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What is the Relationship between Immigrant Enclaves and Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurial Activity in Ireland?

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Abstract

This thesis is a pioneering study, exploring the relationship between immigrant enclaves (IE) and transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE) in the unique context of a Nigerian immigrant community in Dublin. The study reviews the relevant literature in the field of immigrant entrepreneurship, adopting principles from the most significant studies in order to develop a conceptual model for understanding the relationship between an IE and TDE. The study employed qualitative semi-structured interviews with eleven participants in order to generate data, which was then processed through the six phases of thematic analysis described by Braun and Clarke. The researcher's own experience as a member of the Nigerian diaspora introduced a unique interpretative perspective.

The participants were all Irish citizens of Nigerian origin, resident in the Dublin suburb of Blanchardstown and either engaged in TDE activity or proposing to initiate a TDE enterprise involving commercial interaction between Ireland and Nigeria in the near future. The analysis and interpretation of the literature and data set produced a unique contribution to the fields of IE and TDE studies. This work presents novel findings in three areas: (a) understanding the process of IE formation in a unique Irish context; (b) explaining how specific country of origin (COO) cultural predispositions impact on immigrant entrepreneurship; and (c) elucidating how an IE environment plays a key role in facilitating TDE activity. Related research on IE and TDE has tended to focus on issues related to international business, money remittances and investment activities, with scant attention given to the link between IE and TDE (Brzozowski, Cucculelli and Surdej, 2017). Consequently, a possible relationship between IE and TDE activity in a country of residence (COR) has been largely overlooked. The present study lays the foundations for further research into the nature of this relationship.

Declaration

I hereby certify:

That this thesis which I now submit for examination for the award of PhD is entirely my own work, that ideas not my own have been acknowledged through appropriate citation and referencing, that material (i.e., phrases, sentences, paragraphs or whole sections) borrowed directly from other sources has been duly recognised using quotation marks and acknowledged through appropriate citation and referencing, and that material from other sources that is paraphrased or summarised in my own words has been acknowledged through appropriate citation and referencing.

This thesis was prepared according to the regulations for postgraduate study by research of the Technological University Dublin (TU Dublin) and has not been submitted in whole or in part for another award in any Institute or University.

The work reported on in this thesis conforms to the principles and requirements of TU Dublin's guidelines for ethics in research. The University has permission to keep, lend or copy this thesis in whole or in part, on condition that any such use of the material of the thesis be duly acknowledged.

Signed_____, Date_____

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Ecclesiastes 3:1 "*to everything there is a season, and a time to every purpose under the heaven*". This is my time and season. *Deo gratias*!

Osa-Godwin Osaghae

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List of Acronyms

COR – Country of Residency

COO – Country of Origin

IE – Immigrants Enclave

TDE – Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurship

EU - European Union

IOM - International Organisation for Migration

TA - Thematic Analysis

UNESCO - The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UK – United Kingdom

USA – United State America

OECD - The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

SOPEMI - The Continuous Reporting System on Migration (known under its French acronym, SOPEMI, from Système d'Observaton Permanente des Migrations)

CSO - Central Statistics Office

UNO - United Nations Organisation

FDI - Foreign Direct Investment

MOIA - Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs

Habitat - UN-Habitat Global Report on Human Settlements

NPSEI - National Policy Statement on Entrepreneurship in Ireland

GEM - Global Entrepreneurship Monitor

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1 Background

This work explores the potential relationship between the concepts of 'immigrant enclave' (IE) and 'transnational diaspora entrepreneurship' (TDE). These two concepts have not been linked formally in previous literature. IE refers to the location and economic activity of immigrants, while TDE refers to the practice of communication between the country of residency (COR) and country of origin (COO) for entrepreneurial activity by members of a diaspora community (Dorir, 2010). In countries of origin with high rates of emigration (such as Bolivia, China, Columbia, Ecuador, India, Mexico and Nigeria) TDE is becoming the main source of transfer of technological know-how and job creation. For example, the desire of India's government to become a technological hub is powered by its diaspora, especially in North America and Europe (Chacko, 2007; Bauböck and Faist, 2010; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015).

TDE represents a new way for countries finding it difficult to compete for foreign direct investments (FDI) to acquire additional capital for development (Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Over the past fifteen years, transnationalism has been on the rise and the number of migrants worldwide has continued to grow rapidly. It reached258 million in 2017, up from 248 million in 2015, 220 million in 2010, 191 million in 2005 and 173 million in 2000 (International Organisation for Migration Report [IOM] 2017, p.4). This rise in the volume of migrants and the constant communication by members of diaspora communities with their COO give rise to the question of potential opportunities for developing commercial links between the COR and COO.

The lack of analysis of available data regarding links between IE and TDE activity provides the justification for this study. The decision to concentrate closely on this gap in the existing literature was motivated by the suggestion that immigrant enclaves create resources for entrepreneurial start-ups (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990). Immigrant cultural predispositions in a geographical area create a market niche, an environment, resources, human and financial

capital, infrastructure and community bonding (Waldinger et al., 1986; Neuman, 2016). In turn, these create new opportunities for transnational commercial activity (Portes and Sensenbrenner 1993; Drori et al. 2006).

The enclave concept has its origin in the theory of labour market segmentation that implies a split between a primary and a secondary labour market (Averitt, 1968). The primary labour market refers to large monopolistic corporations while the secondary one is the preserve of small and medium enterprises, including those owned and staffed by members of immigrant groups (Doeringer and Piore, 1971).

In secondary labour market contexts defined by specific cultural characteristics, the sharing of the same group identity and the presence of collective sanction mechanisms generate trust and reduce behavioural uncertainty (Watson, Keasey, and Baker, 2000). The IE, in its current form, bears similarities to the term 'cluster', a concept used in describing the concentration of mainstream business or industry in a particular geographical area. While clustering promotes healthy rivalry among similar industries by highlighting the need to stay ahead of competitors, enclaves encourage immigrant participation in business by stimulating motivation and ambition (Porter, 1998). The IE creates a cultural identity that can lead, eventually, to the creation of resources that encourage both intra-enclave entrepreneurship and TDE (Neuman, 2016). The bonded solidarity found within the enclave provides a COO cultural environment, resources and a network that help in creating employment and markets which draw members of a diaspora community to their own enclave in the COR. Thus, an IE allows a minority group to reaffirm its identity and interests in its own ethnic cultural manner.

The present research adopts the definition of enclaves by Marcuse (1997, p242):

> *An enclave is a spatially concentrated area in which members of a particular population group, self-defined by ethnicity or religion or otherwise, congregate as a means of enhancing their economic, social and/or cultural development*

This definition portrays enclaves as environments that provide immigrants with COO cultural resources; encourage immigrant concentration in specific geographical areas and facilitate

entrepreneurial activity in the COR. The IE encourages self-employment among people of the same ethnic background and creates opportunities for entrepreneurial start-ups (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993).

1.2 Rationale for This Work

All of the above factors, together with the researcher's own diaspora background, contributed to the choice of this dissertation topic. Having lived, worked and studied in several very different COR contexts, the author observed certain constants in the entrepreneurial behaviour of diaspora communities. This research is an evolution of the researcher's travels and encounters with people of various nationalities and immigration backgrounds. The researcher was born in Nigeria, where he spent his early life, before moving to Austria in 1996 at a time where immigrant resources were rare and transnational entrepreneurship was close to non-existent. Re-locating to Ireland in 2004 to start a degree in Business, as well as a visit to the Peckham area of London in 2007, gave the researcher a new understanding of immigrant settlement and enclave resources utilisation. On completion of the degree in Business, the researcher went on to complete a Master's Degree in International Business where his knowledge of culture and enclave resources was further broadened. On completion of the Masters program, the researcher undertook a thesis on *"How home country culture affects the Nigerian minority entrepreneurs in business deals in Ireland"*. This enhanced his interest in culture, immigrant start-ups and IE activities.

This interest created an avenue to explore how IEs create an opportunity for TDE activity and how TDE activity influences the concentration of immigrant populations in specific geographical areas. This topic has been less explored in current literature. TDE is an emerging field of study. Related research currently focuses on international business, immigrant ethnic entrepreneurship, money remittances and investment activities, with scant attention given to the link between IE and TDE (Brzozowski, Cucculelli and Surdej, 2017). Consequently, a possible

relationship between IE and TDE activity in COR has been largely overlooked. The decision to concentrate on this knowledge gap was motivated by the suggestion of Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) that TDE in its current form builds social, economic and political bridges between nations. This contradicts some earlier views of TDE as, primarily, a money remittance process (Levitt, 1998; Guarnizo, 2003; Yang, 2011).

Ireland, a country with a large diaspora population, presents a fascinating case study for exploring a possible relationship between IE and TDE activity in a COR. As found in studies by, among others, Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) and Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) and Neuman (2016), enclaves provide an environment, resources and infrastructure that support intra- and extra-enclave activities. Until the early 2000s there were no fully constituted enclave communities. The inflow of immigrants in the early 2000s initiated the creation of IEs in locations like Blanchardstown, Balbriggan and parts of central Dublin (Central Statistics Office, 2016 Census). Because immigration on this scale is still relatively recent, Irish legislation is somewhat outdated. 'The Alien Act (1935)' still defines the legal framework regulating immigration (SOPEMI, 1999, OECD, 2015) and official diaspora policy overlooks how the immigrant population can enhance the relationship between Ireland and the immigrants' countries of origin. As Cooney and Flynn (2008) found, ethnic entrepreneurship in Ireland is estimated at 12.6% of the immigrant population, a level similar to other immigrant countries. This level of entrepreneurial activity is sufficiently significant to constitute the basis for the present study of the IE and TDE relationship.

1.3 Methodological Approach to the Present study (Roadmap)

The research set out to answer the question "*What is the relationship between immigrant enclaves (IE) and transnational diaspora entrepreneurial (TDE) activity in Ireland*? To date, the relationship between the two has been under explored in the literature. An IE has been

described as "*a spatially concentrated area in which members of a particular population group, self-defined by ethnicity or religion or otherwise, congregate as a means of enhancing their economic, social and/or cultural development*" (Marcuse, 1997, p.242). TDE practitioners may be defined as: "*settled ethnic minority groups of migrant origins residing and acting in their COR, but maintaining strong sentimental, entrepreneurial and material links with their COO*" (Osaghae and Cooney, 2019, p.7). To answer the research question, the present study adopted a qualitative methodology, with data collection based on semi-structured interviews. Central to the reasoning for the use of a qualitative, semi-structured approach is the strong evidence from the literature review suggesting that a qualitative approach is best for describing, interpreting, contextualising and gaining in-depth insight into specific concepts or phenomena (Milles and Huberman, 1994; Saunders, et al, 2012). The semi-structured interviews employed in the present study were conducted with eleven participants, all Nigerian immigrants residing in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin for at least seven years. All have become naturalised Irish citizens. They are entrepreneurs serving the Nigerian community and either have commercial links with Nigeria or intend to start a business involving such links.

The interview questions for the present study were designed to reassure participants who are sensitive about their culture and somewhat reluctant to talk about their business activities. The Nigerians residing in Blanchardstown hold their culture close to their heart and rarely give information regarding their businesses to people from outside their enclave community. Adopting this style of questioning opened up conversation between the researcher and the interviewees. In order to gain a better insight into their activities, the interviews were conducted on the participants' own business premises. The interviews lasted one hour or more, depending on the experience and knowledge of each participant. Answers were audio recorded, no file notes were taken and consent forms were signed by the participants. The study focused on a small enclave community and adopted an objective, in-depth micro approach, using a small data sample (Cunliffe, 2006). The researcher selected the exponential discriminative snowball

sampling' technique for sampling the participants. This approach invited each initial interviewee to nominate two other Nigerian TDE practitioners for interview. This process greatly reduced the difficulty of gaining the trust of the enclave entrepreneurs.

On completion of the interview process, which lasted eight months, the interviews were transcribed and thematic analysis was conducted. This involved organising all the data into folders using the NVivo software before identifying and reviewing six key themes by means of the Braun and Clark (2006) model of thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a method of analysing qualitative data, usually applied to a set of texts, in order to identify common themes, ideas and patterns of meaning that come up repeatedly from transcribed interviews. The aim is to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' perceptions and motivations (see Table 1.1 below)

Table 1.1 – Sample of Data Organising using a Qualitative Approach

Interview Extract from the Organised Data	Organised Data (Coded data)
Reference 5 - 2.42% Coverage: Blachardstown gives me the chance, people from Nigerian and resources for start-up. So I decided to start a business to serve my own people. So having a Nigerian community here bring an environment for the coming together Nigerians, space for cultural activity, togetherness, interaction, Nigeria culture and a place that allow to identify with other Nigerian. So I understand rightly, large population provide market and thing that allow for starting a business.	• Environment • Resources • Motivation • infrastructures

As shown in Table 1.1 above, phrases are highlighted in different colours, corresponding to different labels. Each piece of organised data describes an idea or feeling expressed in that part of the text. During this stage of the analysis, the researcher worked through the transcript of each interviewee, highlighting anything that appeared relevant or of potential interest. The next step consisted of organising the data into themes, based on recurring patterns emerging from

the organised data and guided by the most frequently recurring terms in the reviewed literature (see Table 1.2 below).

Table 1.2 – Sub-Merging of Folders

Organised Data	Themes
• Environment culture Nigerians community culture Trust	• Environment
• Resources Capital Entrepreneurial experience Opportunity Support Policy Regulation	• Resources
• Infrastructures Structural support Market Government policies and agencies	• Infrastructures

Labelled data extracts most closely related to each of the three most frequently mentioned terms (environment, resources and infrastructure) in the literature review were linked together for collective analysis (see section 3.3.3). The decision to be guided by the most frequently mentioned terms in the literature review was based on the fact that the interview questions were structured using the results of literature review. Before doing the final report or write up, the frequently mentioned themes were examined again to decide whether any adjustments were required. The last stage in the process was the writing of the final report, emphasising the weight assigned by participants placed to each of the three main themes.

1.4 Rationale for Adopting a Qualitative Approach

The decision to use a qualitative data collection methodology for this research was based on the fact that traditional quantitative data collection methods are unable to make sufficient allowance for feelings and emotions (William, 2005). However, the qualitative method has sometimes been criticised for being too reliant on the subjective interpretations of researchers and for being incapable of replication by subsequent researchers (de Vaus, 2002, p.5). According to Silverman (2006; 2019), some of the shortcomings of the qualitative approach stem from its contextual sensitivity (reflexivity), its dependence on small samples and the resulting lack of generalisability (see also Stake, 1980; Hamel, Dufour, and Fortin, 1993). The apparent lack of generalisability has led to discussions regarding whether this paradigm of research is extrapolative in a statistically predictive sense (Myers, 2000).

The decision to use a qualitative approach in this research, in spite of potential objections such as those indicated above, is based on the understanding that quantitative methods are best suited to large projects with a conclusive structure and conclusive objectives (Saunders et al., 2016). Qualitative methods are based on the idea that, in most cases, humans shape their institutions by means of ideas. We change the world around us through action/interaction and finding links between real-life applications of what we learn (Dudovskiy, 2014). Thus, the qualitative method (more a matter of discovering than of testing variables) allows the researcher to analysis and compare findings at each stage of the interview process, and also allows for re-addressing a question at a later stage (Saunders et al., 2016). This interpretivist paradigm can accommodate multiple realities related to the exploration of human action, interaction and emotional responses that are relevant to the analysis of how an IE environment influences TDE. A major strength of the qualitative approach is its ability to take account of naturally occurring ordinary events in their natural surroundings. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the qualitative method gives the researcher a handle on ‘real life’ and allows for close proximity to the topic under scrutiny, resulting in a more in-depth

understanding of the issues at hand. A qualitative method is interested in words, perceptions, feelings etc. rather than mere numerically measurable quantities. Quantitative research is defined as '*entailing the collection of numerical data and exhibiting the view of the relationship between theory and research as deductive, a predilection for natural science approach, and as having an objectivist conception of social reality'* (Bryman and Bell, 2005, p. 154). In the qualitative approach, experiments, interviews, focus groups and questionnaires with open-ended questions aim to provide an in-depth understanding of a research area (Saunders, et al., 2012). Van Manen (1977) in Miles and Huberman (1994, p.10), describes qualitative methods as an exploration of people's 'lived experience'. Miles and Huberman claim that the 'richness and holism' which the qualitative method provides can reveal complexity and support 'thick descriptions' of data.

Myers (2002) questions the tendency of qualitative researchers to retain their humanity throughout the process. To soften the criticism, Myers acknowledges the redeeming qualities which set the interpretivist approach apart and suggests that "*the major strength of the qualitative approach is the depth to which explorations are conducted and descriptions are written, usually resulting in sufficient details for the reader to grasp the idiosyncrasies of the situation"* (Myers, 2002). Corbin and Strauss (2008) see qualitative analysis as a process of examining and interpreting data in order to elicit meaning, understanding, and also to acquire empirical knowledge. While the human factor may seem to be a weak aspect of the qualitative approach, the rich data that it provides has been, without doubt, its greatest strength.

1.5 Research Question and Approach

Having identified the research gaps and findings in current literature, a possible research question emerged: "What is the Relationship between Immigrant Enclaves and Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurial Activity in Ireland?" The research question is designed to provide clarity and move from implicit data to more manageable, explicit knowledge. Due to the relative

scarcity of literature on the creation of a framework to explore the interaction between IE and TDE, a qualitative/deductive method was deemed the most appropriate for this research. Using a qualitative approach, Braun and Clark's six phases of thematic analysis (TA) allows the research to respond to any unanticipated complex issues that may arise during interviews and to compare new findings with existing theories. As suggested by Braun and Clark (2006), the qualitative method used for this research is broken-down into six main phases, as showed in Table 1.1 below:

Table 1.3 – Six Phases of Thematic Analysis

1. Familiarisation with data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial labels:	Labelling interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each label.
3. Searching for themes:	Collating labels into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the labelled extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. The report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

Adapted from Braun and Clark (2006)

Following the six phases outlined above helped in the process of data identification, analysis, and identification of patterns (themes) within the collected data and literature review.

1.6 Thesis Objectives and Structure

The present study has four main objectives: (1) to use theories to define and understand what an immigrant enclave (IE) is and why immigrants concentrate in a specific geographical area.; (2) to explain how IE entrepreneurship leads to transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE) activity. (3) To understand how the contextual environment of an IE in a COR facilitates TDE activity, and (4) using the qualitative method of thematic analysis, to propose a conceptual

framework for understanding the interaction between IE and TDE. In order to address the research question and meet these objectives, the study follows six steps:

1) Chapter Two conceptualises IE, defining and exploring immigrant enclave economy formation, in order to understand the role of an IE within a COR context. This chapter discusses the relevant theories in relation to IEs. It argues that an IE environment includes business entities, consisting of both employers and employees coming from the same ethnic or immigration background, and these entities allow enclave workers a significant role in the development of the mainstream COR economy (Wilson and Portes, 1980, p.302). The theoretical findings in this chapter suggest that IEs are a major factor in capitalising on immigrants' cultural resources in order to acquire human and financial capital and promote networking among immigrant start-ups. The findings also highlight the important role that COO culture plays in enclave entrepreneurship (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Light and Gold, 2000).

2) Chapter Three conceptualises TDE activity and explores the concept of diaspora. It then discusses the theories relating to TDE and processes of opportunity, as well as the concept of transnational diaspora entrepreneurship. TDE is understood to be a process of commuting between COR and COO by diaspora populations for entrepreneurship and investment activity (Drori et al., 2006; Bauböck and Faist, 2010). To facilitate an understanding of TDE, the three component concepts (transnational, diaspora and entrepreneurship) are defined separately. The Chapter also explores opportunity and suggests that TDE activity is a by-product of two 'enablers': the individual entrepreneur and resources within the IE that encourage entrepreneurial activity. The suggestion is that the presence of the external enabler (environment, infrastructure and other resources) nourish an individual's entrepreneurial characteristics: persistence, desire, effort, consistency, dedication, the need for achievement, etc. (Dimov, 2012; Davidsson, Recker and Von Briel, 2017, January).

3) Chapter Four analyses the Irish entrepreneurial eco-system in order to understand the COR policy framework directed at promoting immigrant and diaspora entrepreneurship. National entrepreneurship policies and the level of COR economic development are elements that can aid entrepreneurship start-ups. This chapter examines frameworks and types of infrastructure that are currently available to immigrant/diaspora entrepreneurs in Ireland. The findings suggest that a stable economy and good government policies create a positive environment for entrepreneurial activity.

4) Chapter Five describes a qualitative methodological process to collect, organise and analyse the relevant data and using a thematic analysis as described by Braun and Clark (2006). The research questions are charted and discussed. The rationale behind the adoption of a qualitative method is discussed and the methodological decisions are justified. The sampling strategy, the research design and instrumentation are explained. The generation and analysis of data are also discussed with particular attention paid to the software tools (NVivo) and organisation system used in the research. Controls for research evaluation, transferability and quality are specified. In conclusion, the chapter discusses how data extracted from the software are analysed in order to draw comparisons with findings from the reviewed literature.

5) In Chapter Six the described methodology is applied to the research question to describe how IEs influence TDE and how, in turn, TDE influences the concentration of immigrants in a specific geographical area. The data collected from interviews will be organised and analysed using the NVivo software. Results will then be compared and contrasted with findings in the reviewed literature.

6) Finally, Chapter Seven articulates the conclusions and recommendations resulting from the study. This concluding chapter provides additional insights into the main research

question. As well as drawing together the key theoretical implications of the findings presented in this work, the author expects that these findings will assist diaspora entrepreneurs wishing to undertake TDE, and will also be of interest to policy-makers and those providing support to the entrepreneurial sector. Finally, this study makes recommendations for future research and suggests priorities for further work in the field.

1.7 Thesis Contribution

TDE is dependent on the socio-cultural resources and capital made available by the geographical concentration of immigrants in a specific area of a COR. This suggests that the environment, resources and infrastructure that are found within an IE create market niches that can only be served by people with an immigrant's knowledge and understanding of immigrant needs and wants (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Neuman, 2016), while the shuttling between COR and COO by diaspora populations aids enclave entrepreneurship and the economic development of both host and home countries (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993).

This research contributes to closing a knowledge gap by explaining the connectivity between IE and TDE. Current studies have focused on enclave entrepreneurial activity (e.g. Waldinger, 1986; Aldrich and Waldinger 1990; Neuman, 2016), and some on TDE investment in COO (Drori et al., 2006; Bauböck; Faist, 2010; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). For example, Ojo (2012) explores diaspora/transnational entrepreneurship as a kind of adaptive process in self-actualisation, economic empowerment, competitive advantage or as a strategy of reintegration in the COO. Chen and Tan (2014) asked why some ethnic entrepreneurs break out of their enclaves and others do not. Zhou and Liu (2014) examine the causes of the divergent patterns of contemporary transnational engagement with China among new Chinese immigrants and the effect of transnational entrepreneurship on migrants' integration into their host societies. None of the above studies have highlighted the relationship between IE and TDE.

The sparse literature and the lack of an established connectivity between IE and TDE in Ireland give this study a different perspective from previous work done in this emerging field of research. The literature reviewed and primary analysed data for this study indicate that IE resources create opportunity for a diaspora population to engage in cross-border entrepreneurial activity. They also provide evidence that transnationalism, through the provision of COO cultural goods in a given geographical area, facilitates immigrants' integration in their new COR environment from a position of strength, by reaffirming their own COO cultural identity. Hence, this work suggests that IE and TDE activity are results of COO cultural predisposition in COR. COO culture, when found in a specific COR geographical area, creates large immigrant populations, market niches, an intra-enclave economy, cultural resources, human capital and infrastructure, all elements that motivate TDE by members of a diaspora population (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Berry, 2008).

CHAPTER TWO

Understanding Immigrant Enclave Economies

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will discuss various theoretical approaches to understanding factors influencing immigrant enclave (IE) economic formation in order to define the boundaries of the research. IEs contribute significantly to the economic development of a country of residency (COR) when the development of enclave resources results from the presence of closely knit immigrant communities (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). The bonded solidarity found within IEs serves as a form of security for immigrant entrepreneurs (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). A number of theories focus on the resilience of these communities and describe enclaves as environments that create mutual support, community dependence and social relationships for immigrants (Alba and Chamlin, 1983). Other theories suggest that immigrants' COO cultural predispositions, resources and infrastructure generate trustworthiness and community bonding (Portes and Manning, 2012). An IE is described as the localisation of immigrants' enterprise in a specific geographical area, serving an immigrant community (Portes and Jensen, 1989; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Aguilera, 2009; Engelen, Lackhoff and Schnnidt, 2013). Thus, an IE provides immigrants with essential resources for business start-ups and TDE activity, which would have been significantly more difficult had the IE not existed. See Table 2.1 below for the structure to Chapter Two,

Table 2.1 Outline of Chapter Two

2.1 Introduction
2.2 Understanding Immigrant Enclaves
2.3 Defining Immigration
2.4 Recent Trends in Immigration
2.5 Immigration Theories
2.6 Theoretical Perspectives on Immigrant Enclave Formation
2.7 Understanding Immigrant Enclave Entrepreneurship
2.8 Immigrant Identity and Enclave Entrepreneurship
2.9 Emergence of Immigrant Enclave Economies
2.10 Overview of Theoretical Perspectives
2.11 Conclusions

2.2 Understanding Immigrant Enclaves

An IE creates an environment in which immigrants can, to some extent, continue to behave as they did in their country of origin (COO) (Berry et al, 2006; Engelen, Lackhoff and Schnnidt, 2013). As found in the study by Berry et al., (2006) an enclave community allows ethnic culture to facilitate relational reciprocity and trust, thereby encouraging immigrants to engage in entrepreneurial activity. Portes (1981) describes an IE as "a distinct spatial location and organisation of a variety of enterprises serving an immigrant community". Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) and Aguilera (2009) suggest that an IE is an environment in which entrepreneurs, suppliers and workers share similar ethnicity or immigration experience. The present study adopts Marcuse's (1997, p.242) definition of an IE:

> *"An enclave is a spatially concentrated area in which members of a particular population group, self-defined by ethnicity or religion or otherwise, congregate as a means of enhancing their economic, social and/or cultural development"*

Studies on African immigrants in Harlem suggest that an IE is an environment in which the presence of shared cultural beliefs and norms can help immigrants to overcome initial difficulties faced on arrival (Marcuse, 1997). Many similar examples could be cited. Sanders and Nee (1987) studied Cuban IEs in Miami and Hialeah in Florida and the Chinese equivalent in San Francisco. Portes and Jensen (1989) studied the Cuban IE in West Little River, Florida, while, Zhou and Logan (1989) focused on New York City's Chinatown. In Ireland, according to the Central Statistics Office (CSO, 2016), an estimated 4,600 Nigerians reside in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin. This example of an Irish IE will be the primary source of data and object of analysis in the present study.

2.3 Defining Immigration

Immigration is often associated with migration and refugees. However, while migration and refugees also involve human movement from one place to another, there are significant differences between the three concepts. For example, immigration normally entails a process

of someone leaving one country for another with the aim of taking up permanent residence. Migration, however, is understood as the movement of people from one place to another, either within or across national boundaries, without an intention to settle permanently. Refugees move from their country of origin as a result of war, natural disaster or another situation threatening life or personal security (IOM, UN Migration Report (2016); Key Migration Terms). The present study focuses exclusively on the theme of immigration.

Immigration is fast becoming an important factor in the erosion of traditional boundaries, languages, cultures, ethnic groups and nation-states. It represents the interconnection of economic processes, people, ideas and the diffusion of culture (Schiller et al., 1995). Hammar and Tamas (1997) define immigration as: "*the movement of people from one country to another to take up residence in another country for a relevant period".* UNESCO (2004) defines immigration as the coming together of places of origin and destination, a process that creates a social field whereby culture, languages, ethnic groups and nation states come together in the COR. The International Organisation for Migration (IOM) defines an immigrant as any person who is moving or has moved across an international border or within a State away from his/her habitual place of residence.

Tilly (1978, p. 62) suggests that three factors have been decisive in the development of long-distance migration:

1) The changing geographic distribution of employment opportunities;
2) Demographic imbalances, alterations of regional differentials in natural increases
3) Actions and policies of nation states; (e.g., war, expelling or relocating specific ethnic groups, national migration policies).

These factors suggest migration has become as an integral part of life for many people, a continuing social process embedded in societal rules, norms and the daily activity of people and countries (Thieme, 2006). The current inflow of immigrants into Europe (see section 2.4 below) follows a pattern that includes all three elements mentioned by Tilly. The forces

driving immigration have created a global economy that has led immigrants to settle in countries that are centres of global capitalism, while allowing them to commute between their COR and COO (Schiller, et al., 1995). The general definition of immigration informing the present research is that of the International Organisation for Migration (IOM, 2019, p. 101):

> *"*From the perspective of the country of arrival, a person who moves into a country other than that of his or her nationality or usual residence, so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence".

Although other definitions have been cited earlier, this IOM definition aligns with the present study's understanding of immigration as a global process involving voluntary and involuntary movement of people.

2.4 Recent Trends in Immigration

From time immemorial, the human race has been closely associated with movement either in search of food or for basic survival (Dee, 1998). Migration has been seen as a courageous expression of an individual's will to overcome adversity and to live a better life. More recently, advances in communication and transportation technology have increased the desire to move for the sake of a better life (Ban Ki-Moon, 2016). As mentioned above, increased immigration can create economic opportunities for both the COR and COO, but also produces new complexities, challenges and difficulties (United Nations Report, 2016).

Although immigrants' role in the economic development of their COR may outweigh any complexity or negativity surrounding immigration (European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia Report, 2005; 2015).For example, the negativity surrounding the 2016 Presidential election in the USA and the Brexit referendum in the United Kingdom (UK) illustrate how unresolved immigration issues can have a negative political impact on issues. Anti-immigration politicians and groups may claim that immigrants usurp the native born population's jobs or damage the economy by remittance of money from the COR to the COO. In some countries there may be a fear of losing traditional cultural identity. In others, the issue

of illegal immigration complicates the situation of legal migrants. In the specific case of Ireland, immigrants may be unfairly blamed for aggravating a social problem like homelessness (Lentin, 2007).

Multiple recent studies show that such issues are often over-simplified in political and media commentary, which frequently fails to acknowledge positive contributions made by immigrants in the COR. For example, a number of OECD countries have enacted policies (see section 4.3 on EU immigrant entrepreneurial policies) that favour immigrants with higher level skills that the native population cannot provide, but are required for the continued development of the COR economy. As regards immigrants removing money from the COR economy, Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) argue that immigration, while often including a money remittance process, now facilitates the forging of economic, political and social relationships between the COR and COO (see also OECD, 2014; Green, Liu, Ostrovski, and Picot, 2016).

Despite these issues surrounding immigration, the number of international migrants worldwide has continued to grow rapidly over the past fifteen years, reaching 244 million in 2015, up from 222 million in 2010 and 173 million in 2000 (IOM 20016: International Organisation for Migration). In Ireland for example, the main part of the foreign population consists of migrants from the UK, India, and Pakistan. Recently the number of immigrants from other countries such as Australia, Malaysia, and Africa has increased SOPEMI (1999). Currently, in Ireland, 55% were returning Irish migrants, 32% of the migrants came from other EU-countries and 23.2% from non-EU-countries (CSO, 2016). In addition, the number of immigrants into Ireland in the year to April 2016 showed an estimated increase of 15% from 69,300 to 79,300 over the previous year, while the number of emigrants declined over the same period from 80,900 to 76,200 (Central Statistics Office Report, 2016; see Table 2.2 below). These combined changes have resulted in a return to net inward migration for Ireland (+3,100) for the first time since 2009. In 2010 Irish nationals continue to experience net outward migration, but at a much lower level than in the previous year falling from 23,200 to 10,700.

Table 2.2 – Irish Net Immigration and Emigration for the Years 2015 and 2016

	April 2015	April 2016
Immigration	69,300	79,300
Emigration	80,900	76,200
Net Migration	-11,600	3,100
Of Which Irish Nationals	-23,200	-10,700
Natural Increase	37,400	35,300
Population Change	25,800	38,400
Population	**4,635,400**	**4,673,700**

Adapted from CSO report (2016)

Net inward migration among non-Irish nationals grew for the fourth consecutive year, from 11,600 to 13,800. This increase in the number of people moving into Ireland increases the propensity of enclave formation and immigrant entrepreneurial activity (see section 4.2 for a profile of immigrants in Ireland). As Peroni, Riillo, and Sarracino (2016) found, the increase in the demographic condition of immigrants can create a market for immigrant entrepreneurship and transnationalism. Following up on the work by the OECD (2014) and the above discussion, it can be argued that the impact of immigration on the national economies of Ireland and other countries can be decidedly positive.

In 2016, the United Nations Organisation (UNO) adopted a set of commitments known as the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants (NY Declaration). The Declaration reaffirms the importance of an international protection regime and represents a commitment by the member States to strengthen and enhance mechanisms for the protection of people on the move. It paved the way for the UNO to adopt two new compacts in 2018: the Global Compact on Refugees and the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. This recently adopted compact is aimed at reducing the negativity and complexity surrounding immigrant and migrants issues.

2.5 Immigration Theories

Theories are employed in research in order to clarify concepts and interpret data. There are multiple theoretical perspectives on immigration, although this work will focus on the theories most relevant to this study. The classical theories of immigration emphasised that people migrate because of economic inequality and wage differences (Lewis, 1954; Ranis and Fei, 1961; Harris and Todaro, 1970; Todaro, 1976). Citing the examples of Germany and the United States of America (Bracero programme), Tilly (1978) suggested that earlier waves of immigration are largely a result of income inequality between wealthier and poorer nations. Tilly (1978), Wallace (1997) and Liebig (2003) claim that the politics and actions of some nation states, e.g., making war, expelling or relocating specific ethnic groups and controlling migration, are some of the main driving forces in modern day immigration. In the study by Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993), the mass migration of Cubans was explained mostly in terms of the political situation in Cuba at the time. Beine, Docquier and Rapoport, (2001) argue that the political structure and institutional environment present a national context have clear implications for international migration. The perspective of the present study is that the political situation in immigrants' COO contribute significantly to a decision to migrate.

More recently, Djajic and Michael (2013) also has emphasised the significance of economic imbalance in motivating migration from poorer to wealthier countries. Piore (1979) highlighted how immigration could stimulate an increase in demand for ethnic goods, thereby generating new entrepreneurial opportunities. Some authors also underlined the fact that immigration was driven also by the economic needs of recipient countries. The fact that Germany needed a larger workforce to help in reconstruction after World War II resulted in the *Gastarbeiter* programme which facilitated large-scale immigration from Turkey (Tilly, 1978). Similarly, post-World War II economic expansion in the USA led to an accord with the Mexican government whereby Mexicans were granted work permits for a defined period. Recent controversy surrounding the situation of 'Windrush immigrants' in the UK further illustrates the fact that early post-World War II waves of migration from poorer to wealthier countries was frequently motivated by economic and political conditions in both the sender and recipient countries (Hutching, 1999).

Citing conventional economic theories of immigration, Kim (2009, p.678) suggests that human movement is closely linked to globalisation. This view is partially aligned with the classical and world system theories' emphasises on immigration as an income maximisation process, but suggests that movement of people is also linked to global investment. The other side of the logic of globalisation is the coming together of COO cultures in COR, a process described by Schiller et al., (1995) as 'cultural diffusion'. This is in line with the cultural theorist claim that globalisation preserves COO cultures and also stimulates the creation of immigrant market economies in COR (Light and Gold, 2000; Ram and Smallbone, 2002; Kloosterman and Rath, 2010). Conversely, neoclassical theorists emphasise that people are units of labour that flow to the areas wherein they are paid a higher rate given their skill level (Kim, 2009). From this perspective it could be argued that immigration results from several characteristic features of globalisation, such as the unequal distribution of wealth, ease of commuting and communicating between COR and COO and new opportunities for investment (Wallace, 1997;

Liebig 2003; Kim, 2009; Rueda-Armengot and Peris-Ortiz, 2012). Sassen (2004), Kim (2009) and Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) argue that globalisation facilitates immigration by encouraging increasingly capital-intensive agricultural and industrial investment in both the COR and the COO.

In line with conventional economic theories of immigration, the capitalist theorists argue that immigration is one of the major contributors to the growth and intensification of global interconnection of economic processes, people and ideas (Schiller et al., 1995; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). In addition, the theory suggests that human movement has loosened constraints associated with a variety of market failures, and that immigration has become a process of filling the vacuum created by the industrialisation expansion and mass production (Stark and Bloom, 1985; Stark and Levhari, 1982; Stark, 1984; Katz and Stark, 1986; Lauby and Stark, 1988; Taylor, 1986; Stark, 1991). This view understands immigration as a creator of a mobile population, the coming together of cultures in COR and as symptomatic of a new era of international trade (Petras, 1981; Castells, 1989; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). As found in the work on the immigrant transnational organisation in four continents, Portes and Fernandez-Kelly argue that immigration (unlike in the past) now creates economic opportunity, strengthens public relations and economies for both COR and COO. From this approach, immigration can be linked with the increases in the demographic population of immigrants in COR, arguably an increase that creates cultural capital, market economy and entrepreneurial opportunity for immigrants (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Portes and Martinez, 2019; Honig, 2019).

Recently, theories of immigration have highlighted immigrants' contributions to COR and COO in areas such as entrepreneurship, politics, economics and networking for governmental NGO's (Stark, 1991 and Taylor, 1999; Constant and Massey, 2002; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Unlike the past emphasis on economic imbalance and movement towards the centres of commerce, current work on immigration highlights the fact that

immigration is also a result of improvements in transportation and communication, which in turn facilitate immigrants' investment, networking, building social and economic relationships between COR and COO (Taylor, 1986; Schiller et al., 1995; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015; Siwale and Hack-Polay, 2018; Portes and Martinez, 2019; Honig, 2019; see section 2.3 for statistics on increases in world immigration). Immigration has gone beyond the search for a better quality of life to a global process of job creation and improving relationships between COR and COO (Siwale and Hack-Polay, 2018).

Although there are multiple theoretical views on immigration, there is no 'one size fits all' theory that could be used to explain all aspects of the phenomenon (Massey, 1990). Hence, using a combination of theories, as indicated above, provides a better understanding of why and how people move from one country to another. The conclusion drawn from this discussion is that, while economic imbalance was once regarded as the main reason for international migration from poorer to wealthier parts of the world, more recent studies emphasise how it is a feature of a globalised economy that creates new opportunities in both sender and receiver countries. Thus, for example, the 2016 Report by the International Organisation for Migration argued that advantages resulting from immigration far exceed any complexities or difficulties. International migration now represents a force for fostering global unity and culture (Kim (2009).

2.6 Theoretical Perspectives on Immigrant Enclave Formation

Theory may be defined as a system of ideas intended to explain a phenomenon (Ruse, 1975). In line with this definition, theories used in this section of the present study focus on providing an understanding of why and how the concentration of immigrant populations in specific geographical areas results in the formation of enclaves that facilitate ethnic resources, a common cultural base, the preservation of national identity, networking and interaction (Nagel and Olzak, 1982; Sanders and Nee, 1987; Waldinger, 1993; Light et al., 1994; Peroni, Riillo

and Sarracino, 2015). Table 2.3 below summarises the particular theories employed and the justification for their use in this study.

Table- 2.3 Applied Theories and Justification

Used Theories	Justification For Application	Not Used Theories
Immigrant concentration theory (Lieberson, 1981; Portes and Manning, 1986, Waldinger, 1996; Zeltzer-Zubida, 2004).	Explain the localisation and concentration of immigrants in a specific geographical area • Provide environment and contact for new arrival into COR • Provide human and financial capital, resources, infrastructures • Provide common platform and demographic characteristics that essential for start-ups • Create market niche, immigrant economy • Describe lack of access to labour market	Segregation theory: described lack of interaction from the mainstream society. • Not directly important to this research, as a result integration will lead to lack of enclave formation • Could be argued as the opposite of concentration
Cultural theory (Portes and Zhou 1992; Brenner et al. 2010).	Explain how COO culture in a specific geographical area create bonded solidarity that holds immigrant's together • The motivation to enclave • The role of cultural or ethnic identity in enclave activity, creating bounded solidarity, ethnic affiliations, networking and granting favour • Create interaction and trustworthiness • Described immigrant way of life in COR	
Ethnic succession theory (Waldinger et al., 1986; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993)	Explain how, once native-born population vacates a geographical area, this becomes a natural habitat for immigrants. • Described a situation whereby the infrastructures and resources left behind by the native-born population becomes available for immigrants • Create cheap rate and environment for immigrant's activities	Marginalisation: describes the position of the population, individuals and groups outside of the mainstream societal life. at the heart of those in the centre of power, of cultural dominance and economical and social welfare (Omidvar and Richmond, 2003; Schatz and Schiffer, 2008)
Disadvantage theory (Wilson and Portes 1980; Burstein, 1994; Light and Rosenstein, 1995).	Explain a situation whereby the disadvantages that immigrants are faced with on arrival drives them to a place with immigrant culture • E.g. the lack of recognition of certificates/degree brought from COO • Discrimination and inability to find gainful employment • Described why immigrants choose to enclave lifestyle	

Immigration concentration theory explains adaptation strategies that immigrants adopt to cope with a lack of social networks, language and skills deficiencies and discrimination in a COR (Lieberson, 1981; Portes and Manning, 1986, Waldinger, 1996; Zeltzer-Zubida, 2004). Furthermore, it explains how immigrants gravitate towards certain sectors of political, cultural and economic life as a means of maintaining their ethnic identity (Gold, 1997). The theory explains how the concentration of immigrants facilitates the creation of ethnic markets, exchange of information, access to credit and other enclave activities (Portes, 2003). As found

in a study of the Cuban community in Miami, concentration brings together immigrant COO human and financial capital and resources (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; see also Portes and Manning 1986; Portes, 2003).

Cultural theorists suggest that COO culture can facilitate the creation of an environment within the COR which permits immigrants to act, in significant cultural aspects of their lives, as they did in their COO (Portes 1981; Berry et al, 2006). Understanding immigrant COO culture is a key to understanding how and why immigrants behave in a particular way. For example, a study on Ecuadorian immigrants in Florida found that, when faced with language difficulties, they began to create their own enclave in order to overcome the linguistic barriers encountered in everyday life and in seeking employment (Marcuse 1997). Similarly, a study on Islamic butchers in the Netherlands indicated that the Islamic mode of slaughtering meat (Halal) facilitated a concentration of Muslim immigrants in a specific geographical area of Amsterdam (Kloosterman, van der Leun and Rath 1999). What is clear from such studies is that COO culture in a specific geographical area of a COR promotes relational reciprocity and trust (Berry et al, 2006).

Ethnic succession theory suggests that when a particular geographical area is vacated by a native-born population, it creates an opportunity for immigrants to move into that space (Waldinger et al., 1986; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990). Aldrich and Reiss (1976) and Neuman (2016), argue that these large-scale areas and high residential concentrations of new immigrants favour the growth of immigrant enclaves. In Ireland, for example, where a small number of Africans had been present since the 18th Century (Ugba, 2004), the early 2000s saw a rapid rise in immigration from African countries and a subsequent concentration of these immigrants in parts of Dublin and other urban centres where housing was more readily available at the time (Ní Chonaill 2009; see also Waldinger et al., 1986; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993).

Disadvantage theory argues that segregation from mainstream society may lead to the formation of a closely knit community within which immigrants can feel more secure, preserve their cultural identity and establish commercial relations with one another (Waldinger, 1986). The theory suggests that immigrant concentration frequently results from negative factors like linguistic barriers, discrimination in the labour market or unrecognised qualifications attained in immigrants' home countries (Wilson and Portes, 1980; Burstein, 1994; Light and Rosenstein, 1995). Some of these difficulties are not exclusive to immigrants. As found in a study by Marcuse (1997) on African Americans in Harlem and The Bronx in New York, when faced with employment difficulties they tended to move towards areas with a majority population of similar ethnic origin. Thus, disadvantage can lead to ethnic cohesion and visible distinctiveness of an immigrant or other minority group (Reitz, 1980). The disadvantages immigrants face in a COR motivate them to form a refuge in which they can avoid discrimination, improve their employment prospects and find the means of embedding their COO cultural environment and identity in a COR (Waldinger et al., 1986; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Alici, 2005).

The application of theories like those cited above helps our understanding of the process that leads to the formation of closely knit immigrant communities (Berry, Phinney, Sam and Vedder, 2006; Chrysostome, 2010; Greene and Owen, 2004). Furthermore, bonding among immigrants creates a high level of interaction, group identity, trust and sharing of available resources (Berry et al., 2006; Engelen, Lackhoff, and Schnnidt, 2013). In spite of the advantages that these enclaves provide, they are sometimes criticised for separating immigrants from mainstream society, thereby discouraging integration and limiting immigrants' contribution to the wider COR community (Clark and Drinkwater, 2000).

2.7 Understanding Immigrant Enclave Entrepreneurship

The propensity of immigrants to engage in business is frequently reactive or situational (Habiyakare et al., 2009, p.63). In some cases, the immigrants' propensity is triggered by

cultural predispositions within the enclave environment (Light and Gold, 2000; Kloosterman and Rath, 2010).Immigrants often enter business as a means of making a living when life provides them with few alternatives (Waldinger, 1986; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Habiyakare et al., 2009). Immigrant enclave (IE) entrepreneurship describes a process whereby an immigrant establishes a business in a COR serving niche ethnic needs of fellow enclave inhabitants (Dalhammar, 2004: p.14). Typical examples would be small shops providing ethnically preferred food or beauty salons catering to ethnic requirements. These enterprises represent immigrants using experience acquired in their COO to contribute to entrepreneurial activities in the COR (Coduras, Martinez, Manuel, and Alavarez, 2013). IE entrepreneurship normally occurs in circumstances of urban and economic adversity, where entrepreneurship is the only means of acquiring a livelihood (Barrett et al., 2001: p.243). Basu and Altinay (2002, p.374) and Habiyakare et al. (2009; p.65) agreed that, in a context of discrimination against immigrants (particularly a lack of access to the labour market and limited opportunities for career advancement), self-employment makes for a viable alternative to being a salaried employee. Habiyakare et al. (2009) and Neuman (2016) describe IE entrepreneurship in terms of ventures resulting from adversity and the exclusion of immigrants from mainstream society. From this perspective, it could be argued that the disadvantages immigrants face on arrival in a COR force them to live within the enclave. Additionally, IE residents use the entrepreneurial experience brought from COO and cultural activities within the enclave to engage in entrepreneurship.

According to Basu and Altinay (2002, p.374), IE entrepreneurship is usually characterised by a lack of large start-up capital. The immigrant entrepreneur is unlikely to either possess a large amount of capital or have ready access to banks or other financial backers. Furthermore, a new business located within an IE forces immigrant entrepreneurs to respond to the needs a limited ethnic market in a specific geographical area (Waldinger 1990; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Clarke and Drinkwater, 2000; Basu and Altinay, 2002). Studies on IE

communities in Miami, New York and the Netherlands suggest that, at a later stage of development, some of these small IE businesses can begin to expand and engage extra-enclave activity (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Clarke and Drinkwater, 2000; Basu and Altinay, 2002; Burt, 2005).

The present study follows Butler and Greene (1997) in defining an IE entrepreneurial initiative as: *"a venture created by a person born in one country and subsequently moved to another country and starting a business on arrival in a country of residence serving fellow immigrants" (*Butler and Greene p.23 1997*).*This definition indicates that IE ventures are primarily aimed at meeting the cultural needs of immigrants in a specific geographical area in a COR. This differentiates IE entrepreneurship from immigrant entrepreneurship dependent on both immigrant and native-born populations *(*Sari Kerr and William Kerr, 2016*).*While enclave entrepreneurship is limited to the enclave itself, immigrant entrepreneurship more closely resembles that of the native population, as it aims to serve both IE residents and the mainstream society (Butler and Greene, 1997; Basu and Altinay, 2002).

2.7.1 Linking Immigration to Immigrant Enclave Entrepreneurship

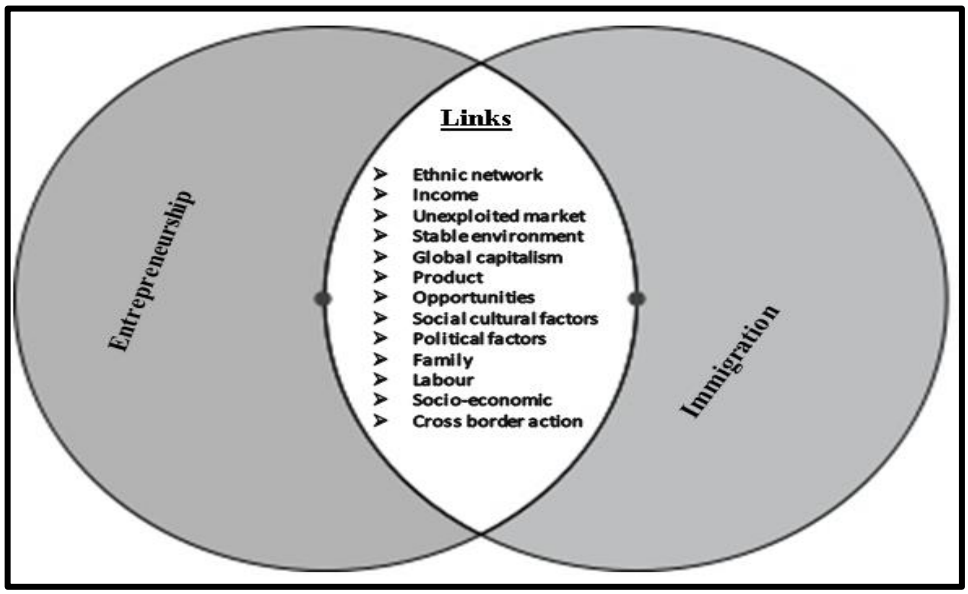
Empirical data on the links between immigration and IE entrepreneurship are hard to come by, probably due to difficulties in observing immigrants engaged in entrepreneurial activities (Peroni, Riillo, and Sarracino, 2016). Few studies have focused on this topic. One closely related study is by Constant and Zimmermann (2006), which explores the role of immigrants in promoting new business initiatives in their COR, but without highlighting the specific ways in which the immigrant experience itself motivates enclave entrepreneurship. Another study, by Batista and Umblijs (2014), using data from a survey on immigrants in the greater Dublin area, found that the willingness to take risks and being part of an IE are significant predictors of entrepreneurship among immigrants. While these studies are useful in

understanding what draws immigrants to IE entrepreneurship, they establish no direct link between immigration and IE entrepreneurship. The present study is intended to fill this gap.

Peroni et al. (2016) classified the relationships between immigration and IE entrepreneurship into two main groups: (1) those which rely on specific characteristics of immigrants to explain their propensity to start a business when compared with non-immigrants, and (2) those which are conditioned by the institutional and cultural environment of the COR (see Chapter 4 regarding the Irish entrepreneurial eco-system). Earlier studies by Light (1979), Borjas (1986), Coate and Tennyson (1992), Clark and Drinkwater (2000), Parker (2004) and Fregetto (2004) claimed that enclaved immigrants were more likely to start a new business because of various linguistic, racial and educational disadvantages, which they are able to overcome because of cultural predispositions (forming networks, valuing community, appreciating the importance of cooperation and mutual trust, etc.) which they bring to the COR (Masurel et al., 2004; Hofstede 2007; Chrysostome 2010; Peroni et al. 2016). IE entrepreneurial initiatives benefit from the high level of intra-group solidarity, shared values, norms and attitudes that facilitate commercial activity (Auster and Aldrich, 1984; Zhou and Logan, 1989).

The second group of relationships mentioned above are dependent upon institutions and characteristics of the COR. Waldinger et al, (1990) offers an interactive model which shows IE entrepreneurial activity as a result of interaction with resources and societal structures, referred to by Dimov (2012) as the 'external enabler' (see Chapter 3, section 3.6). Additionally, the 'mixed embeddedness framework' described by Kloosterman and Rath (2001) emphasises that while immigrants belong to COO networks, they are also embedded in specific market conditions, socio-economic and politico-institutional environments in the COR. A stable socio-political environment in the COR facilitates opportunity for IE entrepreneurship (Putz, 2003; Volery, 2007). The development of potential entrepreneurial activity within an IE may, in turn, encourage increased commercial interaction between a COR and a COO, thereby increasing the flow of both people and goods in both directions (see Figure 2.1 below)

Figure 2.1 – Links between Immigration and IE Entrepreneurship



Source: Adapted from literature review by Author

Figure 2.1 illustrates some of the key elements that link immigration and IE entrepreneurship. As stated above, the effective interaction of these elements depends on both specific characteristic of immigrants which explain their propensity to start a business and the institutional environment of the COR. The present study sees the growth in commuting between COR and COO as underpinning immigrant entrepreneurship, as immigrant entrepreneurs travel to their COO to acquire goods needed to meet the cultural needs of fellow immigrants in the COR (see (Portes and Jensen, 1989; Portes and Shafer, 2007). IE entrepreneurship encourages the building of economic, political and social ties between the COO and COR (Naim, 2002; Levitt and de la Dehesa, 2003; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly 2015). Consequently, IE entrepreneurship is regarded as a significant driver of change in the social, cultural, economic and institutional conditions of both COO and COR (Amankwaa, 1995; de Haas, 2007; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015).

2.7.2 Theories Explaining Immigrant Enclave Entrepreneurship

Theories explaining IE entrepreneurship may begin with the notion of labour market segmentation that distinguishes between a primary and a secondary labour market (Wilson and

Portes 1980). The primary labour market principally refers to large monopolistic corporations (Edwards 1975; Taubman and Wachter 1986), while the secondary market is the preserve of small competitive businesses (Pfeffer and Cohen 1984; Taubman and Wachter 1986). In the secondary market, the sharing of same group identity may play a significant role in generating trust and reducing behavioural uncertainty, both of which are essential for start-up and venture survival. A shared group identity may discourage larger businesses from encroaching on a secondary market's territory (Aldrich and Waldinger 1990). As found in the study by Casey and Dustmann (2010), immigrants reaffirm beliefs in their COO cultural values and the enclave environment allows them to act to some extent as if in their COO. Thus, COO identity becomes not only a mechanism that allows immigrants to bond with one another, but also generates trust that allows for commercial transactions between sellers and buyers. The study by Kloosterman and Rath (1999) on Muslim entrepreneurship in the Netherlands underscored the significance of shared Islamic identity. Research shows also that the relatively low profit margins of a secondary sector based on supplying ethnic good and services to immigrants make it less attractive for larger businesses (Aldrich and Waldinger 1990).

In the case of IE businesses, Wilson and Portes (1980), Portes and Bach (1985), Aldrich and Waldinger (1990), and Gilbertson and Gurak (1993) found that they are frequently more responsive to the needs of an IE population than to requirements emanating from outside. Cultural theorists argue that some of the same factors that facilitate enclave formation also drive the development of IE entrepreneurship (Portes and Zhou 1992; Brenner et al. 2010). Masurel et al. (2004), Hofstede (2007) and Chrysostome (2010) found that COO culture, which is inherent in every immigrant, may include traits which determine a preference for self-employment and, hence, a propensity to engage in IE entrepreneurship. Similarly, ethnic succession and concentration theories suggest that enclave entrepreneurship results from some of the same factors which caused immigrants to locate in a specific geographical area in the

first place (Waldinger et al., 1986; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993).

IE entrepreneurship is confined to a space of immigrant social embeddedness that includes the human capital necessary for start-ups and business development. Studies from the perspective of human capital theory have interpreted IE entrepreneurship as a by-product of social networks, human and financial capital, trustworthiness and social infrastructure in a specific geographical area (Peroni, Riillo, and Sarracino, 2015; Sanders and Nee, 1996; Peters, 2002; Basu and Altinay, 2002; Peroni, Riillo and Sarracino, 2015). It is clear from multiple studies that immigrants' cultural attributes and predispositions are essential to understanding of IE entrepreneurship (Auster and Aldrich, 1984; Zhou and Logan, 1989; Altinay, 2008).

