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EXPLORING LIFESTYLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP WITHIN LIFESTYLE SPORTS

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**UNIVERSITY OF
PLYMOUTH**

EXPLORING LIFESTYLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP WITHIN LIFESTYLE SPORTS

By

LAURA KATE WALLIS

A thesis submitted to the University of Plymouth in partial fulfilment for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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Author's Signed Declaration

At no time during the registration for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has the author been registered for any other University award without prior agreement of the Doctoral College Quality Sub-Committee.

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Abstract

EXPLORING LIFESTYLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP WITHIN LIFESTYLE SPORTS

Laura Kate Wallis

This thesis has explored the concept of lifestyle entrepreneurship within lifestyle sports. It has built on the current research and literature in the area which to date has offered only competing and simplified versions of who lifestyle entrepreneurs are, how they can be identified, and how they enact entrepreneurship. Lifestyle entrepreneurship is described as an emerging concept, which has attracted attention due to the evolving nature of work and employment rolls.

The context in which entrepreneurship is enacted is an important aspect of understanding the who lifestyle entrepreneurs are and how they can be identified. Lifestyle sports was selected as the context in which to examine this group of entrepreneurs; this is an emerging sub-section of the sport context which is categorised by masculine hegemony and rejection of rules and regulations associated with traditional sport. Lifestyle sports are categorised as alternative to mainstream activities, and are said to have more lifestyle focus for the participants. With their shared use of the term 'lifestyle' these two concepts have apparent connections, and the influence of context in which the entrepreneurs' were embedded was observed to be a key feature towards understanding.

The aim of this thesis was to explore the notion of lifestyle entrepreneurship within lifestyle sports. It aimed to address the complex issues of identification of lifestyle entrepreneurs, how they negotiate their work and lifestyles, and what this results in for entrepreneurial practice. The thesis took a mixed methods approach to the collection of data, through a pragmatic paradigm that took a grounded theory approach to developing a new conceptual framework. A questionnaire (n=80) and semi structured interviews (n=21) explored how lifestyle

entrepreneurship emerges, and focussed on the 'becoming' of the lifestyle entrepreneur, and the interplay of lifestyle, sport, and work.

The thesis has contributed to the field of research by firstly providing a more robust approach to identifying who lifestyle entrepreneurs are, and how they can be identified. Secondly, this research has recognised the key contributions to the entrepreneurs' decision making and lifestyle orientation, which has impacted on the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs that can exist. Further understanding this emerging group of entrepreneurs supports the ongoing theoretical interpretation, and develops current thinking on this topic.

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Introduction

The purpose of this thesis is to explore the phenomenon of the lifestyle entrepreneur in lifestyle sports, and the associated perspectives of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle enterprises. This chapter will firstly describe the reasons for undertaking the study. The key areas of investigation will be discussed, and how these relate to the areas of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports. This chapter will also outline the structure of the thesis.

Lifestyle entrepreneurship is an emerging concept, and can be described as forming part of 'the broadening of entrepreneurship as a field of research [that] has also led to several new subtopics' (Solvoll et al. 2015: 122). It is argued this broadening has allowed researchers to develop new ways of viewing individual entrepreneurs, the acts of entrepreneurship, and the enterprises themselves. While the examination of lifestyle entrepreneurship could be described as a new phenomenon, Chaney (1996) identified that 'people choose their type of work and how it is organised to be consistent with lifestyle values' (1996: 14-15), demonstrating how this particular approach to entrepreneurship and orientation to work is not necessarily novel. The rationale for examining this group of entrepreneurs and the type of entrepreneurship they are engaged in coincides with the changing work environment (World Economic Forum, 2016), which sees the increase in opportunities to work for oneself and the management of work and life through new working practices such as the Gig Economy (Kuhn, 2016; Lapanjuuri et al. 2018; Mercer, 2019).

While it is therefore apparent that this 'type' of entrepreneurship is not necessarily a new phenomenon, this study seeks to further the understanding of the specific group of entrepreneurs who enact it. The current interpretation of lifestyle entrepreneurs, lifestyle

entrepreneurship and lifestyle enterprises, remains unsatisfactory due to the attributes that the lifestyle entrepreneurs are defined by which are too narrow, and considers only factors based on economic performances. Thus, to date, they are defined by their lack of growth and growth ambition (Burns, 2001), business acumen, and can also be described as *not* entrepreneurial (Carland *et al.* 1984; Dewhurst and Horobin, 1998; Bridge *et al.* 2003).

Entrepreneurship itself is a complex and fluid concept which makes identifying it equally difficult. While Audrestch (2015) identifies that 'entrepreneurial behavior is context free' (2015: 706), irrespective of organisational size and type, there is a developed body of research that identifies a clear link between the entrepreneur, the enterprise they create, and the communities and networks they are embedded within (Jack and Anderson, 2002; Jack *et al.* 2002; McKeever *et al.* 2014). Organisational context therefore is identified as a critical component to the understanding of this group of entrepreneurs. Studies such as those by Lewis (2008) and Beaumont *et al.* (2016) have raised questions over how lifestyle entrepreneurs can be understood, and extend the initial debates of what lifestyle entrepreneurship is with such consideration of operational context.

This study has selected the context of lifestyle sports in which to examine the phenomenon of lifestyle entrepreneurs. Lifestyle sports represent one of the ways in which sport has become more diverse and accessible. The evolution of new and different sports in the last century (Midol, 1995) has exemplified how sport itself can be redefined. The notion of lifestyle sports has emerged to define a group of sports identified by their alternative to mainstream focus (Wheaton, 2004).

Lifestyle sports provide an insightful context for a number of reasons, not least the shared use of 'lifestyle' in the definition of each. There are a number of other shared themes that the

two phenomena display; alternative approaches to enactment, risk taking, and focus on the implications for lifestyle are significant.

A limited number of studies (Shaw and Williams, 1998; Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000; Marchant and Mottiar, 2011; Beaumont et al. 2016) have begun to examine lifestyle entrepreneurs operating in the lifestyle sports context. However, these studies have only begun to examine these types of entrepreneurs, and the issues that arise from these studies have called for a more in-depth analysis to be made. The focus of this thesis will therefore be to build on these studies by focussing on the entrepreneurs and their actions, to further understanding of this group of entrepreneurs.

The study has been conducted with participants across the UK, from different lifestyle sports industries. The UK benefits from geographic diversity allowing for many different lifestyle sports to be participated in. This unit of diverse sports access was chosen as the common unit of investigation, with subsequent priorities being given to regions within this country as offering a diverse range of opportunities for sport participation (for example, coastal location for water-based sports). Given the limited existing knowledge of lifestyle entrepreneurs, taking a broad approach to context to incorporate the variety of what may be termed 'lifestyle sports' was most effective to permitting a robust conceptualisation of lifestyle entrepreneurship in this field.

This study provides a new insight to lifestyle entrepreneurs, and entrepreneurship. It aims to address the complex issues of identification of lifestyle entrepreneurs, how they negotiate their work and lifestyles, and what this results in for entrepreneurial practice. It provides an expansion of the literature on lifestyle entrepreneurship, and also an expansion of the literature of lifestyle sports, by contributing empirical findings to these on-going discussions.

In the wake of changing perceptions of *how* entrepreneurship can be enacted, this study is a timely addition to the development of the areas of self-employment and the issues that surround this.

Three key issues are therefore addressed through this study. Firstly, the issue of identity of the lifestyle entrepreneur will be investigated. How lifestyle entrepreneurs identify themselves, and how they are identified by the outside world, is of importance in understanding the phenomenon of lifestyle entrepreneurship; contributing to the debate on this facet of entrepreneurship.

The second issue is that of the factors which affect lifestyle entrepreneurs' orientation towards their life and work goals, and how these are negotiated. While there has been quite significant work done on establishing the behaviours of 'regular' entrepreneurs (for example, the firm life-cycle approach – see Massey et al. 2006), there is limited explanation on how lifestyle entrepreneurs are different, beyond their neglect of growth and profit gain as described above. This is most clearly summarised by Peters et al. (2009) whose seminal approach to the identification of work and life equilibrium goes beyond the description of the work-life balance. The entrepreneurial orientation approach is used to understand these factors. The final issue is to consider the consolidation of information to further the understanding of types of lifestyle entrepreneurs. Building on the ideas of heterogeneity identified by Bredvold and Skålen (2016), a new conceptual model is presented which extends current understanding of lifestyle entrepreneurs.

The study is structured in the following way. Firstly, an in-depth analysis of the literature surrounding the concepts of entrepreneurship, lifestyles, and the phenomenon of lifestyle entrepreneurship is provided. The current literature on lifestyle sports, and the associations

with extreme sports is examined, before a review of the current literature associated with lifestyle entrepreneurs and lifestyle sports is analysed. Following the analysis of this literature, a conceptual framework is developed in order to frame the current understanding of the phenomenon. It will illustrate the relationships between the three key areas of lifestyle, sports, and the entrepreneur, and also identify the connections in the literature. The conceptual framework also provides a suitable framework upon which to build a methodology for the study. The research rationale and the research questions that emerge from the analysis of the literature are positioned here.

The methodology chapter provides the rationale and approach to collecting the data required for answering the research questions. The researcher's philosophical approach is considered and the impact on the research process is discussed. Once an approach to the data collection has been established, a discussion of how these techniques was used will be explained through the chapter.

The results and discussion overview chapter provides insight into how the data collection process occurred and any issues that arose. Three key research question areas of investigation set out in the above discussion, before the construction of a new conceptual framework is developed. Research contributions, implications and limitations are finally discussed.

Chapter 1. Literature Review

Introduction

The first section of this chapter seeks to examine the meaning of lifestyle entrepreneurship. To accomplish this however, underlying concepts that support the phenomenon, which are clearly tied to the individual, will be explored. Thus, an examination of the characteristics of the entrepreneur, the act of entrepreneurship and lifestyle will be made, to be able to draw on a more rounded and robust classification of lifestyle entrepreneurship. Following this, an examination of the context of lifestyle sports will seek to further the understanding of how lifestyle sports can be interpreted.

Many factors may be considered when exploring and discussing the literature on lifestyle entrepreneurs; arguably a niche group of entrepreneurs which presents itself as an interesting topic of debate. As an area of research, many authors have sought to explore this phenomenon by addressing what it means to be a lifestyle entrepreneur; of how and why lifestyle entrepreneurship is developed, and why individuals choose to establish and run their business in this manner. There are however confusing and conflicting opinions on what lifestyle entrepreneurship is, how it can be defined, and if indeed it is an entrepreneurial act at all. In furthering the debate, some authors have sought to examine how different lifestyle entrepreneurs can be identified through factors such as propensity to want to grow the business, or their connection with the environment that they work in (Shaw and Williams, 1998; Lewis, 2008; Marchant and Mottiar, 2011; Bredvold and Skálén, 2016).

The Entrepreneur and the Enterprise

The notion of the entrepreneur lies at the heart of entrepreneurship, and just what characterises the entrepreneur continues to engage scholars. In trying to understand

'entrepreneurship', there is a magnitude of research and definitions that can be considered, which present conflicting and confusing concepts of what is and is not entrepreneurship (Audretsch et al. 2015). Furthermore, the wide use and unclear nature of definitions and terminology (Bridge et al. 2003; Kirby, 2003; Peters et al. 2009) can compound the problem of explaining and comparing what entrepreneurship is. Certainly Smith (1967) agreed, stating 'the term has been used, abused and misused for some three hundred years' (1967: 1).

Definitions range in focus, but most convene around key factors. Some definitions describe it simply as the creation of a business (Gartner, 1989). Others, such as Burns (2001) and Curran and Stanworth, in Deakins and Freel (2003) centre their definitions on innovation and originality as a key features of entrepreneurship. Additional definitions focus on opportunity recognition and utilisation (Stevenson, in Eisenmann, 2013; Shane, 2003; Burns, 2001), and the use of resources (Burns, 2001; Stevenson, in Eisenmann, 2013; Shane, 2003). Eisenmann (2013) therefore refers to it as an '*elastic*' term; it can mean different things, at different times, to different people. In considering Eisenmann's (2013) statement, it appears necessary for the researcher to develop their own line of understanding in order that the rest of the discussion can follow.

It is clear to the researcher that the relationships between the individual and act of entrepreneurship are inseparable. Beaumont et al. (2016) state that 'it is argued that it is the motives held by the individual (Lifestyle Entrepreneur) that inform the act (Lifestyle Entrepreneurship)' (2016: 3). This is echoed by Leitch and Harrison (2016); 'the actions and behaviours of a founder...on the creation and subsequent development of a firm are profound' (2016: 177), and Carson et al. (1995); 'the goals of the organization will reflect, in considerable measure, the aspirations of the owner' (1995: 70). Even in early works, such as

Smith (1967), the relationship between the individual and the type of firm created is examined; 'The problem focus is the relationship between the type of entrepreneur (that is, the character of the man) and the type of firm he builds and the growth of this firm' (Smith, 1967: 1). The relationship between the entrepreneur and the subsequent type of enterprise that emerges should therefore also be considered alongside the entrepreneur.

In reviewing entrepreneurial dynamics, Glancey et al. (1998) adapted the following model to demonstrate the complexity of entrepreneurship and the inseparable nature of the individual, the act and the entity.

Figure 1 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Figure 1. Model of small firm performance (Glancey et al. 1998: 255).

Glancey et al. (1998) state that 'the model suggests that the personal attributes of the entrepreneur determine motivations and objectives, which in turn determine the firm's performance. This process is mediated through the markets in which the entrepreneur operates, and the managerial practices which he or she employs' (1998: 255). Glancey et al. (1998) also go on to explore the reciprocal process that can occur through business performance and the impact of learning on the entrepreneur.

It is interpreted from the research therefore that it is principally the individual who creates and influences the entrepreneurial nature of the organisation. The structure of small and medium sized firms that characterise entrepreneurial start-ups means that the small and often flat hierarchy creates close proximity that the owner has to the firm and its operations, and is therefore very influential. And although it may be deemed important to separate and analyse the concepts that are inferred by this term; that of the person (the entrepreneur), and the act (entrepreneurship), it is appreciated that the complexity in understanding the subject is formed in some part by the merging of the two areas. More importantly however, it is important to distinguish that the focus of study will be on the entrepreneur and their actions. Jack and Anderson (2002) highlight in their review of the literature that reviewing entrepreneurs in isolation debated as being unfavourable.

Characteristics and Behaviours

There is a large body of work dedicated to the discussion of how entrepreneurs are identified, much of which aligns with characteristics (traits and genetics), and behaviours (environmental stimuli). It is not the purpose of this thesis to try to unpick these discussions, but they do however influence how the researcher can shape their understanding of who a lifestyle entrepreneur can be.

In their interpretation of entrepreneurship through the development of 'the eclectic paradigm of entrepreneurship', Audretsch et al. (2015: 707) cite behaviour as a defining concept of entrepreneurship. It may be argued that there is some advantage in using this concept that addresses the argument of distinguishing between 'small and medium sized enterprise' owners, and 'entrepreneurs' (note the conflicting use of 'enterprise'). Where it may be agreed through business and psychological theory that an individual who drives a firm

must possess a specific set of characteristics, there are different approaches to entrepreneurial characteristics. Where Kirzner believes that any person has the ability to acquire the information necessary for their interpretation of entrepreneurship, Schumpeter believes only certain people can become entrepreneurs (Deakins and Freel, 2003).

Referred to in trait theory, these characteristics which delineate them from other business owner managers (Burns and Jewhurst, 1996, in Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004) are known as the five personality traits of entrepreneurship (Burns and Jewhurst, 1996, in Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004; Antoncic et al. 2015). It is possible to suggest that using trait theory as a basis to identifying an individual with entrepreneurial intention is useful. However, Down (2010) views it as an outdated method. He states that 'personality characteristics as an approach and a method also rely too much on dualism: placing people on a scale from entrepreneurial to un-entrepreneurial' (2010: 63), and goes on to address the lack of understanding and contextual influence that plays into addressing whether entrepreneurial intention is evident.

Although Down's (2010) argument is recognised, the defining features used that can differentiate an entrepreneur are expressed as the need for achievement (NAch), risk-taking, locus of control, need for autonomy, determination, initiative, creativity and self-confidence (Bridge et al. 2003: 63-9). Risk is one such defining feature seen by many as something that dignifies an entrepreneur. Indeed, Burns (2001) sees risk taking as more predominant in entrepreneurs than in regular managers. Burns (2001) does however go on to suggest that entrepreneurs accept risk but do not actually like it, and try to minimize it. To this end it is argued there is still some relevance in the influence of trait theory.

Audrechtsch et al. (2015) step away from the traditional linkages between entrepreneurship and firms, concluding that the act of 'entrepreneurial behaviour is context free' (2015: 706), and to this end looking for entrepreneurship should not be confined to individuals and small businesses. A broader approach should be taken to look for entrepreneurial activity. This is a view that is supported by other researchers, who deem entrepreneurial action and intention to be present in many aspects of life, and even within the firm itself, often referred to as intrapreneurship, or corporate entrepreneurship (Kuratko and Hodgetts, 2001). The concept of intrapreneurship (Pinchot, 1985) blends the entrepreneurial ambition with the practical aspects of 'get[ting] things done' (Pinchot and Pellman, 1999: 16) organised within a firm. This echoes Shane's (2003) and Burns' (2001) definitions for entrepreneurship where the emphasis is placed upon the utilisation of resources to generate greater return, free from context. The analogy of 'how can we know the dancer from the dance?' (Yeats, 1956, in Gartner, 1988) supports the position of Gartner (1988) when analysing entrepreneurs; a strong focus on using behaviour to analyse as opposed to characteristics and traits.

Another area of the discussion of characteristics and behaviours is that of gender and wider demographics. Smith's (1967) work on the relationship between the individual and the firm highlights the focus on gender within entrepreneurship, particularly from the time-point of the article ('The Entrepreneur and his firm: The relationship between type of man and type of company'). The debate of gender within entrepreneurship is extensive and is beyond the remit of this thesis, but a consideration of gender is an important part of the discussion.

Opportunity

Within the consideration of how entrepreneurs can be defined, some of the recurring themes throughout the literature will be considered when determining how entrepreneurship can be understood. These are reviewed as opportunities and actions. It is viewed that only then can a definition be subscribed to after consideration of the interpretations currently made through the literature.

To be an entrepreneur, some definitions focus on process; 'someone who starts their own business, especially when this involves seeing a new opportunity' (Cambridge University Press, 2016). These are often small sized firms (Kirby, 2003), started by an individual. However, Kuratko and Hodgetts (2001) state that 'entrepreneurship is more than the mere creation of business' (2001: 4), as many authors define entrepreneurship based on opportunities (Shane, 2003; Stevensen, in Eisenmann, 2013), and business opportunity recognition and start up is just one of these.

Building on the importance of opportunity, Shane (2003) cites the theories of Schumpeter (1934) and Kirzner (1973) as opposing views on whether entrepreneurship is about delivering originality (the Schumpeterian view), or utilising existing resources in a distinct manner (the Kirznerian view). Links are predominantly drawn with economic theories of the resource based view of the firm (Wernerfelt, 1984), and opportunity recognition. Authors have been keen to address the extent to which opportunity and 'discovery' are presented through entrepreneurship, with some believing that the act of entrepreneurship is solely concerned with invention, as will be discussed in further detail later. Ardichvili et al. (2003) have gone some way to addressing this by developing a matrix as shown in Figure 2 which demonstrates the different types of opportunities that can present themselves in the course of

entrepreneurial intention. These are based on whether the 'value sought' of the entrepreneurial act (that is, 'market needs' (Ardichvili et al. (2003)) are known or not, and the 'value creation; what could be developed or solved, is known or not. Combinations of these factors subsequently provide different types of entrepreneurial opportunities.

Figure 2 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Figure 2. Types of opportunities (Source: Adapted from Ardichvili et al. 2003: 117).

