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Beyond Disciplinary Silos: A Systematic Analysis of the Migrant Entrepreneurship Literature

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1 Introduction

Migration is widely recognized as an increasingly salient part of the contemporary societal, political, and economic world (cf. Kurvet-Kaosaar et al., 2019). According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), one seventh of humanity is on the move, driven by various factors, including “climate change, natural and manmade catastrophes, conflict, the demographic trends of an aging industrialized population, an exponentially expanding jobless youth population in the developing world and widening North–South social and economic disparities” (IOM, 2019a: 1). As recent refugee and migration crises show, a sudden forced or voluntary influx of people can cause challenges in transit and receiving economies (Bock, 2018; Hangartner et al., 2019; IOM, 2019b). In turn, these challenges can be used to fuel populist agendas, securitization, protectionism, and social polarization (Bock, 2018; Ericson, 2018; Kneuer, 2019).

Despite these challenges, the IOM estimates that migrants produce more than nine percent of global gross domestic product, which is roughly United States (US) \$3 trillion more than if they remained in their home country (IOM, 2019b). In particular, migrants spur entrepreneurship and its benefits: productivity, innovation, and income growth (IOM, 2019b). We define migrant entrepreneurship as the entrepreneurial activity of foreign-born individuals in a country other than that of their birth. Past research has shown that migrant entrepreneurship has considerable potential to provide economic and social benefits in both the home country and the host country. With respect to the home country, migrants are expected to send \$600 billion in remittances home in 2021 (World Bank, 2019), and these remittances encourage entrepreneurship in the home country (Vaaler, 2011).

With respect to the host country, previous research shows that the rate of self-employment among migrants is higher than that of native-born individuals and that their firms are likely to be more successful. For example, in their US-based study examining migrant entrepreneurship from 1995 to 2008, Kerr and Kerr (2017) estimate migrant entrepreneurship to be three percent higher than the general population by 2000 and continuing to increase. In the same study, Kerr and Kerr (2017) find that the percent of migrant-founded businesses receiving funding by venture capitalists is also roughly three percent higher than businesses founded by native-born entrepreneurs, and these migrant-founded businesses are more likely to survive for six years. Likewise, Blume-Kohout's (2016) review of US-based studies reports that roughly one quarter of new entrepreneurs in the US are foreign born; the same percentage applies to technology-based businesses, refuting any stereotype that migrant entrepreneurs only start small, marginal businesses.

However, the host country benefits of migrant entrepreneurship reach beyond the success of their businesses. Migrant entrepreneurs can bring hope and revitalization to marginalized minority neighborhoods (Osirim, 2008) and rural communities (Munkejord, 2017). They can stabilize the labor market in the host country by aiding the social adaptation of more recent migrants (Stakanov, 2016), counteracting the liability of ethnicity in host countries (e.g. Jiang et al., 2016), and reducing the unemployment rates among migrant groups (cf. Collins, 2003). Thus, migrant entrepreneurship is an important phenomenon in the global business environment and, therefore, is relevant to international business (IB) scholarship.

Moreover, past IB research indicates that migrant entrepreneurship is related to firm-level internationalization outcomes, particularly through migrant entrepreneurs' personal characteristics and networks. They embody specialized human capital that can be deployed in entrepreneurial ventures to pursue international opportunities (Coviello et al., 2017; Reuber, 2018; Verbeke & Ciravegna, 2018). They provide important social influences that draw domestic entrepreneurs' attention to international opportunities (Kautto, 2019). Their international networks can enable their firms to internationalize with higher commitment entry modes (Chung & Enderwick, 2001). Further, diaspora networks can

facilitate innovation catch-up processes in developing countries that enable firms in those countries to offer globally competitive products (e.g. Lorenzen & Mudambi, 2013).

While such research linking migrant entrepreneurship with internationalization outcomes is striking, the attention paid to migrant entrepreneurship from IB scholars has been sparse. For example, the *Journal of International Business Policy* dedicated a special issue to migration in 2019 (Barnard et al., 2019), but this issue features only two articles on issues relevant to migrant entrepreneurship (Kautto, 2019; Kunczer et al., 2019). The number of articles on migration in the *Journal of World Business* has been increasing, with an observable shift from macro-level issues, such as the “brain drain” (e.g. Carr et al., 2005), to more micro-level issues related to individuals. However, this recent emphasis on the individual has tended to focus on migrant employees rather than migrant entrepreneurs, examining issues such as skills and job seeking (Fang et al., 2013), human resource management (Fan & Harzing, 2017; Tung, 2016), and employment outcomes (Shipilov et al., 2020). These journals are not outliers; limited attention is given to migrant entrepreneurs across IB journals (cf. Tüselmann et al., 2016), and migrant entrepreneurship, especially in high-growth technology-based sectors, has been under-studied (Terjesen et al., 2016). Of the 83 migration-related articles in IB journals identified in the Web of Science during our review period (1900–2019), only 28 focus explicitly on migrant entrepreneurship. Further, to our knowledge, the latest review of the migrant entrepreneurship literature within the IB field is based on 15 journals and a review period (1936–2009) that ended over a decade ago (see Ilhan-Nas et al., 2011). Therefore, not only has migrant entrepreneurship received sparse attention in the IB literature, but a synthesis of our collective understanding is now dated.

These numbers suggest that the importance of migrant entrepreneurs to IB phenomena is not reflected in extant IB research. Given the attention accorded to the phenomenon in other social science disciplines, we designed a study to take stock of extant research on migrant entrepreneurship across multiple disciplines and identify the implications of this body of work for future research directions in IB. These objectives are consistent with the need for IB research to go beyond

disciplinary silos to understand IB phenomena fully (Casson, 2016: p. 2) and meet international challenges (Buckley et al., 2017).

To this end, we examined 123 journals from eight disciplinary areas: Anthropology, Area Studies, Economics, Entrepreneurship, Ethnic Studies, Demography, General Management and Strategy, and IB. We inspected articles published during 1900–2019 and identified 373 articles related to migrant entrepreneurs. We classified the foci and findings of each article in terms of the antecedents of migrant entrepreneurship, the success factors associated with migrant entrepreneurship, and the moderators of migrant entrepreneurial firm formation and success. We linked this analysis with the disciplinary grounding of each article to highlight the similarities and differences across areas and to take stock of where extant IB research is positioned among them.

Our study contributes to IB scholarship by opening up disciplinary silos and providing an expanded knowledge base of migrant entrepreneurship to broaden opportunities for IB research in this area. We show where and how IB scholars can benefit from research in other areas, identify where and how IB scholars may have a comparative advantage to deepen our collective understanding of migrant entrepreneurship and its consequences, and discuss issues associated with quantitative and qualitative IB research in this area. In doing so, we hope to inform and invigorate IB research on migrant entrepreneurship.

The remainder of the paper proceeds as follows. In Section 2, we discuss the often overlapping conceptualizations of migrant entrepreneurship, explaining and justifying how the term is used in this review. In Section 3, we present the method that we used to identify and analyze relevant articles. In Section 4, we describe our findings in detail, providing comprehensive tables that show the antecedents, success factors, and moderators covered in each of the eight disciplinary areas included in this study. In Section 5, we conclude the paper by discussing the implications of the findings for future IB research opportunities.

2 Conceptualizations of “migrant entrepreneur”

In this review, we are exclusively interested in the entrepreneurial activity of foreign-born individuals in a country other than that of their birth. Although multiple, overlapping labels have been used to describe such individuals, we needed to select one term. We chose the term “migrant entrepreneur” because it is the one most commonly used to describe the phenomenon in the research literature and in the international policy domain. Moreover, important supranational bodies have adopted this term, such as the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the IOM, and the United Nations Institute for Training and Research.

However, since we wanted to ensure a comprehensive capture of the extant research on our focal phenomenon, we needed to understand other labels that might be used and include them in our search. In this section, we discuss these other labels and their underlying conceptualizations. The related definitions are summarized in Table 1. It is important to note that within the body of literature we analyzed, these definitions overlap, the boundaries between them can be fuzzy within an article, and the articles—even those within the same disciplinary area—do not always use these terms consistently. This is not surprising because our review encompasses eight different disciplines. We do not claim to resolve this ambiguity. Rather, we claim to understand the terms that might be used in the prior literature to refer to our focal interest—the entrepreneurial activity of foreign-born individuals in a country other than that of their birth—to design the search strategy that identified relevant articles in this review.

Insert Table 1 here

A *migrant entrepreneur* can be defined as a person who moves to another country for at least 12 months and establishes a business (cf. United Nations, 1998). Similarly, *immigrant entrepreneurs* are often defined as foreign-born individuals who establish a business in their host country (Brzozowski et al., 2017). The difference between the two designations relates to persistence in the

host country. The term “immigrant” is most frequently assigned to individuals (first generation) and their children (second generation) who were born abroad or who arrived in the host country with their parents as children (Chababi et al., 2017; Rusinovic, 2008) and are likely to remain there permanently (cf. Glinka, 2018). Nevertheless, both terms are used to refer to foreign-born individuals who establish a business in the host country, regardless of the length of their residence in that country. In some studies, the term “migrant” also includes migration within country borders, especially in the case of large territories such as China and India (cf. De Neve, 2016; Wei et al., 2019). However, these individuals are outside the scope of this review.

A *refugee entrepreneur* is a special type of migrant entrepreneur. The UNHCR defines refugees as individuals “who are outside their country of nationality or habitual residence and unable to return there owing to serious and indiscriminate threats to life, physical integrity or freedom resulting from generalized violence or events seriously disturbing public order” (UNHCR, 2011). Christensen et al. (2020: 7) propose widening this definition to include persons “who flee their country of origin from involuntary pressures and with low choices and little preparation—but who fall outside of the policy definition offered by the UNHCR.” Given the involuntary nature of the migration and the larger degree of separation from home country networks and resources, these refugees are at a disadvantage vis-à-vis other immigrant groups that tend to have more control over their migration (Christensen et al., 2020). Therefore, refugee entrepreneurs warrant distinct attention in the extant scholarly literature.

Return migrant entrepreneurs, also called *returnee entrepreneurs*, are individuals who, after a period of living abroad, move back to their home country and set up a business (cf. Bai et al., 2018). Because their entrepreneurial activity takes place in the country of their birth, we did not include studies about returnee entrepreneurs in this review; however, we examined articles using the term in case it was used differently and the article was indeed relevant.

While the above four definitions divide entrepreneurs into categories based on the voluntariness of their movement and the length of their residence in the host country (Christensen et al., 2020), the next two definitions classify entrepreneurs in terms of whether they are part of an

ethnic minority in a given country and/or can access co-ethnic networks. The term *ethnic entrepreneur* describes entrepreneurs who belong to the same ethnic minority. It is not limited to first- and second-generation immigrants who may be born elsewhere, and it includes further generations as well as indigenous minority groups (Barrett & Vershinina, 2017). Some conceptualizations of ethnic entrepreneurship in the literature emphasize the centrality of ethnic identity to the entrepreneurial activity (e.g. Drori et al., 2009; Glinka, 2018).

