity and attracted the researcher to investigate how migrants in professional services can improve their businesses in the host-home context by evolving digital innovation. In this context, the research outcomes will benefit the domain of entrepreneurship as it adds the entrepreneurial experiences of Nepalese-origin entrepreneurs in a new segment of the field. From the researcher's perspective, the work is expected to be a milestone for career development as it has built up confidence in engaging research activities within and beyond academia. The topic has already secured resources from the industry engagement fund from SeNSS-ESRC and could achieve a significant impact in the entrepreneurial community.

This thesis is important because it has thoroughly analysed and scientifically synthesised literature so that future researchers can have access to a ready-made platform. Empirical outcomes are very important for the practitioners who want to learn from the experience of diverse entrepreneurs as to how businesses can be operated efficiently in the context of the

digital economy. The respondents' stories are inspiring not only for those who are in the service industries but also in other sectors. This also benefits the policymaker in the host-home country as it exposes the challenges and opportunities of doing businesses and maintaining dual relationships at the same time.

This research mainly pertains to expanding knowledge of the human capital of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services. From the receiving country's perspective, migrant entrepreneurs attract human talents and cultural and financial capital into the country that not only serves to increase revenue and create jobs but also increases the profile of that country. The sending country can attract its expatriate citizens to invest financial and human capital earned in the foreign land, and it can gain access to new markets in Europe and further afield. This study suggests ways of removing bottlenecks that are causing an uneven practice regarding contextual adaptation, innovation adoption and local and transnational networking in the context of migrant entrepreneurs in professional sectors. Considering digital business, this study has explored the opportunities of entrepreneurs to access required resources from the host environment and across borders. Furthermore, the investigation uncovers the strategies of migrant entrepreneurs in transforming their human capital in the process of digitising their services. Any solutions to challenging issues are documented in the form of a recommendation report during the course of this study, and this will be favourable to the UK government, who seek to provide a more natural path to success for ethnic and migrant-owned businesses.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The focus of the research is to investigate how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services adapt, innovate and network in the new environments for their business success. It is crucial to define the research in terms of what it does and does not cover. Regarding the conceptual aspect, it focuses on migrant or ethnic entrepreneurship. Similarly, the entire enquiry is designed while considering human capital theory in light of innovation and technology. Units of analysis are individual entrepreneurs who represent their businesses. The sample selection is confined to those who gain their qualification mainly in their country of origin and migrate into the UK where they established their businesses based on their academic and professional qualification with or without expanding their qualifications in the UK. For this research, professional services are service industries that are based on an individual's qualification, for instance, engineers, accountants, medical doctors, lawyers, dentists and other service-related expertise. Although initially there was not any intension to confine the research within a particular territory, in the course of data collection as per the adopted approach – snowballing and theoretical sampling – the required saturation level achieved was mostly from

within the Greater London area with the exception of Leicester for one respondent. The data information was captured between April 2018 to March 2019 through interviews as required by qualitative research.

1.9 Research Contributions

Overall, this thesis contributes to theory, methodology and practice in the domain of entrepreneurship. First, the findings extend human capital theory by examining talent adaptation related to education and experience in the context of migrant entrepreneurship across multiple industries. International entrepreneurship research on human capital adaptation is very limited, but it could inform human capital theory as to capabilities, cross-cultural challenges, knowledge exchanges and innovation in international business. Second, the research draws a combined theoretical concept incorporating human capital, technology acceptance and innovation diffusion, and it introduces self-efficacy, digital/non-digital fusion, off-the-shelf and the bespoke trade-off and outsource/insource balance as crucial dimensions in innovation adaptation. This extends the technology adoption perspectives (technology acceptance and innovation diffusion) in entrepreneurship by unveiling the circular relationships between innovation, knowledge transformation and digital inclusion that complement constructs from combined theories and contribute to human capital and innovation adaptation. Third, the duality of the networking process and relationships is identified as a core mechanism of human capital transformation in home-host migrant entrepreneurship. It extends the theory by introducing ethnic, co-ethnic, host-home, digital and diaspora as embedded network constructs that mediate networking and transnational entrepreneurship.

Besides uncovering insights from the under-researched group, it contributes to extending the definition of migrant entrepreneurs in its methodology and scope by focusing on those working in professional services, their human capital, innovation adaptation and networking practices in the complex environment around them. The multiple data collection and confirmation techniques allow behaviours to be observed and explored over time, such as how mentalities change, how relationships form and more of these intangible, processual, long-term dynamics. Qualitative rigour has been achieved by taking a longitudinal, process-oriented, iterative theoretical approach.

Successful stories about effective digital practices can have positive implications when followed by entrepreneurs as such best practices reduce risks to safety, security and reliability. Migrant entrepreneurs utilise dual networks to exchange knowledge for creating new ventures, finding business collaborators or expanding businesses transnationally. Policymakers in the host country can formulate policies that encourage the recognition of their home country

affiliation, which can motivate entrepreneurs to integrate into the host environment. The home country can benefit from its diaspora of professional entrepreneurs through knowledge and technology transfer but only when those countries are able to recognise their values and design policies to attract them as return entrepreneurs and a contributing diaspora community.

1.10 Thesis Structure

The structure of first part of this thesis comprises the title page, declaration of authorship, acknowledgements, abstract, the table of contents, the list of figures, the list of tables and abbreviations. Then it is followed by the introduction, literature review, methodology, analysis, findings and discussion. Finally, the thesis focuses upon a discussion and conclusions, followed by references and appendices. A brief synopsis of each chapter, beginning from chapter two, has been presented below:

1.10.1 Literature Review

The literature review is designed to provide conceptual clarity for entrepreneurship and to familiarise the reader with the previous and current research conducted in the field. This includes a critical examination of various issues and themes that emerged over time to explore what is known and what is unknown in the research of entrepreneurship. Through a critical evaluation of literature, the author identifies the guiding principles of how people make meaning or interpret the occurrences related to entrepreneurial behaviours. The review indicates a need to examine the human capital management of migrant entrepreneurs in professional sectors as their businesses are mostly based on education and experience gained in two distinct environments. Thus, this part of the research frames the theoretical foundation and uncovers gaps to further examine the use of human capital theory in association with the perspective of technology innovation. In addition to shaping the research questions and justifying the research rationale, it also adds value in human capital and technology perspectives by synthesising existing research and introducing new theoretical constructs.

The introduction section provides a background for the chapter by signposting the different sections included therein. The second section critically evaluates various definitions of entrepreneurship to constitute a clear concept of what entrepreneurship means to this research. In doing so, it combines previous and current scholars' views and categorises the definition of entrepreneurship based on their focuses and positions on what entrepreneurship meant to this research. Furthermore, the next section critically evaluates the various entrepreneurship research themes developed over time and explores the most important themes relevant to the current study. During this part of the analysis, numerous themes are discussed,

and the rationale behind choosing migrant entrepreneurship as a focused segment of the entrepreneurship domain is identified. A thoughtful consideration was made as to ethnic minority entrepreneurship, migrant entrepreneurship and technology and entrepreneurship as these three themes were relevant to migrant entrepreneurs and the digital economy.

After clarifying the concept of entrepreneurship in sections 2.1 and 2.2, subsections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3 narrow the conceptual focus onto ethnic minority and migrant entrepreneurship as these themes are the main research topic for this study. A critical evaluation was conducted to clarify the confusion between terms ethnic and migrant in the context of entrepreneurship and concluded to use both terms interchangeably in the current study. The following subsection (2.2.4) sets the context for migrant entrepreneurs and the digital economy in the UK. It develops a framework on how migrant entrepreneurs practice and adapt in the digital context. Further, it sheds light on the importance of studying this particular segment of entrepreneurship in the digital and duality context and justifies its importance as questioned by scholars (e.g. Catney and Sabate, 2015). Existing research on migrant entrepreneurship from technological perspectives is thoroughly evaluated in the following section. Different theoretical applications from extant literature were analysed in section 2.3, which determines the appropriateness of using human capital theory and technology perspectives (a combination of technology acceptance model and innovation diffusion theory) to study migrant entrepreneurs in service sectors as a niche area of entrepreneurship research. Finally, a typology is presented as a research guideline, as stated in Figure 2.1, in section 2.4, chapter 2.

1.10.2 Research Methodology

The researcher aims to identify reality from people's interactions and the context rather than being an independent observer. Therefore, the current researcher is interested in applying an interpretive perspective in inquiring about migrant entrepreneurs' experiences and perceptions in the UK to reveal their views on different entrepreneurial activities, including viewpoints on human capital adaptation, technology innovation and transnationalism. There may be a question of the researcher's involvement as to whether he plays an active role in social interaction. The response is clear as the researcher himself has experience being an entrepreneur in Nepal and a migrant entrepreneur in the United Kingdom. The researcher commits to sharing real-life experiences by adopting a subjective view and being aware of the value-free and value-laden situation.

The interpretive approach contributes to this research in three ways: as a guideline for research design and data collection, as an iterative process of data collection and analysis and as a means of reaching the outcome of the research (Walsham, 1995). Hence, the researcher

follows the interpretivist perspective and devises research instruments accordingly. Punch (2009) asserts that interviewing is the most important data collection tool for qualitative research, and it is effective in capturing participants' perceptions, meanings and definitions of the contexts and constructions of reality. Therefore, a semi-structured interview, as suggested by Creswell (2009), was developed to interview migrant entrepreneurs in professional services who were rarely included in the previous research. The first sets of questions as guided by the theoretical framework and tested by a pilot study and two further revisions were made considering an iterative process during the interview period. Corroborative and focus group interview questions were further revised to embed the emerging themes.

The sample respondents, Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in professional services, were approached using a snowball technique and motivated through a theoretical sampling method. Individual migrant entrepreneurs were considered the unit of analysis. A semi-structured interview procedure and instrumental guide were taken into consideration during the interview. Recordings and notes were carefully transcribed, organised, coded and categorised to develop themes and constructs for interpretation and drawing conclusions. The set of information was analysed using a computer-aided software called ATLAS.ti. The verification of that information was achieved through corroborative revisits and a focus group discussion where the researcher received the opportunity to share preliminary findings and, at the same time, collect further information. Interpretive quality criteria, as suggested by Klein and Myers (1999), were applied throughout the research process. Finally, ethical rigour was met using the guidelines that can understand and respect the gravity of ethics and reflects the complexity, sensitivity and details of human interaction in practice.

1.10.3 Results and Discussion

This part of the research includes outcomes of the research inquiry revealed from the analysis of interview transcriptions from Nepalese-origin migrant entrepreneurs from the professional services sectors. In response to the research questions as established in section 1.5, three main themes – the adaptation of human capital, innovation and continuous human capital transformation and transnational networks driven by human capital – were discovered as the outcome of data coding, categorisation and construct development. The following are some of the main findings included in the discussion:

- Migrant entrepreneurs develop talent as a construct of human capital and adopt such talent to adapt and operate a business in the new host environment.

- There is a cyclic relationship between innovation adoption, digital inclusion and continuous entrepreneurial human capital development, which migrant entrepreneurs develop in a step-by-step process. However, such cyclic elements appear to be conflicting and complementing as they emerge, but they are still interlinked to form a cyclic relationship in a digitally inclusive entrepreneurial journey.
- Migrant entrepreneurs are endowed with unique human capital that allows them to form a circular dynamic network particularly gained from two or multiple nations, which facilitate them in developing transnational business activities.

Results are interpreted considering how people create meaning for any particular action and engage in contributing to the theory by exploring the experiences and perceptions of the respondents (Fletcher, 2011). In the discussion, chapter findings are critically evaluated with reference to the extant literature and theories reflecting similarity, difference and novelty as appropriate.

1.11 Overall Conclusions

Migrant entrepreneurs bring their knowledge, experience and socio-cultural and economic capital to their host countries in a quest for better businesses and improved lives. However, they often strive to adapt to their host environments, maintain the dual network between host-home environments and manage digital innovation. As professionals are highly educated, they are mobile and self-initiated (Jokinen et al., 2008) and mostly switch from their previous jobs to entrepreneurship. During their entrepreneurial journey, with talent as a novel construct of human capital, entrepreneurs adapt to their host environment. Likewise, circular relationships between innovation, knowledge transformation and digital inclusion play an important role in human capital adaptation in the digital age. Also, the duality of the networking process and relationships is identified as a core mechanism of human capital transformation in home-host migrant entrepreneurship.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The overall purpose of this thesis is to examine how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services manage their human capital to adapt, network and innovate. Looking at the different experiences of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK, this study sought to answer the following three questions: How can migrant entrepreneurs in professional services adapt their human capital to new host environments? How do they transform their human capital to build innovation capacity for the digital age? How does human capital relate to building a network for transnational and circular entrepreneurship?

Most previous studies have focused exclusively on low-skilled migrant entrepreneurs (Ishaq et al., 2010; Ram et al., 2017) and are thus characterised as a marginalised and underprivileged category of entrepreneurship (Khoir et al., 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008; Ram et al., 2017). However, some literature unveiled that migrant entrepreneurs have a unique social and cultural remittance (Chen and Tan, 2009), transnational networks (Levitt and Jaworsky, 2007), and international experience (Molinsky, 2007), which enable them to contribute to both their host and home countries (Pruthi and Mitra, 2017; Saxenian, 2005). Some entrepreneurs in professional services are highly skilled and have been engaging in more global, high-tech, knowledge-intensive and sophisticated businesses (Saxenian, 2002). Similarly, Hart et al. (2015) and Levie (2007) claim that migrant entrepreneurs are generally more risk-oriented than native ones and contribute to their host country's economy by establishing and growing small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), as well as through self-employment (Fairlie and Lofstrom, 2014).

Furthermore, Johnson and Kimmelman (2014) indicate that migrant entrepreneurs have established 60 percent of the top technology businesses in the US. However, other studies show that many ethnic minority and migrants-owned businesses are not only facing extreme competition but are also rewarded inadequately (Ram and Jones, 2008). Conclusively, migrant entrepreneurs have varied experiences while undertaking the daunting task of entrepreneurship as some are more successful than others (Ndofor and Priem, 2011). Their degree of success varies greatly; for example, despite the diverse customer base black ethnic entrepreneurs in the US professional services lack behind against their counterparts of other ethnic backgrounds (Harper-Anderson, 2019). Therefore, such varying performances may have a significant impact on the economy, so the study of migrant entrepreneurs' experiences has become important.

However, studies show that following a strategy of establishing an online business or using technological means facilitate opportunities for migrants to develop a high-profit venture at low entry costs (Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Daniel et al., 2015; Darch and Lucas, 2002). In a similar vein, Matlay and Westhead (2005) claim that many enterprises are transforming themselves into innovative organisational forms to enhance sustainable competitive advantage in the local, national or global market. This finding indicates that innovation adoption can improve the entrepreneurial process. This notwithstanding, 98 percent of enterprises have failed to grasp the full advantages of opportunities created by adapting digital means (European Commission, 2015). This contradiction raises the question of why the majority of entrepreneurs do not adapt to digital means in their businesses. Williams et al. (2004) believe that although migrant entrepreneurship plays significant roles in the economy, it has been a neglected area of research. In this regard, understanding migrant entrepreneurs is more crucial than ever before. However, research on migrants in professional services has been very limited. Looking at the differing experiences of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK, this study aimed to understand the transformation of their human capital related to their knowledge, experience and socio-cultural and economic capital in a quest for better businesses and improved lives.

In pursuing the aforementioned agendas, this particular chapter critically examines the existing literature and posits current problems in the domain of migrant entrepreneurship that are very important to recognise and address in the researchers' the area of interest. This chapter aims to clarify the concepts of migrant entrepreneurship within the realm of entrepreneurship. Moreover, it helps to justify the research questions, objectives, rationale and contextual agenda. This chapter begins by confining the meaning of entrepreneurship as a holistic concept that follows a critical review of existing themes in the field. Likewise, the next sections focus on clarifying and positioning the meaning and relationship between ethnic minority and migrant entrepreneurship, two widely accepted phenomena within the dominion of entrepreneurship. The next part of the review focuses on conceptualising migrant entrepreneurship in the context of the digital economy from a technological perspective. Finally, it confirms migrant entrepreneurship in professional services as an understudied phenomenon within the domain of migrant entrepreneurship and sets as the scope of the current study.

Moreover, a subsequent segment critically evaluates relevant research on the existing theories used to study migrant entrepreneurship and postulates its stance to frame the theoretical lens. The critically evaluated literature provides sound logic and grounds for selecting the best theories and models for exploring the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs while contributing to the digital economy of the UK. Ultimately, the outcome of

the literature review founds the base for the next chapter: the research methodology. The next section critically examines the definitions of entrepreneurship and locates the researcher's position regarding what entrepreneurship means in this research.

2.2 Defining Entrepreneurship

The entrepreneurship phenomenon is studied using different themes from previous scholars (Ferreira et al., 2015), and migrant entrepreneurship is one of them. To understand what migrant entrepreneurship is, it is important to clearly define entrepreneurship as it is linked to a variety of disciplines and strands (Duane Ireland and Webb, 2007). Thus, this section critically evaluates various definitions of entrepreneurship to constitute a clear concept of what entrepreneurship means to this research.

Many researchers have defined it from different perspectives over time; however, some scholars recognise an absence of consensus on its precise definition (e.g. Davidsson, 2004; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). Therefore, it is important to understand the meaning of entrepreneurship before addressing the concept of migrant entrepreneurship as it helps to clarify the definitional standpoint of the current research. Casson (1982) defines entrepreneurship as a challenging task. The entrepreneurial practice has existed since trading begun, and its research was shadowed as renowned economists like Ricardo, Marx and Mill completely excluded the active role of the entrepreneur in their economic theories and models (Ricketts, 2008). While Smith (1950) illustrates an entrepreneur as an 'invisible hand', again the role of an entrepreneur could not be openly discussed. The importance of entrepreneurship was identified and explained when Schumpeter provided a clear view of the roles of entrepreneurs (Cosma and Galceava, 2014). In Schumpeter's (1942) book, regarding capitalism, socialism and democracy, he argues that:

The function of entrepreneurs is to reform or revolutionise the pattern of production by exploiting an invention, or more generally, an untried technological possibility for producing a new commodity or producing an old one in a new way.... To undertake such new things is difficult and constitutes a distinct economic function, first because they lie outside of the routine tasks which everybody understands, and second, because the environment resists in many ways.

Schumpeter (1934) defines an entrepreneur as a destroyer of existing economic order by introducing a new product, process and method of production, exploiting resources and creating a novel form of organisation. More importantly, Schumpeter views entrepreneurship as an innovation that has evolved ever since in the domain of entrepreneurship. His definition not only focuses on creating new ventures but also includes the transformation of existing businesses. For him, entrepreneurship is a creative destruction. In addition to Schumpeter, there

are many other scholars who define entrepreneurship with different focuses over the years. Table 2.1 is a summary of the main definitions that are relevant to discuss further in relation to the precision of migrant entrepreneurship.

Table 2.1: Entrepreneurship Definition and Focus

Definitional focus	Key authors
Creating new ventures/innovation	Bygrave and Zacharakis (2011), Reynolds (2005), Schumpeter (1934), Westhead et al. (2011)
Opportunity identification and exploitation	Bygrave and Zacharakis (2011), Schumpeter (1934), Shane and Venkataraman (2000), Timmons (1979)
New combinations and alternations	Bygrave and Zacharakis (2011), Kirzner (1973), Miller (1983), Westhead et al. (2011)
Networking	Aldrich and Zimmer (1986)
Resource utilisation and rational decision-making	Hébert and Link (1988)
Risk bearing	Knight (1921), Miller (1983), Weber (1947)
Process focus	Eckhardt and Shane (2003), Hisrich and Peters (2002), Stevenson and Jarillo (1990)
Behaviour focus	Casson (1982), Kirzner (1973), Timmons and Spinelli (2004), Wennekers and Thurik (1999)
Outcome focus	Sarasvathy (1999), Timmons and Spinelli (2004)

Analysing the above definitions reveals that researchers have defined entrepreneurship with a due focus on various aspects. For Schumpeter (1943), someone who creates new ventures or innovates new ideas is an entrepreneur. Similarly, identifying and exploiting opportunities has become another central character of entrepreneurs (Bygrave and Zacharakis, 2011; Schumpeter, 1934; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Timmons, 1979). Different from the Schumpeterian definition, which is characterised by innovation, Kirzner (1973) focused on the quality of creating new combinations and alterations in the entrepreneurs. While Schumpeter considers innovativeness as a major characteristic necessary to be an entrepreneur, Kirzner emphasises the significance of creating and exploiting opportunities by combining and altering resources in a new way or by fulfilling the existing market gap for an individual to be considered an entrepreneur.

Aldrich and Zimmer (1986) see networking capacity as an important feature of entrepreneurship, while for Hébert and Link (1988), entrepreneurship utilises the available

resources best to make rational decisions. Another important feature of entrepreneurship is a risk-bearing capacity (Knight, 1921; Miller, 1983; Weber, 1947).

Similarly, some researchers have defined entrepreneurship from the perspective of the entrepreneurial process (Eckhardt and Shane, 2003; Hisrich and Peters, 2002). While others focus on entrepreneurial behaviours (Timmons and Spinelli, 2004; Wennekers and Thurik, 1999), outcome-focused definitions provide organisational and individual perspectives in understanding the nature of entrepreneurship (Sarasvathy, 1999). Although some of the features such as new venture creation, finding and exploiting opportunities and the combination and alteration of business activities are commonly used, the rest of the features could fulfil the definitional gap and create a wider and more acceptable definition.

Although some enterprises – for instance, Apple and Uber – could create disruptive businesses, others endeavour to transform the existing market through entrepreneurial activities. Thus, Bygrave and Zacharakis (2011) say everyone who starts a new business, brings newness in any entrepreneurial processes or functions and sees opportunities and exploits them are entrepreneurs. Moreover, because of the revolutionary role of the entrepreneur, the existing economic order is repositioned. Walmart, Google, Microsoft and Amazon are examples of such enterprises that are widely covered by this definition as they incrementally entered the existing market. Similarly, Westhead et al. (2011) state that entrepreneurship encompasses the creation and development of new and existing businesses.

Entrepreneurship is to take the risk of creating a new business (Knight, 1921; Miller, 1983). Although this broadly describes the combinational company level, the act of setting up a new business can be attributed to the entrepreneur's quality. 'Entrepreneurship requires linkages or relations between key components of the process' (Aldrich and Zimmer, 1986, p.3). They further argued that entrepreneurial functions exist and develop in a network, create new ventures and exploit opportunities within it by building strong network entrepreneurs; hence, an entrepreneur is a networker. Conversely, Timmons (1979) defines entrepreneurship from an opportunity perspective, seeing an entrepreneur as a person who recognises and seizes opportunities. These definitions emphasise entrepreneurship in the new company only.

Other definitions of entrepreneurship emphasise existing companies as well. For instance, according to Cuervo et al. (2007; 4), entrepreneurial activities are strongly linked with all kinds of businesses regardless of size, age, types or nature. Unlike others, this definition states that entrepreneurial activities can affect many types of business organisations at any points in the life cycle. By comparing Weber and Schumpeter – two very influential authors – Licht and Siegel (2008) state that Weber's definition of entrepreneurship was more inclined towards

social value, whereas Schumpeter focuses on individual motivation. As stated in ‘The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism’, a Weberian entrepreneur is characterised as a risk-bearing adventurer guided by self-discipline and social value (Ebner, 2005). This view strongly connects the entrepreneurial phenomenon of the individual to the wider social context (Schmude et al., 2008). Therefore, entrepreneurship has been considered from a socialist and a capitalistic perspective.

Concerning their view of the entrepreneurial process, Hisrich and Peters (2002) and Stevenson and Jarillo (1990) define entrepreneurship as a process whereby an entrepreneur creates new ideas that enhance value and pursue opportunities. In contrast, Sarasvathy (1999), Gartner (1988) and Timmons and Spinelli (2004) focus on the outcome dimension of entrepreneurship, which includes new products, new businesses, innovation, adding value to society and new organisations. In contrast, Hébert and Link (1882) define entrepreneurship as the art of utilising resources to their maximum and achieving economic prosperity by making a rational decision. This definition sees an entrepreneur as a utiliser of resources and an achiever of economic prosperity by making sound decisions. Therefore, Stokes and Wilson (2010) categorise the definition of entrepreneurship into three main dimensions: processes, behaviours and outcomes. Some scholars view entrepreneurs from the perspective of entrepreneurial orientation (Goktan and Gupta, 2013; Lumpkin and Dess 1996). For them, entrepreneurs hold various entrepreneur-oriented characteristics, mainly risk-bearing capacity, innovativeness, proactiveness, autonomy and competitive aggressiveness. It can be interpreted that entrepreneur-oriented firms or entrepreneurs should exhibit these qualities.

Entrepreneurship has been defined from different perspectives because its researchers originated from various academic domains and professions. Baumol (1968) recognised the entrepreneurial function as a crucial process for the economic growth of the nation. Schmude et al. (2008) argued that unlike early entrepreneurship researchers, who were rooted in economics and business management backgrounds, now it has become a multidimensional ensemble rather than a single entrepreneurship science due to the presence of cross-professional researchers, including business administration, economics, sociology, geography and psychology. Different researchers from various backgrounds have defined entrepreneurship from a multitude of perspectives, so it is difficult to reach a single universally accepted definition in what has become a multidisciplinary and dynamic domain. Davidsson and Wiklund (2001) suggest that entrepreneurship should be precisely defined as a domain of novelty and value creation in the economy, limiting its risk of overextension.

However, in his review of Swedberg's (2000) 'Entrepreneurship: a social science view', Francis (2002) notes that although the Schumpeterian definition assumes innovation as an indissolubly connected feature of entrepreneurship, many so-called entrepreneurs in the current age are not innovative but rather are involved in trading activities only. Therefore, the debate of entrepreneurial characteristics as to whether an entrepreneur must be an innovator or a creator has existed as many business owners are considered to be entrepreneurs although they do not innovate. In the view of Thornton et al. (2011), people who create and develop enterprises are entrepreneurs, and the process through which such entrepreneurial activities are achieved is known as entrepreneurship. This definition has clarified the meaning of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs. Miller et al. (2016) posits that adverse individual conditions of an economic, sociocultural, cognitive, physical or impulsive kind may have an equivalently dominant role to play in making people into effective entrepreneurs.

As an essence of the differing opinions of presented definitions, Gartner (1988) categorises the widely used terminologies for defining entrepreneurship, which consist of the following: innovation, organisation, creation, creating value, profit or non-profit, growth, uniqueness and the owner-manager. Although entrepreneurship has been understood from different viewpoints and focuses, entrepreneurial aspirations are closely linked with business motives. Each definition has its importance; however, despite some commonalities, many of the definitional contents are complementary rather than mutually exclusive. Consequently, entrepreneurship is required to create a new business, which comes from innovation, alteration and new combinations of any business activities in any stages of an enterprise, including creation, rebirth and transformation. Furthermore, it contains risks as well as opportunities. Thus, it can be concluded that it is difficult to define entrepreneurship precisely because different people may have different viewpoints. However, it has some common aspects that do not vary with the context. An entrepreneur can be an individual or an organisation as well as a nation, but entrepreneurial activities should contain new and creative ideas that can be converted into an opportunity for the purpose of adding value to the existing businesses or creation of new business to positively impact the economy. According to Hisrich et al. (2010: 6):

Entrepreneurship is the process of creating something new with value by devolving the necessary time and effort: assuming the accompanying financial, psychic, and social risks and uncertainties; and receiving the resulting rewards of monetary and personal satisfaction.

In Hisrich and his associates' view, entrepreneurship comprises four important aspects: the creation of new value, the devotion of time and efforts, rewards and risk of uncertainties.

These are some elements that are commonly found in certain definitions postulated over time. Since Hisrich and his associates' definition includes most of the core features of the various definitions discussed above, this research holds the same view in understanding migrant entrepreneurship. Hence, the current research defines entrepreneurship as a phenomenon in which an individual, institution or social entity orientates towards the creation of a new venture or reformation of an existing business activity, adding value to the business and creating new opportunities while bearing some degree of risk for the purpose of economic and social benefit. This definition helps to better understand the entrepreneurship phenomenon in investigating migrant entrepreneurs because it covers all kinds of migrant-owned businesses in the UK. The next section identifies and critically evaluates various themes within the entrepreneurship domain that are pertinent to the current study.

2.2.1 Entrepreneurship Research Themes Over Time

The previous section clarified what entrepreneurship means to this research, and this section aims to critically evaluate the various entrepreneurship research themes developed over time and to explore the most critical issues relevant to the current study. Understanding different themes within the domain of entrepreneurship helps to conceptualise the strands of the field of entrepreneurship and to clarify the urgency of studying the current topic. Entrepreneurship research over the last few decades has revolved around shaping its boundaries while consistently attracting scholars' attention to the field (Ferreira et al., 2015). As its attraction kept growing, sometimes this domain was labelled as a fragmented field of research (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000), and some even questioned its legitimacy in academia (Low and Macmillan, 1988). Gartner (2001) presents the mounting discreteness in the themes of entrepreneurship well in his story of the six blind young men, where he compared the views of each man when describing the elephant to the development of entrepreneurship research and its themes or concepts. However, Low and MacMillan (1998) advise that the continuation of contextual and process-oriented research trends could strengthen entrepreneurship research in the future.

Table 2.2: Twenty-five entrepreneurship research themes

Main research themes	Frequency of the study
Entrepreneurial process	443
Environmental and external determinants of entrepreneurship	386
Value creation and performance	304
Methods, theories and research issues	292
Psychological, cognitive and individual characteristics	268
Entrepreneurial resources	225
Entrepreneurial networks (trust and relational)	205
High-tech entrepreneurship	188
Founders	179
Corporate venturing and business competition	162
Industry analysis	112
Organisation	109
Entry modes, international, born-global and MNE	138
Cultural issues	98
Leadership, TMT and decision-making	98
Small and medium enterprises	91
Entrepreneurial opportunity	78
Knowledge-based views	83
Liabilities of newness and survival of firms	82
Institutions and institutional entrepreneurship	80
Human resource management	63
Organisational decision-making	60
Entrepreneurial family business	51
Commercialisation and marketing	46
Business activities	39

(*Source: Ferreira et al., 2015, p.19*).

Although entrepreneurship research has been conducted through the lenses of diverse perspectives over the years (Ferreira et al., 2015), Table 2.2 shows the twenty-five most common themes that are widely used in researching entrepreneurship.

Ferreira and his associates identify the twenty-five most used themes in the domain of entrepreneurship during the period 1991 to 2010 by sorting author-supplied keywords into

wider categories based on the highly ranked journal index ISI Web of Knowledge and using Ann-Will Harzing's quality list, ISI and Scopus impact factors. Interestingly, their research shows that 'entrepreneurial process' was studied 443 times, and 'environmental and external determinants of entrepreneurship' was studied 386 times during that time period. However, 'corporate venturing and business competition' secured the top 10 places in 1991–2000 but disappeared during 2001–2005 before appearing again on the list of most widely researched themes during 2006–2010. On the other hand, 'organisation' and 'industry analysis' were two of the top 10 studied themes in 1991–2000 but were not on the list afterwards. This indicates that over time various themes emerge and remain heterogeneously.

After examining Table 2.2 meticulously, it can be inferred that the entrepreneurship domain comprises diverse areas of research interests. However, some themes are developed according to the existing context, whereas others are picked up from the past. On the other hand, some issues are more focused than the others. Interestingly, some thoughts are refined and transformed in line with the changed context; for instance, the entrepreneurial process was studied 443 times, but this has been modified according to the situation without losing its core meaning. Similarly, migrant or ethnic minority entrepreneurs were studied from different perspectives previously, but the focus on technological perspectives emerged with the advent of the digital age.

A fundamental but common point is that all the studies were conducted with the aim of improving performance and revealing tactics for developing and achieving better entrepreneurial objectives. A very important issue in the analysis of these themes is that the previous research did not particularly emphasise the digital contribution, and the current research area has been under-researched as these themes are not among the list of the most researched topics, according to Ferreira et al. (2015). Second, prior research did not address the digital component, which impacted entrepreneurial research massively with the emergence of technological innovation. Third, the phenomenon of ethnic minority and migrant entrepreneurship was recognised over half a century ago. Weber (1976) underlined the relationship between the Americanisation of Jewish immigrants and astonishing success in his popular book 'The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism'. However, scholars did not prioritise its importance as it does not take place within the most-researched category.

Subsequently, there is a huge debate concerning the rationale of immigrant entrepreneurs in the political sphere, but rarely have studies been conducted to reflect their actual contribution. The researcher believes that an investigation into whether they make a real contribution to the economy may take this discourse in a different direction. Ram and Jones (2008) suggest that a

holistic understanding of migrant entrepreneurs' contributions to the nation is essential in addressing these issues, while Tajvidi and Karami (2017) see the importance of the impact caused by digital behaviours on the performance of entrepreneurs. Therefore, in addition to the above-listed themes, the issues of ethnic minority entrepreneurship, migrant entrepreneurship, technology and entrepreneurship have become significant areas of focus in the domain of entrepreneurship research. These are supported and contributed to by various researchers, as mentioned in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Relevant themes and contributors

Themes	Contributors
Ethnic Minority and Entrepreneurship	Aldrich and Waldinger (1990), Anwar and Daniel (2016), Basu (2006), Carter et al. (2002), Carter et al. (2015), Clark and Drinkwater (2006), Dobbin (1996), Högberg et al. (2016), Ishaq et al. (2010), Jones et al. (1994), Kirzner (1979), Kloosterman et al. (1999), Ram and Jones (2008), Robb and Fairlie (2007), Saxenian, (2000), Schermerhorn (1978), Shane and Venkatraman (2000), Shelton (2010), Waldinger et al. (1990), Weber (1976) and Yinger (1985).
Immigrants/migrants and Entrepreneurship	Aliaga-Isla and Rialp (2013), Basu (1998), Baycan-Levent and Nijkamp (2009), Chaganti et al. (2008), Efendic et al. (2016), Högberg et al. (2016), Johnson and Kimmelman (2014), Jones et al. (2014b; 2015), Lassmann and Busch (2015), McGrath and MacMillan (1992), Mora and Dávila (2005), Ndofor and Priem (2011), Peroni et al. (2016), Ram et al. (2012; 2017), Rath and Kloosterman (2000), Sevä et al. (2016), Waldinger (1984) and Williams et al. (2004).
Technology and Entrepreneurship	Acs and Audretsch (2003), Anwar and Daniel (2016), Ashurst et al. (2011), Brady et al. (2002), Couclelis (2004), Cumming and Johan (2010), Daniel et al. (2015), Davidson and Vaast (2010), European Commission (2015), Hagsten and Kotnik (2017), Jones et al. (2014a), Judge et al. (2015), Ko-Min and Johnsen (2011), Lerner et al. (2005), Morgan-Thomas (2016), Ragaswamy and Lilien (1997), Reuber and Fischer (2011), Scott (2006), Siegel (2006), Summut-Bonnii and McGee (2002), Venkataraman (2004) and Ziyae et al. (2014).

Although there are numerous themes as discussed above, this research focuses on ethnic minority entrepreneurship, migrant entrepreneurship and technology and entrepreneurship as these three themes are relevant to migrant entrepreneurs and the digital economy. The next three sections critically evaluate these three themes and rationalise the relevancy of researching migrant entrepreneurs and their digital contribution to the UK by adopting information technology in their businesses. With the aim of enhancing deeper knowledge of ethnic minority entrepreneurs, the next section explores and evaluates extant research on ethnic minority entrepreneurship.

2.2.2 Ethnic Minority Entrepreneurship

Section 2.2.1 highlights the importance of studying migrant entrepreneurship theme but still does not clarify how current research considers the terms ‘ethnic minority’ and ‘migrant’ in the domain of entrepreneurship. This section begins by clarifying the concept of the ethnic minority and then assesses how ethnic minority entrepreneurship is defined and deployed to research entrepreneurship as this theme is often used interchangeably with migrant entrepreneurship (e.g. Mora and Davila, 2005; Ram et al., 2012; Smallbone et al., 2005) before critically evaluating the existing research and contextualising contributions to knowledge and the economy. Going forward, it is important to have a clear understanding of who counts as an ethnic minority entrepreneur. Like entrepreneurship, ethnic entrepreneurship also does not have one universally accepted definition. Scholars have defined it from different perspectives. According to Schermerhorn (1978, p.12), ethnic entrepreneurship is:

A collectivity within a larger society having real or putative common ancestry, memories of a shared historical past, and a cultural focus on one or more symbolic elements defined as the epitome of their peoplehood. Examples of such symbolic elements are: kinship patterns, physical contiguity, regional affiliation, language... nationality... or any combination of these.

For Schermerhorn (1978), ethnic minority entrepreneurs share a common background or values within the corresponding community, creating a unique identity that distinguishes them from the mainstream population. Similarly, Yinger (1985) believes that ethnic people are a part of a greater society who are considered to have appeared from the same origin and share a common culture. Correspondingly, Waldinger et al. (1990) define ethnic entrepreneurs as people who share the same upbringing and immigration experiences and ethnic entrepreneurship as the set of a network of such entrepreneurs.

After carefully considering these definitions, it is clear that ethnic minority entrepreneurs are different from mainstream entrepreneurs. Generally, they have migrated from other places

and hold strong ties among them based on originality and culture as they engage in self-employment and small businesses (Basu, 2006). Additionally, in his research, Basu (2006) claims the importance of researching ethnic minority entrepreneurship has increased because of three main factors: the growing number of self-employment and ownership of small businesses by ethnic minorities, especially in the western world; heterogeneity in the entrepreneurial performance and increasing globalisation with faster and cheaper information communication technologies. It is also evident that the self-employment rate among ethnic minorities is at least two percent higher than that of the mainstream white population in the UK (UK Office of National Statistics [ONS], 2004). On the other hand, the UK government accounts that there were 300,000 ethnic minority-led SMEs in 2014 that contribute approximately £30 billion annually to the UK economy (Department for Business, Innovation and Skills, 2015). This indicates that ethnic minorities contribute significantly to the UK economy. The reasons behind stimulating ethnic minority communities to be entrepreneurs have been studied by many researchers. Clark and Drinkwater (2006) and Jones et al. (1994) believe that economic disadvantage and racial discrimination are the main factors that prevent the majority of ethnic minorities from being self-employed and becoming small business owners. Similar views have been presented by Masurel and Nijkamp (2004) and Ram and Jones (2008) in their research.

Earlier researchers, such as Weber (1976) and Dobbin (1996), revealed that ethno-cultural factors stimulate an ethnic minority to become an entrepreneur. For instance, Jewish entrepreneurialism has been highly influenced by the culture and business traditions of the Gujarati, Ismailis and Marwaris, and it is a prominent factor that inspires an ethnic minority to become an entrepreneur. In a similar line, Berliant and Fujita (2009) argue that heterogeneity in cultural backgrounds cultivates entrepreneurship among the ethnic minority. On the other hand, some authors highlight that contextual factors, such as history, territorial knot, market environments and favourable institutional or governmental arrangements, are the prime determinants that encourage ethnic minorities to be entrepreneurs (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Carter et al., 2002; Kloosterman et al., 1999; Saxenian, 2000). Some ethnic entrepreneurship literature (Dobbin, 1996; Kirzner, 1979; Shane and Venkatraman, 2000) reveals that opportunity recognition, including prior knowledge of cultures and origins, as well as awareness and experience of the new environment, could help ethnic minorities to identify potential opportunities for becoming entrepreneurs. However, Ram and Jones (2008) argue that ethnic minority-owned businesses actively emerge from the interaction of social, economic and institutional processes rather than from an innate cultural propensity for entrepreneurship. The

contribution of ethnic minority entrepreneurs as discussed above has a significant impact on the economy (Basu, 2006); hence, it is an important aspect of this research. At the same time, further evaluation is required to explore problems faced by ethnic minority entrepreneurs.

Despite the noteworthy contribution of ethnic minority entrepreneurs, a range of challenges including unfriendly policies, a lack of access to resources and other social issues have also been revealed by academics (Carter et al., 2015; Robb and Fairlie, 2007). Bureau (2002) shows that minority-owned businesses lag behind non-minority-owned businesses regarding sales, profits, survivability and employment; for instance, the average sales of Caucasian-owned business was estimated to be higher by \$363,792 than African American-owned business in the USA. Facing greater obstacles in obtaining financing for their businesses implies that an already difficult situation is growing worse (Robb and Fairlie, 2007). Many ethnic minority-owned businesses are not only facing extreme competition but are also rewarded inadequately (Ram and Jones, 2008), especially catering businesses and comparatively low-profit retail stores (Catney and Sabate, 2015).

Similarly, Högberg et al. (2016) argue that the categorisation and labelling of an ethnic entrepreneur is based on the clear idea that the ethnic actor is not only an entrepreneur; instead, the actor is an ethnic one and, in that sense, other. The presence of otherness in any society may create social injustice; for instance, racial discrimination may discourage an ethnic minority from being an entrepreneur. Noting these issues, Carter et al. (2015) indicate that policies concerning heterogeneity and industry are undermined by a number of strains and unsolved questions that have arisen. This includes the presence of anticipated or real prejudice, the number and quality of ethnic minority and women-owned firms, possible market collapse in the support provided to various businesses and the substantive uniqueness of ethnic minority and women-led enterprises (Carter et al., 2015). In addition, cultural (Bullough and Abdelzaher, 2017) and family roles (Minniti and Nardone, 2007) impact women entrepreneurs, especially in the ethnic minority context.

Ishaq et al. (2010) reveal that racism is a problem faced by most small ethnic minority retail businesses, which constitute a barrier to entering the industry. In their research, they discovered that almost two-thirds of small ethnic minority retail businesses, abbreviated to SEMRBs in Glasgow, had experienced racism. Moreover, this caused a reduction of potential entrepreneurial talent and impacted economic development. Shelton (2010) concludes that enterprising social composition, which contains biased enterprise traditions, can be used to layer industries into high- and low-performing categories according to ethnic origin. These

traditions will have a sweeping influence on the growth of ethnic minority-owned businesses in industries with more focused social compositions and higher wealth-making potential.

Despite social and institutional problems, new technology has emerged as a problem solver in the context of ethnic minority entrepreneurship. Digitally empowered ethnic minority entrepreneurship has been considered as another important issue of ethnic entrepreneurship in recent years (Anwar and Daniel, 2016). Similarly, Darch and Lucas (2002) emphasise that information and communication technology (ICT) enables businesses to be more effective and efficient by eliminating traditional territorial barriers and empowering constant digital presence. Likewise, Basu (2006) stresses that ethnic entrepreneurship research has ignored the importance of the reality of globalisation and recent development in ICT that may extraordinarily increase the competitive advantages of ethnic minority entrepreneurs by nurturing and creating global networks against their rivals. Therefore, this research aims to examine whether ethnic minority firms that have adopted technology perform better than those that have not adopted technologies. The next section first establishes a common ground of understanding by reconciling two concepts, ethnic minority entrepreneurship and migrant entrepreneurship, and explores and diagnoses more research works under the theme of migrant or immigrant entrepreneurship in the UK.

2.2.3 Migrant Entrepreneurship

This section has been designed to reconcile two central concepts of entrepreneurship: ethnic minority entrepreneurship and migrant entrepreneurship, as well as to critically evaluate the existing literature on migrant entrepreneurship to rationalise the current study. To begin, it examines various literature on migrant and ethnic minority entrepreneurship and concludes what ethnic minority entrepreneurship and migrant entrepreneurship signify to this research. Second, it reminds the conceptual and thematic essence relevant to the preceding sections.

Worldwide, emigrating people have different motives: economic, political, social, educational and familial reasons that account for the labour movement of the pre- and post-war era to the globalisation and super-diversity of the current age (Judt, 2010; Vertovec, 2007). Irrespective of the initial motives of migration, any migrants who involve themselves with entrepreneurial activities in their host country are considered within the scope of migrant entrepreneurship. According to Chaganti and Greene (2002), people who emigrated recently and established a business in the new location for their livelihood are known as immigrant entrepreneurs. Similarly, Sasse and Thielemann (2005) define migrant entrepreneurs as the people who remain outside of their birth country for one year or more. The process by which a

migrant sets up a business in a host environment or country (outside their country of origin) is known as immigrant entrepreneurship (Dalhammar, 2004). Levie (2007) characterises migrant entrepreneurs into three groups: first, lifelong residents (in-migrants) who are born in the UK and have relocated to another region of the country with the aim of conducting business; second, immigrants who are born in other countries but have relocated in the UK and third, ethnic minorities. In contrast, Peroni et al. (2016) classified migrant entrepreneurs on a generational basis, such as first generation and second generation.

There is no consensus in understanding migrant entrepreneurship, and unfortunately, the literature continues to use different terms, which has hindered progress and made comparisons between studies difficult. One of the common issues is to reconcile the meaning of migrant entrepreneurship and ethnic minority entrepreneurship (Volery, 2007). The extant literature shows that researchers use the terms ‘ethnic minority entrepreneurship’, ‘immigrant entrepreneurship’ and ‘migrant entrepreneurship’ interchangeably (Chaganti et al., 2008; Mora and Davila, 2005; Ndofor and Priem, 2011; Ram et al., 2012; Smallbone et al., 2005). Smallbone et al. (2005) and correlate ethnic minority entrepreneurs and immigrant entrepreneurs, showing some common ground and regarding both groups as the same phenomenon in entrepreneurship research. This trend indicates that researchers have used immigrant entrepreneurship or migrant entrepreneurship as alternative terms for ethnic entrepreneurship.

However, Volery (2007) believes that immigrant entrepreneurs only include those who have immigrated from other places over the last few years but excludes those who have been living in their country of origin since birth. However, the term ‘ethnic’ includes both immigrant and minority group. Therefore, he suggests using ethnic entrepreneurs to characterise immigrant entrepreneurs as well as all ethnic groups and immigrant entrepreneurs to represent migrant and early-stage ethnic entrepreneurs (ethnic entrepreneurs who migrated only recently). In contrast, clarifying definitional chaos with these phenomena, Carter et al. (2015) suggest considering the terms migrant, immigrant, ethnic and minority to personify entrepreneurs who are not the part of the mainstream population of a particular location or a country and engage in entrepreneurial activities. Thus, in this research, regardless of any other views, the researcher undertakes migrant entrepreneurship as any entrepreneurial activities related to entrepreneurs who are not a part of the mainstream population.

Another important aspect of the migrant entrepreneurship debate is about the contribution made by migrant entrepreneurs. Migration is increasing day by day due to two main reasons: first, war and civil unrest in many countries (Amrith, 2014) and second, the

search for better opportunities and quality of life (Migration Watch, 2015). On the other hand, there are two contradicting views in perceiving immigrants in the host countries. The first view is to perceive them as problem or conflict creators (Harrison et al., 2019), and the second is to value them as significant contributors to the economy since they immigrate with new knowledge and skills that fulfil the host countries' requirements and provide diverse experiences to the citizen through economic and innovative opportunities (OECD, 2010). Thus, migrant entrepreneurs do not only migrate on their own but also bring their knowledge, skills, experiences, new ideas, networks and capital with them and start entrepreneurial activities in the host country with the hope of exploiting opportunities; as a result, the economy becomes lively. Researchers precisely recognise it as social remittances (Levitt and Lamba-Nieves, 2011).

According to Anderson and Platzer (2006), in the context of the USA, ten of the largest public companies, including Google, eBay, Yahoo and Intel, contain at least one immigrant founder. On the other hand, many more immigrants own small businesses that contribute significantly to the US economy (Axtell, 2001). According to Godley (2006, p.604), 'From ancient to modern times, whether it was Jewish immigrants such as Rothschild, Armenians such as Wajid, or Maltese or Greeks, there has been a strong correspondence between migration and entrepreneurship.'

Immigration into the United Kingdom was almost free until 1920, despite some exemptions as provided by the Aliens Acts 1905; however, after the Aliens Order of 1920, an entry bar against non-British nationals had begun to be implemented based on different conditions (UNESCO, 1995). Since the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the UK has benefited economically and culturally from migration, noticeably from Huguenots and more recently from Jews during the Nazi era, as well as people who migrated from non-white countries, including the Caribbean, India and Bangladesh after the Second World War, despite some disagreement about their economic contribution (Glover et al., 2001). Although immigration has recently become a significant issue in the political sphere (Portes, 2016), in reality, Britain is known as an immigrant-friendly country for investing and running businesses as it could attract 2,200 new foreign investment projects, creating over 107,000 jobs across the country in 2016 to 2017 (Department for International Trade, 2017).

These practices indicate that the UK government highly values economic immigrants who migrate for investment and entrepreneurial purposes; however, they are cautious about other immigrants. Thus, there are two important aspects of migrant entrepreneurship: one of

which is attracting new entrepreneurs from overseas and the other is to encourage ethnic minorities or migrants inside the county to become entrepreneurs.

It is evident that migrants are more entrepreneurial than most of the population. At 15.4% in 2015, migrant people have about a threefold greater probability to be involved in entrepreneurial activities than life-long residents, who had a 5.3% rate (Hart et al., 2015). The research further revealed that there are 456,073 migrant entrepreneurs in the UK from 155 countries who have started 464,527 companies, which is proportionately 14% of all UK companies in 2013. This means that one in seven of all UK companies are owned by immigrants who settled in the UK and have launched at least one venture and substantially contributed to the UK economy (Johnson and Kimmelman, 2014). Many researchers (see Aliaga-Isla and Rialp, 2013; Basu, 1998; Chaganti et al., 2008; Efendic et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2014b, 2015; Lassmann and Busch, 2015; Ndofor and Priem, 2011; Peroni et al., 2016; Ram et al., 2012; Ram et al., 2017; Rath and Kloosterman, 2000; Sevä et al., 2016; Waldinger, 1984) have recognised the importance of immigrants who are actively contributing to the world's economy and engaging in various entrepreneurial activities, and they are becoming a common centre point of entrepreneurship research. Therefore, migrant entrepreneurship has become one of the most important themes in the field of entrepreneurship.