There are many different factors that go into understanding why opportunities in entrepreneurship are pursued. At the macro-level this is best portrayed by Stam and Stel (2009), who identify that in low income countries, entrepreneurship is driven by necessity, whereas in high income countries, it is driven by opportunity. This provides great insight into the importance of appreciating the context of the entrepreneurial activity, and it is argued, these factors permeate through to the type of entrepreneurship that is pursued.

In a broader sense, these 'push' and 'pull' factors associated with entrepreneurship are closely linked with opportunity; in their work in the analysis of graduate start-ups, Nabi et al. (2015) recognised that for those that pursued start-up 'the nature of the business idea or opportunity is relatively straightforward and acts as an external pull towards SU' (2015: 495). What is recognised through this research also is that 'there is no over-riding push or pull factor

that applied to any of the cases' (2015: 500), and so is indicative of a more holistic approach to entrepreneurial opportunity.

Opportunity is also related to how an individual perceives it. Audretsch et al. (2015) make a point which resonates highly with the motivations of entrepreneurs when exploring how organisational status aids the formation of a firm as an entrepreneurial one; 'utility associated from being an entrepreneur versus the utility accrued from being a wage earning employee' (2015: 705).

Actions

The literature appears to embody other discussions of entrepreneurship centred around entrepreneurial actions. Where an opportunity has been recognised, it is then acted upon (the *act* of entrepreneurship), and many researchers go on to link firm action of growth and profit to that of an entrepreneurial firm. Walker (1799-1875) and Bentham (1748-1832) saw this as '*return*' for the entrepreneur's capability, whereas Hawley (1843-1929), Smith (1723-90) and Ricardo (1772-1823) saw this as the prize from taking the risk necessary to be entrepreneurial (cited in Kirby, 2003). The coexisting premise behind these themes is that the entrepreneurial firm is one that seeks growth and profit, and moreover wishes to pursue this beyond firm start-up. McMahon (2001) supports this view, assessing that only firms following a 'high growth pathway...are most often associated with entrepreneurial aptitude' (2001: 211), and so are named 'Entrepreneurial SMEs'. Carland et al. (1984) are clear that not all small firm owners are entrepreneurial, suggesting pursuit of growth is a key element that makes them entrepreneurial. In the context of the firm operating entrepreneurially, Dewhurst and Horobin (1998) are very clear in their delineation between small businesses

and entrepreneurial firms, and Bridge et al. (2003) concur that not all small businesses are entrepreneurial.

On the contrary to these approaches however, Brockhaus and Horwitz (1986) state that 'most of the attempts to distinguish between entrepreneurs and small business owners or managers have discovered no significant differentiating features' (1986, in Krueger, 2002: 274). While growth is seen by some as the delineating factor between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs, many researchers value other features to be more defining of entrepreneurship, or place less importance on development.

An alternative method to considering entrepreneurs is therefore suggested. Theoretical concepts that can be applied to entrepreneurship research, and interpretations of what constitutes entrepreneurship, can be seen in the literature. Schumpeter (1934, in Peters et al., 2009; Essig, 2015) takes an economic approach to entrepreneurship (Peters et al. 2009), citing entrepreneurship as providing or intending to provide something original in the business context. Innovation can be seen as one such key element of defining entrepreneurship away from growth. It is most predominantly associated with the theorising of Schumpeter (1934), who put forward that entrepreneurship is conducted by innovators (Deakins and Freel, 2003). As a concept, the association of innovation with entrepreneurship has been supported by many subsequent researchers (McMullan and Long, 1990, in Shaw and Williams, 1998; Echtner, 1995, in Shaw and Williams, 1998). Audretsch et al. (2015) report on growth, innovation and sustainability as being some of the most fundamental elements of entrepreneurship, and Burns (2001) sees innovation as 'an essential tool for entrepreneurs' (2001: 4). To this end, innovation can come in many forms, as highlighted by Schumpeter

(1934), and addressed by Ardichvili et al. (2003) in their opportunity value matrix detailed above.

After the analysis of the contributions made towards defining the concept of entrepreneurship, it is still unapparent that a specific definition can necessarily be drawn upon as conclusive to the act of entrepreneurship. What should be considered however is the definition to which the researcher feels aligns with their view of entrepreneurship, and is an accurate reflection of how it can be defined. It is the opinion of the researcher that the definition that fits most closely is that of Shane (2003);

Entrepreneurship is an activity that involves the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities to introduce new goods and services, ways of organizing, markets, processes, and raw materials through organizing efforts that previously had not existed (Shane, 2003: 4).

The researcher feels that this definition best supports their interpretation of what entrepreneurship is, and therefore the definition that will be used through this study. Shane's (2003) definition encompasses the opportunity and action elements that the researchers feels is the most robust way to evidence the pursuit of the entrepreneur. The researcher views this as opportunity into action, and this forms the basis of the conceptual framework.

Development of the entrepreneur phenomenon

The idea that more than one 'type' of entrepreneur exists is not a new one. Smith (1967) proposes that 'we identify different types of entrepreneurs and different types of companies' (1967: 1). There have been a number of research studies that have been conducted into entrepreneurship, and how types of both entrepreneurs and enterprises can emerge from

under the heading of entrepreneurship. A summary of such entrepreneurial types can be seen in Table 1 below:

Author	Types of Entrepreneurs
Webster, 1977	The Cantillon Entrepreneur, The Industry-Maker, The Administrative Entrepreneur, The Small Business Owner/Operator, The Independent Entrepreneur
Smith, 1967	Craftsman entrepreneur, Opportunistic entrepreneur, Business hierarch
Shaw and Williams, 1998	Non-entrepreneur, Constrained entrepreneur
Getz and Carlson, 2000	Family first, Business first
Carland et al. 1984	Small business owners, Entrepreneurs

Table 1. Summary of Entrepreneurial ‘Types’ found within the literature (Source: Authors own)

These ‘types’ of entrepreneurs demonstrate that there are different interpretations of who entrepreneurs are, and what their relationships with opportunities and actions may be, but that they are still entrepreneurs in their own right. This supports the difficulties in pinpointing one single definition. Through their review before conducting their work into entrepreneurship embeddedness, McKeever et al. (2015) support the opinion that factors additional to profit and growth can contribute to the entrepreneurship act. Supporting this is the notion of different enterprise types, as identified in Table 2 below;

Author	Types of Enterprises
O'farrell and Hitchens, 1988	Fast growers, Satisfiers, Attempt to grow but fail
Storey, 1994	Failures, Trundlers, Flyers
Bains et al. 1997	Growth rejecting, Growth ambivalent, Growth Enthusiastic, Non employment growth
McMahon, 2001	Lifestyle, Capped growth, Entrepreneurial
Bridge et al. 2003	Lifestyle, Comfort zone, Growth
Morris et al. 2015b	Survival, Lifestyle, Managed growth, High growth

Table 2. Summary of Enterprise 'Types' found within the literature (Source: Authors own)

Interpreting the Lifestyle phenomena

'Lifestyle' is a term that allows us to determine factors that individuals consider in the way they lead their lives. Human beings are not homogeneous; this is reflected in the life choices that individuals make and the paths that they choose to follow; 'what is one person's desired lifestyle is not another's. However, amenity and experiences often drive choices' (Holland and Martin, 2015: 25). There are inherent links to this based on individuals' choices of 'consumption' (Chaney, 1996; Edgar and Sedgwick, 1999), and Chaney (1996) reports on the increase in this awareness as 'the commercialisation of leisure' (1996: 16).

'Lifestyle', with its focus on consumption, is utilised by many factions of the research community, but in slightly different ways. Within research, Chaney (1996) examines this, and when referring to a marketing perspective on the use of lifestyle;

here research is clearly functional, undertaken in order to generate a particular type of knowledge...lifestyles are in this perspective a type of social map. They enable us to lay out the topography of different sorts of audiences for products
(1996: 25-6)

Evans and Jackson (2007) concur, stating that one way that lifestyles can be used is to '[position] persons within distinct, stable and homogeneous categories' (Evans and Jackson, 2007), based on the ideas of consumption as discussed above. However, the researchers recognise that the sociological interpretation of the use of lifestyle is at odds with this; 'for sociologists, a good deal of depth and complexity underlies these 'everyday' understandings' (Evans and Jackson, 2007: 5). Chaney (1996) correspond with this usage; 'I shall attempt to show that lifestyle practices tend to cluster around particular themes and concerns' (1996: 91).

Discussions to this point have considered lifestyle at the individual level. Jensen (2007) go on to determine that 'there are four levels, from individual to global, on which lifestyle can be understood' (2007: 63). At the individual level, Jensen (2007) highlights the connection of lifestyle to self-identity, and furthers this with cultural embeddedness that can occur; 'it might be important to wear the right clothing, to listen to the right music or to go to the right place' (Jensen, 2007: 67).

Within the context of business, 'lifestyle' may be used to identify business operations that support an individuals' particular choice of way of life (Constable, 2015). Having no other predisposition than to suggest 'lifestyle' means to have choice in what they do, it is therefore important to establish when given this choice, how it is interpreted. The research identified that will be discussed in the forthcoming discussion does not suggest that the group of individuals who seek this particular type of lifestyle are homogeneous in the *type* of lifestyle that they pursue, only that they select their chosen lifestyle as core to decision making. For these reasons, the researcher ascribes to Chaney's (1996) definition of lifestyles as 'social maps'.

Work, Life and the Work-Life Balance

While the discussion on lifestyle centres on the leisure consumption and choices of individuals, increasingly 'people choose their type of work and how it is organised in order to be consistent with lifestyle values' (Chaney, 1996: 14-15). One of the influences on lifestyle practices is therefore work, and the work-life balance, driven by the disproportionate amount of time that the majority of people spend at work compared to home (Blyton and Turnbull, 1998, in Linde, 2015). This is a broad statement and does not consider the different sectors and types of employment, such as paid and unpaid.

Working practices have evolved in the last century, theorised by many who have explored the increase in intensity of work (Guest, 2002). Increased awareness and importance of the unwritten commitments in the relationship between employer and employee, known as the psychological contract (Guest, 2002; CIPD, 2016) transformed the work environment. These include the expectations from both the employer and employee of what the other party will provide them with in order to fulfil their work role, and may include mutual understandings

of commitment and flexibility (Jones, 2017). Different themes that have emerged however which indicate a shift in the ability for individuals to choose, and have more flexibility, in the ways in which they combine their work and personal lives. Examples can be seen in the emergence in the 'Gig economy' (Kuhn, 2016; Lapanjuuri et al. 2018; Mercer, 2019) which itself has conflicting definitions and to which its exploration is beyond the realms of this thesis. It does however represent employment which has increased autonomy and flexibility, which can be described as 'a working arrangement that revolves around individual jobs' (Biscontini, 2017).

The forces on the psychological contract in the postmodern era however have highlighted to researchers these changes that are evident in the work relationships within organisations. Guest (2002) calls for further empirical evidence to support the view that the changing psychological contract has created an 'imbalance'; 'conflict between the demands of work and the decline of work as a central life interest' (2002: 258), with the volatility and continuous development of firms now unable to provide employees with the security they once had. This imbalance is also compounded by a new generation of employees who value work-life balance ever more greatly (Guest, 2002; Lub et al. 2012), with the Mercer Global Talent Trends report (2019) identifying fifty-four percent of the workforce surveyed identified work-life balance as a factor for thriving in the workplace (Mercer, 2019).

Interestingly, this highlighted change in in-work attitudes has not raised questions within the literature on the impact of the changing psychological contract. Furthermore, subsequent self-employment or entrepreneurial venturing which has resulted from these changes has not been examined. One of the few studies produced on the matter by Buttner and Moore (1997), identify the "pull" factors associated with female individuals' movement from employment

into entrepreneurship as being able to accomplish one's individual intrinsic goals. The lack of research in this area is notable, and suggests an important question is missing in current research, which would highlight to what extent the change in the psychological contract has created a push factor towards self-employment and entrepreneurial behaviour.

The Impact of Identity

It is important to consider the identity of the lifestyle entrepreneur, as Leitch and Harrison (2016) recognise it 'can potentially serve as powerful elements that both drive and are shaped by entrepreneurial actions' (2016: 177). Lindgren and Wahlin (2001) also recognise that entrepreneurial identity is not a fixed position, but one which changes based on the experiences and incidents within the entrepreneurs' life, and so forms the basis of understanding the opportunities and actions that are enacted by the entrepreneur.

As this thesis has already begun to examine the importance of the lifestyle context on the entrepreneur, the shaping of identity is important to consider. The way in which identity is examined however is complex, with multiple theoretical positions on how identity is established, considered and defined through ontological positioning (Benjamin, 1997). Two identity theories however support the notions of self and positional identity, which the researcher feels are central to interpreting the entrepreneur. These are Social Identity Theory and Identity Theory, and both will be discussed below.

Social Identity Theory allows the individual to categorise themselves in relation to social settings (Stets and Burke, 2000). This creates a sense of resemblance with others, and development of belonging to a 'category' (Hogg et al 1995). which leads to the development of an 'in-group' and 'out-group', in which the 'in-group' is positive, and the 'out-group' is

negative (Stets and Burke, 2000). Hogg et al (1995) highlight the significance of the boundaries and stereotypes forming groups.

Social Identity theory supports the discussion on how entrepreneurs construct their identities, particularly as Murnieks et al (2020) summarise that ‘individuals learn what it means to be an entrepreneur by viewing what types of behaviours tend to be ascribed to that particular social role’.

In contrast Identity Theory is based on the identity of self through a role (Stets and Burke, 2000). An important consideration of the work-life balance discussion is the influence of identity construction of this nature. In particular, the roles that an entrepreneur has can ultimately shape their approaches to opportunity and action. Shepherd and Patzelt (2018) consider the importance of entrepreneurs’ managing their multiple identities. Their model is shown in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Figure 3 Managing entrepreneurs’ multiple micro-identities to maximise PWB (Shepherd and Patzelt, 2018: 152)

Shepherd and Patzelt (2018) examine the ability for entrepreneurs to hold multiple identities; it is the management of these identities that leads to the overall successfulness of the entrepreneur's endeavours, much like Glancey's (1998) entrepreneurial positionalities and the negotiation that forms part of the decision making process. While entrepreneurs may hold these multiple identities (Shepherd and Haynie, 2009), Murnieks et al (2020) identify that these are likely to be unequal in their importance and focus.

Supporting the discussion on identity is the notion that 'entrepreneurship [is] not merely...an economic activity but also...a social activity, which is shaped by our society' (Steyart and Katz, 2004, in Hytti, 2005: 595). This supports the desire to understand who lifestyle entrepreneurs are, and how their context of lifestyle sports leads to determining their entrepreneurial position.

A fundamental feature of understanding identity is authenticity. Benjamin (1997) writes 'what determines any conception of the relationship between identity and the self will involve a commitment to a form of authenticity' (1997: 9). Wicklund et al's (2019) view that 'people pursue entrepreneurship for deeply personal, idiosyncratic reasons. Therefore, as in other self-organised human pursuits, how entrepreneurship relates to fulfilment and well-being is of utmost importance' (2019: 579) supports this view.

[Lifestyle Entrepreneurship](#)

Now that the phenomena of lifestyle and entrepreneurship have been addressed, it is possible to conceptualise lifestyle entrepreneurship. Solvoll et al. (2015) state that 'the broadening of entrepreneurship as a field of research has also led to several new subtopics' (2015: 122), and it is argued that lifestyle entrepreneurship is one of these. Having analysed the ambiguous interpretations of entrepreneurship, lifestyle entrepreneurship will be

considered as being formed by the lifestyle entrepreneur, and the subsequent acts of a lifestyle enterprise.

Many definitions of the lifestyle entrepreneur exist however they vary throughout the research literature. Marcketti et al. (2006) describe lifestyle entrepreneurs as 'individuals who owned and operated businesses closely aligned with their personal values, interests, and passions' (2006: 214). This includes those individuals wishing to develop a business from a hobby (Sorensson et al. 2017), and those for whom personal lifestyle is more important than the business success in its encapsulated form; success would only be deemed a success if the personal lifestyle was also obtained. An example of such is using Smilor's (2001) work on types of entrepreneurship, Kaplan and Warren (2010: 6), identifies them to 'have developed an enterprise that fits their individual circumstances and style of life. Their basic intention is to earn an income for themselves and their families'.

This theme of 'personal values' is echoed in several other definitions, with Andersson Cederholm (2015) choosing to study female entrepreneurs 'whose work is motivated by the possibility for pursuing their own leisure interest in horses and to create a lifestyle that benefits themselves as well as their family' (2015: 318). The focus on family is highlighted by other researcher's views of lifestyle enterprises. Spinelli and Adams (2016) indicate the priority that this has on the entrepreneur. Family and location are seen to take priority over enterprise size or financial success (Spinelli and Adams, 2016).

Supporting this view, other researchers place the importance of particular goal attainment at the heart of their definitions. The consequences of the lifestyle entrepreneurs' behaviour on the organisation are examined by Kuratko and Hodgetts (2001), who state that 'Lifestyle ventures appear to have independence, autonomy, and control as their primary driving

forces. Neither large scales nor profits are deemed important beyond providing a sufficient and comfortable living for the entrepreneur' (2001: 362). The particular goal of attainment in the lifestyle entrepreneurs' case however is a lifestyle one, and less so of business progression goals.

For some researchers, the focus is situated on the linkages between work, life and social settings. They are an interesting group of individuals, who appear to sit across a number of social contexts. Andersson Cederholm (2015) states that 'lifestyle enterprising is a mode of living and working betwixt and between social spheres commonly perceived as separate' (2015: 330), and Marcketti et al. (2006) describe lifestyle entrepreneurs as 'neither wealth seekers nor financially independent hobbyists' (2006: 241). Definitions such as this move away from the commercial focus and choose to elaborate on the context of business as central to the definition. Sweeney et al. (2018) for example identify lifestyle entrepreneurship as 'a distinct mode of living that reflects a socially constructed concept of self that symbolically communicates a socio-political ideology/value position' (2018: 90). Bredvold and Skålen (2016) for example state that 'the modern lifestyle entrepreneur narrative suggests a relationship between being true to cultural traditions and business success' (2016: 104).

Running throughout a lot of the discussions is the lack of growth aspiration which distinguishes the particular type of activity. This is best summed up by Lewis (2008), who states that lifestyle 'SME owners who share certain characteristics (i.e. have micro firms, operate to achieve personal objectives or a satisfactory level of income, and are growth averse)' (2008: 61). Encompassing these perspectives, Burns (2001) identifies lifestyle firms through a clearer lens;

businesses that are set up primarily to undertake an activity that the owner-manager enjoys or gets some comfort from whilst also providing an adequate income...they are not set up to grow and, therefore, once a level of activity that provides the adequate income is reached, management becomes routine and tactical...These firms are rarely managed by entrepreneurs and if they are, the entrepreneur will be extremely frustrated (2001: 11).

Burns (2001) clearly believes that the act of entrepreneurship can only be supported with the entrepreneurs' intention to grow; the ideas of entrepreneur and growth to be inextricably linked, stating that 'however, a lifestyle business can change, if the owner-manager's motivations change, and they have the entrepreneurial qualities to see it through' (Burns, 2001: 11). Burns clearly believes that to be entrepreneurial is to seek to grow your business; 'Occasionally a lifestyle business can turn into a growth business unintentionally' (2001: 11); using the example of 'Fat Face' to explain how the lifestyle firm can move to a growth firm.

Deakins and Freel (2003) link 'self-employment to pursue their own interests' and 'major objectives were likely to be concerned with survival and ensuring that the business provided them and their family with sufficient income' (2003: 277) with lifestyle orientated firms. They go on to suggest that these are not entrepreneurial but distinguishing *lifestyle businesses* from *entrepreneurial firms*, and make the suggestion that to operate a lifestyle business came as a result of push factors from redundancy and a lack of other employment options. This indicates that lifestyle entrepreneurship is not necessarily initially desired, but can come as a result of barriers.