Theories explaining IE entrepreneurship also focus on the interaction between immigrants and the COR institutions and mainstream society in which any particular IE is located. The relevant institutional features are the structures and resources that facilitate interaction between the individual and the COR's formal political, social and financial environment, what may be described as institutional enablers (see Waldinger et al., 1990; Dimov, 2012). There are enabling factors within an IE also, and some COO cultural characteristics may be more effective than others in motivating interaction with mainstream COR institutions. External enablers form part of a COR's own entrepreneurial eco-system and they allow for the mobilisation of institutional resources in order to encourage and support immigrant entrepreneurial initiatives (Putz, 2003; Volery, 2007).

2.8 Immigrant Identity and Enclave Entrepreneurship

Immigrant identity encompasses the cultural predispositions that immigrants bring with them from their own country that allows them to construct an autonomous portrayal of their situation that goes beyond a mere adversarial reaction (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). It includes immigrants' cultural capital and their capacity to measure and affirm their COO ethnic affiliation in the context of their COR (Berry et al., 2006; Vedder and Van de Vijver, 2006).

Immigrant identity engenders trustworthiness and encourages bonding between individuals from the same immigrant background (Berry et al, op. cit.). Trustworthiness encourages bonding, which then serves as a means of protection for the enclave market and reduces fear of failure for the enclave entrepreneur (Waldinger et al., 1996; Berry et al., 2006). An example of the above is the Tunisian community living in Paris. They are the smallest North African immigrant group residing in that city and a study by Carter and Jones-Evans (2012) found that their strong sense of ethnic identity played a key role in fostering their business enterprises.

However, not all immigrants have the same opportunity to benefit from this kind of trustworthiness and bonding. Frequently, immigrant groups have to accept definitions of their identity based on COR assumptions and prejudices (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). For example, many early Polish immigrants to the USA were stigmatised at the point of entry as rural peasants, a designation that was accompanied by a host of negative connotations (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). Chinese immigrants in New York and San Francisco were subjected to many forms of discrimination, barred from factory employment by nativist prejudice, prevented from bringing their families to the USA. Lacking the means to return home and held together by a common identity, they developed tightly knit communities that came to be designated as 'Chinatown' (Zhou, 1992). A sense of solidarity born out of an experience of adversity and prejudice may lead to clannishness and secretiveness, thereby reinforcing the negative perceptions and suspicions of outsiders (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). As found in the study by Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2012), each culture is unique, diverse and profoundly influences an ethnic group's values and overt behaviour. Chinatown is just one example of how national culture helps people who share the same ethnic background to affirm their distinct identity in a COR.

Unlike ethnicity, immigrant identity is chosen by individuals. Ethnicity is assigned to by birth, ethnic background or phenotype (Phinney and Ong 2007; Schuller, 2015). Immigrant identity is part of social identity or part of an individual's self-concept that arises from the

membership of a social group, together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership (Tajfel, 1981; Phinney and Ong, 2007). Immigrant identity includesboth affiliation to the COR and ties to the background culture of the COO (Schuller, 2015). It creates a bond among immigrants and gives rise to a multiplicity of social networks that frequently coalesce into tightly bonded ethnic communities (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). As more and more people live outside their country of origin, immigrant identity serves as a bond that brings community members together (Mackie, Devos and Smith, 2000; Berry, 2006), and also fosters integration by lessening insecurity and fear (Aguilera, 2009; Verdier et al. 2012). Consequently, immigrant identity generates cultural resources and social capital that help to facilitate the formation of immigrant businesses in a COR (Verdier et al., 2012).

It should be acknowledged that the same cultural factors cited above may also contribute to a sense of segregation and marginalisation from mainstream COR society (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). A strong emphasis on ethnic identity in an IE can lead to ghetto formation and an informal economy that fails to evolve into fully developed entrepreneurial activity (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Kloosterman and Rath, 1999). According to Loury (1995), the rhetoric of affirmative action may increase the perception of victimisation of the minority community, therefore reinforcing social differentiation and exclusion from the dominant group. From this critical viewpoint, immigrant identity may not only protect immigrant enclave resources, but also create a situation whereby the immigrant market is segregated from mainstream society (Waldinger, 1986; Portes and Manning 2012; Neuman, 2016). Such potentially negative consequences are not the focus of the present study, but they could well form the basis of a complementary investigation.

2.8.1 The Role of Culture in Immigrant Enclave Entrepreneurship

Culture is something that is unique to each particular set of people and helps in increasing our understanding of how they interact with each other in a community

(Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997: p.3). According to Mead (1994), culture determines the way a group of people solve problems and reconcile dilemmas. Further, it refers to observable aspects of their lives together, such as language, food or the way they dress. Hollensen (1998) and Brown and Ulijn (2004)points out that, since culture influences individuals' decision to become involved with their own ethnic group, it creates bonded solidarity for immigrants that would otherwise not have been possible. As Hofstede (1980) found in his study of national characteristics, culture is something that brings people of a shared identity together. Neuman (2016) argues that coming together generates benefits (ethnic resources, networks and trustworthiness) that contribute to the survival of the group and the preservation of their own heritage.

The individual level of commitment to ethnic culture and national identity determine how much an individual associates with their own culture in a COR (Hofstede (1980); Waldinger, 1986; Berry et al, 2006; Vedder and Van de Vijver, 2006). Immigrants with a low level of cultural interest tend to associate more with the mainstream COR population (Bisin and Verdier, 2000). According to Fischer and Massey (2000, p. 409), COO cultural elements such as shared beliefs, values and norms increase the likelihood of immigrants engaging in entrepreneurial activities. Thus, a personal commitment to COO and a willingness to associate with one's own ethnic group are essential for the success of IE entrepreneurship.

Obviously, the fact that an IE is located within a wider COR cultural context means that some behavioural adjustments are necessary. Immigrant entrepreneurs cannot continue to act in their new COR setting as they did in the previous COO one. They are obliged to change their behavioural repertoire to be more appropriate in the new context, and this occurs by means of a complex pattern of cultural continuity and change (Waldinger, 1986; Malecki, 1997; Berry et al, 2006; Vedder and Van de Vijver, 2006). It remains true, however, that COO resources preserved in the IE help immigrant start-ups and sustain business development in an advanced economy (Waldinger, 1986; Malecki, 1997; Berry et al, 2006; Vedder and Van de Vijver,

2006). For example, Chinese cultural values of working hard, saving money, reinvesting earnings in business, valuing family support, acquiring education Networks (through quanxi) and owning property help Chinese immigrant entrepreneurs (Li, 1993; Wu, 1983; Goldberg, 1985; Brown and Ulijn, 2004). Thus, immigrant culture, when promoted properly and accompanied by adjustment to the broader COR cultural context, can help to create a multi-cultural community, contribute to the COR economy and promote the integration of immigrants in mainstream COR society (Bisin and Verdier, 2000). Hence the following section defines and explains the psychological changes that follows immigrant's intercultural contact in a COR.

2.8.2 Acculturation and Immigrant Enclave Entrepreneurship

Acculturation has been defined as a process of cultural and psychological change that follows immigrants' intercultural contact in a COR (Berry, 2003). According to Ward, Bochner and Furnham (2001), these changes include alterations in an immigrant's group's customs, especially in their economic and political life. When immigrants are faced with culture shock on arrival in a COR, they tend to move towards areas with a strong COO cultural element (Berry 2003). Berry and Sam (1997) and Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) found that the psychological state of an immigrant is subject to change on coming in contact with mainstream COR culture. At this point of cultural contact, immigrants have the choice of assimilating and integrating, or separating and becoming marginalised (see Table 2.4 below).

Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) highlighted the case of Cuban immigrants in Miami. When faced with linguistic and other cultural barriers, many Cubans sought refuge within the existing Cuban enclave, leading to segregation from mainstream society. Any group of immigrants, on arrival in a new COR, is forced to decide whether to live primarily within the secure setting of an IE or within mainstream society, or to some degree within both. According to Ben-Rafael, Olshtain and Geijst (1998), some immigrants choose neither segregation nor integration, but prefer to live in two worlds at once, preserving their own original culture but

simultaneously opening to the host culture. This may occur on arrival or even years after arriving in a new COR (Damian and Rosenbaum-Tamari, 1996).

Table 2.4- Showing -The Four Main Domains of Acculturation Process

Integration	When immigrants prefer social activities that involve both nationals and their own ethnic group. Integration implies a strong sense of identification with both the original and majority cultures.
Assimilation	When immigrants prefer social activities that involve nationals only
Separation	When immigrants prefer social activities that involve members of their own ethnic group only
Marginalisation	When immigrants don't want to attend either national or ethnic social activities
Source: Adapted from Berry et al, (2006);Sam and Berry (2010)	

Several frameworks have been used to study the impact of acculturation on immigrants. The model proposed by Gold (1997) viewed immigrants' integration and assimilation as a process whereby immigrants adopt the cultural patterns of the COR and discard their identity as a separate group. This is the concept of the 'melting pot', when ethnic groups with different cultural backgrounds come together as one, resulting in assimilation of weaker groups or new multicultural entities (Gold 1997; Golden 2002; Al-Haj, 2004). Assimilation may be either structural or cultural (Reitz, 1980). Structural assimilation occurs when immigrants integrate into the institutions and primary social groups of the COR; cultural assimilation happens when immigrants become part of mainstream COR culture.

The Berry (1989) and Kushnirovich (2010) models suggest that immigrants can adopt one of the four different strategies in order to bridge the divide between themselves and the host population (see Table 2.3 above). In the Reitz (1980) and Reitz and Sklar (1997) models, the concept of integration is not about immigrants rejecting their own original culture, but eliminating social divides arising from cultural pluralism in immigrant-receiving countries. In terms of Reitz (1980), integration can be considered as structural assimilation without complete

cultural assimilation. In some models of immigrant integration, willingness to adapt to the host culture is a key element in successful immigrant entrepreneurship (Evans and Kelley, 1991; Smooha, 1994; Lissak, 1995).

As Kushnirovich (2010) found, the adaptation process in a COR varies from individual to individual. Ward (1996) examined two distinct ways of adapting: (a) psychological adaptation refers to personal well-being and good mental health, and (b) sociocultural adaptation refers to the individual's social competence in managing daily life in the intercultural COR setting. In the study by Berry (1970), it was suggested that the long-term psychological consequences of acculturation are also variable. Berry suggests that the ability to adapt to a new society through acculturation depends on both personal factors and socio-cultural characteristics of the COO and the COR which are operative prior to, during and following the acculturation process. Redfield, Linton, and Herskovits (1936, p.149) suggest that: "*acculturation comprehends those phenomena which result when groups of individuals from different cultures come into continuous first hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns of either or both groups*".

For immigrants, the combination of involvement in both the national and the ethnic culture, involving some degree of acculturation, would appear to be most conducive to successful COR integration (Berry 1997; Phinney and Devich-Navarro, 1997;Howard, 1998; Berry et al.. 2010). However, the concept of acculturation has been criticised for becoming synonymous with assimilation since it makes significant reference to immigrants' COO cultural identity (Vasquez, 1984). When immigrants choose to preserve association with their own ethnic culture and community, this leads to IE formation and generates IE entrepreneurship opportunity, allowing immigrants to use the cultural predispositions that they brought with them for IE entrepreneurship and economy formation (Baubock, Heller and Zolberg 1996; Berry, 2006; see section 2.9 for Emergence of Immigrant Enclave Economies).

2.8.3 Immigrant Embedded Resources

Immigrant resources refer to all the sociocultural factors embedded in an immigrant enclave that facilitate diaspora entrepreneurial start-ups and subsequent business development (Light and Bonacich, 1988; Greene, Brush and Brown, 1997; Carbonell et al, 2011). A typical immigrant resource refers to (a) predisposing factors, including cultural endowments and a sojourning orientation, or (b) modes of resource mobilisation, such as ethnic social networks and access to co-ethnic labour (Boissevain et al, 1990, p.132). Following Light and Gold (2000) and Riddle et al (2010), immigrant resources may be classified as either tangible (e.g., financing) or intangible (information, advice, guidance). These resources allow immigrant entrepreneurs to benefit from the use of socio-cultural capital that they do not own (Singh et al, 1999; Egbert, 2009). Immigrant enclave networks derive from relationships based on socio-cultural components like family, community, education religion, ethnicity, social class, economic class and age (Egbert, 2009). As Baron (2004) and Bhagavatula et al, (2010) point out, the availability of these resources in an IE allows an immigrant entrepreneur to build trust and expand personal networks, thereby contributing to a business venture's success by helping to gain a competitive advantage over competitors. Hence, understanding how these networks function is a key to understanding the importance of embeddedness for immigrant entrepreneurial activity (Auster, 1990, p.65; Granovetter, 1992, p.33; Conway and Jones, 2012).

Social capital in the immigrants sector may facilitate or inhibit a capacity for innovation or risk-taking behaviour that is part of IE entrepreneurship. Hence, it may be favourable or unfavourable to the entrepreneur (Westlund and Boltan, 2003; Huggins and Williams, 2012). In IE entrepreneurship, favourable factors include relationships based on extended family and community, or organisational relationships that supplement the benefits of education, experience and availability of financial capital (Bourdieu, 1983; Loury, 1987; Coleman, 1988, 1990; Huggins and Williams, 2012). Social capital is a multidimensional phenomenon that operates at the individual and community levels, from which immigrants may draw as an aid to

entrepreneurial drive (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). While networks are used to establish relationships between individuals, groups and organisations, social capital refers to relationships that exist between individuals within the immigrant community (Conway and Jones, 2012). It includes resources that enhance internal trust between community members and the consequent bonding between entrepreneurs and their stakeholders in the provision of resources. The present study adopts the definition of social capital as: *"The bonding relationships involved between homogeneous groups or bridging relations involved between socially heterogeneous groups"* (Putnam, 1995). Thus, the relationships that constitute social capital are essentially a set of expectations, rules and norms subscribed to by most or all members of a community (Ikeda, 2008). Social capital describes a form of social exchange, the provision of concrete resources, whether a loan provided by one family member to another, or a less tangible resource, such as information about the location of new business potential (Emerson, 1972; Adler and Kwon, 2002).

According to Coleman (1988, p.100), human capital is developed by changes in persons that enhance skills and capabilities that make them able to act in new ways. Cognitive theory suggests that any increase in cognitive ability results in more productive and efficient activity (Davidsson and Honig, 2003). Although some critics question the use of cognitive theory in defining opportunity, Agosin and Bloom (2002) argue that the development of human cognitive capital refers to the ability of immigrant entrepreneurs to recall and exploit cultural background and knowledge useful for their entrepreneurial activity. Cognitive capital may be acquired either through formal education or by linkage to one's ancestral home and family tradition (Waldinger et al, 1996; Agosin and Bloom, 2002). Following the studies by Bourdieu (1983), Loury (1987), Coleman (1988, 1990) and Huggins and Williams (2012), Table 2.5 below presents some of the most significant types of capital that aid entrepreneurial start-ups and venture growth.

Table 2.5– Highlights Some of the Capital that Aids Entrepreneurial Activity

Human Capital	Human capital represents the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health that together enables people to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve livelihood objectives
Social Capital	Social capital is the resources upon which people draw in improving their quality of life and are developed by network and connectedness that increase trust and ability to work together as a member of a formalised group bounded by mutual agreement, common norms and exchanges that facilitate co-operation
Natural Capital	This is the term used for natural resources from which resources flow and services useful for livelihood are derived e.g. nutrient cycling, erosion protection).
Physical Capital	Physical capital comprises the basic infrastructure and basic producer goods needed to support livelihood
Financial Capital	Financial capital denotes the money resources that people used to achieve their livelihood objectives
Organisational Capital	Organisational relationship, structures, routines, culture. Knowledge

Sources: adapted from Greene, Brush and Brown (1997) and Bridge and O'Neil, 2013

The same is true of a range of skills that may help the individual to attain gainful employment and recognise entrepreneurial opportunities in a COR (Sjaastad, 1962; Bridge and O'Neil, 2013). In addition to human, financial and social capital development, physical capital skill (see Table 2.5 below) is the ability to recognise the basic infrastructures that support entrepreneurial activity (Davidsson and Honig, 2003).Thus, among the resources necessary for successful immigrant entrepreneurial start-ups and business development, human capital is an essential prerequisite, but not the only one (Polanyi, 1962; Ikeda 2008; Huggins and Williams, 2012). Entrepreneurs endowed with a high level of human capital are more likely to deliver consistent and high-quality services (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1974; Arrow, 1973; Bridge and O'Neil, 2013). In the studies by Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) on the Cubans in Miami Florida and Marcus (1998) on the African Americans in Harlem it was suggested that the

presence of human, financial and social capital within the enclave were the main elements that helped the immigrant's entrepreneurs to transcend entrepreneurial activity beyond their IE environment. As in the case of the present study, human, financial and social capital within the Blanchardstown IE created immigrants economy and start-up opportunity for the Nigerians. From this perspective, it could be argued that human and social capitals are essential prerequisite for immigrant's entrepreneurship.

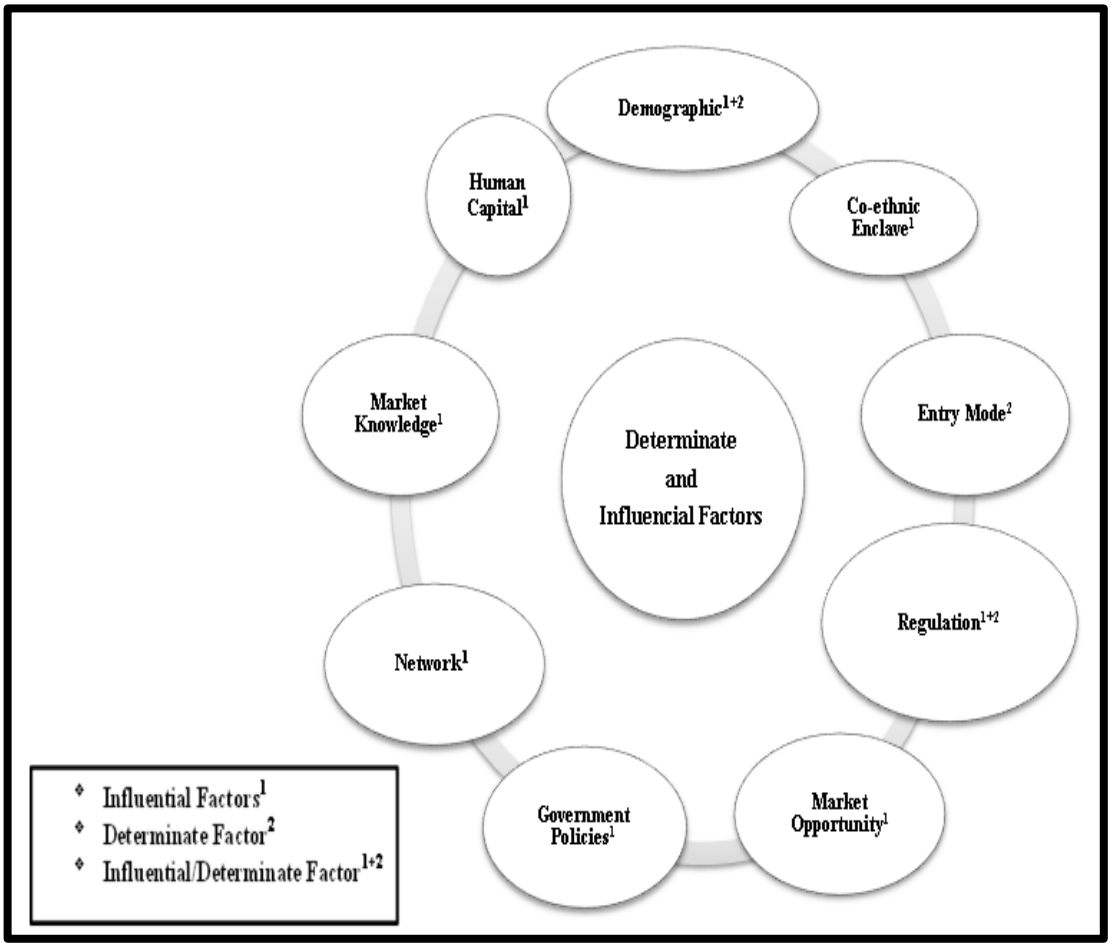
2.9 Emergence of Immigrant Enclave Economies

The emergence of an ethnic enclave economy has three basic prerequisites: the presence of a substantial number of immigrants with business experience acquired in the sending country; the availability of sources of financial capital; and the availability of an adequate supply of labour (Portes and Jensen 1989; Portes and Manning, 1986, 2012; Portes and Shafer, 2007). In a typical IE, the latter two conditions are not too difficult to meet. Labour requirements can usually be met by family members and recent arrivals (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1996). Financial capital is not a major impediment either, since the sums initially required are usually small and can be acquired within the enclave (Portes and Manning, 2005; Turkina, Neupert and Baughn, 2013).

Satisfying the first prerequisite will depend on whether, as a matter of fact, immigrants with the necessary business experience and entrepreneurial drive are present in the IE. As found in studies by Martnez-Herrera and Moualhi (2007) and Dinesen, Klemmensen and Nørgaard (2016), cultural predispositions include the skills, education and previous entrepreneurship knowledge that aid the immigrant entrepreneurial start-ups. Other studies have suggested additional conditions for the emergence of IE economies in a COR. According to Phinney et al., (2001), Reitz and Sklar (1997) and Benish-Weisman and Horenczyk (2010), the resilience of IE ethnic culture and immigrants' attitudes regarding the host community are significant. Light (1972) and Aldrich et al. (1985) emphasise the importance of a protected market and

special opportunities for immigrant entrepreneurs to provide ethnic goods and services to a co-ethnic clientele. Culturalist views point to the importance of work values and norms across groups in enclave economy formation (Ogbu, 1978; Wilson and Portes 1980; Barrett et al. 1996; Ram and Jones, 1998; Bates, 1997; Knocke, 2000; Mason, 2007). An alternative to the cultural perspective has been proposed by emerging 'stratification economics' which suggest that enclave resources are more essential than cultural practices and moral values (Darity 2005, Bogan and Darity, 2008). Figure 2.2 below sets out the key factors influencing the emergence of enclave economies.

Figure 2.2 Influential Factors in Immigrant Enclave Economies



Source: Adapted by Author from Portes and Jensen (1989), Portes and Shafer (2007) and Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome (2012)

The level of economic development, regulation and policies of a COR influences the creation of IE economies (Portes and Guarnizo, 1991; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome,

2012; Peroni et al., 2016). Brouthers and Nakos (2004) suggests that government policies influence key factors in the emergence of IE economies, such as market entry mode, entrepreneurial culture, market size, capital intensity and support agencies. Sternberg (2011) showed how policies directed at creating supportive infrastructure for small businesses increase markets and the capacity to satisfy their demands. Portes and Jensen (1989) and Portes and Shafer (2007) emphasise that the emergence of enclave economies does not depend on government policies and economic level of a COR economic development alone, but also on the individual decision to exploit and identify entrepreneurial opportunity. Portes and Jensen (1989) and Portes and Shafer (2007) emphasise networks, market niches and previous knowledge of entrepreneurship, as well as human, financial and social capital within the enclave, as influential elements in engagement in enclave entrepreneurial activity.

According to Kirzner (1985) and Ardagna and Lusardi (2008), human capital, ethnic resources, stable and supportive government policies all aid IE economies. Conversely, Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome (2012) argue that government measures aimed at streamlining regulation of entrepreneurial activity can actually be a hindrance to IE economies' emergence, when not implemented properly. For example, studies by Newland and Tanaka (2010) and Plaza and Ratha (2011) found that administrative formalities relating to starting a business impede IE economy formation if they cannot be dealt with from within the enclave.

The study by Turkina and Thai (2013) suggests that interpersonal trust within an IE community enhances the potential for entrepreneurial activity. Interpersonal trust is based on an agreement to collaborate, mutual supportiveness, shared norms and values that are actually operative within the enclave (Turkina and Thai, 2013). Kloosterman and Rath (1999), Paxton (1999) and Neuman (2016) claimed interpersonal trust facilitate community growth, promotes exchanges, communication and transactions. Institutional trust refers to institutionally embedded factors (e.g. education system, the media, trade unions, the police, Government agencies) that allow entrepreneurial activity to take place on a level playing field. According to

Fukuyama (1995) and Turkina and Thai (2013), trust is an essential element in building confident and belief in an individual's ability to carrying out a task, especially in an unfamiliar environment. For example, in New York's Diamond District, the bond of trust between the dealers creates sufficient confidence to allow merchants to leave valuable diamonds for inspection by potential buyers, without the fear of loss (Carter and Jones-Evans, 2012).

Personal relations help to generate this kind of trust. In the context of IE economy, it is an essential factor in encouraging entrepreneurial activity (Waldinger, 1986; Berry et al, 2006; Vedder and Van de Vijver, 2006). As indicated previously, trust and confident may result from COO culture within the enclave (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990). Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone (1998) found that trust allows for an exchange of resources among immigrants who are bonded by COO language, culture and values (Kloosterman and Rath, 1999; Åslund and Nordström Skans, 2010; Waldinger, 1986; Neuman, 2016). A study on the Nigerian community in Dublin found that the formation of an enclave community in the north-central city area created an environment of trust and confident for new arrivals (Ugba, 2004). The previously mentioned study on Muslims in the Netherlands produced similar findings (Kloosterman and Rath, 1999; see also Zaheer, 1998).

The formation of an enclave economy requires a wide variety of social relationships based on mutual trust between the providers and consumers of goods and services (Fukuyama, 1995, p. 27). Enclave trust allows an individual entrepreneur to engage in commercial activity with a reasonable level of confidence in the outcome (Zaheer, 1998). Critics have suggested that norms of behaviour based on trustworthiness rather than accountability and observance of rules can lead to free riding, corruption and increased levels of dishonesty (Ostrom, 1990; Putnam, 1993; Turkina and Thai, 2013). However, it remains the case that, for genuine and honest IE entrepreneurs, a high level of trustworthiness ensures credibility, predictability and assurance of fair treatment (Putnam, Leonardi and Nanetti., 1993).

2.10 Overview of Theoretical Perspectives

An IE is a culturally bonded association of people with the ethnic or similar immigration experience. It creates a market, infrastructure, resources and demographic conditions necessary for immigrant enclave entrepreneurship (Waldinger, 1986; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1996; Neuman, 2016). An IE is a culturally bonded social field that draws immigrant together (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). As Bourdieu (1972; 1975) suggests, a social field generates a wide variety of interactions conducive to entrepreneurial activity. According to Iellatchitch et al., (2003) and Walther (2014), an IE aids entrepreneurial business start-ups by means of cultural predispositions, such as shared meaning, ethnicity and values. The presence of COO cultural elements in an IE facilitates the development of enclave economies, market knowledge and enclave resources for entrepreneurial activity (Portes and Wilson, 1980; Neuman, 2016). Furthermore, the coming together of COO cultural predispositions and IE networking in a COR creates an environment that provides financial support and other benefits that help IE activity (Evans and Kelly, 1991; Kushnirovich, 2010). Thus, immigration is a main driver of cultural diffusion and development of enclave resources in the economies of many CORs (Thieme, 2006; Light and de Haas, 2007; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). An increase in the demographic profile of immigrants in a COR increases the rate of enclave entrepreneurial activity (Kloosterman et al., 1999; Neuman, 2016). An IE provides immigrant entrepreneurs with the demographic characteristics, cultural identity and market that aid enclave start-ups and subsequent business development (Wilson and Portes, 1980; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1996; Neuman, 2016). As found in studies of Cubans in Miami, Chinese in New York and Muslims in the Netherlands and Sweden, immigrants' economic, demographic and cultural (including linguistic) characteristics may lead, initially at least, to segregation and marginalisation (Klosterman et al, 1999; Neuman, 2016). These, in turn, create socio-economic conditions that result in the need for self-employment by means of

business start-ups. This is the beginning of the process of IE economy formation (Neuman, 2016).

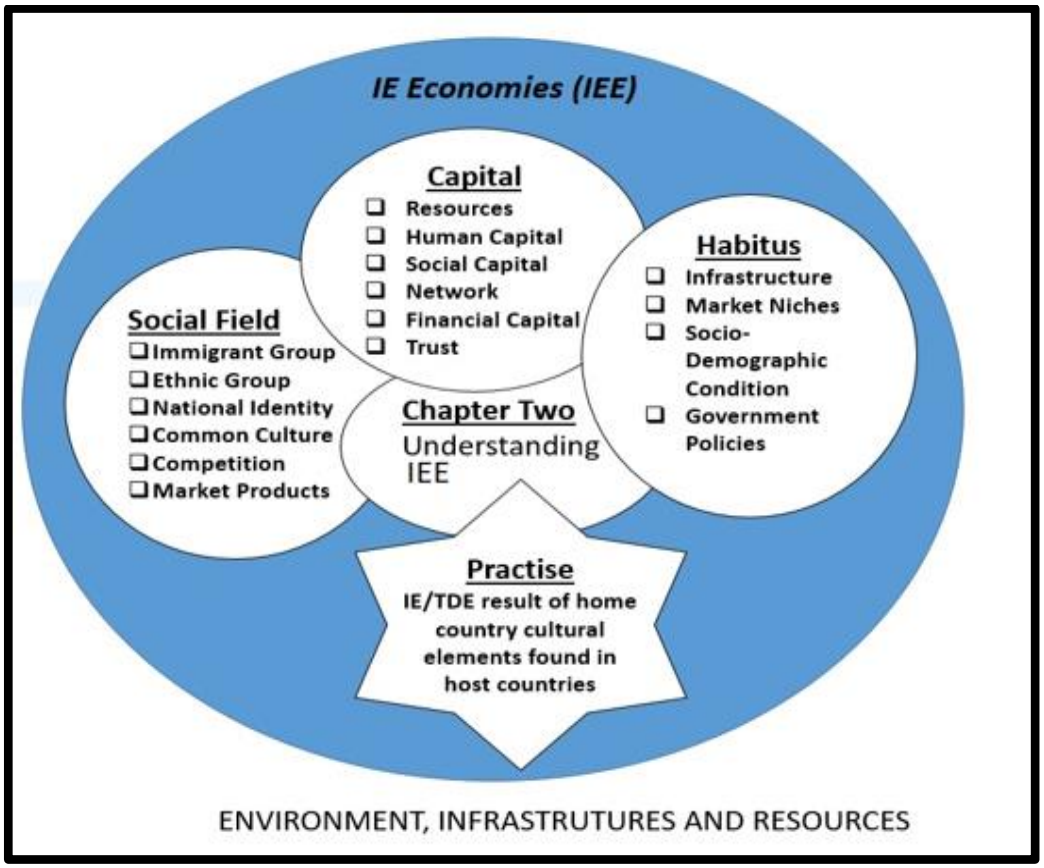
The mixed embeddedness framework developed by Kloosterman, van der Leun, and Rath (1999) offers a useful theoretical approach to IE interaction with the mainstream COR economy. The framework incorporates elements of interaction theory (Aldrich et al. 1990; Light and Rosenstein 1995) as well as studies on social embeddedness (Granovetter 1985). The framework departs from the notion that immigrant entrepreneurship is the outcome of multiple contingencies. Instead, it views IE entrepreneurial activity as being determined by an interplay of personal characteristics of the entrepreneur, on the one side, and the characteristics of the wider social, economic and politico-institutional COR environment, on the other. The latter refers to the institutional apparatus available in a COR to facilitate the creation of business opportunities for prospective and established entrepreneurs.

2.11 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed various theories relating to IE. While other theories could have been included, the author selected those deemed most helpful for understanding IE formation, IE entrepreneurship and the emergence of IE economies. IE theory defined an enclave as a culturally bonded association of members of an immigrant ethnic group within a specific COR geographical area (Neuman, 2016). The enclave was seen to generate a niche market, security based on interpersonal trust and COO cultural capital beneficial for immigrant entrepreneurship in a COR (Waldinger, 1986; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). Available studies underline the importance of human capital, ethnic resources and stable and supportive government policies. Helpful entrepreneurship policies minimise administrative formalities relating to business start-ups, provide structural and infrastructural supports and ease immigrants' socio-demographic conditions in a COR (Newland and Tanaka, 2010; Plaza and Ratha, 2011). However, while these elements are necessary for enclave economy formation, they are not sufficient. Figure 2.3

below highlights additional factors that enhance IE entrepreneurship and economy formation, as found in the literature.

Figure 2.3 Factors Enhancing IE Economic Formation



Adapted from Aldrich and Waldinger, (1990), Bourdieu, (1997), Portes and Sensenbrenner, (1993), Newland and Tanaka, (2010), Plaza and Ratha (2011), and Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome (2012).

The following chapter will examine how many of the same factors which drive the evolution of IE start-ups into businesses that interact with the mainstream COR economy also open a door to further expansion, transcending both IE and national boundaries. Transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE) takes advantage of the fact that immigrant entrepreneurs possess knowledge of both their native COO and their adopted COR. TDE activity occurs when an immigrant entrepreneur has the capacity to navigate the institutional and cultural environments of two or more countries simultaneously (Patel and Conklin, 2009). Chapter Three will define TDE, explore diaspora opportunity and examine the ways in which TDE differs significantly from the type of IE entrepreneurship discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurship (TDE)

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter (Chapter Two) identified key theoretical concepts that aid our understanding of immigrant enclaves (IE) in a country of residency (COR). Building on this, the present chapter defines transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE) and explores its opportunity processes. The general concept of opportunity as used in the entrepreneurship framework represents a process of discovery or creation of business potentialities (Schumpeter, 1934; Kirzner, 1973). Discovery and creation approaches are commonly used in explaining the processes of entrepreneurial opportunity. For example, Kirzner (1979) described opportunity in terms of an individual's alertness and willingness to exploit a market niche. Schumpeter (1934) argued that opportunity is "a process of creative discoveries", a view shared by Shane (2003). While creation and discovery processes usually refer to entrepreneurship in general, they will be helpful in our exploration of the dynamics underpinning TDE activity. Hence the chapter starts with an overview of the historical evolution of entrepreneurship theories

3.2 Historical Evolution of Entrepreneurship Theories

The terms 'entrepreneur' and 'enterprise' are derived from the French verb '*entreprendre*', to do or undertake something. Originally, 'entrepreneur' referred to a person in charge of great architectural works (Hoselitz, 1960; Pittaway, 2012). Richard Cantillon is generally credited with being the first to use the term in relation to commerce (Herbert and Link, 1998; Bink and Vale, 1990). In his *Essai Sur la Nature du Commerce*, published in 1732, Cantillon offered an analysis of economic systems based on different protagonists, among whom are entrepreneurs. According to Cantillon, landowners (viewed as financially independent) and risk-takers (good judges of changing market conditions and possessing an exceptional ability to cope with uncertainty) were considered entrepreneurs. Following Cantillon, other authors refined and developed his way of understanding the role of the entrepreneur in economic systems. Sabbagh (2015), for example, in his *Tableau Economique*, stepped away from Cantillon's emphasis on uncertainty, offering instead the first mathematical

formulation of economic equilibrium (Kuczynski and Meek, 1972; Pittaway, 2012, p.11). Turgot (1898), in *Réflexions sur la Formation et la Distribution des Richesses,* distinguished between ownership of capital and the act of entrepreneurship as two separate functions. Jean-Baptise Say argued that both land and capital were indispensable to production, but he also included human activity as a key element in the productive process (Koolman, 1971, p.271; Barreto, 1998; Pittaway, 2012). By the early 19th century, therefore, French authors described entrepreneurs as coordinators of an economic system, acting as intermediaries between all the agents involved in production and, significantly, accepting a degree of uncertainty and risk. Profit is cited as the reward for the entrepreneurs' risk-taking (Pittaway, 2012).

Unlike the French classical school, British political economic theory (e.g. *Adam Smith, The Wealth of Nations {1776}; Edwin Cannan's definitive reprint, 1904) and John Stuart Mill, Principles of Political Economy {1848})* did not start out with a strong appreciation of entrepreneurs (Ricketts, 1987; Chell et al., 1991, cited in Pittaway, 2012). One reason, suggested by Jean-Baptise Say, was the inability to find a corresponding word in English (although the 'undertaker' was a candidate). A second factor was the difference between English and French law at the time. French law distinguished between ownership of capital or land and ownership of property or a business, whereas in English law a capitalist was not only a creditor deriving interest from loans, but also an active partner sharing in the profits and losses of business activity (Tuttle, 1972, cited in Pittaway, 2012). Thirdly, there were significant differences between the economic characteristics of both countries with France being more microeconomic, while Britain was more macroeconomic (Koolman, 1971; cited by Pittaway, 2012). According to Barreto (1989), whatever the reason, the failure of the early British economists to appreciate the importance of the role of an entrepreneur may have hindered the initial stages in the development of entrepreneurship in Britain.

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the Austrian and neo-Austrian schools of economics offered their own notions of entrepreneurship (Pittaway, 2012). Austrian theorists,

building on French foundational thinking, emphasised uncertainty and risk as important features of economic systems that present entrepreneurs with opportunities to make profit (von Mangoldt, 1885; cited by Pittaway, 2012, p.13). Von Mangoldt (1885) is credited as the first to explain how real market systems operate on the basis of risk, uncertainty and profit. Knight (1921) later developed this view of entrepreneurship as a process of risk-taking and argued that in an economy, supply and demand are not always in a state of equilibrium. Other Austrian theorists (von Mises, 1949; Menger, 1950; Kirzner, 1973; Hayek, 1990) took a similar approach, but argued that supply and demand are actually in a state of permanent disequilibrium. Joseph Schumpeter's work (1930, 1934, 1943, and 1964) is seminal and has been widely discussed (e.g., MacDonald {1971}; Shionoya {1992, 1997}). In *The Theory of Economic Development* (1934), Schumpeter focused on the role of the entrepreneur in the developmental stages of a business. In addition, he examined how capitalism not only creates and supports structures and markets, but also destroys them and replaces them with new ones. The entrepreneur is seen as an innovator, an individual who makes new combinations of production possible and introduces new products into the market (Pittaway, 2012). The focus on personal entrepreneurial characteristics avoids a danger, associated with performance and growth criteria, of restricting the notion of entrepreneurship to organisations, firms or individuals generating a sufficiently high volume of outcomes (Audretsch, 2012). This would exclude successful small business owners from being called entrepreneurs (Cunningham and Lischeron's, 1991; Hebert and Link, 1988).

The American economist Israel Kirzner, closely associated with the Austrian School, is frequently cited in relation to entrepreneurship. Kirzner (1973, 1980, 1982 and 1990) claims, that entrepreneurial decision are the main driving forces behind financial markets. He highlights the unavoidability of uncertainty and disequilibrium in decision making and, consequently, the significance of personal characteristics in the capacity to exploit entrepreneurial opportunity. Thus, entrepreneurship requires not only a propensity to identify opportunity, but also the drive

and alertness necessary in order to pursue those goals when one has been alerted (Kirzner, 1990). Schumpeter (1934) argues that an entrepreneur is an innovator, a leader and someone with a willingness to engage in creative destruction. This latter characteristic is emphasised also byThai, et al., (2013).

Gartner (1985) describes the entrepreneur as the founder of a new business, or a person who started a new business where there was none before. However, this would exclude those who inherit or buy an existing franchise. More expansively, Hebert and Link (1988) suggest that an entrepreneur "specialises in taking responsibility for and making decisions that affect the location, the form, and the use of goods, resources, or institutions" (Herbert and Link, 1988, p.152). Finally, one should note the recent recognition of 'social entrepreneurship' which broadens the applicability of the concept beyond the realm of commercial enterprises (Carland et al., 1984; Wortman, 1987; Audretsch, 2012). From this perspective, entrepreneurship encompasses leaders and innovators making a non-commercial contribution to society. Baron (2014) suggests that an enterprising teacher, who, on the basis of experience, finds a new way of presenting a subject and passes it on to other teachers, has acted as an entrepreneur with no profit intention.

Recently, Davidsson (2016) suggests that 'entrepreneurship is a societal phenomenon, a distinctive advantage to include an outcome criterion'. This definition highlights the fact that micro-level decisions and actions are necessary for any change to be introduced. It also addresses the importance of an outcome that is successful, the processes of discovery and the introduction of new ideas into the market. Furthermore, since this definition restricts entrepreneurship to a market context, it provides a more precise and coherent characterisation of the phenomenon. At the same time, the definition does not take a restrictive stand on purposefulness, innovation, organisational context or ownership and personal risk-taking. Importantly, it links micro to macro by portraying entrepreneurship as a micro-level phenomenon with important effects on more aggregate levels. Davidsson's definition has the

further advantage of being clearly delimited, logically coherent and easy to communicate (Suddaby, 2010).

Table 3.1 below summarises some of the key themes related to entrepreneurship discussed above, together with significant authors associated with each of them.

Table 3.1 Themes of Entrepreneurship Theory

Themes	Theories
The entrepreneur is the person who assumes risk associated with uncertainty	Cantillon, Thunen, Mangoldt, Mill, Hawley, Knight, Mises, Cole, Shackle
The entrepreneur is the person who supplies financial capital	Smith, Turgot, Bohm-Bawerk, Edgeworth, Pigou, Mises
The entrepreneur is an innovator	Badeau, Bentham, Thunen, Schmoller, Sombart, Weber, Schumpeter
The entrepreneur is a decision-maker	Cantillon, Menger, Marshall, Wieser, Amasa Walker, Francis Walker, Keynes, Mises, Shackle, Cole, Schultz
The concept of an entrepreneur is much older than that of innovation or innovator	Brown and Ulijn (2004, p.5)
The entrepreneur is an industrial leader	Say, Saint-Simon, Amasa Walker, Francis Walker, Marshall, Wieser, Sombart, Weber, Schumpeter
The entrepreneur is a manager or superintendent	Say, Mill, Marshall, Menger
The entrepreneur is an organiser and coordinator of economic resources	Say, Weber, Wieser, Schmoller, Sombart, Weber, Clark, Davenport, Schumpeter, Coase
The entrepreneur is the owner of an enterprise.	Quesnay, Wieser, Pigou, Hawley.
The entrepreneur is an employer of factors of production	Amasa Walker, Francis Walker, Wieser, Keynes
The entrepreneur is a contractor	Bentham
The entrepreneur is an arbitrageur	Cantillon, Walras, Kirzner
The entrepreneur is an allocator of resources for alternative uses.	Cantillon, Schultz
	Source: Herbert and Link (1988).

The foregoing discussion suggests that there is no universally accepted definition or model of what an entrepreneur is or does (Churchill and Lewis, 1986). The understanding of entrepreneurship depends, in part, on the focus of the research. Austrian School conceptualisations, for example, put entrepreneurship squarely in a market context, while others leave room for social, educational and other forms of enterprising and innovative activity. It

should be understood that, not all innovative people are entrepreneurial (Brown and Ulijn, 2004, p.9). The number and variety of definitions available in the literature make it difficult to choose one that is best suited to present purposes. Since the present study aims to understand characteristics and behaviours typically linked to a wide range of TDE activity, the following broad definition will suffice as a guiding principle: "Entrepreneurship consists of competitive behaviours that drive the market process" (Kirzner, 1973, pp. 19-20).

The marketing process has multiple aspects that can contribute to shaping the behaviour of the entrepreneur. For example, the study by Van Vuuren and Wörgötter (2013) found the ability of an individual to take control (proactiveness) or respond to a given situation contributes to the development of entrepreneurial behaviour. According to Schindehutte, Morris and Kocak (2008), the responsiveness of a proactive entrepreneur to market information normally aids competitive behaviour. In studies by Kumar et al., 2000, Schindehutte et al., (2008) and Van Vuuren and Wörgötter (2013), competitive behaviour is linked to exceptional entrepreneurial performance. TDE practitioners are proactive and responsive entrepreneurs with a capacity to operate in multiple environmental settings. The following section examines the evolution of TDE activity in order to understand the nature of cross-border entrepreneurship.

3.3 Understanding Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurship (TDE)

Historical artefacts and discoveries from the prehistoric, middle and modern ages, show that members of trading diaspora populations cultivated their networks across wide geographical areas, travelling back and forth in pursuit of commercial ventures and integrated into the local COR ways of life (Curtin 1984; Skaff 2003). Trading links between the ancient Bronze Age civilisations of Mesopotamia and Dilmun represents a landmark in the evolution of cross-border trading and may be considered to be embryonic forms of diaspora transnationalism (Dees, 1998; Tarrius, 2001; Bruneau, 2010). Discoveries from the ancient burial grounds of Astana (Asitana) and Karakhoja (Halahezhuo) and ancient monuments dating

back to prehistoric times show evidence of cross-border trading of food and other essential resources. Chinese excavation records and documents suggest the existence of transnational trade as early as the sixth century B.C (Dees, 1998). These trading activities also generated cross-cultural links between different ethnic communities (Sandip 2006).

As found in the studies by Massey (1990) and Skaff (2003), those who settled abroad or travelled frequently between their COR and COO often brought back a wide range of economic and other goods to better the lives of their families and improve their own social status (Schiller et al, 1995).The growth in trading and cultural links between ancient civilisations drove the effort to improve the means of transportation and communication. Over the course of centuries, road and maritime networks grew in both extension and efficiency. In turn, these improvements facilitated further growth in migratory behaviour. The emergence of vast empires (e.g. Persian, Greek, Roman) accelerated this process. By the Middle Ages, and especially after the encounter between the old world of Europe and the new transoceanic worlds of the Americas and other continents, international migration and trade are firmly established as global phenomena that leave very few parts of the world untouched.

What will later be termed TDE is clearly foreshadowed. However, sociologists and social geographers point to significant differences between pre-modern and contemporary forms of diaspora transnationalism, especially as regards patterns of migratory behaviour (Levitt 2001; Smith 1998; Smith and Guarnizo 1998; Kyle 1999). In the post-Industrial Revolution era and, even more so, in the age of the current Technological Revolution, the rapid evolution of more efficient means of transport and communication is bound to have a major impact on both the volume and nature of international and intercontinental migration and commerce. In its current form, diaspora transnationalism involved the transferring of people, culture, knowledge and resources between COR and COO to an extent that was previously impossible and unimaginable (Nielsen and Riddle 2010; Bauböck and Faist 2010; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Hence, current definitions and modes of TDE are the result of

advancements in communication and transportation technology which have vastly expanded the range of interaction and entrepreneurship between COR and COO (Schiller and Blanc, 1995; Bauböck and Faist 2010).

3.3.1 Defining TDE

Definitions of 'diaspora' and 'transnational' frequently include references to globalisation, cross-border movement and intercultural exchange. While these are important components, Bauböck and Faist (2010) argue that a truly transnational diaspora occurs within the limited social and geographic spaces of a specific socio-cultural environment. What this means for an understanding of entrepreneurial activity in a transnational diaspora context can be illustrated by referring to the definition of TDE offered by Levitt (2001):

> *A process of living within transnational social fields and the possibility of being exposed to a set of social expectations, cultural values and patterns of human interaction that are shaped by more than one social, economic and political system which enable one to engage in cross-border investment*

This definition embraces the current manner of understanding of TDE as entrepreneurial activity by members of a diaspora community based on networks of social, economic and political relationships in, and between, their COR and COO (Levitt 2001; Debass and Ardovino 2009; Bauböck and Faist 2010; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly 2015). TDE networks depend on relationships of trustworthiness between the investor and the implicated communities. These networks also strengthen ties between the transnational diaspora and the COO. Although a network may be regarded as informal in many respects, in the context of TDE it can serve also as a contract-enforcement mechanism that promotes information flows across international borders (Reese and Aldrich 1995; Javorcik et al. 2011).

Studies by Van Stel, Carree and Thurik (2005) and Thornton, Ribeiro-Soriano and Urbano (2011) understand entrepreneurship as activity that supports organisational sources of innovation, employment, unrestrained competition and economic growth. There are several factors that can influence entrepreneurial activity within a national or international context, for

example: climate, education, experience, demographic characteristics, and human or financial capital. Enabling factors like these are seen as some of the most significant influences (Van Stel, Carree and Thurik, 2005; Dimov, 2010). Additionally, TDE activity involves the commercialisation of a business idea across multiple institutional settings, relying on cultural ties, ethnic networks and language (Light and Gold, 2000; Yeung, 2002; Oviatt and McDougall, 2005). Studies have attempted to delimit TDE activity, but marked differences have developed regarding what types of activity should be included and how extensive these should be in order to be considered as transnational (Bagwell, 2015). Portes, Guarnizo, and Landolt (1999) suggest that the term should be restricted to enterprises in which cross-border connections are extensive, regular and resilient. Studies by Portes, Guarnizo and Haller (2002), Bagwell (2015) and Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) consider TDE activity as business ventures based in a COR, with business links to immigrants' COO. Broadly viewed, TDE ventures can be defined as businesses that are fully embedded in two or more countries, exploiting an understanding of both COR and COO culture to serve market niches in one or both countries (Drori, Honig and Wright, 2009; Bagwell, 2015; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015; Delacroix and Nielsen, 2001; Becker and Woessmann, 2007; Thornton et al., 2011). TDE activity is dependent also on social-cultural factors, such as COO cultural predispositions (ethnicity, national identity, language, COO entrepreneurial background, amongst others). These act as individual and external enablers within the IE. Dimov (2012) described these enablers as factors that facilitate entrepreneurial activity (see section3.5.2). Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) and Özbilgin and Tatli (2005) suggests that being deeply rooted in the norms and culture of their COO helps entrepreneurs to create a high level of interpersonal trust. Aldrich and Zimmer (1986), Wennekers, van Stel, Thurik and Reynolds (2005), Bauböck and Faist (2010) and Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) explain how the rapid evolution of more efficient means of transport and communication have contributed to the development of TDE activity.

It is now widely acknowledged that TDE activity includes money remittances, therefore, makes a significant contribution to the development of a COO (Nyberg-Sørensen et al., 2002; Portes, 2009; Van De Haas, 2010; Naerssen Spaan and Zoomers, 2011). In many sending countries, TDE activity now represents an important agent of change by establishing economic, commercial and social relationships between sending and receiving countries (Turner and Kleist, 2013; Sinatti and Horst, 2015; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015; Schøtt and Minto-Coy, 2018). In Afghanistan, the first retail mall and a $25 million Coca-Cola bottling plant were initiated by TDE (Brinkerhoff, 2009). In Uganda, TDE activity includes the provision of schools and entrepreneurship training for women (Bewayo 1995). Chinese and South Asian entrepreneurs in the UK city of Birmingham have drawn on their transnational links to source a huge range of food imports enabling them to establish successful supermarkets and ethnic food businesses (Bagwell, 2015). In the case of Nigerians in Ireland, although money remittance is still at a very high level, TDE activity includes buying goods in Ireland to sell in Nigeria, and vice visa.

TDE entails the commuting of resources between a COR and a COO (Goldring 1996; Guarnizo 1997). By concurrently engaging in multiple socially embedded environments, TDE can deploy its resource base to exploit comparative economic advantages in the COR and COO (Thieme 2008). Following suggestions by Oviatt and McDougall (2005) and Riddle, Harivnak and Nielsen (2010), TDE may be regarded as entrepreneurial activity resulting from the sentiment that a diaspora population attaches to the home country and the desire to share experiences acquired in their COR with their COO. Therefore, the motivation driving diaspora entrepreneurship is often complex and may involve both pecuniary and non-pecuniary investment motivations, including feelings of duty and obligation to contribute to the development of a COO (Gillespie et al. 1999; Riddle, et al,. 2010). Against the background of studies by Gillespie et al. (1999), Levitt (2001), Riddle, et al,. (2010), Bauböck and Faist (2010), Aikins and White (2011) and Portes and Fernández-Kelly (2015), the present study adopts the

definition of TDE by Osaghae and Cooney (2019, p.7):

> *"TDE are those settled ethnic minority groups of migrant origins residing and acting in their COR, but maintaining strong sentimental, entrepreneurial and material links with their COO".*

Summarising, TDE is understood to be entrepreneurial activity based on a presence in multiple transnational social spheres, with the possible exposure to sets of social expectations, cultural values and patterns of human interactions that are shaped by more than one social, economic and political system (Gillespie et al. 1999; Drori, Honig and Wright 2009; Bauböck and Faist 2010; Riddle, Harivnak, and Nielsen 2010; Osaghae and Cooney, 2019).

3.3.2 Transnational Entrepreneurs (TE)

The term 'transnational' was first used in the 1960s in reference to corporate structures with established organisational bases in more than one country (Martinelli, 1982). It was also employed in reference to the 'softening' of national boundaries and the development of political, legal, financial and other institutions that transcend national borders (Schiller et al., 1995). Later, 'transnational' was adopted by social anthropologists and social geographers to designate the interaction between a COO and COR by members of diaspora populations (Basch et al., 1994; Goldring, 1996; Guarnizo, 1997; Guarnizo and Smith, 1998). Transnational entrepreneurship should be understood as part of a broader phenomenon of globalisation, marked by the demise of nation-states and the growth of world cities that serve as key nodes of flexible capital accumulation, communication and control (Knox, 1994; Knight and Gappert, 1989). Developments in the fields of capital accumulation and communication have generated increased interest in the flow of culture and populations across national borders, resulting in new global contexts for commercial activity and cultural diffusion (Schiller et al., 1995; Bauböck and Faist, 2010).

It is necessary to distinguish between 'international' and 'transnational' entrepreneurs. The former may be described in terms of a capacity for innovative, proactive and risk-seeking

behaviours that help an entrepreneur to conduct a business venture across national borders, with the intention to create value in an international 'born-global' commercial organisation (McDougall & Oviatt, 2000, p. 903). In studies by Wilson and Portes (1980) and Portes and Jensen (1989), 'born-global' is ascribed to any organisation that, from its inception, seeks to derive significant competitive advantage from the use of resources and the sale of outputs in multiple countries. In international entrepreneurship, there may be minimal, or no, reference to a local or ethnic cultural environment. In contrast, transnational entrepreneurs commercialise a business idea across multiple institutional settings relying on their cultural ties, ethnic network and language (Light and Gold, 2000; Yeung, 2002; Oviatt and McDougall, 2005).

A TE can be regarded as any individual who migrates from a COO to a COR and exploits business opportunities in cultural and commercial linkages with both their former COO and their adopted country (Drori, Honig and Wright, 2009, p.1001). By engaging in two or more socially embedded transnational environments, TEs create, develop and deploy resources to exploit comparative advantages in both COR and COO (Thieme, 2008). Studies by Sorenson and Audia (2000) and Drori, et al. (2009) suggest that the affiliations to both COR and COO countries put a TE in a uniquely advantageous position compared to single market entrepreneurs. Levitt (2001) flags the ability to use the socio-cultural, political, economic conditions and patterns of human interaction to their advantage as the difference between a TE and an international entrepreneur. The present study adopts the definition of TE in Drori et al., (2009):

> *[TEs are] social actors who enact networks, ideas, information, and practices for the purpose of seeking business opportunities or maintaining businesses within dual social fields, which in turn force them to engage in varied strategies of action to promote their entrepreneurial activities* (Drori et al., 2009; Elo, and Minto-Coy, 2018, p.129).

On the basis of this definition, a TE can be distinguished clearly from an international entrepreneur operating within a born-global enterprise. For the TE, the use of specific ethnic resources, cultural ties and ethnically defined business networks are essential entrepreneurial tools (Light and Gold, 2000; Yeung, 2002; Thieme, 2008; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2016).

The understanding of how TEs differ from entrepreneurs engaged in international and born-global enterprises will be further elucidated by an examination of the main characteristics of diaspora entrepreneurship (DE).

3.3.3 Understanding Diaspora Entrepreneurship (DE)

The term ‘diaspora’ (from the Greek ‘dia’ meaning ‘through’ and ‘speiro’ meaning ‘dispersal’) has been used historically to refer to very specific situations such as the exile and global dispersal of the Jewish nation (Aikins and White, 2011). Subsequently, its use has been broadened to include any ethnic group scattered throughout the world. At times, it has carried a connotation of displaced people being forced to serve as slaves or to accept less honourable occupations. Current usage suggests that diasporisation is a form of adaptation by immigrants to the culture of receiving societies (Levitt, 2001; Smith, 1998; Guarnizo and Smith, 1998; Kyle, 1999, 2001). However, some commentators have warned against ascribing the term to all types of migration (Bruneau, 2010, p. 35-49). Aikins and White suggest that four elements are particularly relevant for correctly labelling a scattered population as a diaspora: time, place of birth, citizenship and sense of belonging (Aikins and White, 2011). However, they warn against an overly narrow interpretation of what any of these may mean in a particular case.