The term *diaspora entrepreneur* similarly extends beyond first- and second-generation immigrants to include entrepreneurs who can draw on support for their business development, both locally and internationally, through a diaspora network distributed across multiple geographies (Brzozowski et al., 2017; Elo et al., 2019; Kurt et al., 2020; Lorenzen & Mudambi, 2013). That is, the conceptualization of diaspora entrepreneurs emphasizes the geographical spread and location of those entrepreneurs' networks.

Lastly, the label *transnational entrepreneur* can, in principle, encompass all of the above categories—specifically immigrant, migrant, ethnic, and diaspora entrepreneurs (cf. Brzozowski et al., 2017)—if they a) migrated from one country to another (cf. Drori et al., 2009), b) are able to maintain and mobilize social networks and resources in a cross-national space (e.g. Drori et al., 2009; Patel & Conklin, 2009; Patel & Terjesen, 2011), and (c) are conducting business in a cross-national context (Brzozowski et al., 2017; Prashantham et al., 2018). Drori et al. (2009) highlight that a diaspora represents a structural characteristic of the macro-institutional environment that facilitates transnational entrepreneurship.

To summarize, this discussion clarifies that the conceptual boundaries between different labels of “migrant entrepreneur” are blurred. Further, authors do not always use labels consistently, even within a discipline. Because it is possible for all of these terms to be used in studies relevant to the phenomenon we aim to investigate—studies of the entrepreneurial activity of foreign-born individuals in a country other than that of their birth—we searched for articles using all of them, but retained for analysis only those articles of relevance to our focus. In the next section, we outline in detail our review methods, including our search and analysis protocols.

3 Review method

In this study, we adapted the methods used by Jones et al. (2011) to thematically map and assess the intellectual domain of the international entrepreneurship field. Their procedure was appropriate for our study because of two characteristics the two bodies of literature have in common. First, at the time of Jones et al.'s (2011) study, the international entrepreneurship literature was fragmented, as the migrant entrepreneurship literature is now. The young age of both bodies of literature is a reason for this fragmentation; however, the fragmentation of the migrant entrepreneurship literature is also a result of scholars from diverse disciplinary areas having focused on different facets of the phenomenon. Thus, to take stock of the literature on migrant entrepreneurship, we needed to cross disciplinary boundaries to a greater extent than Jones et al. (2001). Second, both bodies of literature are fragmented because of the overlapping and inconsistent use of terminology. Consequently, as described in the previous section, we decided to anchor our inquiry on a specific phenomenon rather than a label or term defining the phenomenon, and we were inclusive in searching for relevant articles.

Since we had to cross disciplinary boundaries, instead of starting with a specific list of journals, we started with a keyword search in the Web of Science and subsequently eliminated articles according to disciplinary area. However, since the Web of Science database has a crude disciplinary categorization of journals and assigns many journals to two or more categories, we needed to supplement this search. We thus used two complementary journal classification lists, those of Tüselmann et al. (2016) and Harzing (2019), which categorize journals into more fine-grained disciplinary areas. We used these lists to break down the Web of Science categories into more refined subcategories. Our keyword search retrieved relevant articles from 123 journals, which are listed by discipline in Appendix 1.

Following Jones et al. (2011), we adopted a systematic approach to our literature analysis based on interpretative synthesis and evaluation. This method combines best practice in conducting systematic literature reviews in business and management studies with inductive thematic analysis in qualitative psychology and informal ontological classification. As Chandrasekaran et al. (1999: 20)

state: “Ontologies are content theories about the sorts of objects, properties of objects, and relations between objects that are possible in a specified domain of knowledge.” An informal, qualitative–interpretative ontological approach shifts the focus from the potentially wide array of terms used to denote the same object to the underlying conceptualizations. This approach allows the construction of an integrative framework that catalogs and organizes the types of objects, their properties, the potential combinations of these properties, and the factors that shape these combinations (cf. Bouncken et al., 2021).

From a pattern-matching typology perspective, this method falls into the partial pattern-matching category (Sinkovics, 2018). In general, pattern matching builds on the assumption that human beings’ sensemaking involves them comparing what they observe in the real world with their internal mental models (Hammond, 1966). Hence, there is always a process of matching observed patterns to theoretical patterns, even if it is not done consciously (cf. Trochim, 1989). Partial pattern matching is an umbrella term for methods that use a systematic inductive approach to identify patterns from data (including academic articles). The pattern match occurs between the researcher’s internal mental models and the patterns emerging from the data (cf. Sinkovics, 2018). While the researcher’s active and reflexive role is acknowledged, detailed protocols and procedures are used to ensure analytical rigor and to maximize the reader’s ability to retrace the investigator’s thought processes (cf. Bouncken et al., 2021; Jones et al., 2011; Sinkovics, 2016; Sinkovics, 2018).

To aid the literature search and, subsequently, the data analysis, we used two protocols. The protocol for conducting the review included the procedure for searching, selecting, and excluding articles (cf. Jones et al., 2011; Tranfield et al., 2003), which yielded 373 articles for review, as shown in Appendix 2. The protocol for the thematic analysis and ontological organization, based on the method outlined by Jones et al. (2011), is presented in Appendix 3. For this purpose, we slightly modified the widely used antecedents–phenomenon–consequences logic (cf. Jamali & Karam, 2018; Pisani et al., 2017). We used a standard protocol so that we could to systematically analyze and compare papers from different disciplines. We used this particular protocol because it focuses on the relationships between constructs that are important in theory building (cf. Bouncken et al., 2021;

Thomas et al., 2011). In our adaptation, the antecedent category comprises themes related to the triggers and drivers of migrant entrepreneurship—that is, the push and pull factors that drive migrant individuals to establish and run an entrepreneurial business. We used the phenomenon category to collect themes related to factors that moderate the formation of migrant entrepreneurial businesses or their survival and/or growth. Third, the consequences category encompasses themes relating to the success factors that contribute to the survival and/or growth of migrant entrepreneurial ventures. We chose to focus on success factors because most studies in our sample either examine factors leading up to enterprise formation or those related to business operations.

In reading the articles to categorize them, we also recorded issues that the articles published in 2019 identify as yet-to-be-answered questions in their discussion of future research avenues. Whereas the analysis displayed in the integrative framework highlights the factors studied and not studied by IB scholars, this compendium is valuable to show the scope of open questions on migrant entrepreneurship across the eight disciplinary areas.

4 Findings

As outlined in the introduction, the main objectives of this cross-disciplinary analysis are to take stock of existing knowledge related to migrant entrepreneurship. Tables 2–5 provide an overview of the themes that emerged under the three main categories: antecedents, success factors, and moderators. Further, the tables show the disciplinary areas that discuss each theme. To clearly indicate when we are referring to a disciplinary area, we capitalize the name of the area in the text. Although some themes only occur in one particular disciplinary area, others are addressed in multiple areas. Therefore, our analysis provides a synthesis of themes scattered across the eight areas. Additionally, the cross-disciplinary comparison of the cataloged dimensions enables us to identify neglected areas in the IB literature. In the remainder of this section, we provide a description of our findings. Given the space limitations, we only provide example references for each dimension. A full list of references, which includes their disciplinary affiliation, can be obtained from the authors.

4.1 Antecedents

We categorized the emerging antecedents into negative antecedents (push factors) and positive antecedents (pull factors). Under both push and pull factors, we structured the subthemes in three main categories: (1) institutional factors in the migrant entrepreneur's home country, (2) institutional factors in the migrant entrepreneur's host country, and (3) individual factors (see Tables 2 and 3).

4.1.1 Push factors

Push factors are factors pushing individuals into migrant entrepreneurship for negative reasons. As Table 2 shows, out of the eight disciplinary areas, only Anthropology, Demography, and IB have investigated negative institutional factors in the entrepreneur's home country as drivers for starting a business (see dimensions 1–1.5 in Table 2). However, the articles in our sample classified as IB studies mainly focused on negative factors that affect the business environment, including bureaucracy, corruption, and economic restrictions (e.g. Salamanca & Alcaraz, 2019). In contrast, Anthropology and Demography studies have tended to focus on how institutional factors affect individuals, including their blocked social mobility (e.g. Fee & Rahman, 2014) and negative gender roles in the home society (e.g. Vershinina et al., 2019).

Insert Table 2 here

Discussions on negative institutional factors in the host country (see dimensions 2–2.3.12 in Table 2) that push migrants into entrepreneurship were most detailed in Anthropology and Entrepreneurship journals. The main focus of these articles was on the precariousness of working conditions in the host country's labor market, including exploitation, physical and verbal abuse, discrimination, and labor market exclusion (e.g. Andrejuk, 2018). Further, Anthropology studies focused on the depth of exploitation and discrimination (e.g. Andrejuk, 2018), whereas Entrepreneurship articles also considered more structural issues, such as underemployment and the challenges of having existing skills and qualifications accredited (e.g. Samaratunge et al., 2015).

In terms of individual-level push factors (dimensions 3–3.6.3 in Table 2), journals from Anthropology, Demography, Economics, and Entrepreneurship contributed the most subthemes. Age (e.g. Constant, 2006), a low level of education (e.g. Andrejuk, 2018), poor language skills (Brettell & Alstatt, 2007), and social vulnerability (e.g. Lintner, 2019b) were the most frequently discussed negative factors pushing individuals into entrepreneurship.

Thus, this analysis showed that the IB literature has focused on negative institutional factors in an individual’s home country as a driver of migrant entrepreneurship and has neglected evidence from other disciplines that migrant entrepreneurship is also driven by negative institutional factors in the host country and by the personal characteristics and conditions of the individual migrant.

4.1.2 Pull factors

Pull factors are factors pulling individuals into migrant entrepreneurship for positive reasons. IB research on pull factors is sparse. At the institutional level (see 2.1.3, 2.5, and 2.6 in Table 3), IB studies on migrant entrepreneurship discussed the availability of business support (Riddle et al., 2010) and of legal and policy provisions for business activities, as well as the opportunity structure— differential access to economic opportunities (Merton, 1995)—in the host country (Salamanca & Alcaraz, 2019). At the individual level (see 3.3 in Table 3), the theme that emerged in IB relates to the importance of family support (Yang et al., 2011). In contrast, Entrepreneurship, Economics, and Demography contributed a richer set of positive drivers.

Insert Table 3 here

The level of material well-being in the migrant entrepreneur’s country of origin (see 1.1 in Table 3) was the only theme found in our sample as a positive institutional level antecedent in the home country. Fawcett and Gardner (1994) argue that in countries where the level of material well-being is generally low, individuals have lower aspirations for economic improvement because they have not witnessed a wide range of alternatives beyond abject poverty. In contrast, when individuals

migrate from a country that has experienced a substantial level of economic growth, they are likely to strive for more than just a stable job.