When discussing entrepreneur owner motivations, Bridge et al. (2003) highlight lifestyle as a distinct motivation, where 'This is the description often given to a business run by an

individual because it not only facilitates, but is also a part of, the lifestyle that individual wants to have' (2003: 186). They segregate these types of business from *comfort-zone* businesses, of which the focus is reaching a suitable level of financial stability they deem necessary. What is interesting in their distinction is 'unlike in the case of lifestyle business, the basis of the business is less important than the level of benefit it can provide in return for a reasonable amount of effort' (2003: 186). As an example, on identifying lifestyle entrepreneurs for their sample, Marketti et al. (2006) used Hendricks (2002) definition of 'motivations relevant to the launch of a business venture and their intentional sacrifice of growth for lifestyle choices' (2006: 246).

The idea that the lifestyle business can have positive and negative impacts on the entrepreneur is an interesting and under researcher area of the current literature, but which has appeared throughout this research study. In their discussions in to the definition of lifestyle ventures, Spinelli and Adams (2016) evidence that 'If done right, one can have a lifestyle business and actually realize higher potential' (2016: 81). At the same time, they evidence how self-employment can turn into worse work-life balance for the entrepreneur;

Paradoxically, some couples who give up successful careers in New York City to buy an inn in Vermont to avoid the rat race generally last only 6 to 7 years. They discover the joys of self-employment, including 7-day, 70- to 90-hour workweeks, chefs and day help that do not show up, roofs that leak when least expected, and the dealing with the general public (Spinelli and Adams, 2016:81).

The key themes that complete the definitions of lifestyle entrepreneurs will be examined more closely in the following paragraphs.

Business and personal life boundaries

An element of the definition of lifestyle entrepreneurship explored by many researchers is that entrepreneurs' lives are supported by the work that they do in a way that means they have the freedom and flexibility to live as they choose. On studying the tourism industry in New Zealand, Ateljevic and Doorne (2000) identified one 'group of individuals fundamentally seeking lifestyle opportunities...around which a business can be built' (2000: 384). This begins to evidence the values upon which lifestyle entrepreneurship and the lifestyle entrepreneur are shaped; that a different perspective can be met on the relationship between work and leisure, fuelled undoubtedly by the freedom gained in work-life as explored above.

It is possible therefore that the exploration of lifestyle entrepreneurship may bring to light the ability to bring back work as a central life interest, by developing the balance to include more of a preferred lifestyle orientated working practice. The boundaries between work and home are examined most closely in the work-life balance research, with researchers identifying models of how the two interplay (Guest, 2002). Of the models, the 'Spillover' concept appears to align most closely with how home and work can effect one another (Parker, 1967; Guest, 2002). It is for this reason therefore that there is a clear link between lifestyle entrepreneurship and work-life balance research.

On investigating the literature however, there appears to be less focus in the lifestyle entrepreneurship literature of work and life balance, and instead more attention given to the boundaries that are in existence. This alternative relationship, which is perceived as a heavily defining feature of lifestyle entrepreneurs, creates a lack of boundaries that are observed between the entrepreneur's business and personal lives (Getz and Carlsen, 2000; Massey et al. 2006; Andersson Cederholm, 2015). This creates separate defining issues and advantages

for these entrepreneurs, away from other forms of entrepreneurship. For example, this is examined most closely by Andersson Cederholm (2015), who identify the cross-over that this type of entrepreneurship creates between business and personal lives, by examining Swedish horse farmers. In one way, the weaker boundary creates opportunities for the entrepreneurs to transgress more fluidly the work and social aspects of their life, however they report that a clear line has to be drawn. They state that to 'articulate about the boundaries...[is a strategy] used to manage the intersections between the personal and the commercial' (Andersson Cederholm, 2015: 327). Thunen's (1785-1850) commentary on the regular entrepreneur does not clarify the argument for this being a defining feature of lifestyle entrepreneurship however; 'unlike the manager, the entrepreneur takes the problems of the firm home' (Kirby, 2003: 13). How true this is in today's work context needs to be addressed.

It may be suggested that the family firm will constitute on such example of the boundary argument considered above, which may also be interpreted as a form of lifestyle entrepreneurship through its organisation around the family unit. Getz and Carlsen's (2000) research proved inconclusive in the examination of the ability of family based entrepreneurs to be able to distance their personal from business lives. Getz and Carlson (2000) attribute this to 'real differences in business or merely of perception' (2000: 555). Further consideration regarding these findings may suggest however that the perception is more to do with the entrepreneur's attitude towards their business; how enveloped the business is into the family life. Lifestyle entrepreneurs are aware of, but refuse to separate, their home and business lives, and instead opt to create a delicate balance of both (Andersson Cederholm, 2015).

Massey et al. (2006) also identify this feature of lifestyle entrepreneurship, by highlighting from their research that personal events impact on business decisions and functions as a direct result from lack of boundaries. These themes lead to an important feature in the entrepreneurial context, as this is not something that would happen if the individual was employed within a firm, or were intrapreneurial within a firm. There forms a direct impact on the business as a result of the individuals' private lives, as the two are intertwined and equally influenced by one another. Massey et al. (2006) go on to support this as the defining feature of lifestyle entrepreneurship. In concluding their research into lifestyle migrants, Holland and Martin (2015) identified that 'ultimately it seems the goal is business ownership to allow the control over lifestyle choices and work, and make these choices sustainable for the future' (2015: 38).

Passion and commitment

A large defining feature of lifestyle entrepreneurship is that of the passion and commitment to the area of interest or discipline that the business is involved with. Linked to the examination of boundaries above, the conclusion is drawn that quite often these types of entrepreneurial activities become an extension of, or fully integrated into, the entrepreneur's lives. It therefore makes sense that the discipline of the business would be one of which the entrepreneur has a close connection with. Tregar (2005) evidences this as a 'genuine commitment to practicing a craft' (2005: 9), and Anderson Cederholm (2015) state the qualities of 'competence...based on lifelong experience and tacit knowledge' (2015: 325) as being fundamental of the role.

There is also an argument however to address those entrepreneurs that craft their roles to enable them to participate. At this stage these entrepreneurs will be referred to as 'enablers'.

While not conforming to Tregar (2005) and Anderson Cederholm's (2015) ideals above of cultural situatedness, it is argued that these individuals are pursuing a lifestyle, shaping it through their choice of employment. There is a limited amount of research on this area, and to date there is no explicit research that focusses on the requirements of running a business specifically to enable the participation in a chosen hobby or activity such as a lifestyle sport.

These elements support a fundamental defining feature of lifestyle entrepreneurship; that one's proximity and intimacy with the industry precludes all other capabilities and expertise the individual may have from taking priority in the orientation of the business. It therefore separates itself as a concept from regular economic entrepreneurship, where innovative methods (Schumpeter), and seizing risk (Knight), are more dominant features of business start-up and success (Deakins and Freel, 2003). However, it is argued that passion and commitment are legitimising themes of the entrepreneur as well. Derived from the personality traits identified above, the lifestyle entrepreneur pushes the factors of commitment and passion to the business, in line with the type of business that they are operating.

Characteristics, traits and behaviours

There is some mileage in addressing if lifestyle entrepreneurs have similar characteristics. The idea that entrepreneurs share specific traits or behaviours is a well discussed debate in the entrepreneurship literature, as McClelland (1961) focusses on motivating drivers of entrepreneurs. One way to measure this is to address whether generation and age has an influence. In many of the research studies assessing the demographic of lifestyle entrepreneurs, a particular age group does not stand out, however from their work into the Cornish tourism industry, Shaw and Williams (1987) were able as part of their identification

process to distinguish between their 'non-entrepreneurs' who were characteristically older, and their constrained entrepreneurs, who were younger. The reasoning for this is suggestive of a retirement type industry, whereby individuals who have had a previous career in a different industry see the attraction of running a lifestyle enterprise. This was however significant only to the tourism and Bed and Breakfast industry; the industry that was chosen for their research.

There are many ways that one could use characteristics or behaviours to try to determine how lifestyle enterprises can be identified. Initial investigations into SME development have presented a traditional phase-stage approach to firm development, inextricably linked to its growth, and thus creating definitive taxonomies of firms (Hanks et al. 1993). Kuratko and Hodgetts (2001) state that growth 'is the phase during which a venture usually reaches major crossroads in the decisions that affect its future' (2001: 495), and it is therefore utilised by many researchers as the defining point at which a firm can become termed lifestyle orientated, as at this point the entrepreneur decides not to continue to pursue growth.

Stimulated by these theoretical concepts, researchers have sought to empirically appraise, and have successfully replicated, findings to suggest some SMEs fail to develop into larger, more profitable firms, and so have remained stationary at a particular point in the traditional firm life-cycle (Hanks et al. 1993; McMahon, 2001). For those firms that remain at this point, the outcomes of the research suggest that those firms that fail to pursue growth (growth determined and associated by a number of factors such as profit (Davidson et al. 2009), sales (Markman and Gartner, 2002) and employee numbers (Markman and Gartner, 2002; Massey et al. 2006) must be termed 'lifestyle' (Hanks et al. 1993).

Shaw and William's use of the term 'non entrepreneur' identifies entrepreneurs for who growth is not important. However, little research has been conducted to establish if these so-called non-entrepreneurs possess the same personality traits that make them an entrepreneur. This supports the assumption above that too much understanding has been placed on growth. Bohn (2013) simply argues that 'the common notion of entrepreneurship cannot be applied to lifestyle firms' (2013: 11), however this is rejected given the clear identification of entrepreneurial characteristics that are present.

But the research fails to suitably evidence this association, and assumes a lifestyle orientation for these types of firms as 'default' reasoning for their apparent lack of growth. Furthermore, it does not take into account those firms that are not able to grow, for example when market saturation is reached. They cannot grow if there is no space in which for this to be achieved. This does not constitute them being a lifestyle entrepreneur, which Hanks et al. (1993) agrees with, as they have not actively chosen to constrain the business. Therefore, the stagnation in growth which leads to a firm not fulfilling the life-cycle, but continue to be successful, can be attributed to a number of factors. Firstly, those that propose a conscious decision on the part of the entrepreneur not to grow the business, and secondly that the size of the market being served is not large enough to sustain further business growth (Hanks et al. 1993). Furthermore, some authors explore the risk factor in growing a business beyond a particular level is too great for those entrepreneurs, for example in family firms (Carson et al. 1995).

Alternative views on how lifestyle enterprises emerge are present within the literature, however still rely on the value of growth as the determining factor of their taxonomies. Kuratko and Hodgetts (2001) group ventures to be either lifestyle, small-profitable or high-growth; creating the lifestyle group of entrepreneurs for whom 'neither large scale nor profits

are deemed important beyond providing a sufficient and comfortable living' (2001: 362), and subsequently naming them lifestyle. Morris et al. (2015b, in Morris et al. 2015a) categorise ventures as survival, lifestyle, managed growth, and high growth. Similarly, Henderson (2002) aligns himself with categories of either lifestyle or high growth, and Stam and Stel (2009) identify general entrepreneurs and growth-orientated entrepreneurs.

The defining feature of lifestyle enterprises from these studies is that they do not wish to continually grow. Storey (1994) states that 'for many business owners, as Curran (1986) points out, growth of their business is not an objective. These are the 'trundlers'' (1994: 119). While the issue of using the term 'lifestyle' to these organisations is not suitably evidenced within the literature, it can also be suggested that low or non-growth firms are not deemed entrepreneurial; 'growth...is assumed to be beneficial and something entrepreneurial firms should attempt to achieve' (Sexton and Smilor, 1997, in Markman and Gartner, 2002). This is supported by many researchers who, in their quest to create taxonomies of small and medium sized firms, delineate between those firms that grow, and so are entrepreneurial, and those that are not. This is most closely supported by Carland et al. (1984, in Kirby, 2003), who classifies an entrepreneur as 'an individual who establishes and manages a business for the principal purposes of profit and growth' (in Kirby, 2003: 10), and small business owners for whom the business 'for the principal purpose of furthering personal goals...The owner perceives the business as an extension of his or her personality, intricately bound with family needs and desires' (in Kirby, 2003: 10).

In contrast to the beliefs of lifestyle firms originating from stagnation in the life-cycle approach, other researchers disagree with the phase-stage approach to firm development, finding it restrictive (Deakins and Freel, 2003), and highly theoretical without practical insight

(Storey, 1994). To contrast this concept, Dewhurst and Horobin (1998) developed a commercial and lifestyle goal and strategy related matrix upon which enterprises can position themselves at different points in time, depending on their focus. Moreover, they cite continuums upon which an organisation can be placed in terms of their commercial and lifestyle goals and strategies, rather than a fixed taxonomy based on growth.

Although these ideas are removed from the lifecycle approach, it may be argued that there is a lifecycle within lifestyle enterprise start-up themselves. To this end, Figure 4 by Peters et al. (2009) below demonstrates what many authors feel contributes to entrepreneurs choosing to restrict growth at a certain point, in order to maintain a lifestyle; 'after a certain stage of development a comfort factor becomes important to business owners and many run 'lifestyle' firms' (Carson et al. 1995: 70).

Figure 4 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Figure 4. 'The trade off between entrepreneurs' life quality and enterprise profile' (Source: Peters et al., 2009)

This supports more recent research into these types of firms which also suggests that the strategic and developmental positioning of firms is more complex than just its growth rate. A poignant paper in this field is that of Lewis (2008), who after appraising the lifecycle approach to firm development summarises that 'Growth in SMEs should also not be confused with development or progress' (2008: 67), and that lifestyle organisations are as much about inclusivity of the firm into the lifestyle as they are about retaining a 'hold' on the firm to allow the individual's lifestyle to shape. This charts a shift in thinking towards the development lifestyle firm, and those that operate it.

This leads away from the linear approach to firm development which has historically categorised entrepreneurship in a rather two-dimensional format based solely around growth. Little research evidence points to the examination of analysing firms at different points in time; suggestive of Dewhurst and Horobin's (1998) model which leads to the suggestion that firms can shift in their lifestyle positioning over time. Several studies allude to this through their research (Lewis, 2008; Marchant and Mottiar, 2011). This lack of research evidence could be explained by the difficulties in longitudinal study.

Furthermore, some studies allude to the careful balance that lifestyle entrepreneurs try to achieve in their attainment of suitable business growth that fits the optimal lifestyle desired, as demonstrated in Figure 4 above by the 'optimal growth' point on the graph. Even though through their research Getz and Carlson (2000) are able to distinguish 'family first' and 'business first' enterprises, they identify the ambiguity of results from questioning on business and lifestyle goals. They use this to highlight the importance that still exists even for these entrepreneurs to factor economic drivers into the balance of goals.

To support this, researchers have identified the importance placed upon business growth and success to go hand in hand (Davidson et al. 2009), and Clarysse et al. (2011) summarise that 'academics argue that growth has been overemphasized as a simple indicator of successful performance' (2011: 137), using this as a pre-requisite for analysing the development of young technology-based firms, charting the influence of environment and resources. Other researchers have also identified that in particular these smaller, lifestyle focussed businesses view success as including alternative measures to growth (see Walker, 2004). This underpins and supports Lewis' (2008) determination for a deeper understanding of lifestyle entrepreneurs and their attitudes towards growth, and how success can be measured in other ways.

In supporting the argument for entrepreneurship, Antoncic et al. (2015) state that 'entrepreneurs are people who start up new businesses and are important for new wealth creation and economic development' (2015: 819). There is some evidence of lifestyle entrepreneurship research which shows a distinguishable link to the prevalence of collaborative work between enterprises (see Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000). Morris et al. (2015a) see this as a way for smaller firms to achieve resourcefulness similar to that of larger and high growth firms. Other ways for smaller firms to utilise resources is for them to take advantage of government and policy schemes (Morris et al., 2015a; Wyrwich et al., 2016), however evidence suggests that these small firms are not supported in this manner (Massey et al. 2006; Siemens, 2015). After analysis however Massey et al. (2006) report that the issues are more surrounded by firms not utilising support systems, either through choice, or potential naivety. This discussion needs to be furthered by examining why, and if there are links to lack of business knowledge.

Entrepreneurship is important for driving economic growth in communities (Stam and Stel, 2009; Antoncic et al., 2015), but the argument for the contribution that lifestyle enterprises make to societies is mixed. Markman and Gartner (2002) summarise that 'Many scholars have suggested that firm growth creates employment, wealth, and broad economic development' (2002: 65), and so therefore must be deemed a proactive goal for enterprises to achieve in order to make a contribution to the society in which they operate. With this in mind, the suggestion is made that firms that do not grow have a negative effect on economies by restricting growth (Shaw and Williams, 1987, in Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000; Gomez-Velasco and Saleillies, 2007). With statistics identifying the fragility of start-ups and new businesses (Anderson, 2014; Patel, 2015), there is the obvious concern that new enterprises can be vulnerable and unstable, without adding the complexities of not attempting to grow the business.

Several researchers support the opinion that high growth-perspective firms can contribute to an economy (Shane, 2009; Stam and Stel, 2009), and so therefore should be the only ones to be supported by policy agencies (Shane, 2009; Stam and Stel, 2009). Moreover, to counter the claims suggested by many pro-small low growth firms that they are not supported by government policy, Shane (2009) suggests the opposite, to conclude that supporting and subsidising these small growth firms is wasteful of policy agencies.

It is argued however that lifestyle enterprises can both make an economic contribution, and provide other forms of positive contributions to societies which larger high growth firms do not. Morris et al. (2015a) suggest that 'a lifestyle business can play a stabilizing role in local

economies...reinvesting in the community' (2009: 715). This is best exemplified in Tregar's (2005) study of UK artisan food producers, for whom participating in a community role has economic positivity 'couched in terms of the wider social benefits of their activities' (2005: 9) through '*their community roles*' (2009: 9). Morris et al. (2015a) also describe lifestyle enterprises as 'the backbone of the economy' (2015: 718), and talks about examining the entrepreneurship within the context of the industry. Furthermore 'failing to encourage these other types of ventures can actually harm the longer-term economic well-being of a nation, region or community' (Morris et al. 2015a: 714). It is suggested therefore that these firms are able to serve the small community markets more effectively by concentrating on such niche markets. This is also supported by Siemens (2015) who identifies the contributions the entrepreneurs make to their communities, by supporting ancillary activities.

Lifestyle enterprises can provide further benefits to societies. Guest (2002) explores the concept of the work-life imbalance, which sees a reduction in community engagement and support where work dominates individual's lives, and so as a result they have less time for home and community presence. Guest (2002) supports the view that this imbalance leads to 'juvenile crime, more drug abuse, a reduction in concern for community and in community participation' (2002: 257). This refers back to the discussion made on the work-life balance, and how the priorities within this can change and vary. Lifestyle entrepreneurship can help with renegotiating this balance.

Much like part-time entrepreneurs, who are overlooked in government support, and are associated with serving small niche markets (Block and Landgraf, 2016), lifestyle entrepreneurs are also treated naively, with a failure to understand the importance of the

interrelationship between the individuals personal and business lives, and the subsequent unique issues that can emerge (Massey et al. 2006). Furthermore, this leads to the conclusions that the challenges presented in the geographical settings (for example, Andersson Cederholm, 2015 referring to working within the rural setting) are also ignored.

Marchant (n.d) goes some way into identifying the unique position of lifestyle entrepreneurs, as they find that to the individuals they examined 'their desire to live in a certain location was often the main motivation for starting the business, often to provide them with an income to live there' (Marchant, n.d: 15). Research from specific context, such as sport, can be seen to emulate this, as seen in Edwards and Corte's (2010) examination of BMXing in North Carolina, whereby the appeal of the location itself generated by the sport participation created the drive for further entrepreneurial growth. Al-Dajani (2009) highlight in their study that there is an 'increasing trend of lifestyle enterprises in Norfolk' (2009: 3), however go on to state that a single lifestyle enterprise definition has not been finalised.