Traditional notions of permanent exile and cultural isolation from one’s country of origin have been made largely redundant by contemporary means of transport and communication. Broadly speaking, people may be regarded as part of a diaspora if their sense of personal and cultural identity remains intimately linked to their country of origin, although they are living elsewhere (see also Appadurai, 1991; International Organisation for Migration {IOM}, 2014). Thus, being a member of a diaspora entails a sense of being part of a transnational network with the homeland, the place of birth of oneself or one’s ancestors, as a key reference point (Clifford, 1994, p.311; Aikins and White, 2011; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). This aligns with the present study’s view of diaspora (see section 2.3 above).

Increasingly, immigrants and their descendants regularly shuttle between their COR and COO in order to maintain familial and cultural links, but also, in the case of diaspora entrepreneurs, to exploit TDE and investment opportunities (Basch et al, 1994; Portes, 1997; Portes and Haller, 2003; Levitt and Glick Schiller, 2004; Bauböck and Faist, 2010; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). The focus group of the present study began migrating to Ireland in the early 2000s; emerging differences between first, second and later generations of diaspora populations within the Irish context will merit future study.

Diaspora TE businesses are created by people with an immigration background whose cultural embeddedness in both a COR and COO provides unique commercial opportunities (Schiller and Fouron, 1999; Levitt, 2001). Diaspora entrepreneurs facilitate international commerce by building social, cultural and business networks in emerging markets (Cohen, 1997; Nielsen et al., 2010). The World Bank has identified DE as a major new source of foreign direct investment (FDI) for most emerging economies. For example, between 1979 and 1995 investment by the Chinese diaspora accounted for 80% of China's total investment (Huang and Khanna 2003: p.81). India, with the help of its diaspora entrepreneurs, is fast becoming a major force in global technological development (Huang and Khanna, 200, Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015).

Between 1998 and 2004, diaspora investment accounted for 25% of the total FDI flow into Armenia (Hergnyan and Makaryan, 2006). In the same period, DE accounted for the largest investments in post-conflict Afghanistan: Afghan Wireless (the market leader in telecommunications), a $25 million Coca-Cola bottling plant and Afghanistan's first retail mall (Brinkerhoff, 2009). Javorcik et al. (2006) explain how diaspora entrepreneurs use their understanding of their own ethnic networks to promote information flows across international borders and activate contract-enforcement mechanisms between their COR and COO. Debass and Ardovino (2009) and Ye Liu, Makerere, Karadeniz, (2018) suggest that DE facilitates conveying new ideas, exploring market opportunities and improving social, economic and

political relationships between countries by members of diaspora populations.

By way of synthesising key elements of these perspectives on what constitutes a diaspora and how it impacts on the specific type of entrepreneurial activity under consideration, the present study adopts Levitt's definition of DE:

> *A process of living within transnational social fields and the possibility of being exposed to a set of social expectations, cultural values, and patterns of human interaction that are shaped by more than one social, economic, and political system which enable one to engage in cross border entrepreneurial activity* (Levitt, 2001, p.197).

This definition highlights social networking, increased circular migration, transfer of knowledge and the creation of new market opportunities as key components of DE (see also Nielsen et al., 2010; Landolt, Autler, and Baires, 1999; Debass and Ardovino, 2009; Landolt, 2001; Hart, 2011; Brinkerhoff, 2009). In Table 3.2 below, the present study summarises a range of perspectives on what constitutes a diaspora and DE:

Table 3.2 Diaspora and Diaspora Entrepreneurship (DE)

Some views on the definition of 'diaspora' and DE	
Authors and Scholars	**Definition**
Terrazas, A. (2010) (cited in Aikins and White, 2011)	Diaspora is "that part of a people, dispersed in one or more countries other than its homeland, that maintains a feeling of transnational community among a people and its homeland".
Braziel and Mannur, (2003).	Diaspora is part of "the global economic and political shifts that have significantly transformed notions of the nation and national identities, accompanied by advances and changes in economic and technological infrastructure".
Schiller and Fouron (1999, p. 344),	Diaspora migration is "a pattern of migration in which persons move across international borders, settle, and establish relations in a new state, maintaining ongoing social connections with the polity from which they originated".
The International Organization for Migration report (2006),	Diasporas: "Members of ethnic and national communities, who have left their own country of origin, but maintain links with their homelands".
Drori I., Honig B., Wright M., (2009),	Transnational diaspora entrepreneurs: "individuals who migrate from one country to another, while maintaining business ties with the country of origin and adoptive countries and communities".
Source: Adapted from Literature Review by Author	

While these views are important to defining DE, the study adopts Levitt's definition of DE. The discussion in section 3.3 addressed the evolution of TDE and the main factors that differentiate a TE from other international entrepreneurs. In its current usage, TDE refers to diaspora entrepreneurial activity and investment spanning multiple environments. Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) described TDE as activity that bridges the economic gap between immigrants' country of residency (COR) and their country of origin (COO). TDE business ventures make use of both COR and COO cultures. Thus, TDE involves an understanding of the cultural predispositions in multiple environmental settings by members of a diaspora population. The following section explores the entrepreneurial process, highlighting significant differences between the entrepreneurial process and TDE.

3.3.4 Facilitators of TDE Activity

In its current form, TDE activity is significantly facilitated by the presence of COO demographic characteristics in IEs located in a COR. As found in the study of the ethnic black population in the UK by Ram, Barrett and Jones (2012), the presence of immigrants' ethnic characteristics increased the volume of TDE activity. According to MacRaild (2006), among the main facilitating factors are advances in globalisation, technology, mass communication and telecommunication, which have brought about faster ways of travelling and sharing information between a COR and COO (activity (see also Bauböck and Faist, 2010). Schiller, Basch and Blanc (1995) argue that the diffusion of culture is another important facilitator. The spread of the beliefs and social customs of one culture to different receiving countries contributes to entrepreneurial activity that cuts across national boundaries. Nigerians residing in Blanchardstown are an example of this. The range of transnational activities in which migrants engage also varies in relation to the compatibility of their cultural norms and values with global culture. Conversely, Levitt, DeWind, and Vertovec, (2003) point out that the

proliferation of global models of organisation and governance now provides migrants with new models for their TDE activity.

The role of governments around the world in promoting TDE activity has been identified as another important facilitator of TDE activity (Portes and Guarnizo, 1991; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2012; Peroni et al., 2016). Brouthers and Nakos (2004). Sternberg (2011) argues that policies directed at creating supportive infrastructure for small businesses also increase TDE activity. Portes and Jensen (1989) and Portes and Shafer (2007) emphasise that government policies alone are not sufficient, since the level of a COR's economic development is also pivotal. Additionally, elements such as the market entry mode, entrepreneurial culture, market size, capital intensity and support agencies play important roles in the development of TDE activity. Undoubtedly, the enactment of policies supporting immigrant businesses and the accessibility of information regarding these policies are key to the development of TDE activity. Section 3.4.4 below considers the corresponding role of sending countries in encouraging TDE activity.

Any satisfactory explanation of the factors facilitating TDE activity must take account also of the geopolitical dimension (Drakopoulou Dodd and Anderson, 2007). For example, international organisations such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the European Union (EU) insist that free movement of people and the removal of red tape that hinders start-ups are key to promoting transnational trade. In recent times, the transfer of people, culture, knowledge and resources between COR and COO has grown to an extent previously unimaginable, thereby creating new opportunities for TDE activity (Nielsen and Riddle 2010; Bauböck and Faist 2010; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015).

3.3.5 Inhibitors of TDE Activity

The cost of travel between a COR and COO, a lack of security in the COO and insufficient understanding of the COR business culture and available support mechanisms have

all been suggested as significant inhibitors of TDE activity (Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2016). Studies by Vertovec (2004) and Gielis (2009) demonstrated that travel between a COR and COO by TDE practitioners can be both tiring and time consuming. Improved access to long-distance telephone and facsimile communication, as well as electronic mail, provides a technological alternative to the need for constant travel. However, many TDE practitioners are still forced to contend with limited infrastructure, resources, financial and human capital that inhibit higher volumes of transnational commerce (Portes, Guarnizo and Landolt, 1999).

Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) and Portes et al. (1999) argue that an overdependence on immigrants' own culture can act as a barrier to TDE activity in a COR. As Portes and Sensenbrenner found in their study of Cuban Americans in Miami, their initial overdependence on IE resources, infrastructure and environment constrained TDE activity and eventually obliged them to look beyond their own enclaves. In the study of Islamic butchers in the Netherlands by Kloosterman and Rath (1999), it was suggested that an over-reliance on their own culturally conditioned way of engaging in business was the main barrier to engagement with the wider COR community. Thus, while COO cultural predispositions can be important facilitating factors for TDE activity, they can also reduce immigrant entrepreneurs' ability to operate beyond their enclave environment (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Light and Gold, 2000; Neuman, 2016; Ye Liu et al., 2018).

An OECD study of small businesses in Luxemburg and Italy found that overregulation and lack of policies supporting immigrant businesses inhibited TDE activity. Reducing the regulatory costs involved in starting a business was found to be a key to increasing TDE activity in those countries (OECD, 2008). Manolova, Brush, Edelman and Greene (2002), Burt (2000), Hintu et al. (2004), Jones and Conway (2004) and Saxenian (2000; 2005; 2011) contend that entrepreneurs are more likely to be successful when the market is not overregulated. In a study of immigrants in Sweden, Neuman (2016) found that immigrants are more willing to learn Swedish and integrate with the mainstream population when the right policies are in place. The

OECD (2008) and Zapata-Barrero and Rezaei (2019) argue that heavy-handed regulation creates a hostile environment that often undermines entrepreneurial initiative, while policies that encourage entrepreneurship act as a draw to TDE activity.

Aldrich and Waldinger (1990), Light and Gold (2000), Neuman (2016) and Ye Liu et al. (2018) claim that the presence or absence of ethnic networks and cultural resources play a very significant role in the growth or limitation of TDE activity. Furthermore, personal behavioural factors (e.g. self-efficacy, risk-taking, innovation, achievement orientation, etc.) are important in entrepreneurial motivation (Chen et al., 1998). Arguably, a motivated and self-believing individual will be more willing to engage in TDE activity. Bandura (1986) discusses how self-motivated individuals aim for higher goals (see also Krueger et al. (1994). McGee et al. (2009) emphasise that self-belief also enhances entrepreneurial decision-making. The upshot of this discussion is the fact that the absence of COO cultural resources and good, stable policies supporting immigrant businesses will hinder the development of TDE activity in a COR. On the other hand, it could be argued that the need to discover ways of overcoming such limitations can be turned into a motivating factor for prospective TDE practitioners.

3.4 The Process Perspective

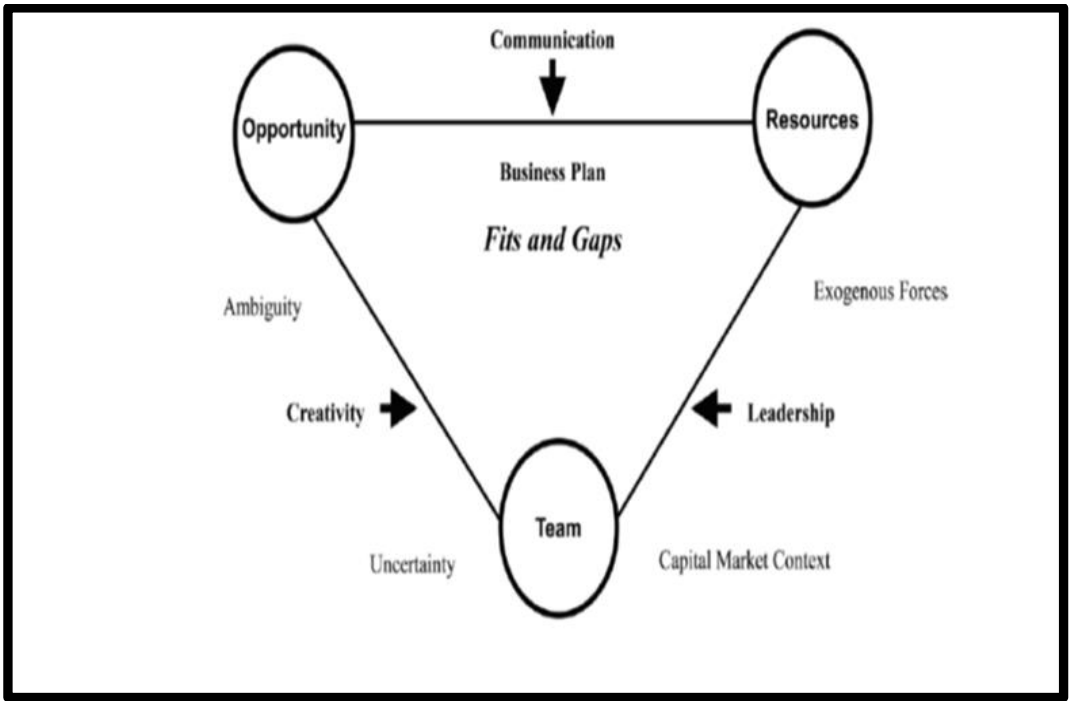
The entrepreneurship process refers to all the functions and activities associated with perceiving commercial opportunities and creating organisations to pursue them (Bygrave, 2003). It is a key component in the creation of new enterprises (Davidsson, 2004). Shane (2003) describes the entrepreneurship process as an intersection between the enterprising individual and an opportunity. Although entrepreneurship and TDE processes are similar in some respects, TDE differentiates itself by its ability to act in multiple social contexts (Guarnizo, 1997; Drori et al., 2006). In order to clarify the differences between the entrepreneurial and TDE processes, this section is divided into two parts. Section 3.4.1 analyses the entrepreneurship process using a models suggested by Timmons (1996), McMullan and Long (1990) and Shane (2003). Section

3.4.2 will focus on TDE with the aid of Bourdieu's *Theory of Practice* (1997) and the expanded version thereof proposed by Patel and Conklin (2009).

3.4.1 Entrepreneurship Process

The entrepreneurship process encompasses the various stages involved in the start-up journey of an entrepreneurial activity and depicts entrepreneurship as an intersection between the enterprising individual and opportunity. Bygrave (2003) describes the entrepreneurial process as "all the functions, activities, and action associated with perceiving opportunities and creating organisations to pursue them". For example, the entrepreneurial model proposed by Timmons (1996) highlights the team, the opportunity and the resources as three key elements. The model suggests that an entrepreneur emerges when a business start-up requires a creator, influencer and identifier of opportunities. Timmons defines the overall entrepreneurial process in terms of identifying market opportunities, soliciting capital and then deciding on a variable product or service for the intended market. The model regards entrepreneurship as a process that involves team building, acknowledgement of opportunity and acquisition of resources.

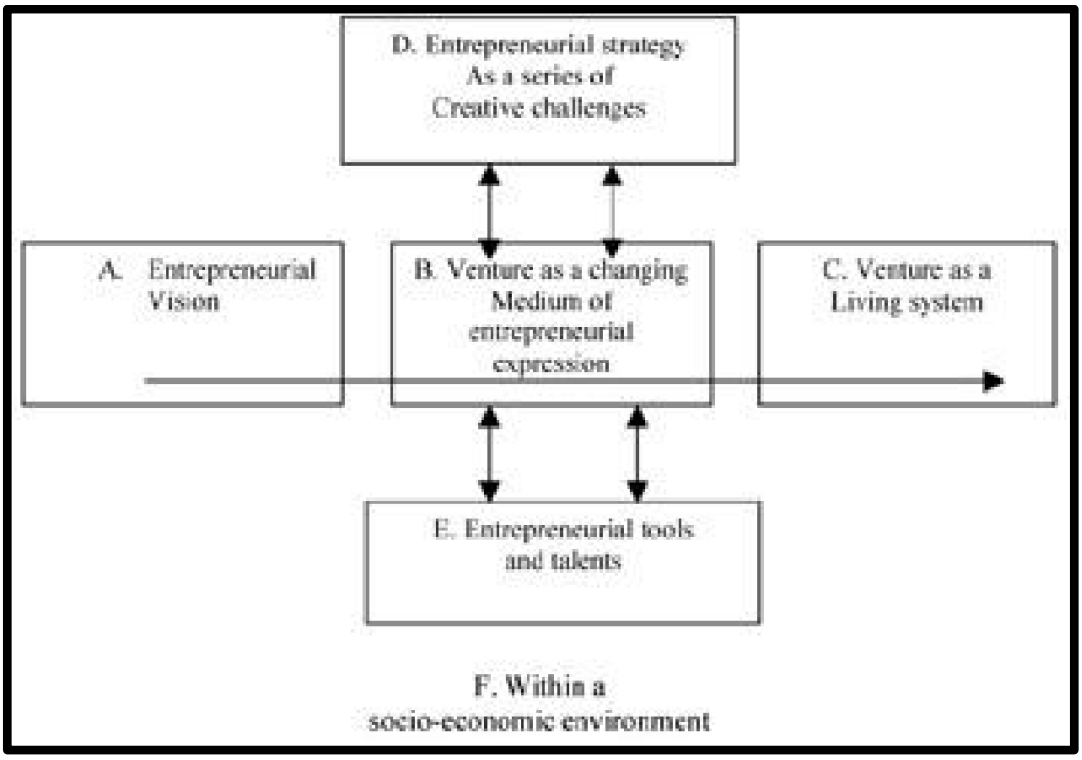
Figure 3.1 Timmons' Model of the Entrepreneurship Process



Source: Timmons (1996)

The McMullan and Long (1990) model distinguishes three stages in the entrepreneurial process: a beginning, middle and end. Whether or not an individual will start a business depends upon how the idea of a new venture begins to form, how initial challenges and obstacles are addressed, how necessary resources are acquired and, finally, the extent to which the socio-economic environment aligns with the envisaged venture. Thus, this model views the entrepreneurial process as a combination of entrepreneurial capacity and actual business opportunity

Figure 3.2 McMullan and Long: Modelling the Entrepreneurial Process

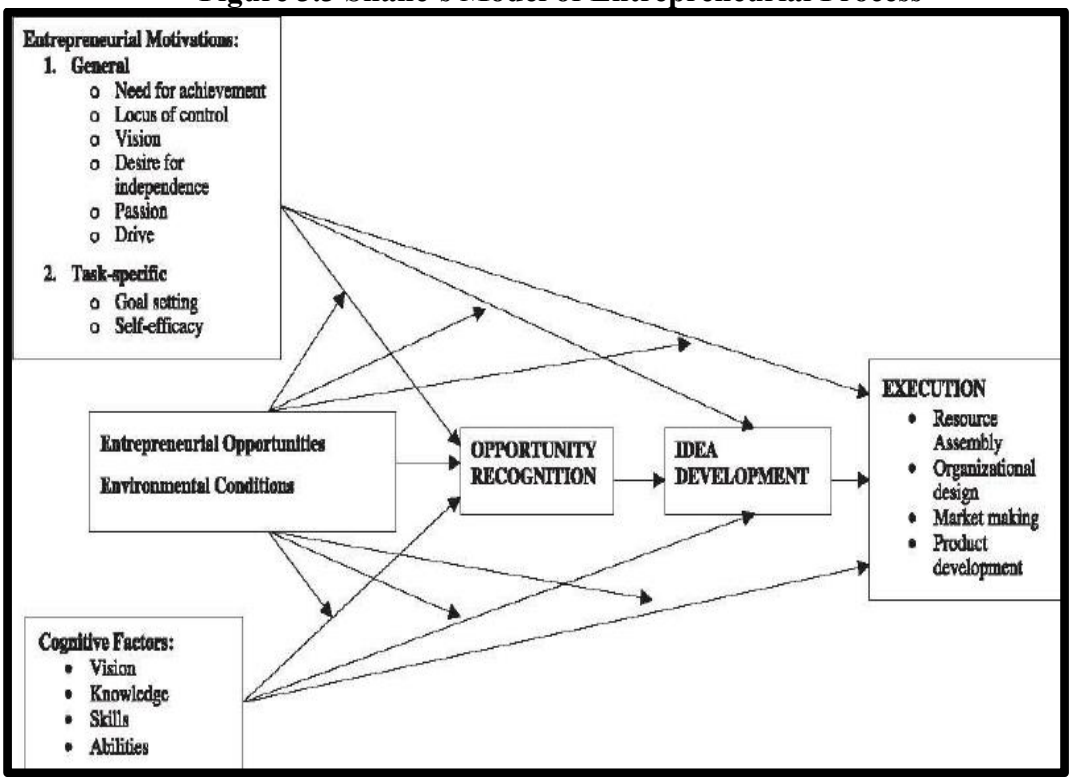


Source: McMullan and Long: Modelling (1990)

Shane (2003) proposes a unifying theoretical framework, dividing the elements to be considered into two general classifications: (1) individual-centric; and (2) environmental-centric. Shane sets out the considerations that a unifying framework must account for: (1) the existence of profit-based (objective) opportunities that may be exploited through the application of new means-end relationships; (2) variations in people's willingness and ability to act; (3) a capacity to embrace uncertainty and risk, (4) a capacity for purposive organising, and (5) a

requirement for some form of innovation. This model does not assume that: (1) the exploitation of opportunities requires the creation of a new enterprise; (2) implementation (as distinct from origination) does not have to be undertaken by a sole entrepreneur; (3) successful outcomes are not a necessary condition of entrepreneurship; and (4) factors that explain one part of the entrepreneurial process do not have to explain others (see Shane's model in Figure 3.3 below)

Figure 3.3 Shane's Model of Entrepreneurial Process



Source: Adapted from Source: Shane, 2003

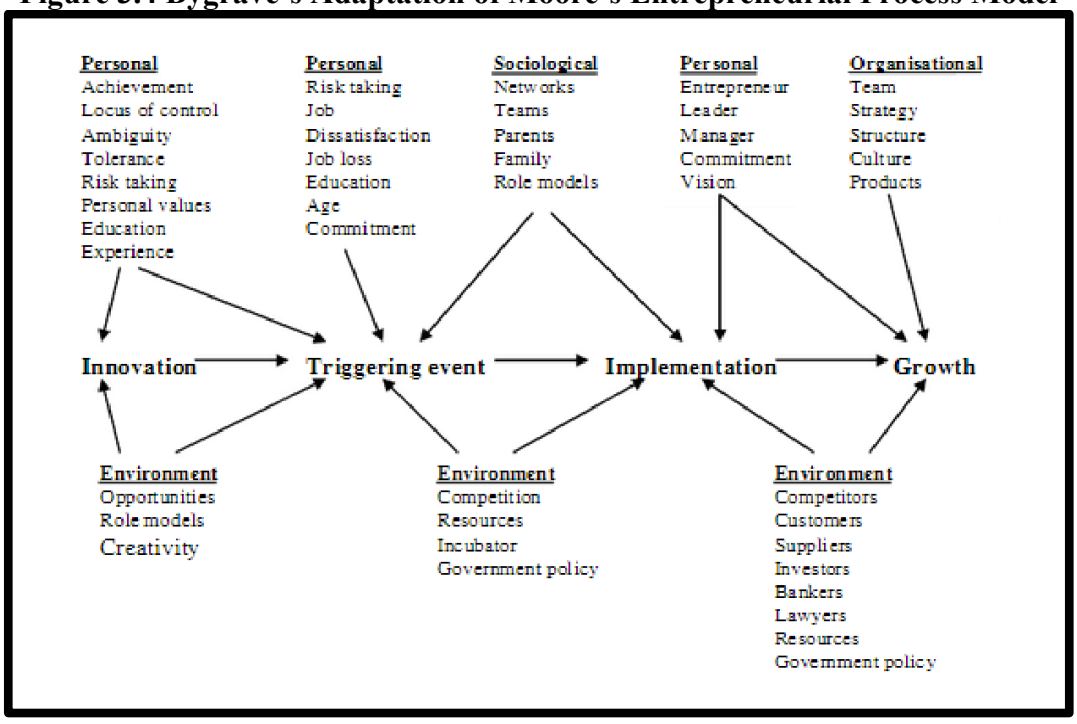
Using this model, Shane highlights a series of potentially overlapping and recursive stages, defined in terms of the existence, discovery and exploitation of opportunities, accompanied by resource acquisition, strategic planning, organisation and, finally, performance. The model also incorporates the moderating and mediating effects of interaction between the individual entrepreneur and the environment. The intention of Shane's model is to provide a general framework that is aligned with any new venture creation process, rather than a descriptive account of what occurs in any specific new venture creation.

In his longitudinal study of entrepreneurial achievement motivation, McClelland (1965) identifies the following key factors: (1) initiative in seeking new opportunities; (2) capacity to identify opportunities; (3) ability to react to frustration and stress; (4) insistence on quality and

efficiency; (5) commitment; (6) establishing goals; (7) planning and systematic monitoring; (8) networking and persuasiveness; and (9) independence. Gartner (1985) identifies six process components generic to all entrepreneurial venture creation: (1) entrepreneurs locate business opportunities, (2) accumulate resources, (3) market products and services, (4) produce products, (5) build organisations, and (6) respond to governments' and societies' needs. Gartner believes the entrepreneurial process is multidimensional, driven by individual expertise and focused on the organisational emergence of new, independent, profit-oriented ventures.

Bygrave (2004), adapting an earlier model proposed by Moore (1986), presents the entrepreneurial process as a series of consecutive stages: (1) the idea or conception of the business, (2) the event that triggers the operation, (3) implementation and growth. Bygrave (2004) claims that, like human behaviour in general, entrepreneurial traits are shaped by a combination of personal attributes and the particular environments in which entrepreneurs find themselves. The models discussed above refer to the entrepreneurial traits and processes in general. But the particular case of TDE, in which the capacity to operate in multiple culturally conditioned commercial environments is an additional essential requirement, is now considered

Figure 3.4 Bygrave's Adaptation of Moore's Entrepreneurial Process Model



Source: Bygrave and Zacharakis, (2004)

The various models discussed above suggest that the entrepreneurial process is a set of sequential stages, from the conception of the business, through the events that trigger its implementation, operations and growth. A logically planned entrepreneurial process provides an entrepreneur with foresight to identify the potential demand for goods and services, aids in planning and launching new ventures, and articulates the stages of identifying resources, managing the enterprise and harvesting profits (Shane 2003; Bygrave and Zacharakis 2004). However, while these process models are applicable to entrepreneurship in general, they do not take sufficient account of cross-border factors involved in TDE. These specific elements of TDE process are examined in the following section.

3.4.2 Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurship (TDE) Process

The TDE process includes all of the elements of entrepreneurship process identified in the previous section, as well as an ability to operate within both COR and COO cultures. Guarnizo (1997), Drori et al. (2006) and Patel and Conklin (2009) argue that, unlike entrepreneurial process in general, the TDE process is situated within a specific social field. They define a social field as any environment that provides the immigrant entrepreneur with an opportunity to leverage capital. The studies by Portes et al., (2002), Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) and Ye Liu et al., (2018) suggest that the process of TDE is contingent on individual human capital, together with the size and reach of the individual entrepreneur's social networks. Both Patel and Conklin (2009) and Ye Liu et al. (2018) argue that, while network size and human capital are crucial components of successful TDE activity, they can also reduce the degree of effectiveness when not managed properly. Table 3.3 combines elements of Bourdieu's 'theory of practice' with the work of Patel and Conklin on TDE in order to illustrate why sensitivity to location, culture, established social structures is so crucial (Bourdieu (1977); Patel and Conklin (2009), especially when operational in multiple social fields.

In every social field, there are specific rules regarding each type of activity (Bourdieu,

1997). In the TDE process, mutual dependencies across different networks may mean that the characteristics of one network may compensate for those lacking in another, thereby allowing for additional flexibility in an entrepreneur's efforts (Patel and Conklin, 2009; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015).

Table 3.3 Essential Elements in TDE Entrepreneurial Process

Field	Capital	Habitus
Social structures in a particular field; macro level (Bourdieu 1977)	Country knowledge in entrepreneurial activity facilitates exploitation of supporting agencies and infrastructure (Bourdieu 1977)	The embodied history that is manifested in a system of thinking, feeling, perceiving and behaving; micro level (Bourdieu 1977)
Operating in two social fields generates knowledge and opportunity for TDE activity (Patel and Conklin 2009)	'Bifocal' understanding increases the ability to manage power through balancing social networks. Bifocality depends on the ability of the individual entrepreneur to exploit the processes of resources acquisition available to them (Patel and Conklin 2009)	'Bifocal' understanding of multiple strategies appropriate for each of the social fields implicated in transnational entrepreneurial activity (Patel and Conklin 2009)

Source: Adapted from Bourdieu (1977) and Patel and Conklin (2009)

In TDE activity, managing power relations, acquiring capital and balancing social networks in the COR and COO are all subject to the rules governing specific activities in each of the social fields involved in the enterprise (Bourdieu 1997; Guarnizo, 1997). From these perspectives it could be argued that the TDE process is largely determined by the compatibility to manage practices with its entrepreneurial ambitions in dual environmental settings.

3.4.3 Influential and Determinate Factors in TDE Process

In the current global context, there is increasingly less incentive to invest in national economies alone (Sassen, 1991; Chunda, 2018). A variety of factors (e.g., human capital, ethnic resources and stable and supportive government policies) may influence an individual's decision to exploit a transnational opportunity (Ardagna and Lusardi, 2008; Kirzner, 1985; Zapata-Barrero and Rezaei, 2019). However, it is the initial identification of that opportunity that can be the critical determinate factor in the entrepreneurial process (Nkongolo-Bakenda

and Chrysostome, 2013). The concentration of immigrants within a specific geographical area resulting in the formation of an enclave, creates conditions that facilitate opportunity generation (Waldinger et al., (1990; Neuman, 2016, Osaghae and Cooney, 2019). Numerous studies have found that immigrant concentration creates network ties that include social/ethnic capital and a demand for products or services that attract a diaspora entrepreneur to TDE activity (Begley and Boyd, 1987; Burt, 1997; Coleman, 1988; Herron and Robinson, 1993; Honig, 1998; Neuman, 2016). Conversely, studies by Gold (2001), Guarnizo et al. (2003), Light and Gold (2000), Yeung (2002), Kyle (1999), Levitt (1997) and Ballard (2000) found that the lack of contextual factors such as an ethnic network hinders TDE growth and limits its capacity to expand beyond the enclave environment. Thus, ethnic networks and cultural resources play very significant roles in the growth or limitation of TDE activity (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Light and Gold, 2000; Neuman, 2016; Ye Liu et al., 2018).

An OECD study of small businesses in Luxemburg and Italy found that a reduction in the regulatory costs involved in starting a business are key to successful start-up activity (OECD, 2008). The study found also that a relaxation in the Italian regulatory framework in 1998 increased the volume of immigrant entrepreneurship in Italy. Studies by Manolova, Brush, Edelman and Greene (2002), Burt (2000), Hintu et al. (2004), Jones and Conway (2004) and Saxenian (2000; 2005; 2011) have claimed that entrepreneurs are more likely to be unsuccessful when the market is not over regulated. Werner et al. (1996), Venkataraman and Van de Ven (1998), Zahra (1993 and 2000) and Zahra (2000) all found that heavy regulation creates a hostile environment that often undermines entrepreneurial development. Stable policies that encourage entrepreneurship act as a potential draw to TDE (OECD, 2008; Zapata-Barrero and Rezaei, 2019).

The study by Greene, Brush and Brown (1997) and Brouthers and Nakos (2004) indicates that structured government policies, market entry mode, market size, cultural distance, capital intensity, network (e.g. the Chinese quanxi) and support agencies all influence TDE

activity.

Table 3.4 Key Influential and Determinate Factors in TDE Process

Factors	Definition
Ethnic Enclave	The concentration of individuals from the same ethnic group within a specific geographical location (Clark, Drinkwater, 2000).
Regulation in Host Country	The nature of regulation in the host country can influence a migrant's decision to become an entrepreneur and how successful they are at it. (Klapper, et al. 2006).
Embeddedness	Embeddedness in the socioeconomic and politico-institutional environment of the country of settlement (Kloosterman and Rath, 1999).
Support and Infrastructure	The level of support agencies and infrastructure in the host country (Gold and Light, 2000).
Market Opportunity	The presence of multiple ethnic resources, borders, ethnic groups, cultural networks, support agencies and infrastructure (Light and Gold, 2000).
Ethnic cultural resources and networks	Availability of COO ethnic resources and networks facilitate growth of TDE activity (Greene, Brush and Brown, 1997; Light and Gold, 2000)
COR business regulation	Local COR regulation may facilitate or impede exploitation of entrepreneurial activity (Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2013)
Source: Adapted from Literature Review	

However, regulations aimed at simplifying entrepreneurial activity may be either a help or a hindrance, depending on how they are implemented (Newland and Tanaka, 2010; Plaza and Ratha, 2011; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2012).

Embeddedness in an enclave's ethnic culture plays a pivotal role regarding whether an individual decides to engage in TDE (Kloosterman and Rath, 1990, Kloosterman, Rath and Leun, 1999). The demand for small-scale intra-enclave commercial activity, freed from competition with mainstream COR entrepreneurs, has been flagged as an important stage in the process that may eventually lead to TDE (Evans, 1989; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Aldrich et al, 1989). As indicated in Table 3.4 above, embeddedness in the socio-economic and politico-institutional environment of the COR is also a crucially important factor in determining TDE activity. As Kloosterman et al. (1999) found in their study of immigrant entrepreneurship in the Netherlands, the embeddedness of Islamic entrepreneurs in their cultural and religious beliefs was influential in start-ups and TDE activity. A study of the ethnic black population in the UK by Ram, Barrett and Jones (2012) found that the enactment of policies favouring immigrant entrepreneurship increased the volume of entrepreneurial activity in this group (see also Scarman, 1981).

Research on Colombian, Dominican and Salvadoran immigrants in the USA by Portes, Haller and Guarnizo (2001) suggest that they are drawn to entrepreneurship as a result of COO

demographic conditions in the COR. The studies by Landolt (2000), Ballard (2000), Portes et al. (2001) and Glover, Gott, Loizillon, Portes, Price, Spencer, Srinivasan and Willis, (2001) substantiate the view that accumulated human capital, resulting from years of education and residence in a COR, is a significant factor in promoting transnational entrepreneurial activity. Conversely, Abdel-Khalik (2003) illustrates how the lack of developed human capital hinders the acquisition of entrepreneurial skills. A lack of opportunities to enhance innate personal attributes through education and experience is a barrier to entrepreneurial venture creation (Dichtl et al, 1990; Reuber and Fischer, 1997; Bauerschmidt and Hofer, 1998; Manolova et al., 2002; Coviello and Munro, 1997; Saxenian, 2000; 2005, 2011; Burt. 2000; Hintu et al., 2004; Jones and Conway, 2004).

Table 3.5 Helps and Hindrances for TDE

Factors	Influential	Determinants
Regulatory bodies and business support infrastructure	When properly implemented can lead to more start-ups	Can hinder start-ups when not implemented properly.
Access to finance	Ready access to financial capital aids immigrant start-up	Lack of finance discourages immigrant start-up
Market barriers	Good credit history, ethnic networks, and resources when present aid immigrant entrepreneurial activity	Lack of ethnic resources discourages immigrant entrepreneurial activity
Cultural barriers	Presence of cultural traits preventing native COR entrepreneurs from entering the immigrant market serves as draw to immigrant entrepreneurial activity in a host country	A free and competitive market involving native COR entrepreneurs might create too much competition for the immigrant entrepreneur
Ethnic network and Trustworthiness	Presence foster communication and venture growth within an enclave community	Can hinder community and trustworthiness for the enclave entrepreneur
Skills barriers	Previous experience of business management aids in entrepreneurial activity in a host country	Lack of formation and/or experience can lead to failure of a business
Source: The Missing Entrepreneurs: OECD/EU, (2014)		

While the number of factors in Table 3.5 could be multiplied, those included suffice to indicate that immigrant enclave resources, embeddedness in ethnic capital and the availability of support agencies, infrastructures and market niches in COR are all factors that can influence or determine the success of transnational entrepreneurial activity (Kanter, 1983; Clydesdale, 2008; Newland and Tanaka, 2010).

3.4.4 The Role of Sending Countries in TDE Process

In recent times, sending countries with high rates of migration (such as China, India and

Mexico) have implemented policies aimed at attracting their diaspora to invest in their COO. Efforts to re-integrate and assimilate diaspora entrepreneurs into COO economies have added a new dimension to TDE (Gillespie et al., 1999; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Levitt and de la Dehesa (2003) demonstrate how these policies are having a huge impact on the economic, political and social life of sending countries. In the cases of China, India and Mexico, strengthening commercial relations with their respective Diasporas has contributed significantly to economic growth and social change (Jones-Correa, 1998; Suarez-Orosco, 1998; Waldinger, 1997; IMO Report, 2014). Mexico and China have each adopted a version of a 'three-for-one' policy, whereby each diaspora dollar invested in development is matched by a dollar each from federal, state and local government (Iskander, 2010; Delano, 2011; Lee and Zhou, 2016). While such policies certainly increase the developmental impact of transnational projects, some commentators suggest that they may also restrict the scope of TDE activity (Delgado-Wise and Cypher, 2007; De Hass, 2012).

Colombia and Ecuador are among several Latin American countries that have implemented programmes and policies, such as the granting of dual citizenship, the right to vote and run for public office from abroad, aimed at improving diaspora links (Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Studies conducted by Levitt and Schiller (2004), Orozco (2008) and the World Bank (2012) found that granting citizenship rights to nationals residing abroad has increased diaspora investment in these countries. Furthermore, the relaxation of laws and regulations governing nationality, together with the reforming of ministerial and consular services in order to be more responsive to emigrants' needs, encourages members of a diaspora to return to their COO with technological and other skills acquired while working abroad (Aikins and Whites, 2011; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015).

Faced with stiff competition in winning foreign direct investment (FDI), sending countries that formerly ignored their diaspora have implemented new policies to strengthen ties (Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Some of the largest recent investments in Afghanistan are

attributable to Afghans in the diaspora (Riddel et al., 2010). In 2005, the Indian government created a cabinet-level Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) to manage and coordinate interaction with the diaspora (Lacroix, 2005; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Morocco previously prohibited its expatriate population from adopting European citizenship, but now permits dual nationality and promotes links with diaspora organisations in order to encourage investment and the repatriation of skills acquired abroad (Lacroix, 2005, cited in Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2016. p.15). Similarly, studies by Bloemrad (2006), Escobar (2007) and Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) show that the acceptance of dual citizenship has increased diaspora investment in Latin American countries like Colombia, the Dominican Republic and El Salvador.

On the COR side, some Western European countries have enacted immigrant-friendly policies and provided resources for the implementation of philanthropic projects and the creation of transnational organisations aimed at strengthening ties between these receiving countries and the COOs of their immigrant populations (Godin et al, 2016; Cebolla and Lopez-Sala, 2016). Of course, many receiving countries are, simultaneously, sending countries with their own Diasporas. European countries such as France, Germany, Ireland, Greece, Italy, and Portugal have promulgated a range of legal measures to delineate categories of citizenship and nationality, frequently granting ample citizenship rights to those residing abroad (IMO Report, 2014). Thus, a number of sending countries' governments now regards their Diasporas as a significant driving force in COO economic development (Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Policies aimed at attracting diaspora investment are, potentially, of enormous assistance in encouraging TDE activity. Whether or not these new policies transform grassroots diaspora organisations into a new layer of quasi-official bureaucracy or a form of sponsored transnationalism, remains to be seen (Delgado-Wise and Cypher, 2007; De Hass, 2012).

Section 3.4 discussed entrepreneurship and TDE processes. An entrepreneurship process motivates the entrepreneur to exert greater effort in achieving chosen entrepreneurial

goals (McClelland 1965). The various models highlighted key stages in the entrepreneurship process, such as opportunity formation and the transformation of ideas into reality. 'Opportunity discovery or creation' was understood as a process of creative discovery Kirzner (1973), together with the alertness, willingness and commitments of an individual to exploit a market niche (Schumpeter 1934). The following section defines 'entrepreneurial opportunity', explores the concept of opportunity within the TDE process and examines the motivation underlying TDE activity.

3.5 The Concept of Entrepreneurial Opportunity

Much discussion on the topic of entrepreneurial opportunity has centred on whether it is created or discovered. The term discovery is frequently used in relation to entrepreneurial opportunity (Alvarez, Barney, McBride, and Wuebker, 2014; Davidsson and Wiklund, 2009; McMullen, Plummer and Acs, 2007; Dew and Forster, 2012). However, explaining opportunity in this way has come under fire by critics of the idea that opportunities exist objectively, already 'out there', independently of the entrepreneurial process. The discovery approach was criticised also for portraying entrepreneurs as having special cognitive capabilities that, supposedly, allow them to foresee opportunities in an otherwise uncertain world (Shane, 2003: p.45; Chiles, Bluedorn and Gupta, 2007; McMullen and Shepherd, 2006). Alvarez and Barney (2007) argue that opportunities are endogenously created, not discovered. Davidsson (2004), Sarasvathy and Dew (2005), Garud and Giuliani (2013) and Alvarez and Barney (2013), using a relational and temporal approach, suggest that creation and discovery of opportunity occur simultaneously.

A central issue in this debate is the extent to which opportunities are objective or subjective, or both. There is also the related question of whether business ideas are different from opportunities (Shane, 2012; Alvarez and Barney, 2007). For Dimov (2012), opportunity emerges as part of a stream of continuous development and modification of ideas. Lumpkin and Lichtenstein (2005) suggest that it is the result of an ability to recognise a good idea and translate it into a profitable business proposal. Kirzner (1997) suggests that opportunity is

discovered or exogenously recognised, when entrepreneurs seize upon opportunities to which they have been alerted. Santos and Eisenhardt (2005) believe that opportunity formation occurs only when an entrepreneur perceives new opportunities for the creation of value and the construction of a market around these opportunities. 'Effectuation' theorists, such as Garud and Karnøe (2003) and Sarasvathy and Dew (2005), argue that an entrepreneurship opportunity arises due to a combination of exogenous circumstances, experimentation and incremental learning generated by taking advantage of resources at hand. According to Schumpeter (1934), and Nicolaou, Shane, Cherkas and Spector (2009), opportunity need not always be a breakthrough, but can sometimes consist of pairing a traditional idea with a new approach, or combining existing ideas in a new way.

All of these views underline the need to clarify whether opportunity is an inseparable and a vital component of entrepreneurial flair, rather than a mechanical process of meeting unsatisfied needs (Santos and Eisenhardt, 2005). In the entrepreneurial context, opportunity is usually understood as a capacity to exploit a set of circumstances with uncertain outcome, requiring commitment of resources that involves exposure to risk, creation and discovery, and leading to profitable entrepreneurial activity (Casson, 1982; Kirzner, 1979; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Casson and Wadeson, 2007). The present research adopts the definition of entrepreneurial opportunity by Ramoglou and Tsang (2016): *"Entrepreneurial opportunity is the propensity of market demands to be actualised into profits through the introduction of novel products or services"* (Ramoglou and Tsang, 2016, p.413). This definition suggests that market niches allow entrepreneurial activity to generate new opportunities, rather than merely discover them. Thus, it preserves an essential reference to both external market conditions and individual entrepreneurial qualities.

3.5.1 Understanding TDE Opportunity

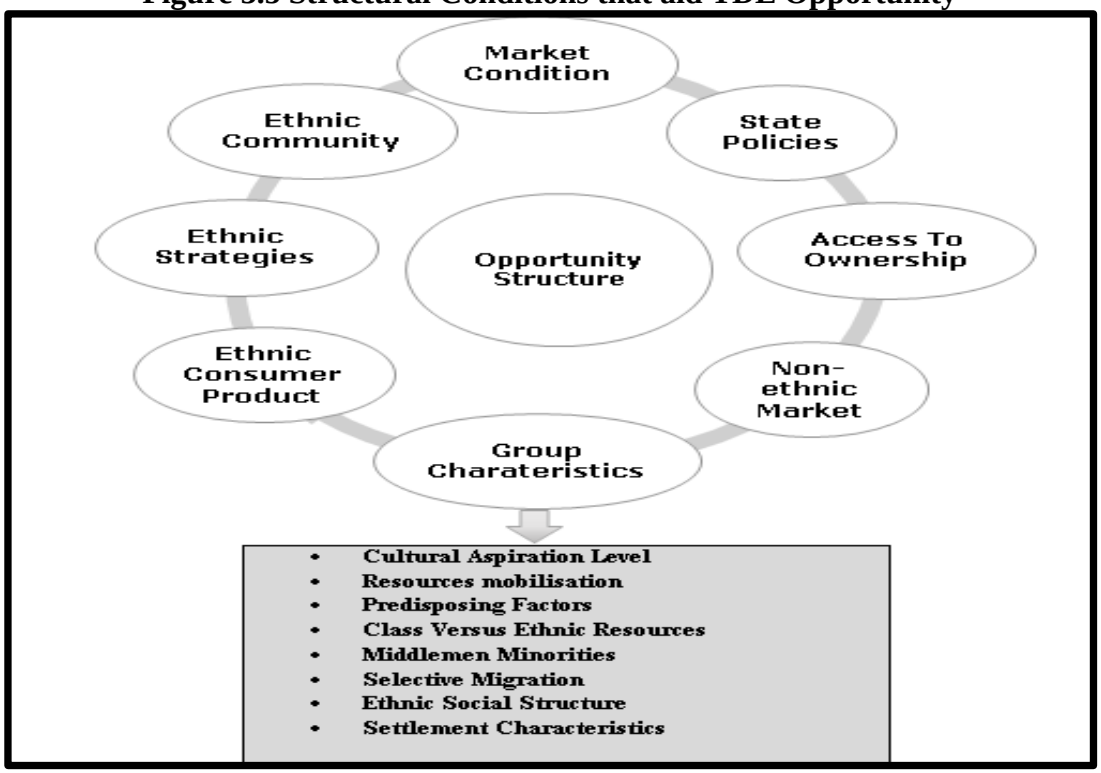
Some significant recent studies have changed our perspective on entrepreneurial opportunity. Alvarez and Barney (2007), for example, argue that opportunities are

endogenously created rather than discovered. Sarasvathy and Dew (2005), Guard and Giuliani (2013), Davidsson (2001), and Alvarez and Barney (2013) adopt a relational and temporal approach in order to demonstrate that the process of opportunity formation involves both creation and discovery, and that creation and discovery occur simultaneously. Santos and Eisenhardt (2005) believe that opportunity occurs only when an entrepreneur perceives an opportunity for the creation of value and the construction of a new market. According to Hulbert et al., (1997), opportunity is a response to an unsatisfied need perceived as potentially profitable. Shane et al., (2003) offer a robust argument against this view, suggesting that opportunity is not a process of meeting an unsatisfied need, but rather a process that helps in identifying market niches, creating new products or introducing an existing product into new market. Lumpkin and Lichtenstein (2005: p.457) define the capacity to exploit entrepreneurial opportunity as *"the ability to identify a good idea and transform it into business concepts that add value and generate revenue".* All of these views emphasise the importance of opportunity in the entrepreneurship process. According to Schumpeter (1934), Nicolaou et al. (2009), Davidsson (2009) and Carter and Jones-Evans (2012), entrepreneurial opportunity does not need to always be a breakthrough, since it may sometimes consist of matching a traditional idea, or a combination of existing ideas, with a new approach.

TDE activity entails the ability of the individual to use enclave resources to identify niches and create an enclave market around those niches (Evans, 1989). As the foregoing discussion has indicated, individual entrepreneurial traits, available enclave resources and networking possibilities are all important factors in a TDE enterprise (Nicolaou et al., 2009). According to Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) and Aldrich et al. (1989), reliance on co-ethnic habits by immigrants creates a market niche that encourages diaspora entrepreneurship. COR policies supporting business start-ups facilitate IE entrepreneurial activity (Newland and Tanaka, 2010; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2012). On the other hand, COO policies encouraging diaspora investment present immigrant entrepreneurs with the possibility of

exploiting their familiarity with both COR and COO social fields in order to engage in transnational entrepreneurial activity (Gillespie et al., 1999; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Although there are multiple factors that could influence TDE activity, the present study restricts itself to those that were found to have strong research support. As shown in Figure 3.5, the presence of immigrant structural conditions within an enclave facilitates opportunities for diaspora entrepreneurship. Waldinger et al. (1990) and Neuman (2016) found that group characteristics and ethnic strategies are key components in TDE activity. Figure 3.5 also indicates that the process of ethnic entrepreneurship and opportunity formation result from a complex interplay of politico-economic and socio-cultural factors within unique historical conditions encountered at the time of immigration (Waldinger, Aldrich, and Ward, 1990, p.31-32). This interactive model is an important step towards a more comprehensive theoretical approach to explaining TDE activity (Rath, 2002a, p.9).

Figure 3.5 Structural Conditions that aid TDE Opportunity



Adopted from Waldinger et al., (1990), Portes and Sensenbrenner, (1993) and Neuman (2016)

McClelland (1965) suggests that an individual's motives are driven by personality traits, while Nicolaou et al, (2009) identify personal knowledge, attitudes, behaviour and networking

capability as key factors in opportunity formation. What this suggests is that personal traits and cultural attributes found within a COR environment often motivate entrepreneurial opportunity. The following section explores significant factors that motivate TDE activity within a COR context.

3.5.2 TDE Motivation

Shane et al., (2003) extend the range of entrepreneurial traits beyond cognitive abilities and membership of social networks to include indirect motivations. Among such motivations one may include personal needs which an individual may seek to satisfy by means of entrepreneurial activity. According to the original theory of needs developed by Murray (1938) and developed later by McClelland (1965), any human being is driven by one of three kinds of need: (1) a need to affiliate; (2) a need to achieve; and (3) need to be powerful. McClelland claims that the drive to achieve is a defining trait of entrepreneurs. Other authors and scholars have claimed that the need for power constitutes an unconscious motivation that fuels entrepreneurial enterprise (Hornaday and Aboud, 1971). The need for power may also play an important role in how an entrepreneur perceives positive or negative reinforcement in the course of venture creation (Ellen, 2010). Shane et al., (2003) refer to the entrepreneurial motivation as the forces or drives within the entrepreneur that shape the direction, intensity and persistence of voluntary behaviour. McClelland explains that motives may be explicit and openly exhibited, or implicit and largely unconscious. Explicit motives help to determine goal-setting and goal execution activities, whereas implicit motives refer to an individual's personal developmental. Sokolowski et al. (2000) distinguishes between motives stemming from a desire for positive experiences (hope) and those rooted in avoidance of negative experiences (fear).

The personal behavioural factor (e.g. self-efficacy, risk-taking, innovation, achievement orientation, etc.) is important in enclave entrepreneurial motivation (Chen et al., 1998). Arguably, a motivated entrepreneur will be willing to invest a high level of effort (intensity) for a prolonged period of time (persistence) in order to achieve a particular goal (direction) when

individual and environmental factors align to indicate an opportunity for entrepreneurial activity (Dimov, 2012). The belief (self-efficacy) of an individual entrepreneur in his/her capacity to execute behaviours necessary to produce specific performance results draws that individual towards transnational entrepreneurship (Bandura, 1986). Bandura maintains that self-efficacy improves an individual's overall performance, decreases fear of uncertainty, helps to sustain persistent behaviour in times of uncertainty and motivates the individual to aim for higher goals (see also Krueger et al. (1994). McGee et al. (2009) emphasise that self-belief also enhances entrepreneurial decision-making.

As indicated in Figure 3.5 earlier, external factors also serve as motivators in TDE activity. The changing nature of international migration and an increasingly globalised business environment obviously impact on entrepreneurial motivation (Yeung, 2002; Zahra and George, 2002; Rezaei and Goli, 2018). Improvements in transport and communications, as well as the revolution in information technology, open a door to hitherto unimaginable entrepreneurial ventures. The increasingly heterogeneous demographic profile of many formerly mono-cultural cities and nations allows for a range of cultural, social and material supports (Simba and Ojong, 2018). In any particular COR, a healthy economy, sympathetic immigrants/diaspora policies, properly implemented regulations, etc., all help to motivate diaspora entrepreneurship (Waldinger et al., 1990; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2012; Neuman, 2016; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015). Correspondingly, helpful COO Diaspora policies were discussed in Section 3.4.4 above.

Immigrant concentration in an enclave has been identified as another important factor of IE entrepreneurship (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Neuman, 2016). IE concentration creates enclave infrastructure, ethnic resources and niches in markets where economies of scales are low and the demand for ethnic goods can only be served by immigrant/diaspora entrepreneurs (Aldrich et al., 1983; Mohl, 1985; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990). Despite the suggestion by Aldrich et al. (1983) and Mohl (1985) that dependence of ethnic businesses on ethnic markets

reduce structural opportunities, there is abundant evidence to show that enclave entrepreneurship is facilitated by the low level of entry barriers, the cultural protection provided by the enclave and the understanding of fellow immigrants' needs (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1993; Kloosterman and Rath, 1999; Neuman, 2016). Furthermore, the desire to contribute to the improvement of living standards in a COO serves as an additional TDE motivation.

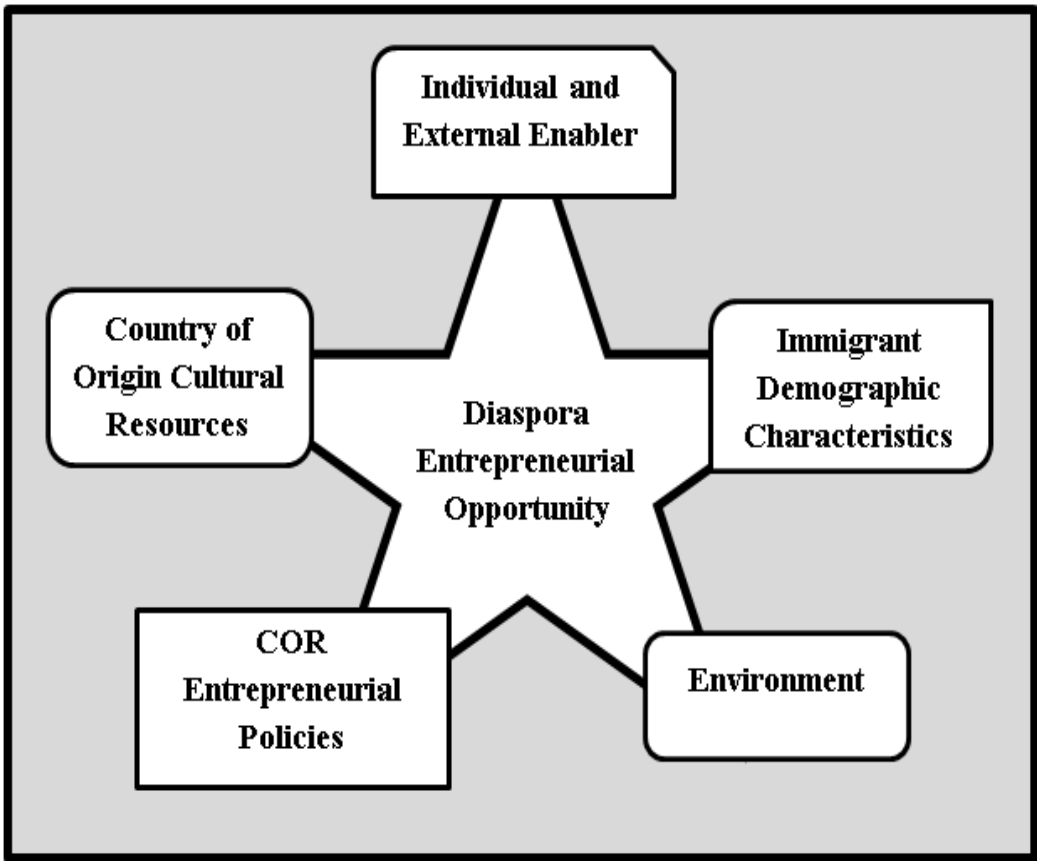
Just as individual needs vary, so too the needs and motives underlying entrepreneurship (Maslow, 1943; McClelland, 1965),for example, in the Andhra Pradesh region of India, entrepreneurs were most strongly motivated by a desire for autonomy and to increase their income (Benzing and Chu 2005). In China, Pistrui et al. (2001) found that personal and family security were the primary reasons motivating entrepreneurs to start a business. In Chinese society, individual achievement impacts also on the social standing of one's family, relatives and kinship clan (Hsu, 1981, cited by Nancy and Aaron, 1998). In Uganda, entrepreneurs indicated that making a good living is the most important reason for owning a business (Bewayo 1995). This underlines the importance of ethnic culture in entrepreneurship motivation. Hence, in the case of TDE, the importance of embeddedness in IE ethnic social structures that can facilitate risk-taking and innovative behaviour promotes entrepreneurship (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Dimov, 2012). In conclusion, the current study, following the work of scholars such as Krueger et al. (1994) and McGee et al, (2009), supports the view that TDE activity is motivated by both individual characteristics of the entrepreneur and enabler cultural and legal elements in a given geographical area. The most critical external enablers are the cultural capital found within an IE and the various policies that support entrepreneurship start-up within the COR. The following section discusses the conclusion to the chapter.