Migration in the globalised world is inevitable; therefore, researchers in the field of entrepreneurs are enthusiastically undertaking research focusing on different aspects. For instance, what influences migrant or ethnic people to become entrepreneurs? In order to respond to this question, Baycan-Levent and Nijkamp (2009) investigated and compared different forms of migrant entrepreneurship in European countries for the purpose of designing a methodical group of migrant entrepreneurship and found unemployment rates, low participation rates and low status as major factors encouraging migrants to become an entrepreneur.

However, Basu (1998) argues that the entrepreneurial entry decision of migrant entrepreneurs through small retail businesses depends on accessing casual rather than regular sources of money and information. He further reveals that owners' personal investment and academic qualification have positive impacts on the business's success. He concludes that although entrepreneurial motives among Asian communities are different, many well-educated Asian migrants have the entrepreneurial spirit as they invest their capital in establishing enterprises. Similarly, Waldinger (1984) reveals that migrant entrepreneurs enjoy more benefits of hiring reliable workers and accommodating the marketplace than well-established garment industry entrepreneurs. Although small migrant-owned businesses seem to be strange

and ‘unproven’, in reality, they contribute a stairway for social mobility by transferring skills and expertise (Portes and Yiu 2013). The aforementioned findings may contradict each other on the push or pull factors, but there is a uniqueness of acceptance with which migrants tend to engage in terms of entrepreneurialism.

An earnest but most-researched question in the domain of ethnic and migrant entrepreneurship concerns the barriers that adversely affect entrepreneurial activities. Ram et al. (2012) suggest that ethnic minority or migrant entrepreneurs face distinct challenges from mainstream entrepreneurs, for instance, languages, resources and cultural barriers. Thus, they advised policymakers to develop policies and a support mechanism that can facilitate ethnic minority entrepreneurs to receive support for their business needs. Moreover, Mora and Dávila (2005) reveal that the size of the local ethnic population does not enhance immigrant self-employment for either English-skilled or limited-English-proficient people in the USA. Furthermore, they also reveal that linguistic isolation in a local labour pool helps to promote entrepreneurship among English-fluent immigrants in some cases but restricts those who are limited in their English proficiency from forming a business. Also, findings show that rising xenophobia pushes a disproportionate number of those with limited English proficiency into self-employment. Jones et al. (2014b) conclude that new migrants are certainly ‘diverse’ in several ways; but importantly, harsh structural barriers restrict the scope of new migrant enterprises.

It is obvious that a new location and new people may cause anxiety, but strong institutional regulation and a tolerant society could nurture entrepreneurship to strengthen the overall economy. Responding to the question of experience within migrant entrepreneurs, researchers have conducted a series of investigations. Ram et al. (2017) identify key strengthening themes of migrant entrepreneurship practices in relation to the role of the institutional and market context, including the role of regulation, the incorporation of racist exclusion, gendered structures of migration, labour market processes, market ghettoisation and greater sensitivity to historical context. Likewise, in their research outcome regarding the current implication of Brexit, Cumming and Zahra (2016) argue that new trade and immigration provisions during and after the Brexit process can become additional barriers to be considered. Ndofor and Priem (2011) indicate that immigrant entrepreneurs’ capital endowments and social identities influence their choice of an enclave versus dominant market venture strategies. Moreover, it is the particular alignment of entrepreneurial capital and strategy that ultimately shapes venture performance. Lassmann and Busch (2015) found that

entrepreneurial behaviour of immigrants differs according to the economic and institutional environments of their country of origin.

Jones et al. (2015) posit that despite the adverse and antagonistic environment in which they struggle when accessing sufficient levels of financial, cultural and social capital, migrant entrepreneurs contribute significantly in both social and economic realms. Correspondingly, Chaganti et al. (2008) show that new businesses founded or co-founded by a migrant attracted more proactive prospectors than those with founding team members from the mainstream population. Comparably, Levie (2007) finds a greater correlation between higher migration rate and the likelihood of establishing new businesses than any other measures of economic development.

Efendic et al. (2016) establish distinct patterns in both firm size and revenue growth between the firms managed by immigrants and by natives. Results reveal that firms run by second-generation migrants from OECD countries exhibit higher growth rate than natives; the reverse is true for second-generation immigrants from non-OECD countries. Sevä et al. (2016) illustrate that immigrants decide to become self-employed to achieve subjective well-being, and moreover, they become comparatively more satisfied as self-employed with employees than without employees. Peroni et al. (2016) found that first-generation immigrants, in particular, highly educated ones, are more interested in starting a new business than non-immigrants, but they do not differ in subsequent entrepreneurial phases. Another interesting finding shows that, irrespective of their country of origin and culture, entrepreneurs share similar values than their non-entrepreneur colleagues from the same country, society and culture (McGrath and MacMillan, 1992). These patterns indicate that people who enjoy the privileges of mainstream entrepreneurs in their country of origin become minority and migrant entrepreneurs in their host country and share roles similar to migrant entrepreneurs from a different origin rather than their counterparts who are not involved in business activities. However, Ram et al. (2012) find that policymakers and practitioners struggle to cope with the complexities that attend the processes of super-diversity.

Table 2.4 outlines the key aspects of migrant entrepreneurship based on the above discussions.

Table 2.4: Outline of migrant entrepreneurs

	Types of migrant entrepreneurs	Motives of migration	Motives of becoming entrepreneur	Contributions from migrant entrepreneurs	Challenges faced by migrant entrepreneurs
	In-migrant entrepreneurs, immigrant entrepreneurs, ethnic minorities entrepreneurs, first generations migrant entrepreneurs, second generations migrant entrepreneurs, virtual/digital migrant entrepreneurs.	Economic migration, political migration, social migration, education migration, family related migration.	Ethno-cultural factor, push-factors, pull-factors, ethnic resources	New knowledge, skills and ideas, network, technology, capital, social remittances, global business creation, project creation, job creation, contribution to the revenues.	Unfriendly policies, bottlenecks in accessing resources, language barriers, lack of knowledge, structural barriers and racism integrated with the wider society.
Key contributors	Chaganti and Greene (2002), Dalhammar (2004), Levie (2007), Peroni et al. (2016) and Sasse and Thielemann (2005)	Judt (2010) and Vertovec (2007)	Sevä et al. (2016) and Waldinger (1984)	Jones et al. (2015), Johnson and Kimmelman (2014), and Levie (2007)	Mora and Dávila (2005) and Ram et al. (2012)

Table 2.4 synthesises the various research outcomes discussed above, articulating the terminologies that have been used to classify migrant entrepreneurs, the reasons for migration, the factors that influence a migrant to become an entrepreneur, the contributions made by migrant entrepreneurs and the major challenges they face. The evidence provided by previously related mainstream studies is typically based on the perspective of low-skilled migrants, which tends to overlook the perspectives of highly skilled professionals (Parker, 2017). Thus, the current study aimed to explore the latter direction by looking at the experiences of these migrant professionals in the UK.

Aliaga-Isla and Rialp (2013) reveal that there is a shortage of theory development using qualitative techniques in this domain. Additionally, authors identify significant gaps in the literature that they think require further research to expand scientific knowledge of migrant entrepreneurship. Similarly, Williams et al. (2004) argue that migrant entrepreneurs' roles have been neglected and under-researched. Most of the researchers cited above acknowledge that, despite some reservations, migrant entrepreneurs' roles are inevitable to the economy. However, more research could be helpful to address major issues. Therefore, studying migrant entrepreneurship has become more momentous than ever before. Conclusively, the current research considers migrant entrepreneurs and ethnic minority entrepreneurs as interchangeable. All immigrants and ethnic minorities who are involved in entrepreneurial activities and contribute to the UK economy are included in the scope of this study. However, to synthesise the above discussion, most of the literature assesses migrant entrepreneurs from low-performing and low-skilled perspectives (Ishaq et al., 2010; Khoir et al., 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008;), despite the fact that some migrant entrepreneurs are outperforming than others and are involved in high-tech, sophisticated businesses (Saxenian, 2002). In other words, some highly educated migrant entrepreneurs in professional service sectors have had differing experiences. There is limited research in this direction. Thus, this study positioned its focus on how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services have experienced entrepreneurialism in the context of the dual environment and digital economy. The next section reviews and develops the concept of the digital economy and the perspective of technology adoption for the purpose of confining and validating current research topic.

2.2.4 Migrant Entrepreneurship in the Digital Economy

This section focuses on exploring and critically evaluating the current literature concerning the impact of migrant entrepreneurship on the digital economy. It further aims to develop a framework on how migrant entrepreneurs practice and adapt in the digital context.

Movement of people between countries brings economic dynamism. Countries like the USA, Australia, Canada and the UK recognise the importance of migrant entrepreneurship and introduce different policies to welcome entrepreneurs from throughout the globe (Irastorza, 2010). Consequently, research shows that in these countries, the proportion of businesses owned by foreign-born entrepreneurs are more than those owned by native entrepreneurs (Clark and Drinkwater, 2006; Fairlie et al., 2010; Schuetze and Antecol, 2007). However, more recently, global political discourses are primarily centred on the rationale of immigration (Portes, 2016), whilst in the context of the United Kingdom, the government has kept foreign investors and talents in a high priority to attract as they engage in contributing to the economy (Department for International Trade, 2017). This indicates that although policies against non-economic immigrants are becoming tighter, the government's approach towards entrepreneurial immigrants has been equally important in recent years.

It is evident that migrant entrepreneurship is highly focused on contributing to the host countries' economy through SMEs and self-employment (Fairlie and Lofstrom, 2014). Although there is not a unique and universal definition of SMEs (Berisha and Shiroka-Pula, 2015), according to Ward and Rhodes (2014, p.3), 'The usual definition of small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) is any business with fewer than 250 employees. There were 5.2 million SMEs in the UK in 2014, which was over 99 percent of all businesses.' Ward and Rhodes's (2014) definition addressed both the concepts and contribution of SMEs in the context of the UK. On the other hand, a significant number of migrant entrepreneurs are self-employed (Fairlie and Lofstrom, 2014; Sevä et al, 2016). OECD (2015) defines a self-employed person as an individual who works for his own business, farm or professional practice and receives economic benefits for his work by registering as self-employed. The OECD (2015) further states that there were 3.3 million self-employed people in European member states who were born outside of their country of residence. These facts and figures indicate that migrant entrepreneurs are contributing to the economy significantly through SMEs and self-employment.

Although traditional research branded migrant entrepreneurs as owners of small businesses, current empirical research shows that they exceed such boundaries and take advantage of the opportunities created by disruptive technology (Saxenian, 2002). The latest research shows that 60 percent of top technology businesses in the US were established by migrant entrepreneurs (Johnson and Kimmelman, 2014). Furthermore, digitally empowered businesses have been successful in breaking traditional territorial boundaries and expanding businesses worldwide for a low cost by benefiting from the ubiquitous nature of technology

(Daniel et al., 2015; Darch and Lucas, 2002). For instance, Google, eBay and Yahoo all contain at least one migrant entrepreneur on their founding teams (Axtell, 2001). On the other hand, there is a huge gap in researching digital entrepreneurship, which may have contributed to the UK economy through online businesses from outside the country. The United Nations' migrant stock shows that in 2017, over 4.9 million UK nationals live abroad (Office for National Statistics, 2018), but the economic impact of such citizens is yet to be researched. Studies show that return migrants are more likely to be entrepreneurs in their country of origin as they accumulate both savings and human capital while they were in the host country (Ammassari, 2004; Black and Castaldo, 2009; Gubert and Nordman, 2011; McCormick and Wahba, 2001). The impact of migrant returns can be physical (moving back to the country of origin temporarily or permanently) or virtual (contributing through the Internet), but these practices are common in certain industries or sectors such as capital markets, tourism industries, hospitals and housing (Ratha and Plaza, 2011). Likewise, migrants play an important role in facilitating trade and investment flows between a country of origin and a host country, creating wider business opportunities (Head and Ries, 1998, Plaza and Ratha, 2011).

As discussed earlier, many researchers agree that the UK has been one of the most successful countries in attracting migrant entrepreneurs and building a strong economy (Jones et al., 2015; OECD, 2010). Furthermore, the UK government recognise the importance of the digital economy and are determined to help every British business become a digital business (Publications.parliament.uk, 2018). Elaborating on the contributions of migrant entrepreneurs, Johnson and Kimmelman postulate:

Britain relies heavily on entrepreneurial migrants to launch businesses, create jobs and grow the economy. The top sectors in which migrant entrepreneurs work are construction and real estate, so these individuals are, literally, rebuilding Britain. In vital sectors such as consumer goods, IT and manufacturing, we also rely on the skills and productivity of entrepreneurial migrants. (2014, p.3)

The significance of migrant entrepreneurship is a crucial aspect of the UK economy. Table 2.5 highlights the sectoral contribution from migrant entrepreneurs in the UK.

Table 2.5: Contribution of migrant entrepreneurs to the UK economy

Industry type	Number of migrant-founded companies	Key facts
Construction and real estate	47,813	There are 456, 073 migrant entrepreneurs in the UK. Migrant-founded SMEs employ 1.16 million people, which is 14 percent of the total economy in this segment.
Consumer goods and services	35,491	
Information technologies	28,320	
Manufacturing and heavy industry	23,359	
Management consultancy	15,023	
Media and entertainment	14,563	

(*Source:* Johnson and Kimmelman 2014, p. 28).

Although migrant entrepreneurs contribute enormously to building a strong economy, some researchers (Johnson and Kimmelman, 2014; Williams et al., 2004) believe that the contribution of migrant entrepreneurs has been under-reported and under-researched. While investigating the population's general perception as to whether immigrants are job takers in the context of South Africa, Kalitanyi and Visser (2010) note that most immigrant entrepreneurs employ South Africans in their businesses. However, there is a need for rigorous research to further justify the contributions of migrant entrepreneurs (Fatoki, 2014). Under-reporting such contributions may create social unrest; hence, some ethnic minority entrepreneurs face racism (Ishaq et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2014b). Therefore, it indicates that the extant research falsely equates all migrants, which may create turmoil and ultimately undervalue migrant entrepreneurs as a social burden among the mainstream population. On the other side, there is an absence of policies and visions in transforming general migrants into entrepreneurial migrants (Arshed et al., 2014; Ram et al., 2012), which can be achieved by empowering migrants with digital technology such as Techfugees (Benton and Glennie, 2016).

Researchers agree that migrant entrepreneurs have barriers, such as language, access to the resources and so on (Khoir et al., 2017; Ram et al., 2017). However, some entrepreneurs are outperforming others and achieving economic success by adopting new ICT, whereas others could not do so (Jones et al., 2014a). Another important aspect of entrepreneurship is 'born global' technology-oriented firms that are relatively small and gradually expanding globally and that remain virtual from their inception (Knight and Cavusgil, 1996). By targeting

niche market gaps, born global firms remain competitive as they can speed up the internationalisation process (McDougall et al., 2003). Remaining competitive and expanding gradually is equally important for any entrepreneur, and migrant entrepreneurs are no exception.

Oviatt and McDougall (2005) posit that the use of digital technology help entrepreneurs stand out from their competitors by enhancing both enabling and motivating factors. Thus, there is a desperate need to explore migrant entrepreneurs' experiences and perceptions towards adopting technology advancement in their businesses. Conclusively, migrant entrepreneurs contribute to the economy by creating jobs, paying taxes, fulfilling consumers' needs, labour supply, self-employment, generation of capital, nurturing diversity and building relationships with the host country and country of birth on a personal, organisational and national level. To further explore the contribution of migrant entrepreneurs as questioned in the research of Catney and Sabate (2015), it is worth advancing analysis from technology adoption practices in migrant entrepreneurship.

'Creative destruction is a central element of the competitive dynamic of capitalism' (Scott, 2006, p.1). Digital newspapers are replacing paper-based newspapers, and traditional CD room and cassettes disappeared along with the digital music and movie system. Customers are shifting their buying habit from bricks to clicks, and many more things are either vanishing from existence or transforming into a digital system due to the impact of disruptive technology (Laudon and Laudon, 2016). Laudon and Laudon further argue that Uber, the world's largest taxi company, owns no taxis but simply facilitates drivers and customers using technology; the largest accommodations provider, Airbnb, owns no real estate; the world's most valuable retailer, Alibaba, has no inventory; the most popular social media owner, Facebook, creates no content and the world's largest movie database, Netflix, owns no cinemas. These achievements are the outcomes of creative entrepreneurial activities called 'disruptive innovation' (Christensen, 1997).

Schumpeter (1934) argues that entrepreneurs disrupt the market through creative innovations as they provide new opportunities. The use of advanced technology is disruptive, in the words of Christensen, when businesses transform their activities from physical to digital. Conclusively, disruptive innovation helps create a new value proposition for resource-constrained businesses (Hang et al., 2015), and thus the adaptation of digital means (any forms of technological innovation) could facilitate migrant-owned businesses in accessing required resources as they are often considered to have limited access to resources (Ram et al., 2017). Therefore, the current research intends to explore the impact of technology adoption on migrant-owned businesses.

Although existing research on migrant entrepreneurship from a technological perspective is very limited, a significant number of researchers have concentrated their research on the impact of technology on businesses in the recent years (Acs and Audretsch, 2003; Couclelis, 2004; Cumming and Johan, 2010; Daniel et al., 2015; Davidson and Vaast, 2010; Hagsten and Kotnik, 2017; Judge et al., 2015; Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Reuber and Fischer 2011; Siegel, 2006; and Venkataraman, 2004; Ziyae et al., 2014). Some of the prominent research works are presented in the following table.

Table 2.6: Entrepreneurship research from technological perspectives

Research questions	Research context	Findings	Relevance to the current research	Authors
What are firm-specific resources for thriving in Internet-enabled markets?	Studies focused on online businesses that are advancing their business activities and benefiting from global opportunities through advanced technology and communication.	Online reputation, online technological capabilities and online brand communities are firm-specific resources for success.	Use of the internet for entrepreneurial success. Resource-based view to study online business.	Reuber and Fischer (2011).
How has e-commerce impacted the constraints of time and space?	Combination of online and offline business activities. Distance and time constraints have been significantly reduced while adopting online business but are not dead.	Digital presence has transitioned most traditional business activities online, but some physical activities are still equally important to the entrepreneurs.	Technology adoption and adaptiveness of the entrepreneurs.	Couclelis (2004).

<p>What are the implications of using technology in SMEs' business practices?</p>	<p>Digital technology and its relationship with SMEs' business practices. The study focuses on how enterprises benefit from innovation and process integration while adopting online and building IT competencies.</p>	<p>Technology has created large digital options and provided businesses with tremendous opportunities for expansion by making them less resource-intensive through open-source solutions.</p>	<p>Extended the technology-in-practice perspective as a fresh approach to ICT and business.</p>	<p>Morgan-Thomas (2016).</p>
<p>How do ethnic minority entrepreneurs draw on resources to market their online businesses?</p>	<p>Ethnic minority entrepreneurs draw required resources through online adoption to market their businesses. Effectuation and ethnic minority-owned venture fit.</p>	<p>Entrepreneurs have drawn on the resources available to them to market, sustain and grow their small businesses. Resources arising from their ethnic heritage have formed an important part of the entrepreneurial marketing mix and hence have shaped the formation and ongoing development of these businesses.</p>	<p>Ethnic minority entrepreneurs who are adapting online have easy access to resources and can better perform with limited resources.</p>	<p>Anwar and Daniel (2016).</p>

Table 2.6 shows that the scholars endeavour to examine the impact of the adoption of technological innovations or digital means in businesses from various perspectives. Although they use different theoretical lenses to study the impact of the use of technology, most commonly, they reached similar research outcomes. Those outcomes suggest that the use of digital means helps improve business performances. Technology adoption facilitates enterprises to access required resources and networks. Similarly, it reduces time and distance constraints significantly. On the other hand, the right combination of online and offline business activities is vital to achieving the most out of digital means because some physical events are equally important when carrying out businesses.

ICT is a shared term for a vast array of software and hardware, which includes communication and information management systems and applications and devices that are used to create, process and manage information crucial to decision-making (Brady et al., 2002). ICT should not only be considered as computers and the Internet but also its impact on the economy and businesses. Technology helps businesses enhance capabilities and cost effectiveness (Sammut-Bonnii and McGee, 2002). Most importantly, ICT adoption in any business improves competitiveness and overall productivity (Ragaswamy and Lilien, 1997). In knowledge-based economies, where production and distribution are consistently joined with knowledge and information, innovation is enabled through interaction rather than a linear model (OECD, 1996). Furthermore, in a knowledge-based digital economy, advancement and innovation in the latest technology is often regarded as a crucial influence on entrepreneurial success (Acs and Audretsch, 2003; Siegel, 2006). Entrepreneurs of this digital age who create value by exploiting new ICT-enabled products, processes and markets are known as digital entrepreneurs (Bogdanowicz, 2015). Through IT-enabled products, processes and markets, these entrepreneurs outperform others and achieve beyond their entrepreneurial aspiration; for instance, Weinberg, et al. (2010) cite that having over 1,500 technology-based companies, Cambridge UK is renowned as one of the highest levels of entrepreneurship in Europe, and about 25 percent of UK venture capital investments were concentrated on them. Customised online platforms, enterprise systems and sophisticated applications are becoming outstanding vehicles in the business world. Reuber et al. (2011) found that Internet-enabled entrepreneurial activities such as online reputation, technological capabilities and brand communities are very useful to firms when exploiting opportunities internationally. Anwar and Daniel (2016) argue that online businesses assist entrepreneurs in achieving their small firms' growth and sustainability in highly competitive sectors. In contrast, Cumming and Johan (2010) infer that Internet capability in remote provinces among smaller communities reduces competitiveness

while helping to foster entrepreneurs in the larger communities. This indicates that resource-constrained and scattered business owners could be pushed back in the race for virtualisation, and hence the government should focus on protecting such firms (Lerner et al., 2005). This may raise a question as to whether adversely affected ethnic migrant entrepreneurs may require government support in the initial phase.

Responding to the question of what encourages entrepreneurs to pursue online business, Judge et al. (2015) reveal a strong relationship between chief executive officers' (CEOs) characteristics (especially age and tenure) and an emerging virtual world. This indicates that the perception of CEOs is vital for whether to adopt technology as investment in technology requires the capacity to bear risks and the attitude to invest for longer terms because comparatively older CEOs are less likely to take risks (McClelland et al., 2012). While contextualising technological entrepreneurship, Venkataraman (2004) claims that new technologies assimilated with the knowledge industry are regarded as invaluable over traditional industries. This shows the future of entrepreneurial undertakings where traditional entrepreneurial activities are being transformed along with technological intervention.

Whereas Couclelis (2004) argues that virtualisation due to the presence of advanced information technology has changed the entrepreneurial role, the essence of traditional physical activities is equally important. This has accepted the importance of advanced information technology, which has redefined and added value to entrepreneurial roles, but more than that, it is an extension to traditional entrepreneurial activities. Ziyae et al. (2014) define online business owners as digital entrepreneurs and acknowledge their global revolutionary roles. They further argue that due to the adoption of well-developed computer knowledge, there has been an increased growth in the global economy. This research has unveiled the constructive impact of technology on entrepreneurial activities, which doubtlessly contributes to the digital economy. Ashurst et al. (2011) states that firms use e-business in two different ways: e-business for innovation and e-business for integrating business processes. Four IT competencies were found to be particularly important to the firm's developments: IT leadership, business systems thinking, architecture planning and making technology work. Davidson and Vaast (2010) characterise the nature of digital entrepreneurship as comprising three interrelated opportunities: business, knowledge and institutional. Furthermore, entrepreneurial practices in the digital economy are innately socio-material. This has prescribed the globalised world to understand the dynamics of entrepreneurship, which leads to transformative entrepreneurial activities. Daniel et al. (2015) establish that in contrast to traditional business, online business encourages entrepreneurs to discharge their roles more effectively because technology has

created open-source solutions that require fewer resources. Ethnic or migrant entrepreneurs who might have underperformed due to a lack of resources can benefit from the digital platform and expand their businesses.

At the same time, Jones et al. (2014a) reveal unique opportunities such as affordability and availability, as well as unique challenges like remaining embryonic and not using enterprise resource planning and customer relationship management appropriately. This could indicate that enterprises are better off with new technology, but due to the lack of knowledge and proper training, they might fail to exploit these invaluable resources. Similarly, Hagsten and Kotnik (2017) indicate a significant and positive relationship between ICT capacities and engagement in exporting activities within small and medium-sized firms, although the importance of ICT capacity seems to vary across countries. Furthermore, Ko-Min and Johnsen (2011) identify varying influences of the Internet on enterprises, depending on mainly three dimensions: investment on appropriate applications, entrepreneurs' perception and reliance level. It can be interpreted that using appropriate enterprise application is crucial for whether entrepreneurs benefit from their investment. On the other hand, knowledge and attributes are equally important to obtain the most benefits.

However, many entrepreneurs fail to exploit these opportunities. The European Commission (2015) found that about 98 percent of enterprises have failed to grasp the full advantages of digital opportunities, which has raised questions as to why the majority of entrepreneurs are failing to utilise the latest technology and whether this is the case in the context of migrant entrepreneurship. Current literature is silent in this regard. Stating the importance of future research, Morgan-Thomas (2016) establish a future research agenda on the technology-in-practice perspective while examining ICT in businesses. These facts indicate that more research is required to reveal the experiences of entrepreneurs regarding the adoption of information technology in their entrepreneurial activities. Even more importantly, research on migrant entrepreneurship is inevitable as extant research does not address this problem in the domain of entrepreneurship. In the latest context, rapid social networking options that have been created through ICT development has provided entrepreneurs with excessive access to knowledge and resources than ever before, creating massive opportunities (Scott, 2006).

On one hand, it is essential to note that ethnic minorities are generally regarded as engaging in comparatively low-income retail businesses (Ram and Jones, 2008) and transforming traditionally low income-generating business styles (e.g. Ishaq et al., 2010) into high growth and high margin potential businesses (Kloosterman, 2010). On the other hand, opting for online business is a unique opportunity for migrants to enter into high profiting and

prospective businesses at low entry costs (Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Daniel et al., 2015; Darch and Lucas, 2002). However, contrary research shows that innovation and technology is either underutilised or unevenly used by many enterprises (Danneels, 2007; European Commission, 2015). Thus, it is essential to investigate migrant entrepreneurs' behaviours and perspectives regarding technology adoption.

In summary, the definitions analysed earlier in section 2.2 describe entrepreneurship as the creation of a new venture or reformation of existing business activities for value and opportunity creation while bearing some degree of risk for economic and social benefit. This definition helps to understand better the entrepreneurship phenomenon in investigating migrant entrepreneurs because it covers all kinds of migrant-owned businesses in the UK. Similarly, sub-section 2.2.1 reminds the migrant entrepreneurship theme and identifies the research gap in the professional service sector and sets it as this study's scope after evaluating previous and current debates in entrepreneurship research. Sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3 clarify the terms 'ethnic minority' and 'migrant entrepreneurship', illustrating how this study intended to use the terms 'ethnic' and 'migrant' interchangeably. Finally, section 2.2.4 familiarises migrant entrepreneurship from a technological perspective in the context of a digital economy. The previous scholars (e.g. Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Couclelis, 2004; Hagsten and Kotnik, 2017; Judge et al., 2015; Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Reuber and Fischer, 2011; Ziyae et al., 2014) contributed to the technological perspective, yet, considering changes in the digital global economy, new or revised theoretical lenses are needed to understand migrant entrepreneurship in general and their role in professional services specifically. Therefore, there is a need for critical evaluation of the theoretical aspect of what has already been achieved and what could be an appropriate lens to apply to the current inquiry. Thus, the next section critically analyses existing theories used in entrepreneurship research and establishes their relevancy to the current research.

2.3 Theoretical Perspectives

Different authors have used various theories in researching entrepreneurship. Every researcher has a viewpoint to explain the entrepreneurship phenomenon. Broadly, economic, sociological, psychological and anthropological perspectives have significantly contributed to the knowledge of entrepreneurship (Volery, 2007). Entrepreneurship has often been explained from an economic viewpoint as most contributors to economic theory assume that entrepreneurs are motivated by economic benefits and that they are the drivers of the economy. For instance, Schumpeter (1934) explains the role of entrepreneurs in the economic theory of

development. Likewise, Baumol (1968) links entrepreneurship with economic theory, and Casson (1982) explicates the phenomenon using economic theory for entrepreneurs. These practices showcase how economic theories apply in understanding entrepreneurial behaviours.

Another school of thought viewed entrepreneurship from the sociological perspective. Weber (1947) views entrepreneurial behaviours from a social value viewpoint, and, following a similar perspective, Schmude et al. (2008) connects the entrepreneurship phenomenon of the individual to the wider social context. Different strands of scholars view entrepreneurs from psychological perspectives (e.g. McClelland, 1965; Schumpeter, 1934;) and started to examine entrepreneurship philosophy through the lens of psychology. Likewise, anthropological theory has also been significantly used in the research of entrepreneurship. Investigating entrepreneurial behaviour using, for instance, origin, culture and beliefs, scholars used anthropological lenses in the domain of entrepreneurship. Stewar (1992) is one such theorists who applies anthropological perspectives to study entrepreneurship occurrences.

Despite the various theories discussed above, Rath and Kloosterman (2000) categorise the theoretical viewpoints used to study migrant entrepreneurs into five perspectives: first, an individual actor; second, an economic sociologist who focuses on social embeddedness; third, an economic network; fourth, the relationship between immigrant businesses and general transformation process and fifth, political-institutional. Although, initially, some scholars introduced an ethnicity perspective to study entrepreneurship (Simmel, 1950; Sombart, 1914; Weber, 1930), Waldinger (1984) contextualises the economic environment as an opportunity for the migrant to be an entrepreneur. Continuing his contribution, Waldinger et al. (1990) introduces an interactionist model by presenting ethnic entrepreneurs as the by-product of ethnic resources (loans and labour from family members and friends) and opportunity structures (the context of the market). In the next section, some of the main theories relevant to migrant entrepreneurship are critically examined, and the three most appropriate theories: human capital theory, the technology acceptance model and innovation diffusion theory, have been adopted as a result of such discussions. These contributed to developing a research model in section 2.4, as well as to constitute the research instruments as stated in the methodology chapter.

2.3.1 Social Capital Theory and Entrepreneurship

As a social being, an individual is embedded in a social network, which influences individual or business objectives significantly in many ways (Lancee, 2012). These networks and relationships are considered social resources and are termed as social capital (Bourdieu,

1986). Social capital can include access to embedded resources through the network and the means for reciprocal relationships for mutual benefit (Lin, 2008). Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) consider bounded solidarity and enforceable trust as the main social capital elements in immigrant communities, which comprise a cultural memory and ‘we-ness’. The empirical literature has proved that immigrants or ethnic groups constitute a robust network rooted in ethnic identity, for instance, ‘enclave economies’, which form a firm economic and social resource for entrepreneurs (Kloosterman and Rath, 2001; Ram and Jones, 2008; Sanders and Nee, 1987). Some academics believe that the concept of social capital is effective for community interest rather than individual interest (Coleman, 1990; Putnam, 2000).

However, Bourdieu (1986) and Flap (2002) believe that the concept of social capital is useful for attaining individual goals as it could utilise social capital resources in personal business. The major problem with the concept of social capital is the limited network between comparatively small ethnic resources, which may curb access to the wider community’s resources (Baik et al., 2013; Petersen and Pedersen, 2002). Li and Zhang (2010) note two major issues with using social capital theory. First, any improper embedment in the culture, value and network can be counterproductive as it could fail to gain trust and cooperation and second, in the long term, specific clusters ultimately bring homogeneity in knowledge, which may cause learning failure as it prevents the admission of new knowledge. When entrepreneurs fail to adapt to the changed environment, they may lose competitive advantages. This theory is relevant here because, despite some issues, as discussed above, the social capital perspective is an appropriate tool to explain migrant entrepreneurs’ behaviours because many studies show that immigrants and ethnic minority entrepreneurs utilise social capital (Chen and Tan 2009; Levitt and Lamba-Nieves, 2011) and rely on ethnic enclave networks (Waldinger, 1984). However, entrepreneurs in professional service sectors who mostly rely on their human capital to set up their businesses and transfer knowledge may be misunderstood using this theory; hence, it is not considered as the guiding theory in the current research.

2.3.2 Mixed Embeddedness Theory and Entrepreneurship

By disagreeing with the views of Waldinger et al. (1990), Granovetter (1973; 1985) first introduces the embeddedness approach to state interconnections between economic theory and social behaviour. Further, he argued that since economic rationality and social relationship were strongly connected, they should not be overlooked. Kloosterman et al. (1999) and Kloosterman and Rath (2003) extend the embeddedness theory and apply a mixed embeddedness perspective in researching migrant entrepreneurship and identify migrant-origin

entrepreneurs embedded within the external business environment. Similarly, Kloosterman and Rath (2001, 2003), Ram and Jones (2008) and Ram et al. (2017) use a mixed embeddedness perspective to analyse entrepreneurship and self-employment, focusing on the significance of social, economic and institutional processes rather than only ethnic culture. Unlike the other theories that have been applied in studying migrant entrepreneurship with a supply centric view, mixed embeddedness theory balances fostering the demand side by shaping the external economic, political and legal environment (Kloosterman, 2010). In contrast to Kloosterman, other authors argue that this theory fails in explaining inter-ethnic variation within immigrant groups as it lacks historical perspectives (Peters, 2002). On a similar theme, Ram et al. (2017) contend that there is a lack of incorporating structural conditions that allow racism, social discrimination and gender inequality in the mixed embeddedness approach.

In summarising the above discussion, from an embedded view, migrant entrepreneurs can be explained through the application of mixed embeddedness theory, which encompasses the integration of social capital perspectives with external environments. However, this theory fails to explore certain aspects such as ethnic variation, historical perspectives and structural conditions. Therefore, the current researcher does not adopt this theory to investigate the experiences of migrant entrepreneurs.

2.3.3 Resource-Based Theory and Entrepreneurship

Another widely used theory in researching entrepreneurship is the resource-based view (RBV), developed by Barney (1991). Many researchers use RBV to study migrant entrepreneurship and disclose that unique and sufficient resources could help an organisation achieve competitive advantages. These positions consequently lead towards organisational growth and development (Alvarez and Busenitz, 2001; Kraatz and Edward, 2001; Shelton, 2010). This approach assumes that only the rare and most valuable assets that are imperfectly copiable and distinct from other businesses are sustained and successful (Kraatz and Edward, 2001). Furthermore, Yang et al. (2012) combine RBV and transaction cost economics to explain the migrant entrepreneurship phenomenon. Penrose (1995) applies RBV in researching the growth of larger firms and reveals that entrepreneurial firms realise opportunities by configuring their resources to match emerging market needs. Conversely, Hang et al. (2015) apply this approach to study small businesses and believe that entrepreneurial firms either discover or create new opportunities through disruptive innovation, which may offer new value propositions. Furthermore, they argue that with the combination of technology resources, even resource-constrained firms can achieve growth opportunities. Barua et al. (2004) use RBV to

examine firms' abilities to create business value and conclude that by the effective combination of technological, organisational and environmental resources, firms can develop information capabilities. This view is similar to Schumpeter's view of combination and opportunities. Alvarez and Busenitz (2001) argue that resource-based theory is crucial to understanding the role of entrepreneurial resources and helps entrepreneurs to recognise and organise resources in creating heterogeneous output.

In contrast, Shane and Venkatraman (2000) criticise that RBV is focused on firm performance, which is unique to strategic management, not to entrepreneurship research. Similarly, Connor (2002) critiques that RBV can only be applied to large firms that have significant market power. The current research is intended to understand the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs, which is different from strategic management research. On the other hand, for migrant entrepreneurs, the units of analysis of the current study mostly belong to the smaller firms. In this context, the RBV theory might not capture the lived experiences of migrant entrepreneurs; therefore, it has not been adopted.

2.3.4 Human Capital Theory and Entrepreneurship

The human capital theory (HCT) assumes that knowledge and skills accelerate the cognitive ability of an individual through which an entrepreneur creates innovation and new opportunities (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1974; Schultz, 1959). These authors believe that highly qualified people do not only engage in innovation but also hold the ability to exploit new opportunities at the right time. This theory has been widely applied in the domain of entrepreneurship by coupling human capital attributes to the success of entrepreneurs (Unger et al., 2011). In general, entrepreneurs may have general- and business-specific human capital. Entrepreneurial human capital comprises entrepreneurship-specific skills and knowledge, for instance, selling and buying skills; contract, product and service design and risk management (Shane, 2003). Similarly, human capital can be task-related and non-task-related. Owner experience, start-up experience, industry experience and entrepreneurial knowledge are some examples of task-related human capital. These attributes are highly associated with the entrepreneurs' current business activities and are more influential for business success than other non-task-related human capital attributes, such as formal and general education (Unger et al., 2011).

On the other hand, Utterback (1996) sees technological innovation or digital skills as inevitable for a dynamic and new environment. This indicates that migrant entrepreneurs in the host environment need to have sufficient digital skills for adaptability and sustainability.

Reuber and Fisher (1999) stress that new knowledge and skills acquired through human capital enable entrepreneurs to make business decisions better and faster. The study also revealed that entrepreneurs who invest in human capital are likely to achieve more profits and growth compared to those who do not (Cassar, 2006). As knowledge and skills help entrepreneurs to be informed and become aware of the situation, opportunities and context, it compensates resource constraints commonly faced by entrepreneurs, especially the lack of financial capital (Chandler and Hanks, 1998).

Although Marvel and Lumpkin (2007) and Shane (2000) show that human capital facilitates the achievement of radical innovation, in contrast, Davidsson and Honig (2003) raise concerns by stating this theory is a ‘black box’ view, doubting the equilibrium among educational production and accumulation activities. Many research studies reveal inconsistencies in the relevance of human capital as different kinds of knowledge, skills and experiences vary according to the situation (Bates, 1995; Brüderl and Preisdörfer, 1998; Gimeno et al., 1997).

Nonetheless, the human capital lens has been widely used to study the entrepreneurship domain, and many of the scholars referenced above claim it as a very important theory for investigating and understanding entrepreneurship phenomenon. It can be argued that this theory would be an appropriate lens to understand the experiences of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the professional services in the UK who accumulate their human capital in dual contexts and establish their businesses especially based on their education. More importantly, this could be a useful move to explore and address issues in the context of migrant entrepreneurship as scholars affirm that entrepreneurs having a high level of entrepreneurial human capital outperform other firms (Bates, 1990, Kato and Honjo, 2015; Kato et al. 2015). Therefore, the current research aimed to adopt HCT while combining technological perspectives to investigate migrant entrepreneurs’ experiences. The next subsections further explore technological perspectives, primarily the technology acceptance model and the innovation diffusion theory in the domain of entrepreneurship.

2.3.5 Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

Whether or not to adopt digital technology is greatly influenced by an individual’s perception of ‘usefulness’ and ‘ease of use’, as explained in the technology acceptance model (TAM) (Davis, 1989; Davis et al., 1989). TAM, which is based on the theories of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) and planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), explains how beliefs influence attitudes and attitudes influence intentions (Hornbæk and Hertzum, 2017).

Researchers modify and widely use TAM to predict the intentions and behaviour of individuals regarding accepting and using technology innovation or digital means through an assessment of perceived usefulness (PU) and perceived ease of use (PEU) (Davis et al., 1989; Taylor and Todd, 1995). TAM focuses on behavioural intention, which is directly influenced by PU and PEU. Karahanna et al. (1999) investigate users' perception of technology acceptance from initial adoption to continued use. Venkatesh and Davis (2000) refined TAM into TAM2. Similarly, Venkatesh et al. (2003) developed a unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT), a different version of TAM. Over time, many other scholars used TAM to predict the technology adoption behaviours of individuals (King and He, 2006; Lee et al., 2003; Williams et al., 2015; Yousafzai et al., 2007).

Migrant entrepreneurs have varying experiences of establishing and operating businesses in new and technologically advanced environments. They might have different perceptions and experiences regarding the use of digital means in their businesses. The current study aimed to uncover how migrant entrepreneurs make decisions on whether to accept digital means in their businesses. TAM assumes that perceived usefulness and ease of use are the two main factors determining the use and acceptance of any technological innovations or digital means (Davis, 1986). These two main dimensions are influenced by external variables such as social, cultural and political factors as the users' attitudes shape the behavioural intention of adopting any digital means or systems.

Parker and Castleman (2009) consider TAM to be more of an individualist theory as it focuses on individual behaviour and intentions rather than the firm as a whole, even though it is a widely used model. However, de Guinea et al. (2005) and Premkumar (2003) think that entrepreneurs could be assumed as firms as they are the primary decision-makers in the businesses. The current research believes that investigating the perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use of digital means might help understand how migrants regard technology adoption in their businesses. Therefore, TAM combined with an HCT lens was used to examine migrant entrepreneurship practices in the UK. The next section concentrates on reviewing innovation diffusion theory (IDT) and concludes how it can be used in studying the current research problem.

2.3.6 Innovation Diffusion Theory (IDT)

IDT (Rogers, 1995) helps to understand entrepreneurs' digital involvement as it explains the reason why a user accepts or rejects technological innovation (Davis et al., 1989; Rogers, 2003; Treiber, 2012). Scholars from different disciplines such as sociology, education,

management and information technology have widely used IDT to investigate their research problems (Agarwal et al., 2000; Karahanna et al., 1999; Miller and Garnsey, 2000). Rogers (1995) developed IDT to study how innovation acceptance and adoption happens over time through various stages – including understanding, persuading, deciding and implementing – and categorises users as innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards. According to Rogers, for every technological means, the adopter's willingness and ability to utilise and share the technological means are dependent on their knowledge, awareness, interest, evaluation, trial and adoption.

Diffusion of new technology happens when new digital means are communicated through specific channels over time among the firm's responsible peoples (Rogers, 1995). Therefore, diffusion is essentially a social process. Likewise, the decision of accepting or rejecting any innovations is influenced by the users' beliefs and perceptions of the new technology, which they form through self-efficacy (Agarwal et al., 2000). Furthermore, investment in innovation may create a sense of uncertainty. Certain adopters may be risk-averse, and sharing these can impact whether a society adopts a new technology (Miller and Garnsey, 2000). This indicates that migrant entrepreneurs may have different attitudes regarding accepting or rejecting new digital means, which is crucial to understand. It is also necessary to recognise to what extent users view investments in innovation or new digital means as risky or beneficial. For Miller and Garnsey, users' perceptions regarding advantages of adopting new digital means, such as cost-effectiveness, aftersales services, opportunity creation, exploitation, capacity building, quality and resource enhancement, are important attributes that influence accepting or rejecting a particular innovation. As an adopter, an entrepreneur or organisation influences the diffusion process (Brown, 1981). This specifies that IDT is useful to study the technology acceptance behaviour of users on both the individual and organisational level.

On the other hand, entrepreneurs play prominent roles in diffusing technological innovation (Miller and Garnsey, 2000). Therefore, innovation-related knowledge and skills are very important because entrepreneurs who lack innovation-related knowledge face difficulties in accessing required resources (Mason and Rogers, 1996). Similarly, Ramani et al. (2017) believe that lack of training leads to users abandoning innovations. Silvestre and Silva Neto (2014) reveal short-term entrepreneurial mindsets, informality and financial pressure as the main barriers to technology diffusion. They further argue that without a broad diffusion of technological innovation, some entrepreneurs can become less privileged than others as they fail to gain full access to new digital means. Moreover, to adopt, diffuse and sustain

technological innovation, entrepreneurs should consider political and socio-economic conditions as well (Surie and Groen, 2017).

Conclusively, entrepreneurs of the digital age must have sufficient knowledge of and skills in new technology for the success of their businesses. The reason is not only to accept or reject new digital means but also to ensure that the adopted technological innovation is well diffused and sustainable. Therefore, the current study adopts IDT to investigate how migrant entrepreneurs adopt and diffuse digital means to achieve their business objectives.

2.3.7 Technology Adoption Perspective and Entrepreneurship Research

Digital innovation has transformed the inherited characteristics of entrepreneurship (Nambisan, 2017). People may have different perceptions on whether to use technology in their business; however, the literature shows that the use of technology increases organisational efficiency, and technology-based businesses are performing well by developing their competitiveness (Ragaswamy and Lilien, 1997; Silvestre, 2014). On the other hand, some research indicates that many business owners are not adopting technology in their business as of now (Ashurst et al., 2011). Specifically, ethnic minority-owned businesses are even less likely to use ICT in their business (Silvestre, 2014). Additionally, some sets of researchers are claiming that ethnic minority-owned businesses are underperforming due to resource constraints (Ishaq et al., 2010; Khoir et al., 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008), while others argue that technology adoption helps boost resource-constrained businesses as it helps reduce costs significantly and provides access to global resources (Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Hagsten and Kotnik, 2017).

Despite the evidence that technological resources are some of the most influential resources for modern businesses, many entrepreneurs fail to adopt them (Beckinsale et al., 2011). In particular, ethnic minority-owned businesses are not utilising ICT to the same degree as other small businesses (Foley and Ram, 2002). This curiosity has encouraged researchers to examine migrant entrepreneurs from a technological perspective. It is important to explore the attitudes of migrant entrepreneurs regarding technology adoption because the new generation of migrants are outperforming others as technology entrepreneurs, while others are suffering from resource constraints by not exploiting the advancement of technology.

Many information systems researchers have converged their studies to examine customers' attitudes and perceptions. Widely used adoptions perspectives and accepted technologies include IDT (Roger, 1995), the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), TAM (Davis et al., 1989) and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen,

1991). According to Treiber (2012, p.21), technology adoption theory ‘investigates the reasons for an individual’s choice to accept or reject a particular technology and aims to predict adoption behaviours.’ Adoption should be understood as a process of conscious behaviour changes that comprise the acceptance, selection and use of technology by an individual (Carr, 2001; Rogers, 2003; Straub, 2009).

Moreover, adoption theory does not only examine the behaviour of individuals regarding accepting or rejecting a particular innovation. Beyond that, it investigates at what level technology is integrated appropriately into the context (Straub, 2009). These definitions point out two dimensions of technology perspective: first, why an individual accepts or rejects the adoption of technology in businesses, and second, whether the individuals adopting digital means are integrating it appropriately with other organisational resources that may produce a synergetic impact. Schumpeter recognises the importance of technology resources as inevitable in modern business and emphasises technological innovation (Schumpeter, 1934).

Recently recognising the technological wave, Jones et al. (2014a) use technology acceptance perspective to analyse the challenges and opportunities of ICT adoption in sole proprietor and micro-enterprises. From an economic point of view, migrant entrepreneurs can analyse price competition, production efficiencies, the degree of risk and self-exploitation uncovered by social media, which has created massive connectivity through global networking (Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Chaganti et al., 2008; Tajvidi and Karami, 2017). Information communication systems have empowered migrants to negotiate two worlds (their country of origin and host country) at the same time (Bunmak, 2012). Conversely, from a social perspective, technological advancement has strengthened the view of Crocker (1991), who argues that everyone can be both an insider and an outsider. This research assumes that the digital presence in a business could help minimise existing problems. Specially for those who are known as a disadvantaged or blocked group (Ishaq et al, 2010; Li, 2001; OECD, 2010; Rajjman and Tienda, 2000), so-called ethnic territorial networks (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Waldinger, 1984) could transform their businesses by enhancing equal opportunity without being discriminated as insiders or outsiders.

Furthermore, regulated and formal channels that are believed to be barriers for migrant entrepreneurs (Kloosterman and Rath, 2003) may need to be resilient in their policies. In fact, entrepreneurial processes may have become more dynamic and transparent due the digital presence that dislocates traditional structures (Hall et al., 1996). Although some technologies require huge investment and maintenance cost, whilst sometimes becoming less reliable due to system downturn, they are still important to add value and competitiveness for the businesses

(Levy and Powell, 2003). Empirical evidence shows that ethnic minority-owned and small businesses could benefit from technology adoption. Therefore, this research viewed migrant entrepreneurs and the digital economy in the UK from the perspective of technology adoption.

Entrepreneurship theorists endeavour to building theories that aim to explain entrepreneurship perfectly; however, by no means can any single theory address the matter conclusively (Bula, 2012). Neither could any particular theory incorporate all entrepreneurial dimensions. Keeping in mind the dynamic nature of entrepreneurialism, a different approach may be employed depending on the different situations. Therefore, many researchers have posited multiple theories to diagnose existing problems in the field of entrepreneurship. Realising this fact, Rath and Kloosterman (2000) opted for a multi-disciplinary approach in the context of immigrant entrepreneurship. In the case of migrant entrepreneurs and the digital economy, one single theory may not be sufficient to cover all dimensions of the topic, for instance, ‘migrant’, which symbolises the human aspect; ‘entrepreneurs’ as venture creators; ‘digital’, representing technology enhancement and ‘economy’ as the wealth or achievement. Without integrating digital perspectives with the existing entrepreneurship theory, it is implausible to address the current problems in the digital age (Nambisan, 2017). Combining some aspects of social and economic human capital views with technology adoption could better account for the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs in the digital economy. Therefore, the current research adopted multiple theoretical approaches by combining HCT, IDT and TAM to investigate the research problem. The next section develops an appropriate research model by extracting the most relevant constructs from the theories discussed above.

2.4 Proposed Model for Studying Migrant Entrepreneurs in the Digital Economy

Extracting relevant constructs from the existing theories, a multidisciplinary and interactive model has been proposed for this study. The researcher believes that the proposed prototype represents multiple theories and entails interrelated properties to provide a sound framework for the current research. Migrant entrepreneurship is generally understood as the engagement of immigrants or ethnic minorities in entrepreneurial activities. These activities include one or multiple acts of creation, innovation, alternation and the new combination of any business activities at any stage of an enterprise, including the creation, rebirth and transformation of an enterprise (Carter et al., 2015; Gartner, 1988; Schumpeter, 1934). Another important dimension concentrated on the model is the adoption of an appropriate digital device or system.

Researchers ascertain that the right choice of technology enables resource-constrained entrepreneurs to achieve excellent outcomes (Acs and Audretsch, 2003; Siegel, 2006). Furthermore, the technology adopted by firms can innovate and integrate business processes, build up competitiveness and achieve higher productivity and growth, including sustainability (Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Ashurst et al., 2011; Ragaswamy and Lilien, 1997). The existing literature shows a sizeable gap in research on migrant entrepreneurship and their contributions to the digital economy because previously discussed sections demonstrate little attempts to study migrant entrepreneurs in the context of the digital economy and the digital world. Furthermore, to the researcher's knowledge, there is not a single study that has been conducted by combining the three most widely used theoretical perspectives – human capital, innovation diffusion and technology acceptance – to study the experiences of migrant entrepreneurs in the UK.