In terms of positive antecedents at the host country institutional level (2.-2.8 in Table 3), Entrepreneurship, Demography, and Economics offered the most factors that pull migrants into entrepreneurship. The availability of business support (2.1–2.1.7 in Table 3) is a particularly important pull factor, and includes access to financial capital (Sahin et al., 2011), advice, entrepreneurial training, information, mentoring, and networking (Rath & Swagerman, 2016). Additionally, the Economics and IB articles highlighted the distinctive business support needs (2.1.3 in Table 3) of migrant entrepreneurial businesses both in the home (2.1.3.1) and host countries (2.1.3.2). These distinctive needs stem from the nature of the challenges that migrant entrepreneurs face in the transnational space bridging both countries. For example, a migrant entrepreneur may not have been able to acquire certain skills because of a lack of high-quality educational institutions in their home country. Simultaneously, they could face access barriers to education institutions in the host country. Therefore, training programs offered to migrant entrepreneurs in this situation may also need to include elements of individual counseling and mentoring (Riddle et al., 2010).

The other important pull factors included in these studies are the host society's general attitude to entrepreneurship (2.2 in Table 3) (e.g. Azmat & Fujimoto, 2016; Salamanca & Alcaraz, 2019), policies fostering a favorable environment for migrant entrepreneurship, and the nature of the opportunity structure in the host country. These factors were discussed in Anthropology, Entrepreneurship, and IB articles. Enabling policies included immigration controls and policies regarding the movement of labor (2.3 in Table 3), import–export policies and trade agreements (2.4 in Table 3), legal and policy provisions for business activities (2.5 in Table 3) (Bagwell, 2018), policies aimed at encouraging specific types of immigration (2.7–2.7.6 in Table 3) (Collins, 2003), and regulations of particular sectors (2.8 in Table 3) (Bagwell, 2018).

The opportunity structure in the host country (see 2.6–2.6.5 in Table 3) as a driver of migrant entrepreneurship was most elaborately discussed in the Demography and Entrepreneurship research. A country's opportunity structure is influenced by its internal economic situation (Samaratunge et al.,

2015), the size, nature, and growth potential of the market (Kloosterman, 2003), the expected earnings as self-employed as opposed to wage employment (Clark & Drinkwater, 2000), the ease of entering and/or exiting a sector (Balaz & Williams, 2007; Rath, 2002), and the ease of establishing a business (Guell, 2016).

Although the Demography and Economics articles have discussed some individual-level factors (3–3.15 in Table 3), the Entrepreneurship literature contributed most of the details. This literature emphasized that the availability of diaspora networks (e.g. Cruz, Falcao and Barreto, 2018), financial capital, and family support play an important role in a migrant’s decision to engage in entrepreneurship (e.g. Bagwell, 2018; Cruz, Falcao and Barreto, 2018; Samaratunge et al., 2015). The Entrepreneurship literature also provided insights into cognitive dimensions of the positive antecedents of migrant entrepreneurship, such as an individual’s hopes, dreams, and perceptions (3.5–3.7, 3.9, 3.14, 3.15 in Table 3) (e.g. Basu, 1998; Shinnar & Nayir, 2019; Ullah et al., 2016). Moreover, cross-cultural experience (3.3 in Table 3) was found to increase the ability of migrant individuals to identify entrepreneurial opportunities (e.g. Vandor & Franke, 2016). Other individual-level pull factors studied in the Entrepreneurship literature include a high level of education (3.7 in Table 3) (e.g. Peroni et al., 2016), the perceived attraction to a geographical area (3.10 in Table 3) (Munkejord, 2017), the availability of entrepreneurial role models (3.12–3.12.3 in Table 3) (e.g. Athayde, 2009), and the rural background of migrant individuals (3.13 in Table 3) in their home country (Bauder, 2008).

Table 3 shows that although scholars have studied a wide variety of factors that foster migrant entrepreneurship, this variety is not reflected in the IB literature. The IB literature has been focused primarily on the provision of business support and has neglected other institutional facilitators as well as the personal qualities that migrant entrepreneurs draw on when starting and growing their firms.

4.2 Success factors

All eight disciplinary areas focused, to some extent, on factors that make a migrant entrepreneur’s business successful. The greatest number of success factors were contributed by Area

Studies, Demography, Economics, and Entrepreneurship. Across all disciplinary areas, seven main success factors emerged (see Table 4), which we discuss next.

The ability to adapt to the host country's business environment (1 in Table 4) was discussed in both Entrepreneurship and Ethnic Studies journals. For example, Ado et al. (2016) investigated how entrepreneurs from sub-Saharan Africa adapted to the Chinese business environment and identified four categories of migrant entrepreneurs who used different adaptation strategies. Assimilators require a longer period to adjust but ultimately adopt the Chinese way of doing business, marry Chinese partners, learn the local language, and opt for longer-term residence in the country. African migrant entrepreneurs in the Conservative category also opt for longer-term residence in the country, but they marry other Africans residing in China, prefer to use English as the language for communication, and do not fully adapt to the Chinese way of doing business. Adventurers use a quick adaptation strategy. However, they only prefer temporary residence permits that they renew regularly. Entrepreneurs in the Cautious category radically resist adaptation. They are not settled in the host country; instead, they travel back and forth between China and Africa. Entrepreneurs in this category are highly risk averse and engage in business in China based on recommendations only (Ado et al., 2016).

A migrant entrepreneur's ability to navigate policy constraints (2–2.2 in Table 4) is a second prerequisite of business survival. Collective action by ethnic groups to negotiate concessions (Thomas & Ong, 2015), and linkages to policy makers to bypass the intent of certain policies (Dobler, 2009) emerged as two coping mechanisms from research conducted in Ethnic Studies and Area Studies respectively.

Insert Table 4 here

The ability of a migrant entrepreneur to build legitimacy and a good reputation (3 in Table 4) was discussed by articles in Area Studies (e.g. Kourtit & Nijkamp, 2012), Entrepreneurship (e.g. Abd Hamid et al., 2019), and IB (Jiang et al., 2016). Although these studies in all three disciplinary areas

agreed on the importance of legitimacy for the success of an entrepreneurial business, they considered the phenomenon from quite different angles. A comparison of these representative articles illustrates the differences. Kourtit and Nijkamp (2012: p. 392) emphasize the professionalism of the entrepreneur and their business as a means to achieve legitimacy in the host country. Abd Hamid et al. (2019) focus on the conditions under which migrant entrepreneurs highlight the similarities or differences between the home and host country to build legitimacy in the host country. Jiang et al. (2016) emphasize the entrepreneur's struggle to build legitimacy outside of co-ethnic networks in the host country.

The next two success factors that emerged from the analysis are related to the social networks of the migrant entrepreneur. These are the ability to monetize social networks (5–5.15 in Table 4) and the ability to go beyond co-ethnic networks (4–4.7 in Table 4). Drawing on co-ethnic networks can be very helpful in the beginning stages of the migrant entrepreneurial venture, whereas the growth of the venture may depend on the entrepreneur's ability to build relationships with non-co-ethnic business partners and attract non-co-ethnic clientele (cf. Guercini et al., 2017).

In general, co-ethnic networks have been identified as a source of up-to-date information (Urbano et al., 2011), business know-how (Bagwell, 2018), technology (Chen & Redding, 2017), access to utilities and facilities (Wang & Altinay, 2012), better sourcing prices (Ceccagno, 2015), a means to enhance a firm's operational scale (Chen & Redding, 2017), a bridge between multiple institutional contexts (Bagwell, 2018), and a provider of, often cheap and trusted, labor (Bagwell, 2018). The ability to go beyond co-ethnic networks can be broken down into a number of subthemes, including the entrepreneur's ability to attract non-co-ethnic clients (Miera, 2008), become a boundary spanner in cross-country networks (Sundararajan & Sundararajan, 2015), employ ethnically diverse human resources both at the management level and the personnel level (Kloosterman et al., 2016), physically relocate the business away from an enclave (Wang & Warn, 2019), and build linkages with local network firms (Canello, 2016).

When migrant individuals are pushed into entrepreneurship, they may lack the necessary business and management skills to build and grow a venture beyond subsistence level. Our analysis

revealed that 12 business and management skills (6–6.12 in Table 4) were found to be important for business growth. Some of these skills are more generic, but others are more specific to migrant entrepreneurship. Strategic planning (Kourtit & Nijkamp, 2012), innovation (Rahman, 2018), the ability to reduce operating costs (Kulchina, 2017), contingency planning to protect assets in the long-term (Tan et al., 2019), customer orientation and relationship management (Chaganti & Greene, 2002), flexibility (Ceccagno, 2015), high-quality offerings (Kourtit & Nijkamp, 2012), the adoption and use of information and communication technologies (Beckinsale et al., 2011), negotiation skills (Nijkamp et al., 2010), succession planning (Tan et al., 2019), and the strategic use of social and human capital (Cruickshank & Dupuis, 2015) can be regarded as more generic skills. Conversely, the ability to transfer skills gained in one country to another country (cf. Hiebert, 2002), the ability to think from different perspectives (Kourtit & Nijkamp, 2012), and the strategic use of cultural capital (Cruickshank & Dupuis, 2015) are more specific to migrant entrepreneurship.

The last theme that emerged from the analysis is the migrant entrepreneur's transnational capabilities (7.-7.8 in Table 4). Four out of the eight disciplinary areas contributed insights into this dimension: Demography, Economics, Entrepreneurship, and General Management and Strategy. The analysis revealed several subthemes describing different aspects of transnational capability. The ability to balance network scope and network size were found to positively influence the extent of transnational business activities (Patel & Conklin, 2009). This ability, in conjunction with the ability to develop and leverage strong ties, has a positive impact on a firm's transnational performance (Patel & Terjesen, 2011; Wahlbeck, 2018). The ability to optimize resources in both home and host country markets (Santamaria-Alvarez et al., 2019), a high level of multilocal embeddedness (Schmoll, 2012), the ability to overcome the liability of outsidership in the host country (Stoyanov et al., 2018), and a cosmopolitan disposition (Urbano et al., 2011) are further subdimensions that emerged from our analysis. Geographical proximity between the home and host country (Miera, 2008) as well as having prior experience of doing business in the home country (Pruthi et al., 2018) were also found to positively influence the development of transnational capability.

On analyzing the literature on success factors, we found that prior IB research covers a larger number of success factors in common with the non-IB literature than is the case of antecedents and moderators; however, within a theme, there are fewer subthemes than are reflected within the broader literature. The most striking gap between the IB literature and the broader literature is that IB researchers have paid little attention to how migrant entrepreneurs adapt to the host country's business environment. This gap may be explained by the focus of IB research on cross-border activities, such as on entrepreneurs who engage in home country activities and networks while residing in a host country. However, a migrant entrepreneur's ability to adapt to the host country's business environment as well as their ability to adapt to policy changes in the host country can significantly influence the nature and success of their cross-border activities.

4.3 Moderators

Our analysis reveals that the literature on migrant entrepreneurship has paid attention to eight kinds of moderators of entrepreneurial success (see Table 5). The highest number of moderating factors was contributed by Demography and Entrepreneurship.