Underpinning this concept, it appears that rural based geography forms the basis for most inward-related movement into the lifestyle entrepreneurship sector. Herslund (2012) examines how individuals seeking the 'rural idyll' migrate to rural areas away from urban ones, and turn to different forms of employment as a result, driven by the rural context. Supporting this, Siemens (2015) study evidenced the majority of participants in their study to be 'in-migrants' to the rural area to develop their enterprise. Jack and Anderson (2002) identify from their research that for their respondents 'the "rural" was an attraction. So, locational choice appears to contradict the rationale for profit maximisation, but may

represent an optimisation of all benefits' (2002: 475). Interestingly however these entrepreneurs are not referred to as lifestyle entrepreneurs.

Herslind's (2012) study provides a different orientation towards the lifestyle concept however, dividing those businesses who still required the urban-led depth of business; the 'reach', with the need to live the more rural life. Again supporting this Siemens (2015) discusses the difficulty separating the differences in rural and urban living. What does present itself as a commonality throughout the literature however is the highly concentrated presence of lifestyle entrepreneurs within the tourism sector. Peters et al, (2009) attribute this to 'tourism and leisure industries are primarily located in attractive regions there is a much higher concentration of lifestyle entrepreneurs and this is often the main motivation for entrepreneurial activity' (2009: 397).

Other researchers have found that entrepreneurial development in a locality can also spur further entrepreneurial start-up; confidence is instilled that business in this locality will be a success. This is opposed to Gomez-Velasco and Saleillies' (2007) more generic research and viewpoint that lifestyle entrepreneurs are not connected with the location.

It is believed there is some discussion to be had over the link of type of work and location. Edwards and Corte's (2010) research is just one such example of how a specific location can drive an influx of a particular group of individuals and entrepreneurs, in this case skateboarders, due to the perpetuating cycle of recognition of that location being famed for a particular industry. This can be seen quite commonly outside of the lifestyle entrepreneurship industry, such as that of Silicon Valley and technology firms. This not only supports the view that particular industries are associated with particular locations, but that

locations themselves can generate 'pull' motives based on their fame of being a particular location, as described in Edwards and Cortes (2010) research into the 'BMX Mecca'.

Where growth meets lifestyle

There are a very complex set of themes surrounding the concepts of the economic principles of business, and how these relate in the lifestyle entrepreneurship context. While much of the literature already discussed highlights the deliberate avoidance of economic attainment, much research can verge on becoming contradictory while discussing this viewpoint. Anderson Cederholm (2015) comment that 'downplaying economic motives does not mean that economic motives are not important' (2015: 326) to lifestyle entrepreneurs, however they go on to say 'by emphasizing monetary values...too business like, which would undermine the lifestyle dimension' (2015: 326).

This presents a conflicting understanding of how and why economic principles are actively rejected, and that the view that this is the sole defining feature is an outdated approach to the evaluation of lifestyle entrepreneurship. It is apparent that economic values are important in the culmination of the business whole in the lifestyle enterprise. This is portrayed by Ateljevic and Doorne (2000), who explore the concept of the niche market as an avenue for the lifestyle entrepreneurs to both serve their lifestyle needs, with the business remaining small, but, using that small scale to actively promote their business distinctiveness. However, this complication emerges yet again though the research, as Ateljevic and Doorne (2000) subsequently identify 'imitators' of the lifestyle enterprises researched that had more commercial goals in mind.

Another interesting concept surrounding the business principles is observed by Shaw and Williams (2004) in their follow-up research to their seminal work on lifestyle entrepreneurship

within Devon and Cornwall. They interpret how the commercialisation of the surfing industry has led to more lifestyle orientated enterprises, by the attraction of the industry to the individuals. Furthermore, it is apparent that business principals can be applied within the lifestyle enterprises. Interpretation of lifestyle research evidences the use of the lifestyle concept as a marketing tool to differentiate their businesses. Shaw and Williams (2004) identify 'strong links between lifestyle and entrepreneurship are also evident in some of the www advertising' (2004: 110), and Ateljevic and Doorne (2000) identify the quality and authenticity aspects of their businesses.

[Lifestyle Entrepreneurship classification models](#)

The literature on lifestyle entrepreneurship has culminated in a number of frameworks which have sought to utilise the underpinning understandings of who lifestyle entrepreneurs are, to identify them. Some authors have developed distinct typology frameworks (see Shaw and Williams, 1998 – 'Constrained' and 'Non' entrepreneurs; Marchant and Mottiar, 2011 – 'Purist') which identify the differences between types of lifestyle entrepreneurs. Other researchers have identified that the identification process is a more fluid process, using scale frameworks to analyse how the entrepreneurs behave (see Dewhurst and Horobin, 1998, 'Subjective goal orientation model; Allardyce, 2015 'Continuum approach to lifestyle entrepreneurship'). Finally, other researchers have utilised matrix frameworks to identify firstly how lifestyle entrepreneurs can be identified (see Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000) and then the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs that exist using different variables (see for example Al-Dajani, 2009; Bredvold and Skåln, 2016).

It is clear that the previous analysis shows the presence of researchers actively trying to distinguish features of entrepreneurship that may redefine this once thought of as homogenous group. This process is also apparent in more recent literature in the study of lifestyle entrepreneurs in particular. This further segmentation seems to lie in the areas of growth and profit in the main, however some researchers have begun to analyse other factors which may contribute. Here follows a short analysis of key research relating to the segmentation of this area.

It is apparent that lifestyle entrepreneurship is more prevalent in certain business types (Getz and Petersen, 2005). Some researchers (Marchant and Mottiar, 2011) advocate that Shaw and Williams (1998), when writing about entrepreneurship within the tourism industry, were able to segment lifestyle entrepreneurs into 'non entrepreneurs' and 'constrained entrepreneurs'. This appears to be guided by the assumption that the majority of entrepreneurship entered into within the tourism and hospitality industry is lifestyle motivated, and there is a large amount of research that supports this. Building on the concepts of Shaw and Williams (1998), Marchant and Mottiar (2011) theorised that lifestyle entrepreneurs who conformed to the 'traditional' concepts of valuing lifestyle over economic principals should be termed 'purists'.

Lewis (2008) identifies that;

Lifestyle has gone beyond being a descriptor for those businesses that adopt a low or nil growth strategy for the sake of non-economic objectives. Instead it embodies the growth group of owners who have what could be called a holistic appreciation

of being in business. They chose to live their lives, in their style, through their business rather than for or because of the business. (2008: 67).

Stepping away from the concept of growth as the target for distinction, Bredvold and Skålen (2016) have utilised the concept of identity construction as a means to distinguish lifestyle entrepreneurs. Analysing the traits of affinity to the culture and environment, and how closely internal values are held, Bredvold and Skålen (2016) were able to develop a matrix out of which four distinct lifestyle entrepreneurship sub-types could be identified. Figure 5 demonstrates the four sub-types.

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Figure 5. Model 2; Narrative types of lifestyle entrepreneurs (Bredvold and Skålen, 2016: 103).

There are several limitations with the model that is portrayed by Bredvold and Skålen (2016). They recognise that the types identified are based on a small number of participants in their research. While issues of population and sampling will be addressed further in the thesis, Bredvold and Skålen (2016) go on to suggest further qualitative research would be necessary in order to expand the conceptualization.

Sorensson *et al.* (2017) identified different motives of nature based business entrepreneurs of which lifestyle entrepreneurs use to construct their identity.

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Figure 6. Entrepreneurial types within nature based businesses (Source: Sorensson *et al.* 2017).

Soreenson *et al.* (2017) found that ‘the lifestyle entrepreneur is primarily not looking for economic growth but the location and the lifestyle is of high importance for these entrepreneurs’.

In a PhD thesis Allardyce (2015) builds on the work carried out in lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle theory, to develop ideal types of lifestyle entrepreneurs operating in the Bed and Breakfast sector.

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Figure 7. Lifestyle Continuum Approach (Allardyce, 2015)

Summary

The review of the literature to date has demonstrated that there is no singly, agreed definition of what lifestyle entrepreneurship is; the term is applied to a variety of entrepreneurial phenomena. Sweeney et al. (2018) identify that 'the term 'lifestyle' applied to a business or an entrepreneur is often used imprecisely and based upon an assumed shared usage and understanding by the audience' (2018: 90). Some definitions and interpretations of lifestyle entrepreneurship are very one-dimensional, with little evidence of how the definition has been created beyond the propensity for the individual to focus on lifestyle at the expense of growth and profit. Some researchers have begun to develop an understanding of lifestyle entrepreneurs by differentiating them to some degree (for example, Lewis (2008) 'freestyle' entrepreneur). Bredvold and Skåln (2016) have begun to sub divide lifestyle entrepreneurs based on their identity creations, however openly discuss their limitations of their study and how future research may address some of the challenges their typology raised

This chapter has also demonstrated that the analysis of research in the area of lifestyle entrepreneurship has received relatively little attention. An apparently homogenous group of firms and individuals have been isolated from other entrepreneurial research based on a

superficial understanding of their economic value, and are seen as providing little contribution to their economic, natural and social environments. It is however a significant area for discussion, stemming from a small amount of research that has focussed on other areas what it means to be a lifestyle entrepreneur. This has included themes such as work-life balance, flexibility and community engagement.

The analysis of the literature demonstrates the tourism industry has been to date the focus for most of the current research on lifestyle entrepreneurship (Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000; Shaw and Williams, 2004; Marchant and Mottiar, 2011; Bredvold and Skåln, 2016). Other research outside of tourism has utilised creative and service based industries, for example Tregar (2005), who focused on UK artisan food producers. It is therefore suggested that the focus of lifestyle entrepreneurship research to date been on certain industries that appear to be conducive to lifestyle orientations and approaches. These are evaluated as industries which allow the entrepreneur to integrate their personal lives with their work lives through the integration of an interest (for example creative industries) or social interaction (the tourism and hospitality industries).

An industry which embodies both satisfying interest and social interaction is the lifestyle sports industry, and some research has already explored the sports industry. Those researchers that have utilised lifestyle sports have also framed this within the tourism sector (Shaw and Williams, 2004- surfing in Devon and Cornwall, Marchant and Mottiar, 2011- surfing in Ireland; Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000- extreme sports in the backpacking industry, New Zealand), but in many cases it is mostly unclear how much of the research identifies with the context of the sports, and how much is embedded within the tourism context.

Furthermore, there is little focus beyond superficial evaluation of the influence of the sport on the entrepreneur and the enterprise. There appears a lack of articulation of the linkages of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports, and the commonality of lifestyle.

Lifestyle Sports

The aim of this section will be to examine the nature of lifestyle sports, how the term itself has been developed, and how both the term and the sports are interpreted within the sporting environment. This will contribute to a discussion on what will be coined 'lifestyle sports' for the context of this research. Coakley (2007) states that 'it is a mistake to assume that all sports are defined in the same way, organised around the same goals and orientations, and played in the same spirit' (2007: 102). It is therefore important to explore the literature and definitions on what lifestyle sports are, and develop an understanding as to how sports can be classified as 'lifestyle', to provide a context to the research being undertaken.

To achieve this, an examination of the current definitions of 'lifestyle sport' will firstly be conducted to analyse how and why the terminology has been suggested. Secondly, an appraisal of the discussions inclusive of sports termed 'lifestyle' will be made to try to establish common themes, before any consensus can be reached.

Lifestyle and culture in context

With reference to the earlier discussion of the orientation of lifestyle, and the consumption of activity that defines lifestyle at the individual context, it follows that sport can act as part of leisure time, and so form part of a lifestyle. What follows is an attempt to understand how sport can play into the concept of lifestyle, and if indeed, there are specific sports that factor in a particular lifestyle.

The term 'lifestyle' to describe a certain group of activities has been widely examined by Wheaton (1997, 2004a, 2010, 2013), through her research into windsurfing participants (1997) because she has recognised a preference for the term by 'participants, who describe their activities as 'lifestyles' rather than as sports' (2013: 3), in particular in her observations of constructed lifestyles around the sporting pursuit of windsurfing (Wheaton, 1997). Similarly, Rinehart (2002) proposes in his work on extreme and alternative sports that 'many of these participants...don't consider their activity a 'sport'' (2002: 511).

The ideas that the activities represent more than just a participative activity are grounded in the ideas of culture and counter or sub-cultural movements. 'Subcultures are assumed to be distinct from and oppositional to the 'mainstream' of society' (Evans and Jackson, 2007: 8), and are used in context to describe both participants of lifestyle activities (Palmås, 2014), and the activities themselves (Breivik, 2010), that are described as falling outside of the mainstream.

With a note of caution in the mixing of 'culture' and 'lifestyle' as the same thing, Edgar and Sedgwick (1999) see 'the choice of lifestyle may be seen as a form of resistance to the dominant social order' (1999: 216). In a similar way, they define counterculture as 'the concept of counterculture may now be extended to the values, beliefs and attitudes of any minority group that opposes the dominant culture' (1999: 90), after its initial usage to describe 'groups that questioned the values of the dominant culture' (1999: 90). Importantly however, subculture is described as 'diverge[d] from, although related to, that of the dominant group' (1999: 386). Edgar and Sedgwick recognise that both sub and countercultures are formed out of 'resistance to the dominant culture' (1999: 387), however 'the subculture may therefore be seen to negotiate a cultural space, in which the

contradictory demands of the dominant parent culture can be worked through, or resisted, and in which the group can express and develop its own identity' (1999: 387).

Defining Lifestyle Sports; two opposing views

While it is not the purpose of this thesis to analyse the integrity of 'sport', a suitable amount of time should be spent on identifying the themes that create the notion of 'sport', so that the term 'lifestyle sport' may be understood. In taking a western approach to the understanding of the development of sport, Maguire (1999) charts the shift from 'folk pastimes' to developed sports known today. Importantly noted by Maguire 'Modern achievement sport became the dominant body culture; over time folk games became less widely practiced, though they did not die out completely' (1999: 81).

Maguire (1999) goes on to analyse the advent of 'new sports' (1999: 87) in what he theorised as the 'fifth global sportization phase' (1999: 86), where the conflict of western power, Americanisation and local cultural traditional sport practices is weaved into a 'creolization of sport cultures' (1999: 87). In addressing Coakley's (2007) interpretation of the sporting landscape of America, the ability to classify sports has emerged. Coakley (2007) identified in 2007 the 'power and performance model' of sport as the controlling 'type' of sport within American society, and that at that time sports which were 'oppositional' (2007: 102) were based on the pleasure and participation model'; characterised by many of the defining features of lifestyle sports.

Wheaton (2004a) clearly presents the alternative definitions of lifestyle sports currently adopted within the literature. The first comes from a media-related perspective, using lifestyle terminology to portray these leisure sports as something commercial and of modern adoption (Roberts, 1999). This could for example be seen in paragliding, where 'paragliders

didn't really become generally available until the mid-1980s, since when growth and development have been rapid' (Whittall, 1995: 9). In contrast, the other definition offered provides terminology depicting holistic, rounded lived experiences of individuals where the activity denotes the way of life (Midol et al. 1993), and have historical backgrounds. This emulates the preceding argument portrayed by Edgar and Sedgwick (1999) for the fundamental aspects of 'lifestyle';

*The analysis of lifestyles has also to address the problem of the degree to which choice of lifestyle represents a genuinely free and creative choice, and the degree to which it represents the influence of advertising and other **mass media** over everyday life"*[sic] (emphasis original, Edgar and Sedgwick, 1999: 216-17)

It appears through the literature that these two sides to lifestyle sport are subscribed to by different researchers. This will be explored in the following.

A media driven televisual industry

In support of the first definition, some authors proclaim that many of the 'new' sports are designed with a global spectating market in mind; 'themselves are self-conscious...they are also about presentation to others. They are about performance' (Rinehart, 2002: 504). The advent of the XGames in the USA is seen by many as the birth of the extreme-sport industry that is known today for its alternative cultural portrayal, away from traditionalised and institutionalised sports of the western world. Kusz (2004) supports this view by reporting 'extreme sports' arrival to have only been as recent as 1995, primarily developed for the 'generation X'. Linked thematically to this it is argued is Maguire's (1999) portrayal of the 'sports migrant' in his analysis of globalisation and the impacts on sport;

media-sport production executives...have created a global system of sport spectacles by directly employing or facilitating the employment of elite sports migrants to perform in Super Leagues, World Series and exhibition tournaments...As with the globalization of legal services, so, too, regarding sport, elements of an Americanisation process are evident within broader processes of globalization. The pervasiveness of what is in the main a distinctly American style of business practice in a range of exported sports such as American football, basketball and baseball forced people in other more 'indigenous' sports...to align themselves to this model. Failure to do so would jeopardize their place within the hierarchy of the global media-sport marketplace. (1999: 103)

A sub-cultural setting to explore self and well being

In support of the second definition, authors demonstrate that representation of sub-cultures is created through the activities, over and above participation in an activity, to create a distinct group of individuals. Wheaton (2010) hails the advent of 'lifestyle sports' from as far back as the 1960's, where the western cultural shift in the environment led to an ability to develop the 'counter-cultures' necessary for these sports. Edgar and Sedgeick (1999) state that counterculture 'was coined in the 1960s, largely in response to the emergence of middle-class youth movements (such as hippies), to refer to groups that questioned the **values** of the dominant culture' (emphasis original) (1999: 90). Areas such as dress and attitude (Beal, 1995), holding artistic qualities (Rinehart, 2002; Beal and Weidman, 2003), and euphoric experiences (Breivik, 2010) are examples of this. Furthermore, Beal and Weidman's (2003) research provided one explanation for skateboarding as being 'abstract' (2003: 339), and

therefore contributes to the ideas of lifestyle portraying an expression of self over other more superficial levels of mainstream sport participation.

These cultural themes can also be seen through language and terminology, where specific words, meanings and symbols are associated with and used by a particularly group of individuals. For example, the hand gesture, known as the Shaka 'is the famous surfers' hand gesture' (Surfer Today, 2018), used to symbolise many phrases including *hang loose* and *peace* (Surfer Today, 2018), and is synonymous with a surfer stereotype.

Figure 8 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Figure 8. Image from SurferToday.com, showing the Shaka gesture (Surfer Today, 2018)

'Alternative', which Tomlinson *et al.* (2005) recognises as being one of the factors that identifies lifestyle sports, can provide some of the essence of the counter and sub-cultural aspects described above. By its very meaning, alternative seeks to go against what would be the accepted norms of behaviour, and much research has been done which uncovers both the external and internal interpretations of this, for example, in examining the surfing culture (Booth, 2004; Palmås, 2014). However, the development of these alternative sports creates a sub-culture all of its own; one to which a definite group of individuals prescribe to (Evans and Jackson, 2007). This is referred to by Donnelley (1981) as an 'Achieved' sub-culture. By taking the surfing localism culture as an example, this too can support this argument. This

also supports the legitimacy in the advent of alternative-to-mainstream sports coinciding with particular cultural revolutions, with the evidence supporting this coming from counter-cultural activists wishing to separate themselves from the mainstream cultures (Booth, 2004; Palmås, 2014).

Maguire (1999) utilises the concept of the 'sport migrant' to develop the notion of the 'nomad' that seems applicable to the lifestyle sport enthusiast in this regard;

In contrast, some migrants are 'nomads' who are more motivated by a cosmopolitan engagement with migration. They use their sports career to journey: they embark on a quest in which they seek the experience of the 'other' and indeed of being the 'other'...Surfers, snowboarders and participants in 'extreme' sports all share the desire to explore the experience of difference and diversity (Maguire, 1999: 105-106).