Current research aims to explore the experiences of migrant entrepreneurs who contribute to the UK's digital economy. Additionally, the research examines migrant entrepreneurs' perceptions of adopting technology to foster their businesses. On the one hand, it is fiercely questioned whether migrant entrepreneurs contribute to the digital economy; on the other hand, scholars expose the barriers that demotivate migrant entrepreneurs from becoming successful. Most of them indicate that ethnic minority or migrant entrepreneurs lack access to adequate resources (e.g. Ishaq et al., 2010; Khoir et al., 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008). In contrast, other scholars (e.g. Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Hagsten and Kotnik, 2017; Saxenian, 2002) claim that migrant entrepreneurs are successful in fields such as information technology, finance and other service sectors, although professional service sectors might have different experiences. The current research shows that technology adoption gives resource-constrained entrepreneurs a competitive advantage by reducing costs and enhancing new value propositions for their businesses. Considering this context, this researcher aimed to investigate the real-life experiences of migrant entrepreneurs who are contributing to the digital economy in the UK.

To investigate migrant entrepreneurs, a multiple-theory approach was adopted, which included HCT, TAM and IDT. From HCT, this study explored how migrant entrepreneurs contextualise and develop essential knowledge and skills, including entrepreneurial and technological skills considering both host-home contexts. TAM helped to understand how migrant entrepreneurs make decisions regarding accepting or rejecting digital means. Furthermore, IDT allowed the researcher to explore how migrant entrepreneurs integrate and diffuse digital means for maximum output, which might be affected by collective digital

behaviours. Thus, it can be argued that human capital and technological theories (in this context, TAM and IDT) interplay in forming and operationalising knowledge-based (professional service) digitally motivated businesses. While articulating the theoretical model illustrated in Figure 2.1 below, HCT, TAM and IDT have been carefully examined, and constructs relevant to study the current problems are extracted and applied. This involves an examination of perceptions and experiences of migrant entrepreneurs regarding developing and updating human capital, attitudes on the perceived usefulness and ease of use of digital means and attitudes towards acceptance, integration and diffusion of adopted digital means. At the heart of the model is how migrant entrepreneurs can achieve effectiveness with various organisational core aspects.

The following figure is a summary of the present research. The literature discussed above shows that migrant entrepreneurs in the UK have diverse experiences as they perform their entrepreneurial activities in the digital age. Some of them are performing very well, whereas others are lacking behind. Similarly, the literature suggests that through developing human capital and by adopting and diffusing new digital means, underperforming firms can improve their businesses. However, the previous studies infer that the majority of entrepreneurs are failing to exploit the opportunities created by technological innovation. Therefore, the current research intended to investigate the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs in the UK. More precisely, the research examined how migrant-owned firms enhance business success through the human capital and innovation adaptation and how they extend their entrepreneurial activities transnationally.

To rationalise conclusively, the proposed replica comprises a combined theory approach. First, the lens of HCT and technology perspectives are applied to assess the adaptation process. Second, HCT is combined with TAM and IDT to examine innovation adaptation processes. Finally, human capital and innovation perspectives are applied to explore the process of how migrant entrepreneurs uniquely achieve transnationalism. High levels of human capital aids in achieving a higher level of economic and non-economic rewards (Becker, 1964), as well as allowing for the achievement of excellent performance and success through improving decision-making skills (Box et al., 1994). Similarly, adoption of the right technology facilitates migrant entrepreneurs to grow, develop and expand their businesses. Both theories comprise a common ground to improve business performance, but at the same time they complement each other as continuously updated knowledge builds individual and contextual understanding, which impacts the decisions on whether to use new technology (Yousafzai et al., 2007).

Consequently, enhanced skills influence individual perception in analysing the usefulness and ease of use of any digital means and facilitate decision-making.

However, TAM does not address this issue on organisational and group levels as they might impact individual entrepreneurs because migrant entrepreneurs mostly rely on ethnic enclaves (McCabe et al., 2005); therefore, a combination of IDT with human capital allows the researcher to explore the technology adoption perspective while considering the network effect. Furthermore, the practice of how well technologies diffuse and integrate within the organisation can be studied by using innovation diffusion perspective as it can oversee how collective digital behaviours sometimes influence the individual innovation-related perception. Hence, entrepreneurial and technological skills (human capital) facilitate the sharing and integrating of digital means throughout all elements of the firms (Lai, 2017; Ward, 2013). This complements the current research in studying migrant entrepreneurs on both an individual and firm level. Therefore, the model presented in the Figure 2.1 states that entrepreneurs with human capital (especially, entrepreneurial skills and innovation and digital skills) influence the perception of usefulness and ease of use by which entrepreneurs adopt digital means. Similarly, using accumulated knowledge, integration and diffusion of such digital means can be enhanced.

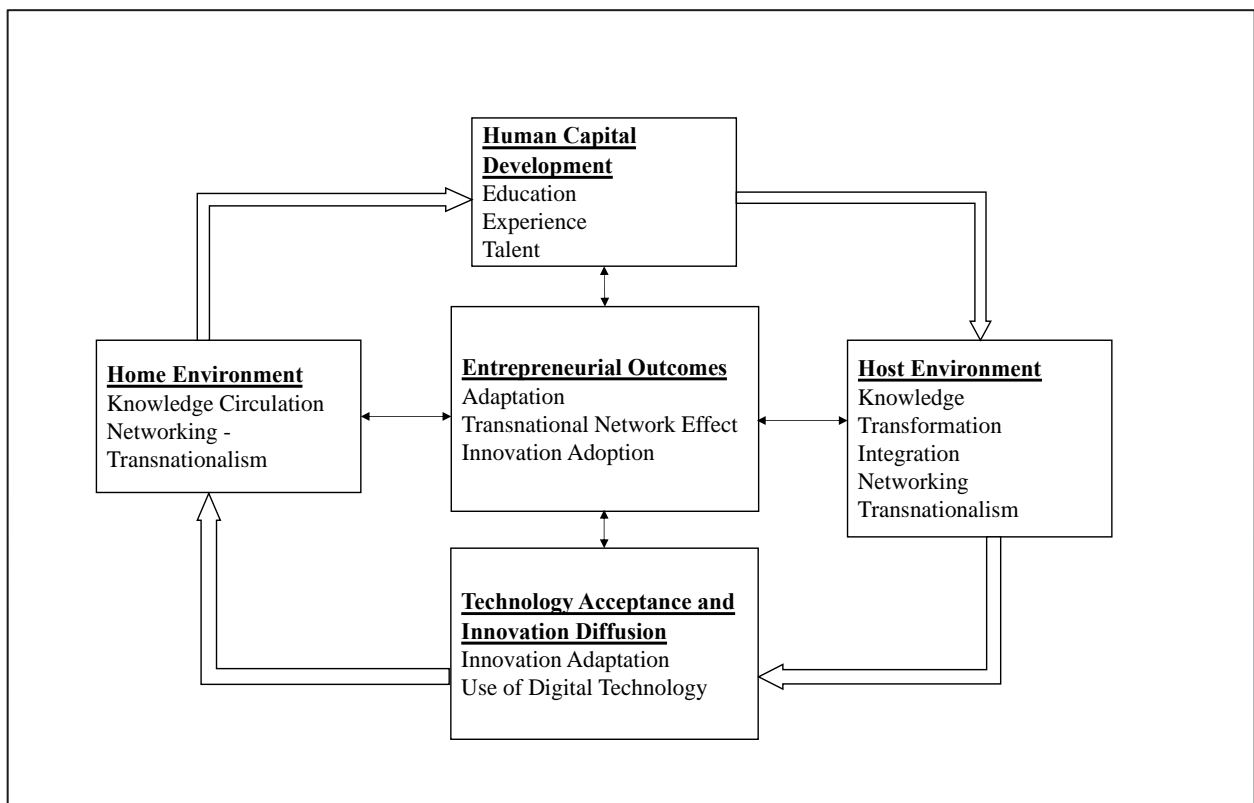


Figure 2.1: Proposed research model for migrant entrepreneurs and the digital economy in the UK.

As discussed earlier, the model presented above shows the components of combined theories and their relationships in the migrant entrepreneurship process. Education and experience with possible talent components contribute to developing the human capital required to adapt to a new environment, as well as innovation. Innovation adaptation and effective use of digital technology are the proposed concepts to contribute to technology acceptance and innovation diffusion. There is constant connectivity between the country of origin and the host country that can benefit from knowledge transformation, integration, transnationalism and knowledge circulation. These are possible when human capital and innovation are effectively used to achieve adaptation, innovation and businesses expansion transnationally.

2.5 Research Position in Literature

The terms migrant and ethnic minority have been used interchangeably by many scholars (e.g. Chaganti et al., 2008; Ndofor and Priem, 2011; Ram et al., 2012) and thus the researcher considered a similar view in this study. However, most of the literature assesses migrant entrepreneurs from low-performing and low-skilled perspectives (Khoir et al., 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008), even though some migrant entrepreneurs are outperforming others and are involved in high-tech, sophisticated businesses (Saxenian, 2002). This led to further exploration of migrant entrepreneurs in the professional sectors by questioning this difference but found it to be an understudied entrepreneurship segment (Parker, 2017). These entrepreneurs are considered unique as they have a choice between employment and entrepreneurship, unlike general migrants who are sometimes pushed to adopt entrepreneurship due to various ethnic barriers (Ishaq et al., 2010; Ram et al., 2017).

Similarly, the UK government encourages every British business to become digital by adopting technologies (Publications.parliament.uk, 2018). This has increased the significance of digitally motivated businesses in contributing to the digital economy. Consequently, migrant-owned businesses in the service sectors are included, as the success of such knowledge-based businesses is also impacted by the adoption of digital technology (Acs and Audretsch, 2003; Siegel, 2006). However, there is limited research in this direction. Hence, this study positions its focus on how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services have experienced entrepreneurialism in the context of the dual environment and digital economy. Entrepreneurship research is studied widely using economic, social, psychological and anthropological perspectives (Volery, 2007). However, the context of migrant entrepreneurs of Nepalese origin is novel and has multiple dimensions, such as migrants, dual environments,

professionals and digital contexts. Therefore, a multi-theory approach is adopted as suggested by previous studies (Bula, 2012; Nambisan, 2017; Rath and Kloosterman, 2000). The nature of business is professional expertise based on individual human capital and digitally motivated enactments. Hence, the researcher assumes that combining human capital theory with technology perspectives can enable a better understanding of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services.

2.5.1 Critical Contribution to the Literature

The study contributes to complementing the neglected aspects of the entrepreneurship domain, as this thesis synthesises previous literature in advancing migrant entrepreneurship. The creation of new ventures and innovation (Schumpeter, 1934; Westhead et al., 2011), opportunity identification and exploitation (Bygrave and Zacharakis, 2011; Timmons, 1979), new combinations and alternations (Bygrave and Zacharakis, 2011; Kirzner, 1973; Westhead et al., 2011), networking (Aldrich and Zimmer, 1986), resource utilisation and rational decision making (Hébert and Link, 1988), risk bearing (Knight, 1921; Miller, 1983; Weber, 1947), process focus (Hisrich and Peters, 2002; Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990), behaviour focus (Casson, 1982; Kirzner, 1973) and outcome focus (Sarasvathy, 1999; Timmons and Spinelli, 2004) were major aspects found that characterised the entrepreneurship phenomenon. These themes aid understanding of the entrepreneurial behaviours of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services, who comprise the study's sample. However, these entrepreneurs must go through an adaptation process as they operate their businesses in a new host environment. Although the adaptation process has become one of the widely studied themes in management and organisation research (Burgelman, 1991; Eisenhardt and Tabrizi, 1995) in the field of entrepreneurship, it is poorly understood.

Businesses operating in a new and complex environment require successful adaptation (Birkinshaw et al., 2008; Zollo et al., 2016) and businesses owned by migrant entrepreneurs must navigate through such environments. As the essence of the study, the current research follows the definition of Hisrich et al. (2010) in which an individual, institution or social entity orientates towards the creation of a new venture or reformation of an existing business activity, adding value to the business and creating new opportunities while bearing some degree of risk for economic and social benefit. This definition helps to better understand the entrepreneurship phenomenon when investigating migrant entrepreneurs as it encompasses many kinds of migrant-owned businesses in the UK. The overlooked part of the entrepreneurship literature on professional entrepreneurs—their adaptation process in the context of a new, complex and

digital environment deserving more attention—is included in the review as a contribution to the current study.

In parallel, the study reviews and develops the digital economy concept in the context of a digitally sharing economy, migration and entrepreneurial mobility (Jokinen et al., 2008). Although Ram and Jones (2008) suggest that a holistic understanding of migrant entrepreneur contributions to the nation is essential, Tajvidi and Karami (2017) see the importance of the impact caused by digital behaviours. Nevertheless, these themes are rarely emphasised. Lesser-skilled migrants are likely to engage in the informal economy and choose entrepreneurship as their only opportunity to integrate, in contrast to professionals who retain advantages to engage in the formal and global economy, as well as options for either full-time or part-time entrepreneurship (Cruz et al., 2018; Marshall et al., 2019). The addition of these entrepreneurial phenomena forms a critical contribution to the literature.

2.5.2 Application of Multiple Theory Approach

Entrepreneurship research is studied widely using economic, social, psychological and anthropological perspectives (Volery, 2007). More concisely, a resource-based view (Barney, 1991), mixed embeddedness (Waldinger et al., 1990; Kloosterman et al., 1999), social capital (Bourdieu, 1986; Levitt and Lamba-Nieves, 2011) and technology perspectives (Rogers, 2003; Straub, 2009) are the few examples that are justified by the research contexts in studying the entrepreneurship phenomenon. Scholars argue that the understudied and new context requires new and multiple theories (e.g. Bula, 2012), and the multi-theory approach has been used in the study of immigrant entrepreneurs (e.g. Rath and Kloosterman, 2000) as well as digital entrepreneurship (Nambisan, 2017).

The current study includes adaptation (Burgelman, 1991), complex environment (Zollo et al., 2016), technology and adaptation (Vagnani, 2015), as well as entrepreneurs in highly skilled and professional services (Rogan and Mors, 2017; Scarpetta et al., 2020), which is still less known. Entrepreneurship of Nepalese migrants in professional services is a novel context, as their entrepreneurial behaviours are deeply rooted in one context and their actions are shaped in a different and new host country. Thus, the current inquiry is a unique context, as the nature of business is blended with human capital and digital innovation. Hence, the researcher assumes that combining human capital theory with technology perspectives can help to better understand migrant entrepreneurs in professional services who are heavily influenced by digital innovation. Therefore, human capital theory (Becker, 1964) is combined with the two technological perspectives, the technology acceptance model (Davis, 1989) and innovation

diffusion theory (Rogers, 1995), to study migrant entrepreneurs in the professional services. These specific theories in combination focus on both human capital development and digital behaviours, allowing the researcher to understand how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services use their human capital in the adaptation and digitalisation process of their entrepreneurial journey in a new host environment.

2.5.3 Theoretical Overlaps, Complementarities, and Differences

TAM does not address issues at organisational and group levels (Parker and Castleman, 2009) as they might impact individual entrepreneurs, because migrant entrepreneurs mostly rely on ethnic enclaves (McCabe et al., 2005). Likewise, innovation diffusion theory does not capture individual specific technology acceptance behaviour alone. Therefore, a combination of IDT and TAM complement each other, and blending this combination with human capital theory allows the researcher to explore the technology adoption perspective while considering the network and adaptation effect. The talent adaptation process appears as a common thread to human capital, innovation adoption and networking practices of migrant entrepreneurs in the professional services. Furthermore, the practice of how well technologies diffuse and integrate within the organisation can be studied by using innovation diffusion perspective, as it can oversee how collective digital behaviours sometimes influence the individual innovation-related perception. Hence, entrepreneurial and technological skills (human capital) facilitate the sharing and integrating of digital means throughout all elements of the firms (Lai, 2017; Ward, 2013). This complements the current research in studying migrant entrepreneurs at both an individual and firm level. Therefore, the study combines the three theories that capture the experiences of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services who mostly rely on human capital and digital innovation, as well as interconnection with home and host environments.

2.6 Summary

Overall, the present research intended to study the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs who are contributing to the UK economy. This chapter contained six sections, and the first section gave a glimpse into the research background, followed by the research questions, objectives and rationale of the study. The second section critically examined various definitions of entrepreneurship and synthesised a particular meaning to be used in this research. Likewise, sub-sections within the second section identified and evaluated the most-researched themes in the domain of entrepreneurship and presented the important concept of migrant entrepreneurship research for further discussion. After that, the review followed a conceptual clarity discussion regarding ethnic minority and migrant entrepreneurs in the context of the present research, which reconciled both concepts to be used interchangeably. Then an evaluation of the existing research on migrant entrepreneurship in the digital economy and technological perspectives was carried out to reach the unique and unstudied concept of ‘migrant entrepreneurs in the professional service sectors’. Relevant theoretical views used in studying entrepreneurship and migrant entrepreneurship were analysed in the third section, which enabled the researcher to adopt HCT, IDT and TAM to study the current research questions. The fourth section extracted relevant constructs from the literature review, including the essential theoretical lens, and developed a framework that guides the present inquiry. Finally, the fifth section includes the literature position, including critical contributions of literature in the entrepreneurship domain and rationalisation of multiple theories, followed by a summary in this section. Based on the research questions, concepts, theories and model supported by the current literature review chapter, the next chapter critically evaluates methodologies relevant to employ in studying migrant entrepreneurs and confirms an appropriate methodology for the current research.

Chapter 3 Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The literature review chapter served to evaluate the concepts of entrepreneurship and migrant entrepreneurship, as well as the definitions that are followed in this thesis. Also, the previous chapter provided an evaluation of the theories that have been adopted within the literature. This then led to the presentation of the multiple theoretical frameworks that embrace HCT as a main lens and a technology adoption perspective comprising of IDT and TAM. HCT helps to understand the experience of migrant entrepreneurs as it assumes that knowledge and skills accelerate the cognitive abilities of an individual through which an entrepreneur creates innovation and new opportunities (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1974; Schultz, 1959). On the other hand, the combination of TAM (Davis et al., 1989) and IDT (Rogers, 1995) helps to understand their digital involvement as it explains the reason as to why a user accepts or rejects technological innovation (Davis et al., 1989; Rogers, 2003; Treiber, 2012). Furthermore, an appropriate research model has been presented to explore the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs who are contributing to the digital economy in the UK. The purpose of this chapter is to present the research methodology that enables the investigation of the research questions.

Research should follow a systematic approach when enquiring research problems with rigorous and transparent methods, which is expected in order to reflect on the research methodology. In general, research methodology represents the combination of various techniques, which are employed in enquiring specific research questions (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008), and methods represent the techniques or procedures that are used to collect and analyse the data (Crotty, 1998). According to Crotty:

Methodology is the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes. (1998, p.3)

This definition views research methodology as a scaffolding, which shapes investigating procedures systematically and transparently, guiding the researcher towards achieving the desired outcomes. Furthermore, it justifies the rationale for choosing particular methods and techniques within the confined assumptions of reality and perspectives.

Duberley et al. (2013) assert that methodology comprises both philosophical assumptions and methods. Thus, the methodology embraces the entire process, including selecting research

methods, tools and techniques, using them in collecting and analysing data, interpreting and justifying methods and linking them in perusing intended outcomes, as well as declaring researchers' ontological and epistemological viewpoints. Researchers such as Kelemen and Rumens (2008) and Gill and Johnson (2010) see the challenges in applying qualitative research methods as they are used in a wide array of epistemological and ontological approaches within the field of management. However, Duberley et al. (2013) claim that the challenge is not about fitting a particular research approach in the study but ensuring self-reflexivity and awareness about various philosophical assumptions, which influence the study. Therefore, Caelli et al. (2003) insist that by ensuring the theoretical positioning of the researcher, maintaining congruence between methodologies, establishing rigour and using an analytical lens to examine data under the stated assumptions, the qualitative researcher can strengthen credibility.

The current research regards how migrant entrepreneurs are experiencing today's business world. Moreover, it investigates how entrepreneurs transform their entrepreneurial activities whilst adopting online business undertakings. In this research, an online business means opting for online business activities by using technological innovation when providing services and generating revenue (Daniel et al., 2015). In examining such experiences, this chapter explores the most appropriate research methodology and methods through critical analysis and evaluation. The other intention of this chapter is to clarify the researcher's philosophical stance as it impacts the methods and consequently the knowledge and outcomes of the investigation (Howell, 2013).

This chapter begins by presenting the researcher's philosophical position, including both ontological and epistemological considerations. The next section focuses on critical evaluation of interpretivism and qualitative research perspectives. Subsequently, there is an overview of the research questions informed by the literature review and theoretical framework. Research strategies and designs include a critical evaluation of research methods, a justification of choosing an interview approach, sampling techniques, an explanation of the population and a profile of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs. Details of data collection and analysis are discussed afterwards. Section 3.7 focuses on the evaluation of different practices for ensuring reliability, validity and objectivity. Likewise, section 3.8 clarifies the researcher's position on research reflexivity and participatory ethics. Finally, this chapter concludes by designing a methodological framework of operation for the next chapter.

3.2 Philosophical Stance

The primary aim of this research is to examine the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs who are contributing to the UK's digital economy. To understand the whole research process, it is essential to discuss various philosophical issues that clarify the researcher's philosophical position on selecting specific research methods. Jennings et al. (2005) believe that researchers frame their research with a range of assumptions about ontological, epistemological and other viewpoints related to human nature, indicating their philosophical stance, which ultimately impacts the methodological process. Before proceeding, it is useful to define key terms, notably ontology and epistemology. According to Ormston et al. (2014), ontology is the viewpoint of the nature of reality, broadly termed as realism (an external reality that is independent to people's belief) and idealism (reality is dependent on the investigators, and meanings are constructed socially). Crotty (1998, p.8) defines epistemology as 'how we know what we know'. Epistemology is about the knowledge of knowledge, which founds a philosophical position and justifies the way of acquiring knowledge about the social world.

Howell (2013) suggests that research philosophy is determined according to the mindset or belief of the researcher. If a researcher believes that knowledge or reality exists externally, then data gathering procedures should focus empirically on the objective perspective, whereas, if the researcher considers the relationship in between reality and humanity being in the mind, then a subjective view should be adopted. Hence, researchers develop a philosophical position based on their viewpoint about the world, the way they think things exist in the world (ontology) and how they come to know what the world is like (epistemology).

For Crotty (1998), ontological and epistemological considerations tend to appear together in the research process. Therefore, the researcher's beliefs on philosophical assumptions are deeply rooted in the research process. For instance, the ontological and epistemological position of the researcher influences the choice of research techniques, qualitative or quantitative, and consequently, the research technique frames the methods of enquiry and tools of analysis. In other words, a realist view demands positivism, which is guided by the beliefs of a single reality or truth assuming that reality can be understood externally and independent of people's belief. This assumption leads to the quantitative research technique, which demands numerical data, and can be acquired from surveys and analysed using statistical tools. On the contrary, an alternative philosophical position guides the researcher in choosing qualitative research. Thus, the selection of research methods is not

neutral; it is strongly influenced by the researcher's philosophical stance, which comprises viewpoints on social reality and the method of investigation (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

In a similar vein, Punch (2009) asserts that an appropriate ontological and epistemological stance directs the researcher to develop valid research methodology and methods. When exploring new insights and solving social problems, researchers may adopt interpretive or objectivist approaches. Critical theory has also been an increasing way to explain and argue social phenomenon. Different approaches have their own strengths and weaknesses; therefore, researchers should determine the appropriateness of the theory based on their research topic. In the process of creating social science knowledge, there is a substantial epistemological debate among social scientists on whether the reality of the social world can be studied by applying the same principles and methodologies as the natural sciences (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Consequently, they further urge that there is an apparent, clear division amongst researchers on whether to view reality through the eyes of positivism or interpretivism.

Despite positivism being used substantially, there is an absence in recognising the subjective nature of human views (Duberley et al., 2013). Hence, this research intended to investigate migrant entrepreneurs' experiences, perceptions and attitudes, which are explored through human interactions. Therefore, an interpretive approach, which values individuals' thoughts of the social world and emphasises the importance of both the researcher's and the contributors' interpretations and understandings regarding the studied phenomenon (Ormston et al., 2014), was considered.

The interpretive approach has challenged the long-held dominance of the positivist approach by advocating the importance of the differences through which people view their social context (Bryman and Bell, 2011). As a result, there is a significant increase in the use of interpretive approaches in social sciences (Llewelyn, 2003). Existing entrepreneurship research has been conducted from both perspectives as their research questions greatly vary. Several studies have been carried out using a qualitative approach in the domain of entrepreneurship. For instance, Anwar and Daniel (2016) used a qualitative research technique and undertook interviews with twenty-two online ethnic minority entrepreneurs to identify the significance of adopting online business contrary to traditional business. They further applied entrepreneurial marketing and theoretical perspectives in their research. Similarly, Jones et al. (2014b) attempt to explain the phenomenon of the new migrant enterprise using the qualitative method and utilised a semi-structured interview from a mixed embeddedness approach. In a similar vein, Ram et al. (2017) examine development and practices in the context of migrant

entrepreneurship research using the qualitative method and the mixed embeddedness approach. These research practices indicate that qualitative research is a widely accepted method in the field of entrepreneurship. However, theoretical approaches and methods are different from each other. Although current research intends to employ qualitative research method similar to the studies mentioned earlier, on the contrary, it applies multiple theories uniquely linking the HCT (Becker, 1964), IDT (Rogers, 1995) and TAM (Davis et al., 1989) to examine the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs in the UK.

As discussed earlier, the present research question is to investigate experiences of migrant entrepreneurs, which can be captured and interpreted through social interactions and consciousness of minds rather than being independent and assuming a realist viewpoint. Qualitative research provides novel insights into a particular phenomenon because emotions, feelings, symbols and many more subjective aspects need researchers' perception and contextualisation to understand the socially constructed natural reality, which is possible with qualitative research methods (Berg, 2007).

The researcher finds reality from people's interactions and the context rather than being an independent observer. Research activities are guided by the researcher's worldview, which is greatly influenced by the researcher's preconceived beliefs, understandings and knowledge about objects and feelings. Following the interpretive research perspective, which fits in with the constructivist viewpoints and subjectivist epistemology (Jack and Westwood, 2006), this study uses multiple theories as stated earlier to investigate research problems. On the one hand, HCT can better explore migrant entrepreneurs' experiences regarding entrepreneurial activities by coupling human capital attributes to the success of entrepreneurs (Unger et al., 2011). On the other hand, IDT and technology acceptance theories help to understand their perceptions, attitudes and behaviour in adopting technological means (Treiber, 2012).

3.2.1 Interpretive Perspectives

The researcher's philosophical beliefs guide research methods design and shape the entire methodological framework. If individuals assume that there is a world outside of their existence, they are more likely to discover it objectively, whereas if they believe that the construction of the world originates from shared meanings, they are expected to discover the world from others' interpretations (Mole, 2012). In finding knowledge about the world, researchers roughly position their stance either on the positivist view or the interpretivist view (Marsh and Furlong, 2002). Interpretivists believe that unlike the natural sciences, social science phenomena need various approaches to conduct research; that is the fundamental

difference between positivists and interpretivists (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, Fletcher (2011) highlights that in inquiring into the human and social world scientifically, interpretivists traditionally adopt different philosophies, such as pragmatism, phenomenology, hermeneutics, symbolic interactionism, social constructionism and post-structuralism. These interpretive traditions emerge from an intellectual locus and take people's interpretation as the first step in developing knowledge about the social world (Prasad, 2017). In a similar manner, Duberley et al. (2013) argue that interpretivism covers a range of philosophical approaches. Stating the rationale for embracing an interpretivist approach, Mole and Ram (2012) advocate that it provides insights on how entrepreneurs make contextual meaning. This leads to the question of what the interpretivist approach actually is. According to Crotty (1998, p.67), 'The interpretivist approach looks for culturally derived historically situated interpretations of the social life world.' This perspective is oriented in grasping the subjective meaning of social occurrences.

Interpretivism premises on the philosophical doctrine of idealism, which assumes that reality is the creation of the mind (Williams et al., 1996). Fletcher (2011) believes that by making sensible interpretations of peoples' views and social issues, developing theory from data, stating implication from the meaning of data and comparing and contrasting entrepreneurs' experiences and perceptions, interpretivists' perspectives contribute to the study of entrepreneurship. Furthermore, interpretivism helps to examine the lived experiences of the migrant entrepreneurs. Interpretivists opt to ask questions from the participants, study small samples, words and numbers and generate theories on multiple viewpoints of reality while assuming that the truth is constructed by social actors (Thorpe, 2011).

Connecting to the world of entrepreneurship, Jennings et al. (2005) reveal that there is a dominance of quantitative research in the domain of entrepreneurship. However, the pluralist view is growing in the field of entrepreneurship in recent years because, by using an interpretive approach, a researcher can understand how entrepreneurs make meaning in different contexts (Mole, 2012). The interpretivist view is becoming a challenge to other dominant approaches, but careful consideration should be given to interpretations and meanings (Audretsch and Keibach, 2007; Dodd and Anderson, 2007).

Bryman and Bell (2011) state that qualitative research often faces the challenge of being too subjective, non-replicable, ungeneralisable and non-transparent. To this end, Symon and Cassell (2012) argue that qualitative research cannot be assured using the same criteria as quantitative research; however, ensuring the appropriate use of elements such as subjectivity, interpretation and emancipation, qualitative research can be rigorous and believable. Miles et

al. (2014) suggest that issues like observing participants, data collection, data management and data analysis can be dealt with uniquely and flexibly as per the nature of the particular study because qualitative research design is not always necessarily replicable to others.

Pasquero (1988) argues that qualitative research is the ideal research technique as it is open, flexible and adaptive in terms of methods, contrasting the restricted, narrowed and detached research approach of quantitative techniques. However, Silverman (2013) suggests not to try to establish the supremacy of qualitative over quantitative research and vice versa because choosing a method depends entirely on what the researcher intends to discover. Although there are some philosophical and methodological debates on qualitative methods, self-reflexivity and consideration of philosophical assumptions could strengthen qualitative research (Duberley et al., 2013). Many researchers have used qualitative research methods in the study of entrepreneurship, for instance Anwar and Daniel (2016), Davidson and Vaast (2010), Hennart (2014), Hlady-Rispal and Jouison-Laffitte (2014), Ishaq et al. (2010), Jones et al. (2014b) Ram and Jones (2008), Shelton (2010) and Venkataraman (2004). Denzin and Lincoln (2011) provide a promising definition that clarifies the various methods of qualitative research. According to them:

Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials—case study, personal experience, introspection, life story, interview, artifacts, and cultural texts and productions, along with observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts—that describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals' lives. (2011, pp.3–4)

Thus, qualitative research can be carried out with various methods like interviews, focus group discussions and case studies. More importantly, extant research shows that qualitative research in entrepreneurship is essential (for instance, Hindle, 2004; Hlady-Rispal and Jouison-Laffitte, 2014; Neergaard and Ulhøi, 2007) because qualitative techniques help achieve in-depth understanding in the domain of entrepreneurship (Hindle, 2004).

Researchers who are interested in peoples' interpretations, experiences, perceptions and accounts generally use interpretive enquiry. This enquiry helps understand how people create meaning for any particular action and contributes to the theory by exploring the experiences and perceptions of the respondents (Fletcher, 2011). Therefore, the current researcher is interested in applying an interpretive perspective when inquiring as to migrant entrepreneurs' experiences and perceptions in the context of the UK to reveal their views on different entrepreneurial activities, including their viewpoints on technology acceptance. There may be a question as to the researcher's involvement and whether he plays an active role in social interaction. The response is clear as the researcher himself has experience being an

entrepreneur in Nepal and a migrant entrepreneur in the United Kingdom. Therefore, the researcher intended to share real-life experience by adopting a subjective view and being aware of the value-free and value-laden situation. In particular, the interpretive approach contributes to this research in three ways: as a guideline for research design and data collection, as an iterative process of data collection and analysis and as means of reaching the outcome of the research (Walsham, 1995). Hence, following the interpretivist perspective, the present study intended to design research strategies as discussed in the next section.

3.3 Research Strategies and Research Design

In this study, the researcher focuses on investigating three main questions: How do migrants contextualise and update their knowledge and skills in the new environment? What motivates migrant entrepreneurs to adapt digital means and integrate themselves into the host environment? How do they perform networking activities in the host-home situation of their businesses? In the pursuit of achieving these objectives, the researcher investigated the real-life experiences of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs from an interpretivism perspective and employed a qualitative research approach as discussed in the earlier sections. However, the success of attaining the intended goal largely relies on the research strategy and the adopted research design. This research was strategically designed to capture migrants' experiences through interviews, which intended to respond to research questions through interpretation. This strategy drives the research design, connects the research questions with data and defines the tools and procedures used to collect and fit the data with the questions (Punch, 2009).

One of the most important decisions in the process of research methodology is to choose an appropriate research strategy that is designed to achieve the research objective (Denscombe, 2010). Like in other fields of social science research, methodological issues are common in the domain of entrepreneurship (Busenitz et al., 2003). There is no specific strategy that best fits all kinds of research projects. However, considering the three aspects – suitability, feasibility and ethics – may be the best strategy in attaining the research objectives (Denscombe, 2010). The research design anticipates data considerations and includes a conceptual framework and research questions, sampling, case definition, instrumentation and the nature of data to be collected. The next sections follow the research questions, sampling and other relevant elements, including management issues highlighted by the scholars, for instance, data storage, organisation, processing and the use of any computer software (Miles et al., 2014). Considering the points that methods, tools and procedures of data collection and analysis vary according to

the nature of the data, the next section discusses different aspects of qualitative techniques to devise a specific strategy best fit for this research to employ qualitative research techniques.

3.3.1 Data Collection Techniques

In contrast to the quantitative research method where numerical data are collected for experiments and measurements, qualitative researchers engage in collecting words as data for interpretation. Qualitative data can be collected using a variety of techniques such as case studies, personal experiences, introspection, life stories, interviews, artefacts, cultural texts and productions, as well as observations, historical accounts, interactions and visual texts (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that an interpretivist approach covers a practical understanding of meanings and actions. Researchers are attached to their objects of study similar to the informants. All qualitative data refer to the essences of people, objects and situations (Berg, 2007). Therefore, qualitative data in the form of words can be collected through observation, interviews or document review in proximity to a local setting and requiring processing before analysis begins. Perri and Bellamy (2012, p.9) define method ‘as the set of techniques recognised by most social scientists as being appropriate for the creation, collection, coding, organisation, and analysis of data.’ Data or sets of information are created for the purpose of further investigation by using different methods such as ethnographies, interviews, surveys and observations. The created data is then scanned based on its relevance and categorised into particular codes, themes and contents to respond to the research questions employing data collection methods. Data coding methods help classify sets of information or data in different categories in line with the research questions. Data organisation methods fit data into a suitable layout or table appropriate for analysis.

Punch (2009) asserts that interview is the most important data collection tool for qualitative research, and it is effective for capturing participants’ perceptions, meanings and definitions of the contexts and constructions of reality. The current study is aimed to investigate migrant entrepreneurs’ experiences through understanding their perceptions, attitudes and views or explanations about how they develop the human capital required in the host environment and how they perceive technological adaptation to improve their business performance. In this context, interviews are the most appropriate qualitative method to collect information from migrant entrepreneurs. The next section evaluates and justifies the rationale for choosing the interview method and the procedures entailed in the current research.

3.4 Interviews

This study focused on investigating the experiences of migrant entrepreneurs in the UK. It was determined to use qualitative research techniques to collect data, especially verbal data, from Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs to uncover novel insights into the entrepreneurship phenomenon with a closer examination on professional service sectors. The interview method in data collection is a centre point of research activities (Punch, 2009) and is likely the most widely used method in qualitative research (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Bryman, 2012; Punch, 2009). Unlike quantitative interviews, qualitative interviews tend to be much less structured because qualitative research is more interested in an interviewee's views rather than in reflecting an interviewer's concerns (Bryman, 2012).

Daniels and Cannice (2004) define an interview as the means of obtaining data and findings through the researcher and respondent's conversations. Alvesson and Ashcraft (2012) advocate neo-positivism, romanticism, localism (relativist perspective) and reflexivism (critical perspective) as the four positions of qualitative research interview methods, while Berg (2007) categorises interview as standardised, unstandardised and semi-standardised. However, Bryman (2008) labels interviews as structured, standardised, semi-structured, unstructured, intensive, qualitative, in-depth, focused, focused group, group, oral history and life history. To best fit the most appropriate interview techniques for the current study, structured, semi-structured and unstructured techniques and their scopes are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Types of interviews

Types of interviews	Definitions	Features	Nature of study
Structured interviews	Standardised. Use predefined questionnaires to collect data	Fixed questions. The interviewer cannot change the questions and their order.	Descriptive research Explanatory research
Semi-structured interviews	Use predetermined themes and some key questions to collect data. Use of standardised but open questions.	The interviewer can alter the questions and change the order of questions if necessary. They are flexible.	Exploratory research Explanatory research

Unstructured interviews	Informal conversations about a specific topic.	No predefined questions required. Interviewer needs to have advanced knowledge to ask questions. Very flexible.	Exploratory research
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Table: 3.1 is a synthesis of the different types of interviews and their meanings, features and scopes, which are abstracted from the above discussions. The current research adopts semi-structure interviews because the nature of the current study is an exploratory research as it intends to investigate an under-researched area. In this regard, the semi-structured interview would be useful to explore comparatively new and under-researched areas (Creswell, 2009). On the other hand, highly structured interviews minimise richness and novelty, whereas too loosely structured or unstructured interviews may risk peripheral relevance to the research as the interviewees may not focus on the topic (Alvesson and Ashcraft, 2012). To this end, semi-structured interviews help to balance order and freedom as it avoids both the highly controlled responses of structured interviews and the unrestrained responses of unstructured interviews (Luo and Wildemuth, 2009). Therefore, employing a semi-structured interview approach better captures migrant entrepreneurs' experiences and perceptions.

There is a longstanding trend to adopt a semi-structured interview approach as a means of collecting rich data from migrant and ethnic entrepreneurs in the past. For instance, Ishaq et al. (2010) used semi-structured interviews as the main qualitative research method to explore racism as an entry barrier to ethnic minority entrepreneurs in the UK. Additionally, they used two unstructured or in-depth interviews with the director of the Commission for Racial Equality in Scotland. Semi-structured interviews were used to interview retail business owners from the ethnic minority in Glasgow. The use of an interview method in this research is in line with the rationale justified by many authors, for instance, Alvesson and Ashcraft (2012), Bryman and Bell (2011), Punch (2009), Roulston (2010) and Symon and Cassell (2012). As discussed, it is a flexible, effective, reflexive and widely accepted method within qualitative research. However, Gerson and Horowitz (2002) believe that some qualitative interviews sometimes do not yield any meanings and may need to be excluded from transcription. Therefore, the researcher provided due attention while transcribing the interview contents.

Another important aspect concerns the possibility of influencing and interrupting the interviewee, which could affect the natural outcomes; therefore, the researcher considers this issue carefully. During the interviews, discussions were allowed to develop naturally with the

researcher, ensuring that the areas under discussion were covered (Blankson and Omar, 2002). A natural discussion between the interviewer and interviewee allows the researcher to capture relevant information covering the intended areas (Berg, 2007), which prevents conversations from deviating from the original topic.

Turning to the research problem, the interview could be an appropriate and main qualitative research method because it is flexible, effective and reflexive, as discussed above. Furthermore, it helps construct situated accounts through social interaction. More importantly, extant research shows that qualitative research in entrepreneurship is essential for understanding entrepreneurs' experiences, for instance, Hindle (2004) and Hlady-Rispal and Jouison-Laffitte (2014); hence, interviews are crucial in answering the research questions aimed in this research, particularly using a semi-structured interview procedure to collect data from Nepalese migrant professional entrepreneurs. Migrant professionals might have dynamic and differing encounters concerning digitalisation, human capital accumulation and transnational experiences while exercising entrepreneurial intents in the host-home contexts. Depicting such attributes is possible only when interview questions are devised to characterise flexibility, effectiveness and reflexivity and capture experiences and perceptions from real business life. As featured in the semi-structured method, initial interview questions are derived from the conceptual and theoretical framework discussed in chapter 2. These questions are key to start but open in nature so that there is enough flexibility and alternation as new themes and concepts emerge through an iteration process because the interviewer's main objective is to explore unknown experiences from understudied migrant professional entrepreneurs.

The preplanning and structuring of instrumentation depends on the nature of the study. However, a savvy practitioner is a comparatively better research instrument in a qualitative investigation (Miles et al., 2014). Nonetheless, Alvesson and Ashcraft (2012) stress that a good researcher plans and creates such an interview environment where interviewees feel free to share their feelings and considerable knowledge openly. The researcher decided to adopt a semi-structured interview to collect a rich and live data set from Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs because it not only allows interviewees more freedom to respond to enquiries than a structured interview but also provides greater structure for comparability over the unstructured and focused methods (May, 2011). Johnson et al. (2007) conducted research using one-to-one semi-structured interviews to explore the interviewees' perspectives on qualitative research issues, which lasted between one and two hours. Similar to that, the current research also intended to use one-to-one semi-structured interviews with a time frame between one and two hours, but in reality, it lasted between half an hour and an hour.

The practical aspect of the interview is crucial for the effective administration of the interview process. Punch (2009) focuses on interview checklists such as preparing an interview schedule, establishing rapport at the beginning, communication and listening skills, sequencing and asking questions and effective closing. Summarising the discussion above, current research used the following procedural guidelines to conduct interviews:

Table 3.2: Procedures for semi-structured interviews

Steps	Action	Details
Step: 1	Create an interview protocol or guide.	A predefined document comprising a heading that may include the name, date and place, instructions for the interviewer and questions, followed by an ice-breaking question, probes for questions, space to note or record the response and concluding statement (Creswell, 2009).
Step: 2	Plan for the logistics of the interviews.	Finding a suitable and unbiased location, recording instruments and stationery, as well as sending reminders to the interviewees, time, scheduling and adjusting interviews scheduling if required.
Step: 3	Begin with the introductions and formalities.	Introducing yourself and the purpose of the study, reassuring anonymity, confirming audio and visual recording and answering any queries from the interviewees.
Step: 4	Build rapport and warm up for the interview	Icebreaking questions or exercises or offering tea, coffee or water.
Step: 5	Administer the interview	The main part of the interview to generate meaningful data. Main research questions should be asked, and notes and recordings should be taken appropriately.
Step: 6	Create a cooling-off situation	Begin to wrap up the interview and ease the interviewees.
Step: 7	Conclude the interview	Formal ending of the interview, a good opportunity to thank the interviewee and respond to any questions the interviewee may have. Participants are left feeling well or with a positive impression (Legard et al., 2003).
Step: 8	Manage recordings of the interviews	Interview records and notes should be carefully handled. Carefully transcribe the full recording and prepare for data analysis. Creswell (2009) suggests taking notes even if recording devices were used. Longhurst (2010) warns to be more careful of using recordings and transcriptions. The subjects' confidentiality should not be jeopardised.
Step: 9	Code and analyse the data	Developing codes from the collected datasets for the purpose of categorising and generating themes to accomplish research objectives.

As discussed in the interview procedure, the researcher intended to design a tentative guideline that provides a loose framework to focus on the research objectives and capture meaning during the interview. A debate about the prior preparation of instruments has become a tradition. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) believe that much of the interpretation happens during the interview, and researchers simply co-author the meanings rather than collect data. Therefore, it is important to balance to what extent pre-instrumentation helps capture data without jeopardising the qualitative research. Loosely designed instruments help researchers to focus on the research questions and prevent them from being misled and distracted (Miles et al., 2014); therefore, current research intends to use the following tentative instrumental guides, which may help to hone in on core processes and meanings of the unit of case.

Table 3.3 comprises 18 main questions guided by the three theories and the research model as discussed in the section 2.4. It also includes 18 probes, which direct the interviewer to remain within the boundaries of the research objectives and questions. In summary, HCT has been considered as the leading theory in combination with TAM and IDT. Finally, a total of 18 questions were developed as the main research questions to collect data through the interview. Additionally, some introductory questions and a concluding question have been included to allow the respondents to supply any information they may wish to contribute further, as shown below.

Table 3.3: Research Instruments

Arrival	Greet appropriately.	
Introduction	Research purpose, consent form, recording permission, assurance of anonymity and right to withdraw.	
Introductory questions	Please tell me about your business. When did you start it? What encouraged you to establish this firm/these firms? Did you have any previous entrepreneurial experiences?	
Main Interview		
Theories	Research questions	Probes
Human Capital Theory and Technology Acceptance Model.	(a) What entrepreneurial skills and knowledge helped you establish your business? (b) What entrepreneurial factors helped you to adopt digital means in your business? (c) What influences you to accept or reject new digital means?	(a) Past experience, education, training, host environment opportunities, etc. (b) Proactiveness, risk-bearing attitudes, innovativeness, autonomy and competitive aggressiveness. (c) Ease of use, usefulness or any other factors.
	(a) How did you utilise the qualification you had gained in your country of origin in your business? Did you obtain any other qualifications in the UK? (b) How would a continuous update in knowledge and digital means impact your business? (c) Were they accessible and useful to your business?	(a) How they contextualise their previous qualifications. (b) Knowledge and technology updating attitudes. (c) Opportunities and challenges for building human capital.
	(a) Is it worthwhile to invest time and money in obtaining training, skills and experiences? (b) How would digital skills impact the adoption/deployment of new digital means?	(a) Awareness of technologies and their use in the business. (b) Attitudes towards adopting them.

	(c) How do digital skills help to ensure you achieve your business objectives?	(c) Determinants of adopting digital means in the business.
Human Capital Theory and Innovation Diffusion Theory.	(a) How often do you and your co-workers receive trainings of any form? (b) Were they accessible and useful to your business? (c) What kind of training would facilitate in fully utilising new innovation?	(a) How they enhance and utilise continuous professional development (CPD). (b) Barriers and opportunities. (c) Helpful training for innovation diffusions.
	(a) How would you integrate digital means with human actors in your business? (b) What indicates that your business is achieving its aspired outcomes through digital means? (c) What indicates that your firm achieves the most from digital means?	(a) Integration of digital means and social aspects. (b) Utilising new technology for achieving business objectives. (c) Experience and attitudes towards digital means and firm performance.
	(a) Do you view technology innovation as an opportunity or a threat? (b) How does technology help you adapt and integrate into the host environment? (c) Do you think technology adoption helps you to access wider networks?	(a) User categories – innovator, early adopter, early majority, late majority and laggard. (b) Relationship between acceptance of digital means and better integration in the host environment. (c) Developing a wider network through digital means. ‘Concluding signal’
	Concluding question	Would you like to add any relevant information?
<i>After the interview: Thanking the interviewee and briefing about what will happen next with their data.</i>		

In line with the characteristics of qualitative research, some interview questions are modified in different stages when new themes emerged during the interview and in initial analysis processes. The pilot interviews conducted with four respondents allowed for reshaping questions and adding probes, for instance, a question about whether they obtained any qualification in the UK and probes such as contextualisation and digital awareness, illustrated in Table 3.3. Similarly, after conducting three more interviews (respondent 1, respondent 2 and respondent 3), the first and the final iterations were used to finalise the remaining questions for the other the respondents. This is because some of the respondents did not understand some of the terminologies used in the questions, and some of the questions needed revision to incorporate new themes and issues raised by the respondents. The introductory questions remain the same, but the probes and some of the main questions are slightly modified, simplified and rearranged to make it clear and understandable while capturing insights from the respondents in line with the research question. The table below shows how interview questions were finalised in a step-by-step process.

Table 3.4: Development of interview questions

<i>First revision after pilot test</i>	<i>Final revision as interviews progressed</i>
<p>Introductory questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Please tell me about your business. -When did you start it? -What encouraged you to establish this firm/these firms? -Did you have any previous entrepreneurial/business experiences? <p>Main questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -What entrepreneurial or business skills and knowledge do you think helped you in establishing your business? -Do you use any digital technology in your business such as the Internet, mobile phones, computers, online platforms, digital software, etc.? -What motivated you to become an entrepreneur, and what do you believe are the essential qualities of an entrepreneur? -What entrepreneurship-related factors do you think have helped you to adopt different digital means in your business? -What influences you to accept or reject different kinds of digital means? 	<p>Introductory questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Please tell me about your business. -When did you start it? -What encouraged you to establish this firm or these firms? -Did you have any previous entrepreneurial or business experiences? <p>Main questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -What do you believe are the essential qualities of an entrepreneur? -What qualifications have you gained in your country of origin and in the UK? And how have they helped you to establish your business in the UK? -Do you see any challenges in establishing businesses in the UK as a migrant entrepreneur? -Do you believe that continuously updating knowledge and skills is essential for your business? Are they easily accessible? -Do you and your staff use any digital devices in your business such as mobile phones, computers, etc? Why?