3.6 Conclusion

This Chapter has presented TDE practitioners as settled immigrants in a COR, with no intention of returning to their COO, but shuttling between their COR and COO for the purpose of entrepreneurial activity (Aikens and White, 2011). Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome,

(2012) described TDE as a by-product of social recognition, friendliness and receptiveness in the COO and COR. In other words, TDE is a result of the presence of COO cultural resources in a COR.

Figure 3.6 Mapping the Findings from Chapter Three



Sources: **Waldinger 1986; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Dimov 2012; OECD, 2016; Davidsson, 2015, 2016**

Figure 3.6 above indicates that TDE activity is dependent on the availability of certain immigrant demographic characteristics, cultural predisposition, networking, sympathetic COR policies and individual tenacity. These were described by Dimov (2012) as individual and external enablers. As indicated by the entrepreneurial framework elaborated by Kloosterman et al (1999), embeddedness both the COO culture and the COR environment fosters entrepreneurship activity and opportunity formation. COO culture creates bonding and bridging solidarity, as well as culturally conditioned enforcement mechanisms that enhance trustworthiness. Cultural embeddedness also increases awareness of the immigrants' needs, thereby generating transnational entrepreneurial opportunity. However, while the COR and

COO cultural and political environments may encourage TDE activity, the present study also indicated that they can create barriers. One such barrier is a lack of adequate government policy on diaspora relations with a sending country. As Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome (2012) demonstrate, the lack of positive diaspora policies can hinder entrepreneurial growth. TDE flourishes when facilitated and protected by good COO and COR regulation.

One of the main issues discussed in this Chapter was TDE activity and opportunity formation. The discussion considered whether opportunity formation was the result of discovery or creation, or a combination of both (Kirzner, 1973; Schumpeter, 1943 and Shane, 2003). The interactive model of immigrant entrepreneurship developed by Waldinger, Aldrich, and Ward (1990) was employed as a base line for understanding opportunity as a by-product of the COO resources, culture, infrastructures and capital that enclaves provide. Findings in the literature reviewed suggest that TDE activity begins with an appreciation of the entrepreneurial potential of COO cultural resources in an IE (Waldinger, 1986a, 277). As the relational and temporal approach by Alvarez and Barney (2013) demonstrates, the creation and discovery of opportunities occur simultaneously. The conclusion drawn from Alvarez and Barney model is that the point at which a diaspora entrepreneur is alerted to enclave resources and government policies that support entrepreneurship is regarded as a moment of discovery, while the creation of a viable market around the discovered niche is a process of creation.

The discussion also indicated that TDE activity includes both objective and subjective elements. It is objective through its use of COO cultural resources and subjective as a result of the entrepreneur's personal attributes (Davidsson, Recker and Von Briel, 2017). In conclusion the Chapter suggest that, TDE activity and its formation are the result of external factors (socio-cultural, political and commercial environments, resources, infrastructure, regulatory framework, demographic characteristics) and individual traits (persistence, self-efficacy, direction etc.). Human capital and cultural predispositions were also identified as aids to start-ups and TDE activity. Knowledge and skills are acquired either through formal education or

practical experience (Alvarez and Busenitz, 2001). On the cultural side, a predisposition to act in a trustworthy manner assures fair treatment and objectivity in new IE start-ups and TDE enterprises (Ostrom, 1990; Lundvall, 1992: Putnam, et al, 1993). A high level of trustworthiness also ensures credibility and predictability (Ostrom, 1990; Lundvall, 1992: Putnam, et al, 1993).

The cultural attachment to their COO by diaspora entrepreneurs bridges the cultural gap that would have arisen otherwise, enhances information flow and facilitates trustworthiness based on bonding, thereby easing business transaction between a COR and COO (Malecki, 1997; Bisin and Verdier, 2000; Davidsson and Honig, 2003). Social bonding capital generates networks that enable the evaluation, procurement and utilisation of resources necessary for the exploitation of new TDE opportunities (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1986; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Burt, 1980, 1992; Shane and Venkataraman, 2002).In Ireland, a higher percentage of migrants (5.4%) have recently started a business compared with 3.4% of the non-immigrant population (Eurostat, 2015). The level of TDE activity in Ireland is comparable to other receiving countries (Cooney and Flynn, 2008). As discussed above, good policy regulation and its efficient implementation play a major role in encouraging TDE. Hence, the following Chapter will focus on the Irish entrepreneurial eco-system.

CHAPTER FOUR

Immigration and the Irish Entrepreneurial Eco-System

4.1 Introduction

This chapter explores national and international policy frameworks that can nurture transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE). As found by Waldinger, (1986), Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) and Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome (2012), good and stable government policies can create infrastructural supports that encourage entrepreneurial activity, while the lack of such policies hinders successful venture creation (Ardagna and Lusardi, 2008; Zahra and Wright, 2011). According to Welter (2011), understanding the national context within which entrepreneurial activity occurs helps in the understanding of why and how entrepreneurship happens and why individuals may wish to become involved. As Ireland is the primary focus of the present study, this chapter examines policies and frameworks that encourage TDE activity in Ireland. As Ireland is a member of the European Union (EU) and bound by its directives, EU policies on entrepreneurship will also be examined. In order to contextualise the discussion of policy, the chapter begins with a profile of Ireland's diverse non-national population. Particular attention is given to immigrants of Nigerian origin, specifically those residing in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin which provided the data presented in Chapter Six below. Finally, the chapter explores the Irish entrepreneurial eco-system in light of the reviewed literature.

4.2 Profile of Immigrants in Ireland

According to the most recent (2016) national census data, the total non-national population in Ireland is 535,475, split evenly by gender, with 267,088 males and 268,387 females. Poland is the country of origin of the largest group (122,515), followed by the United Kingdom (103,113) and Lithuania (36,552). Germany, Italy, Latvia, Romania and Spain each have over 10,000 citizens residing in Ireland. An estimated 49,360 non-nationals are from North America, Australia and New Zealand. Approximately 55,750 are from Africa and 79,990 from Asia (O'Connell, 2018).The data suggests that 60% of non-nationals are aged 22 - 44, compared

with just 32% for Irish nationals. The average age of the profiled non-nationals is 38.7, while 45% are married, 4% separated, 5% divorced and 42% are single. 57.1% of the profiled immigrants hold a third level degree. Currently, 200 countries of origin are represented in Ireland's non-national population (see Table 4.1 below)

Table 4.1 – Countries of Origin of Non-Nationals in Ireland

Country of origin of non-Irish nationals resident in Ireland classified by number of persons, 2016

Number of nationals					
1 - 10	11 - 50	51 - 200	201 - 1,000	1,001 - 10,000	Over 10,000
Andorra	Azerbaijan	Armenia	Albania	Afghanistan	America
Anguilla	Bahrain	Bolivia	Algeria	Australia	Brazil
Antigua/Barbuda	Barbados	Burma	Angola	Bangladesh	France
Bahamas	Benin	Burundi	Argentina	Belgium	Germany
Belize	Bhutan	Cuba	Austria	Bulgaria	India
Bermuda	Brunei	Cyprus	Belarus	Canada	Italy
British Indian Ocean territory	Chad	Eritrea	Bosnia	China	Latvia
Burkina Faso	Costa Rica	Guinea	Botswana	Congo	Lithuania
Cambodia	Dominica	Hong Kong	Cameroon	Croatia	Poland
Cape Verde	Dominican Republic	Iceland	Chile	Czech Republic	Romania
Cayman Islands	East Timor	Indonesia	Colombia	Estonia	Spain
Central African	Ecuador	Ivory Coast	Denmark	Hungary	UK
Faroe Islands	Equatorial Guinea	Jamaica	Egypt	Malaysia	
French Polynesia	Fiji	Jordan	Ethiopia	Mauritius	
Gibraltar	Gambia	Kazakhstan	Finland	Mexico	
Grenada	Guatemala	Lebanon	Georgia	Moldova	
Guadeloupe	Guyana	Lesotho	Ghana	Netherlands	
Guam	Honduras	Liberia	Greece	New Zealand	
Guinea - Bissau	Kyrgyzstan	Macedonia	Iran	Nigeria	
Haiti	Laos	Malta	Iraq	Pakistan	
Liechtenstein	Luxembourg	Palestine	Israel	Philippines	
Macau	Maldives	Peru	Japan	Portugal	
Madagascar	Mali	Rwanda	Kenya	Russian Federation	
Monaco	Mauritania	Sierra Leone	Kosovo	Saudi Arabia	
Montserrat	Montenegro	Tanzania	Kuwait	Slovakia	
Mozambique	Nicaragua	Togo	Libya	South Africa	
Namibia	Niger	Trinidad and Tobago	Malawi	South Korea	
North Korea	Panama	Tunisia	Mongolia	Sweden	
Papua New Guinea	Paraguay	Uganda	Morocco	Thailand	
Puerto Rico	Salvadoran	United Arab Emirates	Nepal	Turkey	
Qatar	Samoa	Uruguay	Norway	Ukraine	
Reunion	Senegal	Zambia	Oman	Venezuela	
San Marino	Seychelles		Serbia		
Solomon Islands	South Sudan		Singapore		
St. Kitts and Nevis	Swaziland		Slovenia		
St. Lucia	Uzbekistan		Somalia		
St. Vincents	Yemen		Sri Lanka		
Suriname			Sudan		
Tonga			Switzerland		
Turkmenistan			Syria		
Turks and Caicos Islands			Taiwan		
Vatican City			Vietnam		
Western Sahara			Zimbabwe		
Yugoslavia					
Number of countries					
44	37	32	43	32	12
Total number of persons					
201	949	3,398	22,721	105,341	393,959

Source: CSO 2016 Census Report

The CSO estimated that Ireland's net migration (immigration less emigration) during the period 2011 – 2016 was -28,558, compared to net inward migration of 115,800 in the 2006-2011 period. Only Dublin City (7,257), Cork City (4,380) and the administrative area of Dún Laoghaire Rathdown (4,066) saw an increase in the net inflow of immigrants during the period 2011 to 2016.Census data showed that 5.6% of persons living in rural areas were non-Irish nationals, with Ballyhaunis having the highest proportion of non-Irish nationals at 39.5% (CSO Report, 2016). Overall, there were 25 towns where more than one in four residents was non-Irish nationals.

Table 4.2 – Towns with the highest percentage of non-Irish nationals (2016)

Town	County	Number of residents	% of non-Irish nationals
Ballyhaunis	Mayo	2,383	39.5
Edgeworthstown	Longford	2,062	32.3
Ballymahon	Longford	1,866	32.1
Ballyjamesduff	Cavan	2,689	30.2
Monaghan	Monaghan	7,597	30.1
Saggart	Dublin	3,145	28.9
Longford	Longford	10,011	27.4
Cahir	Tipperary	3,590	27.3
Gort	Galway	2,951	26.6
Cavan	Cavan	10,656	26.2

Source: CSO Report (2016)

Since the focus of the present study is TDE activity among Nigerians residing in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin (see Chapter Six), the demographic profile of this group is of

particular significance. Among Africans living in Ireland, Nigerians are the largest ethnic group, with 13,079.Of these, 4,078 were born in Nigeria, but have dual nationality, 2,287 were born in Ireland and have dual nationality, while 6,084 were born in Nigeria and retain sole Nigerian nationality (CSO Statistical Product - Profile 7 - Migration and Diversity 2016).The average age of Nigerians in Ireland is 26.6 years, with one in four aged 15 years or younger. There are more females than males and over 50% are married. Roman Catholicism is the main religion (26%), followed by Pentecostalism (19%). Less than 1% of Nigerians claim to have no religion. Nearly half (45%) of Nigerian children aged 5 to 19 indicated they could speak some Irish.38% of Nigerians aged 15 or over are in employment (50% of males and 30% of females (CSO Census Data, 2016).A relatively high number (31%) are looking for their first job or are unemployed when compared to the other CSO profiled immigrant groups.

The dominant work sectors are health and social work. Almost 30% of Nigerians have a third level qualification (31% in social sciences, business or law and 14% in health). According to the 2016 Census data, approximately 4,600 Nigerians reside in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin, with about 16 different ethnic businesses (hair dressing salons, barbers, money remittance, restaurants and food shop) serving their cultural needs. Of all the Africans profiled in the CSO 2016 census, Nigerians are by far the most urbanised, with a third of them living in towns with a population of 10,000 or more. Only 4% of Nigerians live in the rural Ireland (CSO, 2016). The census data also indicates that over half of the Nigerians in Dublin are living in the Fingal County Council area, a third live in South Dublin, and a very small number live in Dublin's city centre. They live mostly in rented private accommodation.

The redevelopment of Blanchardstown Village between 1996 and 2004 made additional housing available, thereby creating the possibility of a concentration of newly arrived immigrants during the Celtic Tiger boom period. As found in the study by Ní Chonaill (2009), despite an increase in employment and the commercial development of the area, significant parts of Blanchardstown and adjacent areas continued to experience economic disadvantage (Ní

Chonaill, 2009). For example, Tyrrelstown had an unemployment rate of 25.89%, while the rate in Mulhuddart and Coolmine stood at almost 17%. These rates were significantly in excess of an area average of 11.13% and a national average of 8.5% (CSO 2018). As indicated by the literature review, such conditions frequently lead to the formation of an IE (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Volery, 2007).

4.3 Immigrant Entrepreneurship in Ireland

As discussed in the preceding section, Ireland, once a country marked by emigration, is now a country of immigration. Until relatively recently immigration to Ireland was regulated by the Alien Act of 1935 and the Irish Nationality and Citizenship Act of 1956(see Appendix 5 for Irish immigration policies). These laws were enacted in very different times to deal with a much lower level of international movements of persons compared to the current surge of immigration into Ireland. Currently, the main legal bases for immigration policy, apart from EU directives, are the Irish Constitution, primary legislation, statutory instruments and case law. There are on-going plans by the Department of Justice and Equality to renew, amend, consolidate and enhance the current body of legislation (Immigration and Residence Bill, 2005).

According to the 2007 UN-Habitat Global Report on Human Settlements (Habitat),well planned migration policy can affect cities in positive ways, while inadequate or unclear policies often lead to urban 'transit hubs' where migrants are left stranded and isolated. For example, in sending countries such as China and Mexico, the implementation of 'three-for-one' and similar policies has attracted diaspora investment (Iskander, 2010; Delano, 2011, Lee and Zhou, 2016). In its quest to becoming a global technological hub, the Indian Government created a cabinet-level Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) to coordinate interaction with the diaspora (Lacroix, 2005; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Table 4.3 highlights some of the recently implemented policies and EU directives on settlement, immigration within the national and EU contexts.

Table 4.3 - Irish Immigration and Settlement Policies

Years of Implementation	Type of Policy	Contextual Usage
1996	Refugee Act,	To protect person's fleeing from persecution for reasons of religion, race, membership of a particular social group or political opinion
1999	Immigration Act'	Defining non-national as in accordance with the alien act of 1935 and provide guardiancy for control and regulations of immigration into Ireland.
2000	Illegal Immigrants (Trafficking) Act	The empowered of law enforcement agencies to prevent unlawfully entering into Ireland
2001	'Statutory Instrument No.36 of 2001.Aliens (Visas) Order	Claimed that non-Irish nationals except those from Great Britain or Northern entering the state should hold a valid Irish transit visa.
2002	Irish Nationality and Citizenship Acts 1956 to 2001 (unofficial restatement, Statutory Instrument No.103 of 2002)	To cater for those that want to become Irish citizen,
2003	Statutory Instrument 708 of 2003	Reform act to the 2001 act on visa validity to enter Ireland
2004	Amendments to immigration and refugee acts	The specification of some countries as safe country of origin e.g. Croatia and the Republic of South Africa
2005	Civil Legal Aid (Refugee Appeals Tribunal) Order	An act prescribing the Refugee Appeals Tribunal as a body at whose proceedings legal aid may be provided by the Legal Aid Board.
2006	Free Movement of Persons (No.2) Regulations (come into operation on 1 January 2007)	A directive by the European Parliament and of the Council of 29 April 2004 on the right of citizens of the Union and their family members to move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States
2008	Amendments of the Citizenship act (came into operation on 1st of August 2008	The fee regulation, addresses the fee to be paid on the issue of the a certificate of naturalisation
2009	Amendments to the immigration and valid visa acts	Spefication on length of stay in Ireland by non-nationals holding a valid travel documents from countries such as, Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, or Switzerland
2011	The Irish nationality and citizenship regulation	Amendments to the naturalisation act
2012	Informal consolidation to the 2004 naturalisation act	Amendments to the right of EU member free movement within the EU
2015	International Protection Act 2015	The protection of free movement within the European communities

Source: INIS

The present study concurs with Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) that through the implementation of good policy, immigrant communities can become bridges between their COR and COO. For example, in countries such as Colombia and the Dominican Republic, policies aimed at re-connecting immigrants with their COO economies have increased the volume of transnational businesses and created opportunities for expanding bilateral relations between immigrants' COR and their COO (Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). Immigrants frequently form civic and cultural organisation to facilitate contact with their COO in order to

generate investment opportunities (Escobar, 2010).

In Ireland, recent policy decisions have resulted in efforts to promote citizenship and political participation among migrant groups, leading to greater social cohesion and the integration of immigrants into local communities (European Commission, 2015). The major implication of these policies for TDE is the facilitation of free movement for investment and entrepreneurial activity (Sassen, 2004).Such policies encourage the building of cultural, social and political relationships between Ireland and immigrants' COO. In Ireland, the rate of entrepreneurship is higher among immigrant groups (7.2%) than in the non-immigrant population (5.8%) (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Report, 2012 {GEM}). Furthermore, a higher percentage of first generation (3.0%) and second generation (2.9%) immigrants have recently started a business, compared to 2.2% of the non-immigrant population (GEM, 2012).

According to the GEM Report, immigrant entrepreneurship has become a major contributor to national and global economies activity. As Cooney and Flynn (2008) found in their study of ethnic entrepreneurship in Ireland, 12.6% of immigrants claim ownership or part ownership of a business. The study found that sole ownership is the predominant form of legal ownership (52%) amongst immigrant businesses, followed by limited company (31%) and partnership (17%). Furthermore, 75% of immigrant businesses are in operation for two years or less, competing in four main sectors of the Irish economy: information communication technology (ICT), wholesale/retail, catering and consulting. The study also found that 94% of immigrant businesses employ 5 or less full-time staff and 65% generated €50,000 or less per annum in sales revenue. 75% of ethnic businesses focus on the Irish market, with 40% having no extra-territorial customers. 46.8% of immigrant businesses import products from their country of origin, 27.6% export products from Ireland to their country of origin and 34.2% provide services in Ireland (Cooney and Flynn, 2008).

In Ireland, men are 1.9 times more likely than women to be early stage entrepreneurs, with rates of early stage entrepreneurship at 12.1% for men and 6.4% for women (GEM, 2013).

This has been steadily improving and is now level with the EU-28 average of 1.9:1 and slightly higher than the OECD average of 1.7%. The 2017 GEM Report has found that Ireland ranked eighth amongst women in entrepreneurship in Europe, while men ranked fourth in the index. The rise in the number of female entrepreneurs in Ireland can be attributed to the National Policy Statement on Entrepreneurships in Ireland (NPSEI). Following the enactment of this policy in 2015, the number of female-only led ventures rose from 416 to 688 in 2017.However, the statistics cited above still indicate untapped potential among female entrepreneurs. Rates of entrepreneurial activity are also influenced by age. Entrepreneurial activity is highest amongst those aged 35 – 44 years (12.6%), 25 – 34 (10%) and 45 – 54 (9%). It is lowest amongst those aged 18 – 24 (7.6%) and 55 – 64 (4.6%) (GEM, 2013; NPSEI, 2014). By way of comparison, entrepreneurial activity amongst those aged 18 – 24 in the U.S. is at 12.3% and is 9.2% in Israel (GEM, 2013).

Despite its contribution to COR economic development, immigrant entrepreneurship is faced with series of challenges and barriers that hinder start-ups and venture growth. The study by Ramangalahy, Brenner, Menzies and Filion (2002) and Ram, Trehan, Rouse, Woldesenbet and Jones (2012) indicated serious difficulties in developing contacts, accessing business networks and cooperating with partners. These studies also identify a lack of understanding of legislation, tax regulations and available government support as additional challenges facing immigrant entrepreneurs in a COR. Table 4.4 below summarises the principal barriers encountered by immigrant entrepreneurs.

Table 4.4 Challenges to immigrant entrepreneurship

Accessing business networks, understanding legislation, taxation, government support (Ramangalahy, Brenner, Menzies, Filion, 2002; Ram, Trehan, Rouse, Woldesenbet, and Jones, 2012)
Over regulation, lack of helpful policies, lack of network/mentorship schemes and support agencies (GEM report, 2013; Peroni, Riillo and Sarracino, 2016)
Lack of resources and infrastructures (Plaza and Ratha, 2011; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2012)

Regulations aimed at simplifying entrepreneurial activity may help or a hinder start-ups,

depending on how they are implemented (Newland and Tanaka, 2010; Plaza and Ratha, 2011). Studies by Manolova, Brush, Edelman and Greene (2002), Burt (2000), Hintu et al. (2004), Jones and Conway (2004), Saxenian (2000; 2005; 2011) and Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome (2012) all claim that entrepreneurs are more likely to be successful when the market is not over regulated. In their study of small businesses in Luxembourg and Italy, Peroni, Riillo and Sarracino (2016) found that the reduction in the regulatory costs of starting a business and stable entrepreneurship policies were key to successful start-ups (see Appendix 6).This indicates that structured government policies, market entry mode, market size, capital intensity, available network/mentorship scheme and support agencies often create opportunity for IE and TDE activity (Zapata-Barrero and Rezaei, 2019).

As the present study shows, COO culture in a COR can act as either an enabler or a barrier, depending on how it is perceived and utilised by entrepreneurs (Aguilera, 2009; Engelen, Lackhoff and Schnnidt, 2013). As an enabler, COO culture brings immigrants together, preserves national identity, encourages bonding and becomes a symbol of unity for immigrants in a COR. All of these elements are required for successful IE economic activity (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Fischer and Massey, 2000; Dimov, 2012; Neuman, 2016).In a study of African Americans immigrants in Harlem, Marcuse (1997) suggests that the presence of shared ethnical beliefs and norms helps immigrants to overcome initial difficulties faced on arrival. Conversely, the lack of such cultural predispositions and supportive policies can create difficulties in immigrant venture start-ups and growth (Plaza and Ratha, 2011; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2012).

4.4 Irish Entrepreneurship Policies

Prior to the formation of the post-independence State in 1922, the principal Irish industries were brewing, distilling, milling, tanning and other agri-related activities (Corcoran, 2009). Some of these traditional businesses survive today, such as Waterford Wedgewood (1759), Punch Industries Limited (1851), Johnson and Perrott Motor Group (1810) and the

Musgrave Group (1876).While there is a long history of trade and commerce in Ireland, stretching back to Norman times, the vast majority of commercial exchange has been with England and associated colonies. Until 1922, Ireland was part of the United Kingdom and the national economy was dominated by landlords and businessmen who had their roots in England (Corcoran, 2009). For the native-born Irish population, commercial activity was largely restricted to the domestic market. This situation changed in 1922 when Ireland attained political independence from the United Kingdom, but the fledgling State struggled to consolidate economic independence (O'Gorman and Cooney, 2007; Corcoran, 2009).

Pre-independence economic policies were mainly developed by Arthur Griffith, founder of the Sinn Féin Party, whose arguments in favour of protectionism, economic self-sufficiency and reduced dependence on trade with Britain gained widespread support (Corcoran, 2009). Others advocated for greater access to education, more equitable taxation, and separation from the British currency, reform of the Unionist-dominated banks, arbitration courts and reform of local government. In the immediate aftermath of independence, the main objectives of the Irish Free State government were the consolidation of law and order, balancing the national budget, maintenance of free trade and development of the agricultural sector (O'Gorman and Cooney, 2007; Corcoran, 2009). In 1923, the Fiscal Inquiry Committee recommended measures to facilitate free trade, but the 1924 budget imposed duties on a range of goods and pressure for more tariffs came from the Labour Party, business interests and Postmaster-General J. J. Walsh, who openly criticised government trade policy.

This happened against a backdrop of European countries still being in recovery from the post-World War I economic depression, protecting their home markets by raising tariffs (Lynch, 1959). In 1932, a Fianna Fáil led Government introduced a protectionist policy framework, which largely remained in place until the Anglo-Irish Free Trade Agreement in 1965 (see Appendix 8) (O'Gorman and Cooney, 2007). O'Gorman and Cooney comment: *"whereas protectionism and self-sufficiency might have been an ideal to pursue for*

nationalistic reasons (and the country did well from this policy during World War II), it had a devastating effect on the Irish economy". For example, Government subsidisation of inefficient economic enterprises discouraged entrepreneurial activity that would have matched output with real market demands (Garvin, 2004: p.33; O'Gorman and Cooney, 2007).

In 1949, the Industrial Development Authority (IDA) was established with responsibility for attracting foreign investment. This initiated the transition from an economy based on agriculture to one based on manufacturing industry. In 1952, a new Government industry board was established to assess projects and distribute enterprise development grants. In 1967, the free secondary education policy, aimed at equipping the Irish workforce with skills and qualifications necessary to support the international services sector, was introduced (Convery et al. 2002). The focus of enterprise policy at this time was on the development of the poorest, least populated and most underdeveloped regions of the country (O'Gorman and Cooney, 2007). In 1968, the Buchanan Report recommended that the Government should target specific regional centres as hubs for the development of enterprise. Prior to this Report, there was no official entrepreneurship policy in Ireland. In the 1970s, the IDA's policy and strategy measures remained strongly focused on growth in towns in peripheral areas of Ireland (Corcoran, 2009). At the same time, greater emphasis was placed on attracting foreign multinational companies (MNCs). This was a successful policy which brought many highly regarded companies to Ireland, but failure to implement recommendations of the Buchanan Report meant that the full potential for regional development was not realised.

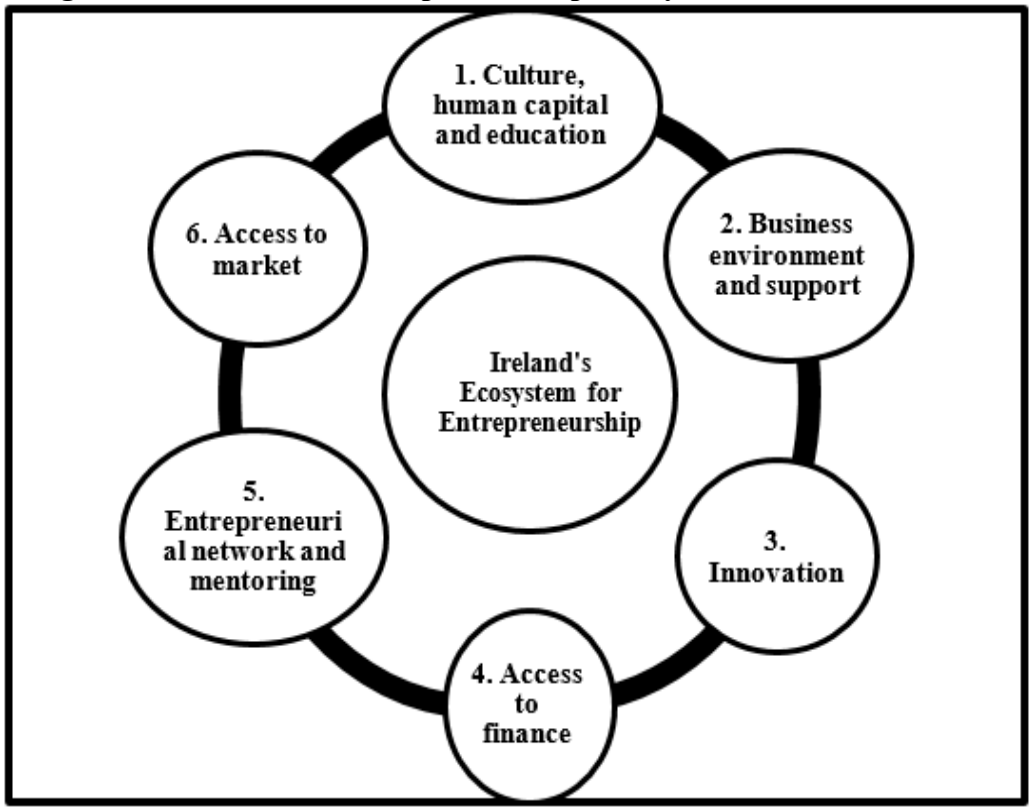
In 1973, Ireland joined the European Economic Community (EEC). Subsequently, tariffs on almost all manufactured goods imported from EEC members states were phased out over five years (O'Gorman and Cooney, 2007). EEC membership brought about an increase in the amount of trade and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) to Ireland, as well as free movement within EEC countries for Irish citizens. 1981 saw the introduction of the Industrial Development (No. 2) Act which enabled grants to be paid for designated internationally traded services. In

1982, a review of industrial policy by Telesis criticised excessive reliance on foreign industry and proposed a reduction in grant aid to foreign companies and a change in emphasis on building up strong indigenous firms. Consequently, the 1984 White Paper on Industrial Policy proposed a greater focus on developing indigenous industry. In 1987, the Government established the International Financial Services Centre (IFSC).After 1990, policies aimed at attracting foreign direct investment (FDI) reinvigorated economic performance and enhanced entrepreneurship opportunity in Ireland (Kirby, 2002).

This marked the beginning of an extraordinarily successful period in the Irish economic history, popularly known as the 'Celtic Tiger'. In 1993 the Industrial Development Act (IDA) established three Agencies: IDA Ireland for overseas industry, Forbairt for indigenous industry, and Forfás as an advisory and coordination body. The 1998 Industrial Development Act established Enterprise Ireland as a new development agency for indigenous industry, incorporating Forbairt, An Bord Tráchtála and some activities of FÁS. In 2000, Inter-Trade Ireland was established to promote all-island trade and enterprise development. In the decade preceding the global financial crisis of 2008, the Republic of Ireland became one of the strongest economies within the European Union. The economic downturn between 2008 and 2014 brought a return of growing unemployment and mass emigration, but by the end of 2015, the Republic of Ireland returned to growth and became one of the world's fastest growing economies for that year. Government policies encouraging venture start-ups have facilitated a steady growth in entrepreneurial activity.

Entrepreneurial activity can be affected by a wide range of framework conditions and policies (tax rates and incentives, regulation, legislation, immigration, infrastructure and State-funded enterprise supports) (GEM, 2014).In 2014, the Irish Government set out a number of strategic objectives based on a careful evaluation of Ireland's existing position. The National Policy Statement on Entrepreneurship in Ireland (NPSEI) adopted international best practice in order to encourage entrepreneurial activity (see Figure 4.1 below).

Figure 4.1 - The Irish 'Entrepreneurship Policy Statement' Framework



Source: Adapted from National Policy Statement on Entrepreneurship in Ireland (NPSEI), (2014)

As shown in Figure 4.1 above, the 6-point NPSEI policy framework was designed to stimulate entrepreneurial growth by facilitating business networking, mentoring and the creation of entrepreneurship hubs/hotspots, thereby providing practical experience, advice, contacts and opportunities for interaction in order to overcome difficulties and realise potential (NPSEI, 2014; OECD/EU, 2015). Since its implementation in 2014, the NPSEI framework has aimed to increase the number of start-ups by 25% (3,000 more start-ups per annum) and venture survival rate by 25% (1,800 more survivors per annum).

To ensure successful implementation, performance indicators were developed for all six elements of the framework to benchmark progress, compare best practice at home and abroad and set stretch targets (see Appendix 1). To encourage start-up opportunity and reduce fear of failure, an educational curriculum was incorporated into the design of NPSEI. The idea behind this was based on the realisation that understanding the national entrepreneurial culture and start-ups policies will help to eradicate fear and lack of start-up motivation amongst potential

entrepreneurs (see appendix 2).The Irish entrepreneurial profile and policies reflect a desire to encourage innovation: “In an innovation-driven economy, opportunity perception potential is a requirement for recognising and exploring novel business opportunities” (Ács, Autio and Szerb, 2014). The NPSEI was designed to promote a national spirit and culture of entrepreneurship that will help to facilitate a strong pipeline of future business start-ups through education and shaping individual attitudes towards entrepreneurship from primary school level onwards (NPSEI, 2014).

To create an entrepreneurship culture at all level of the society, the framework supports educational schemes such as the Student Enterprise Awards, Exploring Enterprise, and Bí Gnóthach in order to encourage and promote enterprise culture among the student population. Since 2014, over 20,000 students have participated each year in various programmes organised by Local Enterprise Offices (LEO) (NPSEI, 2014). The NPSEI also addresses the human capital aspect of entrepreneurship and promotes balanced demographic representation in entrepreneurial activity (especially by females, young people, immigrants and seniors). It allows the Department of Social Protection to provide support for unemployed people to start a business in the form of the ‘Back to Work Enterprise Allowance’ (NPSEI, 2014).

4.5 EU Immigration and Entrepreneurship Policies

As used in management studies, ‘context’ refers to external circumstances, conditions, situations or environments that enable or constrain an activity. Context has also been described in terms of surroundings associated with a specific phenomenon, or as stimuli existing in the external environment. John (2006) defines context in terms of situational opportunities and constraints that affect behaviour. Factoring context into the present work helps in understanding the environment, enhance the realism of this study and indicates ways of communicating the policies and resources that are available for entrepreneurial start-up and venture development within the Irish national setting (Zahra and Wright, 2011). Understanding policies within a

national context clarifies why ventures are created and directed towards a particular group and how institutional arrangements promote the creation of a particular type of venture (Zahra and Wright, 2011; Welter, 2011). According to the GEM Report (2013), good and reliable policy helps to form a regulatory climate conducive to investment, innovation and access to low-cost finance. Sternberg (2011) explains how positive entrepreneurial policies create supportive infrastructure and increase market opportunity within national and sub-national regions. According to Bennett (2012) and the EU report (2013), policies act as a powerful tool for job creation and economic growth, and are a catalyst in making countries more competitive and innovative (see Appendix 4)

As found in studies by Carter and Jones-Evans (2012), the OECD (2014) and EU (2014), positive policy within a national context improves competitiveness and market access for small and medium-sized enterprises, limits large firms' dominance and creates a level playing field for both large and small enterprises. Studies in countries such as Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, United Kingdom, Italy and Luxembourg found that the implementation of good policies have increased the innovative management scope of small businesses, aided their ability to compete with larger businesses and created infrastructure that aids the growth of small firms (Carter and Jones-Evans, 2012; OECD/EU Report, 2014).When implemented correctly, positive entrepreneurship policy encourages responsible corporate governance, lowers the cost of doing business and removes unnecessary red tape (Werner et al, 1996; Venkataraman and Van de Ven, 1998; Zahra 1993, 2000; Zahra, 2000; Lisbon Strategy report, 2004; the Regulatory Policy Outlook, 2015). Thus, the role of Government policy within a national context can be understood in terms of: (1) Government as regulator, (2) Government as economic agent; and (3) Government as strategic planner and promoter (see Appendix 7).

4.5.1 European Union (EU) Immigration Policy

In EU countries, there are two levels of policy formulation. The first is by the European Commission, which passes on directives to member countries for implementation, and the

second is by the EU members States at a national level (Acs, Carlsson, Karlsson, 1999). In 2003, the EU created a single status for non-EU long-term residents, approximating the laws of all EU countries and ensuring equal treatment (whatever the EU country of residence) throughout the Union. Under this directive, non-EU nationals residing legally in the territory of any EU country for at least five continuous years are to be granted long-term resident status (EU Council Directive, 2003). The Family Reunification Directive, also issued in 2003, allows non-EU nationals, including refugees, residing lawfully on EU territory the right to family reunification in their EU country of residence (EU Long-term Residents Directive and Family Reunification Directive, 2003; 2008 and 2014).

In co-operation with its member States, the EU established the European Migration Network (EMN), whose aim is to develop a framework for specific reports, studies and *ad hoc* queries in order to provide member states and EU institutions with up-to-date information on the integration of immigrants and asylum seekers. In 2011, to facilitate the successful implementation of these policies, the Commission established the EU Immigration Portal, a website for foreign nationals interested in moving to the EU or these wishing to move from one EU State to another. The Portal provides information about specific procedures in all 28 EU States for each category of migrant (European Migrant Information report, 2015). The Commission set aside a total of €3.137 billion for the period 2014 - 2020 to promote the efficient management of migration flows and the implementation and strengthening of a common approach to asylum seekers and immigrants throughout the EU (European Commission, 2014). Approximately 88% of this sum was channelled to multi-annual national programmes, 11% of which was allocated for specific actions (implemented under the national programmes of EU States, but responding to specific Union priorities) and to support the EU Resettlement Programme. The remaining 12% was divided between EU actions and emergency assistance programmes (The Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund, {AMIF} 2014).

In the area of immigrant employment and racial equality, EU directives were aimed at

combating discrimination on the grounds of racial or ethnic origin and facilitating ease of access to employment/self-employment, including vocational training or retraining, practical work experience and access to and supply of goods and services available to the general public, including housing, with a view to putting into effect in the member States the principle of equal treatment (Employment and Racial Equality Directives, 2000). These EU directives (see Appendix 3 for Irish pillars of fostering entrepreneurship growth) have led to member States issuing domestic legal orders and setting up procedures and bodies to enable implementation of the directives (EU report, 2014). Although, the EU now has a policy framework for combating racial inequality and employment discrimination, the main hindrance to full implementation is the lack of awareness of the policy by immigrants and non-implementation and application of the directives by some member States (European Commission Directives, 2015).

4.5.2 EU Policy Framework for Entrepreneurship

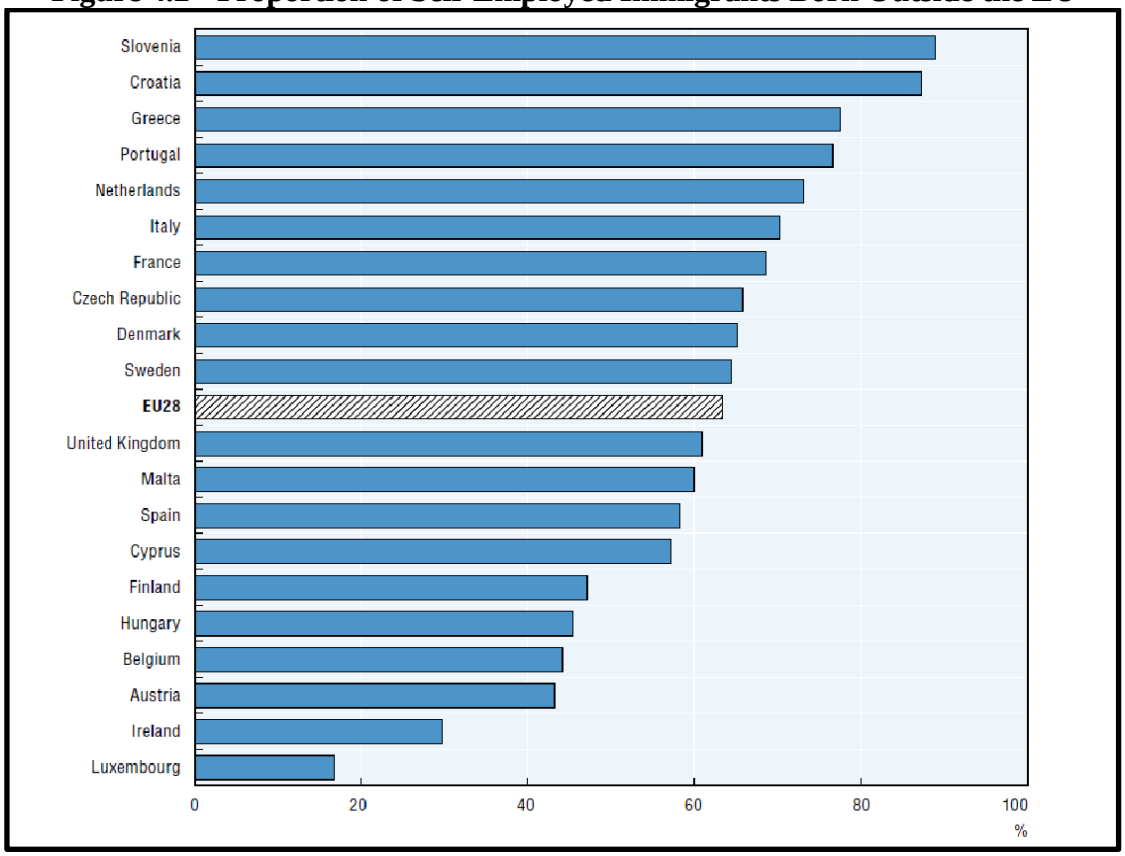
To encourage the right environment for entrepreneurship development, the European Commission set out three pillars to enhance SME development. This Action Plan, as set out in Appendix 1, was directed at renewing entrepreneurial vision, action and support in EU member States. To achieve these goals, the EU introduced entrepreneurship education based on real experience and initiated mechanisms for sharing information among EU States (see Appendix 2). The Plan also proposed to reduce difficulties entrepreneurs faced in accessing funding (European Union 2020 Action Plan, 2011). The Enterprise Europe Network was set up as a partnership involving over 600 hosting organisations, with the aim of providing businesses and prospective entrepreneurs with necessary financial and other helpful information (European Commission, 2013; Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan).

Despite, the fact that entrepreneurs are an essential component of the economy (SMEs account for 90–99% of all businesses, nearly 60% of GNP and account for over 60% of all employees), their importance tends to be under-publicised in mainstream media (Bennett, 2012

p.56). To increase media interest, especially by highlighting successful entrepreneurial stories, the EU Action Plan emphasised that entrepreneurs are a key to sustainable economic growth. The EU Commission has also recognised that immigrant entrepreneurship is a significant contributor to economic growth and employment in receiving countries (European Commission, 2016).

An Action Plan on the Integration of Third-Country Nationals was implemented in 2016, in which immigrant entrepreneurs were praised for their creativity and capacity for innovation (Action Plan on the Integration of Third-Country Nationals, 2016). This Plan proposed policy initiatives to attract more migrant entrepreneurs and facilitate entrepreneurship among migrants already present in EU countries.

Figure 4.2 - Proportion of Self-Employed Immigrants Born Outside the EU



Source: Adapted from Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (2012)

To achieve this, Member States were directed to remove legal obstacles to the establishment of businesses by migrant entrepreneurs and to grant work permits to qualified immigrants in order to facilitate business start-ups. In EU countries such as Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark,

France, Germany, Hungary and United Kingdom, the implementation of such policies has led to a higher proportion of immigrants being self-employed than the native-born population (OECD/European Union report, 2014). Data from the OECD/European Union report (2014) highlights the variation in levels of immigrant entrepreneurship across EU member states in 2012. The EU average of foreign-born self-employed people was 63%.Luxembourg had the lowest proportion of self-employed people born outside the EU (18%), while Slovenia and Croatia had the highest proportion, at 87.2% and 88.9% respectively (European Commission/Eurostat, 2016).

As Table 4.4 illustrates, the level of entrepreneurial involvement of people born outside of the EU countries varies widely, due to national historical immigration patterns, macroeconomic and labour market conditions, immigration laws, social policies and entrepreneurial policies that favour immigrants businesses. In EU countries with effective implementation of immigrant entrepreneurial policies (see Figure 4.1 above), self-employed immigrants were found to have employed more people than firms created by native-born entrepreneurs (EU/OECD Report, 2014). Thus, immigrant entrepreneurial policies and strategies, when implemented properly, can help to generate economic growth in a COR (Kanter, 1983; Clydesdale, 2008; Newland and Tanaka, 2010). In Ireland, for example, the implementation of recent immigration policies has contributed to a higher level of entrepreneurship among immigrants groups (7.2%) than among the non-immigrant population (5.8%) (Fitzsimons and O'Gorman, 2013) Moreover, a higher percentage of first generation (3.0%) and second generation (2.9%) immigrants are business owners, compared to 2.2% of the native population.

4.6 Immigrant Enclave and Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurship

Chapter Two reviewed various theories relating to immigrant enclaves (IE) and defined an enclave as a culturally bonded association of members of an immigrant ethnic group within

a specific COR geographical area (Neuman, 2016). Findings from the present chapter suggest that the presence of immigrant resources, infrastructure and human capital create an environment that promotes enclave entrepreneurship. In the reviewed theories, the moving out of an area by the native-born population (ethnic succession), the disadvantages immigrants faced from mainstream society and the availability of immigrant resources were suggested as factors leading to the creation an enclave economy in a country of residence (COR). The present study found that stable immigrant settlement policies, together with relatively easy access to housing in new projects, contributed to the growth of an IE economy in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin.

As found in studies by Light and Gold (2000), Clark and Drinkwater (2000), Walther (2014) and Neuman (2016), an IE creates a social field that encourages social and commercial interaction on the basis of shared cultural norms. A social field is a locus of struggles. Its internal rules define where its influence ends and another field begins (Bourdieu (1975, p. 19; Mayrhofer, Meyer, Iellatchitch and Schiffinger, 2004). In the enclave, rules are influenced by ethnic culture, religion, demographic, infrastructures, policies and the national economy. Understanding the culturally defined rules that operate within an IE enclave creates opportunity for entrepreneurial activity. The studies by Iellatchitch et al., (2003, p. 732) and Wacquant (2011) suggest that rules within a social field are not formalised, but are tacit in nature. The informality of the rules allows entrepreneurs to grant favours, thereby enhancing their standing within the community. Thus, an IE is an environment that allows an enclave entrepreneur to anticipate future tendencies and opportunities for enclave entrepreneurial activity in a COR (Walther, 2014).

In the case of the Blanchardstown area of Dublin, ethnic culture and identity allow Nigerians to retain many features of life in their COO. Mechanisms of ethnic mobilisation, bounded solidarity and cultural identity act as defences against non-enclave members engaging in business within the community. Social mechanisms like reciprocity and mutual support allow

for informal business dealings without fear of failure, the use of non-contractual agreements and the positive exploitation of ethnic networks (see Waldinger, 1986; Patel and Conklin, 2009). However, embeddedness in the Nigerian community in Blanchardstown restricts entrepreneurs to a market at the lower end of the scale (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Portes and Manning, 2012). This may create a quasi-permanent situation of societal inferiority within the wider COR context. While ethnic entrepreneurs may be highly respected, trusted and go-to people within the local community, this may not be the case beyond the boundaries of the IE. Furthermore, while national identity may facilitate a shared sense of identity, Nigeria has over 200 different ethnic groups and languages, which makes it difficult to maintain cohesion in an area like Blanchardstown.

Chapter Three of the present study explored the distinction between the concept of 'diaspora' and that of 'transnational entrepreneurship'. A diaspora is comprised of emigrants permanently settled in a country other than their country of birth who may, or may not, maintain regular contact with their COO. Transnational entrepreneurs, on the other hand, use their cultural understanding of both a COR and a COO to enhance their entrepreneurial activity. This distinction helps to clarity the nature of TDE and its role in a national economy. Transnational entrepreneurial activity generates new business opportunities and promotes investment between a COR and a COO. According to Patel and Conklin (2009), transnational entrepreneurs seek resources from multiple environments. Understanding both COR and COO cultures puts the diaspora entrepreneur in an advantaged position to engage in cross-border commercial activity.

Following on Bourdieu's theory of practice, an individual's position in a social field determines the number of resources that are available. This suggests that the cultural understanding of enclave community and COO cultures by TDE practitioners serves as an important element in social and cultural capital acquisition in both settings. In the case of Blanchardstown, Nigerian entrepreneurs engaged in cross-border entrepreneurial activity have no intention of returning to Nigeria on a permanent basis, but they use their cultural

understanding of both Nigeria and Ireland in business dealings between the two countries. Most of the entrepreneurs selected for the present study have become Irish citizens through naturalisation, which gives them access to additional supportive infrastructures and facilitates travel between their COR and COO.

TDE activity is heavily dependent on the legal and support infrastructure available in a COR (Özbilgin and Tatli, 2005). TDE involves a process of simultaneous discovery and creation of opportunity. This discovery and creation process involves the reconciliation between structure and agency (Bourdieu 1989). In this respect, social structures in a particular field (i.e. the embodied history that is manifested in a system of thinking, feeling, perceiving and behaving) facilitate TDE activity (Walther, 2014). Immigrant entrepreneurial opportunity is shaped in two ways: first, attraction to one's own ethnic group; and, second, knowledge of the niches, infrastructure and resources. Dimov (2012) described this in terms of individual and external enablers. The individual enabler (persistency, personal motivation, etc.) are those factors that motivate the enclave entrepreneur to pursue the identified opportunity, while the external enabler is the enclave infrastructures, resources and environmental factors as activity that aid the start-up process of the entrepreneur.

To analyse these enabling factors, the present Chapter explored the Irish entrepreneurial eco-system in order to understand how a national entrepreneurial eco-system can aid TDE opportunity. In the case of Blanchardstown, the presence of infrastructural resources such as industrial parks and enterprise centres facilitate venture creation and development. For Nigerian entrepreneurs, use of an industrial park has the additional benefit of a low rental price when compared to similar businesses operating elsewhere. Backed by government policy, industrial parks provide good transportation and other essential infrastructure, such as high-power electricity supply, large-volume water supply, high-volume gas lines and localised environmental controls specific to the needs of the area. Such infrastructure acts as an external enabler in the development of TDE activity.

As explained by Dimov, the presence of this type of enabler provides enclave resources that create interaction between IE and TDE. Arguably, IE and TDE are dependent on COO culture for start-ups and TDE activity. What this suggests is that for entrepreneurial opportunity occur, both the IE economy and TDE need the interaction of the individual enabler, external enablers and a positive COR enclave entrepreneurial policy framework. According to the OECD market regulation indicator (2008), the level of regulation and entrepreneurial policies in a country determines the level of enclave entrepreneurial activity. From the discussion in the literature review sections, the belief is that COO cultural elements when found in COR aid diaspora entrepreneurial activity (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990). Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome (2012) claim that the lack of government economic restructuring policy directed towards diaspora entrepreneurship hinders venture creation.

Some evidence suggests that an enclave may also represent segregation and ghettoisation of immigrants in a COR (Portes, and Sensenbrenner, 1993). The segregation that normally accompanies the creation of an enclave facilitates limited entrepreneurship opportunity within the boundaries of the enclave itself (Neuman, 2016). Moreover, segregation creates a sense of group belonging and provides ethnic resources and cultural identity that provides an immigrant with their COO cultural element in COR. However, as noted previously, it may also hinder an entrepreneur's ability to seek opportunities beyond the enclave. For example, in the case of Blanchardstown, with approximately 16 ethnic shops serving about 4,000 Nigerians, the limited scope for development and expansion is self-evident. As Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) suggest, immigrant entrepreneurs aided with COO cultural elements in COR feel the need to do business within their own ethnic group. However, could the absence of these cultural elements have pushed immigrants to the discovery of opportunity in the mainstream society or cross-border entrepreneurship between COR and COO? This discussion goes beyond the scope of the present study, but clearly needs further exploration.

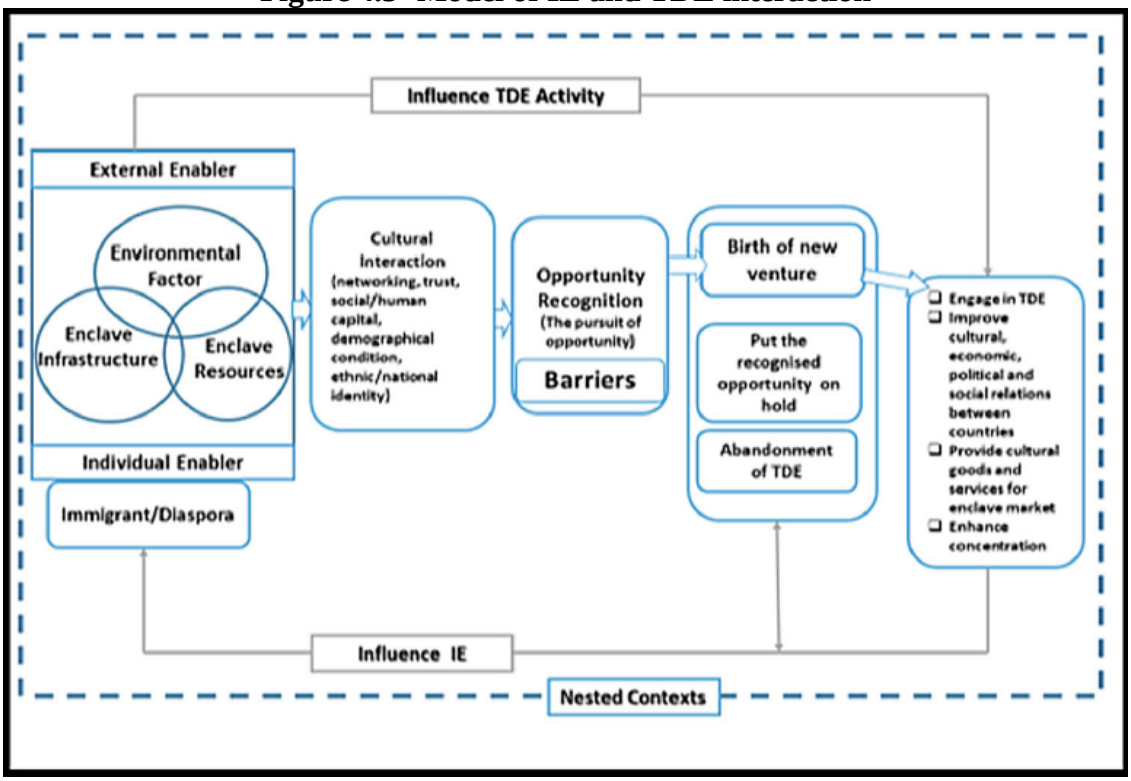
As Waldinger (1986) and Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) found, immigrant

entrepreneurs serve their own ethnic groups using the cultural understanding of their co-ethnic group to their advantage. The presence of these cultural elements, market niches and demographic characteristics create an enclave market and eventually transnational entrepreneurship. The national context has also been argued as an essential influencing factor in entrepreneurial opportunity formation within the enclave set-up. The suggestion is that government policies create a market, discourage price fixing and prevent market monopoly by large mainstream businesses, all of which facilitates and enhances TDE activity. What this suggests is that without government policies, SMEs would have been forced out of the market by large firms.

In conclusion, an IE creates a social field, infrastructures and resources for immigrant entrepreneurship in a COR. In any particular geographical area, these resources encourage immigrant concentration, create a market and facilitate the concentrated localisation of immigrant businesses. Government policies towards immigrant entrepreneurship in a COR encourage entrepreneurship and prevent large firms from engaging in price fixing that would otherwise force SMEs out of business. Furthermore, enclave and government policies can create the necessary conditions for an IE market in which immigrants are the main providers of goods and services. Overall, IE and TDE opportunities are dependent on immigrant cultural resources and government policies in COR. Furthermore, these resources encourage networking and building of trust within the enclave. Figure 4.3 presents an IE - TDE model that seeks to explain the relationship between the various elements. These elements identifies from the literature review formed the main elements in creating a framework of interaction for IE and TDE.