One factor is the moderating role of the migrant individual's generation (see 1 in Table 5). This factor was discussed most in Demography and Entrepreneurship but was also covered in Ethnic Studies, General Management and Strategy, and IB. This research avenue focuses mostly on shifts in perceptions and attitudes of second-generation migrants toward their ethnic backgrounds as well as entrepreneurship as a means to make a living (e.g. Hou et al., 2013; Khosravi, 2018; McPherson, 2017). The shift in perception regarding entrepreneurship can be due to the attainment of higher-level skills owing to better structural integration in the host country, and, thus, access to nontraditional sectors (Chababi et al., 2017; McPherson, 2017). This insight was also strengthened by an IB study investigating the nontraditional sector participation of second-generation Turkish entrepreneurs in the Netherlands (Baycan et al., 2012), which found that the parents' class position and social mobility aspirations were potential drivers of generational differences. Likewise, Villares-Varela (2017) reveal that middle-class parents with an ambition to protect their children from downward social mobility are more likely to have the means and motivation to invest in the extra-curricular activities of their

children. These extra-curricular activities may open up alternative routes to upward social mobility through the acquisition of symbolic social capital and additional skills, such as learning foreign languages and playing an instrument.

Insert Table 5 here

A second moderating factor that emerged from our analysis is “ethnicity and culture” (see 2–2.8 in Table 5), which was the most elaborately discussed dimension across the disciplinary areas. Demography, Entrepreneurship, and Ethnic Studies provided the most subdimensions. Large-scale studies found some variation in terms of the propensity of different ethnicities to engage in entrepreneurship (e.g. Blume-Kohout, 2016; Clark et al., 2017). Our analysis identified several insights that can help unpack this theme in more detail. An insufficient alignment of the social expectations of co-ethnics with market principles (2.1 in Table 5), for example, not charging friends for products and services (Asante, 2018; Mendy & Hack-Polay, 2018) and the degree of normative conformity required in a co-ethnic network (2.1.1 in Table 5) (Szkudlarek & Wu, 2018), can exert negative moderating effects on the growth of a migrant enterprise, and under more extreme conditions, its survival.

The ability to monetize social networks has been widely discussed in the extant business literature. However, the extent to which a migrant entrepreneur can draw on such networks is moderated by many factors. The ability and willingness of co-ethnics to help (2.2–2.2.7 in Table 5) emerged as an important subdimension influenced by culture. This subdimension can take many forms, including co-ethnics’ willingness to provide employment (e.g. Andrejuk, 2016), information (e.g. Deakins et al., 2007), and loans (e.g. Clark & Drinkwater, 2000) to other co-ethnics. The geographical and sectoral location of co-ethnic networks (Kitching et al., 2009) and the extent of competition within these networks (Andersson & Hammarstedt, 2015) also influence the degree of potential help and cooperation available to individuals. Further, Chen and Redding (2017)

demonstrate that even networks infused with collectivist cultural values are not immune to opportunism and self-interest.

A third subdimension of “ethnicity and culture”, the degree of cultural nearness between the home and host country (2.3–2.3.6 in Table 5), has been shown to moderate the success of migrant entrepreneurship. Shared religion, shared language, and the similarity of the legal and economic settings between the home and host country were revealed to have a positive moderating effect (Shinnar & Nayir, 2019; Urbano et al., 2011) on entrepreneurial firm formation and survival. By contrast, the perceived pressure or difficulty to assimilate can have a negative effect on firm formation and growth, or conversely, may push an individual into entrepreneurship as a way to maintain their ethnic identity (cf. Efendic et al., 2016; Verduijn & Essers, 2013).

The impact of ethnic fractionalization in the host country (2.4–2.4.4 in Table 5) emerged as a further subdimension under “ethnicity and culture.” The size of an ethnic niche (Rahman et al., 2018), the concentration of immigrants in the neighborhood in which the entrepreneur operates (el Bouk et al., 2013), the degree of segregation from the rest of the host country population (Fairchild, 2009), and the way ethnic groups organize (Frederking, 2004) are factors that have a shaping influence on the formation, nature, and performance of a migrant entrepreneurial business. With respect to how ethnic groups organize, Frederking (2004) differentiates between defensive separation, consistent integration, and protected privatization. Defensive separation in an immigrant group is observed as a response to racism and hostile host country policies paired with insufficient language skills and large variations in skill sets within the group. A prerequisite for consistent integration is the adaptability of a migrant group. This type of organization is also observed to be a response to racism and hostile host country policies, but the presence of good language skill and a relative equality in terms of other skills across the group allow a higher level of integration. Protected privatization occurs when individuals do not have to use their ethnicity and culture as a shield to protect against the structural environment. However, in this case they perceive other members of the group as competitors (Frederking, 2004). Thus, the ability of individuals to draw on co-ethnic networks is also shaped by ethnic fractionalization along these subdimensions.

Another element of culture is the extent to which members of an ethnic group engage with the ethnic community in the host country (2.5–2.5.2 in Table 5). Some ethnic groups have low social cohesion and a high level of mistrust toward one another stemming from the historical institutional context in their country of origin (Santamaria-Alvarez et al., 2018; Santamaria-Alvarez & Sliwa, 2016). This factor will have a negative moderating effect on their ability to build and/or monetize co-ethnic and non-co-ethnic networks.

An ethnic group's general level of trust in public projects (2.6 in Table 5) is another dimension related to culture that can negatively moderate migrant entrepreneurs' transnational activities (Santamaria-Alvarez & Sliwa, 2016). How entrepreneurship is viewed as an occupation in the home country (2.7 in Table 5) may influence an ethnic group's propensity to engage in venture creation. This dimension has been broadly studied, surfacing in research from Demography (e.g. Bonifazi & Sabatino, 2003) Economics (e.g. Foreman-Peck & Zhou, 2013), Entrepreneurship (e.g. Urbano et al., 2011), and IB (e.g. Poirine et al., 2017).

A third moderating factor identified by our analysis was the economic situation in the host country (3 in Table 5). While the economic situation can act as a push or pull antecedent of migrant entrepreneurship, a study in Area Studies has suggested that it can also moderate the economic performance of migrant entrepreneurial ventures (Valdez, 2020).

Fourth, the characteristics of an individual's geographic location (4 in Table 5) within the host country emerged as another moderator studied in most disciplinary areas except for Area Studies, Ethnic Studies, and General Management and Strategy. In general, disadvantaged regional areas within host countries can constrain the number and nature of available opportunities, whereas geographical areas displaying a higher level of economic development offer more and better business opportunities (Clark & Drinkwater, 2002; Ullah et al., 2016).

Fifth, a study in Area Studies showed that the home country's strategic attitude toward diaspora networks (5 in Table 5) can also have a moderating impact on the success of transnational migrant entrepreneurial businesses. China represents an example. By designing and implementing

incentives and advantageous policies for diaspora businesses, the government sought to stimulate trade (Liu, 2012).

Sixth, the host society's attitude to immigration (6.-6.8 in Table 5) has also been shown to have a moderating effect on success. This moderator has a broader coverage across the disciplinary areas than does the home country's attitude to diaspora networks, and it has been discussed in Anthropology, Area Studies, Demography, Economics, and Entrepreneurship. Overly negative attitudes can manifest as direct physical or verbal attacks on businesses (Lintner, 2019b; Ngota et al., 2018) and as discrimination against migrant groups by suppliers, customers, and financial institutions (Alden & Hammarstedt, 2016). Conversely, a societal-level, favorable attitude toward immigrants can exert a positive moderating impact on the success of their businesses (Li et al., 2018). Our analysis also revealed that although some countries of origin are associated with negative stereotypes, others, mostly Western developed countries, are associated with prestige (Andrejuk, 2017).

A seventh moderating factor is a migrant's integration in the host country (7.-7.3 in Table 5). This factor has been explicitly mentioned across all disciplinary areas except for Ethnic Studies. Our analysis yielded three subthemes for this factor: sociocultural integration, structural integration, and the time spent in the host country. Sociocultural integration can be disaggregated into the extent to which an individual's values align with the host country's societal values (Beckers & Blumberg, 2013), the extent of their cultural knowledge (Chen, 2015), the frequency with which they socialize with native friends (Beckers & Blumberg, 2013), their language proficiency (Mora & Davila, 2005), and whether they have a spouse from the host country (Williams & Krasniqi, 2018). Structural integration encompasses dimensions such as education in the host country (Kourtit & Nijkamp, 2012), adequate institutional knowledge (Gaspar, 2019), labor market integration (Beckers & Blumberg, 2013), living outside an enclave (Beckers & Blumberg, 2013), and naturalization (Jiang et al., 2016).

Finally, an eighth factor moderating success is the host country policies (8.-8.4 in Table 5). This factor has also been studied as an antecedent of migrant entrepreneurship, as discussed in the previous sections. To have a positive moderating impact on the number of migrant entrepreneurial businesses as well as on their performance, host country policies need to be designed based on an in-

depth understanding of the specific business support needs of migrant entrepreneurs. Examples include providing specific training and intercultural mediation (Arrighetti et al., 2014), reducing the administrative burden on enterprise formation (Collins, 2003), improving communication with ethnic groups, including the difficult-to-reach segments (Collins, 2003; Hogberg et al., 2016), and removing discriminatory barriers against migrants and migrant entrepreneurs (Naude et al., 2017). Further, to mitigate potential conflicts during the integration process, policy makers also need to understand the discourses in and between the sending and receiving communities (Jha, 2018; Walton-Roberts, 2011). Finally, the intent of a specific regulation is a moderator by nature. While some regulations aim to channel migrant entrepreneurship into specific sectors (Dobler, 2009; Munkejord, 2015) or to bring migrants out of unemployment (Collins, 2003), other types of regulations may aim to discourage migrant groups from staying in the country, thus barring them from the labor market as well as from establishing legal businesses (Heilbrunn, 2019). Ethnic Studies, General Management and Strategy, and IB were the only disciplinary areas where the moderating effect of host country policies was not discussed.

Thus, this analysis shows that prior research on migrant entrepreneurship has uncovered a multitude of diverse moderators that help to explain the success of migrant entrepreneurs' ventures. As can be observed from Table 5, IB research has examined only a small subset of these. Past IB research has emphasized the migrant entrepreneur's culture, ethnicity, and integration in the host country. Our findings indicate considerable opportunities for IB scholarship to expand its focus on migrant entrepreneurs, in particular, by paying more attention to the moderating role of home and host country institutions, both formal and informal, including ethnic fractionalization in the host country.

5 Discussion

This study was premised on the observation that IB scholarship on migrant entrepreneurs is sparse despite the importance of these entrepreneurs as a global phenomenon and their influence on cross-border trade. Our objective was to take stock of a wide range of research on migrant entrepreneurship across eight disciplines to create a resource for future IB scholarship in this area. We

analyzed this literature and organized our findings by the antecedents, success factors, and moderators of migrant entrepreneurship and compared the themes emphasized in each discipline. The differences in themes between the IB literature and the non-IB literatures are summarized in Figure 1.

Insert Figure 1 here

In this section, we highlight the implications of these findings for future IB scholarship. We consider differences between the themes studied in IB vs. non-IB journals, areas in which IB researchers may have a comparative advantage in studying migrant entrepreneurship, and considerations for both quantitative and qualitative research. In this discussion, we also rely on an additional analysis. We follow Pisani et al. (2017) in collecting and analyzing the unanswered questions identified in a subset of reviewed papers. Since the most relevant identifications of unanswered questions will be the most recent, we examined those articulated in the most recent papers: those published in 2019. These questions are listed by discipline in Table 6.