Naming Lifestyle Sports

'Lifestyle sports' are not a defined group of sports; discreet and easily 'fenced', and for some researchers, their evidence suggests they should not be named as sports at all (see for example Rinehart (2002)). Attaining a definition therefore presents a very difficult task; the plethora of research examined demonstrates a lack of consensus for what exactly lifestyle sports are. There is great complexity surrounding the terminology, where 'extreme', 'new', 'adventure', 'alternative' and 'lifestyle' are all used to describe the same type of activity (Breivik, 2010). Tomlinson et al. (2005) go some way to explaining this, citing that 'lifestyle' is a sub-division of 'alternative' and 'conventional' sports, where 'alternative' and

‘conventional’ are ‘institutional structures in which participation takes place’ (2005: 16), whereas ‘lifestyle’ is a sub-section of this, denoting the ‘practice elements of the sports’ (2005: 16).

Although this is the most rational way for explaining how lifestyle sports are incorporated into the sport genre to date, many subsequent researchers have continued to neglect Tomlinson et al’s. (2005) concept, and have continued to mix the usage of different terms. There are however some commonalities that are shared by researchers who, although may not share the same use of terminology, seek to assign particular concepts to the specific activities.

Feeling and emotion

It is agreed by many researchers that their identification of ‘alternative to mainstream’ sports can firstly be identified by the sense of feeling and emotion that is obtained from the participant. This is explored both scientifically and sociologically by Booth and Thorpe (2007) who in their determination of ‘risk’ within ‘extreme’ sports, exemplify the physical ‘sensation of pleasure’ and social ‘rewards’ (2007: 183) that participating can bring. An example of such feelings is expressed in the description of Hang Gliding ‘an exercise in freedom. We even called ourselves free fliers. It was a Utopian vision of course but the romance of belonging to this sort of alternative flying community was a dream that I bought into without hesitation’ (Woodhams, 2017). This importance placed on the ‘outside of mainstream’ is couched in the sub-culture that is created through this distinction.

The notion of lifestyle sports being grounded in ideas surrounding traditional cultures and anthropology is supported by further sport specific research. In her work on the examination of windsurfers, Wheaton (1997) talks about participants seeking ‘hedonism, freedom and self-expression’ (1997:76); personal enjoyment and fulfilment are other characteristics that

are found by other researchers and participants (Elsenberg, 2003; Humphreys, 2003; Beal and Weidman, 2003, Moore, 2009; Wheaton, 2010). These terms contribute to defining lifestyle sports in a manner which includes more than just the participation in the activity at its core. Lifestyle sports are often referred to as being highly individualistic, and infrequently team-based sports (Atkinson, 2010). Coakley (2007), in their expression of their 'pleasure and participation' sports, confirms this, with a defining element of their 'type' as 'a spirit of personal expression, enjoyment, growth, good health, and mutual concern among teammates and opponents' (2007: 103). This compounds the discussions of these activities being described as sports. But at the same time, allows the definition of lifestyle sports to be further understood.

Competition

Competition, and how competitiveness emerges in these sports, is also examined in the literature. The purpose for the coming together of individuals to participate is seen as social gatherings over competitive events (Beal, 1995; Midol et al., 1995; Willmott and Collins, 2015). This negates the need for competitive success seen in 'mainstream sports'. Furthermore, Booth and Thorpe (2007) express that 'devotees of extreme sports insist that their activities challenge the elitism fostered by established sports' (2007: 186). There again appears ambiguity in the usage of 'sport' to describe these activities, as a defining feature of 'sport' is;

'there must be a competitive framework, which requires:

- Specified, codified rules which constitute the activity' (Haywood et al., in Jennings, 2007: 12)

It is argued however that there is a form of 'competitive framework' present in lifestyle sports. For example, against oneself, evidenced with the introspective sense these sports create, and against the environment, whether that be a natural, such as water-based sports, or manmade one, such as parkour and skateboarding. Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest the competitiveness with others has only shifted to a new form; removed from direct rivalry-led competitiveness, to a competition sat within the cultural hierarchy of participation, linked to the use of physical space (Olivier, 2010). Surfing, even in its un-commodified form, experiences issues of localism (hostile behaviour over ownership of waves and breaks) (Wheaton, 2004b; Ormrod, 2007; Olivier, 2010), and the predetermined rules of engagement when waiting for a wave; those with the most skill have priority. Coakley (2007) defines competition within pleasure and participations sports as 'an emphasis on competing with others and defining opponents as partners who test skills' (2007: 103).

But this wholly non-competitive view of these alternative-to-mainstream sports is not supported unanimously. For example, Humphreys (1997) examines how the advent of snowboarding included a level of competition that was not present in the advent of other alternative sports, such as surfing (Humphreys, 1997). Furthermore, it is argued that while Ultimate Frisbee is referred to by its participants as 'reject(ing) and limit(ing) identifications with dominant sporting ideals' (Thornton, 2004: 175), the 'game' has a competitive nature, where points are scored, and a team or side can win.

Rules and Regulations

The issues surrounding rules and regulations are also discussed. This is led by the make-up of the sport itself, again suitably differentiated from mainstream sport by the removal of rules from the activities. One example of this is the consensus from researchers that referees

and/or strict rules of engagement and organisation are not applied in lifestyle sport culture and alternative sports (Midol et al., 1995; Beal and Weidman, 2003; Thornton, 2004). This echoes Dunning and Sheard's (2005) comparison of folk-games with modern sport; 'informal social control by the players themselves' (2005: 30). Values replacing rules has been said by many as indicative of the sport definition, coupled with the ability for individual freedom; 'is so free, there's no rules to what you can and can't do' (BBC, 2016a, 01:04) (in reference to street dancing). There are no official governing bodies or event organiser structures in their commodified settings (Rinehart, 2002; Beal and Weidman, 2003).

However, there is an internal locus of control that is observed through the participants of lifestyle sports which helps to develop a hierarchy based on experience. While Coakley (2007) defines pleasure and participations sports as having 'democratic decision-making structures characterised by cooperation and sharing power' (2007: 103), Donnelly and Young (1988), in their examination of individuals being accepted into sport sub-cultures, see individuals needing to affirm their authenticity in the sub-culture by their participation if they are new to the sub-culture, whereas more established members are free to show less enthusiasm and retain their hierarchical status (Donnelley and Young, 1988).

In paradox to this, many authors cite some lifestyle sports as being 'all inclusive', open to all (Thornton, 2004) and holding a 'mythical hierarchy' (Elsenberg, 2003:22) when referring to levels of skill and difficulty. For example, Hang Gliding is described as 'a sublime new sport that allows anybody, regardless of wealth or position, to gain access to aviation so easily' (Woodhams, 2017). A mixed view of lifestyle sports emerges, where the freedom and rule-free aspects promoted by the sports are contrasted with the closed, sub-cultural nuances that define the group of individuals.

While there may not necessarily be 'rules' within lifestyle sports activities, there are definite and strong codes that are far more reaching than that of a 'regular' sport. Examples can be seen in surfing; where the surfer's code is strongly adhered to in the act, but does not inhibit the individual from behaving and expressing independently as they chose (see Figure 9 below). This was examined by Beaumont (2011), and found to be a significant factor in the development of the surfer type; 'although a code of honour does not exist among Local Surfers, there is a strong sense of following surfing etiquette' (2011: 255). Other examples can be seen in Hang Gliding, where the concern for impact on others is considered;

In the defence of the landowners we have occasionally been known to trample crops, leave gates open, be rude when questioned by them and park cars without thought to the smooth running of an agricultural business (Woodhams, 2017)

Codes can be more reaching than just in the physical act itself, extending beyond with examples of movements such as Surfers Against Sewerage, an organisation dedicated to the protection and improvement of ocean spaces.

Figure 9 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Figure 9: The Surfer's Code (Source: Juanferpt, 2017).

[Sport Setting and Context](#)

The physical attributes of these lifestyle sports are another way in which they can be defined away from the mainstream. Many of the sports have been developed in line with a particular place setting, integrating the physical environment into the sport's development. This ultimately develops particular locations for which these sports can be participated in, as they rely on the environment for their participation. This can be seen in sports such as surfing, snow sports, climbing, and river/raft activities, where the natural environment is evaluated, and used as a tool in the sport activity. Other sports, such as skateboarding and parkour, utilise the man-made environment, whether made specifically for the purpose or not. But for those sports that do not require specific physical locations, there is still the notion of challenging the environment, or using the environment as 'a stage' in the creation of the sport activity.

Although the relationship with the natural environment invokes theories which suggest these sports were formed as part of historical evolution, there is also much debate that surrounds the idea that lifestyle sports are modern sports, with some argument that the development of 'alternative' sports has come as a result of the advent of time and cultural change. This is proposed by Midol et al. (1995) in their seminal examination of what they term 'whiz' sports. Again, related to culture, Midol et al. (1995) examine how 'culture has defined itself through the appearance of newly created objects' (1995: 207). The advent of board sports is perhaps one of the better examples of this, and of how new and emerging sports can be demonstrated to represent lifestyle sports.

Motivation

The literature presents a three-dimensional approach to understanding motivation in the sport context. In their research into what 'motivates' marathon runners, Ogles and Masters (2003) were able to define five discreet groups of participants, ranging from 'Running Enthusiasts' to 'Competitive Achievers'. What was striking from the research was although the groups could be defined based around 'demographic, training and performance variables' (2003: 69), individual motivations to participate were identified across all of the defined groups. In a study analysing the motivators for sprint distance triathletes, similar motivators in *personal goal achievement* were seen (Lovett, 2011). These sports, in not conforming to the traditional aspects of what is deemed 'lifestyle' sports as discussed above, have been overlooked in their participants for who the particular sport is about conforming to a lifestyle and not the 'traditional' competitive factor.

An area that appears to be significantly overlooked in the literature to date in helping to define lifestyle sports is the role of commitment to the activity. As lifestyle is described as a

holistic attitude, then the level of commitment to an activity would impact on the role it plays within one's lifestyle.

There is evidence however that the advent of lifestyle sports has led to the inclusion of more individuals into sports, particularly those who felt mainstream team sports were not for them (BBC, 2016). Coakley (2007) identifies that pleasure and participation sports support 'inclusive participation based on accommodating differences in physical skills among players' (2007: 103)

Risk

Because there is consensus that 'alternative' sports are participated in more for the sense of feeling than the competitive outcome itself, the 'risk factor' is another defining factor of many lifestyle sports. It is the individualistic, internal self, sense of wellbeing and happiness that these activities create that are of more relevance to the participant than the 'statistically' measured outcomes from the activity, which links this to traditional sports (see Bronikowska *et al.*, n.d). This is why, it is argued, a large part of 'alternative' sports are filled with extreme risk-taking; pursuing an activity away from the norm that is likely to give the individual a sense that they do not experience elsewhere (Breivik, 2010). Midol *et al.*'s. (1995) seminal work again documents this feeling by participants. The need for risk and adventure makes up the measurement for success in these sports as opposed to 'mainstream' sports in which success is measured in statistical outcome relative to a group. Alternative sport success is measured in individual pleasure, and therefore cannot be compared.

The paradox; commercial legitimacy or cultural paradise

There appears to be an uneasy linkage between the commercialised and non-commercialised interpretations of these activities. Wheaton (2004b) refutes that 'lifestyle sports are

fundamentally about participation, not spectating' (2004b: 140), whereas Booth and Thorpe (2007) summarise their need for conspicuousness that is integral to the sports; 'Regardless of the activity, visibility is a prerequisite of cultural legitimacy and status' (2007: 184). Outside of this, the commercial attention that these sports have engendered has without doubt elevated their presence and revealed insights into the sub-cultures. But there too are arguments against this, as participants of the sports themselves actively disagree with this; 'this media exposure is what enables me to write this chapter, yet it has nothing to do with why I ride or my values' (Downs, 2003). There in these two fundamental arguments lies one point of considerations for the 'naming' of such sports.

To address this argument, Atkinson's (2010) article attributes the development of these sports into themselves mainstream sports for the masses as a result of commercialisation, and are 'no longer authentically outsider activities' (Atkinson, 2010: 196). Ryan (2007, in Jennings, 2007) observes that 'the adoption of the sport by corporate entities reduced its appeal for some as an alternative lifestyle' (2007: 104). And while Wheaton's (2004b) commentary on the increase in recognition of and participation in 'alternative' sports supports the need for more investigation into the field, it is argued this view also adds weight to Atkinson's (2010) argument for the movement of the sports away from their original lifestyle grounding. This can be seen in the integration of such sports into the Olympic games, as Willmott and Collins (2015) identify 'Olympic inclusion legitimizes sports' (2015: 1245). In analysing the inclusion of freeskiing and snowboarding into the Olympics, Willmott and Collins (2015) analyse how this has shifted these sports into the 'mainstream'. Willmott and Collins (2015) identifies 'clear splits in the social fabric' (2015: 1249) as sports have developed in response to their Olympic inclusion, where the pressure to improve and progress is ever

greater, opposite to their initial sub-cultural settings where individuality and non-competitive factors are more highly valued.

As a result of the discussions above, the idea develops that perhaps what *was* deemed to be a 'lifestyle' sport can mature and develop, through means such as commercialisation, that transform it from an 'alternative' sport to a 'mainstream' sport (see Ryan, 2007, in Jennings, 2007 commenting on the development of surfing and windsurfing). Wheaton (2004b) argues the need for more investigation into this area, but firstly Rinehart (2002; 2003) went some way to theorizing a cycle of emerging sports in terms of their status within society, from emerging to mainstream. Whether or not sports deemed 'lifestyle' sit at a particular point on that cycle, and whether the interpretation is much more down to the individual, lacks discussion.

Rinehart (2003) does challenge how this can be applied to all emerging sports however, citing snowboarding and in-line skating as two different examples of how 'new' sports entered the market; 'snowboarding a mainstream sport with oppositional factions, and in-line skating a marginalized sport clamouring for mainstream status' (2003: 47). Ryan (2007, in Jennings, 2007) echoes this view of snowboarding using Humphrey's (1997) work on the sport, where its advent within the mainstream helped to create its lifestyle philosophies. This points to the suggestion that the sports themselves, seen superficially as homogeneous counter-cultural movements, can in fact involve multiple groups within them, based on the choices made with regards to competition.

Segmentation and heterogeneity of the sports

Some of what may be defined by Rinehart (2002; 2003) as developed lifestyle sports can demonstrate these sorts of paradoxes, separating further the context in which lifestyle sport

activities reside. In analysing the development of Australian beaches, Booth (2001) evidences the beginnings of a separation between the counter-culturally led surf culture, and an emergent commercialised surf culture that emerged from surfing competitions. Booth (2001) evidences this unease; 'early advocates of professionalism...had to convince ordinary surfers that professionalism would not undermine the cultural essence of soul-surfing' (2001: 124). Particular notice is taken in the vocabulary use of "ordinary surfers" in this statement; this compounds the segmentation of the groups of individuals who participate in the sport.

Further to the development of a competitive faction of surfing, Booth (2001) explores how the sport retained its sub-cultural backing by inviting participants to organised events based on their 'reputation' within the sport, and not physical attainments (2001: 125), and continued to portray what would not be considered by mainstream sports as fair and equal methods of selection and participation.

Thompson (2015) provides an alternative view to that of Booth (2001), whereby, instead of needing to convince the counter-cultural movement of the benefits of 'selling their soul to the commercial devil', the industry of surfing has been opened up so that 'athletes, business people, or simply stoked surfers, to make a living out of it' (Thompson, 2015: 76). This echoes to some degree thoughts by many researchers who have challenged the notion that commercialisation of the sports has been a bad thing; an example is shown in Edward and Corte's (2010) research which divides types of commercialisation that are observed within the BMX culture.

There appears to be some academic literature however which seeks to definitively position certain sports under the banner of 'lifestyle'. This is further related to the work by Rinehart and Sydnor (2003), who provide us with the concept of the emergent and development ideas

of sport; and that at no one place in time can these sports be represented in a lifestyle context forever, as commercialisation seeks to take over and change them. However, Rinehart and Sydnor (2003) comment on the difficulty for these unique cultures to retain their niche ethos; 'There is an irony to the extreme sports that 'authentic', alternative, 'pure', avant-garde, forms quickly become mainstream and 'corrupted'' (2003:10). Booth (2001) tracks the evolution of participation in surfing to include a professional competitive demographic that 'an avenue to eternal hedonism and a source of social economic reward' (2001: 127). This evidences the beginnings of an opportunity for individuals to capitalise on their activities to encompass a work life as well as a leisure pursuit.

Another way to look at how lifestyle sports are defined can be through how they are consumed; with the focus being on the participants' interpretation. If we suggest that one of the defining elements of the lifestyle sport is the connection to the physical geographical environment, then the emergence of the 'indoorisation' of outdoor sports (van Bottenburg and Salome, 2010) may not be considered lifestyle sports. But as the study reveals, many of the lifestyle sports have been made into indoor sports.

The Identity of the lifestyle sport partaker

Beaumont's (2011) work into the typologies within surfing culture (a sport seen by many as indicative of the lifestyle sport culture of South East Cornwall) provides great insight into how these sports, or rather their participants, can be subdivided;

It is at this point that the Local Surfers experience of surfing is focused upon and a conclusion drawn as to whether they experience surfing as a sport or pursuit. Sport is characterised by a competitive element which places itself in opposition to the

Local Surfer who has little or no involvement with competition (Beaumont, 2011: 138).

This notion of types of surfers based on their view of the activity is further highlighted by Barbieri and Sotomayor (2013), who identify segmentation in the market, and further consider this in terms of these different groups' preferences toward the consumption of their sport (Sotomayor and Barbieri, 2016). Further groups are identified by Moutinho et al. (2007) as non-participants who still engage with the culture of the activity through brands and fashion.

The groups described by Moutinho et al., (2007), and others above highlight the significance that identity constructs have on supporting the definition of these groups. Social Identity Theory presents a clear avenue to support this, as it allows the individual to categorise themselves in relation to social settings (Stets and Burke, 2000). This creates a sense of resemblance with others which leads to the development of an 'in-group' and 'out-group'. Many writers describe individuals' alignment to sport as supporting an identity construction through affiliation (see MacClancey, 1996; Weiss, 2001), placing individuals into the 'in-group' by conforming to the culture of the sports.

Murnieks et al (2020), observing the work of Goffman (1959) and Hoang and Gimeno (2010), state that 'enactment of an identity and its associated activities often requires legitimation from the observed reactions of other people'. This relates to Beaumont's (2011) findings of the surfer's career, in particular the 'nurturing' stage

Conceptualising lifestyle sports

In coming to some conclusion on how which sports should be included in the definition, Tomlinson *et al.* (2005), accumulating and developing the work of Keeling (2003), Rinehart

(2000) and Anderson (1996), developed Figure 10 below of those sports which they felt could be described as lifestyle.

Figure 10 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Figure 10: Tomlinson *et al*'s (2005) accrual and categorisation of lifestyle sports (Source: Tomlinson et al. (2005: 19-20).

The development of this table by Tomlinson et al. (2005) represents their attempt to demonstrate the categorisation of lifestyle sports from their parent or family sport. They describe this as 'many of the activities listed have well-established and regulated conventional forms, out of which new lifestyle activities have been carved' (Tomlinson et al. 2005: 19). This supports the previously identified view of Beaumont (2011) of the ways in which sports can have multiple approaches and therefore meanings to their participants.

Based on these findings, it was concluded by the researcher that the ways in which Tomlinson et al (2005) had categorise the lifestyle sports would be the most appropriate way to approach collection of data. The principle investigation would be focussed on the family and species types identified in the first instance. There is however the concern that by restraining the investigation to such types, there may be the possibility of missing out on data and information. Therefore, some flexibility should be allowed in the ability for individuals to be able to express how they view their chosen sport to conform to a lifestyle activity, again supporting the view of Beaumont (2011).