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -What qualifications have you gained in your country of origin and in the UK? -Do you believe that these qualifications have helped you to establish your business in the UK in any way? -Do you believe that continuously updating knowledge and skills (such as through training or any other skill building courses) is essential in your business? Why? -How easy do you believe it is to access such continuous professional development (CPD) in the UK? -Is it worthwhile to invest time and money in obtaining training, skills and experiences? Could you explain why in the context of your business? -Do you think digital skills in particular have a significant impact on the adoption/deployment of new digital means? Why? -Do you and your co-workers receive trainings of any form? If so, how often? -What kind of trainings do you believe would facilitate in fully utilising new innovation? -How would you ensure that the digital means are effectively used among the employees and other users in your business? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -What other software, apps, platform, and/or networking information technology do you use in your business? Why? -What influences you to accept or reject different kinds of digital means? -How has technological advancement impacted your business over time? -What entrepreneurship-related factors do you think have helped you to adopt different digital means in your business? -What particular skills do you think are essential for the adoption/deployment of digital means? How do you fulfil any skill-related gaps? -How do you know which technology is appropriate for your business? Where do you get them from? -Do you believe that you fully utilise digital means in your business? How? -How do you decide when to adopt any newly introduced digital means? Why? -How would you ensure that the digital means are effectively communicated and used among the employees and other users in your business?
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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -What indicates that your business is achieving its aspired outcomes through digital means in your opinion? -Do you view technology innovation as an opportunity or a threat? Why? -Do you think technology helps you to adapt and integrate into the host environment (UK)? Why? -Do you think technology adoption helps you to access wider networks? -Finally, as an entrepreneur how would you say that you have contributed to the economy? -Would you like to add any further relevant information? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -What indicates that your business is achieving its aspired outcomes through digital means, in your opinion? -Do you think there are challenges in adopting new technology in your business? -Do you think technology helps you to adapt and integrate into the host environment (UK)? Why? -Do you think technology adoption helps you to access wider networks and expand your business? How? -Finally, as an entrepreneur, how would you say that you have contributed to the economy? -Would you like to add any further relevant information?
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3.4.1 Revisit Interview and Focus Group Discussion

In addition to the initial interviews, this study gained its richness in data collection through corroborative revisit interviews and a focus group discussion. Research instruments for the second round of data collection was devised using emerging findings from the initially collected data. Digitally empowered Nepalese-origin entrepreneurs who are engaging in professional service sector businesses in the UK have been visited individually. Out of the 24 entrepreneurs, five were from accounting and financing sectors, five from engineering sectors, three from IT sectors, two from law sectors, six from health sectors two were from education sectors and the final one was from money transmitter. The meeting was divided into three parts: first, sharing emerging research findings as a part of training; second, an interview regarding the reflection of their views on the executive summary of the research findings and finally, whether there have been any changes in their perspectives since the previous interview. During the visit, issues such as adapting to the host environment, the impact of digitalisation, deploying digital means, using a network, outsourcing and reasons for appearing and disappearing business in the digital age have been discussed. Entrepreneurs shared their real-life experiences regarding their achievements and business problems. All of them took this visit as an opportunity to receive additional business insights, including digital practices.

A separate focus group discussion comprising eight participants was conducted. A set of five issues: (i) positive and negative experiences of establishing and running businesses in the UK, (ii) the impact of digitalisation, (iii) opportunities and challenges of adopting new technologies, (iv) factors that could help improve business performances further and (v) the practices of working collaboratively, domestically and transnationally were the major agendas. Thus, loosely designed instruments helped the researcher to focus on the research questions and prevented him from being misled and distracted (Miles et al., 2014). At the same time, this provided an opportunity to add value to the data through richness and corroboration using multiple methods.

3.5 Sample Context and Sampling Procedures

3.5.1 Sample Context

Although Nepalese people working as British Gurkhas have a long history (Low, 2016), other than Gurkhas, including professional entrepreneurs, they have a little experience in the UK. Around three hundred professionals, including doctors, arrived in the UK in the 1970s and 1980s (Gellner, 2013). The Centre for Nepal Studies UK (CNSUK, 2012) reported that by the

end of 2008, the total number of Nepalese migrants residing in the UK was 72,173. However, the same report claims that the number could be up to 100,000 because of the lack of proper surveying. It indicates that the Nepalese diaspora in the UK is growing significantly, which might have a greater impact in socio-cultural and economic avenues. However, there is a lack of research about Nepalese-origin entrepreneurs in the UK. Nepalese migrants came to the UK under different routes, and those living in the UK can be categorised into four groups: overseas students, professionals, refugees/asylum seekers and Gurkhas and their families (Sims, 2008). Another reason for the lack of further information about this community is an unspecified record system for Nepalese migrants as most of the surveys record them under other Asian categories, despite being one of the fastest growing ethnic minorities in the UK, especially since the UK government decided to provide settlement status to ex-Gurkha families (Adhikari, 2012). Research shows that there are 456,073 migrant entrepreneurs in the UK (Johnson and Kimmelman, 2014). However, regarding Nepalese entrepreneurs, there are no formal records or research as of now, but there is a significant number of entrepreneurs who are engaging in business activities, which was noticed by the researcher during the Nepalese diasporic gatherings, for instance, the NRNA UK's annual gathering.

However, Sims (2008) indicates that London census data shows that the top industries for people born in Nepal and living in London were hotels and restaurants (34.8%), real estate and renting (15.7%), wholesale and retail (15.3%) and health and social work (9.6%). Sims argues that, as stated by the Himalayan Yeti Nepalese Association, Nepalese migrants in the UK are characterised as coming from professional and business backgrounds such as healthcare, education, academia, investment and engineering. This indicates that Nepalese migrants have been involved in a variety of businesses for decades, which can be assumed from the work of Gellner (2013) as his research uncovers health professionals who arrived in the UK in the 1970s and 1980s. Stating the entrepreneurial nature of Nepalese migrants, he further mentions that Upendra Mahato, the founder of NRNA, is one of many successful entrepreneurs overseas and is a leading manufacturer of electronics in Russia and Belarus (Gellner, 2013). The entrepreneurial nature of Nepalese migrants has also been portrayed in the context of the United States. Thamel.com, a web portal founded by a Nepalese migrant to the United States, has been a successful entrepreneurial business as it sells products and services to members of the Nepalese diaspora who travel between the United States and Nepal (Riddle and Brinkerhoff, 2011). According to CNSUK (2015, p.38), although there are no reports containing the number of Nepalese migrant-owned businesses in the UK, CNSUK has mentioned the following categories:

Table 3.5: Types of businesses owned by Nepalese migrants in the UK

Accountancy Firms	Motor/Taxi Services
Cleaning Services	Pharmacy
Driving Schools	Property/Real Estate
Engineering and Construction	Restaurant/Bar/Café
Entertainment/Party/Photography	Security
Grocery/Shop/Cash and Carry	Translation/Language
Hotel	Travels
Immigration/Legal	Education
Laundry	Information Technology
Media	Wholesale Supply
Money Transfer	Miscellaneous
Mortgage	

Based on the above discussion and the researcher's personal experiences, Nepalese entrepreneurs can be categorised as follows: hospitality, retailing, professionals and micro-entrepreneurs. Among them, the researcher aims to focus on the professional services sector, which includes accounting firms, law firms, engineering consultancy firms, health care services, research and education, IT firms and marketing consultancy firms. As mentioned above, specifically, there is no single study that can shed light on any distinct features of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs. However, it is expected that like any ethnic minority and migrant entrepreneur, Nepalese migrants also face the challenges of low-earning businesses as revealed through ethnic entrepreneurship research (Clark and Drinkwater, 2006; Ram and Jones, 2008). This is evident from the business categories illustrated above.

However, some Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs are outperforming others; for instance, Binod Chaudhary, who manages innovation and CG group globally, has secured his position as a multibillionaire in Forbes magazine (Forbes.com). Likewise, another Nepalese migrant who started his entrepreneurial career from a small business has become the 105th richest person in Australia (thehimalayatimes.com). Similarly, a younger Nepalese migrant was confirmed as Britain's biggest seller on eBay in 2011 (Lawson, 2011). With few exceptions, migrants are viewed as the lower socio-economic segment in Europe because academic standards, skills and experiences are not at the highest level (Baycan-Leven et al., 2006). On the other hand, racism and discrimination may have created a barrier (Ishaq et al., 2010) to

Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs as well, similar to Ishaq's research outcomes. Some migrant entrepreneurs are developing well as they are able to adopt the latest technology advancement, while others are not (Jones et al., 2014a), which is the subject of enquiry in the context of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs. However, the sample respondents of this study only focus on professional entrepreneurs as it assumes that professionals that have a higher level of education might also have different experiences compared to lesser-skilled migrant entrepreneurs. Although professional can be understood differently context-wise (Brock et al., 2014), professional migrants are highly skilled individuals who completed their academic and professional education in their countries of origin (Parker, 2017). They accumulated their experience and skills while engaging in work and business-related activities conducted before their migration. In the early days following their migration, they may take up positions of employment. The evidence provided by previously related mainstream studies is typically based on the perspective of low-skilled migrants, thus tending to overlook that of highly skilled professionals (Parker, 2017). This study is aimed at conducting an exploration in the latter direction by looking at the experiences of migrant professionals in the UK.

3.5.2 Approaching and Sizing the Sample Respondents

This research work was guided by qualitative research methods; hence, sampling should reflect heterogeneous features of the Nepalese migrant professional entrepreneurs as they are engaging in various businesses. While defining sample populations, the current research included any person who accumulates academic and professional qualifications from both their home country and host country environments and operate businesses based on their education. This definitional criteria confines the scope of the sample population to professional Nepalese-origin entrepreneurs only. Generally, a natural setting, active engagement and social processes should be embedded in the sampling method. However, as qualitative research aims at in-depth analysis, the representation becomes less pertinent in comparison to quantitative research (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

Quantitative researchers generally choose probability sampling as it is considered the most rigorous sampling for statistical use. In contrast, qualitative researchers prefer non-probability sampling where samples are chosen deliberately to include the features of the population in a relatively smaller sample size (Ritchie et al., 2014). The qualitative research contains some specific characteristics regarding sampling as it looks for rich information from respondents in their own contexts. Contrary to quantitative research, which is aimed at a larger

sample size in testing statistical significance, qualitative research is usually conducted with a smaller sample size for in-depth and contextual understanding (Miles et al., 2014).

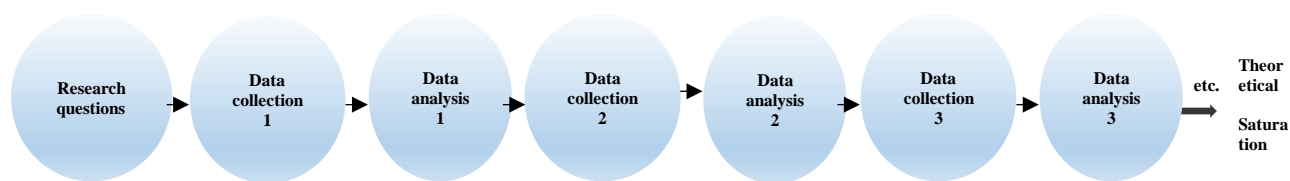
Therefore, sampling in qualitative research is characterised by a smaller sample size, context preference and in-depth study. Qualitative research can be carried out by employing various types of sampling strategies, including purposive sampling, theoretical sampling and convenience sampling. Miles and Huberman (1994) present various types of sampling strategies, such as maximum variation, homogeneity, critical case, theory base, confirming and disconfirming cases, snowball or chain, extreme or deviant case, typical case, intensity, politically important, random purposeful, stratified purposeful, criterion, opportunistic, combination or mixed and convenience. They propose to use a different inquiry method to match their purposes. For instance, if the purpose of the inquiry is to focus, reduce, simplify and facilitate group interviewing, then homogeneous sampling is well suited. The current research intended to find examples of a theoretical construct and thereby elaborate and examine that the theoretical sampling would be a better fit.

To this end, this research used the theoretical sampling strategy as it facilitates researchers in approaching the most suitable migrant entrepreneurs who may contribute to developing theoretical constructs regarding entrepreneurial skills and attitudes towards adopting technological innovations. 'Theoretical sampling is an approach to sampling in which the researcher samples incidents, people or units on the basis of their potential contribution to the development and testing of theoretical constructs' (Ritchie et al., 2014, p.115). This approach is helpful in capturing subjective aspects from appropriate participants, which can contribute to the theory building process. According to Glaser (1992), theoretical sampling is the process of generating theory through jointly collecting, coding and analysing data, which directs where and what data to collect next so that the researcher could develop an expected theory as it emerges. However, the current research is not aimed at building new theories; rather it uses and consolidates existing theories in new ways to discover emerging constructs that could provide a better understanding of the research questions. In other words, the existing theories will be assessed against the new emerging constructs derived from empirical data analysis, which might better explain the current research problems. In the end, theories could remain the same, be abandoned or modified, or more new propositions may emerge providing new insights (Walsham, 1995).

Although a theoretical sampling strategy is not sequential, like purposive sampling, nor convenient, like convenience sampling, it is appropriate for an exploratory study where it is difficult to find an intended sample (Ritchie et al., 2014). There is no research available as of

now in the context of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK. Therefore, by applying an iterative process, the researcher would have the opportunity to collect, code, analyse and look for further samples until reaching to the point of saturation where there would be no new information available. The unit of analysis can be a person, an organisation, a part of thereof or a social process having experiences in the subject of inquiry (Myres, 2009). Regarding the context of current research about migrant entrepreneurs, the unit of analysis is the owner of a professional service industry or firm itself. Those migrant Nepalese entrepreneurs or firms include accounting firms, law firms, engineering consultancy firms, health care services, research and educations, IT firms and marketing consultancy firms based in the UK.

The researcher used his existing network to approach prospective respondents, including members of the Nepalese diaspora residing in the UK, namely: Non-Resident Nepali Association UK, Britain Nepal Chamber of Commerce (BNCC), The Society of Nepalese Professionals UK and Nepalese Embassy to the UK. Upon receiving information about Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs from such governmental, non-governmental and social organisations, the respondents were selected following theoretical sampling. Although initially well-known networks were used to find prospective respondents, later a theoretical sampling method and snowball approach helped the researcher to reach and select the participants until confirming a sufficient number of Nepalese migrant professional entrepreneurs. Thirty-one Nepalese migrant professional entrepreneurs from professional service industries who are also adapting digital means were interviewed using a semi-structured interview method. The guiding sample size for this research was 30 as this number remains in between the prescribed interviews sizes (Cresswell, 1998; Morse, 1994; Ritchie et al., 2003). However, this research considered a sample size large enough to capture all possible perceptions. At the same time, there is a need to avoid collecting data too large as it may become repetitive and eventually superfluous. Thus, this research followed the concept of saturation until the collection of new data did not capture any new ideas (Glaser and Strauss, 1967), and such an objective was achieved when the number of interviewees reached 31. Since the history of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK is very short, compared to other migrants, this research considered only first-generation migrants in the sample because mostly people engaging in business are from the first generation. Figure 3.1 illustrated below demonstrates how theoretical sampling helps in data collection analysis and further data collection until saturation is achieved.



(Source: Punch, 2009, p. 133).

Figure 3.1: Theoretical sampling: data-collection/data-analysis relationships

The above-mentioned figure represents the theoretical sampling that demands iterative data collection and analysis process until it reaches theoretical saturation. In the current study, the researcher used research questions based on the three themes as stated in the previous section to enquire as to the experiences of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK. The first-stage interviews, which were conducted at the entrepreneurs' workplaces between April and August 2018, lasted around 30 and 45 minutes. As soon as the interviews were completed, they were transcribed and analysed whilst adopting procedures as described in the data analysis section. First-stage data analysis outcomes directed the second stage of data collection. Likewise, the second stage of data analysis guided the third stage of data collection, and the same activities were repeated until theoretical saturation was achieved. This means that data collection and the analysis cycle continued until any new or similar ideas begin repeating within any new data collection. The data saturation stage was achieved when after 31 responders, as discussed earlier. While approaching those selected participants, the researcher transparently communicated all aspects of the interview beforehand by explicitly agreeing on shared expectations with all interviewees. In line with Miles and Huberman's (1994) suggestion, the guidelines the current research utilised are as follows:

Table 3.6: Participant agreement guidelines

Point of understanding	Briefs
How much time and efforts will be involved?	The interview will last about 45 to 60 minutes.
What kind of data collection is involved?	The interview will be focused on research questions that broadly intend to understand the experiences of doing business, adaptation and networking, acquiring and contextualising entrepreneurial knowledge and the use of technological means.
Is participation voluntary?	Yes. Participation is voluntary and can be altered and withdrawn at any point.
Who will design and steer the study?	The researcher will facilitate the interview and capture the real-life experiences of participants through semi-structured interviews.
Will materials from participants be treated confidentially?	Yes. The researcher is committed to the anonymity and privacy of any information.
Will participants' anonymity be maintained?	Yes. Unless participants do not permit to disclose it.
Who will produce descriptive and explanatory products?	The researcher.
Will participants review and critique interim and final products?	Yes, they will be given an opportunity to review the explanations and interpretations.
What benefits will accrue to participants – both the informants and researcher?	The researcher will benefit through insights, recognition, promotion, grant or awards and consults, whereas participants will benefit from a chance to reflect, clarifying ideas, learning others experiences and networking.

Data management is very important because a huge amount of data collected from interviews must be set up in such a way that, when required, they can be easily trackable flexible, readily available and verifiable. Miles and Huberman (1994) raise three main issues: ensuring high-quality and accessible data, documentation of analysis and retention of the data and data analysis. Levine (1985) suggests five general principles for an effective storage and retrieval system for qualitative data: 1. Formatting: the layout of the field notes may include

the researcher's name, the site, name of the participants and so on. Also, field work notes can be on a different form of paper or computer file. 2. Cross-referral: linking the information of one file to the other in such a way that all related information can be found easily. Relational database managers can help accomplish such an objective easily. 3. Indexing: is another important principle of data management which is to assign the texts or numbers as codes to the data set, through which categories are defined clearly. These codified categories are organised in a codebook. 4. Abstracting: as an important principle of data management, abstracting means to condense and summarise longer materials. Finally, 5. Pagination: is to use unique numbers or letters to paginate the field notes allows the researcher to locate data easily. Although these principles are fit for manual data manipulation, they are equally important for computerised systems as well (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Table 3.7: Factsheets for data manipulation

Activities	Details
Raw data or materials	Field notes, laptop, tape recorders and documents
Work-in-progress data	Write-ups, transcriptions and initial versions
Coded data	Write-ups with specific codes attached
The coding scheme or thesaurus	Successive iterations
Memos or other analytic materials	Researcher's reflections on the conceptual meaning of the data
Search and retrieval records	Information showing what coded chunks or data segments the researcher looked for during analysis, and the retrieved materials and records of links made among segments
Data displays	Matrices or networks used to display retrieved information, along with the associated analytic text. Revisited versions of these.
Analysis episodes	Documentation of what you did, step by step to assemble the displays and write the analytic text.
Report text	Successive drafts of what is written on the design, methods and findings of the study.
Record log or documentation	General chronological log or documentation of data collection and analysis work will be prepared.
Index	Preparation of a clear index for all the activities and materials mentioned above.

(Source: Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.46).

Factsheets for storing, retrieving and retaining materials with activities help current research in collecting and organising data. Materials for note taking and recording are used during the interview to capture the respondents' original statement, which are later transcribed and processed in the computer without losing the original spirit of the respondents' view. Likewise, other activities such as coding, displaying, analysing, summarising, record keeping and indexing are well documented in such a way as to quickly and efficiently retrieve that information when required.

3.5.3 Sample Profile

Beginning with the existing network, the researcher employed the snowball technique to approach the intended respondents as explained in sections 3.5.1 and 3.5.2. until reaching the saturation point. Altogether, 31 professionals were interviewed. As displayed in the table below, under the heading of first interview, six were from engineering sectors, seven from accounting, two from law firms, five from IT, eight from health sectors and three from others sectors, including two from education providers and one from money remittance. There was no intention of explicitly targeting any particular service, gender or group; instead, these respondents were approached randomly through snowball sampling techniques. Interestingly, these respondents included two pairs of spouses who were involved in similar businesses: one couple from accounting and the other one from health services. Engineers included structure and construction engineers, architects and civil engineers, whereas accountants also included tax advisors. Similarly, the health sector included general practitioners (doctors), dentists and nurses. The male and female ratio appeared to be 3:2.1. Table 3.8 exhibits the profile of respondents used in the current research at different stages.

Another category of respondents mentioned in Table 3.8 are respondents who also attended the revisit interviews. These were conducted during September and October 2018, with the aim of corroborating emerging themes and collecting further data in order to obtain any new information regarding any possible changes in their opinions from their earlier responses. During the second round of interviews, only 24 entrepreneurs could be approached due to their time constraints. Out of them, five of each were from engineering and accounting professions, two from law, three from IT, six from health and a further three from other fields, including two from education providers and one from money remittance. At this time, males were twice as prevalent females. This revisit interview enabled the researcher to enrich the data further, seek new perspectives and clarifications of the preliminary findings and corroborate the emerging themes as intended. Additionally, a focus group discussion was carried out with eight respondents to observe how they interacted around and debated the issues raised. The second-round interviews were captured through 10- to 15-minute audio recordings. A 90-minute video and audio recording of the group discussion was also made.

Table 3.8: Profiles of the respondents

First interview			Second interview				Focus group discussion		
April to August 2018			September to October 2018				1 March 2019		
Sectors	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Engineering	5	1	6	4	1	5	1	1	2
Accounting	5	2	7	4	1	5	3	0	3
Law	2	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	0
IT	2	3	5	1	2	3	1	0	1
Health	3	5	8	4	2	6	1	0	1
Education	0	2	2	0	2	2	0	0	0
Money transmitter	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1
Total	18	13	31	16	8	24	7	1	8

3.5.4 Pilot Study

For the purpose of assuring that the research instruments worked properly, the researcher interviewed four Nepalese migrant professional entrepreneurs, each representing a separate firm (i.e. accounting, engineering, health and IT firms), during the month of March 2018 as a part of the pilot interviews. These interviewees reflected on the predominant entrepreneurial activities of migrant entrepreneurs and provided opportunities for any necessary amendments to the instruments. This became a part of the preparation for the major study as most of the social science researchers conducted it for a trial run (Polit et al., 2001). The pilot test helped check if research protocols worked properly and whether the research questions captured the intended data to avoid project failure (Baker, 1994; De Vaus, 1993). The pilot study also enabled the researcher to judge the appropriateness of research methodological approaches adopted to investigate the experiences of migrant entrepreneurs.

Additionally, understanding specific environments, settings, group characteristics and languages provide an overview for how actual data collection will occur. Data collection and analysis activities, such as recording, note keeping, transcribing and verbatim explanations, were carried out during this pilot study. While doing so, ATLAS.ti, a computer-assisted programme, was used throughout the data collection and analysis process. These kinds of research engagements helped the researcher achieve a high level of confidence to proceed. In entrepreneurship research, many researchers justify that using a pilot study helps in refining future data collection and pre-testing the interview questions' validity (Tolstoy, 2014; Tseng and Johnsen, 2011). Similarly, the current research also benefited from its pilot study.

Table 3.9: Reflection of data collection diary

Before the interview	Interview day	After the interview
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Searched for possible candidates using existing networks - Matched the eventual candidate with the criteria - Referees were contacted for backup support so that possible respondents welcomed the researcher and were familiarised with the interview's intention - Shortlisted candidates were contacted for confirmation and sent the questionnaire - Met for coffee or arranged an initial meeting where possible, otherwise, built rapport through communication channels - Ensured that respondents felt worthwhile spending time and were assured of confidentiality - Scheduled the interview according to their availability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Checked all the materials and recording devices were ready to use - Left for the interview well in advance to avoid delay - Sent a polite reminder to the interviewee beforehand as they could have forgotten the appointment - Followed office procedure and waited for their call - Started with a greeting and rapport building - Made sure they knew what they were doing and the procedure of handling that data - Got permission before using recordings - Kept calm and focused on the research questions and the instruments - Alerted them about the conclusion and showed appreciation - Checked recording devices and other materials used during the interview 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stored all sets of information including interview recordings in a safe and secured place - Checked if every piece of information was noted and made an initial note about the interview - Allowed some time to think about what went well and what could have been better - Noted any improvements for the next interview and reassured if the questions needed further improvement - Started listening to audio recordings and transcribing them with potential note-making - Checked thoroughly for any information that could be missing or misunderstood as soon as the transcription was complete - Uploaded information onto ATLAS.ti and started the analysis

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Finalised the interview dates and backup plan in case any cancellation happens - Prepared for the interview day with all the interview materials and planned for the journey 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Made sure everything was up to date and smartly managed - Left with the impression that they are a valuable person and that it would be worth having another meeting 	
Revisit arrangement	Focus group discussion	Future contact
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - At this stage, respondents were more familiar and made direct contact for an appointment - Started with a brief explanation about what happened after the first interview and how their information helped to shape the research - Showed a strong desire to meet them and talk about initial research findings and how it might benefit their business - Upon setting an appointment, used the initial interview day technique as appropriate - After, interview techniques were followed similarly to the first interview phase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - All the techniques used in revisit arrangement were applied - Venue arranged at the heart of London for easy access to everyone - Food, drinks and travel were provided - Discussion questions were sent beforehand - A networking event was organised after the focus group discussion - A support facilitator arranged to record everything systematically - After, interview activities were followed as in the interview phases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Thank you note was sent to every respondent - A networking group was created for future communication

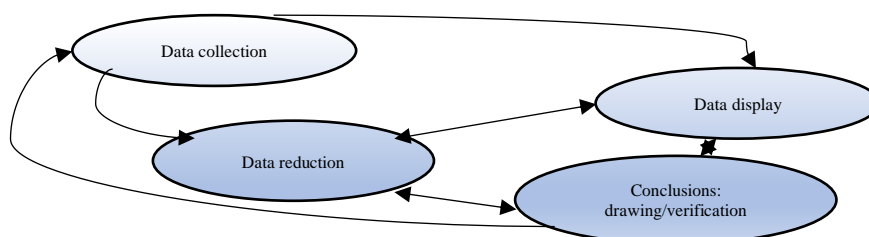
Reflection

- Close relationship with the respondents creates an open environment, but the interview may flout from the subject as topic can deviate due to informal talks. To avoid this, it is better to make them aware about time and subject constraints beforehand.
- Formal relationships can inhibit openness, and respondents may not openly disclose their feelings. To avoid this, multiple contact attempts and rapport building are very helpful.
- Knowing more about them and letting them know more about the researcher is very important as it helps to build trust.
- Comprehensive planning and rehearsal are keys to building up confidence.
- May encounter an unpredicted situation; therefore, adapting to contingencies is essential.

3.6 Data Analysis Techniques

Social researchers can use different types of data analysis techniques for the purpose of describing, explaining and interpreting data; however, considering the two distinct techniques (qualitative and quantitative), qualitative researchers use words and visual images, whereas quantitative researchers use numbers as the unit of analysis (Denscombe, 2010). The current research approach is qualitative by nature, and hence data are collected in the forms of notes, audio or videos, which is later transcribed and analysed to make meaningful interpretations. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest an interactive model (Figure 3.2) of data analysis comprising of four components: data collection, data reduction, data display and drawing and verifying conclusions. Data that are collected by interviewing Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs as explained in the semi-structured interview procedures in the earlier discussion has been considered by transforming transcripts, audio, videos and notes into a stronger dataset. This process includes simplifying, coding, sorting, selecting activities and so on.

Another important aspect of data analysis is to display the data in an organised and compressed form so that experiences, feelings and information captured during the interview could help better understand the phenomenon. It can be extended texts and summaries of the data considered. The outcome of data analysis is to draw meaningful conclusions. From the very beginning of the data collection process, qualitative research requires interpretations that are very crucial because they remind researchers about the meaning of patterns, explanations, casual flows and intentions. As this research employed theoretical sampling and interviews through semi-structured questions, the final conclusions may be achieved only when data collection is over. For Miles and Huberman (1994), verification is to test whether the meanings portrayed by the data are robust, credible and confirmable, which provide sufficient grounds for validity. The following interactive model articulates the interconnection amongst data collection, data reduction, data display, drawing a conclusion and achieving necessary verification, as well as displaying how they interact and are applied simultaneously.



(Source: Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Figure 3.2: Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model

The current research broadly employed a continuous interactive cyclical process as illustrated by the figure above. The interactive model proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) precisely demonstrates different streams of data collection and analysis; data collection, reduction, display and conclusion regularly interact before, during and after the data collection process. Thus, data collection and the analysis process are continuous and dynamic. It is interconnected and iteratively applied. For instance, as a pilot study, the first four interviews were taken and immediately transcribed and analysed to amend the interview questions. In the second stage, another three interviews were analysed, and the questions were finalised, as well as quotations, notes and codes that were recorded as it occurred. Interviewing, transcribing and analysing activities were completed simultaneously. By the time all the interviews were completed, most of the transcribing tasks were finished. Upon completing the remaining transcribing tasks, focus was given to analysis. During the whole process of data storing, editing, refining and analysing, although some or part of the activities are conducted manually, computer software was used mainly throughout the process.

Three current flows of activities: data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing/verification, were major activities carried out during the analysis. Data reduction represents the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and transforming the data that appear in written-up field notes or transcriptions. This activity starts prior to data collection – for instance, anticipatory data reduction (such as designing frameworks, defining cases, setting research questions) – and continues during actual data collection, such as writing summaries and notes and coding and discovering themes, until a final report is completed. As the current research followed qualitative data analysis, it reduced and transformed data through selection, summary or paraphrase to be subsumed in a larger pattern. Data display, another important flow of analysis activity, is to organise, compress and assemble the information to formulate conclusions. Qualitative data generally adopt extended texts to display, which helps in drawing conclusions. This research also used tables, flow charts and networks where appropriate. The final activity is drawing and verifying conclusions. This activity starts with the beginning of data collection, such as noting propositions, regularities and some special occurrences, and the final conclusion may not emerge until data collection is over. Conclusions must be verified as the analyst proceeds. The verification of the conclusions of the current research was achieved by revisiting field notes and reviewing colleagues. All three activities work parallel to each other. The next section draws a clear picture of how data were coded and themes were generated using ATLAS.ti.

3.6.1 Use of Computer-Assisted Coding

As discussed in the earlier section, coding is a word or phrase that is symbolically assigned to label segments of data by linking them to quotations. This can be done manually or automatically

through computer assistance. Computer-aided analysis reduces the data analysis time as it facilitates manage data systematically, efficiently and promptly (Tesch, 1989). Qualitative data analysis software (QDAS) is common among social science researchers, and ATLAS.ti is one of the most-used software designed for qualitative data analysis (Woods et al., 2016). The use of programmes like ATLAS.ti can help coding (labelling segments of data such as an attribute, property, dimension, etc.) work faster, better and more precisely (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This computer-aided design is very useful for thematic content analysis, which executes various processes including cataloguing, creating and organising codes, as well as adding code descriptions. It also provides an opportunity to create memos and notes about specific findings (Friese and Ringmayr, 2011). Furthermore, it allows a researcher to organise and catalogue data flexibly and efficiently. Other important aspects such as developing possible relationships between codes, categories and sub-categories are very important features of this software, which create networks by identifying similarities and differences in relationships (Woods et al., 2016). ATLAS.ti efficiently links codes to quotations (marked pieces of data) and documents easily and quickly by navigating the datasets.

Conclusively, to identify, describe and understand people's views, themes, patterns in the data, relationships between concepts and arguments and to create an intended report is systematically and efficiently possible using ATLAS.ti. The current research aims to collect and analyse data from semi-structured interviews in an organised, transparent, integrated and evidence-based manner that appropriately matches with the features of ATLAS.ti. Therefore, this software was selected as the best fit for the purpose of the current research. Based on the above discussion, data coding and data analysis were carried out in the following stages:

Table 3.10: Overview of data coding and analysis stages

Data Coding and Analysis	
Stage 1	Recordings of interviews from Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs will be transcribed and uploaded into the ATLAS.ti software. Then the transcription will be broken down into words, phrases or sentences, and those that are relevant to the research questions will be selected. For example, attitudes towards investing in human capital, entrepreneurial skills, acceptance or rejection of digital means, performance and outcomes, unique experience and perceptions, views on theories and phenomenon and so on.
Stage 2	A brief summary of the chosen sentences, words or phrases will be written. This is called open coding. Then a list of codes will be generated and reduced to a manageable size. The original transcripts will be compared against codes iteratively until new ideas are generated.
Stage 3	Creating closed codes. This stage aims to find the themes. While doing this, the previous codes will be reduced by approximately 50 percent, constructing sub-codes. Again, those sub-codes will be reduced by up to 50 percent, making overarching themes. These final themes should reflect the research purpose and be exhaustive and sensitive to the data. In the end, there will be a range of themes: expected or general themes, unexpected themes, hard to classify themes, key themes and sub-themes. The process of how the final themes were developed through different stages of coding is illustrated in Figure 3.3 below.
Stage 4	All the interview codes within the themes will be collected. Then the ideas that make up that theme and sub-theme, their interactions with each other and evidence of relationships between the key themes will be examined.
Stage 5	This process will be repeated and compared with original transcripts to check if new themes are emerging while continually examining the ideas and adjusting them if necessary.
Stage 6	After finishing all the interviews on developing themes, the next stage is to write up a narrative of the themes, subthemes and codes and to discuss their interrelationships.
<i>During this process, researcher would allow new ideas to emerge, maintaining a systematic method and transparency.</i>	

As stated in Table 3.11, the following figures display how themes are connected to the initial and emerging codes created in ATLAS.ti.

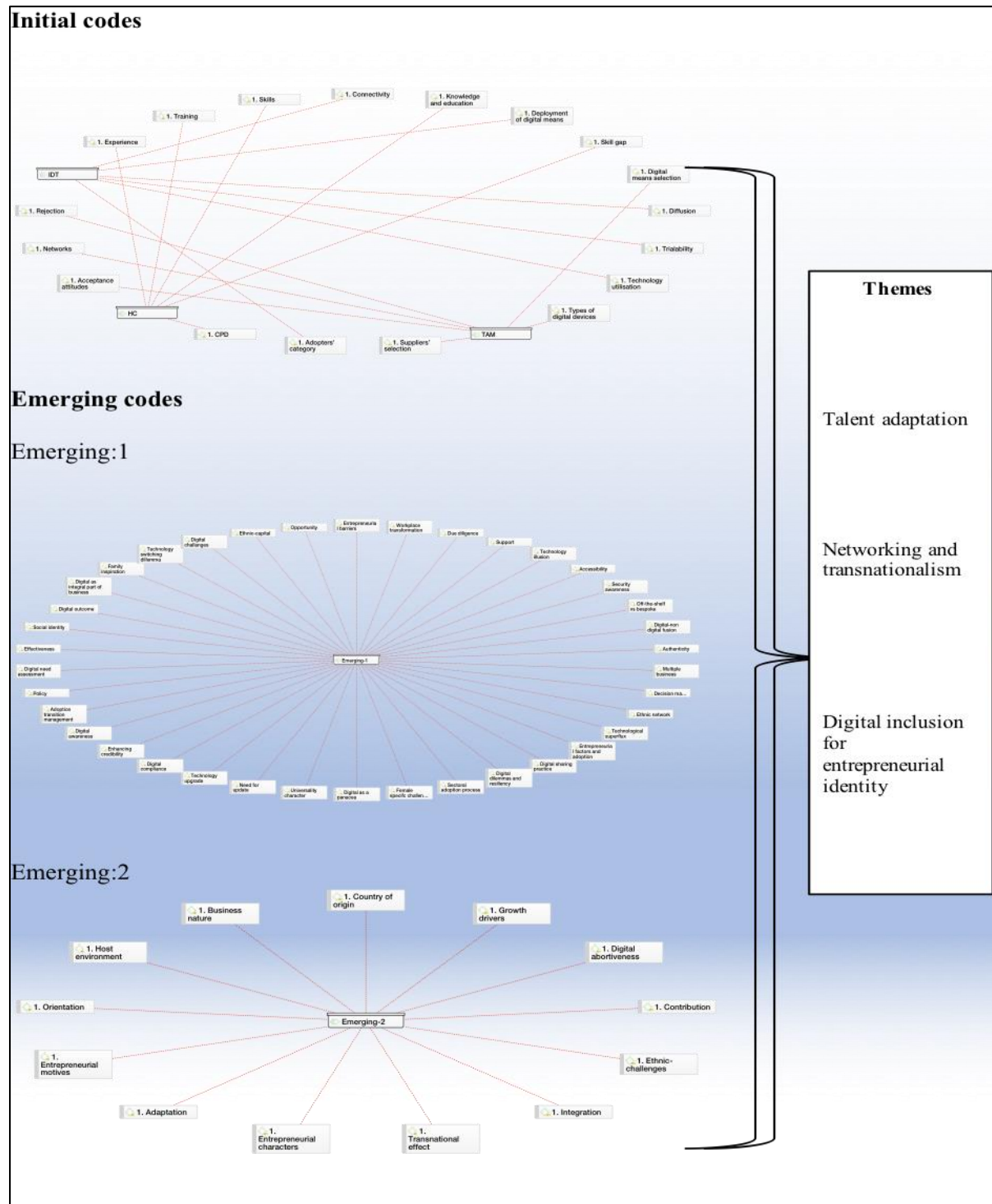


Figure 3.3: The process of developing codes and translating them into themes

Using the sophisticated facilities of ATLAS.ti., all the transcriptions were uploaded in a project titled ‘data analysis’. All documents were read thoroughly and repeatedly, line by line. Where necessary, comments and notes were recorded by comparing the constructs of the initially adopted theories (human capital, technology acceptance and innovation diffusion) and interview questions. While sensing meanings, initial codes were grounded in the quotations expressed by the respondents, and those codes were grouped under HCT, TAM and IDT. Many surprises, contradictions and overlaps were found and were categorised iteratively. As illustrated in the figure above under the heading of initial codes, there are 18 codes altogether, which match the constructs of three theories – HCT, TAM and IDT. Furthermore, as the codes emerged, the researcher accounted two more code networks named Emerging:1 and Emerging:2, which are the stages where the researcher retained, extended, reduced and interpreted meanings to draw conclusions in refining further codes and developing themes. Using an iterative approach, the researcher was able to make sense of those codes by developing three main themes (talent adaptation, innovation adaptation and knowledge transformation and networking and transnationalism), as shown in the figure above. The summary of how codes are driven from theories and developed into new codes and themes is shown in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11 demonstrates how the initial codes were derived from the constructs of human capital, technology acceptance and innovation diffusion as indicated under the heading of ‘theory-driven codes’. After a careful analysis of data, new codes were drawn as they emerged, which are shown under the title of ‘data-driven emerging codes’. Those codes were abstracted using ATLAS.ti, as shown in Figure 3.3 above. Following the further analysis and reduction process, new codes were developed, as indicated under the heading of ‘new codes’. While making sense of those codes, the three themes were developed as the outcome of data analysis and succinctly discussed in the result and discussion sections in chapters four, five and six. As shown in the table above, the themes ‘human capital adaptation’ and ‘innovation adaptation and knowledge transformation’ are guided by fundamental theories. On the contrary, constructs related to ‘networking and transnationalism’ were revealed directly by the data itself. Thus, although it was not initially thought to use network-specific social embeddedness theory, now it becomes a contributing lens in the current research. This is because most of the respondents asserted the importance of connectivity and network as their strategy to achieve business success in the host-home contexts. The summary of the code development process is presented in the table below.

Table 3.11: Code formation summary

Guiding theories	Theory-driven codes	Data-driven emerging codes	New codes	Themes
Human Capital	education and experience	upskilling, skills, CPD, awareness, capacity-building and unfamiliarity, acculturation,	talent adaptation assimilation integration	talent adaptation
Technology Acceptance	ease of use usefulness	self-efficacy matching updating and upskilling	innovation adoption continuous knowledge transformation	innovation adaptation and knowledge transformation
Innovation Diffusion	willingness ability knowledge implementation	digitalisation involvement fusion balance	digital inclusion trade off	
		network-specific social embeddedness	host-home connectivity diaspora digital link	networking and transnationalism

3.7 Quality Criteria for Interpretive Entrepreneurship Research

In contrast to quantitative research, there has been a huge debate about ensuring reliability, validity and objectivity in qualitative research. Many authors argue that the quality of qualitative research cannot be judged by the same criteria as quantitative research (Denzin, 1988; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). In qualitative research, reliability, preferably termed as confirmability or dependability, represents replicability, whereas validity, preferably termed as credibility and plausibility, refer to the accurate reflection of the studied phenomenon (Lewis et al., 2014).

The interpretive methodology is vital to reflect both the nature of the objects and question

types to be inquired (Leitch et al., 2010); therefore, many important questions of entrepreneurship can be answered through an interpretivist approach and method (Gartner and Birley, 2002). Issues in research quality, often denoted as truthfulness, integrity, rigour, robustness and aptness, have become challenges for interpretivist researchers in entrepreneurship (Leitch et al., 2010). Symon and Cassell (2012) argue that qualitative research cannot be assured using the same criteria as quantitative research. However, ensuring the appropriate use of elements such as subjectivity, interpretation and emancipation, qualitative research can be rigorous and believable. Table 3.12 exhibits how different researchers have proposed different quality criteria, which are important to assist an interpretivist entrepreneurship researcher to establish and demonstrate the quality of the study.

Table 3.12: Overview of qualitative research criteria

Yardley (2000)	Lincoln and Guba (1985)	Klein and Myers (1999)	Application to the current research
Sensitivity to the context: considering previous research, participants' views and ethical aspects.	Credibility: ensuring respondents' views fit with the researcher's reconstruction and representation.	The Fundamental Principle of the Hermeneutic Circle: human understanding is the outcome of a constant iteration in between the interdependent meanings of parts and the whole that they form.	Respondents' views will be captured without losing authenticity. Due consideration will be made during the literature review, data collection, analysis and interpretation.
Commitment and rigour: active engagement with the topic and participants, as well as thoughtful data collection and analysis.	Transferability: researcher should provide sufficient case information to the readers.	The Principle of Contextualization: a critical reflection of the research context is vital in meaning-making. Thus, the research context should be shared with readers. The Principle of Interaction Between the Researchers and the Subjects: the importance of interaction between researchers and subjects. How the research materials were socially constructed.	During the interview, active engagement will be maintained with the participants, and while doing so, context and subject-related information will be captured in a lively manner. Due consideration will be given in the process of transcribing, analysing and interpreting the interview records.
Transparency and coherence: providing clear and detailed	Dependability: assurance that a logical, traceable and well-	The Principle of Abstraction and Generalisation: application of theories and concepts (that describe the nature of	Original and detailed data and information will be documented and stored by sustaining transparency. In every step of data analysis and

<p>information about data analysis and conclusions.</p>	<p>documented research process has been applied.</p>	<p>human understanding and social action) while interpreting data. The Principle of Dialogical Reasoning: researcher must be sensitive to the possible contradictions between the theoretical preconceptions guiding the research design and findings.</p>	<p>interpretation, the sensitivity of theoretical preconceptions will be affirmed.</p>
<p>Impact and importance: clear articulation of the theoretical and practical significance of the findings.</p>	<p>Confirmability: ensuring that the data and interpretations are not figments.</p>	<p>The Principle of Multiple Interpretations: researcher must be sensitive to possible differences among the participants' multiple interpretations. The Principle of Suspicion: researcher must be sensitive to any possible biases and systematic distortions from the interviewees' narratives.</p>	<p>The researcher is aware of the sensitivities of biases and distortions. Hence, balanced, transparent, evidence-based and fair interpretations will be made. Those interpretations will be passed onto the respective interviewees for verification so that confirmability can be achieved. Also, a rigorous discussion will be made by comparing the existing literature and empirical findings.</p>

One of the most challenging tasks for qualitative researchers is to ensure the quality criteria of the methodology because of its natural plurality and the differing criteria (Markus and Lee, 2000; Sarker et al., 2013). After analysing the list of criteria for assessing the quality of qualitative research, Symon and Cassell argue:

As qualitative research is so diverse, our overall view is that qualitative researchers should draw on those elements of quality that they think are most relevant to their own research and be careful in their writings to indicate to potential assessors what the aims of the research were and therefore how it should be judged. (2012, p.221)

As discussed above, many researchers agree that qualitative research can be assessed implicitly on a novel and interest basis in contrast to the internal validity and external validity criteria of quantitative research (Denzin, 1988; Leitch et al., 2010; Symon and Cassell, 2012). In interpretivist entrepreneurship research, the quality can be enhanced not through the ex-post assessment of the truthfulness against research findings but intrinsically through the ethical and practical validation of the design and implementation; thus, validation as a process rather than an outcome assists interpretivist entrepreneurship researchers to establish and demonstrate the quality of their work (Leitch et al., 2010). Therefore, the current research intended to justify its quality through rigorous reflection on the practices discussed above throughout the research process.

3.8 Research Reflexivity and Participatory Ethics

The main objective of this section is to alert the researcher of possible wrongdoings and to take ownership of the research outcomes. Especially throughout the research process, the researcher must regularly interact with migrant entrepreneurs and other potential sources, and there may be some expected and unexpected issues that may be encountered time and again. The basic stance of this researcher is not to adversely impact anyone during this research and to maintain research integrity and quality.

Denscombe (2010) suggests that researchers at least maintain the following measures: the anonymity of the participants, confidentiality of the data, clear communication about the nature of the research and the involvement of and voluntarily consent from the participants. In addition, the researcher should maintain the following professionalism and integrity: operating within the prevailing law, openly and honestly engaging with participants, upholding good standards of science and prioritising personal safety. On the other hand, reflexivity is an awareness of the researcher's role in the practice of research, and this is influenced by the object of the research, enabling the researcher to acknowledge the way in which he or she affects both the research process and outcomes (Haynes, 2014).

In the quest for producing valuable knowledge from the very beginning, it is important to set research objectives and publish the research report. The relationship between knower and knowledge could be questioned in many ways, for instance, social, ethical and political issues, which should be responded to through reflexivity as it creates accountability (Haynes, 2014). Identities such as gender, race and class become crucial and hence must be dealt with carefully during the research process and presentations, which can be maintained through reflexivity (Pink, 2001).

All kinds of research must address ethical dilemmas and issues since they are integral parts of the research process and are encountered in everyday practice, mainly procedural ethics and ethics in practice (Guillemin and Gillam, 2004). For instance, every researcher at Royal Holloway, University of London must go through ethical approval processes by submitting self-evaluation forms available on the university webpage. Stage one contains six basic questions that assess if any researcher should have to go through the stage second, which is a full ethical review. Someone who is dealing with vulnerable people, animals or any potential hazards during field work should undergo even more rigorous procedures and declare any intentions. Most of the organisations should have an ethical approval committee in practice, which Royal Holloway does. Reflexivity helps enhance ethical issues and understand the nature of ethics and its impacts in practice.

Royal Holloway, University of London has clear guidance regarding how to maintain the highest level of integrity and ethical responsibility in line with the Concordat to Support Research Integrity signed by UK Universities, the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) and Councils UK. Therefore, the university expects all researchers to ensure appropriate ethical issues and to comply with ethical, legal and professional frameworks, and the University Research Ethics Committee (RES) oversees such frameworks. The following is the process of enhancing ethical approval for the current research:

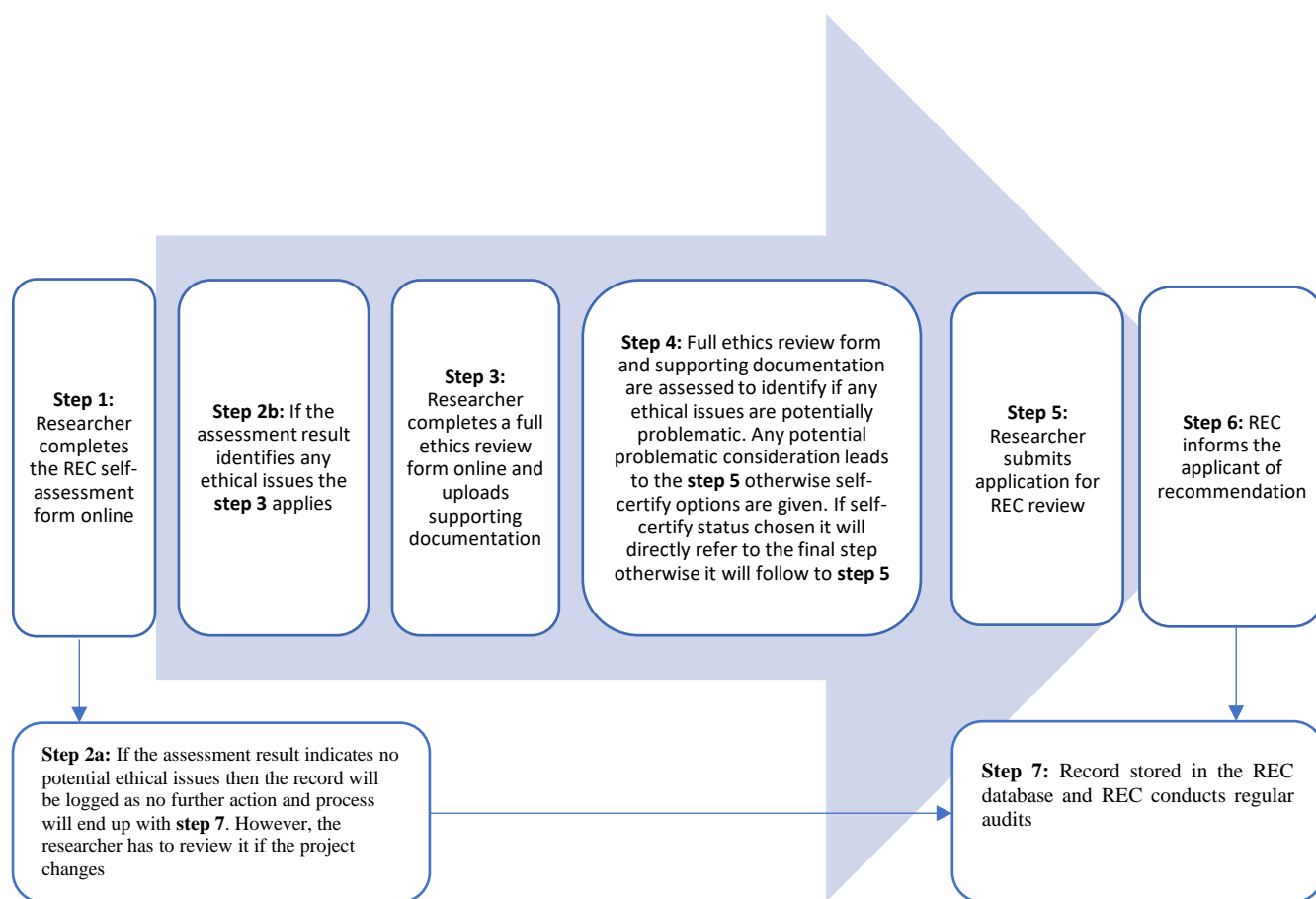


Figure 3.4: The ethical process

A well-designed qualitative research understands and respects the gravity of ethics and reflects the complexity, sensitivity and details of human interaction in practice (Basit, 2013). A researcher's beliefs, values and principles influence judgments that consequently impact the research process and its outcomes. Also, the investigator should be responsible and accountable for those value and research decisions (Basit, 2013). Therefore, reflexivity has become an important aspect of qualitative research. Responsible academic researchers should devise an access plan to be confirmed beforehand with the respondents. This may be carried out by physically accessing their premises for a face-to-face interview. An ethical procedure should align with the ethical guidelines. Respondents are informed well before the interview and asked to sign a consent form. Therefore, the researcher addresses all possible ethical concerns, including privacy, informed consent, anonymity, secrecy and being truthful to the person or organisation concerned with this research. For this research, the researcher fulfilled all ethical considerations as discussed above and developed an informed form that includes personal contact details, the purpose of the research, use of data, a statement that ensures the participants right to withdraw any information, details of how information will be stored and destroyed if unused, methods of maintaining confidentiality and use and sharing conditions.