Insert Table 6 here

The major difference between IB and non-IB research on migrant entrepreneurship detected in our study is a generalized difference: IB scholars have simply studied fewer themes with respect to migrant entrepreneurs. This suggests that IB scholars can augment their understanding of the phenomenon, in terms of all the themes, by drawing on research published in other areas. Extant IB research covers all the “buckets” of our analysis—some antecedents of migrant entrepreneurs (push and pull factors), some factors related to their success, and some moderators—but because there have been so few IB studies on migrant entrepreneurship, the cumulative knowledge of the phenomenon within IB journals is low compared with journals in other disciplines. Even when a theme has been studied in IB publications, it tends to have been examined more narrowly than in other fields, as Figure 1 makes clear. For instance, the provision of business and personal support has been studied in

IB, but a much fuller array of business support, including advice, training, and mentoring, has been studied in the other disciplines collectively. Therefore, it is essential that IB researchers read beyond IB journals when designing new studies so they can draw on a fuller base of knowledge about migrant entrepreneurs.

Our thematic inventory in Tables 2–5 and Figure 1 can aid several stages of the research process. It can enhance the idea generation and initial theorizing process by providing IB scholars with an expanded repertoire of ideas about migrant entrepreneurs and helping them think outside the box of the IB discipline when designing studies (cf. Sinkovics, 2016). It can also inform the selection of samples and sampling frames, the operationalization of concepts, and the design of interview protocols (cf. Bouncken et al., 2021; Sinkovics, 2018). Further, it is essential for IB researchers to interpret their findings in relation to the broader scholarly knowledge about migrant entrepreneurs, and reviewers need to insist on this. Our detailed findings will help authors know where to look to develop a broader base of knowledge about the themes they are studying.

A second difference detected in this analysis is that extant IB research has focused on institutional factors as antecedents, or explanations, of migrant entrepreneurship, while non-IB studies recognize the relevance of individual attributes to a greater extent. The neglect of individual-level factors is not simply a characteristic of migrant entrepreneurship-related IB studies; this shortcoming has also been highlighted in theoretical explanations within other areas of IB (see Coviello, 2015; Reuber, 2018; Verbeke & Ciravegna, 2018). We note that Table 6 shows that many unanswered questions reflect scholars' interest in seeing more research on the individual differences that may be the micro-foundations of entrepreneurial behavior. This is true of the IB questions in Table 6 as well, so there may be a growing interest in individual-level explanations in IB research on migrant entrepreneurs. Overall, these questions show that across the disciplines, there is a recognition that migrant entrepreneurs are heterogeneous with respect to a myriad of individual-level attributes—class, gender, religion, generation, geography, migration cohort, abilities, objectives, and assets—and this heterogeneity is likely to be consequential to individual-level, firm-level, and institutional-level outcomes.

A third difference we detected is that IB scholarship pays attention to a narrower set of push factors as antecedents to migrant entrepreneurship than non-IB scholarship. This suggests that the comparative studies of entrepreneurship published in IB journals may be understating the impact of negative institutional conditions on entrepreneurship. The non-IB literature provides compelling evidence that a wide range of negative conditions in the home country results in people from that country becoming migrant entrepreneurs elsewhere. This suggests that comparative studies in IB of the relationship between institutional conditions and entrepreneurship should examine the entrepreneurship of people who have left their home country as well as the entrepreneurship of people who remain. Focusing only on the entrepreneurs who remain may understate the impact of negative institutional conditions on entrepreneurial activity.

A fourth difference is that IB research on migrant entrepreneurship has paid little attention to migrant entrepreneurs' adaptation to their host country's business environment. This is a gap for IB research because we know that migrant entrepreneurs' ability to leverage their specialized assets, such as international networks and knowledge of international markets, can positively affect internationalization outcomes, and their failure to adapt to their host country is likely to impede this ability. Figure 1 shows that IB research has paid attention to such realized abilities of migrant entrepreneurs but has neglected the potential that may be unrealized because of adaptation difficulties. Investigating not just whether specialized assets are valuable, but how they might be nurtured, could provide a fuller understanding of how the resources of migrant entrepreneurs can be mobilized to support internationalization at the firm and institutional levels of analysis.

This last difference between the IB and non-IB literatures is somewhat surprising because of the longstanding prominence in IB research of concepts related to adaptation: distance (e.g. Beugelsdijk et al., 2018), local adaptation to country-specific demands (e.g. Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989), liabilities of foreignness (e.g. Zaheer, 1995), assets of foreignness (e.g. Mallon & Fainshmidt, 2017), and liabilities of outsidership (e.g. Johanson & Vahlne, 2009), and, on the policy side, research on export support (e.g. Fischer & Reuber, 2003). These research perspectives have been applied to various types of firms, such as small firms, new firms, and multinational enterprises. If IB researchers

conceptualize migrant entrepreneurs similarly as economic actors, they may be better able to apply established IB theory to understanding how and why migrant entrepreneurs succeed in a host country or can operate in multiple countries. We believe that this rich foundation of theory related to crossing borders can give IB scholars a comparative advantage in contributing to an understanding of the success of migrant entrepreneurs in overcoming barriers and contributing to trade flows.

Similarly, we believe that IB researchers may be able to contribute to an understanding of migrant entrepreneurs through their knowledge of the internationalization of family firms. In particular, past IB research that has focused on the family aspects of family firm internationalization (e.g. Arregle et al., 2019; Reuber, 2016) seems promising in this respect given the international family ties of many migrant entrepreneurs. Although business and personal networks have been well studied in relation to migrant entrepreneurship, family networks have not. Research on the internationalization of family firms shows that they can have unique dynamics, with personal, family, and business considerations comingled. If migrant entrepreneurs are conceptualized as economic actors situated in family networks, IB researchers can draw on this literature to better understand the outcomes of migrant entrepreneurship.

In considering the research methods available to study migrant entrepreneurs, Table 6 shows that repeated calls have been made across all disciplinary areas for large-scale, comparative studies to account for the heterogeneity of migrant entrepreneurship. Such calls have also been made for longitudinal studies to examine the trajectories of this heterogeneity over time and through changing conditions, such as economic downturns. From an IB perspective, such studies are relevant at an institutional level and also provide a pertinent contextual basis for firm-level studies of IB topics. This is especially the case where personal knowledge and networks are relevant to outcomes, such as location and entry mode choices, the internationalization of small and new businesses, and the acquisition of global entrepreneurial talent and capital.

The unanswered questions in Table 6 also suggest the relevance of in-depth qualitative research to understanding the ways in which migrants contribute to the internationalization of their own businesses, businesses they work for, and businesses they finance as well as how they socially

influence attitudes and policies related to internationalization (see Kautto, 2019). Analyzing this large body of literature shows that conducting rich qualitative research on migrant entrepreneurship often requires a familiarity with multiple languages and cultures. IB researchers who are familiar with studying market actors that truly operate internationally, such as multinational enterprises, may have an advantage in understanding the multinational embeddedness of migrant entrepreneurs. When going into the field, researchers need to navigate their insider–outsider status carefully because there are challenges in having little familiarity with the complexity of a cultural context (e.g. Pelzang & Hutchinson, 2018; Stening & Zhang, 2007) and also challenges in being from that context (e.g. Alkhaled, 2016; Karra & Phillips, 2008).

To conclude, this study provides a thematic inventory as a resource for IB scholars who wish to study migrant entrepreneurship, points to limits in the extant IB literature compared with the non-IB literature in this area, and suggests areas where scholars may be able to leverage important theoretical ideas from IB to study migrant entrepreneurship. Migration is a powerful force in our world, and it is essential that researchers cross disciplinary boundaries to develop a deep and broad collective understanding of how migrant entrepreneurship can be fostered. We hope that the integrative framework produced by our multidisciplinary analysis will encourage IB scholars to think about how they can join this endeavor.

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7 Tables and figures

Figure 1: Summary of the findings on migrant entrepreneurship: Antecedents, success factors and moderators of success

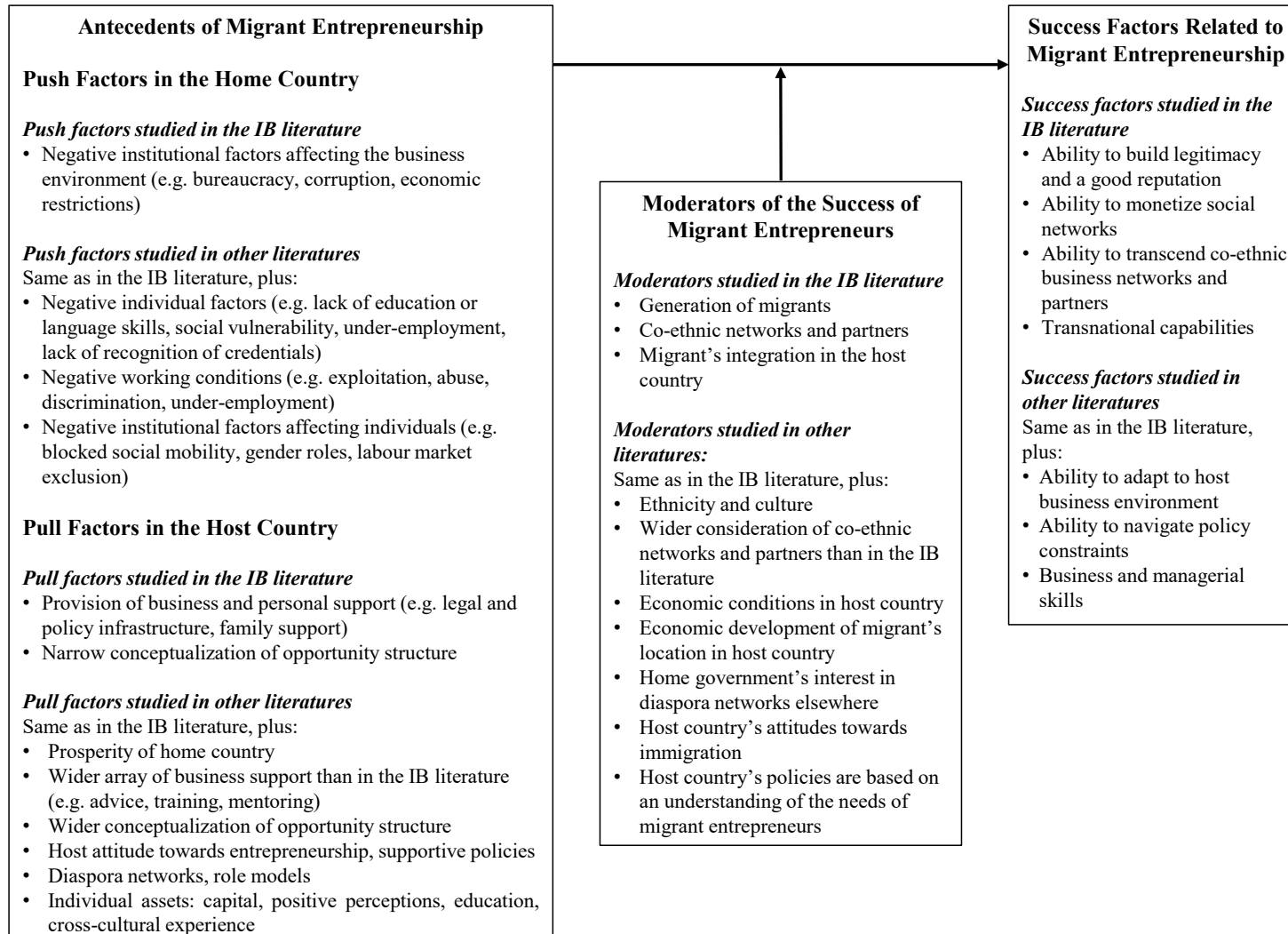


Table 1: Labels associated with entrepreneurs, used to identify articles about the entrepreneurial activity of foreign-born individuals in a country other than their country of birth. The references provided are illustrative rather than exhaustive.