Summary

This chapter has captured a range of dimensions commonly used to describe lifestyle sports, and at the same time has highlighted the complexity that surrounds how they can be defined. There are many factors which illustrate the duality that the terminology can have. For example, the superficial understanding of competition is that lifestyle sports are non-competitive, and challenge the notion of competitiveness (Booth and Thorpe, 2007). The cultural segmentation of a number of these sports highlights unspoken hierarchies and codes

of practice that are adhered to (see for example Beaumont, 2011 on surfing, and Woodhams, 2017 on Hang Gliding).

The indicative message appears to be situated within the participants' lived experiences of the activity. While it is unhelpful to suggest that only the participant can determine if the practice of an activity is sport or part of a lifestyle, culminating the discussions above suggests there is an alternative view. If the 'sport' in its competitive capacity is of little value or interest to the individual, but the encompassing lifestyle is of great value, then that sport can be said to be a lifestyle.

Set within this, it appears some form of a decision needs to be made as to whether lifestyle sports are created for the mass market, observational media market, or whether they fundamentally lie in the lived experiences and life-shaping contexts that they create. While the ideas of lifestyle sport being described by a sub-culture are valid representations of the differences of that and the mainstream, there are suitable arguments to suggest the reasons for these sub-cultures are fluid and changing. Historical evidence suggests the emergence of some of the sports ascribed to in the lifestyle sports matrix have come about as a result of defiance or counter-cultural movements. The researcher therefore believes it is the latter that truly describes lifestyle sports, although the former has a direct hand in shaping the industry.

[Reviewing the Lifestyle Entrepreneurship in Lifestyle Sport literature](#)

Identifying Lifestyle entrepreneurs within the lifestyle sports industry is difficult. The first point of interest is that after reading the literature on the meaning of 'lifestyle', not many of the current lifestyle entrepreneurship studies to date have looked at what lifestyle actually

means to the participants of their studies, and instead have taken the phrase as a term defined by other authors with little insight into its meaning, or have not considered the meaning at all.

Ratten (2018) comes close to a suggestion of how the two areas are interlinked by discussing athlete entrepreneurs;

Some athlete entrepreneurs are interested in their lifestyles and pursue business ventures around certain themes that fit with their own ideologies. This helps provide a motive for innovations that is in line with personal goals. (Ratten, 2018: 56)

It is argued that what Ratten (2018) refers to here is the lifestyle entrepreneur orientation.

Given the interaction with the environment and nature discussed in the definitions above, lifestyle sports are often entrenched in a specific location or environment. A good example of this is surfing, which relies on coastal locations. To this end and in line with the augmentation of the lifestyle sports discussed, whole localities emerge from these sites; creating a hub where these sub-cultural activities are performed. Edward and Corte (2000) examine this most closely within their work on the BMX 'Pro town'. In their study, they open the concept of the lifestyle sport emerging and developing lines away from its niche inception, to form further lines of development to which other groups of individuals can subscribe. This is evaluated through their use of three types of commercialisation that have resulted, focussing on different aspects or groups that engage with the sport of BMXing, identified in Table 3 below.

Table 3 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Table 3. Three forms of commercialisation (Source: Edwards and Corte, 2010: 1142)

Without having a clear definition of who lifestyle entrepreneurs are, or how they can be identified through particular traits, characteristics or behaviours as prescribed by ‘regular’ entrepreneurship definitions, it is difficult to ascertain who they are within the context of a specific industry, in this case lifestyle sports. In analysing the handful of studies that have so far focussed on lifestyle entrepreneurship within the lifestyle sports sector, the literature review has demonstrated that it is not clear how the process of identification occurred, at least not in any detail; for example in identifying their population, Marchant and Mottiar (2011) drew on all surf tourism businesses within their target area and ‘those matching the characteristics of a lifestyle entrepreneur were interviewed’ (2011: 8), and Beaumont et al., (2016) again targeted all surfing related businesses in their target area, before asking ‘a series

of initial questions' to find only the lifestyle entrepreneurs. The sampling criteria of Al-Dajani's (2009) study did not refer to any particular lifestyle characteristics. Pinning down exactly what these 'characteristics' and 'initial questions' were was lacking from these papers, and so does not aid the reader in understanding a clear identification process. Furthermore, this is highlighted by Dale (2006) as causing an inherent problem with subsequent analysis with survey designs which neglect clear sampling frames. It can therefore only be assumed that the 'hard data' of restricted growth, and 'soft data' of lifestyle values, were used.

Lifestyle entrepreneurship studies in lifestyle sports to date have been addressed by those in the tourism discipline (Altejevic and Doorne, 2000; Marchant and Mottiar, 2011), with many more studies choosing to focus on lifestyle entrepreneurship only (Shaw and Williams, 1987, 1998, 2004; Bredvold and Skålen, 2016). There are clearly therefore strong links between the tourism industry and the lifestyle sports sector; there is identification from current research that the tourism product is changing; a move away from the 'mass market' tourism appeal to an experience-based one (Stamboulis and Skayannis, 2003), couched in the fractured needs and wants of different generations of consumers (Hjalager, 2010). This augmented product offering now encapsulates in part the commercialised lifestyle sport sector.

Some research also appears to represent lifestyle entrepreneurship without itself identifying itself as such. Helgadóttir and Sigurdardóttir (2008) examined the owners and operators of horse-based tourism businesses, and observed their lack of business interest, focus on equestrian culture, and quality measures based around the equestrianism. The researchers however do not describe their participants as lifestyle entrepreneurs. This represents how the literature on this subject appears not to be joined up in its understanding and interpretation of these types of entrepreneurs.

After examining the lifestyle sports industry, this deepens the debate on how they can be identified and who the participants and consumers are. This revelation calls for the segmentation of the sports to be addressed through future research, as particular focus on lifestyle sports will allow for how the tourism industry interacts with this concept; focussing on what types of business enterprises are developed. Furthermore, more analysis in future research is needed to determine the influence of the two industries; tourism and lifestyle sports, and how they interact.

How lifestyle entrepreneurs are identified appears to be a further area for research; a closer inspection and more informed way of identifying these individuals is needed in order to shape our understanding further from the superficial identification based on attitudes towards growth and profit maximisation strategies. As an example, the ways in which these individuals present themselves through their enterprises (the extension of oneself through the business, or one's self-image) does not appear to be a method that has been used to examine these individuals. Furthermore, as the nexus between the sport and 'lifestyle' involves intrinsic values that define the business, the legitimacy of such orientation has not been examined or questioned. It is proposed here that the notion of lifestyle can be seen to be used as a marketing tool, perhaps presenting itself through what the researcher would like to term 'lifestyle washing'; that is in a similar usage to the already utilised term of 'green washing' where 'a company or organization spends more time and money claiming to be "green" through advertising and marketing than actually implementing business practices' (EnviroMedia, 2016).

There are, from evaluations above, clear links with greater implications than just the shared use of the term 'lifestyle' that permeate both lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sport, in

terms of stereotyping, judgement, and research opportunities. These similarities are highlighted in Table 4 below, and further the argument for research to be useful in studying these subjects together.

Theme	Lifestyle Entrepreneurship	Lifestyle Sport
Lifestyle	A subset of traditional entrepreneurship	A subset of sport
Social inclusion and society	Strong arguments (Shane, 2009, Morris <i>et al.</i> , 2015a) for and against the contribution made to society, and those that say it does more harm than good.	Ideas supporting the advent of the counter cultural movement, of deviant youth, of deliberate removal from society, versus the inclusivity and promotion of activities to all.
Traits and characteristics of participants	Risk taking and opportunity exploration	Risk taking
Involvement in one's life	Work permeates the work life balance, work is life	Principal definition is that the activity permeates every facet of your life.
Lack of regulation	Evidence suggests that LE's cannot or will not (Massey <i>et al.</i> , 2006) access support systems through government schemes.	The sports are not regulated. LS have a defining feature by many as having no sporting governing body.
Gender	Smith (1967) on gendered stereotyping of men as entrepreneurs	Cultural and physical equality politics within sports, hegemonic approaches to sports cultures

Table 4. Similarities of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports

Chapter Summary

In concluding the literature review, there are a number of unanswered questions left within the areas of lifestyle entrepreneurship, and lifestyle sports. Key themes that have emerged, and have yet to be settled, highlight the complexity of the subject areas, as well as the ever-

changing environment in which these subjects are studied in. It is now the intention of the researcher to set out the contribution that is made to this area of research by highlighting the areas of research pursued, and how this was achieved.

The literature review has permitted the identification of key themes of lifestyle, entrepreneurship, and lifestyle sport. The chapter has covered a significant amount of research in these areas, and these can be linked through a conceptualisation shown in Figure 9 below. This has centred on the relationships between work, lifestyle, and sport. Where these three areas intersect, the notion of lifestyle entrepreneurship within lifestyle sports can be identified as an area of research. Ancillary to this are the intersections of work and lifestyle, lifestyle and sport, and sport and work raise areas of discussion.

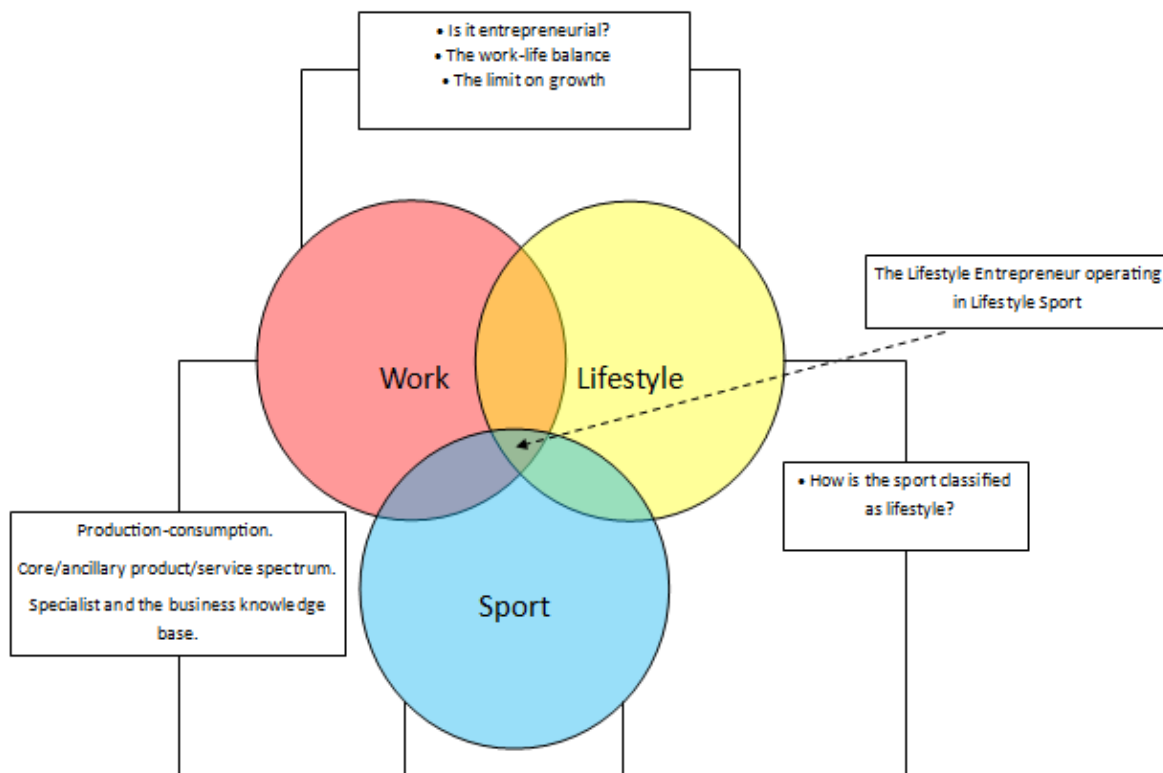


Figure 11. The area of research (Source: Author’s own)

Now that the literature has been investigated, the researcher has identified the landscape of the research through the conceptual framework and research rationale. This will be described below.

The conceptual framework

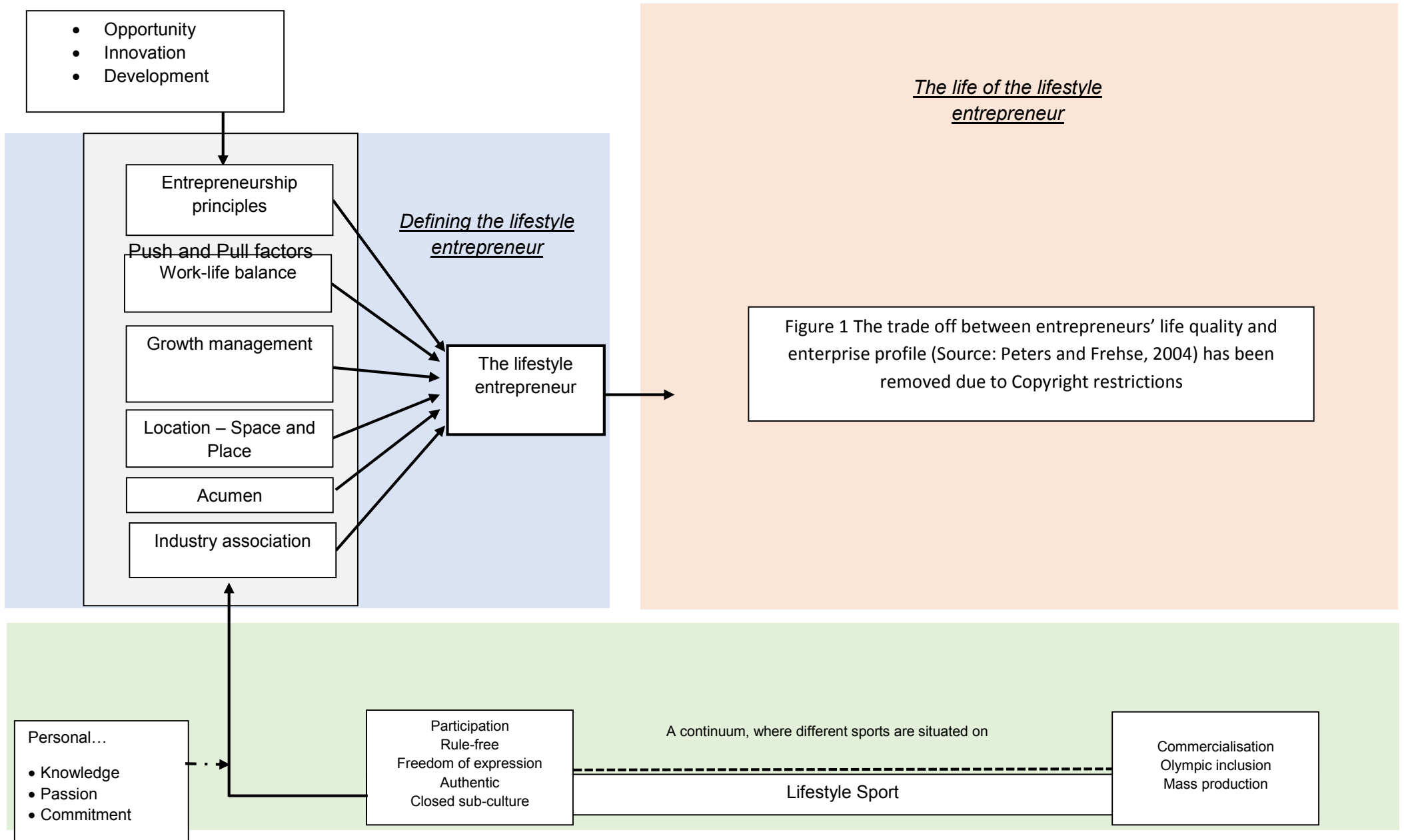
The conceptual framework that follows has been developed based on the findings of the review of the lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports literature. It illustrates the relationships between the three key areas of lifestyle, sports, and the entrepreneur.

The purpose of the conceptual framework is two-fold. It both demonstrates the literary connections to date summarised in the research findings, but also provides a suitable framework upon which to build a methodology for the study. Although conceptual frameworks often emerge from the data collected if undertaking a qualitative approach to the research, by putting a preliminary framework in place to guide the 'inexperienced' researcher through their research (Miles and Huberman, 1994), the research process can be supported by the focus on concepts. Furthermore, Yin (1994) indicates that qualitative research can benefit from the use of the conceptual framework being utilised at the beginning of the research process to enable 'explanation building'.

The entrepreneurial processes identified in the current literature focus on how entrepreneurs plan, start and develop their entrepreneurial journeys. This is succinctly described through Marcketti et al's. (2006) interpretation of the Input-Throughput-Output model, and Ardicvili et al's. (2003) opportunity identification and development theory. The conceptual framework here builds on these two key frameworks identified through the literature review, to also incorporate the current understanding of the lifestyle entrepreneur, through the integration of Glancey et al's (1998) dynamics of entrepreneurs.

The conceptual framework demonstrates the different aspects of the literature on lifestyle entrepreneurship, and lifestyle sports. The researcher has used the assessment of the literature to conceptualise how lifestyle entrepreneurs are 'formed' through what influences, and how they then go on to operate their businesses. These factors are grouped according to the literature, and themes that result.

The lifestyle entrepreneur model **Figure 12. The conceptual framework (Author's own)**



The research rationale

Despite the importance of lifestyle sports to the lifestyle entrepreneurship phenomenon, there has been little research in this field. The research inquiry therefore is *to explore the intersection of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports*. This will be considered through three research questions which have been derived from the literature review.

The issue of ambiguity in defining who lifestyle entrepreneurs are is clear from the literature. The literature has revealed that lifestyle entrepreneurship can be defined in many different ways. While some authors view lifestyle entrepreneurship to be a typology from within the entrepreneurship framework within its own right, others view it not to be entrepreneurial at all. The conceptual framework demonstrates from the research identified the factors that can contribute, and are considered, before lifestyle entrepreneurship is pursued, but can be contradictory.

It is considered by the researcher that the literature reviewed does not offer a definition that encompasses the complexity of the issue of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports. While it is understood by the researcher that this is not an easy task, from the literature the researcher has been able to make a definition on the parameters of both phenomena which highlights a substantive gap in the understanding of how the two phenomena converge. With this in mind, the first research question to be investigated will be *how can lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports be identified?*

The second research question will be *what factors affect the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneur and how are these negotiated?* Much of the lifestyle entrepreneurship research has focussed on why individuals have chosen to specifically operate within the parameters that are now understood to characterise a lifestyle entrepreneur, and has focussed on a point

in the person's career. This is perhaps driven by the cross-sectional nature of many of the research projects examined. There has been a lack of work however in addressing the specific environmental factors and drivers behind why lifestyle entrepreneurship has been pursued.

The final research question draws on the previous two to address *how does the context of lifestyle sport impact upon the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs that exist?* Based on the limited research that has identified the heterogeneous nature of lifestyle entrepreneurs, and further specified work which has begun to unpick the differences of lifestyle entrepreneurs, this is viewed as a much needed continuation of this work. This is in particular response to Bredvold and Skalen's (2016) calls to develop their model further through both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Chapter Summary

Drawing on literature in the areas of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports, this chapter provided a conceptualisation that brings together these two related, and yet also distinct bodies of knowledge. Through the interpretation of this conceptualisation, the researcher aims to offer an enhanced conceptual understanding of the application of lifestyle entrepreneurship to lifestyle sports which will result in a more nuanced understanding of lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports. The following chapter will explain the methodological approach taken in addressing the research questions highlighted above.

Chapter 2. Methodology and Research Strategy

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to address how data was collected in order to answer the research questions. The approach to data collection in this study was formed through appreciating the researcher's perspective on research, as well as the requirements of the research questions. It is therefore important to address the question of "how" by exploring the options available to the researcher on how they could have gone about collecting the data needed to answer the questions posed.

The methodology chapter allows for the researcher to take a moment to reflect on how their choices as an individual impact on the form that the research ultimately takes. This is addressed through the choices of paradigm and research philosophy. Based on these considerations, the pragmatic approach was selected and used as the approach to the research, following an explanatory sequential method of data collection through a questionnaire and interviews. The chapter will address how these decisions were made.