Although anonymity is diminishing due to digital presence, digital tiling effects have been used when reporting photos and videos (Miles et al., 2014). Therefore, the researcher genuinely considered the issue of privacy, confidentiality and anonymity and continued the investigation accordingly. The respondents were assured that their identity would not be disclosed unless consent was given. The researcher maintained confidentiality by anonymising participants' identities while organising data.

3.9 Reflecting on the Role of a Researcher

As a novice researcher, I started my enquiry with many puzzles and much curiosity in mind. A researcher's beliefs on philosophical assumptions are deeply rooted in the research process (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Crotty 1998). For instance, the ontological and epistemological position of the researcher influences the choice of research techniques, qualitative or quantitative, and consequently, the research technique frames the methods of enquiry and tools of analysis. I endeavoured to neutralise the possibility of influences, as qualitative research is more interested in an interviewee's views rather than in reflecting an interviewer's concerns (Bryman, 2012). Seamless questions, discourses, interactions and experiences helped to shape my research position as an interpretivist during the qualitative research journey. Based on an in-depth and thorough review of entrepreneurship literature, I found human capital and technology perspectives, a combination of the technology acceptance model and innovation diffusion, as the theoretical lens for my enquiry. These theories became the foundation of my semi-structured questions. Since my questions are theory led, I could minimise the chance of being an influencer in devising investigation instruments. A semi-structured interview method was adopted as a means of data collection, and building rapport was a convenient task for me as I am familiar with Nepalese culture. However, I was very much aware that familiarity might deviate the interview from the main subject of the enquiry. Since I was able to position myself as the researcher, asking questions and guiding through the probes while at the same time being from a similar background, the interviewees were enthusiastic and more open to sharing their experiences and perceptions.

Perinton (2001) advocates that reflexivity can be accounted for using typologies: seemingly accidental, benign, methodology chapter, textual guerrilla warfare and socio-political. From these, characteristics of the methodology chapter are suggested to be an appropriate way to embed work-thesis in research and this typology reasonably applies here. As an interpretivist researcher, my role was to capture the lived experience (Mortari, 2015) through interactions with migrant professional entrepreneurs in the service sectors and to analyse and interpret the meanings to reflect their perceptions and behaviours. From the

beginning, I was aware of the researcher's role in the practice of research, acknowledging that any possible influences in the research process and outcomes are important aspects to consider (Haynes, 2014). My background was similar to my respondents, Nepalese origin migrant professionals who had higher education in their country of origin and successfully migrated and settled in the UK. Unlike the traditionally hidden role of an author in modern qualitative research, I took this as an opportunity to talk about myself and my own experiences and learnings, as it is considered a fundamental part of the research process (Perinton, 2001). In relation to the insider–outsider dichotomy, my research has benefited from me being an insider and sharing an ethnic background with the migrant professionals, especially when gaining access to the network for data collection; I could understand emotions, feelings, symbolic meanings, culture and values, which helped to capture their lived experience and interpret the results.

I found the study subjects to be very welcoming and willing to share their business experiences once I was able to establish a sound relationship, evidenced when they happily offered me coffee, introduced me to their team members and showed their business premises. However, it was not very easy to get their approval as some did not respond readily at first. Building mutual trust and securing an interview appointment with some professionals was a daunting task for me because I was viewed as an outsider by some respondents. In other words, although I was from the same ethnic network, I was unknown to them. Through a series of mobile calls, follow-up emails, using previous respondents as referees, visiting them in person in their offices and some social events, I was able to prepare them. I encountered some aggression when I used the word 'migrants' although I was also a migrant from the same country. However, they felt proud when I used the words 'Nepalese origin'. Afterwards, I used the word 'migrant' cautiously to procure greater trust and respect. Identities such as gender, race and class become crucial and thus, must be dealt with carefully during the research process and presentations, which can be maintained through reflexivity (Pink, 2001). I realised that as a researcher, a sense of sensitivity is critical, and a researcher should understand the likes and dislikes of their study subjects and choose words carefully. Well-designed qualitative research understands and respects the gravity of ethics and reflects the complexity, sensitivity and details of human interaction in practice (Basit, 2013). Sometimes, there was a kind of tension in setting question-specific open engagement, as the respondents would instead move towards social and political issues to deviate from responding to a specific research question. In other words, in some cases they knowingly or unknowingly wandered from the context so that I had to tactfully probe to bring their focus back to the question.

Initially, I thought at times people might hesitate to disclose their realities, hide part of their experiences or exaggerate their real situations as I am from the same ethnic network. To avoid such a situation, I transparently and honestly disclosed my research intention and committed to keeping the confidentiality of their responses beforehand. This enabled me to gain the confidence of my respondents. Although in very few instances I found some inconsistencies in their responses, my second phase interview and focus group discussion allowed me to clarify those aspects and gain new insights and updates from their previous responses. This taught me that by following a longitudinal approach (McCoy, 2017), a researcher can interact with the respondents in multiple phases through which a methodological rigour can be achieved, as both the researcher and respondents have opportunities to reflect their experiences and learning over time.

Observing their expressions, I could easily get a sense of what their business experiences were like. I readily saw their emotions and expressions, not only in words but also in actions. I realised that transcribing the interview immediately after it was conducted is very important to capture their experience without losing its essence. Listening to the audio, typing the words and reflecting on their emotions and expressions simultaneously was very useful. Data collection and analysis were carried out concurrently as I adopted an iterative process, more specifically following the interactive qualitative data analysis as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). I analysed the data and categorised the theoretical constructs, as well as re-categorised some new and surprising codes as emerging. The relationships between data, researcher and respondents reflected and translated constructively in the interpretation.

3.10 Summary

In conclusion, the current study broadly aims to investigate the varying experiences of migrant entrepreneurs in the UK. During this studying, multiple theoretical lenses (HCT and the combination of IDT and TAM) were adopted. In line with a subjectivist viewpoint, an interpretive approach was applied. Qualitative data were collected using semi-structured interviews with Nepalese migrant professional entrepreneurs who were approached using a snowball technique and motivated through the theoretical sampling method. Individual migrant entrepreneurs or firm representatives were considered as the unit of analysis. A semi-structured interview procedure and instrumental guide were taken into consideration. Recordings and notes were carefully transcribed, organised, coded and categorised to develop themes and constructs for interpreting and drawing conclusions. The set of information was analysed using ATLAS.ti. The information was verified through corroborative revisits and a focus group discussion where the researcher received an opportunity to share preliminary findings while

collecting further information. Interpretive quality criteria as suggested by Klein and Myers (1999) were applied throughout the research process. Further, ethical rigour was met using the guidelines to understand and respect the gravity of ethics and reflect the complexity, sensitivity and details of human interaction in practice. Finally, reflexivity and a reflective account in the research process discussed in section 3.9, followed by a chapter summary.

Chapter 4 Human Capital Adaptation

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services manage their human capital to adapt to new environments. Migrant entrepreneurs bring their knowledge, experience and socio-cultural and economic capital to their host countries in a quest for better businesses and improved lives. However, they often strive to adapt to their host environments or professional services by choosing between employment and entrepreneurship. Looking at the differing experiences between Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in their home-host environments, this study aimed to uncover how they adapted their human capital to a new host environment.

Migrant entrepreneurship remains a source of polarised opinions. Some view migrants as talents and cross-border innovators (Fackler et al., 2019) or contributors to entrepreneurial activity when compared to non-immigrants (Peroni et al., 2016). Others may consider migrants to be a problem (Harrison et al., 2019) and a burden on the welfare systems of developed host countries (Razin and Wahba, 2015). Differences between home and host countries are such that the requirements for different skill sets and human capital are complex, as entrepreneurial endeavours are deeply rooted in environmental conditions (Shepherd and Wiklund, 2019). Balancing such conditions, migrant entrepreneurs undertake a journey to obtain, retain and sometimes regain the unique resources – including human capital – that they had in their home country and seek to replicate and improve upon it in their host country (Hobfoll, 2001). Embedded contexts (Shepherd et al., 2019), such as the capital brought by migrants into their new host environments and the capital gained within, influence their entrepreneurial endeavours. The entrepreneurial behaviours of immigrants differ based on the economic and institutional environments of their countries of origin (Lassmann and Busch, 2015), and they may not fit well into the different settings of their host countries. Indeed, the challenges they face are often the result of poor adaptability (Ley, 2000). Migrant entrepreneurs must attune themselves into their new environment if they are to thrive rather than fail.

Although migrant entrepreneurs are generally more risk-orientated than native ones (Hart et al., 2015), their degrees of success vary greatly (Ndofor and Priem, 2011). The adaptation and integration of new migrant entrepreneurs is not always easy due to their scope being restricted by institutional and regulatory barriers (Kloosterman and Rath, 2003) that had not been designed in relation to the attributes of ethnic and migrant entrepreneurs (Ram et al., 2017). As an adaptation response, the different forms of capital – e.g. economic, human, socio-

cultural and symbolic (Bourdieu, 1985) – carried by migrant entrepreneurs can help them to achieve entrepreneurial success when contextualised into a host environment (Cruickshank and Dupuis, 2015). Contextual business information is crucial in making correct entrepreneurial decisions (Shepherd et al., 2015). It can be assumed that the level of difficulty depends on the individual entrepreneur’s capacity for adaptation, but research in this direction is still limited.

Adaptation is the ability to fit and re-establish oneself into a new and changing environment whilst keeping, updating and leveraging one’s original attributes, resources and identity (Berry, 1997; Ruhl, 2011; Ryan et al., 2008). The researcher argues that the adaptation endeavours of migrant entrepreneurs can be better explained by applying HCT (Alvarez and Barney, 2007; Becker, 1964; Shane, 2000). Research shows that entrepreneurs in possession of higher levels of human capital are more adaptive to changing contexts and are sensitive to innovation (Liu et al., 2014). The researcher expects this to be particularly relevant in the case of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services where research is limited, lacking consistency or in need of a more holistic and relational approach (Crowley-Henry et al., 2018). Looking at their formal education, training and adaptive experience, the research question for this study is ‘How can migrant entrepreneurs in professional services adapt their human capital to new host environments?’ This question is investigated using semi-structured interviews conducted with 31 Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK who were engaged in professional service sectors.

This study makes two important contributions. First, the findings extend HCT by examining talent adaptation related to education and experience in the context of migrant entrepreneurship across multiple industries. This could inform HCT around capabilities, cross-cultural challenges, knowledge exchanges and innovation in international business. Second, diverging from most previous studies, which generalised their findings based on evidence drawn from low-skilled migrant entrepreneurs, the research extends the definition of migrant entrepreneurs in the methodology and scope by focusing on those working in professional services.

4.2 Theoretical Background and Literature Review

4.2.1 Defining Migrant Entrepreneurs in Professional Services

Migrant entrepreneurs can establish businesses that differ in the skill level required, from low to high skills. Whereas low-skilled migrant entrepreneurship is characterised by ethnic-specific, low margin and corner-shop businesses (Ishaq et al., 2010; Ram et al., 2017), professional services and high-skilled entrepreneurship are linked to more global, high-tech, knowledge intensive and sophisticated businesses (Saxenian, 2002). Studies show that low-skilled migrants find work in the ethnic and informal economy, often starting businesses as

their only opportunity to integrate, while high-skilled migrants operate in the formal and global economy (Cruz et al., 2018), where entrepreneurship is one of the many options available to them. Although research into migrants in professional services is limited, in general, it shows that some engage in part-time entrepreneurship whenever the opportunity arises (Marshall et al., 2019). This study contributes to this specific avenue of research by exploring how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services adapt their education, experience and talent to their business in new host environments.

4.2.2 Adaptation and Migrant Entrepreneurship

Given the contextual differences, migrant entrepreneurs must navigate through the linguistic, cultural, social, economic and institutional challenges stemming from the differences between their home and host environments (Ishaq et al., 2010; Ram et al., 2017). They are also concerned about the outcomes of adaptation, as the acculturation process may result in the lowest form of acculturation – assimilation – or the highest – integration (Berry, 1997; Rudmin, 2003). Yet a direct link between human capital and the ability of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services to adapt has not been addressed sufficiently by research.

Adaptation has been predominantly studied from the viewpoints of organisation and management. For instance, Birkinshaw et al. (2008) insist that self-innovation enables management to cope with uncertainty, resulting in a better adaptation to new and complex environments. Zollo et al. (2016) adopt a framework of dynamic capabilities and conclude that adaptation is a complex process that necessitates managerial competency in addressing changing initiatives. Burgelman (1991) studied change and adaptation from an evolutionary organisational perspective and adds intra-organisational ecological perspectives to organisational theory. Eisenhardt and Tabrizi (1995) propose models related to how firms achieve fast adaptation through product innovation, which contributes to organisation studies showcasing adaptation from an evolving inertial versus malleable perspective. More recently, Vagnani (2015) relates adaptation to technological interdependence in an organisation, while Rogan and Mors (2017) acknowledge the importance of managerial networks in professional service industry firms. These studies show how the understanding of adaptation has evolved towards viewing it as a more dynamic and iterative process. Research on migrant entrepreneurship in professional services could benefit greatly from such studies, considering their proximity to a comparison between corporate organisational processes and unskilled migrant entrepreneurship.

The process by which migrants re-establish and identify new businesses and settle to live in their new environments is adaptation (Ryan et al., 2008). In dealing with new and

dynamic environments, businesses demand adaptation and change (Gilson et al., 2015). Adaptation is about the changes required by their new environments that individuals or groups make to fit and re-establish themselves (Berry, 1997; Ryan et al., 2008) while keeping and leveraging their original attributes, resources and identities (Ruhl, 2011). At the organisational level, adaptation sees firms endeavouring to survive and develop in changing environments (Chakravarthy, 1982).

However, some researchers have raised concerns about the importance of adaptation in the field of entrepreneurship (Dess et al., 2003; Joshi et al., 2019). Migrant entrepreneurs struggle with the adaptation process, which impacts their entrepreneurial endeavours, their investment of resources to pursue opportunities and the success of their ventures (Shephard et al., 2019). In managing adaptation, they find themselves continuously balancing the two differing contexts of their home and host countries, each of which requires a specific contextualisation of human capital. The migrant entrepreneurs' own ability to adapt is borne of the barriers that hinder them from becoming successful (Ishaq et al., 2010; Ram et al., 2017), which cannot occur until they deploy their own forms of capital (Bourdieu, 1985) effectively in their host environments (Cruickshank and Dupuis, 2015). This indicates that entrepreneurs should adapt to their new environments by refreshing their existing knowledge and resources and exploring new opportunities. Hence, entrepreneurial adaptation is a dynamic phenomenon by which migrant entrepreneurs establish and boost their businesses by best deploying their unique human capital. This is done through the generation and exploitation of opportunities with the aim of overcoming the challenges linked to adapting to a host environment.

4.2.3 A Human-Capital Approach to Adaptation

HCT was developed through the study of knowledge, skills and training that are construed as economic value generators (Becker, 1964). Subsequently, this theory has been applied to the entrepreneurship context (Marvel et al., 2016; Unger et al., 2011). Previous studies have highlighted many paradoxes pertaining to migrant entrepreneurship and human capital (Bates, 1995; Brüderl and Preisendörfer, 1998; Gimeno et al., 1997). Whereas highly educated entrepreneurs are more likely to be successful (Becker, 1964; Unger et al., 2011), Shane (2003) argues that entrepreneurial skills are more relevant than general knowledge. However, the education, skills and experience gained in one context may not be suited for another (Davidsson and Honig, 2003).

Previous studies have mainly focused on education and experience as the building blocks of entrepreneurial human capital. However, the role played by talent has been much ignored in the entrepreneurship domain, although it has been widely addressed in studies on

work. Hence, this study develops a framework that highlights talent as a human capital that mediates the other two most-studied human capital constructs (education and experience) in the adaptation process related to the host-home milieus of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services.

4.2.4 Education

Previous research has claimed that education is the prime construct of human capital (Becker, 1964). A recent study shows education as the second most-studied construct in relation to understanding entrepreneurial human capital (Marvel et al., 2016). Although education and qualifications obtained in the home country can face creditability issues in the host environment (Cruickshank and Dupuis, 2015), highly qualified entrepreneurs are more likely to become successful (Unger et al., 2011). Knowledge and skills accelerate the cognitive abilities through which an entrepreneur discovers and creates new opportunities, innovates and accesses resources (Alvarez and Barney, 2007; Marvel et al., 2016; Shane, 2000); thus, education promotes entrepreneurialism and drives entrepreneurial success (Becker, 1964; Unger et al., 2011). However, Davidsson and Honig (2003) raise their concern by depicting education-led HCT as a ‘black box’, expressing doubts about the equilibrium between educational production and accumulation activities.

Education reflects not only informed knowledge but also an individual’s intelligence (Becker, 1964). Higher education reflects both higher cognitive abilities and higher performing capabilities (Khanna et al., 2014). As a form of human capital, it can counterbalance the resource constraints commonly faced by ethnic and migrant entrepreneurs, especially the lack of financial capital (Chandler and Hanks, 1998). In investigating the education dimension of human capital for migrant entrepreneurs in professional services, this paper asked questions about their educational attainments and updated practices in both their host and origin countries and whether their education helped them to establish and operate businesses in their host environments. The next section sheds light on how experience contributes to forming human capital in addition to the education construct.

4.2.5 Experience

Experience is the most investigated construct in the study of entrepreneurship from the perspective of human capital (Marvel et al., 2016). Experience may have many dimensions that focus on a specific area; however, the previous research has focused on the number of years spent engaging in industrial work and on any prior experience of doing business as an owner (Marvel et al., 2016; Nuscheler et al., 2019; Unger et al., 2011). Moreover, socio-cultural and

international experience can represent other dimensions that contribute to entrepreneurialism (Molinsky, 2007). Although the contributions of experience may vary depending on the situations (Brüderl and Preisendörfer, 1998; Gimeno et al., 1997), any customised experience developed through coaching, insights, community engagement and tailored training helps promote entrepreneurialism (Ulrich and Smallwood, 2012). Professional experience founded on education constitutes quality human capital that produces successful entrepreneurs (Selmer et al., 2018). Therefore, the current study included experience as another important constituent of the human capital of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services, one that enables them to adapt to their new environments.

Any experience accumulated prior to migration can also help migrant entrepreneurs to adapt to their new environments (Molinsky, 2007). Experiences in ownership, start-ups, industry and entrepreneurship are some examples of the work-related human capital gained in the host and home environments. In the context of this study, how prior experiences are used by migrant entrepreneurs to establish their businesses in professional services is still to be investigated further.

4.2.6 A Human Capital Theory Framework of Talent Adaptation

In entrepreneurship, talented individuals use their networks and expertise to contribute to local and regional development, for example, through high-tech economic activity (Lawton Smith et al., 2005). International business research links talent to offshoring and global sourcing of science and engineering skills (Stephan et al., 2008). Shortages in home countries and costs are two of the main reasons behind companies offshoring innovation and talent (Lewin et al., 2009). These studies show that there is a link between international entrepreneurship, innovation talent and economic development, but their focus is on talent acquisition by companies rather than the adaptation of their human capital.

Talent adaptation in the context of multinational companies and foreign direct investments is clearly linked to corporate strategies and host country policies in the case of foreign direct investments. In China, for example, talent management for western multinational companies (MNCs) is about global integration and local responsiveness (Hartmann et al., 2010). Schmidt et al. (2013) explain that to manage talent for global leadership, MNCs must take a responsive approach to challenges in the rising countries and internationally. The same can be assumed about migrant entrepreneurs' talent, but in the case, it is their own initiative, searching for job and entrepreneurship opportunities where they can use their talent in other countries rather than waiting for multinationals to discover them in their own.

This study contributes by exploring talent adaptation as a new construct related to HCT. Migrant entrepreneurs in professional services are uniquely positioned on the journey between talent acquisition from companies that might have attracted them to the new host country and talent adaptation for their own enterprises later on. International entrepreneurship research on human capital adaptation is limited, but it could inform HCT concerning the capabilities, cross-cultural challenges, knowledge exchanges and innovation in international business. Figure 4.1 outlines the conceptual framework of this study.

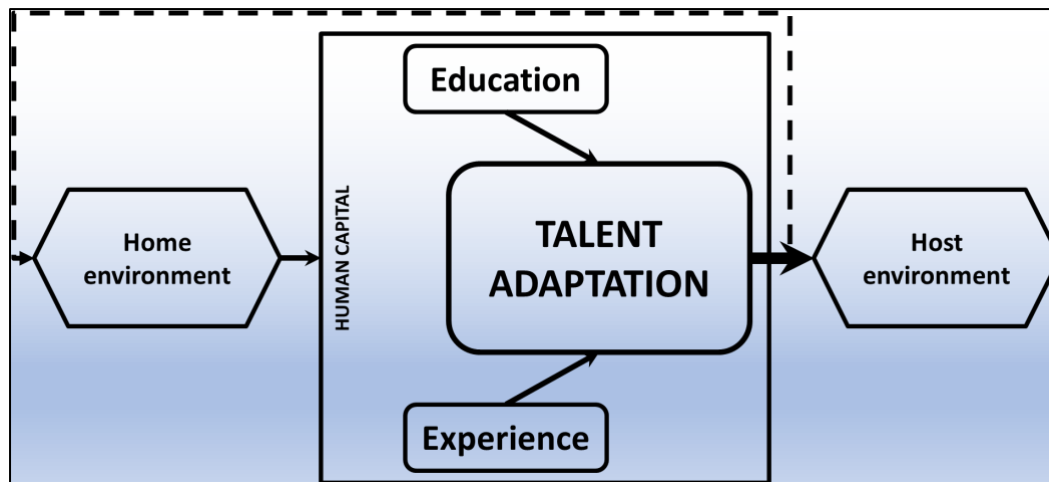


Figure 4.1: A human capital theory approach of talent adaptation for migrant entrepreneurs

The research model proposed in Figure 2.1 in chapter two shows the relationship between education and experience gained in the host-home environment, which constantly requires updating to address the needs of differing contexts. The result uncovers that successful entrepreneurs develop talent as an essential character of human capital and adapt to the host environment. The set of data suggest that talent plays as a mediating role between education and experience, the other two constructs of human capital. It is also observed that due to the differing level of talent adaptation, some felt more confident than others in operating their businesses.

4.3 Methodology

This study employed an interpretive research methodology that is suitable to investigate social phenomena (Crotty, 1998) as it aims to explore how migrant entrepreneurs use their human capital to adapt to their new environments.

A sample of 31 Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs from professional service industries was selected and interviewed by means of theoretical and snowball sampling methods (Saunders et al., 2005). The sampling size was defined by reaching a level of response

saturation (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The respondents included migrant entrepreneurs from engineering, accounting, health, law, education, IT, money transmission and business management sectors. The first stage of interviews, which were conducted at the entrepreneurs' workplaces between April and August 2018, lasted approximately 35 minutes. The interviewing and transcribing tasks were carried out in quick succession to capture any relevant information instantly and iteratively (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). The interviews were self-transcribed and analysed using ATLAS.ti., a qualitative research software suitable for handling different data sources (Friese, 2019) in an iterative cycle. The data analysis provided emerging themes, which encouraged returning to the interviewees between September and October 2018 with the aim of corroborating them and collecting further data in order to obtain any new information regarding any possible changes in their opinions from their earlier responses. A longitudinal approach (McCoy, 2017) of three interview stages, as shown in Table 3.8 in chapter three, was adapted to capture not only constructs but also processes to corroborate the findings from each stage and to ensure research rigor.

During the second round of interviews, the researcher was only able to revisit 24 entrepreneurs due to time constraints; however, this enabled enriching the data further, seeking new perspectives to and clarifications of the preliminary findings and corroborating the emerging themes as intended. Additionally, a focus group discussion was carried out with eight respondents to observe how they interacted around and debated the issues the researcher raised. The second round of interviews were captured through audio recordings that were approximately 15 minutes each. A 90-minute video and audio recording of the group discussion was also made. A detailed respondents' profile is illustrated in Table 3.8.

All the interviews and the focus group discussion were transcribed and added to ATLAS.ti. As suggested by the interpretivist approach (Miles and Huberman, 1994), they were coded and analysed while carefully interpreting the meaning to obtain the findings and results. The transcripts were initially coded based on the three general themes of education human capital, experience human capital and adaptation. Later, these codes were combined, modified, grouped and reduced – where necessary – with the emerging (expected and unexpected) codes to create axial codes for the purpose of developing core ones (Douglas, 2003). In doing so, the researcher identified talent adaptation – consisting of acculturation, assimilation and integration – as a mediating mechanism between education and experience for adaptation. The conceptualisation from research evidence to theory-building was done by adapting and advancing the Gioia methodology (Gioia et al., 2013) with an additional process dimension, as

depicted in Figure 4.2. To achieve this, the codes were regrouped based on their co-occurrence tables and an interpretivist reflection.

4.4 Results and Findings

4.4.1 Education as a Human-Capital Dimension

Most of the sample migrant entrepreneurs held professional qualifications from their country of origin, but they had to update their educational credentials as a requirement from the UK's regulatory bodies. For example, lawyers had to complement their training through the Law Society or Bar Council; similarly, medical doctors needed to successfully pass a medical licensing assessment, while charter accounting and engineering professionals were also required to update their qualifications, which enabled them to practice in their professional sectors. Continuous professional development (CPD) and additional intensive work-related training were essential to contextualise their skills in the host society as such upskilling had promoted their adaptive capacity (Ruhl, 2011). The need to seek and obtain compliance from the various regulatory bodies regarding CPD and training compelled the sampled professionals to refresh their skills in the context of the host environment.

The value of education had a profound influence on these entrepreneurs. Most of them now have degrees from both countries, home and host, because they believed that getting a degree from the host country would help them to adapt to the new environment. Most of them admitted that, had they not updated their degrees in the host country, they would not have been able to establish their professional businesses. Unlike other sectors, the professional services sector requires core skills that must meet the criteria of dedicated regulatory bodies. The sample of migrant entrepreneurs believed that education provided them with business opportunities; however, their previous knowledge and skills needed to be updated to best fit their adopted country. One of the respondents, who held a master's degree and had many years of work experience in his country of origin, prided himself for gaining double degrees and professional qualification in the host environment:

My Nepalese education was not well regarded here, so I had to gain a bachelor's degree here too. Then, I did a master's... all in accounting and finance again, my master's degree as well. Then I obtained an ACCA qualification. Then, after that, I also did the ICAEW, a charter qualification that is the most regarded one in the UK. (R2: Accounting professional)

Due to the differences between the home and host educational systems, their previous qualifications had not been as competitive as degrees obtained in the UK; hence, they needed another degree to prove themselves competent in the new environment. Although this practice reflects the previous literature's findings – which claim that, due to inconsistency, some human

capital becomes irrelevant in new contexts (Bates, 1995; Gimeno et al., 1997) – any previous qualifications are still advantageous in a new setting if updated to fit into it. The respondents' perceptual expressions are similar to the views expressed by researchers, i.e. that human capital makes people more entrepreneurial and successful (Becker, 1964; Unger et al., 2011). The sample entrepreneurs mostly believed that, without updating their qualifications in the host country, they would not have been able to set up their businesses in the UK. Their appetite and determination to achieve an education show that only education could help them sustain themselves, grow and perform well in their new society.

Another aspiration the migrant professionals link to the pursuit of further education is to become familiar with their host country. They believe that, while gaining academic insights, they also receive an opportunity to learn the different cultural practices, languages and attributes of the host society, which will help them to integrate into its wider community. An entrepreneur who accumulated experience in various business sectors shared her background in learning and adapting as follows:

When I did my BBA at Kathmandu University, I lucky to be attending most of the international courses there. So, when I did my ACCA, it helped me a lot... studying almost four to five years in this country, not only the education, [but] the background, of the people like the culture, the language in a cosmopolitan city. It helped me gain a lot of understanding, the basic foundation which we need here to do things. I think that that period is like a grooming period for us. (R22: Accounting professional)

Migrant entrepreneurs must revise their business ideas before jumping into the market, which may take some time. They believe that their technical skills can resolve the adaptation problems created by their lack of communication skills. For example, an IT professional explained:

What I have found is that my English may not be good enough for the standards of this country. However, when I go and start working on the computer, the computer does not mind how I speak. It just looks at how I do the work. And then if you... I go and fix things for people; my accent does not really matter. (R24: IT professional)

This may have two implications: 1) the adaptation of technologically competent professionals tends to be easier and quicker than that of less competent ones and 2) obtaining an education in the English language or a more extensive English-focused education has a positive influence on better communication. The quotations mentioned above support education as an essential dimension of human capital, contributing to entrepreneurialism. Furthermore, innovation adaptation and the use of technology, the two standard components of technology acceptance and innovation diffusion theory as shown in the model in Figure 2.1

in chapter two, has had an impact on human capital adaptation as asserted by the respondent mentioned above. The next section analyses how experience, as another important human capital construct, affects entrepreneurs in professional services.

4.4.2 Experience as a Human Capital Dimension

The researcher found an overlap in the education and experience constructs in the context of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services. On many occasions, the respondents used both constructs together to illustrate their business competencies and confidence and as evidence of their ability to adapt to the host environment. Although previous studies show experience to be the most valued dimension in human capital (Marvel et al., 2016), they remain silent about the existence of any mediating construct able to trigger the effectuation of human capital. The researcher recorded interesting explanations for how the sample of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services shaped their talent strategically, gaining experience in their professions. Migrant professionals accumulate experience from both their home and host countries. This includes work-related industrial, business start-up, socio-cultural and international experience. Such experience aids the development of human capital containing adaptive talent, which is essential for adaptation in a host environment. An accounting sector respondent had accumulated his human capital in both his home and host contexts and was using his talent to attract clients from diverse communities in the latter: ‘We are getting more and more clients and I believe that, based on my experience, my qualifications, I’ve been able to get... the clients on board’ (R3: Accounting professional). This entrepreneur viewed his experience and qualifications as crucial to attracting clients in his host environment. It can be surmised that the ability to contextualise and transform any accumulated human capital in exploiting business opportunities is more commonly found in migrant entrepreneurs than in other migrants. Whereas their task- or skill-specific experiences help them assure their professional capabilities, their community engagement experience helps them to connect to the wider communities in their new environment.

Gaining new experience is more strategic than using previous industrial experience in establishing a business. Practice shows that professionals both utilise their prior experience and plan to contextualise or update it in line with current and future demands. This unveils the evolving nature of the experience gained by entrepreneurs to exploit business opportunities in differing contexts. Another strategic aspect involves gaining experience to overcome any ethnicity- or migration-related barriers. A chartered accountant asserted that ‘Once you gain that knowledge and experience, there are not many barriers’ (R4: Accounting professional).

A good level of human capital is important to reduce the barriers and challenges encountered by migrant entrepreneurial communities. Contextual, social, cultural and work-related experiences are effective means of adaptation. For start-ups established by migrant entrepreneurs in professional services, a lack of business experience becomes a challenge in competing and collaborating with large and established businesses because, in the initial phase, migrant entrepreneurs are evaluated based on their backgrounds and countries of origin. An entrepreneur who had recently established an IT business opined:

I don't have much experience... Mainly, when competing with large scale projects, they look at my background, where I have come from. And then, obviously, it may not happen. When the company grows and has many years of activity, maybe, but now, that's the challenge. (R7: IT professional)

This shows that a wealth of business experience or previous start-up experience develop competitive advantages for migrant entrepreneurs in professional services as those experiences are viewed as indicators of trustworthiness by the wider business community. Experience in the industry is equally important for entrepreneurs in professional services in establishing their own businesses. Professionals accumulate, gain, retain and update experience – including socio-cultural and international (Molinsky, 2007), professional (Selmer et al., 2018), task-related and general experience (Unger et al., 2011) – as a part of their human capital to become successful and adaptive. Although some professionals are geared towards customised experience, others try to gain any experience opportunities readily available. As revealed by Ulrich and Smallwood (2012), there is a mixed practice of developing experience through coaching, insights, community engagement and tailored training.

In summary, human capital helps to shape the adaptability of entrepreneurs. Reflecting on the evidence of education and experience along the three interview stages, the researcher identified three dimensions of human capital talent adaptation: acculturation, integration and assimilation, as discussed in the next sections.

4.4.3 Acculturation

The entrepreneurial goal – to become successful and improve one's quality of life – is the same for all; however, can success have differing meanings? Entrepreneurs are actively involved in exploiting any opportunities for innovation, creating new ventures, taking risks or bringing about disruptive effects on the economy. They also bring different cultures and ethno-specific products, values, norms, methods and many more deeply rooted habits by which they regularly interact with their host society. Adaptation is a two-way process that involves a reciprocal relationship, although the degree of integration or assimilation may vary. As an

entrepreneur's cognitive process is shaped by his or her socio-cultural influences, which are deeply rooted in the past, he or she goes through an acculturation process.

The researcher argues that acculturation impacts not only an individual's personal life, but also his or her business life. It influences the exchange of goods or services, business ideas and methods, and it transforms entrepreneurial culture through a process of cross-cultural fertilisation (Rudmin, 2009) between host and migrant entrepreneurs in an entrepreneurial society. For migrant entrepreneurs in professional services, acculturation involves sharing best practices, such as entrepreneurial skills, knowledge, experiences and talent, with the wider business community. However, these factors are linked to socio-cultural aspects rooted within an individual's personality, for instance, different ways of dealing with customers and engaging with employees and the ways in which technology is used in businesses. The ways in which such differing behaviours are conveyed by individual professionals in the provision of their services could be culturally influenced.

In the early days of their migration, most migrant entrepreneurs see many things as strange, such as the host country's culture, different ways of communication, people from different backgrounds, a different working culture and the ways in which the government and institutions function. Some activities are easier to adapt to, especially the infrastructure, rules and regulations that provide a secure gateway for businesses, particularly for those who have migrated from a developing or low-performing economy to a developed country like the UK. However, other aspects may become barriers to setting up an enterprise, for instance, the host country's culture, people, language, access to resources and people's perceptions.

Nevertheless, the situation gradually normalises with the passage of time as migrants become more familiar with their host environment and gain contextual knowledge and experience, including a sense of belonging. Consequently, most things, such as places, people, systems, cultures and ways of life, start to appear natural. However, acculturation is impacted by multiple dimensions, like the attitudes found in the host country, its society and the migrants themselves. Changes can become a necessity, whereby newcomers must be flexible enough to adapt to different situations. An accountant, who had emigrated a decade before, shared his experience of how he had developed his adaptive capacity through the trials he had to overcome in the host environment:

If that [a rule or regulation] is mandatory, then there is no choice. And, in that situation, you must train yourself; you clean up your act, and, if you don't have any good human resources within your practice, you send them to a training centre, and then they train there. (R3: Accounting professional)

In all individuals, there are some deeply rooted values and nurtured characteristics that are the outcomes of their familial, social and formal education. In particular, most of the respondents viewed developing countries as more relaxed than developed ones in relation to enforcing rules and regulations. Thus, when they encountered any rigorously enforced rules and regulations, they may have been taken aback. As suggested by Ulrich and Smallwood (2012), any negative habits must be curtailed, which can be achieved through customised training in adapting to shifting conditions. The aforementioned statement suggests two ways suited to facilitate the acculturation process: 1) correcting and/or discarding any obsolete and restrictive behaviours or habits and 2) upskilling one's talent for adaptation through practice and customised training.

Openness, flexibility and a willingness to learn new things are personality traits that facilitate acculturation and yield positive outcomes. Resistance to change can be counterproductive to conducting business. Interacting with new people and a new environment creates new learning opportunities; an individual can use his/her talent to transform such opportunities into business. For example, an entrepreneur in accounting agreed that, although everybody faces challenges in their early days, these issues gradually decrease, 'You have to be open to change, and you have to be very good at learning new things. If you resist change, you are left behind' (R13: Accounting professional). This respondent view acculturation as a natural phenomenon. He believed that people have unique strengths and weaknesses and have different attitudes and perceptions when they meet each other for the first time. Any misunderstandings, prejudices and attitudes in relation to resisting integration decline over time. He viewed the UK as one of the best places to achieve good integration as the country values diversity and plurality. However, the degree of integration is dependent on the nature of the services provided, with some professions being more sensitive than others. Those entrepreneurs who contribute greatly to a society and a country benefit in relation to establishing their identity and unique culture and are accepted by the host society. Nonetheless, how quickly one can adapt to a new environment depends on his or her individual skills and efforts, the nature of the business and the host country's attitudes. Highly demanding businesses and skills are welcomed by every community, regardless of ethnic background. In itself, the creation of a valuable business involves negotiating the aspects that make acculturation effective.

4.4.4 Integration

Integration, as a desired outcome of the acculturation process, is possible in the migrant entrepreneurship phenomenon in those instances in which both the migrant communities and

receiving society share their best practices and enjoy diversity. The findings suggest that most of the sample migrant entrepreneurs were aware of the importance of integrating in their host environment, but their degree of integration varied from person to person. Individual education, experiences and talent play important roles in developing a person's adaptability. Those sample entrepreneurs who had a better education, language capability, technical skills and talent were more confident about being integrated into their wider host society. An accountant used his professional skills to integrate into the host business society as they made him more competitive in relation to the mainstream population:

If I compete with other people for a job, I may be at a competitive disadvantage compared to people born and wholly brought up and educated in the UK. To overcome that, I think that, as I am a professional, my technical qualification and skills are more important. (R13: Accounting professional)

His argument reflects the findings of Unger et al. (2011) and Shane (2000), who concluded that technical or task-specific skills are the most important for entrepreneurs. As migrant entrepreneurs perceive themselves as being at a disadvantage in employment, it is very difficult for them to gain promotions in their jobs; therefore, they strive to establish their own businesses on the strength of their technical and professional skills. Likewise, they also think that they are at a disadvantage in competing for business with the local inhabitants, but they still succeed due to their determination.

Migrant entrepreneurs go through a transitional period, which results in an assimilation outcome; however, as time passes, they achieve integration. The Nepalese diaspora community celebrates its culture and festivals by setting up various local organisations and inviting the members of their host society to celebrate together; at the same time, they respect local culture and actively participate in its celebrations too. They send their children to Nepali classes run by the local Nepalese ethnic communities and encourage their children to celebrate their own festivals as they fear the disappearance of their ethnic culture in the next generation. Selling their services in the Nepalese community, advertising in local Nepalese-language newspapers and networking within the Nepalese community and its professional associations – e.g. Nepalese doctors associations, nursing associations, law societies, business associations, chartered accountants association, engineering associations, etc. – are examples of the practices in which they engage to preserve their own sense of community and promote entrepreneurialism and culture together. At the same time, they are equally engaged with the host country's associations and broader communities as the Internet enables them to be more integrated than ever before.

More engagement with people from outside the Nepalese migrant community means becoming closer and more familiar with each other. Most of sample entrepreneurs believed that sharing information, feelings, beliefs and perceptions is crucial to reduce cultural distance. Moreover, individual isolation adversely impacts entrepreneurialism; therefore, entrepreneurs achieve adaptation through integration. Interestingly, in the digital age, the Internet has empowered the acculturation process aimed at achieving integration. Because of the ubiquitous nature of the Internet, people can find any information they need and develop their own perceptions when faced with unfamiliar situations, which can build positive attitudes and remove barriers regarding integration. As a result, people with entrepreneurial talent can easily acknowledge these features and transform them into business opportunities.

The shock of being physically separated from their families was once considered to be one of the main demotivating factors for Nepalese migrants. Cultural distance and separation from family and relatives are significant for an individual, which may have a negative impact on integration. Learning multiple languages and practicing them in real life can help to make integration easier by sharing with others who are going through the same journey, even from other countries. A GP who ran multiple practices shared his experience:

We have many patients from Asia, Africa and the West Indies, besides white British ones, so it's a very mixed population we have in this practice... I speak to them in their respective languages. It helps them a lot. (R6: Health professional)

The sample GP was aware of diversity, and he was happy to be a part of a diverse society in which he served patients from various backgrounds. As an entrepreneur in professional services, he contributed to the acculturation process by providing health services to his patients in their own respective languages, if required. This indicates that learning different languages can help bring about a better-integrated society. Similarly, becoming open-minded and interacting and engaging with people beyond their ethnic community helped one of the samples law entrepreneurs to integrate into the host society: 'My whole point is that we have to go outside our ethnic communities because we are in the British society' (R11: Law professional). Getting involved with various organisations, e.g. charities, local communities, sports associations and leisure centres, helped this respondent reduce the cultural gap. Isolation is challenging, and individuals must manage any differences between their own cultural, social and psychological perceptions and those of the other members of society. For the respondent, integration is akin to Darwin's concept of 'survival of the fittest' (Gimeno et al., 1997, p.750), which can be achieved by going outside one's ethnic community.

Another vital facet is for migrant entrepreneurs in professional services to be resilient, as they may go through many ups and downs in their migration journey. Consequently, they are

more likely to integrate as they are eager to learn about new cultures without compromising their own unique identity. Adaptation is inevitable to the receiving economies as individuals tend to develop a 'habitus' made up of deeply rooted habits, prior experience, skills and dispositions (Bourdieu, 1985). At the same time, they need to negotiate, interact and develop a new condition that reconciles their long-standing habits into a hybrid or adopted stage. 'Integration of culture doesn't mean that you have to adopt their culture... like changing to fit...' (R16: Education professional). Here, it is not just about assimilation – a situation whereby existing traditions are abandoned to take on new ones – but integration, in which migrants retain their heritage while simultaneously adopting new customs from their host society. This shows that adaptation involves a negotiation between the host environment and the newcomers.

4.4.5 Assimilation

The researcher found that not all entrepreneurs perform equally. Some are more successful than others. Some are talented enough to easily integrate into their host environment, while others struggle to do so. Some are proud of being a part of a new culture, society and environment, while others hesitate. For some, acculturation is a normal phenomenon, while others view it as a mechanism imposed by the host environment. During the process of acculturation, some entrepreneurs cannot adjust their habits and skills as much as high performing or talented entrepreneurs do, which results in a situation of assimilation: an undesired outcome of acculturation (Berry, 1997; Rudmin, 2003). Mostly, this situation occurs due to the barriers commonly faced by migrant entrepreneurs, e.g. linguistic, socio-cultural differences and lesser degrees of talent in their human capital. However, they strive to achieve integration, although it may take longer. A sample accountant expressed his views as follows:

For the first 19 years of my life, I was in Nepal, so everything in my mind is still really difficult to, you know, change my attitudes, change my behaviours. So I think... that's really difficult for us.' (R23: Accounting professional)

A 'habitus' (see Bourdieu, 1985) developed over time sometimes inhibits the adaptation process as it can make people less flexible in familiarising themselves with other cultures' practices, norms, values and attitudes. This situation may create assimilation or may result in situations of separation or marginalisation if worldviews are not acculturated properly. The respondent above wished to combine the new information, experiences and knowledge with her existing or previous habitus but was finding it difficult to do so because she needed to be flexible enough to consider the perspectives of others as well. There is a clear tension between the two contextual schoolings. However, a sample IT entrepreneur saw immigration-related

policies as a reason to prolong entrepreneurial acculturation: ‘I wanted to run the business, because of my previous entrepreneurship background, but I wasn’t allowed to do so because of my visa restrictions’ (R8: IT professional). Sometimes, a country’s immigration policies can have an impact on entrepreneurial endeavours. This respondent migrated to the UK as a student and wanted to establish a business while studying; however, due to immigration rules, he had been unable to do so, and he felt that he would have done better if he had been given an opportunity to establish his business earlier. Although he had come to the UK eight years earlier, he had only recently managed to join the business community as an entrepreneur. He believed that immigration policies should be designed to facilitate an early entrepreneurial adaptation model, enabling people to set up a business without delay.

A restrictive attitude tends to delay reacting to any problems, which unnecessarily prolongs the adaptation process. In a new country, entrepreneurs need a reliable support system that can help ease their transition while establishing and growing their businesses, settling in their families, maintaining their original culture, updating their knowledge and skills and promoting access to public amenities and social networks. It is worth noticing the experience one of the respondents recounted in his interview:

There is a cultural shock you need to absorb. On top of that – I don’t want to say it in a very wrong way – people don’t trust you. Because you are from outside, they don’t know what you studied and how much you know. Because you are, you have not proven yourself. You don’t hold any local degree. (R10: Accounting professional)

Unlike other business sectors, the professional service one is entirely reliant on trust; however, the sample entrepreneurs noted that they were not easily trusted by their host society because they were regarded as outsiders. These are discouraging factors that undermined their entrepreneurial determination and counteracted their adaptability skills. However, these issues can be addressed by a host country cultivating a favourable environment. Similar to previous research (Ram et al., 2017), this study also uncovered that a regulatory regime plays a role in shaping the attitudes of wider society towards migrant entrepreneurs.

Anti-discrimination or equal opportunity policies and an adequate trade agreement between the home and host countries helps in solving problems like taxes, remittance (sending and receiving monies from one country to the other), imports and exports. However, sometimes, a sense of discrimination still arises due to various reasons. Echoing the findings of Ishaq et al. (2010), a sample entrepreneur from the health sector felt that obtaining a business contract as a migrant was more complicated than it was for native entrepreneurs.

Results show that, regarding the acculturation of the business community, entrepreneurial experiences differ. Some are more confident in adjusting to their host environment than others. The findings suggest multiple reasons behind these kinds of grievances, which unnecessarily result in a transitional period by restricting integration. It can be surmised that individual perceptual errors, the attitudes of the host society and the weakness of any existing policies regarding entrepreneurial acculturation, among other factors, may drive the acculturation process towards assimilation.

4.5 Discussion

4.5.1 Talent Adaptation as a Human Capital Construct

In accordance with the findings of Molinsky (2007), the sample of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services adopted both short-term and long-term adaptation strategies, and they viewed interpersonal, intrapersonal and technical skills as important factors for their long-term adaptation. Although most of them held good academic qualifications, only some had any prior foreign experience and had attended pre-emigration training. Those who did have such experience showed more confidence in doing business. As Molinsky (2007) suggests, this indicates that adaptation comes more naturally for those with previous experience. More importantly, the researcher observed that those of the sample entrepreneurs who seemed to be endowed with dynamic capabilities and intelligence were able to demonstrate their multiple skills and claimed to have been more successful in adapting to their new environment and in establishing their businesses. Some felt comfortable in doing business in their new environment, while others encountered more challenges. This is because personal talent varies from person to person, resulting in different acculturation outcomes.

Acculturation, assimilation and integration are found to be dimensions of entrepreneurial adaptation that are linked to different degrees of adaptation (Berry, 1997; Rudmin, 2003). Acculturation is a process whereby a successful adaptation is expected to occur. While assimilation is generally the lower level of adaptation, integration is its most appropriate outcome. It is also revealed that the human capital constructs of education and experience, which are the most commonly included in previous research (see Marvel et al., 2016; Nuscheler et al., 2019; Unger et al., 2011), and talent (as introduced by the current study) accelerate the adaptation and acculturation process in a constructive direction when utilised in combination. Although education, experience and any cultural capital gained in the home country become an effective means for early-stage and quick adaptation, continuous upskilling to sharpen and shape talent is essential for long-term adaptation. This is outlined in Figure 4.2, following the

Gioia methodology (Gioia et al., 2013) for theory-building in qualitative research and summarising the discussion in the previous sections.