<i>Conceptualizations based on the voluntariness of movement and the time horizon of residence in the host country</i>	
Immigrant entrepreneur	A foreign-born individual (and their children) who establishes a business in the host country and is likely to remain in the host country permanently (Brzozowski et al., 2017).
Migrant entrepreneur	A foreign-born individual who moves to another country for at least 12 months and establishes a business; can include within-country migrants (United Nations, 1998).
Refugee entrepreneur	A foreign-born individual who flees their country under threat, moves to another country for at least 12 months and establishes a business there (Christensen et al., 2020).
Return migrant entrepreneur (“returnee”)	A domestic-born individual who lives abroad for a period and then moves back to their home country and establishes a business there (Bai et al., 2018).
<i>Conceptualizations based on ethnicity and access to co-ethnic networks</i>	
Ethnic entrepreneur	An individual who establishes a business and belongs to an ethnic minority. This category extends beyond first and second generation to include indigenous minorities (cf. Barrett & Vershinina, 2017; Glinka, 2018).
Diaspora entrepreneur	An individual who establishes a business and has access to a diaspora network across multiple geographies. This category extends beyond first and second generation. (cf. Brzozowski et al., 2017; Elo et al., 2019; Kurt et al., 2020)
<i>Conceptualization based on cross-border ability</i>	
Transnational entrepreneur	An individual who (a) migrated from one country to another, b) is able to maintain and mobilize social networks and resources in a cross-national space, and (c) is conducting business in a cross-national context (Brzozowski et al., 2017; Drori et al., 2009).

Table 2: Negative antecedents across disciplinary areas (“push” factors)

	Anthropology	Area Studies	Demography	Economics	Entrepreneurship	Ethnic Studies	General Management and Strategy	International Business
1. negative institutional factors in home country	x		x					x
1.1 blocked social mobility in home country			x					
1.2 bureaucracy								x
1.3 corruption								x
1.4 economic restrictions	x		x					x
1.5 negative gender roles in home society	x							
2 negative institutional factors in host country	x	x	x	x	x		x	
2.1 blocked upward mobility			x		x			
2.2 negative economic conditions				x	x			
2.3 precarity of working conditions on labor market	x	x	x	x	x		x	
2.3.1 avoiding payment for social welfare contributions	x							
2.3.2 bullying and mobbing	x							
2.3.3 discrimination	x	x		x	x		x	
2.3.3.1 not promoted					x			
2.3.3.2 tougher assignments					x			
2.3.4 exceeding working hours	x				x			
2.3.5 illegal status	x							
2.3.6 not getting paid	x							
2.3.7 physical abuse	x							
2.3.8 sexual harassment	x							
2.3.9 stereotyping and racism	x		x					
2.3.10 underemployment					x			

2.3.11 unemployment			x	x	x		x	
2.3.11.1 existing skills and qualifications not acknowledged				x	x			
2.3.12 unregistered work	x							
3 negative personal circumstances	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
3.1 age	x		x	x				
3.2 caring responsibility for children	x			x			x	
3.3 language barrier	x		x	x	x			
3.4 legal status				x	x		x	
3.4.1 institutional void					x			
3.4.2 refugee status				x				
3.5 low education level	x			x	x			
3.6 social vulnerability	x	x	x		x			
3.6.1 evading uselessness	x				x			
3.6.2 finding meaning					x			
3.6.3 marginalization			x					

Table 3: Positive antecedents across disciplinary areas (“pull” factors)

	Anthropology	Area Studies	Demography	Economics	Entrepreneurship	Ethnic Studies	General Management and Strategy	International Business
1. institutional factors in home country			x					
1.1 level of material well-being in home country			x					
2. institutional factors in host country	x	x	x	x	x	x		x
2.1 availability of business support	x	x	x	x	x			x
2.1.1 access to financial capital		x	x	x				
2.1.1.1 bank loans				x				
2.1.1.2 start-up funding		x						
2.1.2 advice			x					
2.1.3 distinctive business support needs				x				x
2.1.3.1 in home country when returning								x
2.1.3.2 in host country				x				x
2.1.4 entrepreneurial training		x	x	x	x			
2.1.4.1 access to mentors			x	x				
2.1.5 help through religious networks								
2.1.6 information			x					
2.1.7 networking			x					
2.2 host society’s general attitude to entrepreneurship	x				x			x
2.3 immigration controls and policies regarding the movement of labor					x			
2.4 import–export policies and trade agreements					x			

2.5 legal and policy provisions for business activities	x		x		x			x
2.6 opportunity structure in host country	x		x	x	x	x		x
2.6.1 ease of access to, or exit from, a sector			x					
2.6.2 ease of establishing business			x		x			
2.6.3 expected earning as self-employed as opposed to wage employment				x	x			
2.6.4 size, nature, and growth potential of market			x	x	x			
2.6.5 internal economic situation			x	x	x			
2.7 policy aimed at encouraging specific types of immigration		x	x	x	x			
2.7.1 attracting talent		x						
2.7.2 entrepreneurial migration category					x			
2.7.3 fostering labor immigration					x			
2.7.4 golden visas		x						
2.7.5 recognition of education and qualifications acquired overseas					x			
2.7.6 stimulating entrepreneurship in rural areas				x				
2.8 regulation of specific sectors					x			
3. individual factors	x		x	x	x	x		x
3.1. availability and characteristics of diaspora networks				x	x			
3.1.1 institutional and religious networks					x			
3.1.2 institutionalized entrepreneurial networks					x			
3.1.3 non-institutionalized entrepreneurial networks					x			
3.2 availability of financial capital					x			

3.2.1 from formal sources					x			
3.2.2 from informal sources					x			
3.2.2.1 associates					x			
3.2.2.2 family					x			
3.2.2.3 friends					x			
3.2.2.4 rotating credit association					x			
3.3 cross-cultural experience					x			
3.4 family support			x	x	x	x		x
3.4.1 financial support					x	x		
3.4.2 geographical proximity of family					x			
3.4.3 labor						x		
3.4.4 moral support					x			
3.5 hope for financial gain					x			
3.5.1 comfortable lifestyle					x			
3.5.2 flexibility					x			
3.6 intrinsic motivation to engage in entrepreneurship	x		x		x			
3.6.1 need for achievement			x		x			
3.7 education level			x		x			
3.8 opportunity recognition					x			
3.9 optimism				x				
3.10 perceived attraction of geographical region					x			
3.11 prior entrepreneurship experience				x	x			
3.12 role models			x	x	x			
3.12.1 entrepreneurial culture in co-ethnic enclave			x		x			
3.12.2 past employers					x			
3.12.3 self-employed parents or parents' generation				x	x			

3.13 rural vs. urban origin in home country			x					
3.14 desire for independence					x			
3.14.1 locus of control					x			
3.15 desire for upward mobility					x			

Table 4: Success factors across disciplinary areas

	Anthropology	Area Studies	Demography	Economics	Entrepreneurship	Ethnic Studies	General Management and Strategy	International Business
1. ability to adapt to host country's business environment					x	x		
2. ability to adapt to policy changes	x	x	x		x	x		
2.1 ethnic-based collective action						x		
2.2 linkages to policy makers		x						
3. ability to build reputation		x			x			x
4. ability to go beyond co-ethnic network	X	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
4.1 attracting clientele beyond co-ethnic clients			x	x	x			x
4.2 boundary spanner in cross-country networks				x	x			
4.3 employment of ethnically diverse human resources			x		x	x		
4.3.1 management level					x			
4.3.2 personnel level					x			
4.4 geographic relocation					x			
4.5 linkages with local firm networks				x	x	x		
4.6 ability to get through gatekeepers					x			
4.7 partnering with non-co-ethnic individuals					x			
5. ability to monetize social network	x	x	x	x	x	x		x
5.1 access to co-ethnic suppliers of utilities and facilities					x			
5.2 access to up-to-date information					x			
5.3 accessing technology								x

5.4 better sourcing prices through ethnic networks		x	x					
5.5 different types of social capital mobilized for different types of transnational business strategies	x							
5.6 enhancing operational scale								x
5.7 ethnic identity as attractor for clientele		x	x		x			
5.8 ethnic identity as attractor for clientele\ethnic district			x					
5.9 gaining access to important business or political figures								x
5.10 horizontal integration of wholesaling with manufacturing through ethnic network		x						
5.11 navigating institutional contexts across countries through ethnic networks		x			x			
5.12 obtaining business know-how					x			x
5.13 religious identity as attractor for clientele								x
5.14 securing resources required					x			x
5.14.1 capital			x		x			
5.14.2 goods					x			
5.14.3 labor			x	x	x			x
5.15 ability to navigate multiple institutional contexts								x
6. business and managerial skills		x	x	x	x		x	
6.1 ability to focus on strategic planning		x		x	x			
6.2 ability to innovate			x	x	x			
6.3 ability to reduce operating costs							x	
6.4 ability to transfer skills gained in one location to another location				x	x			

6.5 contingency plans to protect assets for long-term future		x						
6.6 customer orientation and relationship management				x	x			
6.7 flexibility			x					
6.8 high quality of offering		x			x			
6.9 ICT adoption and use					x			
6.10 negotiation skill				x				
6.11 strategic use of social, human, and cultural capital				x			x	
6.12 succession planning		x						
7. transnational capability			x	x	x		x	
7.1 ability to balance network scope and network size			x		x			
7.2 ability to develop and leverage strong ties			x		x		x	
7.2.1 ability to mobilize ties			x					
7.2.2 ability to transfer ties			x					
7.3 ability to overcome liability of outsidership in host country							x	
7.4 close geographic distance as facilitator			x					
7.5 cosmopolitan positioning			x	x	x			
7.6 multilocal embeddedness				x	x			
7.7 optimizing resources in both markets—home and host					x			
7.8 prior experience in doing business in home country					x			