The framework propose that the pursuit of immigrant diaspora opportunity involves the ability of an individual entrepreneur to recognise and understand the capital, resources and infrastructure that are available in both a COR enclave and a COO (see Figure 4.3)

Figure 4.3- Model of IE and TDE interaction



Source: Literature Reviewed

According to the framework proposed in Figure 4.3 above, TDE activity begins with the coming together of immigrants in a specific geographical area in a COR, which creates resources and infrastructures, and facilitates cultural predisposition and demographical characteristics essential for an IE economy. When this happen, it creates interaction and opportunity for an individual with COO entrepreneurship knowledge to engage in entrepreneurial activity, using what Dimov (2012) termed 'individual enablers' (previous knowledge, persistence, consistence) and external (polices, regulation). Utilising these resources and building upon cultural interaction can lead to opportunity generation. Depending upon the nature of the opportunity, the support from enclave resources and the ability of the entrepreneur to exploit them, the opportunity presented may result in the birth of a new venture, or the opportunity may be abandoned completely. Should it be pursued, then it can lead to TDE activity and business interaction between an immigrant's home and host countries. The proposed model contributes to existing literature by explaining the dynamics of the interaction between IE and TDE activity. The present study also suggests that factors such as (1) good

entrepreneurial policies, (2) positive immigrant demographic conditions, (3) environmental factors, resources and infrastructures, and (4) immigrant culture, all encourage immigrant enclave entrepreneurial activity and have an influence on diaspora involvement in transnational entrepreneurship. Findings from the literature review support the view that the environment, resources and infrastructures provided by an IE provides create the conditions for potential TDE.

4.7 Conclusion

This Chapter discussed key policies that are essential to immigrant entrepreneurial opportunity in Ireland. Findings suggest that key immigrant entrepreneurial policies and directives passed down from the EU to Member States are essential elements for developing immigrant entrepreneurship within the national context. While Member States are directed on ways of implementing these policies, they are allowed to formulate their own policies, according to their own needs and requirements. In the Irish context, for example, the National Policy Statement of Ireland serves as the main framework for entrepreneurial development. The Irish government has also inserted elements into the educational curriculum designed to motivate more young people to consider entrepreneurship.

In EU countries, the increase in immigrant entrepreneurial activity seems to be the outcome of the inflow of immigrants and policies directed at improving immigrants' living conditions and improving the relationship between sending and receiving countries (Kloosterman, Van Der Leun, and Rath, 1999; Newland and Tanaka, 2010; Plaza and Ratha, 2011; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2010). The introduction of policies that favour immigrant entrepreneurship (e.g., residential permits, family reunification, student entrepreneurship policies) has increased immigrant entrepreneurial activity within the EU (Long-term Residents and Family Reunification Directives, 2003; 2008 and 2014). In the United Kingdom (UK), for example, policy directed at small businesses have seen a move away

from the pre-World War II dominance by large firms, to a 150% increase in the numbers of small businesses compared to the sixties (Bennett, 2008).

Policies guiding small firms have created the 'Restrictive Practices Act' that has prevented cartels and price fixing by the big multinational corporations (Carter and Jones-Evans, 2012). Bennett (2012) said that the formation of European Community in 1976 restricted state aids to industry; privatisation of former nationalised industries in 1979 and the reduction of government control radically in larger firms. Arguably, such policies have helped to reduce governmental aids to larger firms and created an equal playing field for both large and small firms. Within the national and international context policy implementation has increased an immigrant's settlement, cultural predisposition and created markets for a successful globalisation and TDE activity (Brouthers, and Nakos, 2004). What this suggests is that transnationalism is a result of entrepreneurship and immigrant settlement policies that government have provided (Brouthers, and Nakos, 2004; Teixeira et al., 2007). Hence, Chapter Five explores the methodology used to analysis finding from the literature reviewed and the primary collected data.

CHAPTER FIVE

Methodological Approach to the Present Study

5.1 Introduction

This study explores the relationship between immigrant enclaves (IE) and transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE) activity in Ireland. There are four main aspects to this research topic: (1) exploring how immigrants' concentration in a specific geographical area creates resources, capital, infrastructure and an environment for enclave entrepreneurship; (2) exploring the relationship between IE and TDE; (3) explaining how TDE influences immigrants' concentration within an IE; and (4) the use of a qualitative method of analysis to explain how IE creates TDE activity.

This chapter outlines the research strategy used for identifying themes and organising data for the present study. As the research is exploratory in nature and dependent on a small data sample, the study adopts a qualitative methodology based on the 'thematic analysis approach' (TA) devised by Braun and Clarke (2006). The flexibility involved in using TA in data analysis made it appropriate for a study like the present one that tests theories and selects themes on the basis of an empirical data set. *"[T]he 'keyness' of a theme is not necessarily dependent on quantifiable measures - but in terms of whether it captures something important in relation to the overall research question*" (Braun and Clarke 2006, p.82). Following the six phases of analysis recommended by Braun and Clarke helps to clarify a possible connectivity between the definitions of immigrant enclave (IE) and transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE) adopted in earlier chapters. In Chapter Two, the preferred definition of an IE was that suggested by Marcuse: "*An enclave is a spatially concentrated area in which members of a particular population group, self-defined by ethnicity or religion or otherwise, congregate as a means of enhancing their economic, social and/or cultural development*" *(*Marcuse's (1997, p.242). In Chapter Three, TDE practitioners were defined as: "*settled ethnic minority groups of migrant origins residing and acting in their COR, but maintaining strong sentimental, entrepreneurial and material links with their COO*" (Osaghae and Cooney, 2019, p.7). Participants in the present study are both immigrants and members of a diaspora, for whom an

understanding of their country of origin (COO) culture makes an essential contribution to the success of their business ventures in their country of residence (COR).

Before explaining how Braun and Clarke's six-phase approach to data analysis was employed in this study, the following sections offer some preliminary reflections on how the research questions were formulated initially on the basis of a review of previous studies that have addressed issues related to IE and TDE, as discussed in Chapters Two and Three.

5.2 Literary Review and Formulation of the Research Question

The present study explores the relationship between an immigrant enclave (IE) and transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE). An IE is constituted by the concentration of immigrants in a specific geographical area, which results in the formation of an immigrant economy within a COR. This process is greatly facilitated when supportive immigrant settlement policies are implemented by national governments. TDE is practised in a COR by entrepreneurs who belong to settled ethnic groups of migrant origin and maintain emotional and material links with their COO. In order to identify the links between an IE and TDE, a wide range of literature was consulted with the aim of highlighting trends and patterns within this area of study, thereby facilitating the formulation of a valid research question and the choice of the most appropriate methodological approach. A properly constructed research question guides the methods employed in gathering, analysing and interpreting data, as well as the overall design of the research project (Wesse-Biber, 2010; Karp, 1922). A correctly phrased research question also helps to avoid the risk of allowing academic clichés to distort the research (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

During the initial phase of designing and redesigning the research question, literature from a range of fields (anthropology, sociology, entrepreneurship, marketing, immigration studies) were consulted in order to see how the proposed research question related to existing work. It gradually became clear that, while there was an abundance of literature on both IE

formation and TDE activity, there was relatively little on the links between the two fields of study, and none on the links between the specific IE in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin and the TDE activity of members of this community. Thus, the focus of the research was gradually narrowed and the question was formulated as follows: *'What is the Relationship between Immigrant Enclaves and Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurial Activity in Ireland?'* Guided by this question, the present study seeks (1) to use theories to define and understand what an immigrant enclave (IE) is and why immigrants concentrate in a specific geographical area.; (2) to explain how IE entrepreneurship activity leads to transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE); (3) to understand how the contextual environment of an IE in a COR facilitates TDE activity; and (4) using the qualitative method of thematic analysis, to propose a conceptual framework for understanding the interaction between IE and TDE.

5.3 Research Approach

In any research, the philosophical framework within which the research is conducted, or the foundation upon which the research is based, determines which methodology will be employed (Brown, 2006). The 'philosophy' guiding a piece of research "*refers to a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge*" (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, p.124). The present study adopts a philosophical framework that represents a middle ground between objectivism and interpretivism (see Burgoyne 2011). Assumptions regarding participants in the study are those indicated by Cunliffe; *"humans [are] determined by their environment, socialised into existing social and institutional practices and requirements, [are] characterised by traits etc."* (Cunliffe, 2011, p.654). Although other philosophical approaches could have been used for the present study, maintaining elements of an interpretivist paradigm is essential in order to extract information from a community that feels somewhat vulnerable and defensive, and, hence, is very reluctant to disclose information about intra-enclave business activity. The conviction that certain knowledge results from natural phenomena, properties and relationships was the primary reason for objectivist approach. This allows the present study to

test the theories under consideration against the data set, thereby facilitating a response to the research question. The testing is conducted by means of a deductive process that requires a researcher to compare the data set with one or more observational predictions derived from a theory (see Haig 2005). The study employs semi-structured interviews and a cross sectional (snapshot) time horizon (6 - 8 months) for the data collection process. The advantage of this technique and procedure lies in its ability to use small sample data for analysis in order to draw conclusions in relation to the research question. Cunliffe (2011) describes this process as an objective, in-depth micro approach.

5.3.1 Commonly Used Research Philosophies

Positivism and interpretivist are two mutually exclusive paradigms regarding the nature and sources of knowledge (Dudovskiy, 2014). The positivist approach suggests that each individual knower is conditioned by different beliefs about what is meant by reality and that, consequently, our understanding is based on different assumptions about the world around us (Hudson and Ozane, 1988). Epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge and what is knowable. Each epistemological theory suggests a different path to knowledge and understands the object of knowledge in a different way. While the respective strengths and weaknesses of positivism and interpretivism are often hotly debated, both may be valid, but different (Saunders, et al., 2012). Interpretivist situate their research in a spatio-temporal context and seek multiple meanings, motives and reasons. According to Dudovskiy (2014), an interpretative researcher assumes that access to reality (understood either as a given or as socially constructed) is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, shared meanings and instruments.

Positivists assume that there is only one real, objective world which is external to actors, while interpretivist believes in the social construction of multiple ‘worlds’ by actors engaged in the world they are building (see Table 5.1 below)

Table 5.1 - Commonly Used Research Methodological Concepts

	Research Approach	Ontology	Axiology	Research Strategy
Positivism	Deductive	Objective	Value-free	Quantitative
Interpretivism	Inductive	Subjective	Biased	Qualitative
Pragmatism	Deductive/Inductive	Objective/subjective	Value-free/biased	Quantitative/quantitative

Sources: Adapted from Dudovskiy (2014)

Research based on a pragmatist philosophy will claim that the research question is the most important determinant of the research outcome. A pragmatist may combine elements of the positivist and interpretivist approaches within the scope of a single research question (Dudovskiy, 2014).

A naturalistic approach to data collection is an important aspect of interpretivist research philosophy. Hence the emphasis on context, observation, interaction, experimentation, interviews, and so on (Myers, 2008; Collins, 2010). Secondary data research also plays an important role in interpretivist approaches. In studies like the present one, meanings usually emerge towards the end of the research process. Table 5.2 below highlights some of the most important types of interpretivist research.

Table 5.2 - Most Noteworthy Varieties of Interpretivism

Hermeneutics	Refers to the philosophy of interpretation and understanding. Hermeneutics mainly focuses on biblical texts and wisdom literature and as such, has a little relevance to business studies.
Phenomenology	Is the philosophical tradition that seeks to understand the world through directly experiencing the phenomena
Symbolic Interactionism	Accepts symbols as culturally derived social objects having shared meanings. According to symbolic interactionism, symbols provide the means by which reality is constructed

Sources: Adapted from Dudovskiy (2014)

Generally, the interpretivist philosophy is based on either a relativist ontology or on a transactional or subjectivist epistemology (Dudovskiy, 2014). Relativistic ontology perceives

reality as subjective or intersubjective, based on meanings and understandings formed on the social and experiential levels. Subjectivist epistemology contends that people cannot be separated from their knowledge, that there is always a clear link between a researcher and the research subject (Myers, 2008; Collins, 2010; cited in Dudovskiy, 2014).

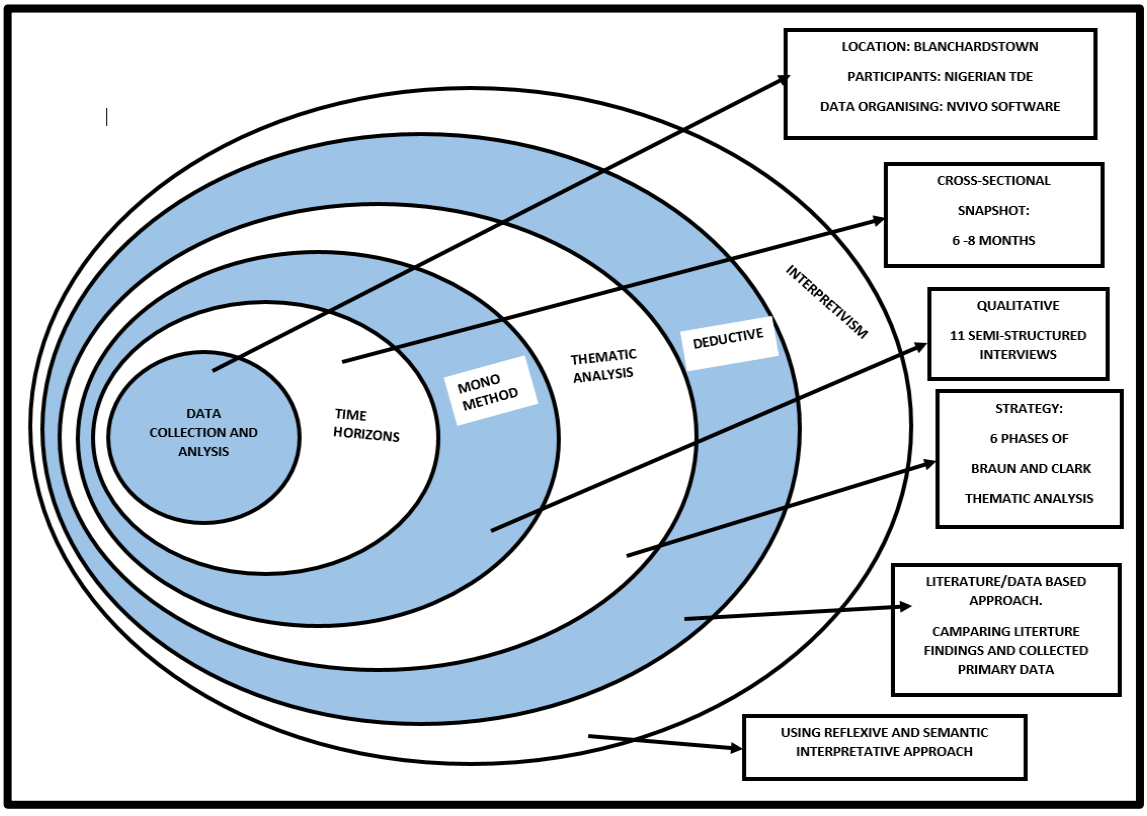
This present research adopted an interpretivist approach, as it is assumed that participants' experience (e.g. cultural differences, immigration experiences, etc.) may constitute different realities (Dudovskiy, 2014). Furthermore, the research acknowledges and embraces a strong subjectivist element, as this is deemed essential if the researcher is to understand the lived experience of the participants. However, as the following section explains, embracing an element of subjectivism does not mean abandoning the quest for an objective understanding of the material being researched.

5.3.2 Grounds for the Interpretivist and Objectivist Approaches

Bearing in mind the reluctance of the interviewees to be totally forthcoming about commercial activity with the Blanchardstown IE, the researcher adopted a combination of objectivist and interpretivist approaches that would allow for the collection, analysis and interpretation of the primary data, in order, subsequently, to explore common ground between the present study's findings and those of researchers surveyed in the literature review. As stated by Walsham (1995, p.376): "*interpretative methods of research adopt the position that our knowledge of reality is a social construction of human actors"*. Employing an interpretivist approach allowed the researcher to take account of the relationship between the interviewees' personal backgrounds and their entrepreneurial activity. It also left room to react to any on the spot issues that arose during the interviews. The interpretive element in the approach to this study allowed the researcher to interpret a social reality through the viewpoints of participants embedded in the context within which that reality is situated (Lin, 1998).

The objectivist component of the approach adopted in the present study allowed the researcher to give due weight to the fact that the interviewees' entrepreneurial activity is impacted by a variety of factors, both within the IE and external to it, including social actors (Government, State bodies, support agencies, etc.). Combining the interpretivist and objectivist approaches allowed the study to understand why certain views were expressed in a certain manner while retaining the capacity to compare the collected data with the literature and incorporate methodological tools of the natural sciences. For example, the use of visual graphs to present data aligns with what Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) suggest regarding the possibility of treating some areas of research in a manner akin to how a natural scientist studies physical phenomena. Saldaña (2015) refers to this as a process of moving from large chunks of information to more precise data. Additionally, the combination of interpretivist and objectivist approaches facilitated each of the phases of the thematic analysis employed in the present study (Beebe, Qiaoan, Wysocki and Endara, 2015). Figure 5.1 below summarises the methodological approach described above.

Figure 5.1 – Research Onion illustrating the present study's methodological approach



Source: Saunders et al., (2012)

5.3.3 Deductive Theoretical Thematic Analysis (TA)

As indicated above, the study adopts a thematic approach to data analysis, following the six-phase scheme devised by Braun and Clark. Using TA for the present study allows for identification of patterns or themes within the data set (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.78). TA is mostly regarded as a method rather than a methodology and is not tied to any particular epistemological or theoretical perspective (Braun and Clarke 2006; Braun and Clarke, 2013). The flexibility of this method makes it adaptable for qualitative data collection, while also facilitating an interpretation of the data in the context of the research question. TA also helps in choosing elements to be compared and contrasted, as well as articulating the grounds for comparison and explaining the flow of the argument (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.78).

TA may be defined as *"a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data"* (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun and Clark, 2006, p.6). In the present study, the use of TA helps in organising the data into a rich, manageable process of analysis, with sufficient flexibility to adapt to other epistemologies whenever necessary. Qualitative analytic methods can be divided roughly into two major types. The first type aims at identifying any constraints on a particular epistemological position, such as by means of conversation analysis and interpretative phenomenological analysis (Braun and Clark, 2006). The second type addresses factors which are essentially independent of theory and epistemology, but are accessible through a cross range of theoretical and epistemological approaches. TA, framed as a realist method that is compatible with both essentialist and constructionist paradigms, is usually classified within the second type of qualitative analysis (Aronson, 1994; Roulston, 2001).

The choice of thematic analysis (TA) for the present study allows for an accessible, theoretically-flexible approach, as well as the use of reflexive dialogue analysis (Braun and Wilkinson, 2003).Given the researcher's own theoretical interest in the topic and a desire to carry out an explicitly analytical-driven semantic interpretative study, using TA helps the

present study to search for themes or patterns in relation to different epistemological and ontological positions. In the interpretivist paradigm, a person's relationship with the world helps to create meaning and understanding (Timmermans and Tavory, 2012, p.172). A purely semantic approach would identify themes within the explicit or surface meanings of the collected data; the researcher would not look beyond the information available from the transcribed data (Patton, 1990; Braun and Clark, 2006). The analytical process employed in the present study involves a progression from mere description, where the data have simply been organised to show patterns in semantic content and simplified for interpretation, to searching for patterns of meaning and implications related to findings in the reviewed literature (Patton, 1990; Frith and Gleeson, 2004).

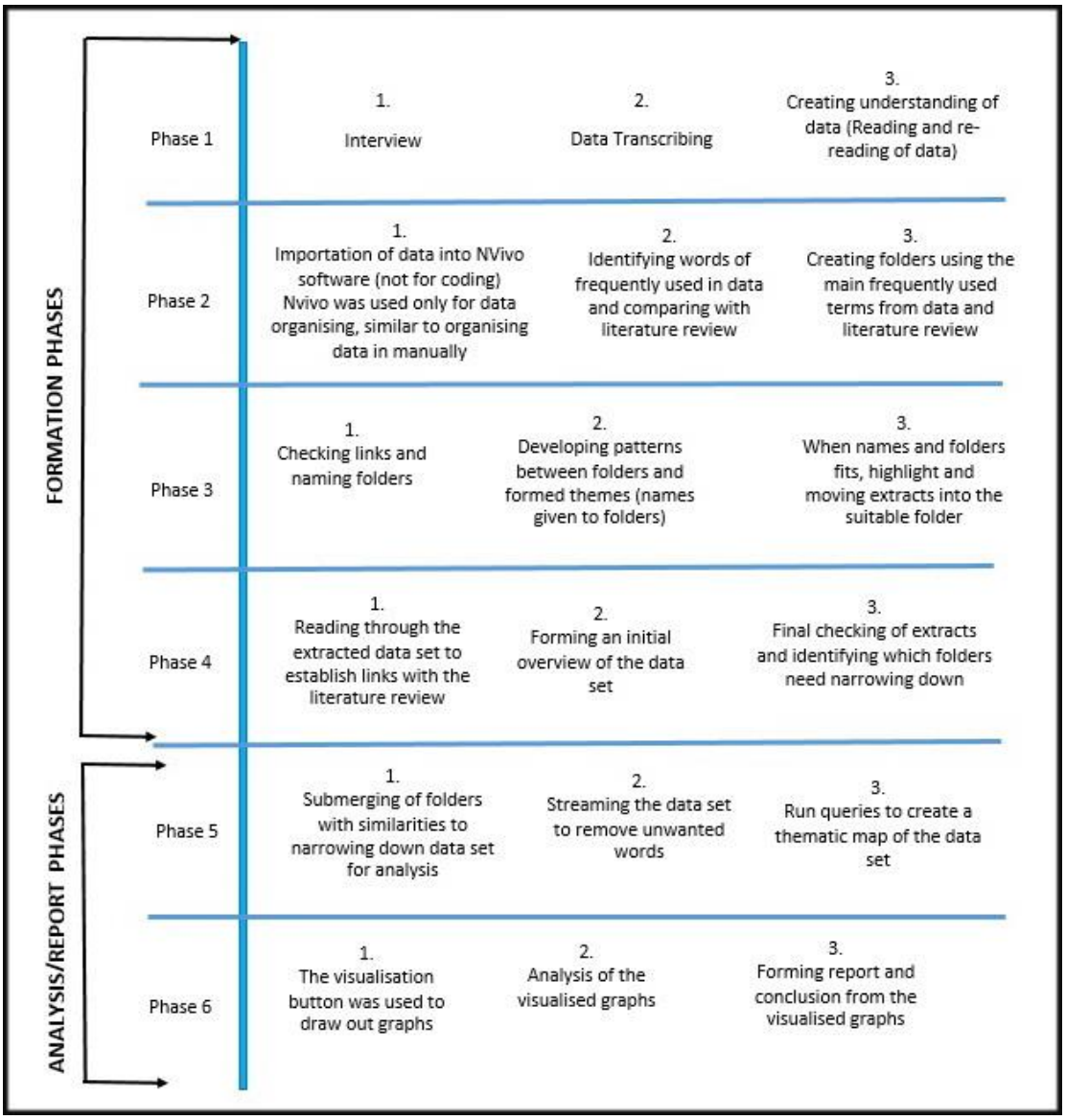
In TA research, there are two main ways of choosing a data set: either as a result of having a specific question, or on the basis of a number of decisions that need to be made (Braun and Clark, 2006). For the present study, the choice of TA resulted from the need to answer a specific research question regarding the relationship between IE and TDE activity in Ireland, using a data set collected specifically for this study. For example, in the present study there is no focus group, no observation or field notes, only a data set collected through interviews with TDE practitioners, which provide the basis for subsequent analysis. Finally, before explaining how TA was used in the present study, some terminological clarification may be helpful. 'Data corpus' refers to all data collected for a particular research project, while 'data set' refers to all the data from the corpus that is being used for a particular analysis. 'Data extract' refers to an individually labelled chunk of data which has been identified within, and extracted from, the data set to be used for the final analysis.

5.3.4 Braun and Clarke's Six-Phase Thematic Analysis (TA)

The decision to use TA and interviews aligned with the literature review. As is the case with the reviewed literature, interviews were the most common source of primary data. With

this a decision was taken not to use an observation method or field notes, but to base the collection of data on interviews alone. The six phases of thematic analysis (TA), as described by Braun and Clark (2006), were adopted for this study (see Table 5.3 below).

Table 5.3 – Six Phases of Thematic Analysis



Adapted from Braun and Clark (2006)

These six phases are similar to the phases of some other types of qualitative research (Taylor and Ussher, 2001). In Phase 1, following the completion of the data collection process, the collected data were transcribed, a rigorous and tiresome process, but advantageous to data understanding. Subsequently, the data were read and re-read in order to give the researcher the opportunity to become more familiar with the data and prepare them for software processing.

Reading and re-reading transcripts left the researcher in a better position to know what themes to create and how the data were to be classified.

In phase 2, to allow for data management and linking the collected data with the reviewed literature, elements of frequency of occurrence in the literature review were used to create thematic folders. Doing this was essential for organising the data corpus and comparing themes from both the literature review and the data set.

In Phase 3, the data were organised according to specific themes. For example, when a participant referred to an environmental issue, that section of the interview was moved into a corresponding thematic folder. The same process was carried out for all folders, searching for data related to any particular theme. On completion of this phase, it became clear that some of the folders could be merged to form sub-folders. Sub-folders are essentially folders-within-a-folder, useful for giving structure to a particularly large and complex theme, and also for demonstrating hierarchies of meaning within the data (Braun and Clark, 2006).

Phase 4 consisted of two levels. In Level 1, the themes were checked in relation to the data extracted earlier and folders containing related data were identified and grouped together. On completion of the process re-organising the folders in Level 1, the TA process moved to Level 2, when themes were reviewed in order to generate a thematic map that facilitated the process of analysis. Throughout Phase 4, the objective was to test the validity of individual themes in relation to the data set and to ascertain whether the themes worked in relation to the reviewed literature. In the present study, this exercise of checking and re-grouping clarified the themes and indicated how they would help the researcher to tell the overall story of the relationship between IE and TDE using both the reviewed theories and the gathered data.

In Phase 5, the specific features and details of the themes were further refined, generating clear definitions and names for each theme. References across multiple sources within the data set were examined prior to selecting the data extracts to be used for analysis.

The researcher repeatedly asked the following questions: *What does this theme mean?; What are the assumptions underpinning it?; What are the implications of this theme?; What conditions are likely to have given rise to it?; Why do people talk about this topic in this particular way (as opposed to other possible ways)?; What is the overall story the different themes reveal about the topic?*

The stage was now set for completion of the TA process in Phase 6. The selection of data extracts related to each theme was finalised and the analysis of the selected data was checked against the reviewed literature. The objective was to clarify the overall picture, leading to a final scholarly report of the analysis that helped to answer the initial research question. In the present study, this six-phase TA process clarified a possible relationship between an IE and TDE (see Chapter Six for the final analysis). To ensure that the present study adhered to all six phases, each of the steps outlined in Table 5.1 was followed carefully.

5.3.5 Sampling Strategy

Sampling is a specific method used to select members of the population to be included in a study. It allows the researcher to narrow down large populations of interest and use techniques of statistical selection to obtain sample data from a representative sub-set of the population (Saunders et al., 2012; Dudovskiy, 2014). As Brown (2006) explains, sampling is advantageous in the following ways: (a) it makes research of any type and size more manageable; (b) it significantly reduces the cost of the research; (c) it results in more accurate research findings; (d) it provides an opportunity to process the information in a more efficient way; and (e) it accelerates the speed of primary data collection.

Qualitative research is purposive, with the focus on small samples of subjects. In order to ensure the viability of a case study when using the qualitative method, boundaries must be set and a frame must be in place that will support the study of the case in question (Miles and Huberman 1994).

Table 5.4 - Three Types of Snowball Sampling Strategy

Linear Snowball Sampling	Exponential Non-discriminative Snowball Sampling.	Exponential Discriminative Snowball Sampling
Formation of a sample group starts with only one subject and the subject provides only one referral. The referral is recruited into the sample group and he/she also provides only one new referral. This pattern is continued until the sample group is fully formed.	The first subject recruited to the sample group provides multiple referrals. Each new referral is explored until primary data from a sufficient number of samples has been collected.	Subjects provide multiple referrals; however, only one new subject is recruited among them. The choice of a new subject is guided by the aim and objectives of the study.

Source: Author

Accordingly, the present study adopted a 'snowball sampling' approach. Snowball sampling is a non-probability technique (also known as chain-referral sampling), involving a process whereby primary data sources nominate other potential primary data sources to be used in the research (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Snowball sampling technique is used when the characteristics sought in the sample group are rare and difficult to find (Dudovskiy 2014). The snowball sampling approach follows three main patterns, as outlined in Table 5.2 above.

The present study adopts the 'exponential discriminative snowball sampling' technique. By means of careful case selection guided by the research aim and objectives, logical analysis and cross-comparison of data, this technique facilitates an understanding of how well or accurately a study indicates what an entire population believes. Additionally, by avoiding an oversampling of a particular network of peers, it averts the danger of bias associated with other modes of selecting participants (Saunders et al., 2016). In the case of the present study, the exponential discriminative snowball sampling technique allowed each interviewee to nominate two other persons, from which the researcher chose one for interview.

The use of personal referrals greatly reduced the difficulty of gaining the trust of enclave entrepreneurs. The exponential discriminative snowball sampling' technique allowed access to a community that rarely opens up to outsiders. In the initial stage of the data collection process, the intervention of a local pastor and the editor of a local community ethnic newspaper helped significantly. After the first interviewees had completed the process, those nominated by them on the basis of personal acquaintance were much more likely to trust the researcher. In line with

the cautionary advice by Guba (1978) that researchers should not stray beyond the research problem, the researcher understood that over-extension should be accepted only when emergence of new information appeared likely and that care should be exercised to ensure that the study remained within the boundaries of the research problem.

5.4 Data Collection Strategy

Two types of data collection strategy, primary and secondary, are commonly associated with research. Primary data are original, unpublished and collected for a specific purpose. Secondary data refers to data that have been published (in journals, magazines, books, online portals and other sources) as part of previous research. Primary data are collected and analysed critically in order to answer specific research questions. Primary data can be divided into two main categories, qualitative and quantitative. Data in quantitative research appears mostly in the form of numbers, specific measurements, tables, graphs and pie-charts (Saunders et al., 2012). Qualitative data are illustrated in the form of words, images, transcripts, and are usually presented verbally (Dudovskiy, 2014).

At the initial stage of the data collection process for this study, using the theoretical findings from the literature allowed for the formulation of questions for semi-structured interviews. As Corbin and Strauss (2008: p.36) point out, *"it is impossible to know prior to the investigation what salient problems or what relevant concepts will be derived from this set of data*". The construct of in-depth interviews based upon theoretical concepts from the literature gave the researcher an insight into how the interviews should be structured and helped to build a conceptual framework of time, procedures and potential participants. Discussion regarding conceptual framework usage in research indicates that the presence of a framework serves to focus a study, which may or may not be compatible with the emergent nature of the methodology. Hence, the semi-structured interview employed in this work was designed to allow space for unanticipated factors to emerge. Additionally, interviews centred on several key

topics rather than questions alone. Miles and Huberman (1994) explain how the use of this type of instrumentation allows the researcher to uncover the unexpected and suggest that if there is no instrumentation, researchers may not know what they wish to elicit or how to avoid data overload. The use of validated instruments can ensure dependable and meaningful findings.

In qualitative methodology, there are no strict guidelines regarding when to stop data generation, but rather rational boundaries are applied to the qualitative data collection process. Rao, Glickman and Glynn (2010) suggest comparing estimates from fully imputed data where the imputations are based on a subset of early responders and fully imputed data where the imputations are based on the combined set of early and late responders. If these two estimates are different, then late responders are changing the estimate of interest. Guba (1978) outlines a set of reasons for ceasing data generation: the exhaustion of resources, emergence of regularities and going beyond the research problem (over-extension). The exhaustion of resources is a factor that commonly limits research; frequently, a research project is defined not just by its quality or quantity, but also by the time and financial resources available. Finance was not an issue in the present study.

In the course of this study, the emergence of regularities (similarity to previously generated data) suggested that data collection was no longer eliciting new knowledge and that it should, therefore, move towards a conclusion. It was understood by the researcher that over-extension should be accepted when emergence of new information appeared likely, but that caution should be exercised to ensure that the study remained within the boundaries of the research problem. Data collection ceased in this study after the eleventh interview, when newly generated data were clearly similar to previously generated data.

5.4.1 The Researcher's Role in the Data Collection Strategy

In the use of semi-structured interviews, care must be taken to ensure that data are not influenced by the researcher's own views. In the data collection process for the present study,

the researcher asked the questions, recorded the interaction and transcribed the responses. Whilst the researcher's own ethnic background probably helped in gaining the participants' trust and in understanding the collected data, it played no part in shaping the responses. In order to ensure that the researcher's own ethnic background played no part in conditioning the data, the following basic steps were followed, as suggested by Thornhill, Saunders and Lewis (2009); (a) the interviewees were not interrupted during interview; (b) questions were structured in a manner designed to encourage the participants to speak freely; (c) the researcher only asked the questions, recorded the responses and transcribed them word for word, as spoken by the participants. There was also an understanding that the researcher is a tool used to draw purposefully from the participant information that is relevant to the study, to compile data relevant for this study. It is appropriate, however, to indicate how the researcher became interested in this particular topic in the first place.

The present study is a by-product of the researcher's travels and encounters with immigrant groups of different nationalities in a variety of settings. The researcher was born in Nigeria, where he spent his early life before moving to Austria in 1996. At that time, supportive resources for prospective immigrant businesses were rare in Austria and TDE activity was almost non-existent. The researcher relocated to Ireland in 2004, to begin a degree program in Business Studies. A 2007 visit to the district of Peckham in London brought new insight into potential uses of IE resources for business start-ups. On completion of a primary degree in Business Studies the researcher went on to complete a Master's degree in International Business, in the course of which his understanding of culture and enclave resources was further broadened. His final Masters dissertation examined how Nigerian entrepreneurs in Ireland were influenced by their original ethnic culture. Subsequently, the complex relationship between IE dynamics and TDE activity became the focus of his interest. This area of research is less developed in the literature. In the case of IE enclaves in Ireland, it represents a new field of study.

As Brannick and Roche (1997) suggest, it is only through a combination of theory and practical life experiences that a researcher can know what needs to be studied. The present researcher's own ethnic background and experience as an immigrant heightened his sensitivity to additional layers of information contained in the data. However, despite the researcher's own background, gaining the trust of the participants in this study was not straightforward. Variations in culture and languages in different parts of Nigeria created some initial barriers. The intervention of community leaders, pastors and local agencies was of great assistance in facilitating interaction between the researcher and the interviewees. Defining boundaries and respecting the ethical procedure established for the research (see section 5.5.2 below) prevented the researcher from becoming involved in the emotional experience of the participants (James and Platzer, 1999).

5.4.2 Ethical Considerations

In a study like this, the most significant ethical issues are related to personal disclosure, authenticity and credibility (Creswell 2009). Dudovskiy encapsulates best ethical practice in a number of principles that should guide a researcher in order to ensure the safety of participants and the integrity of the work (see Table 5.5 below).

Table 5.5 - Ten Principles of Ethical Research

Research participants should not be subjected to harm in any ways whatsoever.
Respect for the dignity of research participants should be prioritised
Full consent should be obtained from the participants prior to the study.
The protection of the privacy of research participants has to be ensured.
An adequate level of confidentiality of the research data should be ensured.
The anonymity of individuals and organisations participating in the research has to be ensured.
Any deception or exaggeration about the aims and objectives of the research must be avoided.
Affiliations in any forms, sources of funding, as well as any possible conflicts of interests have to be declared.
Any type of communication in relation to the research should be done with honesty and transparency.
Any type of misleading information, as well as representation of primary data findings in a biased way, must be avoided.

Source: Adapted from Dudovskiy (2014)

This study anonymised the identity of the interviewees and ensured their willingness to participate by means of signed research consent forms and an opportunity to review the

transcribed interviews. Before commencing the interviews, each participant was sent an email that, in addition to a consent form, included an introduction to the researcher, background information on the research topic and project, the possible benefits of participating, a guarantee of confidentiality, a proposed time frame for the interview and an offer to respond to any additional questions that participants might have.

According to James and Platzer (1999), unique ethical issues arise when research seeks to understand and present the experience of individuals who are regarded as 'the other' in society. A member of an immigrant group might experience discrimination, segregation or marginalisation through participation in research. Hence, special measures are required to guarantee anonymity and confidentiality (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Kvale, 1996). It is the duty of the researcher to protect the names and personal details of the participants (Lofland et al., 2006:51; Patton, 2002; Kvale, 1996). In relation to the present study, participants were assured that their identity would not be disclosed or shared without their consent. Data collected for this work includes contact information, audio files of interviews and transcripts of interviews, contact summary forms and informed consent replies. These will be retained securely by the researcher for verification purposes and for use in any future study if and when needed (see Appendix 11). In the data analysis and presentation of findings, the researcher avoided the use of biased language, ensured that findings were not altered to suit objectives, anticipated possible repercussions of publication and submitted details of the research design for scrutiny. Prior to approaching the participants for the current study ethical approval was sought from the Dublin Institute of Technology (DIT) (now Technological University Dublin [TU Dublin]) ethical committee. Approval was granted in May 2018 (see Appendix 10).

5.4.3 The Interviews

Qualitative interviewing was considered to be most appropriate, given the exploratory nature of the study and the sensitivities involved in interactions between members of a tightly knit IE community and an interviewer perceived as an outsider (Rubin and Rubin, 2005;

Polonsky and Waller, 2005). According to Boyce and Neale (2006, p.3), qualitative research involves conducting intensive individual interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea, program or situation. Three types of interviews (in-depth, semi-structured and unstructured) are commonly employed in this type of research. The present study used in-depth interviews based on a series of pre-determined questions that all interviewees answered in the same order. This choice of interview design was motivated by the need to gain the trust of participants who rarely disclose information about their business activities. A different approach might have raised suspicions of ulterior motives on the part of the researcher. Respecting culturally conditioned sensitivities was a significant factor in gathering data for the present study.

Data analysis of in-depth interviews tends to be more straightforward compared to other forms of interview, because the researcher can compare and contrast different answers given to the same question. Unstructured interviews are usually the least reliable from a research viewpoint because no prior questions are prepared and interviews are conducted in an informal manner. Analysis of unstructured interviews is more vulnerable to bias and comparison of answers given by different respondents tends to be difficult due to the differences in the formulation of the questions. Semi-structured interviews contain elements of both structured and unstructured interviews. In semi-structured interviews, the researcher prepares a set of questions to be answered by all interviewees, but they have the advantage of allowing for additional questions in order to clarify or expand on certain issues (see Appendix 13). The main disadvantages of semi-structured interviews include the longer timeframe required both for the interviews and for comparison of generated data. In order to minimise the danger of bias, the researcher should have an open mind and refrain from displaying disagreement in any form when viewpoints expressed by interviewees contradict the researcher's own opinions.

Interviews need to be conducted in a relaxed environment, free of any form of pressure for the interviewees (Engel and Schutt, 2009). The interviewer should give a brief, casual

introduction to the study, stressing the importance of the person's participation and reiterating assurance of anonymity and confidentiality (Connaway and Powell, 2010, p.170) (see Table 5.6 below).

Table 5.6 – Aspects of the Qualitative Interview Defined

Aspect	Definition
Life World	The topic of qualitative interviews is the reality lived by the participant and their relation to it.
Meaning	The interview seeks to understand the meaning of themes in the reality of the participant.
Qualitative	Interview seeks knowledge in normal language and is not interested in the quantification of findings.
Descriptive	Interview pursues open descriptions of participant's life world.
Specificity	Descriptions of specific situations and action sequences are elicited, not general opinions.
Deliberate Naïveté	Interviewer is open to emergent, unexpected phenomena.
Ambiguity	Participant statements are sometimes ambiguous, reflecting contradictions in the world the subject lives in.
Change	The process of being interviewed can produce new insights, and the participant may change their descriptions and meanings about a theme within the interview.
Sensitivity	Sensitivity to, and knowledge of, interview topic will vary between researchers and can lead to varied information being elicited.
Interpersonal Situation	Knowledge obtained is produced through interpersonal interaction.
Positive Experience	Well carried out research can enrich the experience of the participant who may be revealed insights into their life situation.

Source: Adapted from Kvale, 1996: p.30-31

Guided by the literature on qualitative research and the required interview methodology, the author conducted semi-structured interviews with each participant, with initial questions based on theoretical findings from the literature. The use of an interview guide, in the form of a theme sheet which outlined the key areas of importance, helped data generation and supported the flow of information from the participants. Thus, the collected data remained both relevant to the research problem and true to the personal experience of the participants. Kvale (1996) discusses the mode of understanding in qualitative research interviews and explains some of the principal features of this method. The study avoided ambiguity and insensitivity during the data collection process by the researcher avoiding any expression of own emotions and opinions while interviewing the participants. As highlighted in Table 5.5 above, themes were created

using a combination of participants' responses to interview questions and findings from the literature review. The terminology found in Table 5.5 will be used in Chapters Six and Seven when presenting and discussing the findings of the research. In addition, these terms, as defined, will provide a guide for the researcher in avoiding biased interpretation of the primary data.

5.5 Organising the Data

As Ely et al., (1991) point out, organising data is most useful in creating an intense conversation between a researcher and the collected data. The data for analysis in this work was recorded using the voice memo application of a Dictaphone (Sony ICD-PX240). This was then transcribed by the researcher using the Microsoft Word application by the researcher and the transcription files were exported to Google Drive for safe storage. The process was time-consuming, but advantageous to the data analysis process, due to the intimate knowledge of the data gained during transcription. Organising qualitative data can be described as a process of breaking the data into manageable pieces, synthesising the data, looking for patterns, identifying what is important and deciding what to include in presenting the data to others (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982). It involves moving raw data towards a meaningful narrative that can be shared through a presentation of the findings of the research exercise (Hoepfl, 1997). In qualitative research, data organisation is a somewhat creative process that is challenging. For an effective communication of findings, researchers have to find productive ways to organise and inspect their materials (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996).

There are many different approaches to qualitative data analysis which have been widely debated in the social sciences literature (Bryman and Burgess, 1994; Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Dey, 1993; Mason, 1996; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Silverman, 1993; Strauss, 1987) theme have been classified into three possible groups as follows: (1) literal; (2) interpretive; and (3) reflexive (Mason, 1996, p.54). The first approach focuses on the use of a particular language or grammatical structure. The second approach is concerned with making sense of

research participants' accounts, so the researcher is attempting to interpret their meaning. The third approach is reflexive and includes consideration of the researcher's contribution to the data creation and analysis process. For the present study, the researcher followed the six phases of TA, as explained by Braun and Clarke (see Table 5.1 above).

Using NVivo software facilitates organising the data into manageable conceptual categories based on content (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). In the case of the present study, it helped to generate themes for analysis. NVivo was used also to identify possible connections such as large chunks of varying-sized words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs that could form a straightforward label, or a more complex one (e.g., a metaphor) (Miles and Huberman, 1994). NVivo also allowed for organising themes in order to find commonalities, differences, patterns and relevant structural phenomena (Seidel and Kelle, 1995). Generating and organising themes provide links between sets of concepts or ideas, which enable the researcher to go beyond the primary data (Coffey and Atkinson, 1996). In accordance with the TA process described by Braun and Clark, four overlapping and complimentary themes were created using elements of plurality from the literature and the creation of attributes (sub-folders) with elements of similar conceptual meaning as the elements of plurality. As the TDE opportunity process became clearer, the researcher proceeded towards compiling a report on the connectivity between IE and TDE activity.

5.6 Research Evaluation

As Hoepfl (1997) explains, a good study can help anticipate the future, not through prediction but as a guide or a map. Eisner (1991: p.59) argues that good research guides and calls our attention to aspects of a situation or place that one might otherwise miss, and he suggests: that research evaluation should consider whether the following three criteria have been satisfied: (a) coherence: whether the study makes sense and can be supported through evidence from literature or data; (b) consensus: reviewers' understanding of

findings/interpretations being consistent with evidence presented; and (c) instrumental utility: the usefulness of a study, how the study aligns with previous work done or relates to other areas of study.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) highlight transferability, credibility, dependability and confirmability as essential elements to the evaluation of a research, while Merriam (2009) argues that good qualitative research should be credible, reliable and generalisable. Henwood and Pidgeon (1992) suggest seven attributes which signify good credibility as follows: (a) importance of fit: the researcher provides a clear account of how themes or categories fit the data; (b) integration of theory: it is clear how the findings can move towards generating a theory; (c) reflexivity: the role of the researcher is accounted for; (d) documentation: the researcher provides a data trail that can be audited; (e) theoretical sampling and negative case analysis: research includes exploration of cases that don't fit; (f) sensitivity to negotiated realities: the research demonstrates awareness of context; and (g) transferability: the researcher indicates how research can be applied beyond the study context. As found in the study by Henwood and Pidgeon, these standards ensure that research work is based on real data, of a quality that can contribute to the literature and not altered to meet the initial objectives of the research.

There is not universal agreement regarding the measurements to be used in evaluating qualitative work. For example, Madill et al. (2000) believe that confirmability and accuracy are meaningless and they offer alternative criteria (e.g. internal coherence, logical analysis, freedom from contradiction, deviant case analysis and reader evaluation). Richardson (2000) suggests that criteria other than the strictly 'scientific' should be considered in evaluating qualitative research: 'literary' dimensions; substantive contribution; aesthetic merit; reflexivity; impact; expression of reality. Finlay (2002) highlights the desire for artistry in qualitative research evaluation, along with Polkinghorne (1983) and Bochner (2000; 2001) who encouraged the use of emotion, aesthetic illustration, elegance and richness in the 'poetic social science' of understanding. Drawing chiefly on Lincoln and Guba (1985), Henwood and Pidgeon

(1992) and Dudovskiy (2014, see Table 5.4 earlier), this present study adopted the following ethical considerations as a basis for evaluating the success of the present research: (1) credibility, (2) validity, (3) dependability, (4) reflexivity, (5) transferability, and (6) confirmability. These criteria for evaluation have been selected on the basis of their strength and their widespread use in the literature.

5.6.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to the plausibility of the researcher's interpretation of the truth about the reality presented in the findings. This involves a triangulation of meaning between the researcher, the participants and the evaluator of research. This notion of 'credibility' differs from a positivist concept of 'internal validity' that requires verifying a single truth. The interpretivist definition of 'credibility' is not about a large data collection or the critical mass of representation, but rather refers to the richness of the information gathered and the analytical ability of the researcher to tell the truth about the data collected (Finlay, 2002). Credibility is achieved in this work through methodological validity, the use of the exponential discriminative snowball sampling technique (subjects provide multiple referrals; however, only one new subject is recruited among them) to avoid biases, the use of multiple analysis aids (e.g. guidance, supervision and conference presentation) and consideration of the meaning behind the participants' contributions to the data through active listening.

5.6.2 Validity and Dependability

Miles and Huberman (1994) emphasise the importance of validity in the reporting of findings and suggest that whenever validity is not taken into consideration, one is left with interesting stories about what happened, of unknown truth and utility. Validity was ensured in this work by means of ongoing peer review, engagement with colleagues and guidance sought throughout the research. This was achieved through the formal presentation of the research to the Technological University Dublin (TU Dublin) colleagues and at several conferences, both

domestic and international. The feedback from conference presentations and colloquia helped to shape the direction of the research. The publication of the framework of the relationship between IE and TDE in the Journal of Ethics and Migration Studies also tested the validity of the research.

Ensuring the validity of the work also involved closely monitoring the consistency and dependability of the data gathering and analysis process. The measures utilised in gathering and transcribing the raw data and a careful following of the TA phases described above were critical in ensuring the dependability for the research. Campbell (1996) suggests that consistency of data is verified through examination of raw data, data reduction and research notes. The present researcher retained hard and soft copies of contact summary forms, interview transcripts and informed consent forms signed by participants in order to ensure that the dependability of the data and methods could be verified (see Appendix 12). Using the NVivo software allowed for materials to be encrypted and stored in the researcher's PC with password protection. Hard copies of transcribed interviews, recorded audio, as well as digital copies on USB and hard drives are retained in a locked cabinet.

5.6.3 Reflexivity

Brewer (2000, p.132) suggests that researchers should always ask themselves what they bring to the work, how they view the world, and how this can influence meaning. Denscombe (1998) insists that researchers need to present a 'public account of their self' in order to guarantee transparency. Chesney (200, p.131) argues that researchers ought to reflect candidly on the impact of their role in the generation and interpretation of data; doing so helps researchers to retain integrity, develop insights and self-awareness, and grow in self-confidence. According to Creswell (2005), reflexive analysis helps to legitimise research by allowing the researcher to critically assess oneself/her professional integrity, the soundness of decisions concerning research design, strategy, methods and theoretical framework and, hence, the resulting data. In

the course of the present work, the researcher frequently engaged in a process of self-reflection as a means of avoiding personal bias and corruption of the generated data.

5.6.4 Transferability

Most research aims to produce a study that can be adapted to other areas of investigation. Transferability in research refers to the ability to generalise findings across different settings. However, Lincoln and Guba (1985) point out that the significance of local conditions in qualitative research means that it is not poised to offer generalisability. Hoepfl (1997) notes that in the interpretivist paradigm, the transferability of work depends entirely on the similarity between the situation studied and that to which it is proposed to transfer the findings. The present study has provided a clear and comprehensive record of the situation examined through discussion and description of the specific geographical context, the sample, the research questions and the methodology employed. The findings based on the present study's collected data and literature review can be transferred to other IE communities with cultural predispositions similar to those found in Blanchardstown. For example, the activity within the Nigerian enclave in Blanchardstown will be similar to other Nigerian enclaves in Ireland. However, should the findings of this research be transferred, local conditions must be taken into account.

5.6.5 Confirmability

The concept of confirmability is normally nested within the quantitative paradigm and refers to the objectivity of the researcher and the value-free measurement of data. However, as Hoepfl (1997) points out, qualitative work is inherently value-bound, interpretative and, therefore, inescapably subjective. Hence, a quantitative notion of confirmability is not an adequate tool for the evaluation of the present work. Lincoln and Guba (1985) use the term confirmability to refer to the degree to which a researcher can offer neutral interpretations of the research. This shifts the source of 'objectivity' from the individual researcher to the actual

data and the methods employed in their analysis. To ensure the confirmability of the present research, all interviews conducted were transcribed, word by word, as recorded during the interviewing process; the transcribed data were brought back to the interviewees for review in order to ensure that their data had been transcribed correctly; subsequently, the interpretation of the data, following the six phases of TA, was carefully documented.

5.7 Conclusion

The purpose of this Chapter was to outline the methodological approach to the present study. The most significant objective in following the chosen methodology was to ensure that the study would be coherent, easily understood and useful in the field to which it contributes. The credibility, validity, dependability, reflexivity, transferability and confirmability of the work were paramount in the design of the methodology and the research process. For an understanding of the methodological processes adopted for this study, adherence to the criteria and guidelines of the methodology helped the researcher maintain focus and avoid bias. Reviewing the literature was prioritised, but the research remained flexible so as not to blind the researcher to any emergent data, while simultaneously avoiding indiscriminate data generation. Adopting the six phases of thematic analysis outlined by Braun and Clark (2006) for the present study gave the researcher the flexibility to interpret data without being bound to a particular epistemological framework.

As indicated in Figure 5.2, through the various theories and concepts found in the literature and the non-inclusion of numeric data, it became clear that the most appropriate way to conduct the research was by means of a qualitative method. Using a qualitative method allowed for the inclusion of any on-the-spot issues that might arise during the interview process. Furthermore, the use of semi-structured interviews as part of a qualitative methodology allowed room for the expression of individual experience and sentiment. A non-probability sampling strategy helped to increase the number of respondents. Because of ethical considerations,

participants were anonymised; Appendix 9providesfictitious first names, along with biographical details that are relevant to the research, but insufficient to reveal the actual identity of participants. While care was taken to ensure that the researcher's own background and point of view did not distort either the generation or analysis of the data, considerations related to the role of a researcher in this type of qualitative investigation demanded an element of self-reflection throughout the process.

The NVivo software employed in the process of data organisation helped to provide transparency, maintain consistency and reach meaningful findings with the aid of visual representations. Using this software also facilitated the subdivision, categorisation and labelling of data. Finally, at the completion of this work, all information collected from the participant was locked away in a safe and secured place. Chapter Six will present a detailed account of the data analysis process, along with the findings from the literature review and an explanation of how the data set was employed in order to answer the research question.

CHAPTER SIX

Data Collection and Analysis

6.1 Introduction

The discussion in this chapter will focus on the themes and trends which emerged from the literature review, the collected primary data and the results gathered from processing the data with the NVivo software tool. The chapter also discusses the role of thematic analysis (TA) in comparing empirical findings from the literature and the collected primary data set in order to draw conclusions regarding a possible relationship between IE and TDE.

Table 6.1 – Outline of Chapter Six

As explained in preceding chapters, an IE allows for the persistence of COO cultural predispositions in immigrants' country of residency (COR), while TDE consists of commercial activity between a COR and a COO by settled immigrant entrepreneurs. The literature review cited numerous examples of how immigrants bring their COO culture to their COR. In an IE environment, culture is closely associated with ethnicity (Betancourt and López, 1993; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). Ethnicity refers to affiliation with a group that ais characterised in terms of a common nationality, culture, or language. While cultural background can be a determinant of ethnic identity or affiliation, being part of an ethnic group can also determine culture (Eriksen, 1997).

When compared to other minority and ethnic groups within a national context, an IE displays both similarities and differences. Any minority consists of people who are not members of the majority population within a national context. In the U.S., for example, federal categories

of minority groups include Blacks, Hispanics or Latin Americans, Asians, Pacific Islanders, American Indians and or Alaska Natives. In Ireland, a list of minorities would include non-Irish natives such as the Poles, the Lithuanians and the Nigerians. It would also include the has also been used in reference to the Irish-born Traveller community (Waldinger, Aldrich, and Ward, 1990). Identification with an IE indicates membership of a network linking migrants, former migrants and non-migrants with a common ethnic origin. (Butler and Greene, 1997). The terms 'enclave' and 'minority' are frequently associated with segregation, marginalisation and separation form mainstream society. However, when immigrants or minority groups are found concentrated in a specific geographical area, sharing the same national identity, culture and language, the resulting enclave may generate certain advantages, especially where TDE is concerned. Following these discussion and the definition of enclave in (see also sections 2.2 on enclaves; 2.3 on immigration; 2.8.2 on acculturation and emergence of IE economies; and 2.9 on the concepts of IE and TDE activity). The main finding in the present study is that the availability of COO cultural predispositions are a key factor in the formation of resources, infrastructures and an environment as activities that are favourable to the formation of an IE economy and TDE activity in a COR.

6.2 Profile of Participants

The participants in the present study are all Nigerian immigrants residing in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin for at least seven years. All have become naturalised Irish citizens. They are entrepreneurs serving the Nigerian community and either have commercial links with Nigeria or intend to start a business involving such links. It is important to reiterate that the names and business addresses used in this study have been anonymised. The unwillingness of some participants to allow publication of personal details and businesses addresses was the reason behind protecting their identity. Table 6.2 summarises relevant biographical information.

Table 6.2: Profile of the Participants

Name	Current nationality	Previous nationality	Years In Ireland	Business name and location	Type of business	TDE Practitioner
Adaku	Irish	Nigerian	10+	Declined Inclusion	Ethnic consultancy firm	Yes
Adolor	Irish	Nigerian	12+	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Hairdressing salon	Yes
Bola	Irish	Nigerian	13+	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Africa foods	Yes
Benson	Irish	Nigerian	14+	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Transportation	Planning
Jen	Irish	Nigerian	10+	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Pedicure and Manicure	Yes
Juliet	Irish	Nigerian	12+	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Export of good to Nigeria	Planning
Ifeyinwe	Irish	Nigerian	10+	DUUD African Foods Blanchardstown Dublin 15	African Foods/Community · Grocery Store	Yes
Matthew	Irish	Nigerian	7+	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Hairdressing salon	Planning
Osaro	Irish	Nigerian	11+	Declined Inclusion	African Food	Yes
Ritah	Irish	Nigerian	12+	Declined Inclusion	Hair and food	Yes
Stella	Irish	Nigerian	15+	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	African hair saloon	Yes

The suggestion in the literature is that prior entrepreneurial knowledge aids enclave start-up (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Manning, 2012). A query of the collected data revealed that five of the eleven participants had some entrepreneurial experience before arriving Ireland, while the other six had no practical experience, but had some understanding of what entrepreneurship involves.