Further to this, practical issues of what data was collected, and through which methods, are discussed. Focussing on these points will allow the researcher to present a clear research strategy, which will focus on delivering a comprehensive evaluation of valid and reliable research.

In order to achieve this, the researcher drew upon Saunders *et al.*'s (2016) approach to addressing these elements of the research process, expressed through their "Research Onion":

Figure 13 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Figure 13. The Research 'Onion'. Saunders et al. (2015), cited in Saunders et al. 2016: 124

The research onion shows how reasoning for the data collection phase should be formed of many stages, starting from the outside of the 'onion', where the philosophy is chosen, through to the approach and methodology, before the strategy and finally method techniques are decided upon (Saunders et al. 2016). It is the opinion of some researchers that there should be a clear link between the philosophy selected, approach, and methodology; 'your paradigm is closely linked to your **research design**, which refers to the choices you will make in terms of the **methodology** and methods that you will use to address your research question(s)' (emphasis original) (Collis and Hussey, 2014: 59). This reiterates Saunders et al's research 'onion' approach to organising the research agenda, and begins to indicate relationships between the stages of strategic development.

It is important to address however the underlying purpose of the research, which will drive the strategy for data collection. This study has adopted an explanatory stance; 'establish[ing] causal relationships between variables' (Saunders et al. 2009: 140). This chapter will firstly

address the philosophy upon which the study will be based, followed by the choices and strategies that will be used. Finally, the physical data collection methods that were used will be evaluated and discussed.

The Philosophy and Paradigm of enquiry

The unique nature of the research supports the requirement for a detailed discussion of the paradigm of enquiry. It is even more critical given the context of the work which is a new piece of research. 'A paradigm is a way of looking at or researching phenomena...a way of pursuing knowledge...what problems are to be investigated and how to investigate them' (Cohen *et al*, 2011: 5), and can also be described as the 'philosophical worldview' of the researcher (Creswell, 2014). While researchers conclude that not one philosophical position is necessarily superior to another (Saunders *et al*. 2009), it is important to ascertain the researcher's personal approach, interpretation of research, and the wider world, and how these interplay with the research phenomenon. Furthermore, the paradigm sets the scene for how the research will be conducted, as discussed by Creswell (2014); 'these factors will often lead to embracing a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approach' (2014: 6). It is argued that this produces the rigour for the research, as shall be discussed.

In ascertaining the paradigm, there are a number of features that support its formation. These include variations on ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology for a number of researchers (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000; Sadelowski, 2000, in Pansiri, 2009). A commonality in these approaches is surrounded by two themes. Firstly, the understanding of the researcher's views of the world are addressed through the ideas of ontology. Secondly, the understanding of how individuals interact with society. These are addressed through interpretations of how individuals develop within society (Archer, 2000);

whether they are or are not influenced by society, and to what extent (Archer, 2000). The paradigm should therefore address these beliefs and support them in a methodological approach that is tolerant of the researcher's view point.

In analysing the approach to research in the social sciences, Somekh, 2005 (in Somekh and Lewin, 2005: 2) addresses the innovation of social sciences, and raises the notion that their inception was an alternative response to natural science research. This directly echoes the view that interpretivism appeared in response to positivism; challenging the concept. Although Saunders et al. (2009) stipulate that one approach is no better than the other, Somekh, 2005 (in Somekh and Lewin, 2005) question the extent to which this view is shared in the research community, stating research practices currently reside in 'a world where status is not accorded equally to different research methodologies' (2005: 2). The paradigms create a complex system of allowing researchers to state their belief position, but at the same time these researchers are then 'polarized' (Somekh, 2005, in Somekh and Lewin, 2005). This creates a division in the paradigms and associated research processes.

To complicate matters further, while it is understood to be the view of many researchers that several 'world views' cannot be held by one person at the same time (Pansiri, 2005), Pansiri (2005) explores that as a result paradigms are chosen based on 'the extent to which one agrees with its basic assumptions' (2005: 195), and may not fully embrace the researchers 'world view'; rather, it is only the closest fit.

The ontological positioning of the researcher is the primary indication of how the research orientation can be defined. It is the starting point for many researchers to address their research positioning. The ontology is determined by the connection between the subject and object in the research environment; whether they are deemed to be mutually exclusive or

interdependent. Because it addresses the fundamental question of the researcher's view of reality (Saunders et al. 2009), it is the starting point for understanding the research position that is taken, and is described by either objectivity or subjectivity (Saunders et al. 2009). It is believed that the researcher would affiliate themselves to one of two positions; either objective or subjective.

With the understanding that a particular group being researched (referred to by Saunders *et al.*, (2009) as social entities) behave autonomously and so can be examined in the confines of their existence, the researcher would take an objective view. However, if they are of the opinion that the social entities are influenced, behave independently and differently when presented with the same situation, and are in a constant state of unpredictability, then the subjectivist viewpoint is of more concern. This echoes Archer's (2000) examination of the understanding of social actors.

It is critical that the ontological positioning of the researcher is established prior to the development of the research methodology as it is fundamental in its design and implications for interpretation of the data collected. When considering the context of the research, it is clear that a large amount of supporting evidence that will contribute to answering the research questions will come from the interpretations of both how the entrepreneurs view their world, and how the researcher does. There also needs to be an appreciation that by selecting multiple locations and individuals for recruitment of participants, their situations are likely to be diverse and unique. These two factors support a subjective ontological positioning.

The epistemology requires the researcher to analyse how they perceive the world around them, with reference to the relationships held between the research and researcher. The

position of the researcher in the area can be cited along a scale as to how much influence and relationship the researcher has with the research. That is, the research and the researcher are linked in such a way that that reality of the situation is constructed between them both, or that they are independent. While it is the tradition of the positivist perspective that reality is external and predefined, House (1994) states that;

The interpretivist tradition, on the other hand, is correct to point out that the social sciences deal with a preinterpreted reality that is already understood through the concepts of intentional social actors, through material similar to that in which researchers will grasp it (House, 1994: 16)

Considering the subject at hand; with the research having a significant influence from historical positioning, there is influence from the critical theory perspective. It is deemed by the researcher however that this historical context can only be subjectively understood by the researcher; this may have different meanings or interpretations to another. Moreover, the influence that this historical context that the phenomenon resides within cannot be escaped within future research (Howell, 2013).

It is at this point that an appreciation for the positioning of the researcher should be established. Referring to 'Academic Tribes', Down (2010) makes reference to the necessity to understand the background of the researcher before understanding their interpretations. Where the researcher has a principle influence in the research, the social constructivist view from an epistemological position of co-creation. Because of this, the researcher is inevitably subjective in their work, through a reflexive approach (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). This firstly supports the subjective view that the research could take; linking the co-creation of outcomes from the researcher and researched. Axiology, which addresses values, plays a further divisive

role in the distinguishability of which research paradigm to choose (Lincoln and Guba, in Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). Cohen *et al.*, (2011) demonstrate this, as through the appreciation of personal beliefs 'this view moves us beyond regarding research methods as simply a technical exercise and as concerned with understanding the world' (2011: 3). It allows the researcher to consider beyond practical terms what the paradigm choice means to the research, and it is for these reasons that the researcher adopts the pragmatic approach in their data collection

Pragmatism

After appraising the different views that are expressed through philosophical positioning, the researcher ideologies of research led them to take a pragmatic approach. The pragmatism concept satisfied the researcher's need to be able to adjust their approach to different research situations, and adapt to the necessities of the project in order to succeed in reliable data collection and results. This was of particular relevance to the chosen study, as given the complex and dynamic nature of both the subject and the participants, the researcher felt that the pragmatic approach offered them the best opportunity to capture data in an authentic way.

While the arguments persist regarding the paradigm consequences of taking a mixed methods approach, the approach can perhaps be linked to pragmatism. As a philosophy, pragmatism attracts a mixed reception from the research community on its legitimacy. Whether it exists as a philosophy at all is a contentious issue, and is therefore firstly something that needs to be addressed. Secondly, its relationship with the mixed methods approach, and the misrepresentation that links pragmatism with mixed methods is described. Clarification of

these points will allow the researcher to rationalise the appropriateness of the pragmatic approach to the research proposed.

In its basic form, pragmatism is used to describe a position of researchers who view that consideration of the research question is more important than the philosophical world view (Saunders et al., 2009). Some researchers utilise pragmatism as a vehicle to support the mixed methods approach to research, where both quantitative and qualitative research methods are used. There are however several issues with this interpretation, not least that the jump is made very quickly to the link with the mixed method methodology.

There are two arguments to address with the concept of pragmatism as a paradigm. Firstly, Saunders et al., (2009) state that pragmatism makes it 'possible to work within both positivist and interpretivist positions' (2009: 598). This underlines the current misrepresentation of pragmatism as not featuring as a research paradigm in its own right; instead facilitating a mixed methods approach. It does however demonstrate the premise of the pragmatic approach. Secondly, an alternative view to this is that pragmatism deliberately avoids the paradigmatic concepts of 'truth' and 'reality' (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998), and the 'philosophy of knowledge approach...research in terms of ontology, epistemology and methodology' (Morgan, 2014: 1) all together, again highlighting the argument that pragmatism does not represent a paradigm. These two points will be discussed.

For some writers, the idea that more than one 'world view' can be held is wrong; that by not addressing a specific preference towards a positivistic or interpretivist way of thinking, a philosophical approach is not in fact taken. There is some scope for addressing this concern, as many researchers have sought to work backwards in effect to justify the use of pragmatism as a philosophy in its own right, and not purely a vehicle to support the mixed methods

approach. Although it is thought by the researcher that a mixed methods approach would be useful for the research questions posed, it is not the view that this automatically means that a pragmatic approach should be taken.

Reference is made back to Guba and Lincoln's (1994) view that different methods can be used with either philosophical approach. While it may be suggested that taking the pragmatic approach avoids adopting a position on truth and reality, as developed through an understanding of the ontology and epistemology, advocates of the approach suggest that this does not present a problem as the outcomes of the research are the important factors. This is addressed by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998); 'pragmatists consider the research question to be more important than either the method they use or the worldview that is supposed to underlie the method' (1998: 21).

As Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) state that 'method is secondary to the research question itself, and the underlying worldview hardly enters the picture' (1998: 21), it is possible to conclude that pragmatism does not consist of a philosophical position. However, they go on to state their surprise at the lack of identification of pragmatism as a paradigm, given that the paradigms of positivism and constructivism 'do not exhaust the paradigmatic possibilities' (1998: 22).

It is the belief that methods can be utilised with either paradigm (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Morgan, 2014), and are not confined to either qualitative or quantitative approaches. Where Guba and Lincoln (1994) view that 'both qualitative and quantitative methods may be used appropriately with any research paradigm' (1994: 105), they are still clear in their view that the researcher's philosophical position should be of primary importance when considering the research project (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Saunders et al., (2009) cite Guba and Lincoln's

(1994) positioning to be at odds with a researcher who considers the research question - the fundamental element of the research project - to be of primary importance, stating that 'choosing between one position and the other is somewhat unrealistic in practice' (2009: 109).

It is this choice of terminology of 'practice' that Saunders et al. use that is important within the context of understanding pragmatism. For many writers, using pragmatism is best described as adopting a 'what works' attitude (Morgan, 2014 citing Dewey 1920/2008; Creswell, 2014 citing Patton 1990; Cherryholmes, 1992); being more appreciative of problem solving, and considering an applied approach to a research problem. It is therefore appreciated that 'pragmatism appears to be the best paradigm for justifying the use of mixed method and mixed model studies' (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998: 29).

It is at this point that it is valuable to be very clear on the debate that is being addressed. Sitting with the debate on pragmatism is a long residing conflict over the use of mixed methods as a course for research investigation. In a similar way, this is a long running debate with its advocates and adversaries. What can confuse the reader however is when pragmatism and mixed methods are drawn together to be examined.

Pragmatism addresses the debate between the "tough minded" empiricist, fact based, scientific, and the "tender minded" optimistic idealist (Hookway, 2013). It allows for research to be conducted from the viewpoint that in order to be successful, an open perspective in the way the world is viewed should be used. Where the research is exploratory, ground breaking or alternative, it is argued that the comprehensive approach that pragmatism advocates allows the researcher to actively complete the research.

Where there is scepticism over the approach due to its lack of paradigmatic value and clear 'merging' of methods (Smith and Heshusis, 1986), its ability to allow 'a very practical and applied research philosophy' (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998: 30) means that the approach is focussed on the requirements of the study. Some researchers view the paradigmatic approach as a modern inception and approach to more rounded research studies; those that are influenced by history, culture and policy (Morgan, 2014).

Methodological Choices

There are several choices presented to the researcher in which methodological approach they take, but can be broadly described as to whether the researcher wants to take a single or multiple-method approach to the study, and whether a quantitative or qualitative, or combination approach, should be used (Saunders et al. 2016).

While the differences of a quantitative and qualitative can be seen by their relationship to interpretive or positive paradigms; 'Quantitative research is generally associated with positivism' (Saunders et al. 2016: 166), the opinion of some researchers is that there is a level of fluidity in these relationships; 'both quantitative and qualitative methods may be used appropriately with any research paradigm' (Guba and Lincoln, 1994: 105). This suggests that the methods can be tailored to suit the paradigm being followed. Furthermore, issues are raised in the mixing of methods, and how this relates to the ontological and epistemological stances of the researcher.

Underpinning and shaping these methodological choices however are fundamental principles of reliability, replication and internal and external validity (Bryman, 2012), which when identified contribute to the robustness of the research project delivered. The practicalities of how these can be delivered in a quantitative element of the study are reasonably straight-

forward to explain, however identifying these principles in qualitative and mixed methods approaches to research can be complex. Where validity identifies the clarity of representation in the research (Hussey and Hussey, 1997), the rationale for a mixed or multi method approach is validated.

The researcher took both qualitative and quantitative approaches to the data collection within the study. The qualitative aspects of the study included open ended questions within the questionnaire, other questions which were analysed qualitatively, and the interviews. Qualitative data analysis is focussed on the words and phrases that participants use (Bryman, 2008), and the description that is used. Gratton and Jones (2010) highlight the discussions surrounding the management of rigour in this approach, and the issues of reliability and validity within the qualitative research aspects.

As reliability 'has to do with the 'reproducibility' of the result' (Corbetta, 2003: 81), it is important to recognise the difficulty that can be present in applying this to qualitative research. To this end, the researcher applied strategies to manage this, and also has explained the limitations in terms of generalisability. Validity of the research is also of key importance to the researcher, as it demonstrates the truthfulness of the research (Quinlan et al, 2015). This is supported by the reflexive process that the researcher took, and shall be described in the section below on the procedures of data collection.

The quantitative aspects of the study were formed through questionnaire questions which were analysed using statistical tests, and also the use of descriptive statistics which provided the researcher with evidence to support and underpin the entrepreneurs' narratives. This approach provided the researcher with rigour in the investigation, as will be described below.

Rigour in the interpretive approach

As this research provided theoretical generalisation as opposed to statistical generalisation (Williams, 2002a), whereby 'the number of individuals or situations studied is less decisive than the differences between cases involved (maximum variation) or the theoretical scope of the case interpretations' (Flick, 2006: 138). Williams (2002b) refers to this as *Moderatum* generalisations. Instead of a focus on generalisation, the researcher focusses on the concept of transferability, whereby the results of the study can be applied to similar environments (Korstjens and Moser, 2018). This can be achieved through 'thick description', and is supported through the approaches to the data collection, and the nature of the data analysis.

Strauss and Cobin (1998) highlight that 'analysis is the interplay between researchers and data' (1998: 13). This is particularly relevant to the researcher in this research context, as they believe themselves to be included within the culture of lifestyle sports. To this end, this can have both positive and negative effects on the interpretation of the data provided, which the researcher needs to be aware of. In order for the researcher to be aware of their bias, the techniques and procedures for data collection will be followed, however the researcher recognises that complete removal of bias is impossible, given the qualitative aspects to the work. Reflexivity is therefore a key component that supports the rigour of the data collection and interpretation process, as it allows the researcher to recognise their bias throughout the phases.

Methodological Pluralism and the Mixing of Methods

This section will address the concepts and discussions of rigour, validity and reliability above to further the understanding of the research project being conducted. One way of utilising the fluidity of the research methods is by adopting the methodological pluralism approach.

Methodological pluralism can be interpreted in a variety of ways, ranging from ‘a tolerance of a variety of methods’ (Payne et al. 2004: 153), referring to sociological research, to more complex interpretations;

rather than advocating a single paradigm, be it interpretive or positivist, or even plurality of paradigms within the discipline as a whole, it suggests that research results will be richer and more reliable if different research methods, preferably from different (existing) paradigms, are routinely combined together (Mingers, 2001: 240, referring to information systems research).

Methodological pluralism holds both generic and specific interpretations of how research should be addressed. In practical terms, Bryman (2012) suggests that ‘using both quantitative and qualitative research should involve a mixing of the research methods involved and not just using them in tandem’ (2012: 628). This echoes the rationale for the definition of methodological pluralism.

It is apparent from reviewing existing research on the subject, and analysing the researcher’s views on the interpretation of research data collection, that a mixed methods approach has been selected. Qualitative research in this field has been identified as being required, particularly from a critical perspective (Balckwell and Kovalainen, 2009, in Sweeney et al. 2018; Bredvold and Skålen, 2016).

Creswell (2014) defines a mixed methods approach as ‘involving collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, integrating the two forms of data, and using distinct designs that may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks’ (2014: 4). It is considered that

the mixed method approach is best suited for the pragmatic paradigm (Pansiri, 2005; Pansiri, 2009), facilitating the blend of philosophical understanding.

As a research methodology, the mixed methods approach is relatively modern (Cresswell and Plano Clark, 2011). It could be argued however that it has been present in the explorative nature of much research for some time. It has taken many guises, but all notions have shared the common approach to mixing qualitative and quantitative practices as a methodology. It is proposed by many researchers as an effective way of pursuing research by enhancing the breadth of understanding of a subject area (Reichardt and Rallis, 1994), a clearer representation of findings, which may be significantly different if just one approach was utilised, as exemplified by House (1994). Datta, (1994) concluded that the two paradigms of quantitative and qualitative are in themselves not as well defined oxymorons as stated elsewhere; 'the best examples of both paradigms seem actually to be mixed methods' (1994: 67). This is supported by Reichardt and Rallis (1994b); 'while our different epistemologies may part us, our shared ideologies partner us' (Reichardt and Rallis, 1994b: 89).

It is without doubt however that the notion of such a methodology has attracted fundamental criticism for its ability to act as a legitimate research methodology without one clear paradigmatic view. Smith and Heshusius (1986), who view that 'the paradigmatic differences that require different interpretations of inquiry and different evaluations of its results are no longer taken seriously' (1986: 8), highlight the negativity towards the mixing of methods. The historical interpretation of the delineation between qualitative research focussed from the interpretive paradigm, and quantitative from the positivist support this, with 'adherents of each tradition [referring to quantitative and qualitative] often hold unflattering views of work within the other tradition' (Reichardt and Rallis, 1994: 7). It therefore follows that the

methods employed to collect the data for these positions are distinct and cannot be used for the opposite method.

Furthermore, where one end of the spectrum promotes an inductive approach, and the other deductive, there is cause to suggest that the combination of such paradigms is illegitimate. Little attention is paid to the theory of abduction. Reichardt and Rallis (1994) refer to the 'suspicions' (1994: 9) held by different individuals when considering their opposing research methods. This coincides with the flaws that each 'camp' highlight about the other. But instead of this historical focus on the differences between the two, Reichardt and Rallis (1994) propose a more positive outlook can promote partnership; 'we need to find ways to improve the relationship between the two traditions so that we are enriched by our diversity more and diminished by it less' (Reichardt and Rallis, 1994: 9). They go on to state that 'neither tradition has found the holy grail of research methods, which makes a "holier-than-thou" attitude unjustified' (Reichardt and Rallis, 1994: 10). This makes the notion of the mixed methods approach much richer than the interpretation it is an approach to conveniently combine methods for the researcher.