Table 5: Moderating factors across disciplinary areas

	Anthropology	Area Studies	Demography	Economics	Entrepreneurship	Ethnic Studies	General Management and Strategy	International Business
1. differences between first- and second-generation migrants			x		x	x		x
2. ethnicity and culture	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
2.1 alignment of co-ethnics' social expectations with market principles					x			
2.1.1 degree of normative conformity in co-ethnic network					x			
2.2 co-ethnics' ability and willingness to help			x	x	x	x		x
2.2.1 co-ethnics ability and willingness to employ other co-ethnics			x			x		
2.2.2 co-ethnics' ability and willingness to provide information			x		x			
2.2.3 co-ethnics' ability and willingness to provide loans			x	x	x			
2.2.4 degree of opportunism in social network								x
2.2.5 extent of competition in co-ethnic network			x			x		
2.2.6 geographical and sectoral location of co-ethnic network			x					
2.2.7 tie strength to co-ethnics in enclave or network					x			
2.3 degree of cultural nearness between home and host country	x		x		x	x	x	
2.3.1 historical ties between home and host country			x					
2.3.2 institutional pressures to assimilate					x			

2.3.3 segmented assimilation					x	x		
2.3.4 shared language					x			
2.3.5 shared religion					x			
2.3.6 similarity of legal and economic settings			x					
2.4 degree of ethnic fractionalization in host country	x	x	x	x	x	x		
2.4.1 degree of concentration of immigrants in the neighborhood in which the entrepreneur operates			x			x		
2.4.2 degree of segregation					x			
2.4.3 size of ethnic niches	x	x	x	x	x	x		
2.4.4 the role of structural context in how ethnic groups organize					x			
2.5 degree of involvement in ethnic community			x		x			
2.5.1 degree of ethnic attachment			x					
2.5.2 degree of trust					x			
2.6 degree of trust in public projects					x			
2.7 degree to which entrepreneurship is respected or preferred as an occupation by the ethnic group			x	x	x			X
3. economic situation in host country			x					
4. geography	x		x	x	x			X
5. home state's attitude toward diaspora networks		x						
6. host society's tolerance to immigration	x	x	x	x	x			
6.1 physical attacks on businesses		x	x					
6.2 discrimination against migrant groups			x	x	x			
6.2.1 discrimination by banks				x	x			

6.2.2 discrimination by co-ethnics					X			
6.2.3 discrimination by colleagues					X			
6.2.4 discrimination by customers				X				
6.2.5 discrimination by employers			X		X			
6.2.6 discrimination by suppliers				X				
6.3 favorable attitude					X			
6.4 permanent settlement discouraged			X					
6.5 prestige associated with COO			X					
6.6 public opinion and debate			X					
6.7 racism and racial bias			X		X			
6.8 role of media coverage of migrants and migrant entrepreneurship					X			
7. level of integration in host country	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
7.1 sociocultural integration	X		X		X			
7.2 structural integration		X			X		X	X
7.3 time spent in host country			X	X	X		X	
8. nature of relevant host country policy	X	X	X	X	X			
8.1 degree of understanding of the business support needs of migrant entrepreneurs		X			X			
8.2 degree of understanding of the discourses in and between sending and receiving communities	X							
8.3 degree of understanding of the specificity of immigrant transnational networks	X							
8.4 intent of regulation		X	X	X	X			

Table 6: Unanswered questions: An analysis of the future research sections of studies published in 2019

Disciplinary area	Unanswered questions
Anthropology	What are the different types of network ties and how do they evolve over time? Do they continue to accumulate, or do they erode over time? What is the role of sectors in how ties influence migrant entrepreneurship? Are there any differences in the use of networks between low-skilled services and complex business operations? (Rodgers et al., 2019)
	What is the emancipatory potential of transnational spaces for female migrant entrepreneurs? Future research needs to further explore the multifaceted nature of gender at the intersection between space, history, migration, and family-based settings. Comparative studies are needed on the impact of gender on the development of transnational enterprises and on the importance of temporal dimensions across different nationalities, ethnicities, and social classes in various societies, and in different generations. (Vershina et al., 2019)
Area Studies	What are the challenges faced by rural destinations characterized by different historic, geographic, and migration contexts? How do institutional and policy differences at local, regional, and national scales in different peripheral areas affect migrant entrepreneurship? (Eimermann et al., 2019)
	Comparative studies need to be conducted on the social integration of second-generation immigrants across different countries of origins (cf. Gaspar, 2019)
	Further exploration of diaspora-driven development is needed. How do Africans throughout the globe mobilize their influence, finances, and expertise to make a perceptible change in their home country (and ultimately in other countries within Africa)? (Griffin-El & Olabisi, 2019)
	Further studies are needed on the role of gender and multicultural ethnic clusters in the context of transgenerational entrepreneurship. (Tan et al., 2019)
Demography	How was the labor force participation of Bangladeshi immigrants affected by job losses and economic restructuring, and how did specific social characteristics influence their pathways to paid employment and self-employment after the 2008–2009 recession? (Akbar, 2019)
	How does social class intersect with other social divisions (e.g., gender, ethnicity, and religion) to shape migrant entrepreneurs' experiences and trajectories? (Cederberg & Villares-Varela, 2019)
	What are the different categories of Syrian entrepreneurship in Lebanon and do their practices and experiences differ? What barriers do they face in maintaining and/or growing their businesses? How do they address these constraints? (Harb et al., 2019)
	How can the impact of the disconnect between institutional level factors and the personal lifeworld of migrant entrepreneurs on social innovation be mitigated? (cf. Lintner, 2019b)
	How can the impact of economic downturns on the wealth of middle-class minority entrepreneurs be mitigated? Do different migrant groups experience the impact of economic downturns differently? (cf. Valdez, 2020)

Table 6: Unanswered questions: An analysis of the future research sections of studies published in 2019 (continued)

Disciplinary area	Unanswered questions
Economics	What mechanisms are used to govern refugees in developing countries? Are these different from those in developed countries? (Bhagat, 2019)
	What is the comparative impact of business support as opposed to other support, such as language courses and aid with job search, aimed at facilitating the integration of refugees into the labor market? (Dagnelie et al., 2019)
	How can municipalities and other governing bodies develop a better understanding of the diverse needs of ethnic communities and of the role of ethnic entrepreneurs in suburban place-making? (Zhuang, 2019)
Entrepreneurship	Future research needs to further investigate the dynamics of optimal distinctiveness as a continuum. How do the concepts of identity and legitimacy manifest in different settings, namely, diaspora, migrant entrepreneurship, expatriates, and international workers? (Abd Hamid et al., 2019)
	What are the barriers to refugees' self-employment in developing countries? How do background and cultural differences influence refugees' ability to address these barriers? (Alexandre et al., 2019)
	How do migrant entrepreneurs reconcile their embeddedness in the social and economic contexts? What factors, in addition to ethnicity, shape informal migrant entrepreneurship? (Bisignano & El-Anis, 2019)
	Future research needs to focus more on female immigrant entrepreneurs at the margins of society in developing economies, including on their resilience and capabilities (Bosiakoh & Tetteh, 2019)
	Large-scale quantitative, comparative studies are needed across different migrant groups to consider factors such as system characteristics, vendor support, user attitudes and perceptions, personality traits, and institutional and other macro-environmental factors (Chen et al., 2019)
	Future research needs to further explore developing language abilities and cultural understanding in relation to the home cultural background, specifically how a new cultural understanding develops and how the culture (i.e., specific values, beliefs, and customs) of the home country influences the integration process. (Evansluong et al., 2019)
	Future research is needed to deepen our understanding of voluntary refugee organizations. (Hack-Polay & Igwe, 2019)
	Future research needs to further explore refugee entrepreneurship, including its antecedents and consequences for all stakeholders involved. Further research is needed to compare and contrast different environments. (Heilbrunn, 2019)
	More research is needed on the role of social class in migrant entrepreneurship. (Kacar & Essers, 2019)
	Longitudinal studies on refugees involving larger samples are needed, specifically to track actions, behaviors, and changes over time. (Mawson & Kasem, 2019)
More research on transnational women entrepreneurship is needed. (Villares-Varela & Essers, 2019)	

Table 6: Unanswered questions: An analysis of the future research sections of studies published in 2019 (continued)

Disciplinary area	Unanswered questions
Entrepreneurship (continued)	What is the relationship between location/markets and the ethnicity of the business owner? What other factors, beyond culture, ethnicity, and religion, contribute to the success of migrant entrepreneurial businesses? The motivations and intentions of second- and third-generation entrepreneurs need further examination—how do these factors shape the way they interpret the word, and how do they affect their ability to manage a business? (McPherson, 2019)
	Comparative studies are needed to investigate transnational entrepreneurs from different countries of origin. How can small immigrant enterprises avoid “over-embeddedness” in the host country? To what extent do highly skilled transnational migrant entrepreneurs embed in the host country, and how is their embedding process different from that of other transnational migrant entrepreneurs? Future studies also need to consider the entrepreneurs’ background, skills, and character, and discover how these differences affect the transnational migrant entrepreneurs’ embedding process. (Quan et al., 2019)
	Comparative studies are needed on differences and similarities across transnational entrepreneur groups, which consider promotion, competition, analysis, innovation, expansion, future plans, employee’ characteristics, market expansion, international operations, financing, international strategies, and entry modes. At the meso and macro levels, research is needed on how networks evolve over time and how such network effects enhance or limit business growth and performance. (Santamaria-Alvarez et al., 2019)
	Comparative studies of immigrant entrepreneurship are needed across developed and developing countries. What is the role of religion in sector choice and in the ways in which entrepreneurs manage their firms? What is the role of religious values and beliefs in business ownership, how do they guide the choices entrepreneurs make, and what impact may they have on entrepreneurial success? (Shinnar & Nayir, 2019)
	What are the development strategies for different types and sizes of migrant businesses? What are the problems and difficulties faced by ethnic Chinese businesses that failed to break out of low return start-up businesses? More comparative studies are required on failed and successful migrant businesses across different ethnicities. (cf. Wang & Warn, 2019)
	What is the moderating role of sociocultural, political, and economic backgrounds of immigrant entrepreneurs on the effectiveness of policies targeting immigrant entrepreneurship? (Yeasmin & Koivurova, 2019)
	Comparative studies are needed to investigate the moderating impact of the country of origin of female entrepreneurs on the nature of family and community support. What is the impact of family structure on the social and cultural capital development processes when considering the intersection of gender, ethnicity, and class? (Yeroz, 2019)
	More research is needed on the dynamism of economic activity of immigrants in the host country. Future research on economic integration should analyze full panel datasets. (Brzozowski & Lasek, 2019)
	Comparative studies of different diaspora groups in terms of their cultural value patterns and the implications of these for entrepreneurial issues are needed. What is the moderating role of the host country’s social environment? (Phuong & Harima, 2019)

Table 6: Unanswered questions: An analysis of the future research sections of studies published in 2019 continued