6.2.1 The Nigerian IE in Blanchardstown

Qualitative research requires a description of the geographical location, including any related information that may contribute to the data analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Using the Irish Central Statistics Office (CSO) 2016 Census data, as mentioned in Chapter Four, the

researcher identified the Blanchardstown area of Dublin as a promising location for the proposed study. Among Africans living in Ireland, 13,079 Nigerians represent the largest ethnic group (CSO, 2016). The majority of Nigerians in Ireland live in Blanchardstown, an area with an estimated 16 ethnic shops serving over 4,000 men, women and children of Nigerian origin (Komolafe 2003; CSO, 2016). The high concentration of Nigerians in Blanchardstown facilitates a confluence of Nigerian culture, population, environmental resources, market niche and enclave economy, all of which are elements believed to aid IE entrepreneurship opportunity (Portes and Jensen, 1989: Neuman, 2016).

The identification of Blanchardstown as an enclave for the Nigerian community in Ireland provided an opportunity for the researcher to carryout qualitative data collection to explore possible links between IE and TDE activity. To be selected for interview, participants were required to have obtained Irish citizenship, to be engaged in entrepreneurial activity in Blanchardstown (male or female) and to have business connections linking Ireland and Nigeria. At the commencement of this study, in common with many other countries, Ireland was emerging from recession, so banks were still reluctant to provide loans to ethnic and non-ethnic small businesses. Hence, the IE entrepreneurs interviewed for the present study launched their business against the backdrop of a low level of business start-ups in Ireland.

Following initial familiarisation with the Blanchardstown IE, contact was established with some entrepreneurs through telephone and e-mail address taken from their business websites and Facebook pages. It was intended that the interviews would be conducted during a six-month period, but slow responses to email and initial unwillingness of some entrepreneurs to participate prolonged the data collection process by an additional two months. By the end of the data collection process (December, 2018), initial findings indicated clear parallels between TDE activity in the Blanchardstown IE and elements found during the literature review. Further profile details are provided in Chapter Six.

6.2.2 Sample Description and Demographics

The sample in this work consists of female and male TDE practitioners, all of whom match the criteria indicated by Aikens and White (i.e., settled immigrants in a COR, with no intention of returning to their COO, but shuttling between their COR and COO for the purpose of entrepreneurial activity) (Aikens and White 2011; see also Chapter 3, Table 3.2). This sample profile facilitates cross-comparison, which will contribute to the depth and richness of the analysis. Miles and Huberman (1994: p. 34) recommend that a qualitative researcher should "go to the meatiest, most study-relevant sources", and the sample selection for the present study followed this advice (see Table 6.3 below).

Table 6.3 - Demographic Profile of Participants

Number of participants	Country of origin	Gender	Participants	Focus Group
11	**Nigeria**	**6 female/5 male**	**TDE practitioners**	**IE, Blanchardstown**

For reasons related to privacy and research ethics, participants' names and business addresses are anonymised in the present study. Length of residency in Ireland and the point at which each immigrant became part of a diaspora entrepreneurial network are displayed in Appendix 9.

6.2.3 Access to Participants

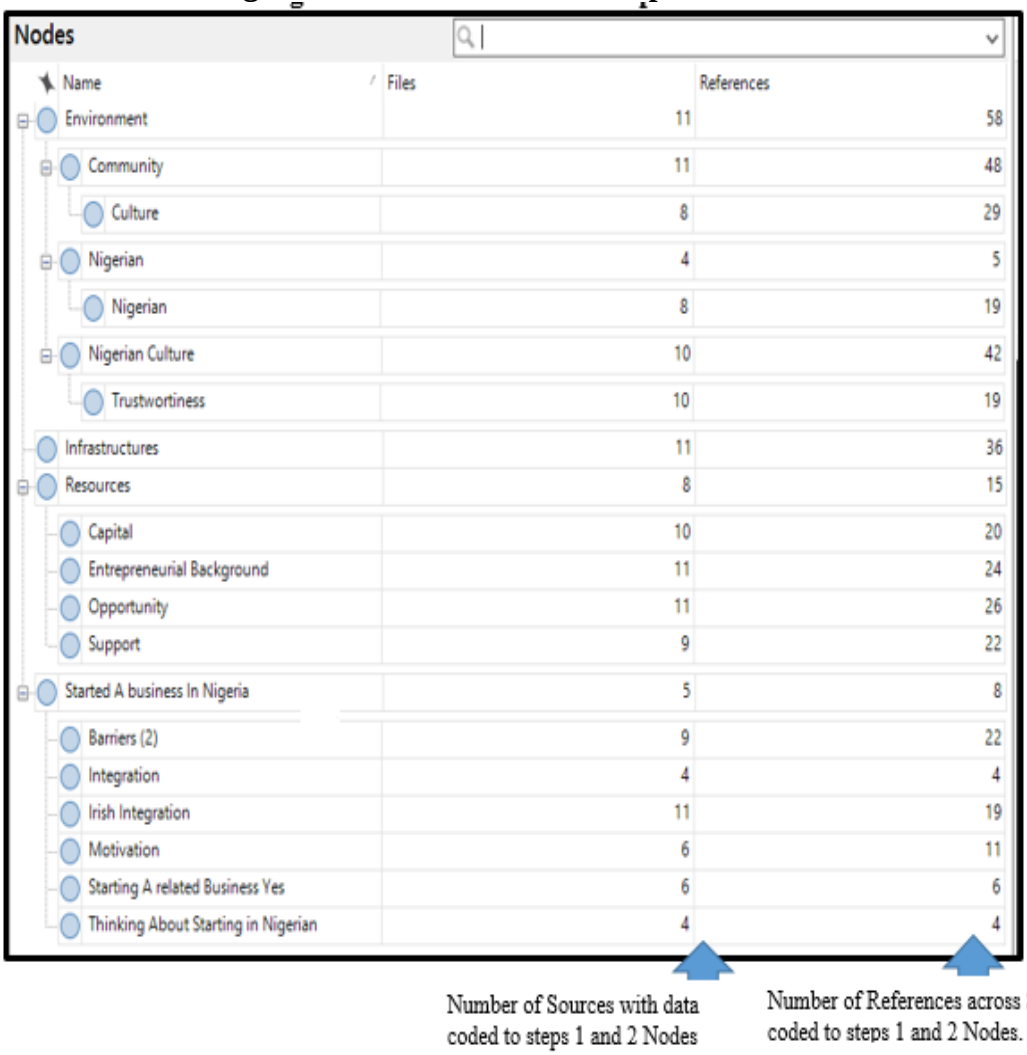
Interviews with participants were conducted during an eight-month data collection period. This time frame allowed for adjustments in the interview questions and for additional data to be collected when deemed necessary. The greatest challenge was to identify participants matching the research criteria and then convince suitable candidates to agree to take part. In the case of the present study, the researcher found that being an immigrant with the same ethnic background as the participants was not sufficient to guarantee access to a particular IE community. According to Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) and Neuman (2016), an IE provides protection for enclave entrepreneurs and hinders intrusion by non-IE members. In order to gain

the trust of the Nigerian community in Blanchardstown, the researcher sought help from a local pastor, the local enterprise office and the editor of *Metro Eireann*, a multicultural newspaper founded in 2000 by two Nigerian journalists, Chinedu Onyejelem and Abel Ugba. The duration of the interviews was a maximum time of one hour, depending on the individual's knowledge, experience, willingness to communicate and years of involvement in TDE activity.

6.3 Working with the Data: Braun and Clarke TA and NVivo

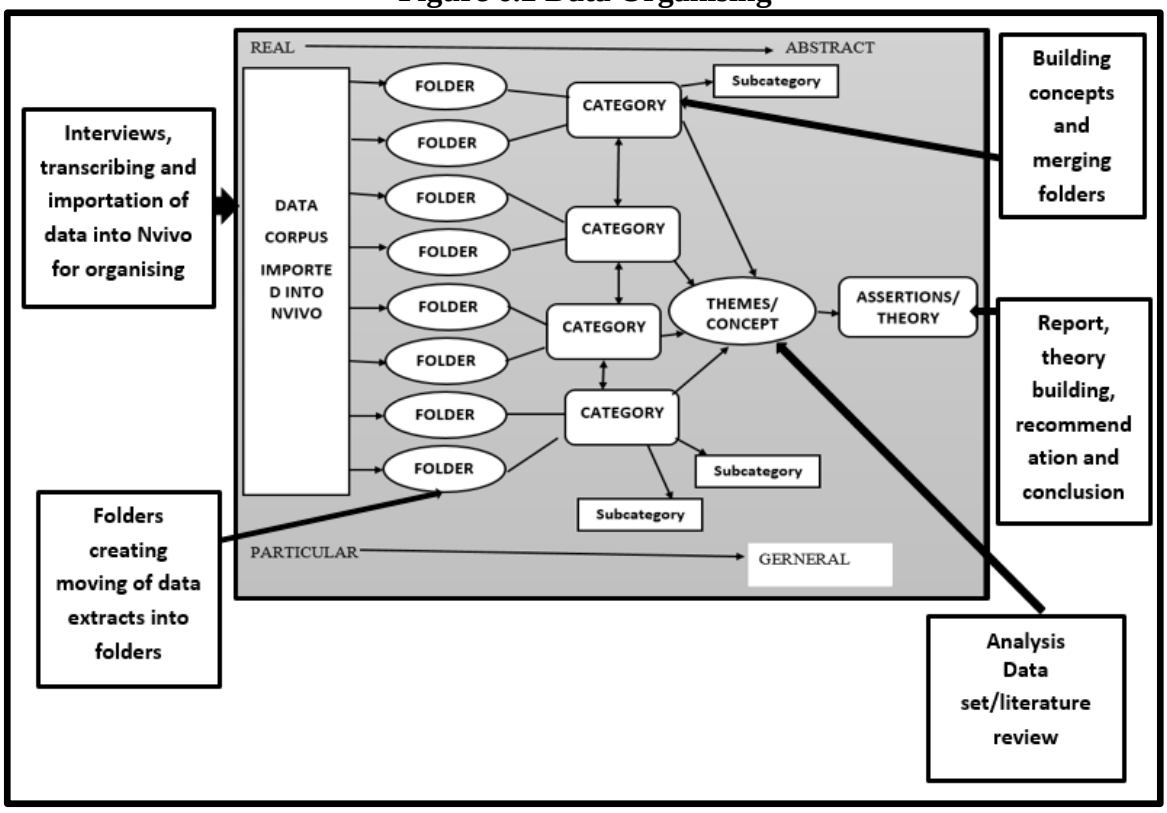
Initially, the collected data were transcribed, read and re-read for the sake of greater understanding and clarity. This corresponded to Phase 1 of the Braun and Clarke process of analysis described in the preceding chapter (see Table 5.1 above). Proceeding to Phase 2, the data were then imported in NVivo. The challenges faced when using software like NVivo for data organising include creating appropriately labelled folders and deciding what needs moving into which folder. It is important to underline that NVivo was not used for coding, but rather for organising the data in a more manageable form. In Phase 2, in order to facilitate linking the collected data with the reviewed literature, elements with greater frequency of occurrence in the literature review were taken as important indicators in creating folders. Folders were created and labelled as 'Environment', 'Resources', 'Infrastructures', 'Community', 'Culture', 'Trust', 'Capital', 'Integration', 'Motivation', 'Nigerian Culture', 'Support', 'Entrepreneurship' and 'Started a Business in Nigeria'. This phase was pivotal in the process of data organisation as it provided the researcher with further insight into the data corpus, comparing elements from both the literature review and the data set. At the conclusion of this phase, a transcript of each participant's interview was reviewed and, by clicking 'Memo Link' in NVivo, links were created between the folders and the transcribed interviews. Switching between the transcribed interviews and the folders facilitated identifying which material belonged in which data node (see Figure 6.1 below).

Figure 6.1 Nodes Created in Steps 1 and 2



In Phase 3, with the completion of the folder formation and the creation of links between the transcribed data and the folders, the data corpus was organised into potential themes. This phase involve gathering all data relevant to each potential theme in a separate container or node that the extracted data fits into. This part of the process involved the researcher reading through the data, highlighting extracts from the data and moved the highlighted extracts into folders that aligned with the extracted part of the data. This was time consuming. All eleven interviews were worked on and data extracts were assigned to appropriate folders. Marshall and Rossman (1999, p.150) describe the analysis of data as a somewhat messy, ambiguous, time-consuming, creative and fascinating process. The experience of the present study corroborates this view (see Figure 6.2 below).

Figure 6.2 Data Organising



The process of data organisation illustrated in Figure 6.1 clarified how the collected data needed to be organised. For example, when an interviewee spoke about a COO experience, the comments were assigned to the 'entrepreneurial background folder'. The following comment extracted from the interview with Adaku illustrates the procedure:

<Files\\Adaku> - § 3 references coded [1.81% Coverage]

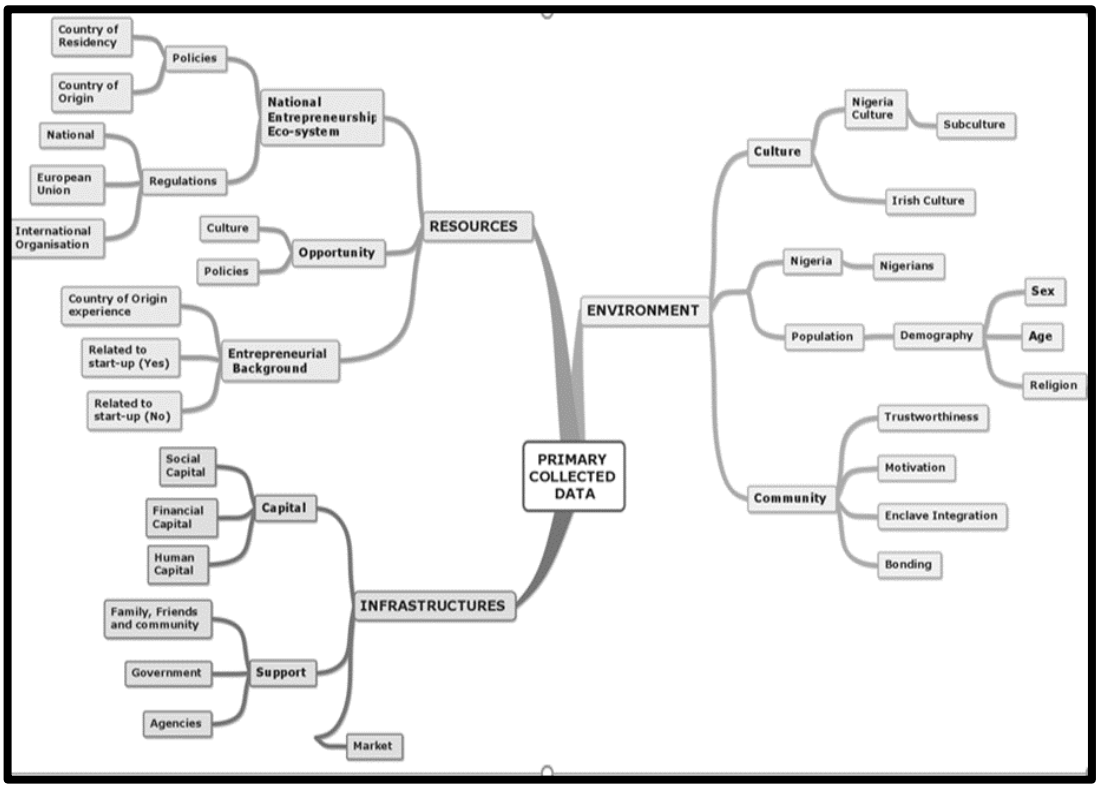
Reference 1 - 1.35% Coverage

being raised by a single mum is hard, it's hard work and I saw that my mum ended up having to set-up her own business to be able to survive so yes I think there is a connection there seeing her overcome challenges, setting up her own business and doing well I just know that there is nothing we cannot do as human being if we can put our mind to it if we have an inspiration so that kind of

This process was followed for all eleven interviews and at the end there were significant variations in participants' reactions to the three most frequently mentioned themes (environment, resources and infrastructure) identified in the literature review. Some of issues mentioned in the organised data displayed a greater degree of proximity to the themes that emerged from the literature review and others less so.

On completion of Phase 3, the study had a first overview of the data, which suggested that the folder labels were too broad and needed narrowing down to allow for coherent analysis. Phase 4 involved assembling data in new ways in order to establish connections between categories produced in the previous phases. This helped to condense the data corpus into broader categories. In Phase 5, sub-themes similar in meaning were then linked together for collective analysis. For example, sub-themes such as 'Community', 'Culture' and 'Trust' were merged as sub-folders of 'Environment'. 'Capital', 'Entrepreneurial Experience', 'Opportunity', 'Support', 'Policy' and 'Regulation' were grouped together within the 'Resources' folder. Sub-themes such as 'Structural Support', 'Market', 'Government Policies and Agencies', were grouped under 'Infrastructure'. Using the NVivo word frequency stop button, unwanted words were excluded from the data set before running each query. Saldana (2016, p.14) describes this process as real to abstract and particular to general. Using the NVivo software helped to identify relationships and patterns in the data set. Figure 6.3 below shows the most frequently recurring themes, illustrated by means of a Mind Map graphic.

Figure 6.3 Mind Map of Narrowed Down Themes



Thus, through data classification, narrowing and the identification of shared attributes, there gradually emerged a consistent interpretation of the data regarding participants' views on the significance of resources, infrastructure and environment in facilitating TDE activity. Table 6.4 below shows variations in the importance attributed by participants to each of these three elements.

Table 6.4 Participants' Weighting of the 3 General Themes

Participants	Environment	Infrastructure	Resources
Adaku	**5.9%**	**5.5%**	**1.1%**
Adolor	**8.8%**	**5.2%**	**9.5%**
Bola	**18.2%**	**7.8%**	**3.9%**
Benson	**5.7%**	**6.3%**	**7%**
Jen	**16.3%**	**7.5%**	**10.1%**
Juliet	**9.1%**	**7.5%**	**3.8%**
Ifeyinwe	**3.9%**	**0.3%**	**2.9%**
Matthew	**3.8%**	**1.2%**	**6.2%**
Osaro	**7.9%**	**9.2%**	**4.9%**
Ritah	**5.1%**	**1.3%**	**2.8%**
Stella	**4%**	**2.5%**	**5.7%**

Variations in preferences in the analysed data set aligned with a view in the reviewed literature that immigrants are drawn to entrepreneurship for a variety of reasons (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1990; Neuman, 2016). However, the data strongly suggest that the presence of COO culture in a specific geographical area creates an attractive environment for immigrant entrepreneurs. While other factors are regarded as playing an

important role, the COO cultural activities are viewed as an essential element in TDE activity (Neuman, 2016). The prominent role of environment is evident in Figure 6.4 below.

Figure 6.4 – Word Cloud of Items in Data Set, Clustered by Similarity

In Phase 6, the analysis of the organised data set was compared to findings from the literature review in order to compile a scholarly report and draw the study to a conclusion (Table 6.5 below).

Table 6.5 - Extracts from Literature Review and the Data Set on Environment, Resources and Infrastructures

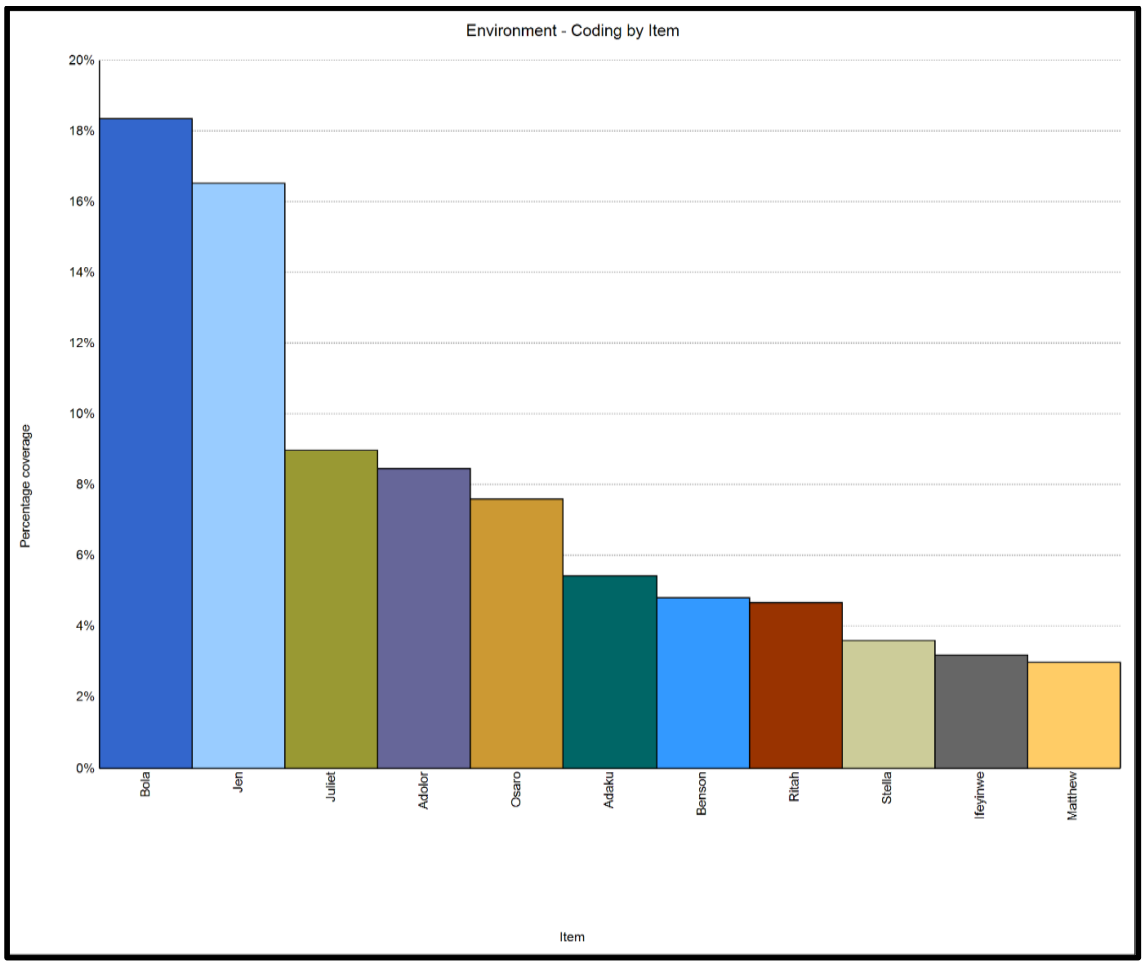
Literature Review	Primary Data Set
Section 1 - Environment	
• Bourdieu (1977) defines environment as a social field of interplay • Neuman (2016), the presence of COO demographic characteristics in a specific geographical area acts as a bonding factor and creates opportunities for immigrants to come together. • Berry et al, (2006) and Engelen, Lackhoff and Schnnidt (2013), IE is an IE creates an environment in which immigrants can, to some extent, continue to behave as they did in their country of origin (COO) • Bourdieu (1977), environment is a social field of interplay	• **Juliet,** "environment gave me the knowledge of what to do" • **Benson,** "having a Nigerian community here brings an environment for the coming together of Nigerians, space for cultural activity, togetherness, interaction, Nigerian culture and a place that allows for identification with other Nigerians • **Bola,** "an IE create an environment that allow us to behaviour like we do back home and carryout business with our own people" • **Juliet,** "environment gave me the knowledge of what to do"
Section 2 - Infrastructures	
• Berry et al, (2006) and Vedder and Van de Vijver (2006), the level of personal commitment to ethnic culture and national identity determines how much individuals associate with their own culture • Fischer and Massey (2000), suggest that COO cultural elements such as shared beliefs, values and norms increase the likelihood of immigrants engaging in entrepreneurial activity. • Kloosterman, Van der Leun and Rath 1998),highlighted trust as an important element in informal contract arrangements and the granting of favours in immigrant entrepreneurial activity	• **Stella,** "it create community in an area, meeting people of same nationality or ethnicity, national identity common goals, same culture, interaction and the change to discussion Nigeria issues • **Ritah,** " the community support, population and infrastructures for was the main reason for going to business • **Matthew,** "I say the many different infrastructures was the main reason for me going into business • **Adaku,** "the support agency, the stable political situation and the low entry to this type of business was what motivated me to starting my business
Section 3 - Resources	
• Clark, Drinkwater (2000), "The concentration of individuals from the same ethnic group within a specific geographical location • OECD/EU, (2014), "Previous experience of business management aids in entrepreneurial activity in a host country" • Delgado-Wise and Cypher (2007) and De Hass (2012), "policies enactments increase the scope of TDE activity. • Portes and Sensenbrenner (1990), "the embeddedness in IE ethnic social structures motivates start-ups • Aldrich et al. (1985) and Aldrich and Waldinger (1990), IE serves as protection for the immigrant's market	• **Ifeyinwe,** "culture was huge support when I started my business" • **Jen,** "being within the community helped me to source resources from within the community. • **Adolor**, "Like I said earlier, culture provide us with the resources to prosper, stability, structure, infrastructure and business resources, and understanding of what our people are looking in our business". • **Osaro,** "environment like we have at home, provide us with the culture that allow for business like we do back home and the opportunity to work with people of similar experience and background, something which will not have been possible without the presence of our culture here in Ireland".

6.4 Data Set on Environment

In the present study, an 'environment' refers to a geographical location in which immigrants can, to some extent, continue to live and interact as they did in their COO (Berry et al, 2006; Engelen, Lackhoff and Schnnidt, 2013). It has also been described as a community or an association of immigrants in a specific geographical area. In the course of the present study, the context for this type of immigrant environment has been referred to as an IE.

Both the data set and the literature review indicate that two factors play a critical role in TDE activity and opportunity: familiarity with the cultural norms and preferences of one's own ethnic group, and knowledge of available niches, infrastructure and resources (Walther, 2014). The reviewed literature suggests that embeddedness in COO cultural environment encourages trust, bonding with fellow immigrants and the opportunity to continue to behave as if still living in the COO. The presence of COO social structures and culture in an IE creates an environment of thinking, feeling and behaving that facilitates enclave and TDE activity. As Neuman (2016) found in the study of immigrants in Sweden, the presence of COO demographic characteristics in a specific geographical area acts as a bonding factor and creates opportunities for immigrants to come together. In turn, this environment helps to generate an IE economy, resources and infrastructure. The data set suggested strongly that the concentrated presence of Nigerians in Blanchardstown creates an environment that allows for the conservation of significant elements of their COO culture and facilitates entrepreneurial activity that would otherwise have been impossible (Figure 6.5 below).

Figure 6.5 –Participants' Views on Role of Environment in IE and TDE Activity



Participant Adolor said that the concentrated presence of Nigerians in Blanchardstown created a helpful environment for a business start-up: "*Blanchardstown gives people from Nigeria resources for a start-up. So I decided to start a business to serve my own people*" (reference 1 - 2.42% coverage). Jen stated: "*the presence of a large number of Nigerians increases the number of businesses"* (reference 5 – 2.77% coverage). According to Juliet, "*environment gave me the knowledge of what to do*" (reference 3 - 0.32% coverage). Bola responded: "*money, population, culture creates an environment for business; the chance to associate with Nigerians … it brings together Nigerians in Ireland*" (reference 7 - 1.60% coverage). According to Benson, "*having a Nigerian community here brings an environment for the coming together of Nigerians, space for cultural activity, togetherness, interaction, Nigerian culture and a place that allows for identification with other Nigerians"* (reference 4 - 1.01% coverage). These responses indicate that environment is a pivotal factor in enclave

entrepreneurship activity. Bourdieu (1977) defines environment as a social field of interplay. In the present study, the analysed data suggest that environment is viewed by the participants as the facilitator of a high level of interaction that generates immigrant resources and entrepreneurial opportunity. Participant Adaku's comment aligns with Bourdieu's view: "*I think being around the community was a help to start-up; it gave me the right environment and people to do business with"* (reference 4 - 0.42% coverage).

The preceding comments corroborate findings in the literature that environment is an essential element that facilitates the concentration of immigrants in a specific geographical area. When asked about the role of environment in enclave start-ups Ifeyinwe said: "Yes, it does provide a market and people to do business with" (Reference 2 - 0.43% Coverage).As found in the studies of immigrant enclaves in Miami, the Netherlands and elsewhere, so too in the case of Blanchardstown, the enclave environment allows immigrants, to some extent, to continue to behave and interact in the COR as they would in their COO. For instance, Osaro spoke about: *"an environment like we have at home, a culture that allows for business like we do back home and the opportunity to work with people of similar experience and background"* (reference 3 - 1.41% coverage). Stella observed: "*environment provide a place for meeting, cultural understanding and using the culture to support each other"* (reference 2 - 1.66% coverage).According to Ritah: *"Because we have large base of Nigerians here, I do not worry about people to sell to. So it does help to provide the right environment and people to sell to"* (reference 4 - 1.29% coverage).Highlighting the link between enclave environment and TDE opportunity, Ritah added: "*The large number of Nigerians here allows me to travel between Nigeria and Ireland, so at the moment I have a high level of business deals between Ireland and Nigeria*" (reference 5 - 1.32% Coverage).Juliet observed that the right environment "*provides population for market to grow*" (reference 2 - 1.84% coverage).Adaku agreed: *"Having a Nigerian population here helps a lot. I think it provides you with the right environment, people, business ideas and market. It give one the chance to explore one's own*

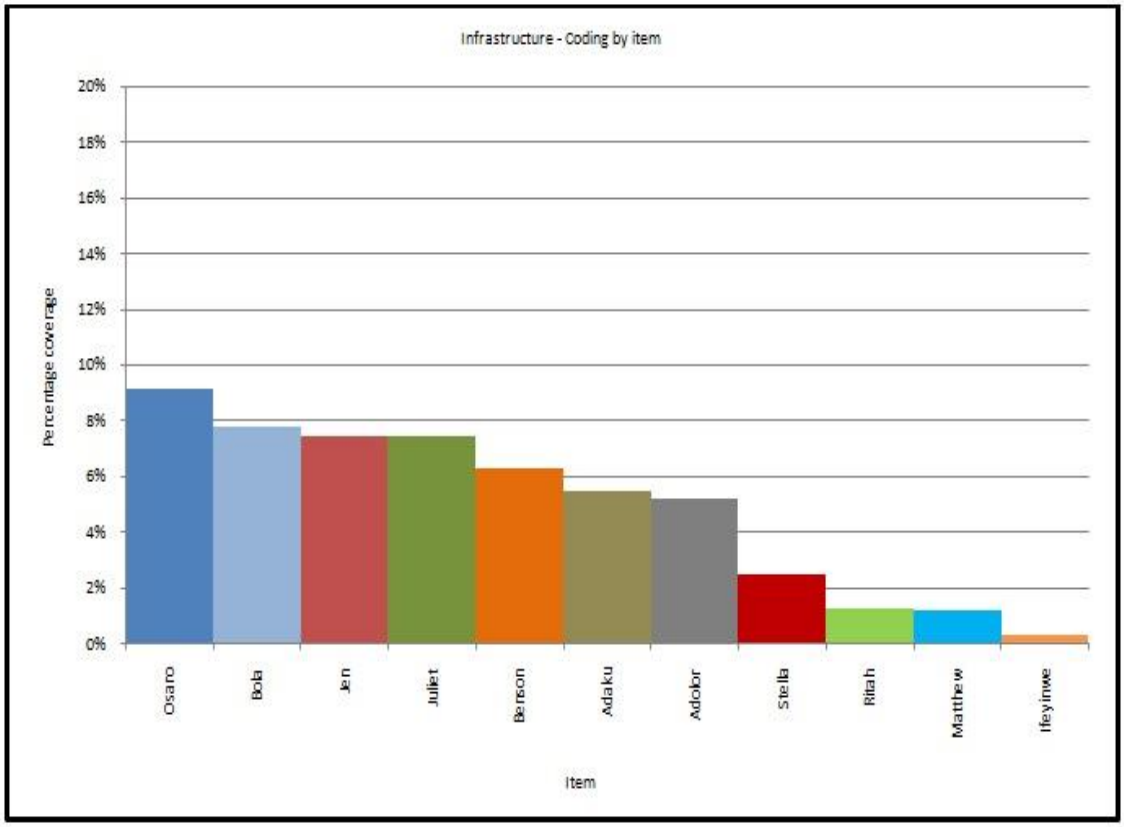
business knowledge and the opportunity to work for yourself and work with your own people" (*reference 2 - 0.99% coverage*).

In line with the literature review, participant Benson viewed community bonding within the enclave environment as an invaluable support for entrepreneurial activity: *"It was very helpful in the sense that I wasn't home sick … because of you have a large community of Nigerians, having them around it is like you are in your own home [country of origin] and there even though there are different Nigerian dialects, there are lots of people from my own state so that we can actually speak the same dialect … generally they were very, very accommodating*" (reference 3 - 2.85% coverage). Ifeyinwe said: "*having a specific ethnic community like the Nigerian community helps a lot because when you see who the greater percentages of your customers are, that will help you to decide on particular things to deal with*" (reference 4 - 2.39% coverage). Osaro commented: *"Having the Nigerian community gave me the opportunity to start something, the right environment and population"* (Reference 2 - 4.74% Coverage).In summary, the observations by these participants aligned with literature review and, in particular, Bourdieu's (1977) suggestion that environment as a social field of interplay facilitates a high level of interaction that, in turn, generates immigrant resources and enables entrepreneurial opportunity.

6.5 Data Set on Infrastructure

Infrastructure includes structural supports, markets, human and social capital within an IE, as well as government policies and agencies that facilitate entrepreneurial activity. The analysed data indicated that participants viewed the availability of supportive infrastructure as an activity driving enclave start-ups and TDE activity. See Figure 6.6, graphic extraction on participant's views on infrastructures

Figure 6.6 –Participants' Views on Role of Infrastructure in IE and TDE Activity



Participant Osaro said: *"Yes, the market and business culture allow community businesses to survive"* (reference 1 - 4.19% coverage). Participant Bola stated: *"It does help, as it creates that business space needed for entrepreneurship and the chance to do business"* (reference 3 - 1.06% coverage). According to Jen: *"The presence of large number of Nigerians increases the number of businesses in this area and creates infrastructures like market demands for some goods and space for doing business within the Nigerian community"* (reference 2 - 2.77% coverage). Participant Juliet agreed that *"good infrastructure support the business"* (reference 1 - 0.31% coverage).

The literature review suggests that the level of personal commitment to ethnic culture and national identity determines how much individuals associate with their own culture (Hofstede, 1980; Waldinger, 1986; Berry et al, 2006; Vedder and Van de Vijver, 2006). Fischer and Massey (2000, p. 409), suggest that COO cultural elements such as shared beliefs, values and norms increase the likelihood of immigrants engaging in entrepreneurial activity. In the present study, participant Osaro said: "*They are willing to buy from me because, as a fellow*

Nigerian, I understand them and their needs and how best to do business with people within the community" (reference 3 - 3.54% coverage).

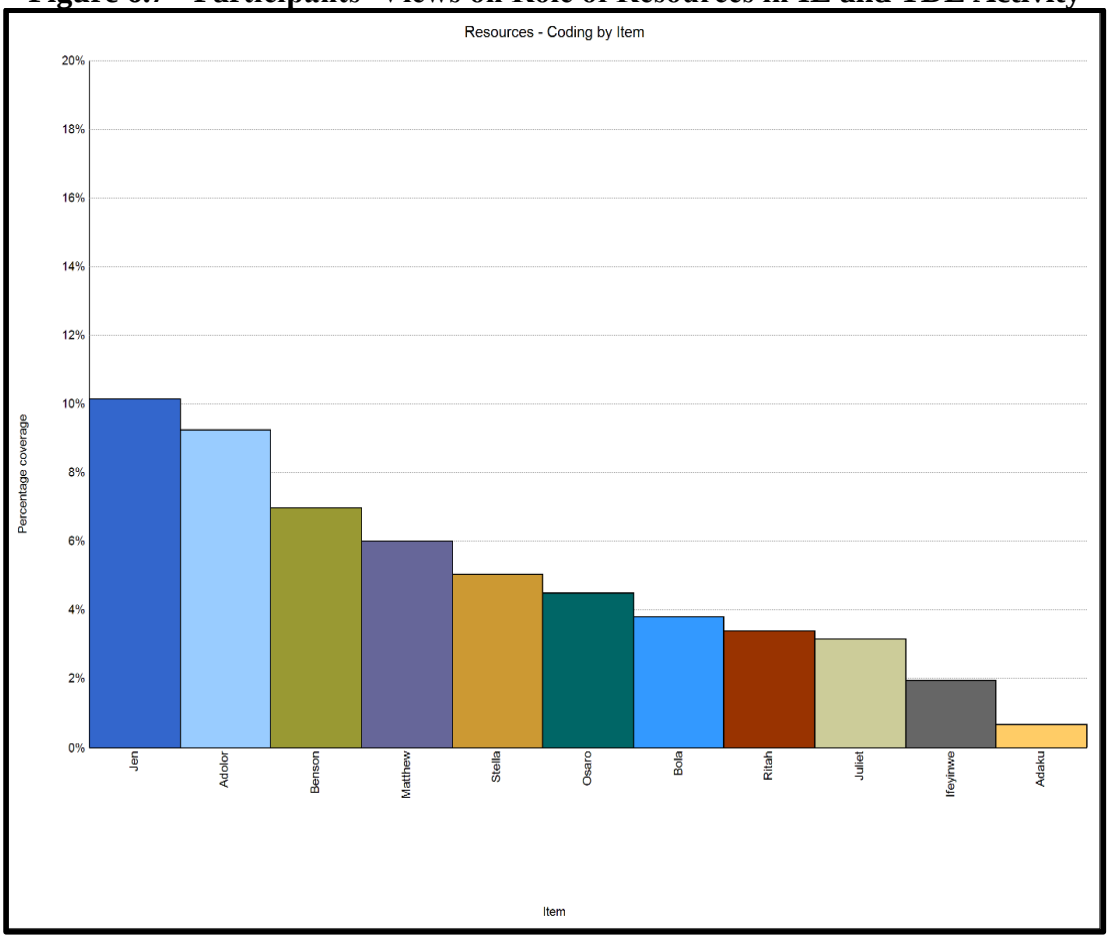
The literature highlights trust as an important element in informal contract arrangements and the granting of favours in immigrant entrepreneurial activity (Kloosterman, Van der Leun and Rath 1998).The study by Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) on the New York diamond market found that a climate of mutual trust allowed the merchants to give a bag of diamonds to their customers for private inspection, without fear of being robbed. Similarly, the data set for the present study indicates that trust is pivotal for successful enclave business ventures. According to participants Adaku: "*It provides you with the right environment; it gives you the chance to explore your own business knowledge"* (reference 1 - 0.99% coverage). Juliet summed up the importance of trust as follows: "*Doing business with Nigerians you have to be patient and trustworthy, and take them at their word"* (reference 4 - 1.13% coverage. Benson observed: "*For me, trust creates an environment for business dealings. I would say it is a resource that helps business development*" (*reference 3 - 0.55% Coverage*). Participant Jen commented: "T*rust provided a community base, a market, people to do business with, togetherness, ethnic support and identity*" (reference 7 - 2.61% coverage). For Adolor: "*Trust within the community brings group interaction; group interaction brings people together and also leads to an environment where everyone can prosper*" (reference 3 - 1.17% coverage). Osaro observed: "*Although trustworthiness will not provide fiscal capital, it does provide the community bonding and population that we need for this type of business*" (reference 1 - 4.19% coverage). According Ritah: "*Trust creates community support, a market, population and an environment for business*" (reference 2 - 1.00% coverage).Matthew commented: "*Trust also builds confidence. I have confidence that when I do good work, they will always come back. Their trust in me gives me confidence to carry on"* (reference 7 - 0.74% coverage). Hence, trustworthiness is perceived by participants in the present study as a key component of the social capital that forms part of the supportive infrastructure available in an IE community.

The analysed data indicates that the participants were largely unaware of Irish Government policies and agencies intended to support business start-ups. Most of them relied on personal savings and help from friends in order to provide start-up capital. For instance, participant Matthew said: "*Yeah, when I was looking for money to get a shop, a few of my friends helped me to raise a few quid that helped me to start up the business, so they were very happy for me"* (reference 1 - 0.83% coverage). He added: *"the community leaders in my place of origin helped me" (*reference 2 - 0.59% coverage). This reliance on funding through personal savings, friends and the IE community resulted from a lack of awareness of where to go for start-up support. According to participant Ifeyinwe "*At the time I had no real knowledge of the available support infrastructures"* (reference 2 - 0.60% coverage). The analysis of the data from the Blanchardstown participants highlights the need for improved channels of communication in order to make potential IE entrepreneurs aware of official COR entrepreneurship policy and available infrastructural supports.

6.6 Data Set on Resources

IE resources include socio-cultural factors embedded within an enclave that facilitate immigrant start-ups and subsequent business development (Light and Bonaich, 1988; Light and Bonaich, 1988; Greene, Brush and Brown, 1997; Carbonell et al, 2011). These resources may be tangible, such as a loan provided by one family member to another, or less tangible, such as information about the location of new business potential (Emerson, 1972; Adler and Kwon, 2002). Findings from both the literature and the analysed data set indicate that immigrants may be drawn to entrepreneurship as a result of certain COO predispositions. In the case of the Blanchardstown IE, Nigerian cultural predispositions (networking, ethnicity, human, physical, financial and social capital) help to create an environment and market niche for immigrant entrepreneurial activity. Figure 6.7 highlights participants' views on the role of resources in TDE activity.

Figure 6.7 - Participants' Views on Role of Resources in IE and TDE Activity



Participant Adaku highlighted the importance of networks and suggested that *"it is who you know within the space that provides you with the resources and capital"* (Reference 2 - 0.34% Coverage). Networks are used to establish relationships between individuals, groups and organisations (Conway and Jones, 2012). Osaro observed that his enterprise would probably have been impossible without the network of relationships generated by the IE: *"this type of business required a community presence to survive"* (reference 1 - 4.50% coverage). This sentiment is echoed by Ritah: "*it helps a lot to have a large population of Nigerians around here*" (reference 2 - 3.26% coverage). Ifeyinwe said: "*Yes it does provide a market and people to do business with*" (reference 1 - 0.43% coverage).

This view aligns with the reviewed literature that suggests that the concentration of immigrants in a specific geographical area supports enclave entrepreneurship by making available a range of human and material resources. As Ram, Trehan, Rouse, Woldesenbet and

Jones (2012) found in their study of African and Asia business in the United Kingdom, an increase in an ethnically defined population leads to an increase in the rate of start-ups. This is the experience of the Nigerian IE in Blanchardstown also. For instance, participant Adolor *commented: "For a better quality of life, better living standards, for an environment that will allow me to prosper, I moved into the Nigerian community, which I think will aid my business success*"(reference 1 - 0.65% coverage*).*He added: "*Blanchardstown gives me the chance, people from Nigerian and resources for start-up*" (*reference 4 - 0.54% coverage*).According to Bola: "*Blanchardstown provides lots of resources and infrastructure that aids start-up*" (reference 1 - 3.81% coverage). Ifeyinwe said: *"It provides community support, culture and the understanding that some members of the community will give financial support when I need it*" (r*eference 1 - 1.97% coverage*).According to Jen: "The *Dublin 15 area provided me with the market and resources I needed to start my business. I do not think that I would have started my business without the presence of the Nigerian population in this area*" (reference 2 - 1.87% coverage). For Juliet: "*The key to my starting a business was being in an area that encourages patronage, provides support and identifies with my business*" (reference 1 - 3.15% coverage).According to Matthew: *"Blanchardstown provided an environment and opportunity to mix with the people from my country, to have contact with fellow Nigerians and associate more with people from my country, which allow me to know and understand their needs*" (reference 3 - 1.34% coverage).

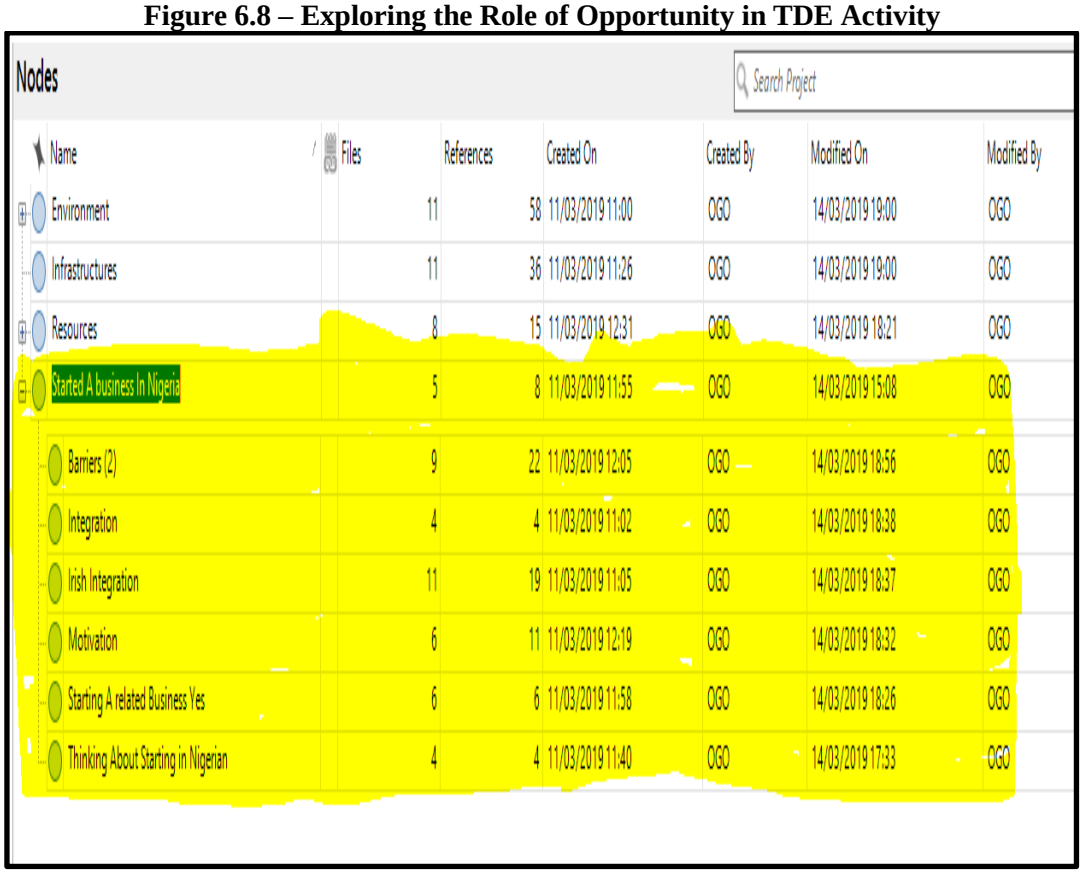
The data set for the present study supports the findings of the literature review that immigrant culture serves as a key socio-cultural resource that facilitates diaspora entrepreneurial start-ups. Participant Matthew commented: "*Cultural things brought us together and created opportunity for understanding one another. Also, culture allows for interaction, gives us room to do something with one another and creates a base for business among the Nigerians*" (reference 4 - 1.04% coverage).For Ritah: "*Culture provides networking, environment, population, market and capital for starting a business. Without a Nigerians*

culture here it would not be possible to do this type of business in Ireland" (reference 2 - 3.26% coverage).

6.7 Other Factors Relevant to TDE Activity

To understand the relationship between IE and TDE opportunity, the data set was analysed to explore how the presence of environment, infrastructure, resources and other elements within an IE create opportunity that may evolve into transnational diaspora entrepreneurial activity. To do this, a query was run on 'started a business in Nigeria' in order to ascertain whether previous entrepreneurial experience in the participants' COO played a role in motivating their current activities in Blanchardstown Dublin 15 (see Figure 6.8).

Figure 6.8 – Exploring the Role of Opportunity in TDE Activity



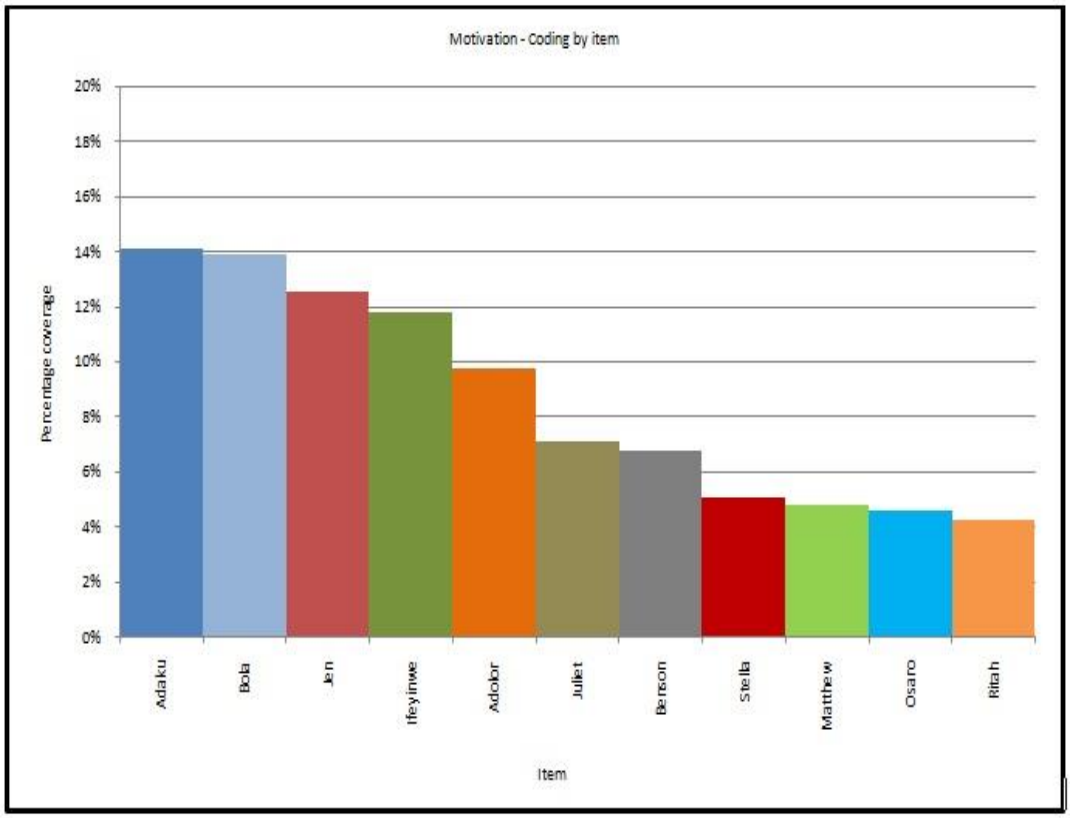
The result of the query showed that just five of the eleven participants claimed to have started a business in Nigeria. The collected data were then probed further in order to determine what factors motivated the participants to engage in TDE activity, to what extent they perceived themselves as integrated in the Irish COR entrepreneurial eco-system and what barriers they

considered most significant. The results of these queries are displayed in the following sections.

6.7.1 Data Set on Motivation

Just as individual needs vary widely, so too do the motivations underlying preferences, choices and actions (Maslow 1943, McClelland 1965). In the entrepreneurial context, motivation may be, for example, the enjoyment of achievement, or a quest for power, or the simple satisfaction derived from satisfying the needs of others (McClelland 1965; Sokolowski et al. 2000). In the present study, an altruistic desire to serve the IE community figured prominently in participants' responses (see Figure 6.9 below).

Figure 6.9 – Significance of Motivation in Participants' Responses



Participant Adaku said: *"I see the joy in their faces when simple things from home are brought into Ireland … and also the motivation to give back to my home country from the experience acquired here drives my business deals between Ireland and Nigeria"* (reference 3 - 1.65% coverage). Benson claimed to be motivated by *"the need to help my people [and]*

improve living standards" (reference 2 - 2.09% coverage). Adaku drew motivation from *"the need to satisfy the Nigerian community … here in Ireland"* (reference 3 - 1.65% coverage). By way of contrast, Matthew enjoyed engaging in activity that made the most of his own experience and expertise: *"my understanding of the business environment and way of life of the people*" (reference 2 - 0.36% coverage). This corroborates the view that an understanding of available resources and infrastructure can generate increased motivation and sharpen individual drive in entrepreneurial activity (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Neuman, 2016). The capacity to identify niches and opportunities that only an immigrant entrepreneur can avail of may act as a significant TDE motivating factor.

As indicated in the literature review, having the right environment heightens immigrants' entrepreneurial drive (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Neuman, 2016). According to Jen: "I *wanted an environment that can provide me with the right infrastructure for business and an environment that will allow me to shuttle between my place of resident and Nigeria"* (reference - 7.18% coverage).Schiller et al., (1995) point out how the diffusion of culture has made it easier for members of the diaspora to travel without hindrance. Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2016) explain how ease of communication between COR and COO has created global opportunities for TDE practitioners. The advent of email, the internet and cheap telephone services, as well as increasingly heterogeneous populations in many formerly mono-cultural countries, have all created new opportunities for transnational commerce (Light, 2007; Riddle 2008; Osaghae, 2018). Both the literature review and the data set indicate that TDE motivation depends on a combination of personal and environmental factors.

The literature review also suggested previous business experience is an important motivational factor for engagement in entrepreneurial activity. This was corroborated by the data set for the present study. For instance, participant Benson stated: "*Yes we have the entrepreneurship spirit in my own family. So I decided to take after my Dad when I came here*"

(reference 1 - 0.54% coverage). Matthew commented: "*My background of entrepreneurship was another motivation because I found out there was a market available that I was ready to exploit as there were not many people there who can cut the Nigerians' hair*" (reference 1 - 2.52% coverage). Ritah said: "*The entrepreneurial background in Nigeria was the ideal motivation for me to start business between Ireland and Nigerian*" (reference 1 - 0.58% coverage).

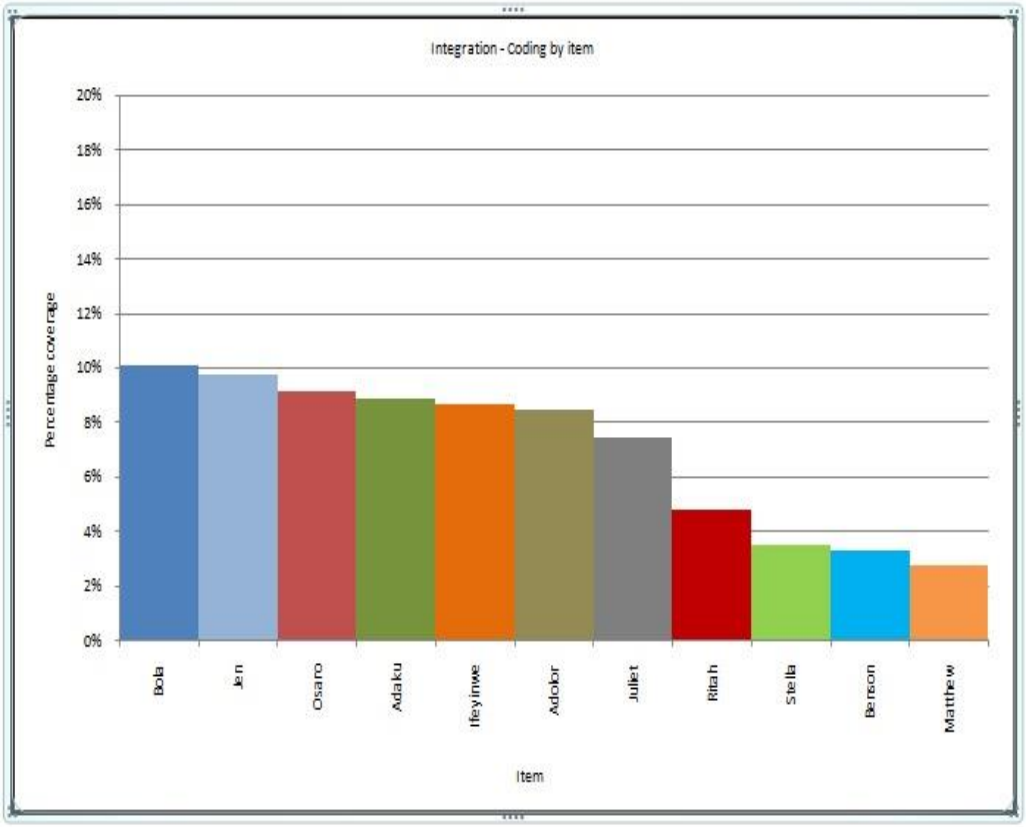
As found in the literature review, a human being may be driven by three kinds of need: (1) a need to affiliate; (2) a need to achieve; and (3) a need to be powerful (McClelland, 1965). Shane et al., (2003) refer to entrepreneurial motivation as the forces or driver within an entrepreneur that shape the direction, intensity and persistence of voluntary behaviour. All three of these needs are reflected in the participants' responses. For Matthew, a primary motivating factor was "the understanding of the business environment and way of life of the people" (reference 2 - 0.36% coverage). This aligns with the claim by Waldinger (1986) and Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) that understanding IE culture gives the immigrant entrepreneurs the edge over non-enclave entrepreneurs in serving the cultural needs of immigrants. Bola was motivated by the simple need to make a living (reference 1 - 0.59% coverage). For Benson, it was the desire to improve his financial status (reference 2 - 2.09% coverage).Adaku was motivated by a need to work for herself and serve the Nigerian community (reference 1 - 0.99% coverage). For Matthew: "*My motivation was I don't like sitting at home. Also, my background of entrepreneurship was another motivation because I found out there was a market available that I was ready to exploit*" (reference 1 - 2.52% coverage). From the foregoing discussion, it is clear that the ranges of motivational factors identified in the literature review are reflected also in the data set for the present study.