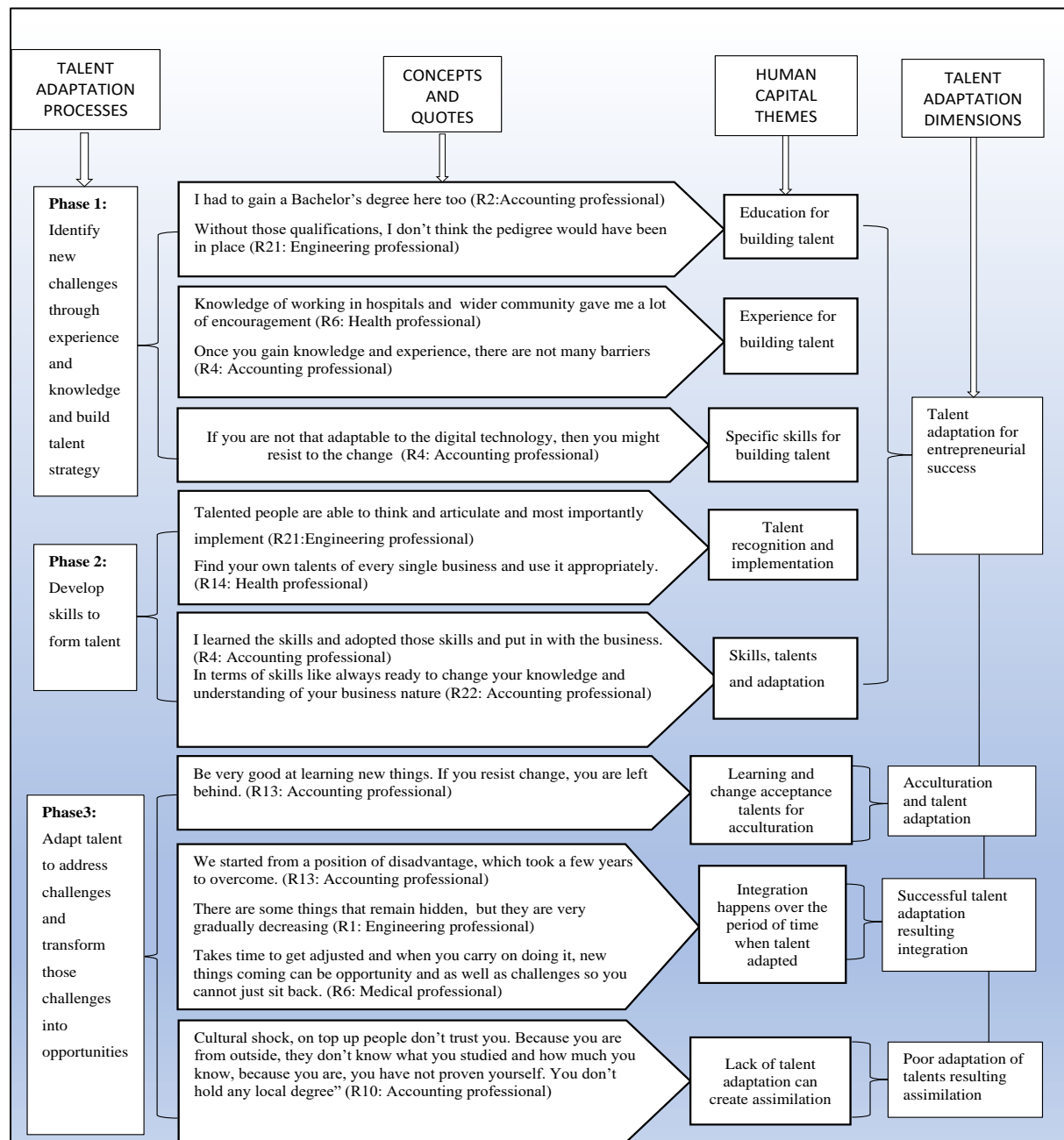


Figure 4.2: Talent adaptation processes and theoretical dimensions

Talent adaptation is introduced in this study as a novel human capital construct that mediates the education and experience of human capital dimensions for individuals entering new environments. Talent adaptation processes can be categorised into three phases, which begin with challenge identification through experience and knowledge accumulation. This is followed by skills development that helps to form talent. Entrepreneurs utilise such talent to address business challenges and to transform those challenges into business opportunities.

Figure 4.2 demonstrates what constitutes human capital themes, resulting in talent adaptation dimensions grounded in the respondents' concepts as quoted in the study. It further shows that talent adaptation is not a straightforward enactment for everyone; it might end in assimilation due to poor adaptation. At the same time, if successfully adapted, it can succeed in integrating as a favourable outcome of acculturation.

This concept builds on the definition of personal talent as the sum of education, skills, experience and individual behaviours and values (Cheese et al., 2008; Ulrich and Smallwood, 2012), which often mediate the achievement of high-level performances (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). Many researchers have identified inconsistencies between education and experience as, despite being the two most-researched human capital constructs in the field of entrepreneurship, they are accumulated in different contexts (Bates, 1995; Brüderl and Preisendörfer, 1998; Gimeno et al., 1997). In a similar vein, research also shows that the efforts made by migrant entrepreneurs to adapt to their host environment adversely impact their businesses (Shephard et al., 2019). Hence, the degree of their success varies greatly (Ndofor and Priem, 2011) as some people are more capable than others of recognising and exploiting opportunities (Alvarez and Barney, 2007). These issues establish that individual personality or ability may have an impact on entrepreneurial performance. Following this logic and exploring the reasons why some migrant entrepreneurs in professional services adapt better than others, the three dimensions of acculturation, assimilation and integration, which were discussed earlier in the findings, become part of talent adaptation.

In attempting to answer the question of how migrant entrepreneurs use their human capital to better adapt to their host environment, fascinating paradoxes emerge in what they believe and in their experience regarding entrepreneurial practices in the host country, as some migrant entrepreneurs are more adaptive than others. Most of them felt that they had sufficient experience, qualifications and start-up financing, which they had brought over from their country of origin. Although all of them saw good opportunity in starting or expanding their businesses in the UK, their perceived success varied greatly. They believed that they were capable of becoming successful entrepreneurs; however, they were facing challenges in adapting to the host country. This was because they were experiencing issues linked to their language, cultural, institutional, contextual and innovative adaptation. Intending to resolve such problems, they put forth great effort to contextualise themselves in the host country.

The interviewees expressed some common concerns regarding adaptation. They viewed adaptation as inevitable in becoming successful entrepreneurs in a new environment, which aligns with the findings of previous research (for instance, Gilson et al., 2015). Another

common theme was the translation of the forms of capital (Bourdieu, 1985) with which they had emigrated and had been assessed by the host country in the form of the criteria for the concession of a visa for entry and settlement. Moreover, successful entrepreneurs are found to use their personal talent in combination with education and experience to gain entrepreneurial efficiency and remove contextual barriers (Barney, 2001; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Ulrich and Smallwood, 2012). These concerns indicate that migrant entrepreneurs struggle in navigating their transition into the host environment, which indicates the need for effective adaptation.

The model presented suggests that adaptation is achieved when talent is combined with education and experience. Results suggest that, at the individual level, the sample migrant entrepreneurs were constantly developing and updating their human capital to contextualise it with their current needs and adapt to their changing context. However, they had varied experiences when undertaking the daunting task of entrepreneurship, and some had been more successful than others (Ndofor and Priem, 2011). This raises the complementary question of whether some migrant entrepreneurs are more adaptive than others. Findings confirm that human capital contributes to entrepreneurial success; however, in the absence of talent adaptation, migrant entrepreneurs in professional services cannot achieve their full potential.

The theoretical framework demonstrates how talent adaptation, including acculturation, assimilation and integration, plays a mediating role in deploying the other two constructs of human capital. This study also reveals that the journey to adaptation is not the same for everyone, but it is influenced by an individual's capability for talent adaptation, which some entrepreneurs develop over time. In this process, acculturation, assimilation and integration outcomes differ from person to person. On a personal level, this consists of developing multilingual skills, getting involved in the community and improving as well as changing one's personal habits to become more adaptive. On the social level, it is important to engage in professional and entrepreneurial societies and to build networks that extend beyond ethnic circles. In the new environment, migrant entrepreneurs in professional services obtain degrees in UK universities, gain work experience, adopt new digital technologies, attain customised training and engage in continuous professional development. This shows that talent adaptation remains strongly related to education and experience, which are constructs of human capital.

The role played by talent has been generally ignored in the entrepreneurship management domain, although it has been widely examined in studies in the field of work. Such studies looked at how to identify talent (Björkman et al., 2013; Collings and Mellahi, 2009) or at whether talent is an outcome of learning or innate (Gallardo- Gallardo et al., 2013). While some

researchers view talent as the sum of education, skills, experience and individual behaviours and values (Cheese et al., 2008; Ulrich and Smallwood, 2012), others consider talent to be a combination of innate abilities and acquired human capital, resulting in high performance (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). Wherever the origin of talent lies, these arguments demonstrate that it is an essential capital for an entrepreneur.

The researcher argues that talent adaptation is a crucial human capital construct that enables individuals to mobilise other dimensions of human capital, including education and experience, because talent, experience and education are all embedded in them (Barney, 2001). Furthermore, talent embodies multiple exceptional abilities and intelligence in a particular domain, which transforms knowledge into creative thinking and outstanding performance (Callahan, 1997). Talent can be developed by investing in succession, customisation and modelling that enables individuals to adapt to any shifting conditions (Ulrich and Smallwood, 2012). If it remains unidentified, talent adaptation has limited strategic value (Levy et al., 2019). As this study shows, what empowers entrepreneurs to become successful goes beyond education and experience.

4.6 Summary

The current study has shown how human capital theory can be extended by examining talent adaptation related to education and experience in the context of Nepalese migrant entrepreneurship in the UK; and this research has extended the definition of migrant entrepreneurs to include the largely neglected professional services.

It is found that migrant entrepreneurs were developing and using their talents as a mediating factor in mobilising their accumulated education and experiences by fitting them into the right context. This was a function of the level of acculturation, assimilation and integration through which migrants in professional services achieve part of their education and experience for business transformations. This was justified by the need to compensate any contextual skill gaps through socio-cultural capital (Cruz et al., 2018).

Findings show that human capital contributes to shaping adaptation dimensions and acculturation as a process and assimilation and integration as outcomes. Human capital builds cross-cultural capabilities suited to boost adaptation socially, culturally, psychologically and economically (Xu, 2017). The researcher developed a model that demonstrates how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services use human capital to adapt to their host environment through an entrepreneurial acculturation process that yields either the most favourable outcome (integration) or the least favourable one (assimilation).

Chapter 5 Innovation and Continuous Human Capital Transformation

5.1 Introduction

The main aim of the current chapter is to explore how migrant professional entrepreneurs transform their human capital for innovation inclusion in addressing the evolving nature of technology. Previous research has mostly conceptualised technology adaptation as a facilitating factor for resource access, cost effectiveness and operational efficiency (Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Daniel et al., 2015; Hagsten and Kotnik, 2017; Saxenian, 2002). However, advancement in innovation has urged professional services to update innovation capacity as their clients' needs change (Malhotra et al., 2016). The current research argues that migrant entrepreneurs in professional services strategically focus on continuous human capital transformation to include themselves with the emerging innovation in the new context over time. Innovation inclusion is not limited to basic needs such as accessibility and communication (Borg and Smith, 2018); beyond this, it has become an indispensable part of many businesses because some cannot even operate without the internet (Botsman, 2015).

It is not only a basic need for underprivileged businesses to be connected, but it is vital for all kinds of businesses to stay included in every business environment, whether it is for developed or developing economies. It is a necessity even in developed countries to remain competitive, which ultimately is related to human capital development. However, innovation inclusion may vary from contexts to contexts, communities to communities, professions to professions and, equally, from levels and types of human capital. The current findings show that professional migrant entrepreneurs adopt digital innovation with more alert mindsets; however, the degree of inclusion and its meaning differ from one person to another. Other dimensions impacting digital inclusion include the nature of the business, personal talents, types of qualifications and experiences gained in the host-home environment. In the context of migrant professional entrepreneurs, self-efficacy, digital and non-digital fusion, off-the-shelf and bespoke trade-off as well as outsource-insource balance have been identified as the strategies adopted during digital innovation adaptation and building an entrepreneurial identity. This is the outcome of the digital competency generated from human capital through upskilling and navigating the opportunity-challenge dichotomy.

The current study expected this to be particularly relevant in the case of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services and to their formal education, training and experience; thus, the research question for this study is: How do migrant entrepreneurs in professional services advance their human capital to innovate while embracing digitalisation processes?

After analysing sets of information collected from the respondents regarding the question mentioned above, this chapter contributes in three ways. First, the findings extend HCT by introducing a cyclic process on how innovation and human capital interact to transform each other and support the digital inclusion process. Second, it introduces how digital inclusion initiated by human capital contributes in building entrepreneurial identities among migrant professional entrepreneurs. Third, it contributes to existing knowledge by adding new insights regarding the unique challenges and opportunities faced by professionals whilst deploying digital innovation in the host-home contexts. Thus, it is important to research how human capital relates to digital inclusion through the adaptation of innovations among migrant entrepreneurs. Similarly, this chapter also discusses how human capital contributes to shaping the acceptance and rejection of digital innovation, as well as the diffusion of any adopted technology for effective utilisation in the business.

The empirical evidence used to conduct this investigation came from semi-structured interviews conducted with 31 digitally empowered Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK who were engaged in professional service sectors. This chapter attempts to capture the more nebulous and long-term dynamics of entrepreneurial behaviours as it includes experiences from different periods of time, for instance, the first interview, revisit interview and focus group discussions conducted using a longitudinal approach as expected of the qualitative research methodology. The majority of the themes and concepts are presented by following the method of Gioia et al. (2013). More details about the respondents' profiles are shown in Table 3.8.

The analysis begins by exploring how a combined theoretical approach (human capital, technology acceptance and innovation diffusion) contributes to innovation adoption in the context of migrant professional entrepreneurs. The next section examines how innovation adaptation supports digital inclusion, and the last section discusses how digital inclusion empowers entrepreneurial human capital transformation, followed by a conclusion. The section develops the framework of how research is informed by combined theoretical underpinnings.

5.2 A combined approach to innovation adaptation

HCT assumes education and experience are important for achieving economic benefits through innovation and opportunity creation (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1974; Schultz, 1959). This theory has been widely applied to the domain of entrepreneurship by coupling human capital attributes to the success of entrepreneurs (Unger et al., 2011). In a similar vein, TAM has been applied to study individual behavioural intentions regarding accepting or rejecting digital means in a variety of sectors. For instance, Venkatesh and Davis (2000) investigate the adoption of information technology systems; Wang et al. (2006) researches the use of mobile

phones in businesses; Yousafzai et al. (2010) study the use of technology in banking sectors and Read et al. (2012) analyses the use of technology for e-book readers. Rogers (1995) developed IDT to study how innovation acceptance and adoption happens over time through various stages, including understanding, persuading, deciding and implementing, as well as categorising users as innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards. According to Rogers, for every technological means, the adopter's willingness and ability to utilise and share technological means are dependent on their knowledge, awareness, interest, evaluation, trial and adoption.

Usefulness and ease of use are two constructs of technology acceptance theory that influence into whether an individual accept technology. Another technology acceptance theory is IDT, which concerns the types, stages and processes of technology users. Education and experience are major constructs of HCT that have an accelerating role in innovation adoption. Therefore, how migrant entrepreneurs adopt innovation can be assessed through the combined lens of human capital and technological perspectives. Knowledge is an outcome of education and experience for human capital, but it is one of the stages of IDT. It is further assumed that this knowledge eases the use of technology and familiarises the user with the latest technology, resulting in efficiently utilising technology. Consequently, these enhancements help to accelerate digital inclusion and innovation adaptation. Dimensions such as self-efficacy, digital/non-digital fusion, off-the-shelf and bespoke trade-off and outsourcing and insourcing are all balanced, as analysis of the success or failure of technology adoption reveals.

Digital competency enables individuals to explore and face situations created by technological innovation and helps them to create, identify and exploit new opportunities (Calvani et al., 2009, cited in Li and Ranieri, 2010). Similarly, Scuotto and Morellato (2013) consider today's business world to be greatly influenced by the ubiquitous nature of digital means in which entrepreneurial digital capability is essential in order to achieve business success. Therefore, it can be anticipated that digital competency might help migrant entrepreneurs become aware of new technologies allowing them to choose appropriate digital means that best fit their business needs. The following figure demonstrates how combined constructs from human capital, technology acceptance and innovation diffusion theories adapt to innovation through continued knowledge transformation.

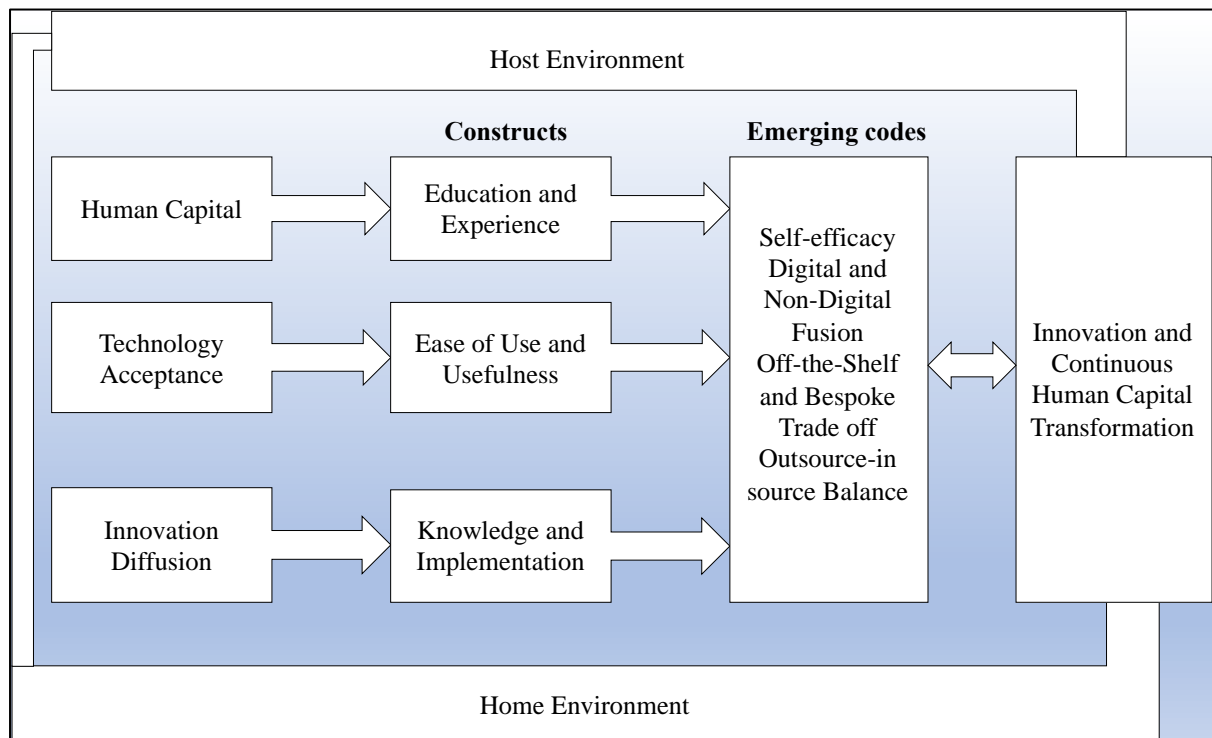


Figure 5.1: Human capital, technology acceptance and innovation diffusion

The current study mainly considers technology adoption and awareness-related constructs from combined theoretical perspectives in the host-home environment. Findings support that upskilling helps to develop human capital fit for digital adoption and shape informed decision regarding the use of technology innovations. The process of using any innovation of digital means in enterprises undergoes three phases: adoption, acceptance and diffusion. Adoption is the initial unfamiliar use of any digital means, whereas acceptance refers to the state when those adopted digital means become a part of routine practice. Diffusion is the stage to examine if those digital means are widely shared between persons and firms (Lai, 2017; Ward, 2013). Many sampled respondents, especially those who did not have a background in computer science, recognised their problems in the different stages of technology-related decisions; for instance, some were unaware of functionalities, while others were worried about security and breakdowns. For some, choosing the right technology and balancing digital and physical activities were daunting tasks. Such issues were found to be barriers to digital inclusion for most of the migrant entrepreneurs because firms need to find an optimum balance in the integration of technology in the business process and embed social aspects while using digital means (Yang and Chen, 2009).

To inquire about this current problem, this study draws education and experience from human capital, ease of use and usefulness from TAM and knowledge and implementation from

innovation diffusion as the guiding concepts. Analysis of data sets uncovers that these constructs both contribute in developing self-efficacy, balancing digital/non-digital business activities, handling customisation and readymade adoption of technologies and managing insource and outsource provision for digital skills in order to achieve innovation adaptation. The emerging concepts that contribute to innovation adoption and continuous entrepreneurial knowledge transformation are discussed in the next chapter.

5.3 Innovation Adaptation

This section unveils how innovation adaptation promotes digital inclusion for entrepreneurial success in the migrant professional service sectors. The theoretical framework discussed in Figure 5.1 indicates that combined constructs, for example, education, experience, usefulness, knowledge about technologies and effective implementation, contribute to innovation adaptation. Consequently, innovation adaptation and human capital transformation both influence the migrant entrepreneur's technology adoption journey. The results show that technology adoption undoubtedly creates opportunities, but it also poses challenges that are reliant on how entrepreneurs adapt to innovation. The impact of such challenges is significant as they form dilemmas as to whether to adopt digital means in the businesses.

It is argued here that the level of digital inclusion is conditioned to how effectively the adopted innovations are deployed. The deployment of digital technology in the enterprises can lower costs and increase productivity through automation and value addition, which motivates entrepreneurs to become digitally inclusive. Thus, effective deployment of technology is a critical success factor for the enterprises (Hovelja, 2009). However, deploying digital means in the context of migrant professional businesses is related to the adaptive skills they develop for accommodating technology changes.

Almost all of the interviewed migrant professional entrepreneurs deployed various digital means in their businesses. However, the degree of deployment varies from one profession to another or between individuals as some are more adaptive to innovation than others. Some perform most of their business activities digitally while executing less of their work manually, whereas few rely mostly on traditional methods and adopt fewer digital methods. Nonetheless, for those who mostly operate business online, digital technology is everything as their business would not exist without it. This indicates that businesses are transforming from traditional firms into more digital or otherwise hybrid forms of digital-physical enterprises. Business functions such as collecting valuable information, processing accounts, booking clients, referring activities and generating reports are all carried out digitally.

For example, a dentist explained how she adapted to the various digital means in her industry for digital inclusion:

All these software are installed in the computers used for booking appointment or taking payments, or creating referrals, or prescriptions, so it's already there... Also... iPad and other devices where we ask patient to sign medical history, estimate, etc. (R19: Health professional)

Similar to other professions, health sector professionals practice digitalisation in their firms. Sometimes, the deployment of digital innovation is a time-consuming process because it requires long transition periods to set up the technology and obtain upskilling for efficient use (Marler et al., 2006). However, evidence shows that migrant professional entrepreneurs are aware of the staff training and upskilling required, which shows their seriousness in utilising any adopted technology effectively. For an engineering professional, technology adaptation increases efficiency. He stated that physically measuring and drawing takes hours to complete for one job, while it only takes a few minutes to complete if conducted digitally:

These days almost everything, even for the measurement I use the device like laser... draw the map using the device so my staff as well... If you want to calculate a beam [manually], it takes almost an hour... whereas if I use the software, it takes just for 5, 10 minutes. (R15: Engineering professional)

One common perception across all the enquired professions is the realisation of the importance of digital means in their businesses. Although the degree of deployment and effectiveness may vary, their attitudes are similar. On the contrary, their experience in utilising adopted technology is not similar.

The shift of traditional business activities to the modern digital world requires adequate deployment of digital innovation. The use of such innovation is not limited to a particular business unit or activity spread throughout the whole business system. Therefore, knowledge and implementation aspects, as revealed by IDT, seem to be more relevant to consider in the event of uneven practices. Similar to most respondents, an accounting professional expressed that 'most of the time we obtain information digitally; we process digitally, and we execute digitally. So most of the time our input is digital, and output is also digital' (R4: Accounting professional). Deploying digital innovation starts from the conception of the business, where entrepreneurs need to obtain business-related information before producing and distributing the service. In this instance, digital innovation is used throughout the business system within the input and through the output. However, what is found in that deployment is not a straightforward task for many migrant professional entrepreneurs. Deployment requires enormous effort and skills so that the right innovation can be used appropriately to address the business's needs. Most of the sampled migrant professional entrepreneurs believed that digital-

innovation-oriented human capital helps to enhance the benefits of the adopted technologies by deploying them efficiently and easily. However, in the absence of adequate knowledge, they face problems with balancing the right aspects of digitalisation, which complicates the implementation phase. Nonetheless, they gradually develop digital competency and strategically plan and implement digital innovation to address their business's needs. This includes skills related to deploying both off-the-shelf and bespoke digital means, balancing insourcing and outsourcing and fusing digital and non-digital systems appropriately. Results show that failure to utilise adopted technology in its fullest can demotivate a business from using new technologies, and this situation consequently leads towards uneven users. As a result, entrepreneurs are adverse to digital inclusion. Particularly, readymade technologies are designed to address the mass users with mostly generic features, but entrepreneurs face difficulties in using all the available functions for the benefit of their businesses.

The next sections expose the strategies that migrant professional entrepreneurs develop in the deployment of digital innovation in different contexts, including self-efficacy, fusing digital and non-digital means, off-the-shelf and bespoke trade-off and balancing outsource and insource skills.

5.3.1 Self-Efficacy in Deployment

Results show that effective deployment of digital innovation is a conducive environment to create sustainable digital inclusion, and self-efficacy is a part of this. For these entrepreneurs, having a higher level of digital knowledge makes them more effective and allows them to gain more benefits from digital innovation as they deploy it with an alert mindset. Technology, especially computer self-efficacy (Hayashi et al., 2020), is more than a skill; it is an ability to implement digital innovation rationally (Bandura, 1986). General and task-specific computer self-efficacy are found to be two important constructs that impact innovation deployment (Agarwal et al., 2000). Migrant entrepreneurs in professional services mainly face dilemmas during different stages of digitalisation. It starts prior to adoption and continues after deciding on its permanent use. Most of them are largely concerned about upgrading, switching and selecting or designing suitable digital means to fit into their business's needs. There is an influx of new and existing technology in the market. Primarily due to excessive advertisement, entrepreneurs are easily confused as to which technology they should buy to meet their requirements. Those who have limited digital skills and a lower level of self-efficacy face more of a dilemma due to the illusion created by emerging technologies. This might cause frustration in users and consequently demotivate them from using digital technology. They think that technology is evolving dramatically, and for small firms, investing in changing technology is

challenging. Even for an IT professional, changes in technology have been surprisingly challenging to anticipate: ‘I can’t believe that technology has moved so quickly again, so fast, fast moving, and then we just keep, how to keep up with it really’ (R26: IT professional).

Updating, replacing and changing different digital elements are obvious tasks on the journey of digitalisation. It requires significant effort, upskilling, financial investment and, more importantly, the skills and judgment to balance it. Stylianou and Jackson (2007) use self-efficacy in computers to represent an individual’s capacity to perform computer-related tasks. In a similar vein, the current study revealed that self-efficacy is the ability to deploy digital innovation and exploit it using entrepreneurial skills to alter and combine various digital means in the process of business digitalisation, which is almost a compulsory act in the process of business transformation for these entrepreneurs. However, choosing different digital means to fit their business needs has been a daunting task in most cases. Deployment of digital means requires the skills and confidence to perform digital tasks; otherwise, they may risk underutilisation. An accounting professional voiced his worries of having problems utilising digital innovation as follows:

Technology is growing enormously day by day, as an user, may not have the confidence of using them. For example, I have an iPhone 8S. I’m not able to get the benefit of the entire system because there are so many functions which I don’t know and so many things which I am not really comfortable with. (R23: Accounting professional)

Most of the respondents think that underutilisation of their existing technology may have caused economic loss. In their point of view, to expand their businesses, they must invest large amounts of money into technology. However, it is not enough simply to invest and buy the newest software. It is also important to train the staff and account for maintenance costs and updates. Thus, it requires a considerable amount of investment to deploy and utilise digital means effectively, and due to affordability reasons, small firms hesitate to adopt digitalisation in their business. In this context, firms must be ready to manage economic and human capital to mobilise adopted technology effectively. For some, it is a waste of money not to utilise all the functionalities available in the purchased technology. In contrast, others believe that any unused functionalities are additional items that come with the technology free of cost as they are not customised to a particular business need.

Another noted aspect of innovation deployment is not only accumulating digital knowledge but also using human talent to match appropriate business functions. The medical professional mentioned below asserted the equal importance of instilling digital competence

and investigating the feasibility of using carefully selected digital innovation to keep natural services alive:

You need to understand the skills and the feasibility of your business and find your own talents of every single business, what you are into, and use it [digital innovation] appropriately; otherwise, too much technology loses human touch, and that's not good either. (R14: Health professional)

Too much automation or the deployment of digital innovation sometimes may lessen human touch, especially in health care services. Therefore, as asserted above, self-efficacy might be helpful in developing the entrepreneurial capacity to implement digital technology rationally. Most researchers are focusing on aspects such as business models, perceptions and diffusions (OECD, 1996; Silvestre and Neto, 2014; Surie and Groen, 2017). However, entrepreneurs struggle every day with fundamental actions, such as addressing their digital needs; updating, developing or outsourcing skills and upgrading technology and utilisation efforts. Findings show that effective digital adoption requires balancing different aspects through the effective deployment of appropriate digital innovation.

Including digital innovation is not without its challenges. In fact, it requires considerable efforts, and thus entrepreneurs develop self-efficacy over time, which helps them deploy digital innovation, specially to meet a changing need, choose the right technology or accelerate their performance by making a wise judgement when required. The next section introduces the process of digital/non-digital fusion as an important aspect of technology adaptation between migrant entrepreneurs and assesses how they fuse digital and non-digital activities in their businesses to deploy digital means rationally.

5.3.2 Digital/Non-Digital Fusion

As discussed in the previous section, self-efficacy provides a strong basis to utilise skills to deploy digital means rationally. Fusing different means of technology is a skill that comes from digital competency and self-efficacy. This part of the research is designed to explore how migrant professionals balance the fusion of digital and non-digital activities in their businesses. Many of the professionals studied in this research viewed digitalisation as a holistic solution that can replace almost all physical business activities, but others were worried about reducing their personal touch with their clients due to too much automation. This contradiction has challenged modern entrepreneurs to decide to what extent they should digitise business activities and to what level it is possible to do so:

And I don't believe in over-digitalising. Sometimes, absolute digitalisation sometimes what happens, you know, sometimes you need to be face to face because you need to have a social contact and your natural contact.... I prefer to

see how ease, how warm he is, what he wants, what is his body language, eye contacts, like kind of what is his requirements, so that psychologically prepare me to deal with them. Yeah, that's the first contact. After that, we can lessen it, we can lower down, I mean, then we can go like, you know, some digitalisation they can see from the Viber or messenger. (R10: Accounting professional)

The traditional business habits of meeting people and providing services was deeply rooted in most of the migrant professional entrepreneurs interviewed. They believed in balancing both digital and physical business activities to provide a better service. Unlike businesses such as online grocery and retail shopping, the professional services, especially the health, finance, law and engineering sectors, need a more personal touch as they want to understand the customers' specific needs. However, for comparatively larger firms, doing so may be difficult due to their large number of clients. Nonetheless, entrepreneurs strive to gain first-hand experience with customers by combining digital and in-person activities simultaneously. Another concern of excessive digital use in the service sectors has been a possible inhibition of creativity in the provision of services. An architecture professional was experiencing a lack of creativity when using digital tools in her business, stating:

Because people before used to sketch, using hand sketching, everything, so it's a more creative way of designing, but now, yeah, we have moved into this AutoCAD, 3D Mats and all of this software. So it has made work easier, but at the same time, it has in some way inhibited our creativity. (R29: Engineering professional)

Yet again, adopting digital means is a difficult task as it requires practical deployment skills to balance and fuse digital and physical activities to avoid losing originality and creativity in the businesses. Another reason for these professionals' worries is the possibility of depending on digital activities, which might create problems. Especially in the event of technical faults and breakdowns, a business suffers from damage and interruptions. Additionally, switching from one technology to another involves significant risks, and a more extended replacement transition can cause distractions. They believed that these kinds of problems can be avoided by matching digital and physical support systems. A medical professional worried about relying heavily on digital tools, since sometimes they may not work as expected. He had many occasions where he encountered problems with system shutdowns, which reverted him to using traditional methods while caring for his clients:

Shuts down, problem it does not work. We cannot receive the patient, and we have all... All sorts of files you know. We don't have anything; everything is there. If something happens... Goes wrong with it then I have to call the patient and write in a piece of paper everything and then transfer once this sorted out, so these are the things we face at the moment. (R6: Health professional)

However, it seems that the necessity of digitalisation depends on the nature of the business. In some cases, it does not matter whether someone works physically from their office or virtually from other places because they work through a server or virtual platform and might not see other co-workers for a while. In GPs, some parts of the job can be automated, and some cannot. He argued that appointments and scheduling activities are cost-effective and compatible through automated systems, but providing counselling to the patients is more effective in person, although some GPs have introduced telephone or online consultation in recent years.

He illustrated that he was currently using digital X-rays, but sometimes either the machine does not work, or the staff take too much time due to its complexity. This demonstrates that technology is not a panacea; it is only a tool to facilitate operations. In contrast, an education professional also claimed that she had nine teaching centres throughout the UK, but she had never seen her students since they attend classes virtually. Nonetheless, she added that they arrange live classes as and when her students require specific guidance; otherwise, online teaching has been comfortable and cost-effective for them, so she believes that combining in-person and online learning is the best way to make teaching effective.

It can be summarised that professional services are operating in a fusion of digital and non-digital elements; however, the proportion of such a fusion varies significantly from one service sector to the other. This raises the question as to what extent digitalisation transforms business activities and whether digitalisation is a panacea. To respond to similar queries, Couclelis (2004) researched pizza on the Internet and concluded that digitalisation does not entirely replace traditional or physical business activities because one has to deliver a pizza physically to the customer since it cannot be transferred online. However, the order can still be made online. Some business activities can be transferred into an automated system, but the rest still require physical operation. Results show that digitalisation is not a complete panacea; instead, it accelerates efficiency and reduces traditional business activities, but there is a need for fusing digital and non-digital activities in a balanced way. The next section elucidates how migrant professionals in professional services trade-off between readymade and bespoke digital technologies while deploying them their business functions.

5.3.3 Off-The-Shelf and Bespoke Trade-Off

Results show that there are three practices in selecting and implementing digital innovation in businesses. The first category concerns bespoke technology rather than off-the-shelf because the business can afford the cost. They think that readymade digital products available in the market are not typically designed to address a particular type of business need;

therefore, using them does not necessarily fulfil their business needs completely. A successful aviation business entrepreneur stated that:

In our situation, we actually like to build what we want in-house. And that's, that's because we believe that if we build something you make, because we have experienced on it. Because we are in that business, then built by some big company who is just building softwares or digital platform. We probably know what the customers want, and we probably know the daily operational issues with it, so, over the last few years, we invested a lot of money in the business. Ah, especially on the digital platform, so we tend to, we tend to do more in-house than buy from the market. (R21: Engineering professional)

Business activities are understood well by those who actually run the business. Developing any digital means in-house, especially software, instils confidence about how useful a system is. As mentioned above, the interviewee stated that they build their required digital technology in-house rather than buying it from the market. They better understand what their customers want and how daily operational issues can be addressed through digital means, and, in line with such needs, they design their unique digital resources. This practice helps them enhance competitive advantage by maintaining greater control on digital innovation and retaining knowledge assets within enterprises in comparison to outsourcing or using third-party systems (Hashai, 2018). Professionals are also equally concerned about choosing any technology readily available in the markets as they have different features. Some systems are separately designed based on business functions, while others are integrated version that address specific business types. An engineering professional expressed his views as follow:

There are lot of tools of digital means available in the market the reason which I choose based on their facility what they can test their software provide platform I match my requirement and facility available form digital means. (R1: Engineering professional)

An entrepreneur should understand his or her business's needs before choosing any digital tools from the markets as they are designed to sell on a large scale. The nature of their products and services, as well as their customers' demand and their business's strategies, are jointly considered before buying any digital product. One very important feature commonly found in this research is the need to match skills, especially in the case of using off-the-shelf technologies from the market. There is a general view among migrant entrepreneurs that tailored technology requires significant investment; therefore, designing bespoke systems is perceived as unaffordable within these communities. An accounting professional articulated, 'We still consider ourselves as small business, and because all the technologies... we are using not tailored made, that is not based on our requirement' (R2: Accounting professional). A similar view was expressed by the other accounting professional, who said, 'We don't have

any separate or bespoke system to kind of manage because it is a very small firm' (R10: Accounting professional).

These views have one common theme: professionals who think their businesses are comparatively smaller in size perceive that they cannot afford a bespoke system because it requires a huge investment. However, some believe that readymade systems are more expensive compared to bespoke systems in the long run as they are not fit for purpose and can only be used to address common business functions. To build up competitive advantages, customised applications are useful because they are designed with typical business specifications in the context. While balancing those readymade or customised digital technology, entrepreneurs use their self-efficacy as most of them realise that they lack various skills required for effective deployment. The next section explores how such a gap in skills is strategically managed in the different professional sectors.

5.3.4 Outsource-Insource Skill Balance

This study revealed that the sampled migrant professional entrepreneurs mostly relied on outsourcing and offshoring in adopting and utilising digital resources. The evolving and changing nature of technology always becomes a matter of concern due to upgrades, breakdown and other maintenance support. A lack of adequate digital skills was their main concern in their daily business operations. Most of them agreed that learning and updating digital skills in-house is very important, but they could not afford to develop a whole IT team with diverse skills as they were very small in sizes.

Similarly, they perceived that hiring a consultant is often an expensive method as it requires regular investment. Thus, sometimes they sought for commission-based technical partners to avoid the regular cost and to integrate a third-party system to pay on a revenue-generation basis. They also sought support from family and friends if available. However, in most cases, they adopted a mixed approach to fulfil their business requirements. Results show that they endeavour in balancing outsourced and insourced digital skills and means, but those who have demonstrated their efficacy have been successful. An IT professional confirmed that his company required support from other service providers: 'Mainly we do outsourcing for development stuff, development and designing back in Nepal. And other consultancy we use consultant from UK or London here' (R7: IT professional). They outsource both general and specialised services from other parties. General services include developing and designing websites, systems or applications, whilst for specialist services, they hire the necessary advanced systems and new technologies. Similar practices are recorded mostly in the engineering and accounting sectors; however, other services sectors only outsource marketing

aspects, such as websites, mobile applications and SEO or digital marketing activities. These practices are mainly due to the lower costs of labour for outsourcing to developing countries like Nepal and India, whereas more sensitive services are outsourced from within the country. The purpose of outsourcing is to reduce production costs without compromising service quality. Like the IT professional mentioned above, the following entrepreneur also practised using talents from Nepal:

I... myself is fairly technical. I tend to spend time even though it doesn't give any productivity in the short run to try and understand how things work, how to make it work in another areas as well, um... so that helped me deploy these... either digital hardware or digital softwares. Similarly, I have few enthusiastic people in my team in Nepal.... I'll pick brains from those employees in Nepal. (R8: IT Professional)

In this practice, the professional not only outsourced services, but also developed his own human resources in Nepal to balance their skills and costs simultaneously. It can be inferred that a trade-off between cost and quality service is achieved by managing the right skills in-house and by outsourcing. Similarly, a money transmitter who recently adopted digital systems managed his digital activities from two countries. His websites and transactions were operated from the UK while his system support was from Nepal. He said that these helped him in two ways: one, he could communicate with the teams in his native language, and two, he could reduce operating costs significantly. However, he recounted an apathetic experience with the unfriendly transnational regulatory framework because he lived in a well-developed and techno-friendly country while his country of origin had insufficient digital provisions, being in the early stages of digitalisation.

Understandably, digital experiences are not similar for everyone even in the same sector or for same businesses in different stages, but findings show that most of the professional migrant entrepreneurs consider outsourcing from developing countries as cost-effective. An accounting professional stated:

Now, we outsource like we need to do like in marketing. We do Search Engine Optimization (SEO). We get it done by an IT and the website consultant in India.... So it's cheaper than in the UK, someone in the UK, and they are really good, and it's a common practice to hire IT professional from India or any, most of the company in the UK and worldwide.... So we use them. Where we can't do something ourselves. Basic thing we tend to do ourselves like basic thing, basic IT. But that side, marketing and the more technical part of IT related matters, we hire people from our side. (R13: Accounting professional)

Outsourcing marketing activities is growing. Although our samples were mostly reliant on developing countries like India and Nepal, it is not limited to any territory. The aforementioned accounting professional explained how necessary IT skills or activities are

performed within the company, while more specialist and marketing related activities are managed by outsourcing consultants from anywhere in the world. Similarly, a health professional said:

We have to use both outsources and in-sources as well. And then you have to consultations. So in our health profession to learn something, there will be always gap.... So to close this gap, we try to just to use everything outsource, in-source. So you have to be kind of looking things what is the gap. If you let them bit longer, like if you don't update, them if you leave, there will be very big gap. (R17: Health professional)

This health professional viewed balancing insource and outsource activities as a regular phenomenon. These issues are discussed in their professional networks as well. Digital skills and digital technology are intertwined; thus, he focused on updating both the skills and technology. Similar to other professionals in the accounting, IT and engineering sectors, he also believed that obtaining proper consultation from an expert and learning from sharing could help with understanding and balancing the insource and outsource requirements of the businesses. A constant review and analysis can help identify needs and address them on time, which is crucial to prevent future problems.

It is revealed that digital requirements are fulfilled through different modes by developing an in-house team, outsourcing from others or using a third-party service and offshoring means to complete a task overseas, especially where there are cheaper labour costs. Equally, results show that developing a team of employees to complete a task at a comparatively cheaper cost from the country of origin is a standard practice in recent days. These practices are unique to migrant communities as they have a strong connection between the two countries. The following IT professional shared her opinion:

We use Outlook for email... Office 365, One Drive... We've got other application for HR. We've got something called Myview.... It's a third-party application. We use it for, um, our payslips and everything, so your annual leave, sick leave, all of that thing that goes on to Myview. We've got Business Objects Reporting, we use, and these are all third-party application, but... Our business applications team, which is the team that does develop, development integration, they, um, they kind of like do first level of support, and if anything, is not working, then it's, it's done by the supplier, third-party supplier. (R26: IT professional)

Different systems and applications are required to operate all kinds of business activities. Business correspondence, documentation and collaboration platform are available to integrate with the business system. Similarly, applications are available to address human-resource-related activities, and other systems like Business Objects Reporting were used by our respondent to achieve her digitalisation goal. Her experiences showed that they fulfilled their technology needs by three techniques: first, developing an in-house team; second, outsourcing

and third, integrating a third party. Most of her practices were similar to others' experiences previously discussed, but differences remain in balancing insource or outsource activities. As a synthesis of the overall discussion, this section posits that migrant entrepreneurs' innovation adaptation practices lead them towards digital inclusion. The next section examines how digital inclusion strategies help migrant entrepreneurs in the service sector transform their human capital into entrepreneurial human capital motivated by innovation adaptation.

5.4 Discussion

5.4.1 Innovation adaptation through knowledge transformation

Innovation adoption is no longer optional (Botsman, 2015); however, implementation is a daunting task for most business owners in the service industries. On the one hand, some entrepreneurs are outperforming others by using the latest technologies (Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Daniel et al., 2015; Hagsten and Kotnik, 2017; Saxenian, 2002), while others are struggling to manage it, which has resulted in uneven technological practices and enterprises lagging behind (European Commission, 2015). The reason why such a paradoxical situation is happening and how migrant entrepreneurs are exercising their practices to achieve the best by adapting innovation, are the questions to enquire. In response to this astonishing question, this chapter has revealed that, through continuous knowledge transformation, entrepreneurs can adapt to innovation and hence can reduce uneven digital practices. Continually updating knowledge builds individual and contextual understanding, which impacts their decisions on whether to use new technology (Yousafzai et al., 2007). Migrant entrepreneurs who have degrees in different contexts could update their knowledge through professional and academic degrees from the host environment.

Both technology and knowledge updating should occur collectively (Gertler, 2003). The process mentioned below in Figure 5.2 articulates that constructs such as upskilling, talent development, technical and entrepreneurial knowledge in a combination with technological core aspects such as awareness about usefulness, implementation and management of innovation drive migrant entrepreneurs to make rationale innovation adoption decisions.

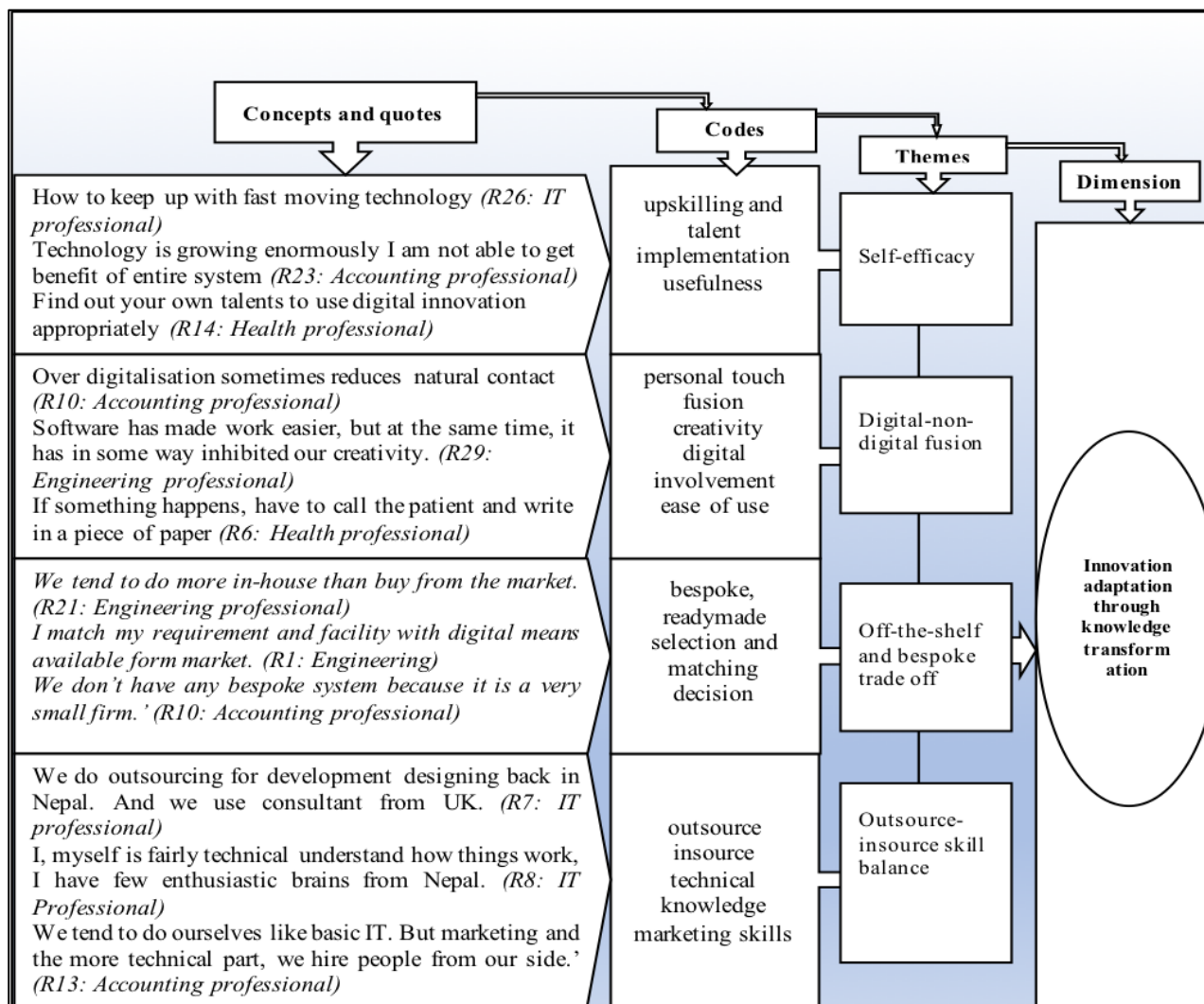


Figure 5.2: Process of construct development for innovation and continuous human capital transformation

There are four main types of innovation adoption-related issues – developing self-efficacy, balancing physical and digital business activities, deciding whether to buy a readymade technology or customise it according to business needs and whether to develop technology inside the business or to outsource or integrate a third party. To address these dilemmas, the current research suggests that innovation adaptation can be achieved through continuous knowledge transformation.

Comprehensively, the concepts and quotations expressed by the sampled respondents in Figure 5.2 firmly constitute the codes and themes to develop dimension-innovation adaptation through knowledge transformation. Human capital, technology acceptance and innovation diffusion perspectives help understand how initial human capital shapes entrepreneurs' perceptions of technology adoption and how they develop entrepreneurial knowledge while adapting to the innovation. This indicates the circular relationship between knowledge development and digital inclusion. Digital inclusion for entrepreneurial human capital transformation is derived from iteratively reformed concepts and themes and constitutes dimensions of innovation adaptation through knowledge transformation. More precisely, the figure stated above signposts how migrant professionals adapt their human capital to adopt innovation to operate businesses digitally while developing the innovation adaptation skills required to include themselves in digitally motivated entrepreneurial activities. Besides, it shows how digital inclusion allows them to transform their human capital further. First, upskilling and knowledge accumulation regarding technology is achieved through qualification, training and experience (mostly trial and errors) that constitute dimensions like digital awareness, digital competency and capacity, as well as preparedness in deploying digital technology. Second, rational judgment in the selection, implementation, utilisation and adaptation of adopted digital technologies is achieved through self-efficacy, digital/non-digital fusion, off-the-shelf and bespoke trade-off and outsource-insource skill balancing within the deployment of digital technologies. Finally, an endeavour to transform their knowledge into entrepreneurial human capital when demonstrating who they are showcases security and genuineness, insists visibility and ubiquity of reliability and builds trust through transparency and initiating differentiation and standardisation.

5.5 Conclusion

This study found that migrant professional entrepreneurs adapt their human capital while implementing digitalisation. The result confirmed that digital inclusion for migrant professionals is conditioned by an opportunity-challenge dichotomy, and more problems recur when deploying digital means. Unlike previous theories, which focus on the digital behaviours

of acceptance, rejection and diffusion (see Davis, 1989; Rogers, 1995), the current research discovered that human capital adaptation builds the digital capacity to deploy technology efficiently, which enables users to adapt to innovation. Thus, a multidisciplinary construct method (Molloy et al., 2011) that extracts complementary constructs from technology adoption approaches and human capital theory has been used to address such problems. Couclelis (2004) and Ziyae (2014) insist that entrepreneurs need to understand their changing roles in the presence of digital means by gaining knowledge and skills related to technological means. This indicates that entrepreneurs need to update their knowledge continuously and understand the impact of innovation so they can effectively identify and exploit new opportunities.

Figure 5.2 exhibits a clear route of how migrant professionals adapt their human capital to include themselves in a digitally operated business while developing their entrepreneurial human capital. Rational judgment in selection, implementation, utilisation and adaptation of adopted digital technologies is achieved through self-efficacy, digital/non-digital fusion, off-the-shelf and bespoke trade off and outsource-insource skill balancing within the deployment of digital technologies. Thus, the cyclic pattern in between innovation, knowledge transformation and digital inclusion for digital entrepreneurship practices within migrant entrepreneurs in the service sectors is revealed.