Disciplinary area	Unanswered questions
Ethnic Studies	More research is needed on the interaction of individual immigrant entrepreneur’s agency with the social structures in the host country. (Lintner, 2019a)
	Future research should compare how different migrant economies influence urban development processes in various city types, including in low-scale cities and cities with global repositioning aspirations. (Rauchle & Schmitz, 2019)
General Management and Strategy	More studies are needed on the evolution of gender roles of immigrant female entrepreneurs over time as a result of structural changes in the host country’s economy. (Karan, 2019)
	Future studies should investigate whether Hispanic-owned businesses located in ethnic enclaves face greater entrepreneurial barriers compared with ethnic businesses located in nonminority neighborhoods. Future research should explore whether any significant distinctions concerning cultural and ethnic factors contribute to the success of Hispanic subgroups, such as Venezuelans, Dominicans, and Colombians. (Leta-Leroux, 2019)
	Future research needs to explore the quality of life of immigrant entrepreneurs. What are the initial reasons for immigration, and how does this interact with aspects such as work–life balance and satisfaction? (Zbierowski et al., 2019)
	What are the changes in the entrepreneurship landscape across generations and over time? How do the cultural backgrounds and the tribal differences that exist between Ghanaian immigrant entrepreneurs influence their decisions about entrepreneurship? (Andoh et al., 2019)
International Business	What are the effects of demographic features on the business practices of immigrant entrepreneurs? What are the moderating effects of demographic features, such as age, gender, level of education, location of the businesses, years in business, and years in Australia, on the relationships between the multiple institutional contexts and the business practices of immigrant entrepreneurs? How do multiple institutional constraints shape the business practices of migrant entrepreneurs? (Liang, 2019)
	What is the impact of home country network embeddedness on the exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities in different contexts? Future studies could use a large sample that includes more cities. Future research is needed to study the ambidexterity of overseas and domestic resource acquisition in returnee entrepreneurship. Under what conditions are returnee entrepreneurial firms more likely to attract local partners? What factors determine successful collaboration between returnee entrepreneurs and local entrepreneurs? Do degrees of home country embeddedness motivate and lead to different levels of local collaboration? (Lin et al., 2019)
	Large-scale, comparative studies across different countries are needed to determine similarities and differences in factors motivating high-skilled entrepreneurial migration (Salamanca & Alcaraz, 2019)

8 Appendix

Appendix 1: Journals with articles retrieved for this review, by disciplinary area.

The number in parentheses after the journal name is the number of articles from that journal included in this review.

Anthropology (6 journals; 10 articles)

American Anthropologist (1)
American Ethnologist (1)
Anthropological Notebooks (1)
Global Networks-a Journal of Transnational Affairs (4)
Journal of Anthropological Research (1)

Area Studies (17 journals; 19 articles)

African and Asian Studies (1)
Asian Journal of Social Science (1)
China Quarterly (2)
China-An International Journal (1)
Ekonomika Regiona-Economy of Region (1)
Eurasian Geography and Economics (1)
European Review (2)
Journal of African Business (1)
Journal of Asia Business Studies (1)
Journal of Eastern African Studies (1)
Journal of Mediterranean Studies (1)
Journal of Southeast Asian Studies (1)
Pacific Affairs (1)
Portuguese Journal of Social Science (1)
Regional Science Policy and Practice (1)
Sojourn-Journal of Social Issues in Southeast Asia (1)
South African Journal of Business Management (1)

Demography (15 journals; 70 articles)

Asian and Pacific Migration Journal (4)
Dve Domovini—Two Homelands (1)
International Journal of Adolescence & Youth (1)
International Migration (14)
International Migration Review (10)
Iza Journal of Migration (1)
Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies (24)
Journal of International Migration & Integration (2)
Journal of Refugee Studies (2)
Migration Letters (1)

Migration Studies (2)
Nordic Journal of Migration Research (3)
Population and Environment (1)
Population Space and Place (2)
South Asian Diaspora (2)

Economics (32 journals; 51 articles)

Amfiteatru Economic (1)
Annals of Regional Science (1)
Cambridge Journal of Economics (1)
Cambridge Journal of Regions Economy and Society (1)
Canadian Journal of Economics-Revue Canadienne D Economique (1)
Economic Geography (2)
Economic Journal (1)
Economica (1)
Economics-the Open Access Open-Assessment E-Journal (1)
Entrepreneurial Business and Economics Review (8)
European Economic Review (1)
International Journal of Emerging Markets (1)
International Journal of Social Economics (1)
Journal of African Economies (1)
Journal of Business Economics and Management (1)
Journal of Development Studies (1)
Journal of Entrepreneurship and Public Policy (1)
Journal of Evolutionary Economics (1)
Journal of International Development (1)
Journal of Population Economics (4)
Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy (1)
Journal of the Knowledge Economy (1)
Kyklos (3)
Labor Economics (2)
New Political Economy (1)
Regional Science and Urban Economics (1)
Research Policy (2)
Review of Economics of the Household (2)
Revista De Economia Mundial (1)
South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences (1)
Tijdschrift Voor Economische En Sociale Geografie (4)
World Development (1)

Appendix 1: Journals with articles retrieved for this review, by discipline area (continued)

The number in parentheses after the journal name is the number of articles from that journal included in this review.

Entrepreneurship (25 journals; 151 articles)

Asia Pacific Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship (1)
Entrepreneurship and Regional Development (30)
Entrepreneurship and Sustainability Issues (1)
Entrepreneurship Research Journal (1)
Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice (7)
International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal (5)
International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research (13)
International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research (7)
International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation (3)
International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship (1)
International Small Business Journal (10)
International Small Business Journal-Researching Entrepreneurship (5)
Journal of Business Venturing (6)
Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship (3)
Journal of Enterprising Communities-People and Places in the Global Economy (7)
Journal of Enterprising Communities-People and Places of Global Economy (3)
Journal of Enterprising Culture (2)
Journal of Entrepreneurship (1)
Journal of Entrepreneurship Management and Innovation (5)
Journal of International Entrepreneurship (11)
Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship (1)
Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development (3)
Journal of Small Business Management (6)
Small Business Economics (17)
Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal (2)

Ethnic Studies (2 journals; 18 articles)

Ethnic and Racial Studies (15)
Ethnicities (3)

General Management and Strategy (17 journals; 26 articles)

Academia-Revista Latinoamericana De Administracion (1)
Asian Academy of Management Journal (1)
British Journal of Management (1)
European Management Journal (1)
Journal of Family Business Strategy (1)
Journal of Management (2)
Journal of Management & Governance (1)
Journal of Management Studies (2)
Journal of Organizational Change Management (1)
Journal of Technology Transfer (1)
Long Range Planning (1)
Problemy Zarzadzania-Management Issues (7)
Review of Managerial Science (1)
Scandinavian Journal of Management (1)
Strategic Change-Briefings in Entrepreneurial Finance (1)
Strategic Management Journal (2)
Technology Innovation Management Review (1)

International Business (9 journals; 28 articles)

Asia Pacific Journal of Management (2)
Asia Pacific Business Review (2)
European Journal of International Management (1)
International Business Review (10)
Journal of East-West Business (1)
Journal of International Business Studies (2)
Journal of International Management (4)
Journal of World Business (3)
Thunderbird International Business Review (3)

Appendix 2: Protocol for search, selection, and exclusion

A. Criteria for delineating the migrant entrepreneurship literature

- Directly and explicitly relates to cross-border migration AND concepts of entrepreneurship
 - ⇒ Cross-border migration
 - Immigration
 - Cross-border migration
 - Diaspora
 - Refugees
 - Ethnic minorities with cross-border migration background (first or second generation)
 - ⇒ Entrepreneurship
 - Entrepreneurial behavior of individuals with cross-border migration background within a given host country
 - Entrepreneurial behavior of individuals with cross-border migration background across borders
 - International comparison of entrepreneurial behavior of individuals with cross-border migration background
- Peer-reviewed journal articles only
- Empirical OR conceptual OR review articles

B. Exclusion criteria by theoretical relevance

- Studies focusing on the entrepreneurial activity of ethnic groups that are not of first- or second-generation cross-border migration background (third- and fourth-generation or indigenous ethnic minorities), or that do not provide information about the time of migration
- Studies focusing on the employment of individuals with cross-border migration background on the job market without connection to entrepreneurial activities
- Studies focusing on the employment of individuals with cross-border migration background by firms NOT fully or at least partially owned by migrant entrepreneurs
- Firm formation or other entrepreneurship related activity NOT the focus of the study
- Historical case studies (i.e., pre-WWII period of investigation)
- Research published in edited books and conference proceedings
- Editorials, reviews, and commentaries
- Case studies for teaching purposes
- Articles unavailable electronically or by other reasonable means

C. Search strategy and scope—Stage I

- Full search of articles in the Web of Science without restriction to journals or period
 - ⇒ Keyword search in abstract, title, and/or keywords fields of a record (TS stands for topic search in the Web of Science):
 - ((TS=("immigrant" OR "ethnic" OR "migrant" OR "diaspora" OR "refugee") AND TS=("entrepreneurship" OR "entrepreneur" OR "self-employed")) OR TS=("transnational enterprise" OR "transnational entrepreneur" OR "transnational entrepreneurship" OR "female immigrant entrepreneur" OR "woman immigrant entrepreneur"))
 - Initial search results (performed September 27, 2019): $n = 1570$ articles
- Download the bibliographic information (title, year, author, abstract) of the 1570 records into the EndNote reference manager software
 - ⇒ Manual reading and checking of all articles included in this initial database against the inclusion/exclusion criteria
 - Manual exclusion in line with pre-defined inclusion/exclusion criteria
 - Narrow down by disciplinary area: Anthropology, Area Studies, Economics, Entrepreneurship, Ethnic Studies, Demography, General Management and Strategy, and International Business
 - Final sample for full analysis: $n = 373$

Appendix 3: Analysis protocol

A. Data organization

1. Download the PDFs and attach these in the EndNote reference manager software
2. Import PDFs, including their bibliographic information, into the computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software, NVivo
3. Organize articles into case nodes according to the disciplinary area to which they belong (Harzing, 2019; Tüselmann et al., 2016)

B. Theme identification and coding

1. Each article is read and coded inductively
 - ⇒ Initial areas to code included but were not limited to (other themes emerged):
 - Antecedents
 - Moderators
 - Success factors of migrant entrepreneurship
 - Direction of migration (home country, host country, and direction)
 - ⇒ During the coding process, main themes (descriptive statement that captures a topic emerging from the article) were broken down into subthemes; new themes added as they emerged
 - ⇒ Periodically, the themes were reviewed for redundancy and duplication and reorganized if needed
2. Quality check against established practice: see Jones et al. (2011)
 - ⇒ Each article was given equal attention
 - ⇒ The process was thorough, inclusive, and comprehensive
 - ⇒ Themes were checked against each other and back to the original dataset
 - ⇒ Themes were checked for internal coherence, consistency, and distinctiveness
 - ⇒ Data were analyzed (interpreted) for meaning and common vocabulary preserved
 - ⇒ Themes were iteratively pattern-matched with the data, and the ontology tables and thematic map were checked for consistency
 - ⇒ The active and reflective role of the researchers is fully acknowledged

C. Comparison of themes across disciplinary areas

D. Organizing results into an integrative framework

E. Deriving several research avenues for future research