6.7.2 Data Set on Integration

Participant Adaku said: "*to be honest, at this stage I would say I'm more associated with the Irish than the Nigerians"* (reference 2 - 0.34% coverage). Some suggested that successful

integration in the Irish COR was beneficial for their TDE activities in both Ireland and Nigeria. For instance, Adolor stated: "*there's a lot I have learnt her, the basic, it could be the everyday things, the way you drive, the way you talk to people, all these are things that I've picked up that has help do business in Nigeria"* (reference 4 - 1.43% coverage). Matthew "*Coming from abroad give me that bit of a leeway that gives me a bit of trust from the people back home*" (reference 5 - 0.67% coverage). What this suggests is, back in their COO, the belief that the diaspora entrepreneur has done business in an advanced country, encourages interaction and respect that will eventually lead to the carrying out of a business deal in their COO. All eleven participants indicated a positive perspective on integration in the Irish socio-culture setting (see Figure 6.10 below).

Figure 6.10 - Significance of Integration in Participants' Responses



Integration means that IE entrepreneurs have access to both COO and COR cultures. Success in a COR endows diaspora entrepreneurs with a certain prestige in their COO also. On a personal level, awareness of having been successful in the COR increases an immigrant

entrepreneur's confidence and drive. Adaku said: *"knowing that I have done it in Ireland and that I have the ability to do it in Nigeria helps a lot"* (reference 6 - 0.51% coverage). Moreover, feeling at ease in both the COR and COO cultures allows the diaspora entrepreneur to gain a competitive advantage, explore TDE opportunities and expand personal and commercial networks in multiple settings.

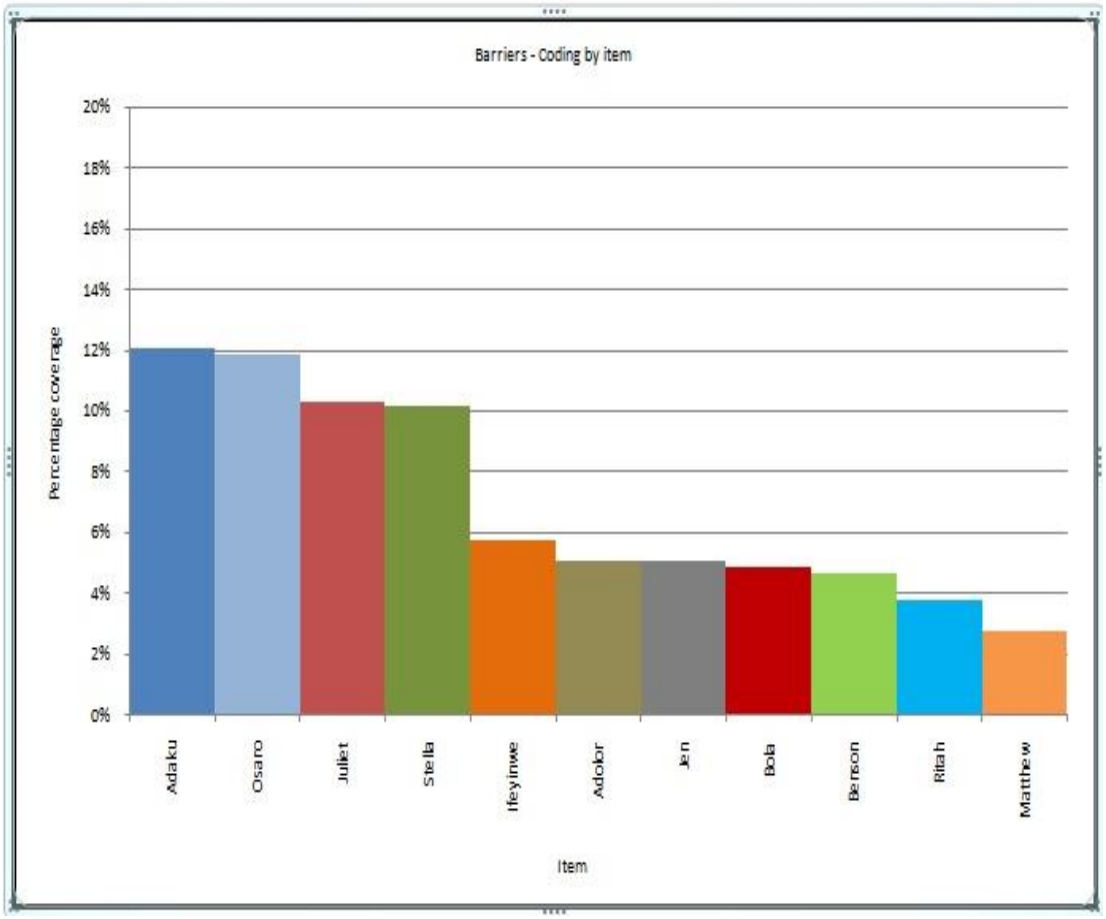
Clearly, this is a highly significant component of TDE activity. In the early stages of the formation of an IE economy, it is separation, rather than integration, that plays a key role. The ability to effectively use their COO cultural elements such as shared beliefs, values and norms increases the likelihood of success for IE entrepreneurs (Fischer and Massey, 2000). Following successful integration in the COR, immigrant entrepreneurs may prefer social and commercial activities that involve people and cultural elements from both the COO and the COR, thereby paving the way for TDE activity (Berry et al., 2006; Sam and Berry, 2010).

6.7.3 Data Set on Barriers

The disadvantages immigrants face on arrival in a COR have been highlighted as one of the major challenges that constrain their potential entrepreneurship. Difficulties in developing contacts, accessing business networks, sourcing start-up capital and dealing with complex legislation and taxation issues are all factors that hinder immigrant entrepreneurs in a COR (Ramangalahy, et al., 2002; Ram, et al., 2012). According to Fischer and Massey (2000), understanding barriers to immigrant entrepreneurial activity is essential in order to devise steps to overcome them. During the data collection stage, participants were asked three key questions: (*(a) what are the barriers to doing business in Nigeria? (b) What are the barriers to doing business in Ireland? (c) Are there some similarities between the barriers in Ireland and Nigeria?* Their responses helped the present study to identify the main barriers faced by IE entrepreneurs in Blanchardstown and weigh their significance in impeding TDE activity. From the discussion of the literature review and data set used for the present study, it is clear that

barriers inhibit immigrant entrepreneurial activity. Figure 6.11 highlights the most significant barriers identified by the participants.

Figure 6.11 - Significance of Barriers in Participants' Responses



For participant Adaku, the lack of personal contacts or networks constituted an important barrier: *"if you don't know a Paddy who can introduce you to John, it's difficult … I always advise any ethnic entrepreneur you need an Irish mentor that is by your side … to break down the wall for you"* (reference 2 - 0.96% coverage). The lack of a knowledgeable mentor and not knowing how to access available support can hinder start-ups and venture growth. Adolor highlighted the fact that, while ethnicity can be a positive factor in intra-enclave business activity, it may also restrict the growth of an enterprise beyond enclave boundaries: *"I found out for an African it is very difficult to attract the Irish people to come to your shop to have a haircut … I don't know if they are afraid of our colour or something, or they feel we are not good enough to touch their hair"* (reference 1 - 1.69% coverage).

Juliet highlighted high rental costs and taxation rates as serious impediments: *"I'm struggling now as a new business person in Ireland … the tax and the shop are so expensive"* (reference 1 - 1.19% coverage).High taxation reduces start-ups and hinders new venture growth. Conversely, studies conducted in EU countries such as Italy and Luxembourg show that a reduction in taxation rates increases new venture start-ups (Peroni, Riillo and Sarracino, 2016). The currency exchange rate was another financial factor mentioned as hindering transnational trade between Ireland and Nigeria.

Some participants underlined the need for more helpful policies to encourage immigrant start-ups and TDE in Ireland. For instance, Osaro said: *"I think more policies that encourage community entrepreneurship start-up and resources will improve this business"* (reference 2 - 1.00% coverage). Others indicted that, while they experience significant barriers in the COR, those encountered in their COO are just as difficult to overcome. Stella, for example, believes that the environment in Nigeria is not conducive to doing business there: *"So you know the Nigerian business environment for me is not conducive for doing business for now"* (reference 1 - 0.46% coverage). Adaku agreed with this perception of the entrepreneurial environment in Nigeria: *"You worry about security, worry about electricity, you're worried about so many factors to be honest … Lack of infrastructure, support, capital you never know what is going to happen … you have the issue of terrorism now … so many challenges"* (reference 5 - 1.70% coverage). As found in the study by Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015), countries such as China, India and Mexico, all regarded as the leaders in TDE activity, have enacted policies that encourage their respective Diasporas to invest in their COO. Participants in the present study would welcome Nigeria emulating the example set by these countries.

The concentration of a particular ethnic group in a specific geographical area can hinder TDE activity when separation from mainstream COR society exacerbates the difficulty of overcoming cultural and structural barriers. Stella spoke of *"a lack of understanding of the culture and where to go for support hinder venture growth"* (reference 2 - 0.31% coverage).

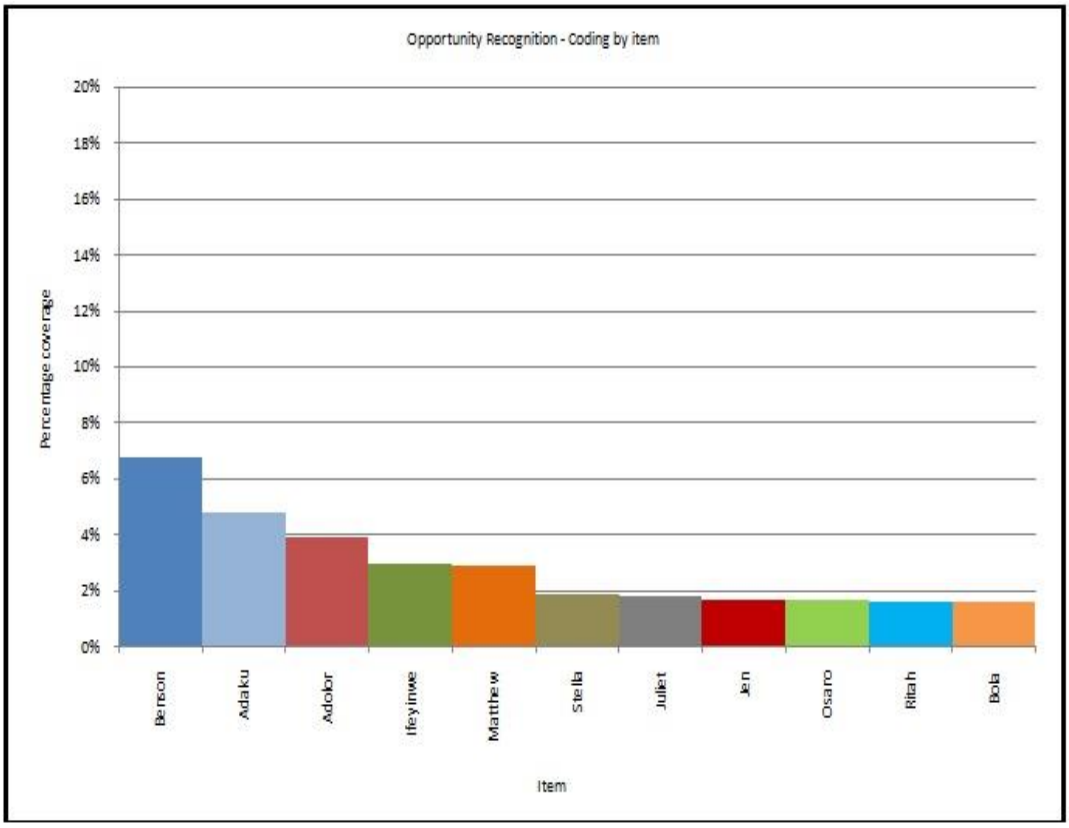
Osaro mentioned *"a lack of finance and understanding of the business environment"* (reference 3 - 0.49% coverage). As suggested in the literature review, stable and reliable government support, infrastructural development and accessible resources nurture immigrant entrepreneurship, while the lack thereof can be a serious hindrance to opportunity formation (Plaza and Ratha, 2011; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2012).

6.7.4 Data Set on Opportunity

As explained in the literature review, entrepreneurial opportunity is basically a process of recognising a good idea and translating it into a profitable business proposal. Santos and Eisenhardt (2005) believe that entrepreneurial opportunity occurs only when an entrepreneur perceives new opportunities for the creation of value and the construction of a market around these opportunities. In the entrepreneurial context, opportunity is usually understood as a capacity to exploit a set of circumstances with uncertain outcome, requiring the commitment of resources that involves exposure to risk, creation and discovery, and leading to profitable entrepreneurial activity (Casson, 1982; Kirzner, 1979; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Casson and Wadeson, 2007).During the data collection process, participants were asked how they understood entrepreneurial opportunity. Their responses refer to an ability to recognise that certain features of IE culture include elements with a potential to facilitate entrepreneurial activity. Participant Adaku observed: *"I think having a Nigerian population here helps a lot. I think it provides you with the right environment, people, business ideas and market. It gives you the chance to explore your own business knowledge and the opportunity to work for yourself and with your own people*" (reference 2 - 0.99% coverage)

Benson commented: "*Yes, you see people make a market and a business succeeds because of the number of people who buy from the business. When I came to Ireland there were not many African stores and none in the Dublin 15 area*" (reference 5 - 3.54% coverage) (see Figure 6.12).

Figure 6.12 - Significance of Entrepreneurial Opportunity in Participants' Responses



The recognition of business opportunity within the IE can lead to TDE activity. Adolor spoke of "*the opportunity of visiting my home country and carrying out business there, while also seeing my people and teaching my friends there what I have learned*" (reference 1 - 3.36% coverage). This aligns with McClelland (1965) and Nicolaou et al, (2009), who suggest that an individual's motives, personal knowledge, attitudes and networking capability are key factors in opportunity generation. Adolor's desire to engage in TDE activity by participants was aroused by a need to enhance his personal circumstances. The data set supports the findings of the literature review regarding the importance of the enclave environment and its demographic characteristics in both IE entrepreneurship and TDE activity.

Both the literature review and the data set indicate additional key factors that aid an individual to recognise an opportunity. Participant Ifeyinwe stated: "*The skills I acquired in Ireland have helped me a lot in business*" (reference 1 - 3.02% coverage). The acquisition of skills and knowledge are essential for the successful implementation of a business idea. As

explained in preceding sections of this chapter, most of the participants highlighted the importance of factors related to the shared cultural environment of the IE. For Jen: "*The space or environment in Blanchardstown provides the opportunity for me to have my children around after school"* (reference 1 - 1.42% coverage).This relates to what Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) and Aldrich et al. (1989) describe in terms of a reliance on co-ethnic habits which allow IE inhabitants to behave, to some extent, as they would in their COO. The literature review also suggested that opportunity stems from the fact that an immigrant market is best served by immigrant entrepreneurs, and findings from the data set confirm this. Participant Juliet said: "*I saw an opportunity to serve my own community*" (reference 2 - 0.57% coverage).

Matthew commented: "*The cultural things brought us together and created opportunity for understanding one another. Culture allows for interaction, gives us room to do something with one another and is a basis for business among the Nigerians*" (reference 2 - 1.06% coverage). Osaro spoke of "*an environment like we have at home, culture that allows for business like we do back home and the opportunity to work with people of similar experience and background*" (reference 1 - 1.41% coverage).Stella explained that "*the Nigerian culture … here Ireland helps to find the market niche of the Nigerians*" (reference 2 - 1.26% coverage). Ritah said: "*Because we have the large base of a Nigerian community here, I do not worry about people to sell to*" (reference 1 - 1.29% coverage). Thus, immigrant concentration in an IE is a major factor in opportunity generation. As found in the data set, the environment and in particular the population within the IE create an opportunity for start-up and the potential for TDE activity.

6.8 Conclusion

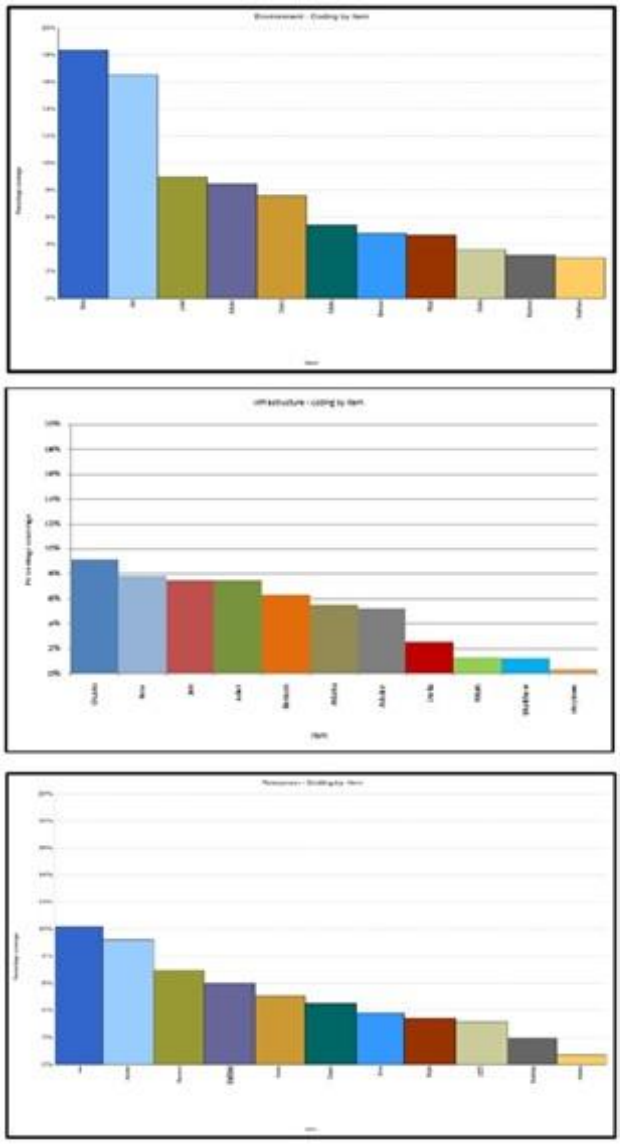
The extensive literature on IE and TDE indicates that immigrant entrepreneurship is highly dependent on resources (financial, physical and human capital), COO environment and infrastructure (Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Barrett, Jones

and McEvoy, 1996; Ndofor and Priem, 2011). IE resources have been portrayed as an essential aid for immigrant entrepreneurs to achieve and sustain competitive advantage over their non-enclave counterparts (Ndofor and Priem, 2011). The literature suggests that human, social and financial capital are key resources that allow IE entrepreneurs to exploit business opportunities (Ndofor and Priem, 2011; Yang and Chang, 2012). In the present study, an IE is defined as an environment that allows immigrants to continue to act, in entrepreneurially relevant aspects, as if in their COO, while engaging in business activity in their COR (Marcuse, 1997; Osaghae and Cooney, 2019). An IE provides the platform for COO culture, demographic characteristics, trustworthiness and bonding to persist in a COR.

Analysis of the data set indicates that a supportive IE environment is the main driver of both enclave and transnational entrepreneurial activity. Bourdieu (1977) describes an environment as a social field for interaction. In the data set, participants Juliet, Benson and Bola (see Table 6.4; "section 1") described an environment as an essential element that aids start-ups. The data set also reveal that immigrants' cultural predispositions, when found within a specific geographical area, facilitate TDE activity. When immigrants choose to preserve an association with their own ethnic culture and community, this leads to IE formation and generates IE entrepreneurship opportunity, allowing immigrants to use the cultural predispositions that they brought with them for TDE activity (Baubock, Heller and Zolberg 1996; Berry, 2006; see section 2.9 for Emergence of Immigrant Enclave Economies). In the present study, COO cultural predispositions are understood to include ethnicity, national identity, language and other cultural elements that allow affiliation to the IE environment (Betancourt and López, 1993; Eriksen, 1997). In the data set, (see Table 6.4; "section 3") participants Ifeyinwe, Adolor, Jen and Osaro were of the view that IE culture provides resources for stability and understanding what fellow immigrants expect from their businesses. Comparing the visualised representations of the weight assigned by participants in the study to each of the three general themes (environment, infrastructure, resources), it becomes clear that,

while all three are considered important, most participants considered that a supportive environment is the most significant factor in facilitating TDE activity (figure 6.13 below).

Figure 6.13 - Relative Significance of the Three General Themes for TDE Activity



The same conclusion is evident in the word cloud visualisation of the frequency of references to each of the general themes and their related sub-themes in the collected data (see Figure 6.4 above).

Based on both the literature review and the data set for the present study, a supportive environment is the main element that brings other significant factors together to generate and develop IE entrepreneurship and TDE activity. The present study employed graphic, narrative, comparative and interpretative analysis to draw this conclusion from the literature review and

data set. This was made possible by adopting the TA method, combining elements from the literature review and data set in order to explain (a) how the coming together of immigrants in a specific geographical area helps to create an IE economy, market, culture, infrastructure, resources and human capital, and (b) how IE economic activity may facilitate TDE activity.

The focus on the Nigerian IE in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin breaks new ground and lays the foundations for further research. The study's initial objectives were as follows: (1) to use a combination of theories and collected data to conceptualise an IE and understand why immigrants concentrate in a specific geographical area; (2) to explain how an enclave environment can contribute to TDE activity; (3) to understand how an IE environment in a COR context may encourage or impede TDE activity; (4) to propose a conceptual framework for understanding the relationship between an IE environment and TDE. The conclusions drawn from the present study regarding the manner in which IE environment can facilitate TDE activity are further discussed in Chapter Seven, as well as recommendations for follow-up research in this area.

To reiterate, the study set out to explore the influence of IEs on TDE activity. An IE was defined as a spatially concentrated area in which members of a particular demographic group, defined by ethnicity, culture or otherwise, congregate as a means of enhancing their economic, social and/or cultural security and development. TDE practitioners were defined as entrepreneurially active members of settled ethnic minority groups of migrant origin, residing in a COR, but maintaining strong sentimental, cultural, commercial and other links with their COO. While various factors within the IE were found to contribute to the developing TDE activity by settled immigrants (see Table 6.4 sections 1, 2 and 3), the IE environment that allows key enabler factors to come together emerged as the main element that facilitates TDE activity. Based on the evidence from the data set (see Table 6.3) and the literature review, for members of the Nigerian IE in Blanchardstown, TDE activity mainly involves buying goods from Nigeria for sale in Ireland and, additionally, using experience gained in Ireland in order to exploit

investment opportunities in Nigeria (Bauböck, R., and T. Faist. 2010; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015; appendix 16: extract 2.4.3, Juliet; appendix 3; extract 3.10.1, Bola; extract 3.3.2, Ifeyinwe). What is evident from the dataset and literature review is that, without the supportive environment of the IE, TDE activity might be close to impossible. Thus, future research emerging from the present study will focus on exploring what happens when an IE fails to provide an environment that facilitates TDE activity, or when such an IE does not exist. This will allow for an exploration of how immigrants' cultural predispositions function in non-enclave situations.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

The present study set out to answer the research question: 'What is the Relationship between Immigrant Enclaves and Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurial Activity in Ireland?' Using a deductive methodological approach to the exploration of findings from the data set and literature review, the study found the key relationship between an IE and TDE depends on numerous factors related to the environment, cultural resources and infrastructure available to potential TDE practitioners within the IE. When these factors are present, they generate conditions that facilitate the emergence of an IE economy and, potentially, TDE (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993); Neuman, 2016). Bourdieu (1977) describes an environment as a social field for interaction. In the case of the present study, the focus has been TDE practitioners who reside in the Nigerian IE in the Dublin suburb of Blanchardstown. This concluding chapter summarises the findings and makes recommendation for future research into the relationship between IE environments and TDE.

At the outset, four main objectives were outlined in order to guide the study through the three stages of literature review; data collection and analysis (see Table 7.1 below).

Table 7.1 Summary of Study Objectives

Proposed Objective	Proposed Objectives
Objective 1	To use theories to define and understand what an immigrant enclave (IE) is and why immigrants concentrate in a specific geographical area
Objective 2	To explain how IE entrepreneurship leads to transnational diaspora entrepreneurship (TDE) activity.
Objective 3	To understand how the contextual environment of an IE in a COR facilitates TDE activity.
Objective 4	Using the qualitative method of thematic analysis, to propose a conceptual framework for understanding the interaction between IE and TDE.

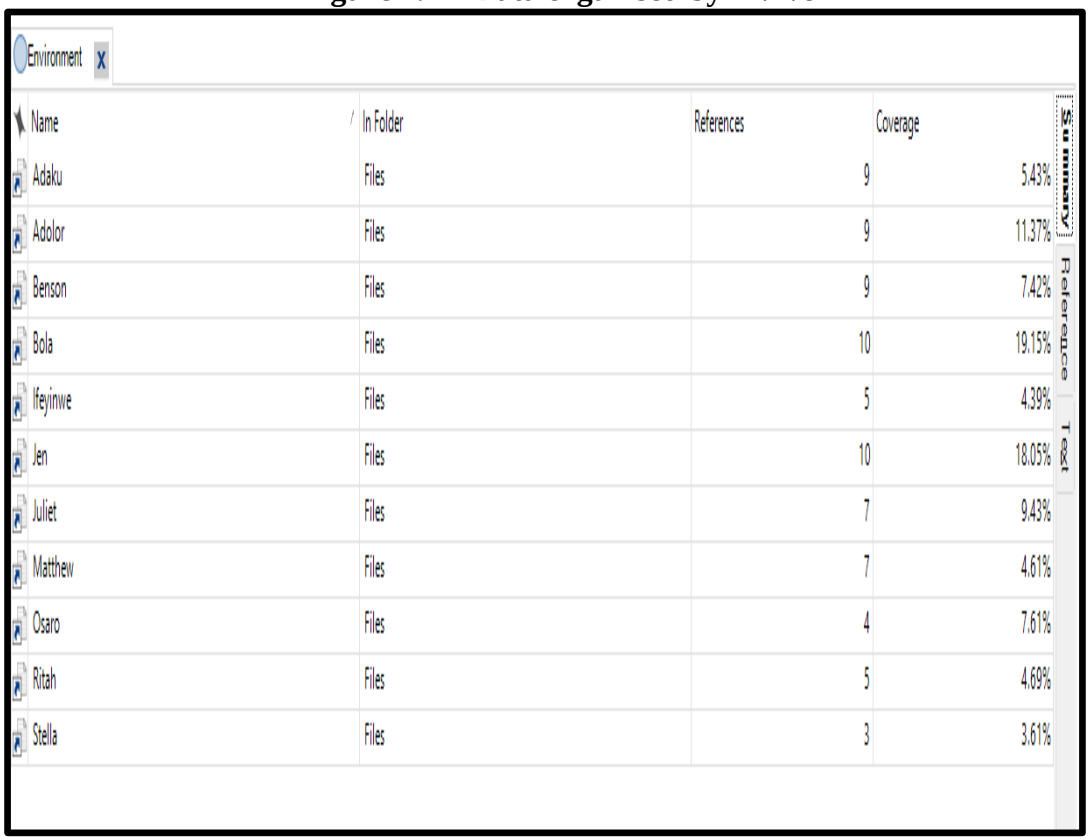
The general aim was to explore how an IE activity influences TDE and how, in turn, TDE influences the concentration of people of the same ethnic and cultural background in a specific geographical area. The eleven participants in the study are all entrepreneurs of Nigerian origin,

resident in Ireland for at least five years and now naturalised Irish citizens. They live and work in the Blanchardstown suburb of Dublin. Eight of them are already engaged in TDE activity between Ireland and Nigeria, while the other three plan to do so in the near future. As analysis of the collected data progressed, similarities emerged with some prominent themes in the reviewed literature. Specifically, it became clearer that demographic characteristics and immigrants' cultural predispositions play key roles in generating opportunity for TDE practitioners. In order to better understand the research process, the following sections explain how each of the four initial objectives were addressed.

7.2 Objective One: Define an IE

Extracts from the data set related to the definition of an IE are included in Appendix 15. Each participant's reflections on an IE are considered. Cross-referencing between these data set extracts and the literature review is then used to explain the findings as per defining IE for the present study (Figure 7.1 below illustrates data, as organised using NVivo).

Figure 7.1 – Data organised by NVivo



The reviewed literature described an IE in terms of the concentration of immigrants in a specific geographical area, a result of the needs and adversities they experienced on arrival in their COR (Portes, 1981; Neuman, 2016). In Appendix 15, extract 1.5.2, Ifeyinwe described the IE environment as a place of refuge that allowtreehdssa111 s people of the same ethnic background to come together. In Appendix 15, extract 1.4.1, Benson explained how the existence of a Nigerian community in Blanchardstown creates an environment that allows space for cultural activity, togetherness, interaction and identification with other Nigerians. In their work on Cuban Americans in Miami, Portes and Sensenbrenner found that the difficulties Cuban immigrants faced on their arrival in Miami, especially a lack of fluency in English, attracted them towards areas with COO culture and language. In the case of the Nigerian community in Blanchardstown, their geographical concentration in that particular area was largely the result of the ready availability of housing there when most of them arrived in Ireland. In Appendix 15, extract 1.3.3, Bola states that the IE environment creates the space needed for entrepreneurship. As explained in the literature review, this concentration of immigrants in an area with COO culture tends to segregate them from mainstream COR society, at least to some extent. Findings from the present study suggest that the formation of a Nigerian IE in Blanchardstown created a social field, resources, infrastructure and cultural elements that allow for the persistence of COO modes of social and commercial interaction.

In Appendix 15, extract 1.6.1, Osaro defines an IE as an environment that allows immigrants to conduct business as they would back home. Consequently, the IE facilitates a sense of bonded solidarity, trust and national identity, thereby conserving ethnic and cultural characteristics. This aligns with a claim repeatedly encountered in the literature review that an IE generates financial and social capital, factors which contribute to the emergence of an IE economy (Waldinger, 1986; Aldrich and Waldinger, 1990). In the Blanchardstown IE, the presence of Nigerian identity and culture create market niches that lead to business start-ups and, later, to TDE activity on the part of entrepreneurs with an understanding of both the Irish

and Nigerian cultures and business eco-systems. The concentration of COO cultural resources, infrastructure and environment in a COR can help or hinder start-up growth and TDE activity (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1990). According to Welter (2011), the coming together of immigrants in a specific geographical area conserves cultural norms and values which may be crucial enabling or constraining factors in immigrants' entrepreneurial activity. In the case of the Blanchardstown IE, the persistence of behavioural patterns shaped by Nigerian culture, together with a limited understanding of mainstream Irish culture and entrepreneurial eco-system, restricted some IE entrepreneurs within the IE economy. Those acquainted with available support mechanisms for start-ups and venture growth succeeded in overcoming these restrictions.

In Appendix 15, extract 1.7.3, Stella describes the IE environment as a space in which the predominance of Nigerian cultural values and norms helps to generate a market niche for Nigerian entrepreneurs. Viewed from outside, an IE may be perceived solely in terms of marginalisation and separation from mainstream COR society. However, the present study has presented evidence, especially the personal testimonies of the participants, indicating the importance of an IE as a symbol of ethnic unity, an environment that conserves COO modes of social and commercial interaction, a place for immigrants to continue to behave, to some extent, as if in their COO. In Appendix 15, extract 1.9.3, Juliet expresses the view that an IE allows for the coming together of people of same ethnic or national identity, thereby facilitating the use of culture as a force for unity and interaction. Theories cited in the literature review and extracts from the data set (see Appendix 15) support the view that an IE facilitates the creation of an economy within the COR that, at a later stage, allows members of a diaspora to engage in transnational entrepreneurial activity, thereby generating investment opportunities in both the COR and the COO.

7.3 Objective Two: Explain the Link between an IE and TDE Activity

According to Aikens and White (2011), members of a diaspora who engage in TDE activity are settled immigrants in a COR, with no intention of returning to their COO, but who travel between their COR and COO in order to exploit entrepreneurial and investment opportunities. The motivation to engage in transnational commerce may result from COO cultural values, resources, infrastructure and environment that an IE provides. Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015) regard TDE as being motivated also by a desire to benefit the COO with experience gained in the COR. The extracted data included in Appendix 16 suggest that the link between an IE and TDE activity refers principally to the environment that acts as a platform for the immigrants' COO cultural values and predispositions.

Previous studies emphasise that TDE activity is a result of a combination of personal enabling traits or talents and external enablers found within an IE and the COR (Dimov, 2012; Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015; Davidsson, 2015, 2016). Personal enablers include previous experience, knowledge, motivation, self-efficacy, a need for achievement, power and affiliation, persistence, direction and intensity of effort sustained over a period of time. Dimov (2010) points out that previous experience of success enhances confidence in one's ability to achieve a proposed objective. In Appendix 15, extract1.10.6, Matthew says that experience gained from helping his parent aided him in starting a business in Ireland. In Appendix 16, extract 2.5.3, Adaku also explains how entrepreneurial experience in Nigeria helped him to exploit the opportunity to start a business in Ireland. All eleven participants in the present study had some degree of entrepreneurial experience prior to their arrival in Ireland. However, other factors as found in the data set also contributes to linking an IE and TDE activity together. In Appendix 16, extract, 2.3.1, Jen says that the presence of large number of Nigerians in Blanchardstown created market demand for certain types of goods and, hence, an opportunity to launch a business venture. In Appendix 16, extract 2.6.2, Benson reiterates that having the Nigerian community in Blanchardstown bring people together and gives them space for cultural

activity, interaction and identification with other Nigerians. In the context of the Blanchardstown IE, previously acquired knowledge helps Nigerian entrepreneurs to recognise and respect COO cultural predispositions. It also facilitates the recognition of niche market opportunities and the design of commercially successful responses thereto.

As the present study has shown, the main external enablers are environment, infrastructure and resources. Baker and Nelson (2005) explain that opportunity formation and the way in which an entrepreneur designs future ventures depend, to a large extent, on external considerations at any particular time. The data set used for the present study suggests that culturally conditioned experience becomes a resources that aids start-ups and TDE activity. In Appendix 16, extract 2.6.1, Benson says that mutual trust generates a positive environment for business dealings and is, therefore, a resource that facilitates entrepreneurship. Both the literature review (Betancourt and López, 1993; Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993; Eriksen, 1997) and the data set underline the importance of experience. Matthew (Appendix 15, extract 1.10.6) and Adaku (Appendix 16, extract 2.5.3) point to prior COO entrepreneurial experience as an important factor in venture survival. The combination of these factors is what Dimov (2010) refers to as individual and external enablers. Significant aspects of the main external TDE enablers are dependent on the presence of an IE in the COR. In Appendix 16, extract 2.5.1, Adaku describes an external enabler as the availability of the necessary infrastructure that allows one to exploit acquired business knowledge. In Appendix 16, extract 2.11.1, Stella says that infrastructure creates community and provides the opportunity to discussion specifically Nigerian issues.

Analysis of the collected data presented in Chapter Six showed that all three of these external enablers figured prominently in responses by participants in this study, with environment emerging as the most important factor (see Table 6.3 above). This suggests that for TDE activity and opportunity to occur, while levels of cultural predispositions, resources and infrastructure may vary between minimum and maximum, a high degree of environmental

support is essential (Santos and Eisenhardt, 2005). As found in the present study, the availability of housing in Blanchardstown created a physical environment that facilitated the conservation of cultural values, bonding, trust, the generation of an IE economy and, eventually, the recognition that the IE environment presented opportunities for transnational commerce (Appendix 16, extracts 2.2.2, 2.2.3, 2.6.1; Appendix 17, extracts 3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.8.1). In the literature review, the constructionist theorists Koppl and Minniti (2010) suggest that individuals differ in how they interpret the raw data of a phenomenon and endow them with significance. Participants in the present study had the requisite personal enablers (such as prior entrepreneurial experience, self-belief, ambition and persistence) that allowed them to interpret the environment generated by the Blanchardstown IE in terms of TDE opportunity. The data analysis indicates that individuals can conceive realities and then mould their actions towards actualising that conception (see Appendix 15, 16 and 17). In the present case, TDE opportunity formation depends on the ability of individuals to detect the potential for a new market, value and growth given the available environment, infrastructure and resources in an IE in a particular COR setting (Katz and Gartner, 1988, Ndofor and Priem, 2011; Yang and Chang, 2012, Davidsson, 2016).

7.4 Objective Three: COR Context of IE and TDE Activity

Over-dependence on COO culture can become a liability by hindering integration in the mainstream society, thereby limiting the potential for business development (Santos and Eisenhardt, 2005). The present study corroborates this view. Participants were of the opinion that, to some extent, the strong presence of Nigerian cultural predispositions in the Blanchardstown IE was a limiting factor that constrained the development of their business ventures beyond the boundaries of the IE. It could also lead IE entrepreneurs to fail to make full use of support mechanisms available to business start-ups in Ireland. In Appendix 17, extract 3.3.2, Ritah says that culture provides networking opportunities, as well as market niche

and capital for starting a business. Ifeyinwe agrees that a common culture provides community support and an understanding that members of the community will even offer financial support, if needed (Appendix 17, extract 3.4.2). The Blanchardstown IE exists within the wider context of the Irish entrepreneurial eco-system which, in turn, is influenced by European Union (EU) directives and initiatives aimed at promoting and enhancing entrepreneurial activity in Member States. For the present study, certain EU directives were especially significant. Measures aimed at combating discrimination on the grounds of racial or ethnic origin and facilitating ease of access to supports for immigrant start-ups are clearly relevant to TDE practitioners in the Blanchardstown IE. Bola believes the legal framework in Ireland supports business activity (Appendix 17, extract 3.10.2). Juliet agrees that Irish business support mechanisms and policies encourage start-ups and create gateways to TDE activity (Appendix 17, extract 3.7.2). The literature review (Kloosterman, Van Der Leun, and Rath, 1999; Newland and Tanaka 2010; Plaza and Ratha, 2011; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2010), supported the view that policies that encourage start-ups, venture growth and ease of travel between EU Member States and improved telecommunications between Europe and Africa are also significant for TDE (see section 3.4.4). The EU Commission has recognised that immigrant entrepreneurship is a significant contributor to economic growth and employment in receiving countries (European Commission, 2016). EU directives have contributed to an increase in immigrant start-up rates in some EU countries, including Ireland.

The present study examines how this broader IE context impacts on TDE activity within a specific geographical area. To this end, the framework policies shaping entrepreneurship in Ireland were analysed. In Appendix 17, extract 3.9.3, Benson suggested that the large Nigerian population in Blanchardstown was the result of Irish policy decisions that allow immigrants to move to Ireland and start a family. Matthew emphasised that the entrepreneurial culture and policies in Ireland generate space for business initiatives and facilitate travel between Ireland and Nigeria (Appendix 17, extract 3.8.3). Ifeyinwe also emphasised the importance of good

entrepreneurship policy (Appendix 17, extract 3.4.1). Findings from both the literature and data set showed that successive Irish Governments' (see Appendices 1, 2 and 8) have enacted policies that support entrepreneurship and immigrant start-ups and venture growth. In Ireland, government policy on entrepreneurship is encapsulated in the 'National Policy Statement on Entrepreneurship in Ireland' (NPSEI). This statement was formulated in order to support start-ups and business development (see Appendix 2). Previous studies suggest that policy frameworks of this sort create resources, infrastructure, capital and a general entrepreneurial environment that facilitate immigrant start-ups and TDE activity (Kloosterman, Van Der Leun, and Rath, 1999; Newland and Tanaka 2010; Plaza and Ratha, 2011; Nkongolo-Bakenda and Chrysostome, 2010). In Ireland, government entrepreneurial policies are aimed at developing sustainable opportunity exploitation for both native-born and immigrant entrepreneurs. These policies include measures designed to improve regulation of everyday business activity, improve competitiveness, ensure environmental protection and promote education programmes that nourish a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship, from primary school level onwards.

Despite the existence of this considerable body of EU directives and national entrepreneurial policies, the data collected from interviews with the Blanchardstown IE participants evidenced a lack of understanding of available support infrastructures for entrepreneurial start-ups and TDE. This can be attributed to an over-dependency on IE environment, infrastructures and resources. For Blanchardstown TDE practitioners to successfully complete the transition from small IE business start-ups to fully developed TDE activity, there is the need for further integration in the mainstream Irish entrepreneurial eco-system. As found in the present study, integrated immigrants are better placed to understand cultural elements and support infrastructure in both the COR and the COO. In Appendix 17, extract 3.1.2, Adaku says that understanding both Irish and Nigerian cultures was important in starting a business in Ireland. Hence, findings from this study indicate a need for further measures to encourage integration for newly arrived immigrants in Ireland.

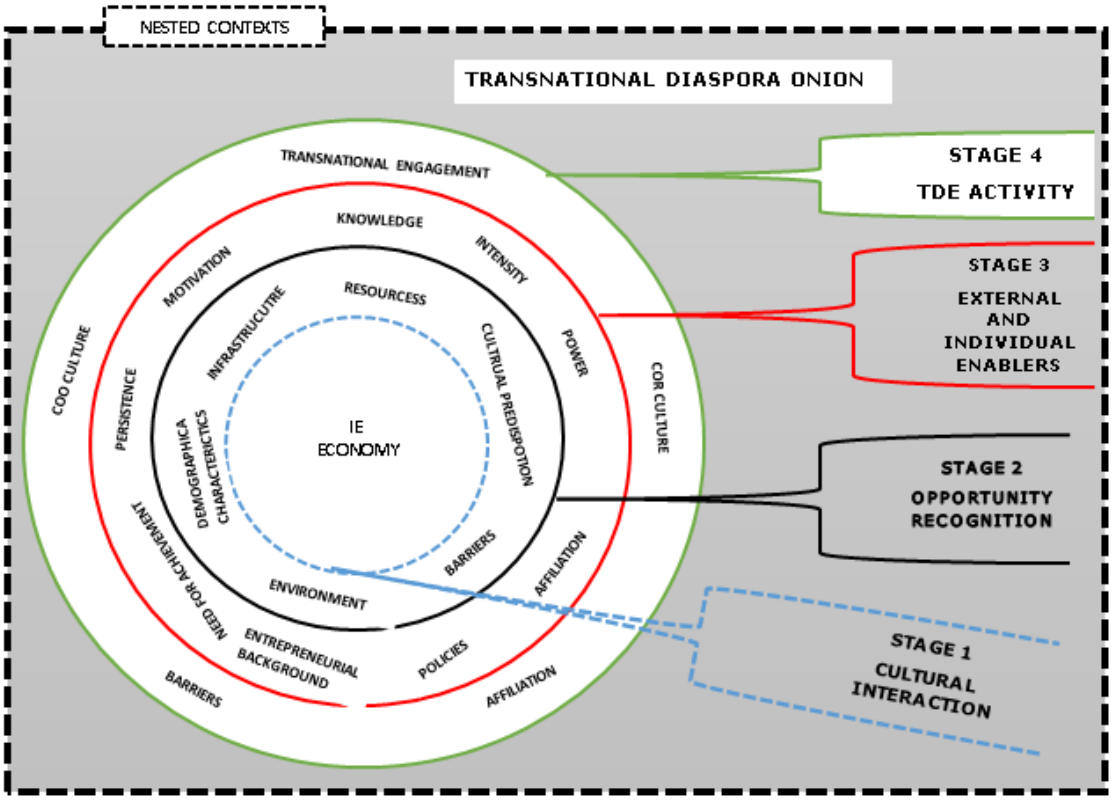
7.5 Objective Four: Conceptual Framework for IE/TDE Interaction

Using a qualitative method and a deductive approach allowed the present study to find common ground in findings from both the literature and collected data set. Doing so clarified how the three main themes (environment, infrastructure, resources) discussed in Chapter Six interact with each other to generate enclave and TDE opportunity. It also provided a theoretical framework for understanding the interaction between IE dynamics and TDE activity. The study adopted the definition of an IE as *"a spatially concentrated area in which members of a particular population group, self-defined by ethnicity or religion or otherwise, congregate as a means of enhancing their economic, social and/or cultural development"* (Marcuse's, 1997, p.242). TDE practitioners were defined as *"settled ethnic minority groups of migrant origin residing and acting in their COR, but maintaining strong sentimental, entrepreneurial and material links with their COO"* (Osaghae and Cooney (2019, p.7). The conclusion drawn from the cross comparison of findings from the literature review and data set is that an IE in a COR context facilitates the generation of the resources, infrastructure, environment, demographic characteristics, cultural predispositions and market niches that encourage TDE activity.

Studies of Islamic immigrants in the Netherlands, Cubans in Florida and Chinese in New York and San Francisco, found that immigrants' demographic characteristics generate an IE economy within a COR that allows immigrants to continue to act, to some extent, as if they were still living in their COO, with the same cultural predispositions, values and norms of interaction. The present study's findings on the experience of Nigerian entrepreneurs in the Blanchardstown IE corroborate this view. Regarding the transition from intra-IE business to TDE activity, analysis of the data set and literature carried out in Chapter Six suggests that TDE activity occurs in four main stages: (1) a cultural interaction stage; (2) a simultaneous opportunity stage; (3) an enabler stage in which both personal and external enablers are activated; and (4) initiation of TDE stage. Based on the work of researchers such as Waldinger (1986) and Aldrich and Waldinger (1990) on interaction frameworks, as well as findings from

the data collected in Blanchardstown, this study produced a conceptual model that highlights the important factors that facilitate IE and TDE activity. This model, named 'Transnational Diaspora Onion' (TDO) is illustrated in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2 - TDO for Interaction between IE and TDE



Sources: Framework adapted from, literature review and data set from the present study

According to the TDO model proposed in Figure 7.1 above, TDE activity begins with Stages 1 and 2, which occur simultaneously because growth of the IE population increases the presence of COO cultural predisposition and generates the conditions for entrepreneurial enterprise, thereby attracting potential TDE practitioners to the IE. In Stage 1, the concentration of an immigrant group sharing similar cultural predispositions in a specific geographical area to form an IE economy with market niches defined by the ethnically conditioned needs of the IE population. The infrastructure, resources and market niches within the IE encourage members with entrepreneurial experience and skills to set up small business ventures. In the case of the Nigerian community in Blanchardstown, prior entrepreneurial experience is perceived as an enabling factor that motivates, reduces fear of risk-taking and enhances individual tenacity (see sections 2.8.3 and 2.9). Both Matthew (Appendix 15, extract 1.10.6)

and Adaku (Appendix 16, extract 2.5.3) that both experience and cultural predispositions are essential for TDE activity.

In the case of the present study, the concentration of Nigerian immigrants in the Blanchardstown area of Dublin facilitated the conservation of Nigerian cultural predispositions and ethnic characteristics, elements that helped to create an IE identity, generate an IE economy and encourage those with entrepreneurial talent to set up small businesses. As IE entrepreneurs began to interact with the wider Irish social and entrepreneurial eco-systems, familiarity with commercially relevant COO and COR cultural elements laid the foundations for TDE activity. Stage 2 of the TDO involves the ability of an individual entrepreneur to recognise and understand the capital, resources and infrastructures that are available from within their enclave, in the wider COR context and in their COO. In Stage 3 of TDO framework, personal and external enablers come into play. Personal enablers (self-efficacy, risk-taking, innovation, achievement orientation, entrepreneurial experience etc.) are critically important in TDE activity. As found in the case of the Blanchardstown IE, the transition to TDE demands a willingness on the part of entrepreneurs to invest a high level of effort (intensity) for a prolonged period of time (persistence) in order to achieve a particular goal (direction) when individual and environmental factors align to indicate a TDE opportunity. The TDO framework indicates the importance of external enablers also. Supportive socio-cultural, political and commercial environments, as well as the availability of resources, infrastructure and a sympathetic regulatory framework help to generate opportunities that could not otherwise exist. However, while the COR and COO cultural and political environments may encourage TDE activity, the present study indicates that they may just as easily create barriers. One such barrier is a lack of adequate government policy in a COO to encourage commercial relations with members of its diaspora. Supportive COR and COO entrepreneurial eco-systems combined with the tenacity of potential TDE practitioners lead to the recognition of opportunity and the creation of viable TDE ventures.

In Stage 4, actual engagement in TDE is initiated. On the basis of their own personal enabling traits, as well as their familiarity with both COR and COO cultural norms and entrepreneurial environments, TDE practitioners recognise potential market niches, assess the possible risks and rewards, and make use of available COR and COO supports in order to convert perceived opportunities into actual business ventures. Evidence from the literature and the collected data suggests that being part of an IE is a significant predictor of the likelihood of an entrepreneur making the transition to TDE activity (Osaghae and Cooney, 2019, p.10). Drawing on the work on Peroni, Riillo and Sarracino (2016), amongst others, the present study understands the relationship between an IE and TDE in terms of specific cultural, infrastructural and policy alignments between a COR and the COO of IE inhabitants. The proposed TDO model may be regarded as a type of 'grand theory' (Skinner 1996), an abstract and normative account of entrepreneurial behaviour in the conjoined contexts of a specific IE, COR and COO.

In conclusion, the study set out to explore the relationship between an IE and TDE activity, based on the literature review and data set collected for this study. While various factors play important roles in linking IE entrepreneurship and TDE activity, the present study's findings indicate that the environment that allows for the persistence of cultural predispositions and immigrants' demographic characteristics creates the most significant link between an IE and TDE activity.

7.6 Key Contributions to the Field of Research

Previous research in the area of IE and TDE tended to focus on describing enclave activity and interpreting it primarily in terms of immigrants' need for strategies to survive in a COR while remitting money to their COO. The inherent connection between the IE and TDE was somewhat overlooked. Hence, the present study set out to explore possible relationships between an IE and TDE. That relationship can be articulated as a dependence on the COO environment, infrastructure, resources and shared cultural predispositions that an IE provides

for immigrants in the context of their COR. The present study adds to the field of research and breaks new ground by extending the researcher's previous work on the relationship between IE theory and TDE activity (Osaghae and Cooney, 2019) with a focus on the specific case of Nigerian TDE practitioners in an IE located in the Blanchardstown suburb of Dublin. The proposed conceptual model contributes to the existing literature by explaining the relationship between an IE and TDE in terms of an interplay between IE dynamics, COR entrepreneurial eco-system and policies designed to encourage diaspora participation in a COO economy. The study highlights the importance of factors such as: (1) immigrant demographic conditions; (2) positive immigrant cultural predispositions; (3) supportive environment, resources and infrastructure, and (4) helpful COR and COO entrepreneurial policies.

This study answers the research question '*What is the relationship between immigrant enclaves and transnational diaspora entrepreneurial opportunity in Ireland*' as follows. An IE influences TDE activity by facilitating the conservation of COO cultural resources in a COR setting, thereby generating the possibility of intercultural awareness that allows for the recognition of TDE activity between a COR and COO by entrepreneur members of a diaspora. Conversely, TDE encourages the concentration of immigrants in a specific geographical area by increasing the supply of COO goods and services to IE inhabitants. Together, an IE and TDE contribute to developing cultural, political and commercial links between a COR and a COO. The present study identifies three possible areas for further research and three possible academic journals that can be targeted for future publication of data and analysis (see Table 7.2).

The idea behind the choice of these three topics is to increase the debate on the role of an IE in TDE activity, and the role sending governments plays in attracting diaspora investment. Some of governments such as Colombia, Ecuador and other Latin American countries have implemented supportive programmes and policies, such as the granting of dual citizenship, the right to vote and run for public office from abroad. As found in the studies by Schiller (2004),

Orozco (2008), the World Bank (2012) and Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015), the granting of citizenship rights to nationals residing abroad has increased diaspora investment in these countries. In some emerging economies, such as Uganda, Nigeria, Morocco, India and Afghanistan, TDE investment is as significant as foreign direct investment (FDI).

Table 7.2 List of Journal and Topics for future Publications

Journal	Topic
The Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies (JEMS): Ranked 4th out of 15 journals in the category "Ethnic Studies" and 12th out of 25 journals in the category "Demography": Impact factor of 1.228.	*Does TDE activity decrease when an IE fails to provide a COO environment in a COR?*
Journal of European Social Policy: Ranked 16th out of 47 in Public Administration, and 10th out of 41 in Social issues: Impact factor is 2.119	*What is the impact of COO polices on TDE activity in a COR?*
The Journal of Business Venturing: One of the 50 journals that the Financial Times uses to compile its business school rankings: Impact factor of 6.000.	*Is TDE a new form of entrepreneurial activity, born of global enterprise, or a venture necessitated by the global needs of enclaved immigrants?*

While some sending countries are implementing policies to attracting their diaspora to invest in their COO, receiving countries such as Germany, the USA, UK and Ireland do little to attract their own Diasporas for investment and entrepreneurial opportunities. Hence the three highlighted topics aim to increase awareness of TDE as an important current form of international business and, potentially, a means of enhancing international cultural and political links. The three chosen journals mentioned in Table 7.2 cover a broad range of topics that would facilitate further analysis of findings from this and related studies.

7.7 Limitations of this Research

Inevitably, there are some shortcomings and limitations over which a researcher has no control. In the present study, one significant limiting factor was the fact that the use of NVivo

for data organisation was complicated by the researcher's limited familiarity with this software. Although the researcher took lessons on NVivo, they did not make him an expert and, consequently, the process of creating and merging themes was time-consuming. Notwithstanding the acknowledgement of this limitation, the ability of NVivo to organise data into manageable sets and themes was undoubtedly of great benefit to the study, with clear advantages over the alternative of manual data organisation.

A second limitation was due to the fact that, despite the researcher being a member of the Nigerian diaspora, he is not part of the Nigerian IE in Blanchardstown. Hence, while a shared ethnicity was probably advantageous overall, the researcher was still regarded as a relative outsider. This created some initial difficulties in accessing participants for the study. This resulted in unavoidable delays in the data collection process. Most of the initial obstacles were overcome with the assistance of a local pastor and the editor of an ethnic newspaper, both trusted by the IE community.

A third limitation in the present study was the focus on one ethnic group in a specific geographical area, limiting the study to the collection of a small sample of data. This restricts any extension of the findings to other ethnic or multi-cultural groups. Further research is required in order to explore, for example, similarities and difference between the Nigerian IE in Blanchardstown and immigrant communities in Dublin's inner city.

7.8 Recommendations

On the basis of the literature review and findings from the collected data, the present study makes the following recommendations in order to enhance the benefits of IE and TDE interaction on both national and international levels.

7.8.1 Policies

The implementation of diaspora reintegration policies in countries such as China, Mexico, Morocco, Indian, Colombia, Dominican Republic and El Salvador have increased

diaspora entrepreneurship. For example, in China and Mexico, the enactment of a policy whereby each diaspora dollar invested in COO development is matched by a dollar each from federal, state and local government has increased the inflow of diaspora investment in both countries (Iskander, 2010; Delano, 2011; Lee and Zhou, 2016). The Indian Government's quest to become a global technological hub is powered by policies designed to encourage diaspora investment. In 2005, the Indian Government created a Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) to manage and coordinate interaction with the diaspora.

Observing Ireland as a COO with its own large diaspora rather than as a COR, the enactment of such diaspora-friendly policies could have a significant positive impact on the national economy. Generally speaking, national governments should do everything possible to strengthen cultural and commercial relations with their respective Diasporas in order to increase their economic and social contribution to the development of the COO.