Innovation and continuous human capital transformation are crucial aspects for migrant entrepreneurs in the digital economy. One without another could hinder digital inclusion practices. Results show that human capital is inevitable for innovation adoption, and digital inclusion is achieved through effective innovation adaptation. Equally, digital inclusion provides opportunities for entrepreneurial human capital transformation. These cyclic elements appear to be both conflicting and complementing as they emerge, but still they are interlinked to form a cyclic relationship in a digitally inclusive entrepreneurial journey.

Chapter 6 Networking for Transnational Entrepreneurship

6.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to develop the understanding of transnational activities of migrant professional entrepreneurs who are endowed with human capital and network capital as unique resources connecting two or more countries. Previous research has mainly portrayed migrant entrepreneurs as a marginalised and underprivileged category within mainstream entrepreneurship research (Khoir et al., 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008; Ram et al., 2017). However, this research reveals that migrant professional entrepreneurs can have unique competitive advantages to operate transnational businesses as they have knowledge-based dual networks with strong connections in both the home and host countries. In addition to this, they accumulate experiences in both countries and are regarded as established experts in their field. Although earlier research (e.g. Levitt and Jaworsky, 2007) shows networking as an important characteristic of transnational entrepreneurship, it rarely addresses the role of human capital. However, the current results present transnational experience and professional expertise as the constructs of human capital contributing to forming and managing such dual-positioned networks that portray migrant professional entrepreneurs as both local and international in both their home and host country. In particular, those who emigrate from developing economies, such as Nepal, can gain experience and knowledge in the developed country, such as in the UK, and translate those skills in the home country for business opportunities. These are additional benefits to what earlier research claim that they capitalise in their culture as a social remittance and translate it into business opportunities (Chen and Tan, 2009).

Likewise, businesses established in the developed countries can benefit by hiring human resources from low-wage countries like Nepal. Although there is a tendency to fulfil a shortage in human skills from developing countries through work permit systems in the developed countries, digitalisation has now enables human skill to be acquired digitally to some extent. Nevertheless, whether digital or physical, this research shows that there is a massive practice of knowledge and skills being exchanged internationally through entrepreneurial networks. Most of the sample migrant professional entrepreneurs of this study can be categorised as self-initiated expatriates, as outlined by Jokinen et al. (2008), since they are mobile and voluntary travellers searching for better business and professional opportunities different from other migrant entrepreneurs. Although these kinds of expatriates are studied from a workforce talent perspective (see Doherty, 2013; Jokinen et al., 2008; Myers and Pringle, 2005), they are rarely

considered from an entrepreneurial talent perspective. This indicates that there is a circular flow of entrepreneurial skill exchanges that is poorly understood in entrepreneurship research.

In understanding the root cause of why Nepalese-origin professional entrepreneurs believe in human capital development and network building, one must understand the theory grounding it. There is a socio-cultural aspect deeply rooted in setting life trajectories by migrant professional entrepreneurs in accumulating the human capital and networks required to develop knowledge-based business ventures (Hayter, 2013). Similar to their appetite for knowledge accumulation, they have another aspiration, which is to build a stronger and wider network with so-called successful and educated people throughout the nation and worldwide. Whilst building such networks, immigrants mostly use their diaspora network as an entry point (McCabe et al., 2005). There are two theories behind this; one, human capital development theory, which assumes that knowledge, skills and experience have economic and social value, and the other one is networking theory, which assumes that networking is a powerful ladder to success. Aspiring to become successful, professionals endeavour to accumulate and develop human capital while maintaining strong ties with so-called successful people, as guided by their childhood schooling. Later, when they grow up, their goal is to become successful as well, so some choose to become employees, others establish businesses and few do both simultaneously. In pursuit of their ambitious dream, they become an entrepreneur and, beyond that, surpass national boundaries to become a circular or transnational entrepreneur.

Experience and education gained in the home environment narrowly fit into the host environment, and their real struggle starts from that point. In the early stages of migration, things like society, language, culture, institutions, networks and policies become new to them. However, they must become familiar with such things to sustain, settle and operate businesses in the new environment. Consequently, unfamiliarity bars them from accessing information and resources, while pressure regarding sustainability emerges in both their family and business lives. In this stage, they strive for adaptation and pursue developing human capital that includes networking and talent acquisition. They gain more knowledge by using networks, especially during their early migration stage, with the hope of becoming familiar with the new environment and the regulatory framework. Similarly, they are passionate about attending any training and continuous professional development when the opportunity arises. Other unique skills they gain during this transition are resiliency and passion as they undergo many ups and downs, which teach them the importance of these skills for their businesses. Mostly, they start updating their education, skills and experience to adapt to the host context, and at the same time they test their business opportunities while working with their employers to slowly enter

the ethnic market using their ethnic network. Those who build up a talent for adaptation start to grow by using their accumulated human capital and networking, while few remain less adapted and consequently disappear from the business. Those who manage to sustain themselves in the business world start expanding their business in the national, international and global diaspora network, as well as use digital innovation to go beyond the ethnic market.

This part of the research contributes in three dimensions. First, the findings extend human capital theory: how migrant entrepreneurs utilise networks to exchange knowledge for creating new ventures, finding business collaborators or expanding business transnationally. Second, it establishes that migrant professional entrepreneurs are mobile (Light et al., 2017) and are better knowledge transmitters (Hayter, 2013) in comparison to other migrant and ethnic minority entrepreneurs, which may contribute to shaping the methodology and scope. Finally, it considers transnationalism, relationships and knowledge exchange as contributing to the network approach. Thus, it is important to research how human capital relates to building networks for the transnational and circular entrepreneurship of migrant professional entrepreneurs in the context of the digital economy. The empirical evidence used to conduct this investigation came from semi-structured interviews conducted with 31 digitally empowered Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK who were engaged in the provision of professional services. This study has attempted to capture the more nebulous and long-term dynamics of entrepreneurial behaviours as it includes experiences from different periods of time, for instance, the first interview, revisit interview and focus group discussions conducted using a longitudinal approach as expected of the qualitative research methodology.

This chapter begins by exploring network practices between the migrant professional entrepreneurs. The next two sections investigate how they gradually form their host country and home country networks using human capital to perform networking activities in different timelines. Further to this, it assesses the stages of networking mechanisms sourcing from different network boosters, followed by how network dimensions constitute and help achieve intended outcomes. Finally, it synthesises how these knowledge-based entrepreneurs actually form a circular dynamic network for knowledge transfer, business collaboration and transnational expansion, followed by a brief conclusion.

6.2 Human capital and innovation-diffusion framework for networking

According to IDT (Rogers, 1995), for every technological means, the adopter's willingness and ability to utilise and share technological means are dependent on their knowledge, awareness, interest, evaluation, trial and adoption. Similarly, investment in human capital (Becker, 1964) allows entrepreneurs to acquire knowledge to enhance survival and

success (Bates, 1985; 1990). For entrepreneurs, education and experience are attributed as means for success (Unger et al., 2011). Entrepreneurial firms in a socio-technical system can be resilient despite limited resources because firms can benefit from a socio-technical system as it provides access to various pooled resources (Morisse and Ingram, 2016). Utilisation of technology or digital means is dependent on human actors, which are embedded in different social groups that share specific characteristics (Geels, 2004).

Furthermore, Ko-Min and Johnsen (2011) identified the varying influences of the Internet on enterprises, depending on three main dimensions: investment in appropriate applications, entrepreneurs' perception and the level of reliance. It can be interpreted that using appropriate enterprise applications is crucial to determine whether entrepreneurs benefit from their investment. On the other hand, knowledge and attributes are equally important to achieve the maximum possible outcome. Barberis and Aureli (2010) reveal that the use of digital means provides entrepreneurs with a wider access to the global network. This could allow migrant entrepreneurs to surpass the so-called ethnic territorial networks (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Waldinger, 1984) and enter global or transnational networks. Thus, it can be argued that migrant entrepreneurs adopt technological means to integrate into a new environment, accessing wider transnational networks. The figure below showcases how human capital and innovation diffusion theories are incorporated to study the knowledge and digital-networking behaviours of migrant entrepreneurs and how data sets inform emerging themes in contributing to network theory.

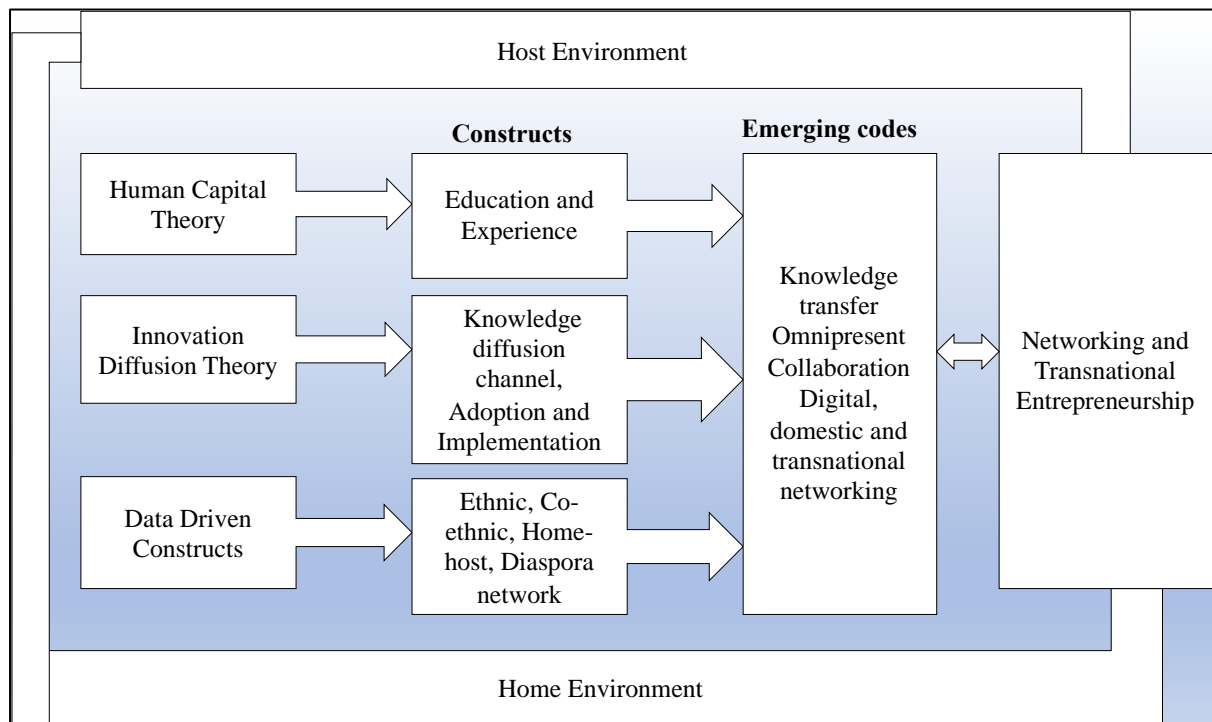


Figure 6.1: Theoretical framework for networking and transnational entrepreneurship

The entrepreneurial activities of migrant entrepreneurs always interact between the host and home environment as they are firmly connected to both the home and host countries. As illustrated in Figure 6.1, the current study poses its approach to study transnational entrepreneurial behaviours through the combined lens of human capital and innovation diffusion. To begin, it extracts education, experience, knowledge diffusion channels and technology deployment-related constructs from the theory as they are relevant to the sampled migrant entrepreneurs who operate knowledge-based businesses and are equally motivated by digital technology. However, while analysing data sets, other embedded constructs, mainly, network-related, ethnic, co-ethnic, host-home, digital and diaspora, emerged as mediating codes for theoretical underpinnings. Hence, networking is a social aspect of entrepreneurship that is also adopted to examine the experience of migrant entrepreneurs in the professional service sectors.

6.3 Network Practices Between Migrant Professional Entrepreneurs

This part of the research reveals that network development, maintenance and utility are important processes in domestic and transnational entrepreneurship. Results suggest that the formation of home-host and transnational networks are the main networking strategies of migrant professional entrepreneurs. The main intention of building a portfolio of network relationships (Partanen et al., 2014) for migrant professional entrepreneurs are to manage

knowledge exchange, to collaborate and to grow business activities transnationally. To achieve such objectives, they strategically designed a step-by-step process to build networks from the domestic diaspora level to international levels. Most entrepreneurs thought that strong relationships are very important to support their business activities and connect with possible networks. The theory of networking is not a new phenomenon as it has covered a wide range of literature. However, its evolving and dynamic nature complicates distinguishing one context from another, especially due to ever changing entrepreneurial behaviours.

Over the past four centuries, there have been regional and long-distance trading network histories that have contributed in the development of economies in both the host and home countries (Pruthi and Mitra, 2017; Saxenian 2005). This indicates that migration creates a conducive environment to develop transnational ventures. Ethnic, regional, local, familial and platonic as well as sometimes religious networks have been accounted in the previous literature (see McCabe, et al., 2005; Pruthi and Mitra, 2017). However, how migrant professional entrepreneurs form, retain and develop their networks over time and utilise them to collaborate and expand businesses in domestic and transnational spheres has rarely been studied from the perspective of knowledge exchange. Entrepreneurial networks transform and evolve over time, and both socially constituted, identity-based or sparse networks are conducive to meet resource challenges (Hite and Hesterly, 2001).

Highly skilled or professional migrants value networks when sharing information and knowledge regarding business operations, new venture creation, technology and innovation, customers, suppliers and employment recruitment activities more than native entrepreneurs (Kerr and Kerr, 2019), thus, most are involved in a diaspora network (McCabe et al., 2005) as a common entry point in their initial migration stage before expanding on a selective basis to best meet their business needs. Sometimes they become more selective in choosing who to involve in a close relation because they are conscious about excessive reliance on the ethnic community, which can inhibit a firm's growth capacity to a greater landscape (Ram and Jones, 1998). The following table shows the baseline for action connectivity of Nepalese migrant professional entrepreneurs in the context of the UK.

Table 6.1: An outlook on Nepalese professional entrepreneurs’ network

Knowledge-based Professions	Ethnic-diaspora professional network	Diaspora-Home country bridging network	Entrepreneurial intends
Engineering	Society of Neaplese Engineers, UK	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NRNA UK • NRNA Global • Nepalese Embassy • Britain Nepal Chamber of Commerce • Local socio-cultural and charitable communities • Politically motivated diaspora alliance • Individual network prior to emigration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating an ethnic market • Obtaining professional services • Developing connections in Nepal • Knowledge exchange, collaboration and business support • Creating socio-cultural bonding for identity • Lobbying for favourable national, transnational and international policies
Medical	Neaplese Doctors Association, UK		
Nursing	Nepalese Nursing Association, UK		
Law	Britain Nepal Lawyers Association UK		
Accounting	Nepalese Accountants Association UK		
Others	Society of Nepalese Professionals, UK, Non-Resident Nepalese Association, UK		

It is self-evident that migrant entrepreneurs value educational, industrial and socio-cultural experiences in both the host and home contexts. Such human capital is instrumental in developing an ethnic, national, transnational and global entrepreneurial network, which becomes an essential business platform. Sample migrant professional entrepreneurs, having different academic, industrial and professional backgrounds, connect themselves within the network related to their specific profession. For instance, engineers are connected to engineers’ association; doctors are associated with doctors’ association and so are other professionals as demonstrated in Table 6.1. Further to this, there are over 400 Nepalese ethnic, religious, political, identity- and location-related organisations in the UK, but only a few of them are

professional networks (Gellner, 2013). Among them, the NRNA has been taken as an umbrella network for all of them. Most of the professionals also directly or indirectly connect themselves with the wider diaspora, which plays a significant role in connecting, retaining and reconnecting with their home country. Networks such as the NRNA, embassy and chamber of commerce are examples of the networks that provide a platform to develop transnational business as they connect the two countries. However, the network platform is not limited to any specified community and region; instead, its scope has been extended beyond any social and professional cluster due to digital innovation.

The results show that the remaining professionals connect with local, national, international and transnational networks to pursue their various business objectives. They strategically use networks to create an ethnic market, obtain professional services, develop connections between the host-home environments, expand business internationally, create socio-cultural bonding for identity and lobby for favourable national, transnational and international policies. Moreover, they intend to create a strong tie between possible collaborative partners within and beyond the ethnic diaspora using forums like the Britain Nepal Chamber of Commerce. Likewise, they mostly focus their involvement in knowledge exchange practices between professionals, the diaspora community and other forums where they feel pride in presenting their expertise while creating positive images for their existing business and developing collaborative and expansion opportunities to bring their business to the next level.

There is a clear distinction in network alignment illustrated by the table above. Unlike other general migrant entrepreneurs, professional entrepreneurs prioritise their connectivity with their own professional sectors and gradually extend it to wider network platforms. The following assertion indicates that networking and upskilling are complementary (Hayter, 2013) as they require current knowledge to provide their clients with a quality service, which they exchange through networking: ‘We have a good network as well, so that kind of things well obviously, helps to update ourselves with the regulations and policies’ (R2: Accounting professional). This study entirely focused on professional entrepreneurs whose business activities are founded in their expertise and are mainly constituted by their education and experience. In other words, they are knowledge-based entrepreneurs (Hayter, 2013); hence, the study focuses on exploring how these particular types of entrepreneurs maintain relationships domestically and transnationally to manage the exchange of knowledge, collaboration and business growth. The following table demonstrates how migrant professionals position their networking activities and focus in line with their migration phases.

Table 6.2: Networking timelines for migrant entrepreneurs in professional services

Networking activities and focus	Timeline
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Approach professional organisations to connect with possible foreign associates – Find any connections from their family and friends and their affiliating organisations in the migrating country – Connect themselves with the return migrants and diaspora community members who are in the home country – Find appropriate network resources through online research 	<p>Before migration</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Visit people in their previous connections each time they visit their home country – Offer financial and intellectual support through their networks to maintain links – Attempt to participate in any relevant debates and interviews to display their expertise – Organise seminars and workshops in their field of expertise – Participate in seminars and workshops in their field of expertise organised by diaspora, global diaspora and other affiliated networks. – Join universities or colleges to update their education and qualifications as well as to connect – Work and gain experience with established professionals in their sectors – Get involved with Nepalese communities in their local areas and extend it to the diaspora community – Receive membership in their ethnic, co-ethnic and wider professional communities – Attempt to involve themselves in the wider society through charity and other local events – Attend meetings with influential people and business tycoons in the UK and in Nepal 	<p>Early migration</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Share knowledge (exchange expertise) – Contribute financially and intellectually to charitable causes – Build up strong ties between possible business partners and business facilitators – Demonstrate their skills and influence to society – Organise meetings, seminars, workshops and business meetings by inviting people from Nepal and the global diaspora – Connect businesses and professional people as well as other influential people in between the two countries – While doing so, use the embassy, chamber of commerce and NRNA as connecting points 	Later migration
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Share contacts such as LinkedIn, email, mobile, Skype, Viber, WhatsApp, Facebook and Instagram to stay connected – Post information regarding their business activities – Share events of common interest (identity issues, diaspora events such as festivals and cultural activities) – Invite wider community people in their network loop – Post any meetings with influential people – Share any personal or professional achievement – Advertise resource requirements including human resource 	All times

Migrant entrepreneurs use phase-wise activities in profiling their networks according to their preference. These phases can be categorised into four types: before migration, early migration, late migration and all times. Some activities are unique to a particular situation, while others overlap as they remain important at all times. Some are more frequently recurring in nature than others. This shows that networking events are not static; instead, they are dynamic and evolve over time. Initially, they are involved in preparatory networking activities, for instance, approaching professional organisations and seeking family and friends for any possibility of connecting with the target host country before they migrate. Likewise, the second phase is more fragile because they have already left their country but have yet to settle in the host land. At this stage, they are not confident enough to influence the other members of the network, but it is essential for them to familiarise themselves with the host environment. They then try to connect themselves with any available networking opportunities, including joining universities; attending workshops, seminars and trainings and meeting with ethnic and native people when possible.

When they feel settled, the phase after the transition, their involvements in networking become more matured and influential as they gain contextual experiences and knowledge in their profession. They start to share their knowledge, organise events like seminars, meet influential people and organisations and abide within the professional organisations. However, there are some activities that occur equally regardless of the phase that mostly appear through a digital connection – sharing professional and business achievements, communicating business activities and sharing personal and social events that might add value to their profession. These networking activities can also be explained from different perspectives, for instance, what they do in their early migration stage but do not do now, and what they do now that they couldn't do in the beginning.

They used to participate in any diaspora activities but now mostly focus on selected and interesting groups. They used to be passive participants but now are proactive. Their involvement was less business-related but are now more business and collaboration focused. More currently, they can share business ideas relevant to the host land, which they could not do in the beginning. They also collaborate with domestic and international partners, which they rarely did in the beginning. They have also more extensive networks in the communities.

In response to the query, they complete their 'all times' networking activities differently in the current phase. They still accomplish similar goals but in a different manner, for instance, participating in the ethnic, co-ethnic and wider community network has been narrowed down to the business-specific community, while professional networking through CPD, training,

seminars and workshops has been confined to a core network for collaboration and knowledge exchange. Instead of a particular profession, their networking activities are extended to seeking opportunities for business expansion and diversification. These activities support how migrant professionals as knowledge-based entrepreneurs become more circular through transmitting their knowledge in host-home contexts. The next two sections explore how host and home networks are constituted and coined to enhance circular networks for transnational business.

6.3.1 Process of Forming Networks in the Host Country

The earlier section clearly explains how migrant professional entrepreneurs strategically connect themselves with various networks, which generally change from professional and close relationships, which are characterised as more specific and focused, to more extensive networking. However, it involves a longitudinal process to attain the level of knowledge transfer that can develop the business collaboration stage. The exciting thing found here is the dual-positioned network of migrant entrepreneurs founded both in the host and home country. They are both local and international for both countries. This part of the analysis focuses on how these knowledge-based entrepreneurs manage their host country network differently than other general (less educated or qualified) migrant and ethnic minority entrepreneurs. It has also been noted that very few entrepreneurs jump into transnational businesses at their initial phase, as the vast majority decide only when they are confident enough to stabilise their domestic business firmly and build up a reliable network in the home country. Unlike general migrant entrepreneurs, professionals utilise their knowledge group, where they discuss their professional issues in the domestic situation. They share knowledge about resourcing and expanding existing business and widening connections beyond the ethnic community. They exercise network developing practices from and even before their migration and further develop when they feel comfortable settling in the host environment. Thus, it is a step-by-step process (Greve and Salaff, 2003) as it does not happen overnight, and the networking might begin even before they start any businesses (Kaandorp et al., 2020).

Mostly, until they have permanently settled in the UK, their business operation is limited to the host country, and similarly, their network preference remains domestic in nature within an ethnic enclave. Result shows that in the early days of migration, professional entrepreneurs felt marginalised and underprivileged as most of them were new to the host environment. They adapted their prior human capital to develop new networks, mostly starting from their family and ethnic connections, although family members were used in networks at almost every stage (Greve and Salaff, 2003), despite some findings suggesting that family involvement might sometimes decrease cross-group ties (see Mani and Durand, 2019). Since they strive for

adaptation during the initial days, they formulate strategies to use their home country experience, qualification and socio-cultural capital to influence ethnic communities and the wider society. They obtain education and training with two objectives: first, to develop and update knowledge suitable for the host environment and second, to build up a broader network for business opportunities. Integration as an outcome of acculturation through networking becomes the focused aspiration supported by human and socio-cultural capital. Within the host country, they benefited by developing ethnic and wider networks simultaneously. A lawyer who had lived in the UK for more than two decades shared his perspective:

I am the first Nepalese to become a solicitor amongst two hundred thousand Nepalese population in the UK. I helped many Gurkhas for settlement and other Nepalese community. I involve in the ethnic community, business and charitable organisations. It's a source of network where we can introduce our business and get benefits out of it. (R11: Law professional)

Some professional services are entirely focused on the host country only. For instance, lawyers, GPs and dental practitioners have their customers in their local and domestic areas as the nature of their product is designed for the host country environment. These kinds of entrepreneurs mostly struggle to develop their network within the host country environment in their early stage of migration. However, compared to other sector professionals, the lawyer mentioned above seemed to enter the UK market and benefit from the ethnic or diaspora network. In contrast, dentistry and medicine industries are often confined to local areas because their customers are based in that location.

Local and national ethnic, co-ethnic and diaspora networks, as well as businesses and charitable organisation, can be considered strategic sources of networking for law professionals. For a dentist, spreading business activities countrywide and beyond is not a primary objective because dental clients are based in a particular area, so having an ethnic network would not directly impact business. In contrast to this view, Filipino doctors in the USA engage in their professions in both the home and host environments (Portes and Yiu, 2013). However, the aforementioned professional was involved in ethnic and co-ethnic networks and provided services for the attainment of cultural, emotional and social recognition, which might have indirectly influenced his business:

We are in a clinical field because it's not very easy to expand like globally. It's not like product or anything like that you just go globally. But yeah, last time we involved in an event to make aware of the dental health. I did this for ethnic background our Nepalese community with the aim of building network. (R18: Health Professional)

It can be argued that the ethnic network is very important for migrant professional entrepreneurs, as stated above. However, it does not directly benefit their business as it is set

to provide services to local areas, which have a mixed community. Nevertheless, they aimed to share knowledge and provide a charitable work within their ethnic enclave, hoping to develop a network that might provide them an alternative business opportunity. It is also common to use ethnic networks to connect with different businesses other than their professional services. Sometimes, they linked their relationships with some specific inter-ethnic community in building identity and trust in the host environment, for instance, people from Gurkha's homeland or descendants of Gurkha, as Gurkhas are famous for their bravery worldwide (Low, 2016). To support this argument, another health practitioner, who actively participated in a Nepalese diaspora network, stated:

I am into a medical business. I am also into creative art and construction industry. Creative industry is my the recent one, which was three years ago, construction almost four-five years ago and medical for the last twenty years.... It was a god gifted thing, and we should take it and use it because the minute you say you're from Nepal or things like that people have trust on you. (R14: Health professional)

According to this assertion, using ethnic identity can be a unique resource for some migrant professional entrepreneurs. Nepalese people have over two centuries of shared history with British people as many Nepalese-origin people have served in the British army, famously known as the British Gurkhas, which has become a brand of bravery and honesty in the global sphere (Low, 2016). This has given an extra advantage for Nepalese migrant professional entrepreneurs to introduce themselves as trustworthy service providers in the host environment. Although his dentistry business was confined in a particular area, his other businesses might have benefitted from ethnic networks and diasporic identity. Therefore, there is a strong inclination for these entrepreneurs to keep bonding with the diaspora network. The endeavour of building quality relationships for broader trust is also common with Pakistani and Indian accounting professionals (Ram and Carter, 2003).

Another important network strategy of migrant professional entrepreneurs is that they endeavour to expand their network to the wider society beyond the ethnic enclave. To do so, they basically use their experience and education or skills to connect through colleagues from the previous and current job. Also, they retain their connections from university and professional training. Most of them believe that expanding their network beyond ethnic and co-ethnic communities is inevitable. Access to institutions and other supporting authorities is difficult unless top-level people or civil servants are accessible to newcomers; hence, they intend to build good connections with valuable people who can help their business grow. Although this practice may not be new to mainstream entrepreneurs, surprisingly, some believe that only secure networking can facilitate access to senior personnel in any institutions and

industries. These aspects are reflections of their home country's culture, where being connected to an elite group is regarded as a matter of pride and is showcased for the business's branding:

You have to extend your networking into the industry so that you can get the more business. So that's sort of the challenges I found so far.... I got the networking in the industry because I work in so many places and had sort of the relation with lots of big fish. I mean lots of top-level people. So it's easy to introduce, easy to make the relation and easy to... you know, launch the business. (R9: Engineering professional)

While analysing the above assertion, it can be interpreted that migrant professionals feel new in the host environment, and the unfamiliar situation at the beginning causes them to struggle in establishing or operating a business smoothly. The engineer mentioned above viewed networking as a means to approach the top-level people who could assist them in launching their businesses. He believed that extending networks from the ethnic enclave to the wider communities, especially with those who are high performers, can help attract new business. Thus, some professionals do not limit themselves to the ethnic enclave; instead, they contribute to the mainstream economy as well (Portes and Yiu, 2013). An accountant highlighted the importance of networking within and beyond the ethnic communities:

We have to attend certain courses annually where we meet different business people from different background, and they are from native community as well and other community from other Asian or other different country's community, so it has definitely, yeah, given opportunity to integrate and network with wider communication. (R13: Accounting professional)

Updating human capital through formal and informal education, as well as continuing professional development and other kinds of training, has had an impact on network building. The entrepreneur mentioned above attended upskilling programmes in the hope of developing a network within, across and beyond the ethnic enclave where he could achieve better integration.

In conclusion, founded by human capital, migrant professional entrepreneurs who operate their business in the host country mainly focus on developing a network within and beyond the ethnic community to obtain better opportunities for their businesses. This evidence shows how network-related concepts are embedded with knowledge accumulation in developing avenues for different networking dimensions, including host country mixing, host country ethnic and co-ethnic enclaves and digital and home-motivated networks, which partly play a role in Table 6.3 and Figure 6.2. It is found that ethnic professionals and connections made through family and friends are considered entry points into domestic networks. Attributes like cosmopolitanism, newness in business operations and active engagement in charitable and social organisations are strategically adopted for network building. Using a country's image in

building networks in a new land could be another instrumental device to build trust between new people. Selectiveness in choosing and including influential people in a close circle was identified as a method of network refinement and filtration. Unlike others, skilled professionals use different platforms of knowledge, upskilling and gaining experience as network hubs. Finally, knowledge transfer and information circulation are important techniques for sourcing and expanding networks, so the use of knowledge capital on top of social capital for network building is a distinct feature of these entrepreneurs. The following section focuses on how migrant professional entrepreneurs frame their home country network to be oriented towards circular or mobile networks to achieve business outcomes.

6.3.2 Process of Enhancing Home Country Networks for a Circular Network

As discussed in the earlier section, migrant professional entrepreneurs strategically and gradually develop their host country network and utilise such networks to achieve their business goals. They also remain connected to their previous home country networks and enhance an improved network by creating host country networks to further their business activities transnationally. This section explores how they enhance home country networks and utilise such networks to further develop their businesses. Migrant professional entrepreneurs appear to be circular knowledge transferrers or information diffusers, as well as business collaborators within the diaspora and host-home economies through transnational networking skills. Professionals not only bring new ideas, diversity and other unique capital in the host environment but also transmit new knowledge gained in the host environment for entrepreneurial growth in the home country, and transnational networks provide a reliable platform in doing so. Networking for cross-border businesses between traders holds a longstanding history, and the economic contributions made by immigrant entrepreneurs in both home and host countries has also been the focus of much research (see Pruthi and Mitra, 2017; Saxenian, 2005). However, although some research has found that highly skilled or professional migrants value networks in sharing knowledge and information (Kerr and Kerr, 2019) and are involved in the diaspora network (McCabe et al., 2005), studies remain silent as to how professionals develop sustainable transnational networks for knowledge exchange and collaboration. Thus, this section examines how transnational networks are formed over time (Hayter, 2013) through enhancing home country networks and how such networks empower entrepreneurs to achieve transnational business objectives.

Responding to the queries of connectivity and business impact, the vast majority of respondents unanimously agreed upon the importance of a network's effect on transnational entrepreneurship. These patterns are similar to the experiences of ethnic minority entrepreneurs

in the USA, in which Portes and Yiu (2013) claimed that those entrepreneurs are heavily reliant on transnational networks. However, interestingly, the current study goes one step further by responding to how they form such important network capital as most of them follow similar strategies in building and utilising the network to expand their businesses. According to their prevailing practices, networks can include different features and objectives. Mainly, networking in the home country is also revived in the presence of business collaboration elements that are supported by family and friends and more recently embedded with possible customers in social media platforms. An IT professional commented:

Collaboration and networking is the important thing for any business, and we use social media to connect to friends and families and our customers to update our activities and, you know, to do some marketing as well. (R9: IT Professional)

As argued earlier, it seems that they perceive networking as a strategy for creating opportunities for business collaboration. The view of the respondent mentioned above clearly indicates that he often used virtual network to connect with his families, friends and customers, especially to achieve marketing objectives, so developing a collaborative project and connecting with customers of existing businesses initially founded within the network of family and friends is then extended to the wider communities after building a certain level of confidence. This practice is similar to the networking practice they follow in their host environment. Furthermore, the home country network not only contributes in attaining business outcomes in the home country but in the host country as well. An accounting professional shared his practice below:

From my country of origin, some of the businessmen, who are known to me, they came here, and then they wanted to do some investment. They came to me for the services. They all are from my acquaintances. (R10: Accounting professional)

He had been approached by businessmen from his home country to discuss the potential of doing business. This indicates that connectivity becomes easier when someone has access to a previously established network in the home country. More importantly, migrant entrepreneurs do not only involve themselves in transnational businesses but also equally attract people they know who establish businesses in their host country. Although he migrated to the UK, he was able to retain or maintain a relationship with his colleagues in his home country, and that became a reliable source to expand his business. These kinds of practices were common with other respondents as well, which supports the argument made earlier that migrant entrepreneurs have a unique ethnic networking capital that assists them with transnational entrepreneurship. Thus, they are constantly involved in maintaining previous

networks, developing further networks and reforming and refining them according to their business needs.

In the later migration phase, they attempted to combine both host and home country networks to form a distinct network. The main reason for forming a combined network was to establish access to the market, institutions and other essential networks in their host country as well as the home country. Country- and institution-specific knowledge is more important when doing businesses in different countries (Ottaviano et al., 2015). Regarding this, they play a bridging role for socioeconomic cooperation and business development in between the country of origin and the host country. Yet again, migrant entrepreneurs are often seen through a brain drain (a lost capital) perspective by their country of birth, as well as an alien (fragile capital) perspective in the host country. This outlook might demotivate their entrepreneurial performances. The effectiveness of migrant professionals' entrepreneurial performance is also conditioned by the attitudes of the country in which they want to operate. However, digital technology has enabled them to transform as brain circulators (Singh and Krishna, 2015), which means that highly skilled migrants or professional entrepreneurs around the world can contribute to boosting the transnational economies through knowledge transfer regardless of geographical boundaries. Thus, previously used undermining theories such as disadvantaged outlook and brain drain perspective may not be appropriate to explain modern business dynamics (Portes and Yiu, 2013).

The vast majority of respondents voiced their intention of contributing economically and socially to their country of birth because they had socio-cultural, emotional and economic connections with their motherland. Equally, they were committed to contributing to their host country as their career, future generation and other socioeconomic attachment are firmly integrated into their new homeland. The following respondent said:

We are providing the legal service in the UK, but as I said, I visited supreme court judges, district court judges and registrar in Nepal and shared my experience from a developed country's perspective for any collaboration in Nepalese Legal system. I share my knowledge and skills in Nepalese network in here and Nepal. (R11: Law professional).

Contradicting his view of confining his service within the UK, he displayed his intention of finding collaboration in Nepal as well. He visited his motherland and built up networks with legal practitioners to explore business opportunities between Nepal and the UK. He used his knowledge and experience to influence Nepalese legal practitioners in Nepal to build a strong and reliable network of possible transnational businesses. Unlike this kind of indirect approach

to building a transnational business, the illustrated entrepreneur had a direct connection with Nepal to operate his business from the UK. He said:

My business is basically targeted to Nepalese-origin customers through a remittance business. Around 150 thousand Nepalese people are living here; almost monthly 20–30 thousand people will send the money back Nepal to help their family and friends and every month. Remittance from bank is time consuming and costly. But we charge minimum and deposit money to their destination immediately using latest digital technology. We have the network in Nepal. We do other countries as well, for example India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, there is also our network. (R12: Money remitter)

According to this money remitter, his business is entirely based on networking. The vast majority of his business was promoted using ethnic and co-ethnic networks. He was connected with the ethnic and co-ethnic communities in the UK and similarly more extensive networks in Nepal. As he was from Nepal, he was able to develop a strong network between Nepal and the ethnic diaspora, which enabled him to establish his transnational business successfully. In addition to his transnational business activities, he used his co-ethnic network to expand his business to India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan and Bangladesh. This practice shows that migrant entrepreneurs gain access to a network in the ethnic diaspora and expand it to achieve transnational business, expanding businesses in both the host and home environments (Stoyanov et al., 2018).

Previous researchers have been divided into two streams. One argues that migrant entrepreneurs are new to the host environment, which limits their scope of networking to the wider communities (Baik et al., 2013; Petersen and Pedersen, 2002). On the other hand, another group of scholars argue that migrant entrepreneurs have unique social resources, the ‘diaspora’, to gain access to both the country of origin and the host environment (Denk et al., 2012; Joardar et al., 2014). That empowers them to expand their business in the home-host environment as transnational businesses. Extending mutual cooperation and stimulating trade between the county of origin and host country, as well as using knowledge and experience gained in the dual contexts, are key aspects found in the results. In this sense, binding a strong network between two or multiple nations is another important contribution that transnational entrepreneurs make.

Although Portes et al. (2002) claim that two-thirds of immigrants depend on transnational ties to survive and grow their businesses, some professionals – for instance, doctors, dentists and solicitors, whose business is designed for the host country – are less interested in expanding their business, unlike IT, engineering and remittance businesses that expand transnationally. However, they are more likely to be involved with businesses other than their main professional

business in the home country by using transnational networks. Also, they are actively involved in outsourcing services using such networks; for instance, accounting professionals use staff in Nepal for bookkeeping and other general tasks.

Another interesting practice found amongst Nepalese professional entrepreneurs is to develop a business network within the global diaspora that connects personal, family, ethnic and professional ties. It creates a possibility of doing business among the diaspora, which is spread throughout the globe. What was found regarding this practice is that social and cultural distance caused by migration creates a sense of belonging within the diaspora communities, and they start meeting in various cultural and social events at national and international level. This allows them to share their knowledge, skills and business opportunities later on; such meetings start appearing as a business venture, although sometimes they do not feel comfortable sharing core business ideas other than with their closest ties (Greve and Salaff, 2003). One example of this kind of practice is a tech start-up called Sagoon, founded by a Nepalese entrepreneur. He generated a significant initial public offering (IPO) amount from Nepalese diaspora. Similar business network strategies can be derived from the following respondent's assertion:

Currently, my business is more focused on the UK, and then I [develop] a team in Nepal. Uh... I recently visited Australia, and in Sydney and Perth I had a really good business discussion, which would mean there is no restriction for me to actually to expand my business to Australia. You know how I'm running a business here, triangular way, Australia, UK and Nepal. (R8: IT professional)

The IT professional mentioned above established his business in the UK, and recently, he expanded it to Nepal using his host-home experience and network. Similarly, he planned to expand his IT business to Australia where there was another sizeable Nepalese diaspora community. It shows that global diaspora has become a corridor to transnational entrepreneurship. Similarly, another good example of a diaspora network and business opportunities is revealed by the experience of an accounting professional:

I got a Viber from USA, Boston. So one Nepalese guy, an established businessman in Boston, he wanted to do a business in UK.... His accountant is my friend in USA. And then, somehow, everything like, you know, in two minutes kind of conversation, he hired me... so the more you are in social media these days, the more like, you know, the chances are you get, you get work. (R10: Accounting professional)

This entrepreneur has lived in the UK for more than a decade, but his prior emigration network has been an invaluable tool to sell his services. The USA also has a significant Nepalese diaspora community, and entrepreneurs utilise this network to obtain business. Moreover, as highlighted in the above assertion, due to the emergence of digital innovation,

such entrepreneurial activities have become more feasible these days. Thus, digital technology has changed the course of networking and transnational processes.

The experience and perceptions of the sample respondents revealed that migrant professional entrepreneurs employ their human capital to develop a meaningful network for business reasons, especially to start or operate a business in the host country and to expand their business internationally and transnationally. Some consider growing in the host country, while others want to expand internationally in a location where diaspora communities are based. More importantly, the vast majority develop businesses in their country of origin. This is because some want to permanently settle and operate businesses in their host country as expatriate or migrant entrepreneurs, while others want to repatriate or become returning entrepreneurs in their home country.

However, the majority of entrepreneurs want to become circular, mobile or transnational entrepreneurs. It also occurs at transnational and multinational levels. For instance, the Non-Resident Nepali Association is a worldwide Nepalese diaspora that organises different programmes related to knowledge and skills, focusing on transferring skills into the home country. This networking has provided a platform for the Nepalese diaspora to expand their businesses at the transnational and global levels. Furthermore, they arrange visits from the Nepalese government, officials and politicians into their host countries and discuss possible collaboration. Another organisation assisted by both the British and Nepalese embassy – the Nepal Britain Chamber of Commerce – arranges business networks involving Nepalese and British nationals to explore the possibility of transnational and multinational business opportunities. Almost all the respondents of this research were associated with at least one Nepalese diaspora-related organisation. The current and previous sections reflect a precise trajectory of how migrant professional entrepreneurs gradually develop their domestic and transnational networks for knowledge transfer, collaboration and business expansion purposes. The next section is a synthesis of the above discussion, which explores how different constituents help to form entrepreneurial networks to obtain immediate and ultimate business objectives.

6.3.3 Networking Mechanism and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

The earlier two sections provide an apparent premise of network constituents as host country network and home country network that enable them to operate their businesses transnationally. It is found that network dimensions are interconnected and complementary in nature as they do not occur in isolation to each other. Sufficient overlap between these dimensions are recorded; for instance, the formation of a domestic network includes the ethnic,

co-ethnic and wider inclusive community as it develops gradually over times, starting with the well-known people and organisations. Family, friends, ethnic community, workplaces and professional colleagues become founding components for a sustainable network.

Results show that influential people who have decision-making powers in the industry are regarded as highly valued people; therefore, it is worth developing a close relationship with them. Most of the respondents affirmed that they prioritise meeting politicians, civil servants and highly successful entrepreneurs through different channels in the hope of developing new relationships so they can gain sufficient support when their business needs help. As Burt and Opper (2020) argue, entrepreneurs who have strong connections with politicians are more successful than those who do not, and a developing country like Nepal requires connections with most authorities to obtain government supports. However, in the UK, support is readily available for everyone, but passing strict measures and obtaining businesses or references require connections with influencers from their respective fields. An engineer proudly said he had good relationships with the ‘big fishes’, while another respondent from the health sector felt discriminated against in receiving government support. These experiences indicate that having a strong connection with influential people helps to gain support in developing a business further. The entrepreneurs also understand the importance of being actively involved in the community because businesses and charitable organisations support them with expertise and donations so that they can connect with the people or businesses in the host country’s network.

The next types of networks are believed to be of both local and transnational importance because ethnic and co-ethnic people have the benefit of leveraging their connectivity not only in the host and home environment but in the sphere of the global diaspora. Another feature revealed in this research is the strategy of building a transnational network. Unlike the previously discussed dimensions, it is unique for those who want to expand their business in their home country or sometimes in the diaspora community. However, this is not in the priority of those entrepreneurs whose enterprises are specific to the host environment or do not want to expand entrepreneurial activities beyond their host country’s territory. Table 6.3 follows the method of Gioia et al. (2013) and has been designed to show how different emerging themes are grounded in the concepts cited by the respondents discussed above, which contribute to building entrepreneurial networks over time in the context of migrant professional entrepreneurs.

Table 6.3: Constitution of network dimensions for migrant professional entrepreneurs

Quotations	Concepts	Themes	Network dimensions	
<i>I work in so many places and had sort of the relation with lots of big fish (R9: Engineering professional)</i>	Business relationships while gaining experience	Experience and networking	Host country mixed network	Host country network
<i>I involve in the ethnic community, business and charitable organisations; it's a source of network (R11: Law professional)</i>	Socialisation for business relationships	Community involvement and networking		
<i>We have to attend certain courses annually where we meet different business people from different background (R13: Accounting professional)</i>	Business relationships while accumulating knowledge	Knowledge exchange and networking		
<i>We actually have a group of accountants; we formed a formal committee (R13: Accounting profession)</i>	Professional network for business relationships	Association and networking	Ethnic specific host country network	
<i>I did this for ethnic background our Nepalese community with the aim of building network (R18: Health Professional)</i>	Socialisation and business relationships	Ethnic relationships and networking		

<i>We have the network in Nepal. We do other countries as well, for example India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Bangladesh, there is also our network (R12: Money remitter)</i>	Socialisation and business collaboration	Co-ethnic relationships and networking		
<i>From my country of origin, some of the businessmen, who are known to me, they came here, and then they wanted to do some investment; they came to me for the services (R10: Accounting professional)</i>	Previous connections for business collaboration	Home country connections and networking	Home country network	
<i>I share my knowledge and skills in Nepalese network in here and Nepal (R11: Law professional)</i>	Dual national network and for knowledge exchange	Dual position and networking		
<i>He wanted to do a business in UK.... his accountant is my friend in USA (R10: Accounting professional)</i> <i>I'm running a business here, triangular way, Australia, UK and Nepal' (R8: IT professional)</i>	Home to multinational relationships for business collaboration	Origin-rooted friendship and networking		

<p><i>I got a Viber from USA. He wanted to do a business in UK (R10: Accounting professional)</i></p> <p><i>We use social media to connect to friends and families and our customers to update our activities and, you know, to do some marketing as well (R9: IT Professional)</i></p>	<p>Digital adoption for business relationships</p>	<p>Digital technology and networking</p>	<p>Digital network</p>
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Table 6.3 exhibits how migrant professionals develop network capital over time as an iterative but step-by-step process. The network dimensions are grounded in the respondents' quotations, followed by emerging concepts and themes as stated in the table. Such dimensions include host country, home country and digital networks. The host country network is formed by mixed (everyone not limited by ethnicity) and ethnic-specific networks. They gain and retain valuable relationships to match their business needs. Typically, they have different priorities in different stages, such as before migration, early migration (transition period), later migration (settlement stage) and all times as discussed in Table 6.2 in the previous section. Connections made in the home country can provide an entry point into the diaspora network in the initial transition stage. Likewise, work and university colleagues, contacts approached at training and social events and professionals in a similar field can help them build a more robust local network during their start-up and stabilisation period, allowing them to better integrate into the host environment. Lastly, more selective and/or combined network dimensions have been utilised during business expansion.

However, in most cases, various networking elements such as family, friends, diaspora and host-home connections complement each other, and almost all the respondents preferred to form digital networks to enhance the exponential effect of networking. Although ethnic- and host-country-specific connections are initially used to create a domestic network, they can be combined to help leverage developing a transnational network. In Table 6.3, quotations are categorised into different concepts, followed by themes and aggregated dimensions where 'R' represents the respondent's identity. The experiences of R9, R11 and R13, from their work experience, social and business organisation engagement, knowledge accumulation and exchange, created a home-country-mixed network.

Similarly, the assertions of R12, R13 and R18 confirm the role of ethnic and co-ethnic connections, which help to develop ethnic-specific networks. As a result of combining both, a host-country network exists. Likewise, R8, R10 and R11 noted activities rooted in the home country context, including pre-migration networks and local and international diaspora that contributed to building a transnational network. Finally, the expressions of R9 and R10 were representative voices of the vast majority of respondents concerning using digital space widely for networking. They also believe that social media is an important method of networking to include all kinds of network dimensions in the digital economy. As a further advancement of Tables 6.2 and 6.3, Figure 6.2 presents the process of how migrant professionals develop, retain and utilise network capital to achieve their domestic and transnational entrepreneurial objectives.

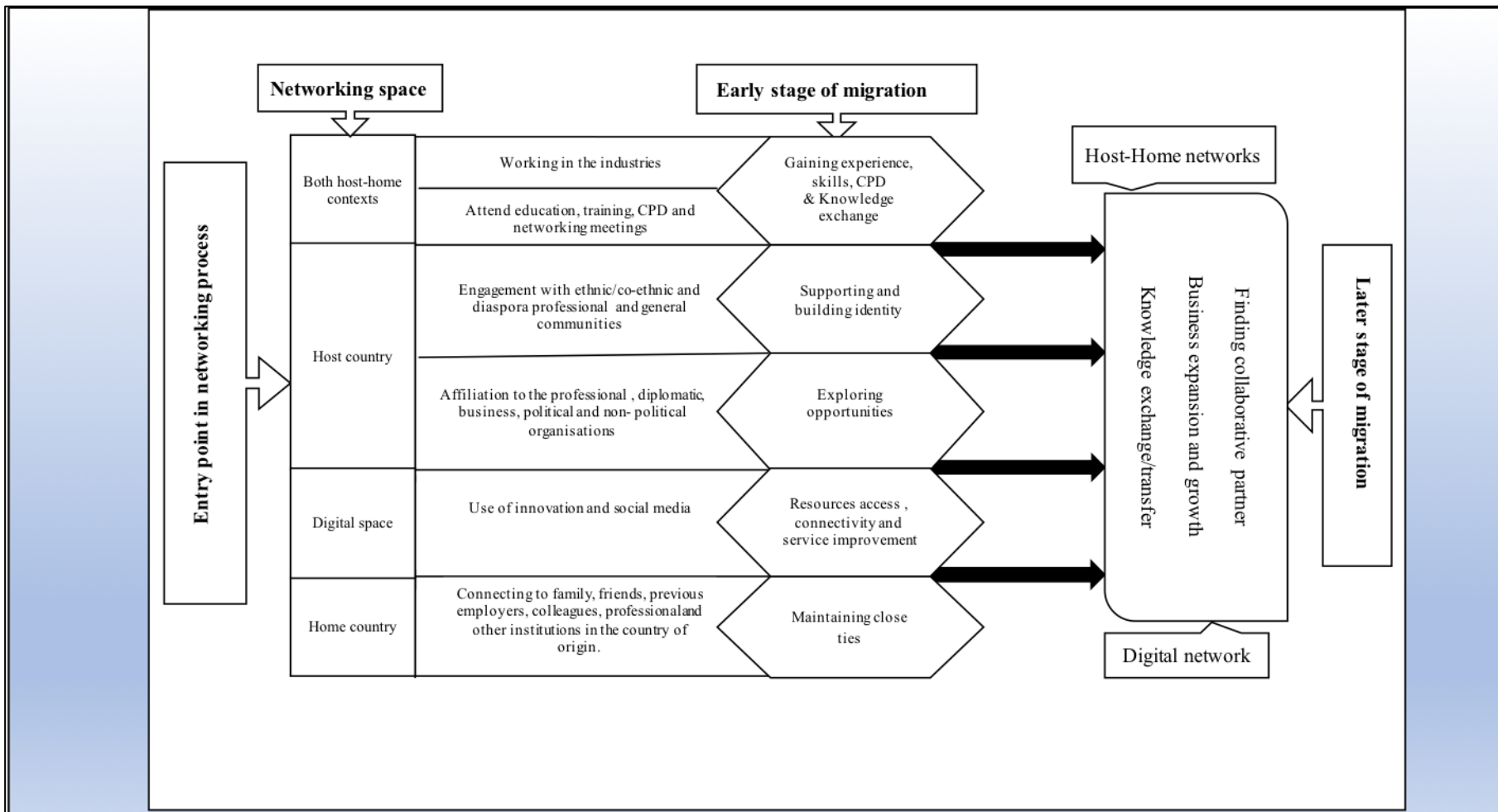


Figure 6.2: Process of networking and entrepreneurial outcomes

Figure 6.2 displays the networking activities of knowledge-based entrepreneurs who strategically followed a step-by-step process to achieve their intended business objectives. It is revealed that networking for these entrepreneurs was a dynamic and continuous process which gradually happened over time and was designed to achieve business outcomes according to their migration phases. As an early immigrant, they gained experience, skills and knowledge through employment, education and training and retain all contacts within their network.

By achieving prestigious qualifications and experience, they gained their reputation among people who were close to them, which then spread to wider connections, built trust and created a fertile environment for networking. Likewise, their expertise allowed them to engage in charitable, communal and business organisations to share their knowledge and to support such organisations with their financial and knowledge contributions. This strategy allowed them to create even better networks in the wider society through integration opportunities, which provides a networking space for both home and host contexts. Another important entry point into the network is seen in their relationships with close friends, relatives and ethnic and collective identity-related affiliations, which they endeavoured to retain, maintain and expand. That gives them extra confidence as a backup whenever they require as an immediate outcome.

Next common platform that most of the migrant professionals use is innovative social media, which enables them to access resources and improve services by embedding all stakeholders into the virtual network and provides them with an opportunity for resource exchange (Hoang and Antoncic, 2003). The final baseline to gain access to the network includes the diaspora, diplomatic agencies and political and other institutions, such as an embassy or chamber of commerce, which helps them explore more opportunities on the domestic and transnational levels. As stated in figure 6.2, all these efforts are oriented towards forming three types of networks: local (in both the host and home countries), cross-border or international (in both the host and home countries) and digital.

Although these networks are categorised into three types, technically they can be considered as four element networks as these are used in the host, home, digital and international diaspora contexts, which constitute a circular networking framework for migrant entrepreneurs, as shown in the Figure 6.3 in the next section. Constituting the four time-lined networking activities, as stated in Table 6.2, this figure presents the two important phases of networking activities in line with their achievement. The first phase is early migration, where migrants have immediate and temporary types of objectives as shown, while in the later migration phase, they are more mature and settled and are looking for long-term business outcomes – collaboration, business growth and knowledge exchange. Thus, adapting to their

knowledge in building home-host, diaspora and digital networks in early and later phases of their migration, professional entrepreneurs achieve their business objectives of finding collaborative partners, business expansion and growth and, more importantly, knowledge exchange or transfer.

6.3.4 Circular Network for Migrant Entrepreneurs in Professional Services

As discussed in the previous section, migrant professionals use networks as a means of achieving three ultimate outcomes: finding collaborative partners, business expansion and growth and, more importantly, knowledge exchange or transfer. In pursuing these outcomes, they navigate immediate goals such as gaining experience and education, being involved with the wider ethnic and diasporic communities and adopting social media. They engage with different networking activities in line with their migration phases and make entry through host, home, digital and diaspora spaces. Out of which, the role of human capital adaptation has been uncovered as unique to these professionals as most of them are highly educated and are experts in their service field. The data suggests that they tirelessly work to share their expertise and render services for the diaspora and other communities.

This supplements the finding of Portes and Yiu (2013), who view professionals as knowledge transferrers. Furthermore, knowledge-based entrepreneurs do not only transfer knowledge from the host country to the home country, but instead they bring new knowledge and experience from their country of origin into the host country as well since they maintain connections with their country of origin. These actions rotate them between the host country and the home country, creating a circular network. Knowledge transfer occurs quickly and effectively when knowledgeable entrepreneurs engage in venture creation (Knockaert et al., 2011). Therefore, there is a circulation of knowledge rather than one-way knowledge transfer, a theory that assumes migrants gain knowledge in the host environment and transfer that knowledge to the home country. Neither reflects the theory of brain drain in the context of developing and underdeveloped countries as portrayed by earlier research (see Portes and Yiu, 2013). Most importantly, knowledge circulation (Li et al., 2020) for business collaboration and expansion creates and utilises a circular network.

What makes migrant professionals' network circular is an interesting part of this research. Previous sections are summarised in Figure 6.2 where a longitudinal aspect of network formation has been clearly articulated. Migrant entrepreneurs have a dual networking profile: one as a local entrepreneur who is involved in local networks and the other one as an international entrepreneur who is involved in international networking. Therefore, it can be argued that they are both international and local entrepreneurs. The current research

investigates on how they manage networking in a dual context position and concludes that they form a circular network that facilitates them to expand their scope in different contexts through circular mobility. The host country network includes the ethnic-specific diaspora, the wider community and the digital network, while in the home country, they have connections with home specific networks, the international diaspora community and the digital network. This means diaspora and digital networking spaces are common to them, either to do business in the home country or in the host country. Thus, they are rather involved in circular or mobile networks, which are interconnected to each other in their involvement with host, home, international diaspora and digital networks, as shown in the figure below.

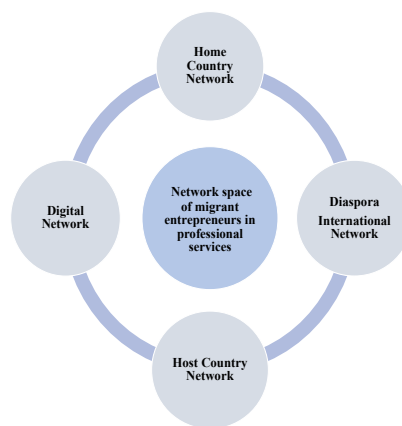


Figure 6.3: Circular dynamic network for migrant entrepreneurs in the professional services

As displayed in the figure above, a circular network constitutes four different networking spaces: the host country network, home country network, diaspora international network and digital network. In this figure, there is an additional dimension called diaspora international network, different from that of Table 6.3, which is the outcome of Figure 6.2, as that explores both host-home networking spaces. Some occur in the host country and some in the home country, whilst some of the networks remain in between, which means that in the diaspora international network, space can be further added as the diaspora international networks allows them to expand their business internationally. Of course, a digital network can be featured as a distinct but common networking platform, including most networking activities. Therefore, networking processes for the entrepreneurs in professional services should be seen from a dynamic perspective rather than a static framework.

Result suggests that although some activities can remain unchanged in a broader lens, most of the activities are mobile and changeable according to the context. Networking spaces

or platforms are not mutually exclusive, but they are linked to each other and evolve according to the contexts, as shown in the figure above. Characteristics of networking events are noted to be overlapping, detaching, disappearing, reappearing and recurring as per the priority of business needs and the migration phases. In line with networking activities, relationships also constantly change; for instance, if their focus is to develop their business in the host country, they become more active in host country networking. Similarly, if they want to develop business in the home country, they accelerate in developing home country networks. In a similar way, they prioritise sometimes the ethnic enclave while broadening their approach to the wider community in the next phases. Likewise, the level of adoption of digital networking is also dependant on their business's nature and necessities. Previous research uncovered the mobile and circular nature of migrant professionals (Light et al., 2017), and the current research reveals that, in line with their mobile and circular characteristics, their networking profile and events are also circular, as shown in the figure above.

6.4 Conclusion

In response to the research question of how human capital relates to building a network for transnational and circular entrepreneurship within migrant professional entrepreneurs in the context of the digital economy, the current study reveals that these entrepreneurs are endowed with unique human capital that allows them to form a circular dynamic network, particularly gained from two or multiple nations, that assist them in developing transnational business activities. The knowledge effect is crucial in building an entrepreneurial network (Hayter, 2013). Unlike others, the professionals' businesses are mostly grounded by their knowledge and expertise, and their entrepreneurial networks are built gradually by adopting their knowledge base in which business collaboration and expansion happens whilst exchanging their accumulated knowledge. Thus, migrant professionals originate, progress and expand their businesses while entirely relying on their human capital and networks. For them, networks are the source of new knowledge, but their reliance on such new knowledge may vary depending on the closeness and types of relationships (Dyer, 2000; Hoang and Antoncic, 2003).

Furthermore, the result suggests that the formation of host, home, digital and diaspora international networks are the four main networking strategies among migrant professional entrepreneurs. Mostly, they use networks because it eases knowledge transfer (Reagans and McEvily, 2003). Migrant professional entrepreneurs build relationships by strategically designing a step-by-step process to create local, digital and international networks, aiming to manage the exchange of knowledge, collaboration and growth of business activities transnationally. Their prevailing practices show that networks are strategically designed to fit

different business objectives, migration phases and contexts, for instance, host-country-mixed networks to promote host country businesses, diaspora networks (including ethnic and co-ethnic) for start-ups and knowledge circulation and transnational networks for knowledge transfer, collaboration and business expansion. Nevertheless, they all complement each other, and in most cases, a virtual network is always a priority in leveraging both national and transnational entrepreneurship. Networks are the means of two-way knowledge transfer, one receiving valuable business information, and the other is sharing new knowledge in the entrepreneurial society. Thus, networks are the platform of business information, and developing networks is an entrepreneurial necessity, especially in the context of migrant professional entrepreneurs as they form networks to share knowledge appropriate to their business activities.

Chapter 7 Conclusions

7.1 Overall Discussion and Conclusions

In essence, this chapter presents the consolidated implications of the whole research and combines the key results and contributions. First, it summarises the interconnections between different themes that constitute different chapters in the results and discussion section. Then the following two sections provide a succinct discussion on the implications of theory, methodology, researchers, practitioners and policy making. Overarching theoretical contributions and generalisability of the findings are discussed afterwards. Finally, it concludes by presenting limitations and future directions.

7.2 Outcome Synthesis

Migrant entrepreneurs bring their knowledge, experience and socio-cultural and economic capital to their host countries in a quest for better businesses and improved lives. However, they often strive to adapt to their host environments, maintain the dual network between the host-home environments and manage digital innovation. Professionals are highly educated, mobile and self-initiated (Jokinen et al. 2008), and most of them leave their previous jobs to create and operate a business. During their entrepreneurial journey, with talent as a novel construct of human capital, they adapt to the host environment. Likewise, the duality of the networking process and relationships is identified as a core mechanism of human capital transformation in home-host migrant entrepreneurship. Further, circular relationships between innovation, knowledge transformation and digital inclusion plays an important role in human capital adaptation in the digital age. The following figure portrays a synthesis of the overall outcomes of this thesis.

First, the study found that migrant entrepreneurs were developing and using their talents as a mediating factor in mobilising their accumulated education and experiences by fitting them into the right context. This was a function of the level of acculturation, assimilation and integration through which migrants in professional services achieve part of their education and experience for business transformations. This was justified by the need to compensate for any contextual skill gap through socio-cultural capital (Cruz et al., 2018). The research in this thesis showed that human capital contributes to shaping adaptation dimensions and acculturation as a process and assimilation and integration as outcomes. Human capital builds cross-cultural capabilities suited to boost adaptation socially, culturally, psychologically and economically

(Xu, 2017). The model depicted in Figure 4.2 demonstrates how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services use human capital to adapt to their host environment through an entrepreneurial acculturation process that yields either the most favourable outcome (integration) or the least favourable one (assimilation).

Second, it is found that migrant professional entrepreneurs adapt their human capital while including themselves in the digitalisation process. The result confirms that digital inclusion of migrant professionals is conditioned by an opportunity-challenge dichotomy and that more problems occur when deploying digital means. Unlike previous theories, which focus mostly on the digital behaviours of acceptance, rejection and diffusion (see Davis, 1989; Rogers, 1995), the current research uncovered that human capital adaptation and self-efficacy in deployment of innovation for digital inclusion support migrant professional entrepreneurs in building their entrepreneurial identity. Thus, a multidisciplinary constructs approach (Molloy et al., 2011) by extracting complementary constructs from technology adoption approaches and human capital theory has been used to address such problems.

Figure 5.1 in section 5.2, chapter 5, exhibits a clear route of how migrant professionals adapt their human capital to include themselves into digitally operated businesses while developing their entrepreneurial identity. During this step-by-step journey, upskilling and knowledge accumulation regarding technology is first achieved through qualification, training and experience (mostly trial and errors) which include dimensions such as digital awareness, digital competency and capacity, as well as preparedness in deploying digital technology. As illustrated in the figure 5.1, chapter 5, innovation and continuous human capital transformation are crucial aspects for migrant entrepreneurs in the digital economy. One without the other could hinder digital inclusion practices. Results show that human capital is inevitable for innovation adoption, and digital inclusion can be achieved through effective innovation adaptation. Equally, digital inclusion provides opportunities for entrepreneurial human capital transformation. These cyclic elements appear to be conflicting yet complementing as they emerge, but still, they are interlinked to form a cyclic relationship in any digitally inclusive entrepreneurial journey.

Finally, migrant entrepreneurs in professional sectors form a circular dynamic network, supported by unique human capital gained particularly from two or multiple nations, that assist them in developing transnational business activities. Unlike general migrant entrepreneurs, the professionals' firms are mostly founded on their knowledge and expertise. Since knowledge effect is crucial in the process of developing entrepreneurial network (Hayter, 2013), their connections are built gradually by adopting their knowledge base in which business

collaboration and expansion occurs whilst exchanging their accumulated knowledge. Thus, migrant professionals originate, progress and expand their businesses while entirely relying on their human capital and networks. Knowledge transfer, deployment of digital innovation and social connections are the major sources of entrepreneurial networks, which is exercised in mainly four spaces: host country, home country, diaspora or transnational and digital. However, these networking spaces are strategically articulated in accomplishing different business objectives over time, migration phases and contexts. For instance, host-country-mixed networks for promoting the host country's business, diaspora (including ethnic and co-ethnic) networks for start-ups and knowledge circulation and transnational networks for knowledge transfer, collaboration and business expansion. Although all other network spaces can be prioritised according to migration and business stages, the digital space always remains vital in all situations. For migrant entrepreneurs in professional services, the networks are the platforms of knowledge transfer (Reagans and McEvily, 2003) in order to receive valuable business information as well as share new knowledge in the entrepreneurial society. Thus, networks are unique sources of business creation and development in the context of professional services.

7.3 Theoretical Implications

The current research contributed fresh insights and differing experiences by capturing stories from migrant entrepreneurs in professional services. To accomplish this task, the thesis mainly contributed to three theoretical avenues. First, it conceptualised the process of talent adaptation in human capital theory. Second, it explained how circular relationships between innovation, knowledge transformation and digital inclusion play an important role in human capital adaptation in the digital age. Third, it identifies the duality of the networking process and relationships as a core mechanism of human capital transformation in home-host migrant entrepreneurship. The study synthesised and developed constructs for human capital, technology acceptance, innovation diffusion and social networking theories. In the beginning, the researcher considered three theories: human capital, technology acceptance and innovation diffusion, as the guiding theories; however, analysing data codes and themes supported regarding networking theory as a part of social capital, which was adopted as a data-driven perspective. Thus, the goal of furthering the scholarly understanding of the role of a multi-theory approach with reference to migrant entrepreneurship has been accomplished.

First, the research contributed to human capital theory. The inquiry starts with education and experience, the two most-studied constructs of human capital theory. The vast majority of respondents strongly believed that investment in human capital was crucial to their personal

and business life. Migrant entrepreneurs fit themselves into the right context by developing and using talents as a mediating factor in mobilising accumulated education and experiences. This is similar to what Becker (1964) suggested in his research. Considering the criticism about whether the education and experience earned in different contexts may not equally contribute to entrepreneurship because of credibility issues (Cruickshank and Dupuis, 2015; Davidsson and Honig, 2003), the current results also supported these arguments to some extents because most of the respondents had either regained degrees, advanced their degrees or at least achieved advanced professional training to adapt to the new environment. Also, those who had international and business experience were found to be quicker in adapting to a new environment than those who had less.

Similarly, in the context of digitalisation, most of the entrepreneurs were facing challenges with digital skills and capacity. New codes and concepts support that entrepreneurialism is more than just education and experience from the human capital perspective. The current research introduced ‘talent’ as a human capital construct that contributes to developing and succeeding in entrepreneurialism. Talent is mostly studied in human resource and employee management domains (Lewin et al., 2009; Schmidt et al., 2013; Stephan et al., 2008) but are rarely considered in entrepreneurship research. Therefore, the current research contributed by studying how talent can inform human capital theory concerning capabilities, cross-cultural changes, knowledge exchange and innovation in transnational businesses.

Second, as depicted in the model in Figure 2.1, usefulness and ease of use are two primary constructs of technology acceptance that have been considered as the initial TAM perspective, and the results showed that building digital capabilities and digital awareness can help shape innovation adoption perception and enhance effective implementation of any adopted technologies. Diffusion of technology-related human capital among the entrepreneurs can influence the perception regarding whether a particular technology is useful or not. Similarly, many respondents found difficulty in implementing adopted technology due to inadequate knowledge. Thus, focusing on digital capacity and knowledge can better explain the technology acceptance or rejection behaviour of migrant entrepreneurs. Davis (1986) explains social, cultural and political environment as the influencing factors for users’ attitudes; however, the professionals’ practices showed that digital knowledge and awareness can have equal impact on shaping digital behaviours. Most of the sampled entrepreneurs perceived that underutilisation affected adoption decision, and a lack of digital familiarity was the reason for underutilising any digital means. Although the moderating role of technological

interdependence helps to achieve long-term performance (Vagnani 2015), underutilisation of such technological innovation has however been a common problem (Danneels, 2007). Both uneven practices and the underutilisation of technology innovation are found mostly in the context of those who have lesser knowledge in information technology; therefore, considering digital competency in assessing the use of technology can better explain whether someone accepts or reject any digital means with an aware mindset.

Third, the innovation-diffusion-related attributes – willingness, ability, knowledge and implementation, as shown in the research model (Figure 2.1), especially components related to knowledge and technology implementation – were used to assess the innovation diffusion practices that might contribute in forming a network of digital businesses. For every technological means, the adopter’s willingness and ability to utilise and share the technological means are dependent on their knowledge, awareness, interest, evaluation, trial and adoption of said means (Rogers, 1995). The experiences of migrant entrepreneurs indicated that technology functionality and compliance-related information was hardly understood as most of them were designed with technical terminologies. They mostly used their networks in exploring more about digital innovation in their field but failed to afford consultant services. In this regard, it will not only impact personal willingness and ability but adversely affect the implementation phase due to inadequate knowledge. This situation hinders the argument of Morisse and Ingram (2016) as they claim that entrepreneurial firms in a socio-technical system can be resilient despite limited resources because firms can benefit from a socio-technical system as it provides access to various pooled resources. Information diffusion channels are required at all stages of technology adoption. In other words, the implementation part is vital for the adoption of any technology. Digital involvement, the fusion between digital and non-digital business activities and balancing between insourcing and outsourcing skills are important components that could contribute to innovation diffusion theory in the context of entrepreneurship research.

Finally, the study contributed to networking theory as many constructs, as stated in Table 3.11, under section 3.6.1, chapter three, emerged during data analysis. Similar to the view of Levitt and Jaworsky (2007), the current study showed the network as an important characteristic of transnational entrepreneurship. Migrant entrepreneurs in professional services have unique competitive advantages to operate cross-border businesses as they have knowledge-based dual networks with strong connections to both the home and host countries. Therefore, duality is an important component in migrant entrepreneurs’ networking practices. Digital mixed social embeddedness was introduced as an emerging construct that triggers

connectivity between host-home and diaspora communities in the attainment of transnationalism.

7.4 Methodological Implications

In addition to the theoretical contribution discussed above, this thesis also marks the methodological contribution. This includes the Nepalese-origin migrant entrepreneurs in the entrepreneurship research. Through this contribution, the study extended the definition of migrant entrepreneurs in its methodology and scope by focusing on those working in professional services in the digital economy, their human capital and the complex environment around them. Drawing valuable information regarding entrepreneurial practice within the community, where the researcher deploys his informal networks and knowledge of the research context as a community member, brings real-life experience to advance the understanding of the domain (Bellman, 2004). Thus, as intended by the interpretive methodology, this research was enriched by both the researcher's and contributors' interpretations of the worldview regarding entrepreneurship phenomenon (Ormston et al., 2014).

The novelty of this research methodology was the collection and confirmation of data through multiple means. In addition to the first stage of interview, the study gained data from revisiting the respondents for the purpose of corroboration and a second-round interview. Research instruments for the second round of data collection were devised using emerging findings from the initially collected data. Respondents were requested to comment on their transcriptions and emerging results during this period, and a further interview was recorded, transcribed and analysed. Another unique method of data enrichment was a focus group discussion constituting the previous interviewees. The multiple data collection and confirmation techniques allowed for observing and exploring behaviours over time, how mentalities change, how relationships form and more of these intangible, processual, long-term dynamics. Therefore, data was collected using multiple approaches, and information was reconfirmed through multiple visits. Qualitative rigour was achieved by implementing a longitudinal process-oriented approach (Gioia et al., 2013), which helped to identify circular and transformational processes to show how an iterative methodology can help identify iterative theoretical processes and make respective contributions.

7.5 Implications for Practitioners and Policymakers

Novel practices performed by the sample respondents have had practical implications that can be learned by practitioners. Some respondents demonstrated their hesitation in adopting innovation and technologies, while others felt more confident. This might have

contributed an uneven use of innovation as suggested by the European Commission (2015), but finding suggested that digital awareness, capacity building and readiness to use technology can help enhance innovation, which ultimately reduces uneven use of digital technology. Similarly, entrepreneurs in the health sector robustly follow the standards and guidelines as set by regulatory and professional bodies before adopting any digital innovation; however, other service sectors are less aware of such standards. These practices can have positive implications as such practices reduce the risks to safety, security and reliability.

Migrant entrepreneurs utilise dual networks to exchange knowledge for creating new ventures, finding business collaborators and expanding businesses transnationally. These practices are popular in most of the professions in the UK but are rarely adopted by health practitioners. In contrast, Filipino doctors in the USA equally engaged in their professions both in the home and host environments (Portes and Yiu, 2013).

Findings may also have implications in policy formulation. For example, the prevailing literature contradicts the preconceptions of migrant and ethnic entrepreneurs as they are mostly portrayed as disadvantaged and underperforming because of their lack of resources. However, most professionals asserted that for service sectors, resources were not always the factor inhibiting them. Rather, it was a lack of skills and adaptiveness. Likewise, there were mixed feelings about exclusion and racism in the host environment as most of them believed that digital competence and quality services help to avoid such challenges. Results showed that in the early stage of migration, migrant entrepreneurs go through many financial and non-financial challenges; thus, migrant-specific adaptation support can reduce a long transition period and encourage integration. Other areas such as clarity in transnational policies, digital security and compliance were also found to improve migrant entrepreneurship inclusivity.

Adopting technology in any form is not an option in the digital economy, but it is more likely to be unaffordable, especially for small firms. Because of its complexity and constantly changing nature, most of the practitioners voiced their frustration. Updates, maintenance, switching and consultancy costs are unaffordable for those enterprises who cannot make the continuous required investments. Innovators and early adopters who adopt technology sooner than late adopters or laggards share their experience with their networks, which prompts spreading knowledge about technology between practitioners. This helps professionals learn from others, avoid challenges and exploit opportunities where possible. From the practice of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services, it was learned that they rely on close ties more than loosely connected circles. For instance, close friends, relatives and professional fellows are more influential than crowds in social media.

It was further revealed that a policy that encourages the recognition of their home country affiliation can motivate entrepreneurs to integrate into the host environment. The host country can benefit from migrant professionals in economic and social perspectives, but a state of assimilation (which mostly occurs if the transition period between migration and settlement becomes difficult and unmanageable) can cause both economic and social impacts; therefore, a migrant-focused entrepreneurship policy could help manage their transitions better. In a similar way, the home country can benefit from its diasporic professional entrepreneurs through knowledge and technology transfer only when those countries are able to recognise their values and design policies to attract them as return entrepreneurs and a contributing diaspora community. In the initial phase, although the migration of educated people for a sending nation could seem to be a brain drain, in the long term, those migrants can become a brain circulator for the home country as the host environment becomes an incubator of transnational entrepreneurship.

7.6 Overarching Theoretical Contribution

The thesis contributes to three theoretical avenues. First, it conceptualises the process of talent adaptation in human capital theory where the acculturation process yields two possible outcomes: integration as a desired entrepreneurial outcome and assimilation as an undesired entrepreneurial outcome. Second, it contributes by introducing circular relationships between innovation, knowledge transformation and digital inclusion, which play an essential role in human capital and technology adaptation in the digital age. Finally, the duality of the networking process and relationship is identified as a core mechanism of knowledge circulation with entrepreneurial intent in home-host migrant entrepreneurship. Through these novel contributions, this thesis extends the definition of migrant entrepreneurs in its methodology and scope by focusing on those working in professional services, their human capital and the complex environment around them. The investigation started with human capital (Becker, 1964), the technology acceptance model (Davis, 1989) and innovation diffusion theory (Rogers, 1995). These theories explain the situation in a context other than the migrant professionals' entrepreneurial journey, but they do not explain the way migrant entrepreneurs in professional services must go through the processes, levels and phases within the process, such as trade-offs, decisions, balances, and back and forth actions. Human capital (Unger et al., 2011), technology (Anwar and Daniel, 2016) and networking (Levitt and Jaworsky, 2007) are three elements used to strategically integrate, digitise and expand transnationally professional services through talent adaptation.

More explicitly, in the context of contribution to the human capital theory, talent as a novel construct of human capital mediates education and experience, the two most studied constructs of human capital (Marvel et al., 2016), to develop adaptiveness in migrant entrepreneurs in new host environments. Talent develops gradually over time (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013), strategically adapted as professionals accumulate knowledge both in the host and home contexts (Molinsky, 2007). Talent adaptation processes occur in threefold phases: challenge identification through experience and knowledge accumulation, formation of talent initiated by experiential learning (Marshall et al., 2019) and formal education (Becker, 1964), and the adaptation to transform challenges into opportunities and exploit the opportunities into business success. If successfully adapted, they could succeed in integrating as a favourable outcome of acculturation or might end in assimilation due to poor adaptation.

Likewise, this study captures how knowledge and talent adaptation can be important contributors for enabling professionals to effectively adopt, the deployment and utilisation of digital innovation. In doing so, it introduces self-efficacy, digital and non-digital fusion, off-the-shelf and bespoke trade-offs of digital means, and outsource-insource skill balance as important elements to adopt, deploy and utilise digital innovation. Unlike the previously used technology perspective in entrepreneurship that focused on user acceptance and rejection perspectives (Reuber and Fischer, 2011; Couclelis, 2004), the perspective followed in this thesis extends the theories by introducing deployment-influencing factors that shape the outcome of digital usage. Human capital helps adopt innovation, and digital inclusion promotes entrepreneurial knowledge transformation. The process of innovation and continuous human capital transformation is another novel finding that contributes to technology adoption perspectives. This extends the technology acceptance and innovation diffusion perspectives within entrepreneurship by unveiling the circular relationships between innovation, knowledge transformation and digital inclusion that complement constructs from combined theories and contribute to human capital and innovation adaptation.

Networking theories have two strands regarding migrant entrepreneurs. One strand is limited by confinement to an ethnic enclave (e.g. McCabe et al., 2005), whilst the other strand is advocated for having unique network capital for transnational business opportunities (e.g. Pruthi and Mitra, 2017). However, they are silent about the processes, phases and circular dynamism in the network development process. The current research discovers the process of networking and how migrant professionals' connections are developed, disconnected and reconnected using various networking spaces, extending the theory. The networking process phase comprises before migration, early migration, later migration and all times within the

broad process of general and professional networks. The networking mechanism involves a host country network comprising an ethnic-specific and mixed network, home country network, digital network and diaspora international spaces. A unique feature of a professional network is that it develops by means of knowledge exchange (Kerr and Kerr, 2019) in order to achieve business expansion and collaboration objectives. It provides a reliable platform for circular entrepreneurship between the home country, host country and diaspora spaces. The duality of the networking process and relationships initiated by knowledge sharing is identified as a core mechanism in migrant entrepreneurship. Unlike others, the professionals' businesses are mostly grounded by their knowledge and expertise. Thus, professionals originate, progress and expand their businesses while relying on their human capital and networks.

The current research contributed novel insights and differing experiences by capturing stories from Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in professional services. Its uniqueness is that the professionals have to decide between and balance employment and entrepreneurship in their new host environment. Furthermore, this work will be a source of synthesised literature that was systematically reviewed on migrant entrepreneurship while grounding the essence of the entrepreneurship phenomenon in the exploration of entrepreneurship in professional services. This will contribute to narrowing the gap in recognising differing segments of migrant entrepreneurs, from low-skilled perspectives (Ishaq et al., 2010; Khoir et al., 2017; Ram and Jones, 2008;), to the high skilled or professional (Saxenian, 2002; Parker, 2017).

The role played by talent has been generally ignored in the entrepreneurship management domain, although it has been widely examined in studies in the field of work (e.g. Björkman et al., 2013; Collings and Mellahi, 2009). The researcher introduces talent as an important aspect of the entrepreneurship phenomenon through this study. Talent adaptation is a crucial human capital construct that enables individuals to mobilise other dimensions of human capital, including education and experience, because talent, experience and education are all embedded in them (Barney, 2001). If it remains unidentified, talent adaptation has limited strategic value (Levy et al., 2019). As this study shows, migrant entrepreneurs develop talent as a construct of human capital and adopt such talent to adapt and operate a business in a new host environment. Similarly, the current study contributes to reducing this gap in entrepreneurship research by introducing new insights as it reveals a cyclic relationship between innovation adoption, digital inclusion and continuous entrepreneurial human capital development, which migrant entrepreneurs develop through a step-by-step process. During this process, the cyclic elements appear to be conflicting and complementing as they emerge, but they are still interlinked to form a cyclic relationship in a digitally inclusive entrepreneurial journey. Thus, innovation

adoption and knowledge transformation go hand in hand in the context of migrant entrepreneurs in professional services. Previous scholars (e.g. Anwar and Daniel, 2016; Hagsten and Kotnik, 2017) contributed to the technological perspective. However, considering changes in the digital global economy, new or revised theoretical lenses are needed to understand migrant entrepreneurship in general and its role in professional services specifically.

7.7 Generalisability of the Findings

Generalisability of the qualitative findings is worth discoursing, though it should be directed towards the research purpose that, in this context, is to provide in-depth explanations and connotations (Carminati, 2018). Unlike quantitative traditions, the generalisability in qualitative research has always been questionable (Davies and Dodd, 2002). Thus, its generalisability should be ensured by securing the appropriate use of elements such as subjectivity, interpretation and emancipation (Symon and Cassell, 2012). Interpretation is more about social, individual and contextual interactions for constructing meanings (Ormston et al., 2014). The findings of the current study are the outcomes of social interaction, which expose the understanding of how migrant entrepreneurs in professional services experience and perceive entrepreneurship in a host-home environment. It explores the adaptation, innovation adoption and networking process from lived experiences, uniquely and flexibly as per the nature of the qualitative research design, which is not always necessarily replicable to others (Miles et al., 2014). Therefore, the purpose of this research is not to establish generalisability (Morse, 1999).

The topics the research covers are under-explored but very important, as these communities are growing in the UK and around the world. Findings can be important in other professions not included in this research as well as for general migrant communities. Professionals from India, Bangladesh or Pakistan might have more similarity, and China and other Asian countries, as well as all other migrant professionals who are on the journey of entrepreneurship in a new host environment, can have similar experiences to some extent. Although some migrants with similar culture and languages might have similar practices, professionals from northern Indian states and Tibet or the Chinese provinces nearest to Nepal are more alike. Therefore, this research will potentially be more applicable to the parts of India and China nearest to Nepal and potentially somewhat less applicable to states/provinces geographically further away. Nevertheless, other aspects such as innovation adaptation, networking, contribution towards dual economy-related experience in operating businesses in the new host environment, as well as the contribution of diaspora citizens in their home countries, can be replicable. Strategies such as talent development and adaptation, continuous

knowledge transformation through innovation adaptation, developing sustainable transnational networks for knowledge exchange and collaboration, and the choice between employment and entrepreneurship can be learned from each other in differing professions.

7.8 Limitations

Limitations serve the role of catalysts in advancing scientific research progress as it provides a clear guideline for future research (Brutus et al., 2013). Despite robust planning and strategy, the researcher sometimes had to navigate unexpected encounters that might have impacted research quality. The limitations for the current study are twofold: methodological and personal limitations. The first type of limitation includes the testability of the results, as qualitative research is designed to capture in-depth and contextual understanding, not for a statistical test (Miles et al., 2014). Furthermore, unconscious bias in capturing and translating interviews as well as the degree of honesty and truthfulness of the information provided by the respondents might impact interpretations. Although the sampled entrepreneurs all hold university degrees, English was not their first language; therefore, communication might have affected some of their responses to some extent as the interview was conducted in English. Response distortions, unwillingness to share the truth and exaggerating stories could have impacted the reliability of the data. However, the study followed multiple techniques to reduce such issues, including corroborative and revisit interviews, as well as a separate focus group discussion.

This study focused solely on migrant entrepreneurs who are foreign-born and who completed most of their education in their country of origin; hence, it does not necessarily reflect ethnic entrepreneurs who are born and educated within the country they reside. Nepalese-origin migrant entrepreneurs in the professional service sectors might not necessarily represent everyone as it disregards heterogeneity. In reality, Nepalese society includes diverse ethnicities, societies, cultures, geographical locations and educational backgrounds. Similarly, the sample only included engineers, accountants, lawyers, IT professionals, medical doctors, dentist, nurses, teachers and money transmitters and did not necessarily represent all kind of service sectors.

The research assumed that migrant entrepreneurs have established their businesses based on their education as a professional sector; however, the word professional can differ from one context to the other (Brock et al., 2014). There are various types of migrants, for instance, generations, routes and periods of migration that entail different experiences, which may have impacted the responses (Efendic et al., 2016). The sample population included both men and women, as well as some married couples in the same business; however, these gender

perspectives were not considered in the study, yet the researcher was aware of the participants' identities, races and genders, as suggested by Pink (2001).

The sample respondents were mostly from within the Greater London area, with the exception of Leicester for one respondent, and this might have impacted the ability to generalise research assumptions. Another point to consider as a limitation can be the availability of previous research in the context of the sampled entrepreneurs. There are minimal resources regarding Nepalese migrant entrepreneurs in the UK because they are rarely studied from an entrepreneurship perspective. The second type of limitation is personal circumstances. As a full-time self-financed researcher, it was challenging to secure financial resources and balance life between family and study. In addition, a limited time frame and the unprecedented complications that arose due to the COVID-19 pandemic might have also impacted the research. Nevertheless, the researcher has steadfastly endeavoured to reflect robustness, integrity and rigour in the research.

7.9 Future Research

Despite curiosity, time limits sometimes do not allow researchers to accomplish all their desired goals. As discussed earlier in section 7.6, some were married couples engaging in the same profession who were interviewed during data collection; an investigation focusing on such relationships in entrepreneurial engagement could be an exciting trajectory for the future research. Both societal and economic development demands women entrepreneurship (Bullough and Abdelzaher, 2017), but research suggests that their involvement is mostly conditional on their family's support (Minniti and Nardone, 2007). Since female entrepreneurs from ethnic minority backgrounds are traditionally underrepresented (Ram et al., 2012), this can be another important area to further research to identify gender roles in professional businesses that can explain the richer roles of married couples in professional services.

Nevertheless, the role of men (husband or partner) in women entrepreneurship is poorly understood and under-researched. Out of those married partners, some of the respondents in the current research were co-founders with their partner and had actively engaged in the same business, while others had established businesses separate from their partners that they fully owned; however, both were actively engaged as entrepreneurs. It would be intriguing to enquire from a different lens how these female entrepreneurs manage their family as well as their businesses simultaneously since previous research claims that women's roles supersede focusing on their family over their business (Minniti and Nardone, 2007). Perhaps the gender gap in ethnic minority professional services in the digital context could be different from other

general businesses where, as indicated by Carter et al. (2015), women and ethnic minorities are under-represented and lack resource access.

Another moving area this study considered concerns many of the UK citizens who reside outside of the UK (Office for National Statistics, 2018) and might have contributed to the UK economy through their entrepreneurial engagement, as well as foreign nationals who live outside of the UK and operate their business online in the UK. Researching them can help understand the nature of entrepreneurship from a digitalisation perspective, as well as the mobility of entrepreneurs. Similar to Nepalese-origin migrants, other ethnic and migrant communities in professional sectors could be another segment to explore more while comparing ethnic and professional experiences. Regarding innovation inclusion, the current study discovered the paradoxes of digital adoption. One, it is unavoidable, yet, two, small firms struggle to afford it. The appearance and disappearance of businesses due to over-digitalisation is a common phenomenon. For some of the respondents, using a technology consultant can be compared to getting married as the divorce costs for both is unaffordable, which means that they perceive the costs of switching to a digital system as very high. Therefore, the chances of being exploited by system developers are highly likely for small firms as professional conducts are loosely monitored. They can neither leave them, nor can they afford to stay with them. This can be another area to explore so that policies can be implemented to protect start-up and small firms from disappearing from the market.

Similarly, it could be of interest to study the current research topic from a quantitative perspective, especially focusing on the performance of migrant entrepreneurs in the UK economy because it will help to bring insights about how well professionals perform financially in the new environment. The current study can be extended by increasing or including samples from other ethnic segments, as well as expanding it to sectors other than engineering, accounting, law, IT, health, education and monetary remittance or comparing between them. Due to the COVID-19 crisis, there is a massive shortage of health sector professionals (Scarpetta et al., 2020); therefore, migrant entrepreneurs in the health sector are in high demand, which is where this study can focus. Understanding more about migrant and ethnic entrepreneurs in professional service sectors from a different perspective could be the future trajectory for researchers in the domain of entrepreneurship as its global demand and debate are both emerging and shifting. Some other prominent areas could be young immigrant entrepreneurs, mobile migrant entrepreneurs not residing in the UK, returnee professional entrepreneurs and migrant entrepreneurs before, during and after the COVID-19 pandemic.

The current research established a conceptual framework regarding human capital adaptation using ‘talent’ as a mediating construct in the human capital theory. This has been widely accepted in the fields of human resource and global talent management (Cheese et al., 2008; Gallagher, 2020), but it has yet to be confirmed in the entrepreneurship domain. Therefore, it could be an opportunity to test this construct by adopting a quantitative approach so that it can be generalised in the domain of entrepreneurial human capital.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: First Interview questions

I am undertaking this interview as a part of my PhD research, entitled 'Migrant Entrepreneurs and the Digital Economy in the UK', which I am pursuing at the Royal Holloway University of London. For your information, this interview will be recorded, and it will be kept confidential and anonymous and will not be disclosed without your permission.

Introductory questions

- a) Please tell me about your business.
- b) When did you start it?
- c) What encouraged you to establish this firm/these firms?
- d) Did you have any previous entrepreneurial/business experience?

Main questions

1. What do you believe are the essential qualities of an entrepreneur?
2. What qualifications have you gained in your country of origin and in the UK? And how have they helped you to establish your business in the UK?
3. Do you see any challenges in establishing businesses in the UK as a migrant entrepreneur?
4. Do you believe that continuously updating knowledge and skills (through training or any other skill-building courses) is essential for your business? Are they easily accessible?
5. Do you and your staff use any digital devices in your business, such as mobile phones, computers, etc.? Why?
6. What other software, apps, platform and/or networking information technology do you use in your business? Why?
7. What influences you to accept or reject different kinds of digital means?
8. How has technological advancement impacted your business over time?
9. What entrepreneurship-related factors do you think have helped you to adopt different digital means in your business?

10. What particular skills do you think are essential for the adoption and deployment of digital means? How do you fulfil any skill-related gaps (e.g. outsource or develop within your business)?
11. How do you know which technology is appropriate for your business? Where do you get them from?
12. Do you believe that you fully utilise digital means in your business? How?
13. How do you decide when to adopt any newly introduced digital means (e.g. at the time of release or after observing its use by others, etc.)? Why?
14. How would you ensure that the digital means are effectively communicated and used among the employees and other users in your business?
15. In your opinion, what indicates that your business is achieving its aspired outcomes through digital means?
16. Do you think there are challenges in adopting new technology in your business?
17. Do you think technology helps you to adapt and integrate into the host environment (UK)? Why?
18. Do you think technology adoption helps you to access wider networks and expand your business? How? (for example, connectivity within the host country, country of origin and globally)
19. Finally, as an entrepreneur how would you say that you have contributed to the economy?
20. Would you like to add any further relevant information?

Thank you.

Appendix 2: Revisit guiding document

Nepalese Origin Entrepreneurs in Professional Services in the UK

It is revealed that a significant number of Nepalese origin entrepreneurs are engaging in professional service sectors in the United Kingdom. All of them can be considered as digitally empowered entrepreneurs because they have adopted digital technology in their business activities either partially or fully. Thirty-one entrepreneurs as stated below were interviewed using semi-structured questions during April to August 2018. All the interview records were transcribed and analysed using a computer-aided software called Atlas.Ti. After accomplishing some emerging findings discussed below, the researcher intends to revisit the respondents with the aim of corroborating and sharing the research findings.

Interview Outline

Sectors	Participants		
	Male	Female	Total
Engineering	5	1	6
Accounting	5	2	7
Law	2	0	2
IT	2	3	5
Health	3	5	8
Other	1	2	3
Total	18	13	31

The qualities they believe entrepreneurs should possess:

- Knowledge, Skills and Experience
- Risk-bearing capacity, passion, self-confidence, visionary, motivation, self-interest and innovativeness, leadership, adaptive
- Hardworking and dedication, commitment, opportunistic, communicative, determination, erudition, persistence and networking

Education, Training & Experience

Some of the entrepreneurs had held previous experiences in businesses whilst others were naïve. All of the entrepreneurs have obtained at least some levels of education and training in their country of origin and have updated their academic or professional qualification and training in the host environment. They are very passionate about investing in the development of human capital; however, some perceive that some trainings are expensive despite their ubiquitous nature.

Challenges & Opportunities

Most of them take language and culture as the major barriers, while some take immigration policies, accessibility to the resources and digital skills, update and effective deployment as the significant challenges. However, they all agree that there is a massive opportunity for entrepreneurs in the UK.

- Cost-effectiveness, efficacy and user-friendliness
- Innovation adaptive skills
- Recommendation from professional

Acceptance & Rejection of Digital Means



Digital Practices

Although the use of devices such as mobiles, computers, laptops and tablets are common, their applications and software vary from one sector to the other. Some entrepreneurs use integrated systems while others use individual systems. Those who are using function-wise individual software accept that in comparison to an integrated system, using the function-wise separate systems are time-consuming. However, due to the replacement and switching costs, transitional risk and update inconvenience, some of the entrepreneurs are scared to adopt new technology. Some entrepreneurs are very sensitive about the reliability of suppliers while others do not care as long as they find an affordable supplier.

Digitisation Effects



- Removes language and culture barriers
- Adapts and integrates into the wider society
- Outsources services from comparatively cheaper regions
- Increases customers, revenues and network as digital means facilitate them in providing prompt and quality services to their customers
- Increases security threats, breakdowns, transition and update costs, lack of digital skills, training, repair and maintenance costs

Key issues

1. Majority of the respondents think that the underutilisation of their existing technology may have caused economic loss; however, they are reluctant to expand their business to the next level as they claim they have enough clients.
2. Lack of collaborative work across the various service sectors, because within the same ethnic community, services could complement each other; however, a rare practice has been found regarding buying useful services from each other.
3. Although most of the entrepreneurs claim that they consult different issues in their professional networks, there is no uniformity.
4. Technology helps to outsource cheaper resources from developing countries however, very few entrepreneurs have transnational business practices.
5. There is severe concern about the security, switching cost, maintenance, upgrades and after sales services of the new technologies, digital and non-digital balance, but very few practices are found regarding adopting technology with an aware mind-set.
6. Technological advancement has caused rapid appearance and disappearance of businesses. Thoughtful transformation is vital.



Appendix 3: Focus group discussion guiding document

Nepalese-origin Migrant Entrepreneurs in the Professional Services in the UK (Focus Group Discussion)

Personal Details

Name:
Organisation:
Age: years
Gender: Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/> Others <input type="checkbox"/> Prefer not to disclose <input type="checkbox"/>
What is your professional background? Charter Accountant <input type="checkbox"/> Engineer <input type="checkbox"/> Lawyer <input type="checkbox"/> Banker <input type="checkbox"/> IT professional <input type="checkbox"/> Medical Doctor <input type="checkbox"/> Dentist <input type="checkbox"/> Nurse <input type="checkbox"/> Other (.....)
Years of experience in this field

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this focus group discussion. For your information, this discussion will be recorded as both audio and video. This information will be processed, analysed and used for my research. However, it will be kept confidential and anonymous and will not be disclosed without your permission. We also expect you all to respect each other's confidentiality. You may refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from the study at any point. You are always welcome to contact me for any queries regarding this event. You are requested to provide your consent to us by signing below.

Signature:

Date:

Guidelines for Focus Group Discussion

Moderator

Self-introduction and introduction of the note keeper.

Welcome: A warm welcome and thank you very much for your invaluable participation despite your busy schedule. Your opinions are very important to us.

Logistics

- This focus group discussion will last about an hour and a half
- Please switch off or keep your phones on silent
- In the event of emergency – Exits
- Bathroom and other facilities
- Tea, refreshment and networking

Introduction

This focus group discussion is intended to understand your experience and views while engaging in digitally empowered entrepreneurial activities in the UK. This will have two contributions: first, corroborating the existing research findings and obtaining any new information since previous interview and second, seeking how researchers and entrepreneurs could work collaboratively.

Anonymity and confidentiality

For your information, this discussion will be recorded as both audio and video. However, it will be kept confidential and anonymous and will not be disclosed without your permission. We also expect you all to respect each other's confidentiality. You may refuse to answer any question or withdraw from the study at any point. You are always welcome to contact me for any queries regarding this event. You are requested to sign a consent form.

General ground rules:

- Only one person speaks at a time
- There are no right or wrong answers
- You don't need to agree or disagree with others' views in the group.
- Please feel free to share your own views

- Please avoid side conversation as it is very important to stay focused on the group discussion

Turn on audio and visual recorders

Opening

Any question before we start?

Participants' introduction: Name, birthplace, profession?

Main Questions:

1. What are your experiences in obtaining qualifications and skills for your profession?
2. What are some positive and negative experiences in establishing and running a business in the UK?
3. Do you have any experiences in establishing businesses other than in your country of origin?
4. What are the impacts of digitalisation in your business?
5. What are your reasons for accepting or rejecting any digital means?
6. What are some uses of digital means in connecting your business from the host environment to the country of origin and worldwide?
7. Do you recognise any need between the researchers and the entrepreneurs to work collaboratively to solve business problems and develop new ways of doing business?
8. What factors could help you to improve your business performance further?

Concluding

What would you say are the most important issues we discussed today?

Summarise with confirmation if anything has been missed.

Vote of thanks, refreshment and networking notice.

Turn off the recording devices

Schedule

Time	Activities	Involvement
18:00–18:15	Registration and Tea	All
18:15–18:25	Welcome, introduction and ground rules	Moderator
18:25–19:15	Focus group discussion	Participants
19:15–19:35	Concluding remarks	Moderator and Participants
19:35–20:35	Refreshment and Networking	All

Materials and Supplies

- Sign-in sheet
- Individual consent forms
- Feedback sheets
- Name tags
- Note pads, papers and pen
- Focus group discussion guide for moderator
- PowerPoint presentation (research purpose, emerging findings, focus group questions)
- Questions for discussions
- Recording devices
- Batteries for recording device
- Permanent marker
- Notebook for notetaking
- Refreshments
- Participants' travel and expenses recording sheet
- Food and drinks

Appendix 4: Revisit and focus group overview

Migrant Entrepreneurs and the Digital Economy in the UK

Research Impact

Engaged with digitally empowered Nepalese origin entrepreneurs who are involved in professional service sector businesses in the UK. This includes accounting, engineering, health, law, IT, education, and remittance business sectors. Twofold activities comprised of one to one visits with 24 entrepreneurs and a focus group discussion with eight entrepreneurs were conducted.

The one to one meeting session was divided into three parts: first, sharing emerging research findings as a part of training; second, an interview regarding the reflection of their views on the executive summary of the research findings; and finally, whether there are any changes in their perspectives since the previous interview and exploring the need for collaborative work between the university researchers and business owners.

Main points discussed above covered in the focus group discussion as well. In addition, explored the possibility of working collaboratively between the university researcher and entrepreneurs in boosting businesses.

Impact and outcomes

- Understanding the need of business community and facilitating them to network, grow and succeed
- Sharing experiences and learning from others
- Linking PhD research and research institution with real business world
- Collaborative commitment between entrepreneurs
- Network between researcher and business communities which identified potential future collaboration.

Future engagement plan

- Develop a sustainable engagement between researchers and business owners where researchers and entrepreneurs can work collaboratively in solving business problems and developing new ways of doing businesses by utilising advanced technologies.
- Such a business boost network also aims to promote entrepreneurs to invest in start-ups and needy businesses as well as exchange services for mutual benefit.

Benefits for researcher

- Corroboration emerging findings
- Transcripts validation & further data
- Enriched methodology
- Research confidence & contribution
- Project experience
- Public engagement
- Network

Benefits for entrepreneurs

- Problem solving skills
- Collaborative ideas
- Digital awareness
- Knowledge about the phenomenon
- Customised business consultation
- Sharing & learning
- Network