7.8.2 Migration

Migration has become an issue of global significance. In 2016, issues related to migration and immigrants figured prominently in the UK 'Brexit' referendum and the election of Donald Trump as President of the USA. In many countries, mainstream media regularly refer to migration as a major cause of terrorism and social unrest.

The present study has highlighted positive aspects of migration, without which there would be no IEs and, consequently, no generation of TDE opportunity. Governments in both sending and receiving countries should do more to publicise the economic benefits derived from the development of transnational commerce, with an emphasis on the positive contribution to both COR and COO economies by TDE practitioners. Specifically, there is a need to emphasise that the impact of immigrants on a COR economy involves much more a money remittance process. In the current globalised context, immigrant entrepreneurial activity has become a means of forging cultural, economic and political relationships between countries.

7.8.3 Education

The literature review from the present study support the view that entrepreneurship should be taught at all levels of education in Ireland. Native-born and immigrant children alike would benefit from an early awareness of the importance role played by entrepreneurship in generating employment and contributing to the national economy. For prospective entrepreneurs, including those living in an IE, education will increase awareness of the various policies and support mechanisms that are available to help start-ups and business expansion, including TDE ventures. For example, although there are EU directives that facilitate free movement between all EU member countries, most participants in the present study were unaware of their rights regarding moving from one EU state to another or support mechanisms available for conducting business in multiple EU countries. Participants in the study also demonstrated a limited knowledge of the national policy framework regulating entrepreneurial activity in Ireland. Making such information more readily available will benefit immigrant entrepreneurs and make the general public more aware of the fact that migrant-related transnational financial links extend far beyond the remittance of money to immigrants' COO.

7.8.4 Potential Future Research

Future research should highlight the critically important role of an IE in facilitating opportunity and generating TDE activity that benefits the economies of both a COR and a COO. Such research could help reduce negative perceptions of immigration and the tendency of immigrants with a common ethnicity and cultural identity to concentrate in enclaves. Complementary research should contribute to improved mechanisms of communication, cultural interaction and respectful integration in order to ensure that concentration of immigrants in an IE does not translate into segregation and isolation from mainstream COR society.

Most of the participants for the present study are entrepreneurs who have self-funded their start-ups and have little or no knowledge of the entrepreneurship support mechanisms available in the Blanchardstown area. Hence, future research might explore ways of highlighting available resources, infrastructure and entrepreneurship support mechanisms in Blanchardstown and Ireland as a whole.

7.9 Benefits of the present study

On the basis of the literature review and findings from the collected data, it is possible to indicate how the present study might benefit immigrants, TDE practitioners, policy makers and support agencies involved with this sector.

7.9.1 Benefits for Immigrants and TDE Practitioners

Until recently, discussion of immigrants' financial activity focused on money remittance, the loss or acquisition of skills (seen as a 'brain drain' for source countries and a 'brain gain' for receiving countries) and the advantages of immigration for COR economies (Portes and Fernandez-Kelly, 2015). The negativity and hostility faced by immigrants in some countries has also received considerable attention. A study like the present one can be of service to immigrants and TDE practitioners by highlighting the significant role they play in facilitating cultural, political and economic relationships between sending and receiving countries. As found in the study of immigrants in four continents by Portes and Fernandez-Kelly (2015), diaspora entrepreneurs are currently a major source of investment for emerging countries finding it difficult to access mainstream sources of FDI. The present study has shown how Nigerian entrepreneurs in Blanchardstown are using the experience gained in Ireland to build economic and other relationships between Ireland and Nigeria.

Thus, benefits of the current study for TDE activity in Ireland include: (a) highlighting the role of TDE in the Irish entrepreneurship framework; (b) suggesting that the concentration of immigrants in a specific geographic area promotes entrepreneurship among people with a

shared ethnic origin and national identity; (c) presenting TDE as a process of meeting the immigrants need in a COR while simultaneously allowing transnational entrepreneurs to use the knowledge acquired in a COR in order to invest and engage in entrepreneurship in their COO; (d) providing ample evidence that immigrant financial activity is no longer primarily a money remittance process, but rather the building of cultural, political and economic bridges between nations; (e) underlining the need for countries with large diasporas to develop policies and infrastructure that attracts diaspora investment and entrepreneurship back to the COO; and (f) facilitating a better understanding of the fact that TDE is currently responsible for a significant exchange of knowledge and technology between COR and COO. Most importantly, the study highlights the vital role played by immigrants' COO culture, environment, infrastructure and previous experience in the formation of an IE community and the recognition of TDE activity in a COR context.

7.9.2 Benefits for Policy Makers

One of the main benefits of the present study is its highlighting of the role of policy makers on both the national and international levels. Within a national context, governments should implement policies that enrich the entrepreneurial environment for both native-born and immigrant entrepreneurs. Immigrants and small and medium size businesses are the backbone of many national economies. The Irish Government should implement policies that regulate entrepreneurial activity in such a way that immigrant and indigenous businesses can prosper alongside the multi-national companies. What is suggested here is the application of legal measures that, for example, limit liability for immigrant businesses and SMEs and allow self-employed entrepreneurs to access social welfare support if an enterprise fails.

Policy makers should also ensure the removal of cumbersome red tape and bureaucratic procedures that hinders start-ups and business growth. There should be more and better programmes to educate TDE practitioners about available support mechanisms. Mentorship

schemes for immigrants and TDE should be encouraged and promoted. Government grants, subsidies, loans and advisory support should specifically target immigrant and TDE ventures. Finally, governments should commission research that seeks to identify ways of reducing any negativity surrounding immigration, immigrant enclaves and TDE activity. The adoption of all or some of these ideas can only enhance the sector and improve the environment for TDE practitioners.

7.9.3 Benefits for Support Agencies

In Ireland, Local Enterprise Offices (LEOs) are tasked with delivering an improved system of supports for start-ups and small businesses. This challenge is shared with State bodies such as local authorities, Enterprise Ireland, Revenue, the Department of Social Protection, the Credit Review Office and training bodies set up to support small local businesses. While this is significant way of moving SMEs forward, the current study indicates a need for some bodies to deal specifically with immigrant/TDE issues. For example the creation of a Ministry of Diaspora Affairs by the Indian government has enhanced the relations between the India's Government and its diaspora, and has increased the inflow of diaspora investment. The present study also points to the need for more effective communication between the LEOs and the immigrant entrepreneurs, since participants demonstrated a lack of knowledge about financial and other supports available to entrepreneurs in the Blanchardstown area. This was one of the main reasons for the participants finding it difficult to acquire start-up capital.

7.9.4 Benefits for Others

This study can contribute to a better understanding by the general public of the role played by immigrant businesses and TDE activity in generating commercial exchanges between COR and COO economies, thereby bringing advantages for the COR as well as the COO. A substantial growth in migratory activity has caused immigration to become one of the most

contentious political, economic and social issues of the twenty-first century. This makes it all the more urgent for governments and international organisations to educate the public about the nature and benefits derived from TDE. In Canada, for example, 17.5% of immigrants aged 18–69 are engaged entrepreneurship, compared with 14.4% of the Canadian-born population (Hou and Wang 2011). In the UK, immigrants are three times more likely to be entrepreneurs than people born in Britain. In Ireland a higher percentage of migrants have recently started a business compared with the non-immigrant population (Osaghae and Cooney, 2019). The present study highlights the fact that immigrants do not come into a country merely for economic gain, but also to establish commercial links with their COO and provide new employment opportunities in their COR.

7.10 Conclusion to the Thesis

The remote origin of the present study was the researcher's personal experience of leaving his homeland and living in a variety of cultural settings. This evoked an interest in the role of native culture and values in the lives of immigrants. In recent years, the choice of international business as a field of study sharpened the focus of this interest into a desire to better understand the nature of diaspora entrepreneurship. As stated earlier, the researcher was born in Nigeria, but moved to Austria in his late teens, at a time when the Nigerian immigrants to that country were struggling to be integrated and accepted. After relocating to Ireland in order to begin a degree programme in business studies, a visit to the London borough of Peckham brought about a whole new understanding of the immigrant experience. In particular, it brought home how critical a role immigrants' native culture continues to play in their lives, especially when they are living in an area populated by a large number of their compatriots. On completion of a Masters Degree in International Business, it became clear that the role of culture in immigrant entrepreneurs' activity was a topic deserving of further research. As found by multiple studies on immigrant entrepreneurship, COO culture acts as a defining factor both in

the formation of enclave economies and in the generation of diaspora entrepreneurial opportunity and activity.

The early stages of exploring this topic took the researcher to Brazil, Chile, Germany, Nigeria, UK and Poland, attending conferences and presenting papers in order to deepen his understanding of how culture and immigrant entrepreneurship interact in different settings. Most of these journeys were facilitated by the researcher's engagement in the EU/TU Dublin 'DiasporaLink' project, involving 24 universities worldwide. Managing and coordinating a team of 10 TU Dublin researchers and liaising with partner universities gave the researcher the opportunity to attend meetings with internationally renowned researchers in the field of TDE. Observing the dynamics of the immigrant experience in a variety of national settings, the differences were frequently very striking, and it was clear that life in immigrant enclaves is shaped by a complex interaction between the culture of immigrants' native country and that of their chosen country of residence.

Having spent most of his life in Austria and Ireland, undertaking the present study re-opened a lot of interesting questions for the researcher regarding his own native Nigerian culture. For example, the difficult task of persuading sufficient Blanchardstown entrepreneurs to participate in the data collection process was a reminder that, generally speaking, Nigerians are reluctant to disclose or discuss personal matters. Once initial barriers were overcome, the research exercise was a positive experience and a milestone in the researcher's personal journey of cultural self-discovery. As a closing statement in this study, the researcher wishes to reiterate his expression of gratitude to the participant entrepreneurs for their contributions to the study and for their willingness to set aside any initial misgivings in order to make the researcher feel accepted and welcomed by members of the Blanchardstown IE.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 - Measure and Monitoring of entrepreneurial Activity by the 6 Elements

Conduct a comprehensive profile analysis of the national entrepreneurship ecosystem in Ireland to assess current national performance against international comparators. This assessment should take the form of an in-depth analysis to assess the individual indicators and data for Ireland compiled across international benchmarks. This analysis will reveal the particular conditions that are driving high or low scores across the internationally recognised indicators for entrepreneurship and identify areas in which policy improvements would improve the entrepreneurship ecosystem the most. (DJEI)	Develop a consistent benchmark index for Ireland that will measure and track trends across the national This comprehensive analysis should assist in identifying strengths, weaknesses, and opportunities across the ecosystem and will form the basis of an annual report to the Minister for Jobs Enterprise and Innovation. (DJEI)	The National Competitiveness Council will support the DJEI in examining entrepreneurship indicators as a measure of competitiveness. (NCC, DJEI)

Source: National Policy Statement of Ireland (2014)

Appendix 2- Explaining the Irish National Policy Statement

1.Culture, Human Capital, and Education	2.Business Environment and Supports	3 Innovation
• Make entrepreneurship an integral part of our ambition as a nation. • Support its development in our education system, in our communities, and in corporate behaviour. • Celebrate and reward successful entrepreneurs and to ensure that greater numbers of people, particularly in underrepresented cohorts such as females, youths, migrants and older persons start and run their own business. • Improve the quality and range of ICT professionals domestically to make Ireland a hub for technology start-ups.	• Create a business environment in Ireland where it is easy to start up and grow a new business in terms of Company Law; Tax; Regulation; Licensing and where it is one of the most attractive environments in Europe. • Promote best in class standards across the network of Enterprise Ireland and Local Enterprise Offices which fully exploit the enterprise assets of their community and foster new thinking in the enterprise area. • Stimulate and support high levels of quality entrepreneurial ventures with high growth, export, and wealth and job creation potential.	• Make Ireland a location of choice for high quality international start-ups. • Develop the best infrastructure to support technology transfer into commercialisation as a new business opportunity (Knowledge Transfer Ireland; Campus Incubators; Commercialisation Fund; Technology Centres). • Develop a support framework where innovative start-ups can reach their full potential.
4.Access to Finance	**5.Entrepreneurial Networks & Mentoring**	**6. Access to Markets**
• Expand the range of access to finance instruments to match our ambition as a start-up hub so that all viable businesses have the opportunity to access sufficient finance to meet their needs. • Attract more angel and international venture capital investors and continue to develop the domestic venture capital sector. • Ensure that the banks develop the skills and focus necessary to deliver appropriate financial instruments to start-ups and early stage entrepreneurs	• Improve the impact of mentoring as a tool to support entrepreneurship. • Increase the levels of peer networks for mentoring, angel finance and problem solving that sustain entrepreneurship. • Build world class entrepreneurial hubs and achieve a greater regional spread of such hubs, facilitating entrepreneurial leadership.	• Encourage local and national private enterprises to commit to offering opportunities for fledgling businesses to find a market. • Encourage public local and national authorities to commit to offering opportunities for fledgling businesses to find a market. • Ensure start-ups have clearly identified customer/market segments and clearly developed value propositions and where appropriate are export oriented in their thinking early in their development

Source: Adapted from National Policy Statement of Ireland (2014)

Appendix 3 – EU Three Pillars of Fostering Entrepreneurship Growth

Pillar 1 Developing entrepreneurial education and training,	Pillar 2 Creating the right business environment	Pillar 3 Modelling and reaching out to specific groups
The aim is to develop entrepreneurial education and training to support growth and business creation, strengthening framework conditions for entrepreneurs by removing existing structural barriers and supporting them in crucial phases of the business lifecycle, dynamising the culture of entrepreneurship in Europe; nurturing the new generation of entrepreneurs, increasing the prevalence and quality of entrepreneurial learning and promote entrepreneurial learning modules for young people participating in national Youth Guarantee schemes.	The EC set out six key areas where the action is needed to remove existing obstacles impeding their creation and growth as follows, creating access to finance, support for entrepreneurs in the crucial phases of the business lifecycle and their growth, unleashing new business opportunities in the digital age; easy of transfers of businesses within the EU, ease of bankruptcy procedures and second chance for honest entrepreneurs and reduction of regulatory burden for small business	Aimed, at highlighting the importance, value, and role of entrepreneurs in the society, address the positive of taking up entrepreneurship as a career destination, clear and engaging information on the challenges and rewards of an entrepreneurial career can counteract negative impressions, to have a corresponding broader discussion in public, especially in the media on the importance entrepreneurial revolution and to encourage public and private institutions to emphasise the social and economic importance of entrepreneurs not only as a legitimate career path but also as a matter of utmost national, European and international interest.

Sources: (European Commission, 2013; Entrepreneurship Action 2020 Plan).

Appendix 4– Showing the Pillars as Set out By the EU

Pillar 1	Pillar 2	Pillar 3
Establish, jointly with the OECD, a guidance framework to encourage the development of entrepreneurial schools and VET institutions	Finance programmes aimed at developing a market for microfinance in Europe, through initiatives as Progress Microfinance and the Joint Action to Support Microfinance Institutions (JASMINE) initiative and make resources for micro-financing available to Member States and regions via the European Social Fund or the European Regional Development Fund.	Establish, in the framework of the "SME Week", a Europe-wide "EU Entrepreneurship Day" for students in their last year of secondary education. Events could include meetings with entrepreneurs, case studies, lectures, workshops and "company open days".
Promote the recognition and validation of entrepreneurial learning in an informal or non-formal learning environment	Facilitate the direct access of SMEs to the capital market through the development of an EU regime for venues specialised in the trading of shares and bonds issued by SMEs ("SMEs growth markets"), in the context of the review of the Market in Financial Instruments Directive (MiFID)	Better take into account the variety of business models and legal statuses in their national or local business support schemes, and develop social entrepreneurship education and training.
Disseminate the entrepreneurial university guidance framework in early 2013; facilitate exchange between universities interested in applying the framework; gradually promote it to the EU Higher Education Institutions;	Make use of structural funds' resources to set up microfinance support schemes under the respective investment priorities of the European Social Fund (ESF) and the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF).	Demographic groups that are underrepresented in the entrepreneurial population and especially founders of start-ups are young people, women, disabled and/or migrants. Europe has to open up for them paths into entrepreneurship to create for them jobs, empower them economically and socially and leverage their creative and innovative capacities
Endorse successful mechanisms of university-driven business creation (spin-offs etc.) and emerging university-business ecosystems around key societal challenges.	Utilise the full potential under the EAFRD to ensure access to financing of entrepreneurship, in particular at an early stage of the business in agriculture (such as setting up of young farmers) and in rural areas in general, also by means of financial instruments.	

Source: Adapted from Literature European Union Action Plan 2020

Appendix 5 – Irish Immigration Policies

Aliens Act 1935	Before 1999 this was the primary legislation governing the entry and residence of non-Irish nationals. The 1946 and 1975 Aliens Orders, made by the Minister pursuant to this Act, dealt with leave to land, deportation, and detention. After the constitutionality of parts of the 1935 Act, and those orders, was challenged in litigation in the superior courts,1 new legislation, beginning with the Immigration Act, 1999, came into force
Irish Nationality and Citizenship Acts 1956	This legislation sets out who is, who can become, an Irish citizen. It also sets out provisions on revocation and the loss of citizenship.
The Refugee Act 1996 (marked the beginning of a new era in Irish Immigration history)	Gives statutory effect to the State's obligations under the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 New York Protocol.
Child Trafficking and Pornography Act 1998	Provides measures to protect children under 17 from sexual exploitation through child trafficking and child pornography.
Immigration Act 1999	Sets out the law for deportation.
Criminal Justice (United Nations Convention Against Torture) Act 2000	Gives effect to the Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.
Illegal Immigrants (Trafficking) Act 2000	Makes it an offence to organise or knowingly facilitate the entry into the State of an illegal immigrant or a person who intends to seek asylum. Section 5 of the Act provides strict rules for judicial review of immigration related decisions.
Immigration Act 2003	Introduced carrier liability, making it a punishable offence for a carrier to bring an immigrant without permission to land to the State.
European Convention on Human Rights Act 2003	Gives domestic effect to the Convention.
Social Welfare (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act 2003	Makes asylum seekers no longer entitled to receive a rent supplement, and obliged to Enter the State's direct provision accommodation system in order to qualify for benefits
Employment Permits Act 2003	Facilitates free access to the Irish labour market to nationals of the new EU Accession States after 1 May 2004
The Twenty-Seventh Amendment of the Constitution Act 2000	Increased the power of the legislature with regard to the acquisition of citizenship

Social Welfare **(Miscellaneous Provisions)** **Act 2004**	Added a Habitual Residence Condition for applicants for welfare benefits
Immigration Act 2004	Regulates the entry and residence of non-Irish nationals in the State.
The Irish Nationality **And Citizenship Act 2004**	Sets out the conditions under which Irish Citizenship may be granted to a child born in Ireland to non-Irish national parents.
Criminal Justice Act 2006	Section 186 amended the definition of "torture" in the Criminal Justice (United Nations Convention Against Torture) Act 2000 by the insertion after "omission" of "done or made, or at the instigation of, or with the consent or acquiescence of a public official".
Employment Permits Act 2006	Provides for the application, grant, renewal, refusal, and revocation of employment permits.
European Communities **(Amendment) Act 2006**	Amends the European Communities Act 1972, to provide that certain provisions of the Treaty Concerning the accession of the Republic of Bulgaria and Romania to the European Union are part of Irish domestic law
	Sources: Adapted from Irish Immigration and Residence Bill, 2005

Appendix 6– The Irish Policy Statement on Taxation

Start-up Company Relief	Start-up Company Relief provides relief from corporation tax for new start-up companies for the first three years of trading in respect of profits from a new trade and chargeable gains on the disposal of assets used in the trade. Such relief applies if the total corporation tax payable for an accounting period does not exceed €40,000. Marginal relief is available if the total corporation tax payable is between €40,000 and €60,000. The value of the relief in each of the three years is capped at the amount of employers' PRSI paid by a company.
Start Your Own Business	The Start Your Own Business (SYOB) scheme provides relief from income tax for people who were long-term unemployed (unemployed for 12 months or more and in receipt of social welfare support/training) immediately before starting a business. The scheme provides an exemption from income tax up to a maximum of €40,000 per annum for a period of two years for qualifying individuals. This relief applies to income tax and does not extend to Universal Social Charge or Pay Related Social Insurance. The relief is available in respect of unincorporated businesses set up between 25th October 2013 and 31st December 2016. Data on take-up of the scheme is not yet available.
Share Based Remuneration in Private Companies	Share based employee remuneration can significantly reduce fixed labour costs and capital requirements, thereby providing significant cash-flow benefits to an enterprise, particularly a high potential start-up. The extent to which a company can avail of tax efficient share based employee remuneration relief in Ireland, compared to other countries, plays a significant part in this country's attractiveness to entrepreneurs. Irish tax legislation allows for many types of schemes which facilitate employers who wish to allocate shares or grant options to buy shares, to their employees. These include share option schemes, 'save as you earn' share option schemes, approved profit sharing schemes, restricted share schemes and employee share ownership trusts. The current tax treatment of share options, however, is considered to be less competitive than that available in other countries and this is having a negative effect on the ability of Irish start-ups to attract world class talent. The perceived problems concern the timing of tax liabilities, the administrative costs involved and the high rates of capital gains tax. This creates a particular challenge for businesses seeking engineering or executive level talent to fill such roles as a chief executive officer, chief operating officer, and chief financial officer. In practice, because of the immediate tax liabilities triggered, the use of share based employee remuneration by private companies in Ireland is limited. In addition, for smaller companies, the administrative burden of setting up such schemes is unduly high. This puts Irish-based private companies at a distinct competitive disadvantage compared to stock exchange listed companies when competing to attract and hire suitably skilled staff from the global talent pool.
Seed Capital Scheme and Employment and Investment Incentive	The Seed Capital Scheme (SCS), in conjunction with its associated scheme, the Employment, and Investment Incentive (EII), is tax relief incentive schemes. The EIIS provides tax relief to unrelated private investors for investment in certain corporate trades. The SCS provides for a refund of income tax already paid to those who are or were in employment which was subject to PAYE and who establish and work full time in their own company when that individual makes a relevant investment in a qualifying company. Neither the SCS nor the EII is used extensively, indicating that reforms are probably required to improve the promotion and uptake of these measures. Both schemes are currently being reviewed by the Department of Finance ahead of Budget 2015
Capital Gains Tax	Investment and reinvestment of capital are essential to enterprise development. Following a number of capital gains tax (CGT) rate increases in recent years, Ireland's CGT rate has increased to a relatively high rate in international terms of 33 per cent, without any indexation

	allowance to compensate for the effects of inflation. These increases in CGT rates create a challenge for Ireland's competitiveness. They have been made during a period in which many other countries have gone in the opposite direction, enhancing their competitiveness as a location for entrepreneurial activity by significantly improving their tax treatment of capital gains. Subject to EU State aid clearance, Budget 2014 introduced a targeted CGT relief designed to encourage business people to re-invest the proceeds of previous asset disposals into new business ventures. The benefit of this incentive is restricted in the current fiscal circumstances, but it will be reviewed with a view to improving it in the light of experience and other developments.

Sources: National Policy Statement of Ireland (2014)

Appendix 7- The Role of Government in Small Business

Term	Definition
Government as regulator	Government and legal rules determine how trade rules operate (nationally and internationally) and the legal form of companies, the extent of legal limits on company liabilities and the strength of anti-trust, restrictive practices and anti-monopoly regulations. The government also influences regulation on conditions at work, consumer protection, food, health, safety, environmental and planning regulation and licensing.
Government as economic agent	Government taxes, charges fees, raise debts and spends, the way in which this operates has a profound effect on business finance and risk taking: ● Taxation and fee levels affect entrepreneurial incentives and market entry; government debt levels severely affect the economic climate. ● Spending influences, the competitive environment and procurement rules for government ● Contracts influence markets; the growth of government services (particularly Education, health and transport services) influences the factor inputs for SMEs. ● As a significant employer, government wage rates and employment conditions impact ● On local and national pay bargaining, the role of trade unions and employment conditions. ● Government redistribution policies and social engineering influence work incentives and the labour market.
Government as strategic planner and promoter	Government finance can be used to offer grants, subsidies, loans, or information and advisory support to SMEs; and can seek to improve the infrastructure of business factor inputs. Notable examples are: ● Education and skills ● Research and development ● Marketing and productivity initiatives ● International trade protection or barriers. Over time, the consensus on the extent and form

Sources: Adapted from Carter and Jones-Evans (2012)

Appendix 8- The Evolution of Enterprise Policy

The 1930s–1950s	The 1960s–1980s	The 1980s–1990s
1932 – Large increase in tariffs on a wide range of imported goods	1961 – Application made to join the European Economic Community	1986–Industrial Development Act provides new the statutory framework for enterprise support
1932–34 – Control of Manufactures Act restricts foreign ownership of new Irish company	!963-EEC application withdraw after collapsing of talks between Britain and Ireland	1987-Financial Services Act establishes International Financial Services Centre (IFSC). Profits from eligible activities undertaken in the centre qualify for 10% tax rate until 2005
1933 – Establishment of Industrial Credit Corporation to provide finance for native industry	1965 – Anglo-Irish Free Trade Area Agreement requires phasing out of tariffs on most British Goods within 10 years	1987-Programme for National Recovery negotiated between government and social partners
1950-Establishement of Industrial Development Authority to promote industrial development	1969-Industrial Development Act merges the IDA and An Foras Tionscail	1987- First Minster of State for science and Technology appointed, and Science and Technology Development programme initiated.
1952-Establishement of An Foras Tionscail to give grants of up to 100% of cost of land and building and 50% of cost of machinery to companies setting up in under-developed areas of the country	1969-Export profit tax relief extended to 1990	1989- First EU-funded Industry Operational Programme launched.
1956-Industrial Grants Act provides that grants of up to 2/3rds of cost of land and buildings can be given for new industry in all part of the country	1973-Ireland joins EEC. Tariffs on import of almost all manufactured goods from EEC members states to be phased out over five year	The 1983-single market in goods, services, capital, and labour takes effect in the European Union
1955-Financial Act gives 50% remission of tax on profits from export. Finance Act 1958 increases export tax relief to 100%. Finance Act 1960 extend tax relief for 15 years with tapering relief for further five years	1981-Industrial Development (No.2) Act enables grants to be paid for designated internationally traded services. IDA establishes International services Programme	1993-Industrial Development Act establishes 3 Agencies: IDA Ireland for overseas industry: Forbairt for indigenous industry; and Forfás as an advisory and coordination body
Economic Development 1958: sooner or later protection will have to go and the challenge of free be accepted	1981-Export tax relief replaced by 10% tax on all profits in manufacturing sector but remains in force until 1990 for companies already qualifying	1998-Agreement with European Commission on 12.5% standard corporation tax rate from 2003 1998-Industrial Development act establishes Enterprise Ireland as new development agency for indigenous industry incorporating Forbairt, An Bord Tráchtála and some and some activities of FÁS
1958-Easing of restrictions on foreign ownership of industry in control of Manufactures Acts 1932 and 1934. Acts replaced in 1964	1982-Review of industrial policies by Telesis criticises excessive reliance on the foreign industry. Propose reduction in grant aid to foreign firms and greater emphasis on building up strong indigenous firms.	1999-Commencement of Economic and Monetary Union (EMU) and euro. Changeover to € to completed by February 2002
1959-Shannon Free Airport Development Company (SFADCO) established to promote industrial development in the Shannon Area	194-White House Paper on Industrial Policy proposes greater focus on developing indigenous industry	2000–Government approves c646m Technology Foresight Fund and sets up Science Foundation Ireland to manage it. 2000 – Establishment of Inter-Trade Ireland to promote all-island trade and enterprise development.

Source: Department of Enterprise, Trade and Employment (2003).

Appendix 9- Point at which Immigrants become TDE Practitioners

Participants Names	Business name and address	Type of business	Years In Ireland	Point of becoming part of diaspora entrepreneur
Adaku	Decline inclusion	Ethnic consultancy firm	10+	Point of Naturalisation
Adolor	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Barbering saloon	12+	Point of Naturalisation
Bola	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Africa foods	13+	Point of Naturalisation
Benson	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Transportation	14+	Point of Naturalisation
Jen	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Pedicure and Manicure	10+	Point of Naturalisation
Juliet	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	Export of good to Nigeria	12+	Point of Naturalisation
Ifeyinwe	DUUD African Foods Blanchardstown Dublin 15	African Foods/Community · Grocery Store	10+	Point of Naturalisation
Matthew	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin		7+	Point of Naturalisation
Osaro	Decline inclusion	African Food	11+	Point of Naturalisation
Ritah	Decline inclusion	Hair and food	12+	Point of Naturalisation
Stella	Coolmine Industrial Estate, Dublin	African hair saloon	15+	Point of Naturalisation

Appendix 10- Ethical Consideration Certificate

Research Ethics and Integrity Committee,
Dublin Institute of Technology,
Dublin 8.

14/05/2018

Rectangular Snip

Dear Mr Osa-Godwin Osaghae,

The Research Ethics and Integrity Committee of the Dublin Institute of Technology has reviewed your application entitled *How does Immigrant Enclave Influence Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurial Opportunity in Ireland?*, our reference REC-17-135.

Your application is now approved, as per the conditions communicated to you. If there are any changes in the research as described in your submission REC-17-135 you must contact the REIC. The committee notes that the final survey instrument should be provided before the commencement of this aspect of the work

The committee would like to wish you the best of luck with your work.

Yours sincerely,

Steve Meaney, PhD
Chair - DIT Research Ethics and Integrity Committee

Appendix 11- About the Research

About the Research

This work is based on the suggestion that the concentration of immigrants in a specific geographical area creates resources, infrastructures, environment and market for immigrant entrepreneurship. It also based on realising that the resources, infrastructures, environment and market provided as a result of immigrant concentration create an opportunity for settled immigrant (diaspora) to engage in cross-border entrepreneurial activity between the country of residency and country of origin. The aim of this work is

- To explore the role culture of the country of origin plays in immigrant start-up, entrepreneurial activity; and the impact of this culture transnational diaspora entrepreneurship
- To explore whether or not the resources, infrastructures, environment and market created as a result of immigrant concentration provide TDE with the opportunity to engage in entrepreneurial activity between the country of residence and country of origin
- To explore the role of TDE activity in the immigrant settlement in a specific geographical area

Participation in interview will help this work determine whether or not there are connections or linkage between immigrant concentration and transnational diaspora entrepreneurship. Two theories used to describe immigrant and diaspora activity in the country of residence and country of origin, with no direct established connection drawn between them (the theories).

Understanding Your Role as a Participant in This research

- **As participants what does the research want from you?**

This research wants your honest contribution to the discussion of whether or not transnational diaspora entrepreneurship is the result of motivationresource, infrastructures, environment and

market created as a result of immigrant concentration; and whether or not transnationalism fosters business development between the country of residence and country of origin.

- **How can you contribute to this discussion?**

You can contribute by taking part in an In-depth interview, a process whereby the research will sit with and ask you some questions relating to your business activity, your residential status, about your knowledge of the immigrant enclave (concentration in a specific area), and the influence of culture on the immigrant market etc.

- **How long will the interview last?**

The interview will take between 30 minutes to an hour, but not more than an hour

- **Where will the interview be conducted**

The interview will be conducted at your (participant) premises (shop) on an agreed date and time that suits the participant. However, both the interviewer and the participant should agree on the earliest date and time that is within the research set time of data collection. Thus any date within May and June 2018 will be appreciated. The interview recording will be through a Dictaphone (Olympus Digital Voice Recorder or similar equipment) and possibly note taking during the interview.

- **What will happen to the collected data?**

The data collected will be stored password secured on my PC including any other material or notes taken e.g. the signed consent form, participant's phone number and personal detail will be locked away in a secure cabinet. It will never be discussed or shared without consent from the participant. The collected data is for this research alone and will not be shared with any one, agent or government bodies without your written consent.

- **What if I do not want my personal details to appear in your report?**

Your participation in this research is important for finding the connection between TDE activity and immigrant's concentration and in providing policies that will enhance this sector. Thus, the research understands that when any participant does not want their details disclosed, a fictitious name or business address will be used to hide the identity of the participant.

PLEASE INDICATE TO THE RESEARCHER IF YOU DO NOT WANT YOUR DETAILS DISCLOSED.

When this is the case a fictitious name or business address will be used.

- **Why do I need to take part in this research?**

Findings from this research will improve the sector and help in creating policies that will enhance immigrant market and it will also help to udetermine the role of transnational diaspora entrepreneurs within a national context.

- **Are there any financial incentives for taking part in the research?**

No, there are no financial rewards for participating. Participation will give you the chance to contribute to your sector and help to develop policies that will enhance the sector. Furthermore, it will give you the chance to show the importance of your culture, create understanding on how to deal with immigrants and enhance understanding of your culture in Ireland

- **What will happen when I agree to participate in this research?**

The researcher will agree on a possible date of the interview with you at your premises (shop). Please note that issues discussed during this interview will be kept between yourself and the interviewer; the content of the interview will not be shared or discussed with a third party. As such the researcher will be alone on the day of the interview. The interview will be conducted at a place of your convenient within your premises.

- **Can I withdraw from the interview at any time?**

Yes, you can always, just, let the researcher know if you don't want to continue or if you do not want your interview to be used. At that point you do not wish to continue the interview stops and any collected data (interview) will be destroyed.

- **How can you trust the researcher to comply with trust issues in this research?**

It is important to understand that the researcher is a diaspora like yourself and understands your fears and the importance of trust within the diaspora community. The researcher as a diaspora of Nigeria, Austria and Ireland, understands the importance of trust within the community and knows better what to do with your views and comments and how to protect you if you do not want your details disclosed.

- **Do I get to see if what was discussed during the interview was rightly transcribed?**

Yes. After the transcription of the data, the researcher will ring you to set a date and time to come back to your shop for you to read the transcribed data. At this point, any wrongly transcribed details will be removed. But note it's not a second interview, it is simply to gain your trust that your data will not be misused.

- **On the day of the interview, can I ask questions before the commencement of the interview?**

Yes you can, or do so by email, phone/WhatsApp (0851416660) or we can discuss this face to face on the day before the signing of the consent form and commencement of the interview.

- **What is a consent form**

Following research ethical guidelines and consent issues, DIT's standard research consent form will be used for this research. It a document asking some questions as reassurance that you have been rightly briefed about the research. This is a YES or NO box to be ticked on the appointment day before the interview commenced.

- **Do you agree to take part in this interview?**

If yes, please sign the consent form. The participant signing of the consent commences the interview to commence.

Appendix 12- Consent Form

Researcher's Name	**OSA-GODWIN OSAGHAE**
Academic Unit	**School of Marketing** **Dublin Institute of Technology (DIT)** **Aungier Street Dublin 2**
Title of Study	**"What is the Relationship between Immigrant Enclaves and Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurial Opportunity in Ireland?"**

The following section should be completed by the research participant

	Yes	**No**
Have you been fully informed of the nature of this study by the researcher? (Note that this would typically include use of a participant information sheet.)	☐	☐
Have you had an opportunity to ask questions about this research?	☐	☐
Have you received satisfactory answers to all of your questions?	☐	☐
Have your received sufficient information about the potential health and/or safety implications of this research?	☐	☐
Have you been full informed of your ability to withdraw participation and/or data from the research?	☐	☐
Have you been fully informed of what will happen to data generated by your participation in the study and how it will be kept safe?	☐	☐
Do you agree to take part in this study, the results of which may be disseminated in scientific publications, books or conference proceedings?	☐	☐
Have your been informed that this consent form shall be kept securely and in confidence by the researcher?	☐	☐

Name of Participant	**Please use block capitals**		
Signature of Participant		**Date**	
Signature of Researcher		**Date**	

Appendix 13- Interview Guide and semi-structure

Interview Guide

Description of Respondent

Name: _____ Age: _____

Country of origin: _____

Current Nationality: _____

Education Business Skills_____

Country of education/business skill Acquisition_____

Economic Status Dependants_____

Semi-Structured Interview

Interviewer: Tell me about growing up in Nigeria?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: was there any entrepreneurial background in your family?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: How did you perceive the environment for starting entrepreneurship at that time?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Why did you leave your Nigeria?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Why Ireland?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Did you living in the Nigerian community on arrival in Ireland or later?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: How integrated do you think you are with the Irish people or do you see yourself as someone that have integrated into the Irish community or tend to associate more with the Nigeria community?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: From a scale of 1 to 10 how would you describe your integration?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Are you saying you associate more with the Nigerian community more than the Irish community (YES or NO)
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Why did you start your own business in Ireland?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: how helpful has the Nigerian community being to your start-up, e.g. in acquiring resources and start-up capital?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: How helpful was having a large Nigerians community here to you starting a business?
Interviewee:

Interview: does having these large ethnic population in a specific place like Blanchardstown help start-up and business development?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Does having a large base of Nigerian here in Dublin 15 create human capital and infrastructure for start-up?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: What kind of infrastructure does it create?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: How does having a Nigerian community here helps in acquiring capital for start-up?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: How helpful was the Irish ecosystem or support system to your start-up?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Are your main target customers inside or outside the Nigerian community?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Why does your business target the Nigerian community alone?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: What level of trade do you have with Nigeria or do you do business between Ireland and Nigeria?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Do you have or have you considered starting a business in Nigeria, which is related to your current business?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Why have you started a business in Nigeria OR why have you not started a business in Nigeria?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: What level of business transaction do you see yourself doing between Ireland and Nigeria in the next 5 years?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: What are the main support and barriers to you doing business in Nigeria?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Do you or any other Nigerian businesses sale into Nigeria
Interviewee:

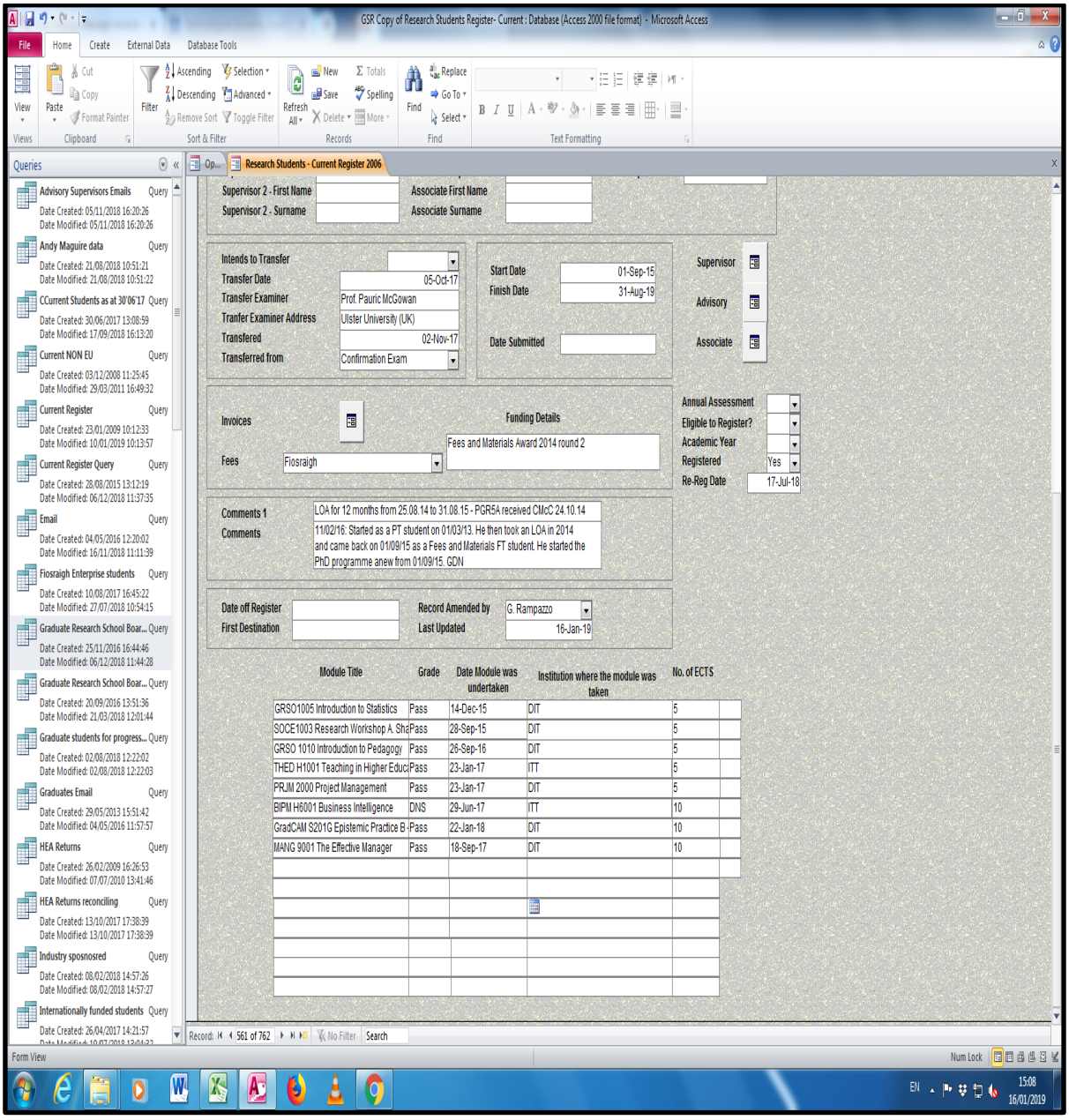
Interviewer: Do perceive the support within the Nigerian community to help you build for business?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: What kind support are there?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: How has the business skills acquire in Ireland helped your start up in Nigeria?
Interviewee:

Interviewer: Could you explain the role that your understanding of Nigeria culture played in business and resettlement back to Nigeria?
Interviewee:

Appendix 14- List of Structured PhD modules taken



Appendix – 15- Extracts Data Set: Environment

Environment
1.1 Participant Adaku: **1.1.1** *An environment in which entrepreneurs, suppliers and workers share similar ethnicity or immigration experience* **1.1.2** *It provided the right environment, people, business, market, the chance to explore my own business knowledge* **1.1.3** *I think being around the community was helpful for start-up and for people to do business with* **1.2 Participant Jen:** **1.2.1** *The presence of a large number of Nigerians increases the number of businesses* **1.2.2** *The environment allow for buying and selling the interesting thing we are able to make a living from this small business. I think this was made possible by the large population in our city. Like you know where there is population there is market. So the environment allowed for entrepreneurship* **1.2.3** *I wanted an environment that I can provide me with the right infrastructure for business and an environment that will allow me to shuttle between my place of resident and Nigeria.* **1.3 *Participant Bola:*** **1.3.1** *money, population, culture creates an environment for business; the chance to associate with Nigerians … it brings together Nigerians in Ireland* **1.3.2** *Because my mother and father where already into working for themselves when I was growing up I saw the environment for entrepreneurship as something that gives you freedom to work for yourself. Today when I look back I think of entrepreneurship as an environment of independence, self-reliance and the opportunity to work for me* **1.3.3** *It does help, as it create that business space needed for entrepreneurship and the chance to do business* **1.4 *Participant Benson:*** **1.4.1** *Having a Nigerian community here brings an environment for the coming together of Nigerians, space for cultural activity, togetherness, interaction, Nigerian culture and a place that allows for identification with other Nigerians.* **1.4.2** *It was very helpful in the sense that I wasn't home sick … because of you have a large community of Nigerians, having them around it is like you are in your own home [country of origin] and there even though there are different Nigerian dialects, there are lots of people from my own state so that we can actually speak the same dialect … generally they were very, very accommodating* **1.4.3** *Take for example at start-up, I have no real start-up capital, being in an environment with people that understand my kind of business helped* **1.5 *Participant Ifeyinwe:*** **1.5.1** *Yes, it does provide a market and people to do business with*. **1.5.2** *Having a specific ethnic community like the Nigerian community helps a lot because it created a place of refuge for me and give me the chance to be with my own people* **1.5.3** *when you see who the greater percentages of your customers are, that will help you to decide on particular things to deal with.* **1.6 *Participant Osaro:*** ***1.6.1*** *An environment like we have at home, a culture that allows for business like we do back home and the opportunity to work with people of similar experience and background* ***1.6.2*** *Having the Nigerian community gave me the opportunity to start something, the right environment and population.* ***1.6.3*** *The market environment provided by the Nigeria community in Dublin 15 serve as motivation behind most of the Nigerian businesses. Because without market it's not possible to have this kind of business* ***1.7 Participant Stella:*** ***1.7.1*** *Environment provide a place for meeting, cultural understanding and using the culture to support each other.*

1.7.2 *In short having a Nigerian community or an immigrant community provide moral and finance support*

1.7.3 *Nigerian culture around here create the cultural, it helps to find the market niche for the Nigerians*

1.7.4 *It creating a large environment as you know ours is growing and given us lots of opportunities*

1.8 Participant Ritah:

1.8.1 *Because we have large base of Nigerians here, I do not worry about people to sell to. So it does help to provide the right environment and people to sell to*

1.8.2 *The large number of Nigerians here allows me to travel between Nigeria and Ireland, so at the moment I have a high level of business deals between Ireland and Nigeria*

1.8.3 *I think it back to the experience of having my own business back home and the right environment for business was the key to everything which I can say has paid off for me*

1.9 Participant Juliet:

1.9.1 *The right environment "provides population for market to grow*

1.9.2 *The environment was interesting, we started as sole trader, my mother was a sole trader you know, buying and selling and I enjoyed doing it because as an entrepreneur or a trader you always see money around you, so I see the environment for starting a business as an environment for making money and meeting people.*

1.9.3 *I think a community like this allow us to come together, use our culture as a symbol of unity and interaction*

1.9.4 *So the hostel environment gave me the knowledge of what to do*

1.10 Participant Matthew:

1.10.1 *Nigeria's which help me to integrate into the Nigerian community, living within the Nigerian community provided an environment*

1.10.2 *So I will say very the right environment for this kind of business bring trust and allow everyone to come together and discuss about things.*

1.10.3 *A good environment, structures and infrastructures for starting a business, help us to grow.*

1.10.4 *There I learnt a lot from that experience yes I could say there I see entrepreneurship environment as an environment of buying and selling.*

1.10.5 *Also as an environment for making money and meeting people.*

1.10.6 *So the experience I got from helping my parents I can say is one of the main reason that aid my starting a business today in Ireland*

1.11 Participant Adolor:

1.11.1 *I see the environment as a chance to work for myself and the chance to make money and satisfy the market needs of people.*

1.11.2 *Blachardstown gives me the chance, people from Nigerian and resources for start-up. So I decided to start a business to serve my own people, I did this because Africans hair is different from European hair so if you go to the European saloons, it hard for them to understand how to braided African hair, because our hair style is different from their hairstyle you know.*

1.11.3 *The culture that and resources that having the Nigerian within the same area provide also directed my thinking of having a business to target the Nigerians*

Appendix – 16- Extracts Data Set: Infrastructures

Infrastructures

2.1 ***Participant Osaro:***

2.1.1 *Yes, the market and business culture allow community businesses to survive*

2.1.2 *They are willing to buy from me because, as a fellow Nigerian, I understand them and their needs and how best to do business with people within the community*

2.1.3 *Although trustworthiness will not provide fiscal capital, it does provide the community bonding and population that we need for this type of business*

2.2 ***Participant Bola:***

2.2.1 *It does help, as it creates that business space needed for entrepreneurship and the chance to do business*

2.2.2 *They provide the market, environment and infrastructures for Nigerian businesses*

2.2.3 *The Irish business environment provide lots of resources and infrastructure that aids start-up.*

2.3 ***Participant Jen:***

2.3.1 *The presence of large number of Nigerians increases the number of businesses in this area and creates infrastructures like market demands for some goods and space for doing business within the Nigerian community*

2.3.2 *Trust provided a community base, a market, people to do business with, togetherness, ethnic support and identity*

2.3.3 *The infrastructures that a large population of people provide help by starting a business.*

2.3.4 *I wanted an environment that I can provide me with the right infrastructure for business and an environment that will allow me to shuttle between my place of resident and Nigeria.*

2.4 ***Participant Juliet:***

2.4.1 *Good infrastructure support the business*

2.4.2 *Doing business with Nigerians you have to be patient and trustworthy, and take them at their word*

2.4.3 *I can say like er like er how do I put it now, it create room or provide market for me in a way that, in the first place like going to Nigeria, Italy or China to buy things, because most of my things now are from Nigerian, when I want to deal fashion I go to Italy, like when I want to go on hair products I order from China or Nigeria. So it create a room for me like a way of it expose me also.*

2.5: Participant Adaku:

2.5.1 *It provides you with the right infrastructures; it gives you the chance to explore your own business knowledge*

2.5.2 *Lack of infrastructures, support, capital you never know what is going to happen this person the starting this party political party you have so much the issue of terrorism now that so much so much challenges to be honest with you so Nigeria as well your life that's life is tough and I think the tough just get going (she giggles)*

2.5.3 *The experience gained working with my parents opened opportunity for me to do workshops in Nigerian and also organised workshop in Ireland through the opportunity gained in Nigerian*

2.5.4 *Unum I would say yes, because if look at the Nigerians the way we are in this country, if something happens to one Nigerian person every Nigerians hear about it in a minute, so the culture is very very tight and in a circled place so we all know ourselves, trust each other when it comes to dealing with people outside of the community,*

2.5.5 *we stand together. So everything works well when it comes to cultural background. So the culture bring the people every Nigerian to together and make them work together*

2.6 ***Participant Benson:***

2.6.1 *For me, trust creates an environment for business dealings. I would say it is a resource that helps business development*

2.6.2 *So having the Nigerians community here bring us together, give us space for cultural activity, togetherness, interaction, Nigeria culture and a place that allow to identify with other Nigerian*

2.6.3 *Community spirit bring group interaction, group interaction bring people together and also lead to having an environment that everyone can prosper*

2.7 Participant Adolor:

2.7.1 *Trust within the community brings group interaction; group interaction brings people together and also leads to an environment where everyone can prosper*

2.7.2 *The infrastructure create business opportunity for us also I will say the people from Nigerian here is main reason that we open our shop here*

2.8 Participant Ritah:

2.8.1 *Trust creates community support, a market, population and an environment for business*

2.8.2 *Yes the community was very helpful at start up, supporting my business, creating opportunity for starting, the population, culture, infrastructures and more importantly the environment.*

2.8.3 *The confident that they pay in advance that I will deliver the goods and know willing to buy from me because as a fellow Nigerian I understand them and what their needs and how best to do business with people within the community*

2.8.4 *Because I found the right environment that gave me the right infrastructure to start my business*

2.9 Participant Matthew:

2.9.1 *Trust also builds confidence. I have confidence that when I do good work, they will always come back. Their trust in me gives me confidence to carry on*

2.9.2 *Yeah, when I was looking for money to get a shop, a few of my friends helped me to raise a few quid that helped me to start up the business, so they were very happy for me*

2.9.3 *The community leaders in my place of origin helped me*

2.10 Participant Ifeyinwe:

2.9.1 *At the time I had no real knowledge of the available support infrastructures*

2.9.2 *Yes good infrastructures provide market and people to do business with*

2.11 Participant Stella:

2.11.1 *infrastructure create community, the coming together of people same nationality or ethnicity, national identity goals, interaction and the chance to discussion Nigeria issues*

2.11.2 *As a Nigerian you have to understand that starting a dry cleaning business targeting the Nigerian will not work, that is where cultural understanding come in and what the Nigerian culture does for us here Ireland, it helps to find the market niche of the Nigerians*

Appendix – 17- Extracts Data Set: Resources

Resources
3.1 Participant Adaku
3.1.1 *it is who you know within the space that provides you with the resources and capital*
3.1.2 *the understanding of the Irish and particularly the Nigerian culture was important to me starting a business in Ireland*
3.1.3 *It is who you know within the space that you are that provide you with the resources and capital.*
3.1.4 *it create environment for the immigrants and for we the entrepreneurs to come together*
3.2 Participant Osaro
3.2.1 *this type of business required a community presence to survive*
3.2.2 *having done it in Nigeria before coming to Ireland make gave me the understanding of what I need to do*
3.3 Participant Ritah
3.3.1 *it helps a lot to have a large population of Nigerians around here*
3.3.2 *Culture provides networking, environment, population, market and capital for starting a business.*
3.3.3 *Without a Nigerians culture here it would not be possible to do this type of business in Ireland*"
3.4 Participant Ifeyinwe
3.4.1 *Yes it does provide a market and people to do business with*
3.4.2 *culture provides community support, culture and the understanding that some members of the community will give financial support when I need it*
3.4.3 *Community support like trusting*
3.5 Participant Adolor
3.5.1 *For a better quality of life, better living standards, for an environment that will allow me to prosper, I moved into the Nigerian community, which I think will aid my business success*
3.5.2 *Blanchardstown gives me the chance, people from Nigerian and resources for start-up*
3.5.3 *The culture that and resources that having the Nigerian within the same area provide also directed my thinking of having a business to target the Nigerians*
3.6 Participant Jen
3.6.1 *Dublin 15 area provided me with the market and resources I needed to start my business. I do not think that I would have started my business without the presence of the Nigerian population in this area*
3.6.2 *being around my mother then make realise business opportunity when I came to Ireland*
3.7 Participant Juliet
3.7.1 *The key to my starting a business was being in an area that encourages patronage, provides support and identifies with my business*
3.7.2 *the Irish business support mechanism, culture and policies that encourage start-ups for our type of business*
3.7.3 *I grow up watching my mother trade*
3.8 Participant Matthew
3.8.1 *Blanchardstown provided an environment and opportunity to mix with the people from my country, to have contact with fellow Nigerians and associate more with people from my country, which allow me to know and understand their needs*
3.8.2 *Cultural things brought us together and created opportunity for understanding one another.*
3.8.3 *the entrepreneurship culture and policies here gives room to do something with one another and creates a base for travelling both Ireland and Nigerian*
3.9 Participant Benson
3.9.1 *One way we were able to provide resources for ourselves to be able to er do whatever we want to do in moving forward*
3.9.2 *Yes, you see people make market. Business succeed because of the number of people that buy from the business*
3.9.3 *So large population in my view create market between Ireland and Nigerian.*

3.9.4 *the large Nigeria population in Blanchardstown was the result of the Irish policy than that allow for immigrant's to come here and have children*

3.9.5 *The type of community spirit we are all in to as assisting one another you know we patronised each other.*

3.9.6 *Community spirit bring group interaction, group interaction bring people together and also lead to having an environment that everyone can prosper.*

3.10 Participant Bola

3.10.1 *the number of the Nigerians here was one of the reason for so many Nigerian businesses here, we support each other and we sell to our people and other Africans*

3.10.2 *the laws here that support business make doing business in Ireland good*

3.10.3 *yes that feeling of having done it back home was important to starting a business*

Researcher's Publications, Conference Papers and Presentations

- Osaghae, O. G., and Cooney, T. M. (2019). Exploring the relationship between immigrant enclave theory and transnational diaspora entrepreneurial opportunity formation. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 1-20.

- Osa-Godwin Osaghae (2018) Understanding Diaspora Investment; Book Chapter "African Diaspora Direct Investment Establishing the Economic and Socio-cultural Rationale". Publisher, Palgrave MacMillan 2018; Chapter 2

- Osa-Godwin Osaghae and Prof Thomas Cooney (2017) Paper: Irish Academy Management conference Belfast 2017, "How does Immigrant Enclave Theory Influence Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurial Opportunity in Ireland?" (Winner Best Track Paper)

- Osaghae O G (2016); Conference paper 5th annual Limerick postgraduate research conference: Is Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurship (TDE) a bridge between host and home economy or a process of money remittance? A Case Study on the Role of Irish/African Diaspora in Emerging African Economy.

- Osaghae O G (2016): DiasporaLink Horizon 2020 project: Transnational Diaspora Entrepreneurship as a Development Link between Home and Residence Countries: MSCA-RISE-2014: Marie Skłodowska-Curie RISE Report

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- Cooney, T.M; Byrne, J.D. Osaghae, O.G. and Stratford, B (2012) – Vocationally Based Business and Entrepreneurship Conference 2012, Dublin, November 6-8 and – How Does Engendering Creativity Compare to Vocationally Based Methodologies.

- Byrne, J, Osaghae O.G. and Cooney, T.M. (2011): When Encouraging Enterprising Behaviour? – 56th International Council for Small Business Conference 2011 – Stockholm, June 16-18