The reasons for choosing such a methodological approach can make it highly appealing. Creswell (2014) cites that 'it is a useful strategy to have a more complete understanding of research problems' (2014: 218). This is echoed by Reichardt and Rallis (1994) who state 'a complete understanding of human nature is likely to require more than one perspective and methodology. The qualitative and quantitative traditions can provide a binocular vision with which to deepen our understandings' (1994: 11).

It is not to suggest however that the mixed method approach is a panacea to all new research frontiers. Aside from the aforementioned argument around whether fundamental paradigms

can be combined, there are a number of practical challenges associated with the methodology. Creswell (2014) highlights 'the need for extensive data collection, the time-intensive nature of analysing both qualitative and quantitative data' (2014: 218) to be of concern to the researcher. For example, it is appraised by Locke and Golden Biddle (2004) that the high amount of data collected through the qualitative approach can cause complications in the analysis phase. Furthermore, Creswell (2014) highlights the need for the researcher to be highly skilled in qualitative and quantitative methods, and to present these findings in a clear manner.

Bryman (2012) highlights two fundamental areas of criticism of the mixed methods approach. Firstly, that the *methods* cannot be extracted out of their associated paradigms and used whimsically to facilitate data collection as desired; they are 'embedded' within a particular world view. Secondly, that the combination of *paradigms* cannot exist, meaning any attempt to combine 'is only at a superficial level and within a single paradigm' (Bryman, 2012: 629). These two points will be addressed in the following section, but it is important to conclude that considering the criticism for the approach, it still appeals as a legitimate approach to the research concerned.

Research Design Strategy

In order to facilitate the data collection, a clear research strategy needs to be used. This is the 'general plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research question(s)' (Saunders et al. 2009: 600), and is important to recognise how the research was conducted. They can also be referred to as 'Research designs' that are 'types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design' (Creswell, 2014: 12).

In considering the use of a mixed methods approach to the data collection, it is Brannan's (2005) view that the strategy that will be utilised may be considered to be complex amalgamation of existing designs from both quantitative and qualitative research;

If mixed methods research is a research strategy does it represent a particular type of research design? The answer is both yes and no. Adopting a mixed method strategy may constitute a strategy in its own right or it may be subsumed within another research strategy as in the case of adopting a case study design (2005: 4)

The strategy for the data collection could therefore be built from other research strategy designs. In contrast to Brannan's (2005) view, Creswell (2014) makes the distinction that mixed methods approaches have their own set of strategies that can be employed, as demonstrated from the Table 5 below;

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Table 5. Creswell's Alternative research designs (Source: Creswell, 2014: 12)

As Saunders et al. (2009) state, a research question should drive how the research is going to be conducted. It is possible that the research questions and objectives at hand could have been answered by a number of strategies. Indeed, Saunders et al. (2009) propose that the strategies can be adapted to suit a range of strategies. In considering this however, there do seem to be key strategies that seem more appropriate.

Grounded Theory supports the abductive approach that the research took; ‘theory that was derived from data, systematically gathered and analysed through the research process’ (Strauss and Corbin, 1998: 12). The strategy of grounded theory allowed for the building of ideas and theories out of the data that is collected; ‘the intent of a grounded theory study is to move beyond description and to generate or discover a theory...for a process or an action’ (Creswell, 2013: 83). This includes the notions of ‘theory finding’ and ‘theory testing’ (Hussey and Hussy 1997).

The Positionality of the Researcher

The researcher recognises that their positionality has specific bearing on the subject of enquiry contained within the thesis. Concern over representation of truth and participant voice, and researcher and participant power (Corlett and Mavin, 2018), can be dealt with by considering the researcher’s positionality with the research topic.

As the researcher has identified that the cultural context to the research is the unique area of investigation that was to be explored; it is possible that a contribution from a positionality perspective would be valuable in understanding the cultural relationship held between the entrepreneurs and the lifestyle sports.

Bakas (2017) highlights that there are many forms that positionality in research can take. Gratton and Jones (2010) further highlight that ‘the researcher has to take on the role of ‘insider’’ (2010: 194) when conducting the research, in order to develop rich understandings. Drawing on Merriam et al’s (2001) ‘insider/outsider’ approach to positionality Bakas (2017) develops this to determine that;

When a researcher has a hybrid in-sider and outsider perspective due to an insider cultural back-ground and outsider appearance, this can also influence how the

researcher is perceived by participants. This perceived positionality can in turn influence the amount and type of knowledge that participants share with the researcher (Bakas, 2017: 127).

The researcher aligns themselves with Baka's (2017) interpretation of the hybrid positionality. As a participant of several forms of lifestyle sport (sea swimming, surfing, snowboard and skiing, cycling, and running), the researcher felt an 'insider' positionality; some of the participants were known to the researcher, and some were mutual friends. Having knowledge in the sports (language, jargon, etiquette, attitudes, current issues in local areas) gave the researcher an insider's perspective of the sport culture, and made it easier to connect with participants, particularly through the interviews. Although the sport-specific knowledge for some sports was missing (paragliding, hang gliding, kayaking), the researcher felt a sense of belonging to the group of lifestyle sports, which also reinforced the notion that these sports were a collective in some way.

While the researcher felt there was clear evidence of the 'insider' positionality, they also felt a strong sense of outsider positionality when it came to understanding the participants entrepreneurial position. The delineation between researcher and entrepreneur was clear in several phases of the data collection. For example, when scoping for participants, reactions such as *"15 – 20 minutes? [to complete the questionnaire] You joking? Sorry but no chance. Try me again in the winter when I'm not working 15 hours a day!"* gave the researcher the sense that participants clearly did not think the researcher understood their current entrepreneurial position.

These points are highly crucial to the success of the data collection in this thesis, given the closed cultural natures of the groups to be examined.

It can be argued that the strategies of quantitative and qualitative methods support the lineage connection between philosophy, methodological choice, to the strategy imposed and the researcher's positionality. This is perhaps significantly different to the 'transactional' feel of the strategies derived for a mixed methods approach. For example, Creswell (2014) charts Charmaz's (2014) use of 'constructivist grounded theory' as a 'version' of grounded theory which incorporated reflexivity which she deemed was needed to fully understand the situations being examined (Charmaz, 2014). Charmaz (2014) supports the view that there are 'major versions of grounded theory ...constituting a constellation of methods rather than an array of different methods' (2014: 14). In contrast to this, the 'convergent parallel' method is seen as a way 'in which the researcher converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data' (Creswell, 2014: 15), and does not provide us with a philosophical 'lens' through which to frame the strategic process.

Creswell (2014) addresses this point by stating that the 'basic models can be used in more advanced mixed methods strategies' (2014: 16) which encompass theoretical lenses, or embedding the strategies within a quantitative or qualitative strategy. Based on the researcher's interpretation of their positionality, and how this affected their approach to data collection, the researcher felt that this provided an opportunity to gain a nuanced understanding of this group of entrepreneurs.

Sequencing

There is an affirmed assumption that the methods that are utilised in data collection are dependent upon the methodology that is adopted. There are a large range of modes of data

collection that can be utilised (Howell, 2013). It is important to explain why particular types of data collection are more conducive for the research question at hand than others. The research questions, combined with the pragmatic approach being adopted, mean that there is relative flexibility in which research strategies could be utilised, however consideration was given to how best to obtain robust and informative data.

There are a number of ways in which the mixed method can be used to collect data. This involves how the processes of the quantitative and qualitative methods are utilised, in what order, to create the process of the data collection. Creswell (2014) summarises these as 'Convergent Parallel', 'Explanatory Sequential' and 'Exploratory Sequential', and furthermore complex designs of 'Embedded', 'Transformative' and 'Multiphase'. The choice of which design to choose is dependent upon how the researcher wishes to surround the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the data collection, and how the results are to be analysed and interpreted (Creswell, 2014).

For this study an exploratory sequential approach was adopted as it offered the most effective approach to capture data against the research questions. The exploratory sequential approach 'involves a two-phase project in which the researcher collects quantitative data in the first phase, analyses the results, and then uses the results to plan (or build on to) the second, qualitative phase' (Creswell, 2014: 224). This was necessary due to the lack of sampling frame. The researcher was therefore able to assume particular approaches to acquiring participants that enabled the rigorous refinement until suitable participants were reached. By taking this approach, a sampling frame was generated through screening questions in the questionnaire to ensure the specified group of lifestyle entrepreneurs operating within lifestyle sports were used in the research. Other lifestyle entrepreneurship

research have positively demonstrated how this approach can be successful; Ateljevic and Doorne (2000) took a mixed approach, combining a longitudinal case study approach with ethnographic field interviews, and a range of previous studies. Similarly, Andersson Cederholm (2015) explored data from two separate research projects that had highlighted lifestyle factors, and singular case studies highlighted from previous research studies (Andersson Cederholm, 2010).

Sampling

In taking a purposive sampling approach to the research, it was important to recognise that the results cannot be generalised, and related to an entire population (Bryman, 2012). In most research cases, it is both not possible and not necessary to investigate an entire population as it can be too large or unknown. Therefore, a sample of that population should be drawn upon on which to investigate. While some samples are 'representative' of their population, others are not. This can raise complexities for the researcher during the data collection process (Oppenheim, 1992: 38), and requires the researcher to understand the method by which the sample was acquired. While probability sampling would allow for external validity, it requires a known population from which a sampling frame can be drawn up and used to select participants without bias. In non-probability sampling, the researcher is able to strategically select those participants that are suitable for the research (Bryman, 2012).

Oppenheim (1992) highlights the difficulties that the researcher can have where the 'sampling frame'; that is 'a list of all the items in your population...everyone or everything you want to study' (Andale, 2015), is unknown. Where it is not possible to identify easily the sampling frame from the population;

We have no idea how many of them there are in the country...some of these groups are difficult to define...No doubt it would be possible to find and interview a few such people, but these would not constitute a 'sample' because we cannot state what their relationship is to their relevant populations since these are unknown. Without this knowledge, we cannot draw any more general conclusions from such interviews because they represent no one but themselves (Oppenheim, 1992: 38).

The population of the research project was lifestyle sports entrepreneurs, and encompassed those who had businesses in the sport setting, and those whose businesses allowed them to participate in their chosen sport. There were implications for the identification of both of these groups of individuals. Little is known about the numbers, names, locations, demographics, and circumstances of both groups in total globally, and therefore a suitable way of identifying them needed to be found. This coincided with findings from the literature that support such complexity in honing a universal definition of such a group that can be drawn upon to locate them. Nelsen (2012) reporting the difficulties in obtaining questionnaire responses from specialist groups such as surfers; 'Surfers are representative of a "hard to measure" user group because their numbers are too small to capture by random samples of the population [when referring to beach recreation]...they have a low response rate to on-site surveying, and they use the coast at times that are different than other beach goers'(Nelsen, 2012: 34-35).

To address this, research studies in this field have taken different approaches. Marchant and Mottiar (2011) took the case study approach to their data collection, identifying that 'lifestyle entrepreneurs operate in varied business environments with varying requirements,

motivations and goals' (2011: 7), and to this end took their case study approach based on regions. 'All the surf tourism businesses in each location were approached and those matching the characteristics of a lifestyle entrepreneur were interviewed' (Marchant and Mottiar, 2011: 8). Here it appears inclusion is linked, inevitably, to how a lifestyle entrepreneur is defined in terms of characteristics.

Some studies have highlighted how sampling was used to target the specific groups in question. In conducting a qualitative study, Marcketti et al. (2006) chose to use a 'purposive sampling' strategy in their exploratory study of lifestyle entrepreneurs. In a recent PhD study of lifestyle entrepreneurs in the bed and breakfast sector, Allardyce (2015) used a 'maximum varying sampling' form of purposive sampling strategy to initially obtain participants for their study. This is 'determining in advance some criteria that differentiate the sites or participants, and then selecting sites or participants that are quite different on the criteria' (Creswell, 2013: 156-157). Allardyce's (2015) study also utilised gender and urban or rural location. Aside from confirming that the study was confined to Scotland as a location however, Allardyce (2015) does not make reference to population size or the proportion of population that is sampled. Mottiar (2007) highlighted the complexities of conducting research on such populations where research has not previously been conducted.

Based on the above studies this research adopted a maximum varying sample strategy. This was the most appropriate approach in providing the necessary coverage, engagement of participants and insight. Furthermore, Bryman (2012) explains that the sampling process should be developed from a 'context' and 'participant' approach. The researcher therefore chose to apply this approach to the variations of sports that could be considered lifestyle.

Participants were given the opportunity to identify themselves what sport they participated in, and how this, from their own perspective, can be considered a lifestyle sport.

In identifying the 'context' for the research, locations were used where (a) the lifestyle sports take place, and (b) in those locations, where lifestyle entrepreneurs were in operation. This pre-requisite then allowed the researcher to decide on where best to start the plan for finding participants. As the study was not confined by or linked to locations per se, this made it feasible to suggest that different geographic locations, based on their proximity to providing a range of lifestyle sports, could be identified. The location was therefore chosen as the UK.

The UK benefits from geographic diversity allowing for many different extreme and lifestyle sports to be participated in. This unit of diverse sports access was chosen as the common unit of investigation, with subsequent priorities being given to regions within this country as offering a diverse range of opportunities for sport participation (for example, coastal location for water based sports), as well as being highlighted as tourism destinations. When deciding on the population that were to be examined, a maximum variation sample approach was used to ensure there were lots of different entrepreneurs and sports that were included in the research. Patton (2002) identifies this as a resilient strategy where there is heterogeneity amongst participants; 'any common patterns that emerge from great variation are of particular interest and value in capturing the core experiences and central, shared dimensions of a setting or phenomenon' (2002: 235). In order to facilitate this, the following requirements were set. This was in replacement of a sampling frame, which could not be used due to the unknown full population.

- Owner of a small or medium size enterprise defined as having less than 250 employees
- Recruited to the study from the UK

- Lifestyle sport related business, or participant of a lifestyle sport

The age of the organisation was not stipulated, as the researcher felt it was important to incorporate the age and development of the organisation and the entrepreneur's involvement in the organisation into the data analysis.

The SME group of organisations was chosen in light of previous research studies of lifestyle entrepreneurs and enterprises. This is supported by Storey's (1994) reflection of studies which have suggested 'the typical no-growth firms were unincorporated businesses that were home-based and which employed only one or two people, including the owner-manager' (1994: 119-120). In order to contribute to the understanding of lifestyle entrepreneurship therefore, the same group of entrepreneurs were targeted.

Finally, a generic purposive sampling technique (Bryman, 2012) was used throughout the study to ensure the engagement of participants who matched the requirements of the study; that is firstly that it was the entrepreneur themselves that was participating, and secondly that they and or the business had engagement with a lifestyle sport. This was generated by targeting specific organisations that the researcher had identified as meeting the criteria generated above through internet and social media searches.

330 organisations were identified, however after sending one initial invite and two subsequent reminder emails response rates of the questionnaire were still significantly lower than anticipated, with only a 10% return and completion rate. Some responses, such as "15 – 20 minutes? [to complete the questionnaire] *You joking? Sorry but no chance. Try me again in the winter when I'm not working 15 hours a day!*" by one participant, indicated that the time of year of the data collection could have been one of the hindering factors to the

numbers of respondents. Others also apologised for the delay in response; one example being that they had been mountain biking in Italy. These comments will be explored later in the data analysis phase, but were constructive in the understanding on why there was some difficulty in obtaining participants.

Data collection began in February 2017 with the commencement of a pilot study of the questionnaire, and subsequent pilot interview. As there were no changes made to the questions within the pilot questionnaire and interviews, full data collection followed this and ceased in February 2018. Pilot data was included within the final results pool. In taking into considerations the challenges faced with participant response highlighted above, it was hoped that this year long data collection process would allow for the varying degrees of convenient times at which the participants would be most likely to be able to participate, as indicated above.

On the basis of limited response rate an alternative strategy of snowball sampling was adopted to boost the final sample size. Snowball sampling was of particular relevance to the group being examined as Bryman (2008) highlights it can be useful in targeting hard-to-reach and obscure populations, of which these types of respondents have been highlighted to be by previous studies (Beaumont et al, 2016). Snowball sampling involves existing participants passing on the details of other potential participants for the research, who fit the requirements of the research. This process was selected in order to improve the number of respondents, and to also approach those lifestyle entrepreneurs whose businesses were not associated with lifestyle sports, but allowed them to participate in a lifestyle sport.

Snowball sampling was achieved through making contact to and sending the questionnaire to affiliated sports associations and clubs of the corresponding sports in order that they pass this

on to relevant members of their community for completion, through online and social media channels. The questionnaire link was sent to over 300 such described clubs based in the UK. This approach allowed for the researcher to maintain their maximum variation sampling approach and alleviated any problems associated with bias that may have occurred from the non-responses in the first phase (Saunders et al. 2009).

Having this understanding allowed the researcher to provide an insight into the research area without reporting to relating their finding to the rest of the unsampled population. In the case of the research objectives identified, it is proposed that the research will produce some typologies of lifestyle entrepreneurs that operate within the lifestyle sports sector. What is proposed here then is a form of theoretical generalisation as opposed to statistical generalisation (Williams, 2002a). Although these typologies will only be confined to the sample that is examined, ongoing research may be able to apply these frameworks to other samples and populations.

Data collection began with questionnaires and proceeded to interviews. With each interview, the researcher was able to review the data and through an iterative process inform the subsequent interviews. These processes allowed for the suitable formation of data to be collected and interpreted as the data collection progressed. The original interview schedule was extended to provide the researcher with more time to explore the rich depth narratives and emerging themes. These would not have otherwise been captured if the original interview schedule had been rigidly followed. This approach was of greatest importance in the design of this data collection as individual stories emerged that could then be contrasted with one-another. Examples of this approach can be seen for example in the study conducted by Beardsworth and Keil (1992) into food-related issues, where 'the open-ended, discursive

nature of the interviews permitted an iterative process of refinement, whereby lines of thought identified by earlier interviewees could be taken up and presented to later interviewees' (Beardsworth and Keil, 1992: 261-2, in Bryman, 2008).

This process was informed by Saldaña (2013) who discusses the process of coding through a First Cycle and Second Cycle approach. This meant that the initial interviews were reviewed by the researcher, and the researcher was able to conduct initial coding of the data provided to 'see the direction to take the study' (Glaser 1978). In their review of this approach Saldaña (2013) recognises that 'proposed codes during this cycle are tentative and provisional' (2013, 101). This is an appropriate tool therefore to use given of the process described above, and supports Glaser's (1978) initial coding structure of grounded theory which 'divides the coding process into two stages: substantive and theoretical coding' (Flick, 2018: 53).

There were a number of issues that arose from data collection with particular reference to interviewer bias in collecting the data; these were referred to above. Lincoln and Guba (2000) identify the importance of the researcher to be reflexive in their approaches to data collection and interpretation; having self-awareness of what they bring and what they develop through the course of the data collection. The researcher also needed to be aware of what their interviewer bias brought to the write up phase of the study, as Richardson (1994) identifies 'writing...is also a process of discovery' (Guba and Lincoln, 1994:184).

The first consideration is that of the impact of the researcher on the data collection process. The researcher felt that their association with the lifestyle sports sector, though participating in surfing, snowboarding, and multi-sport events, meant that there could be the possibility of their own views emerging through the data collection. Whilst this was seen as a potential bias, there were other positive factors that this 'closeness' brought. One of these was the ability to

connect with the chosen participants; the research on lifestyle entrepreneurship identified that the closed sub cultures of some of these sports indicated that there may be some difficulty in accessing and recruiting participants.

Techniques and procedures

A process diagram demonstrating the sampling, recruitment and data collection is shown in Figure 14 below;

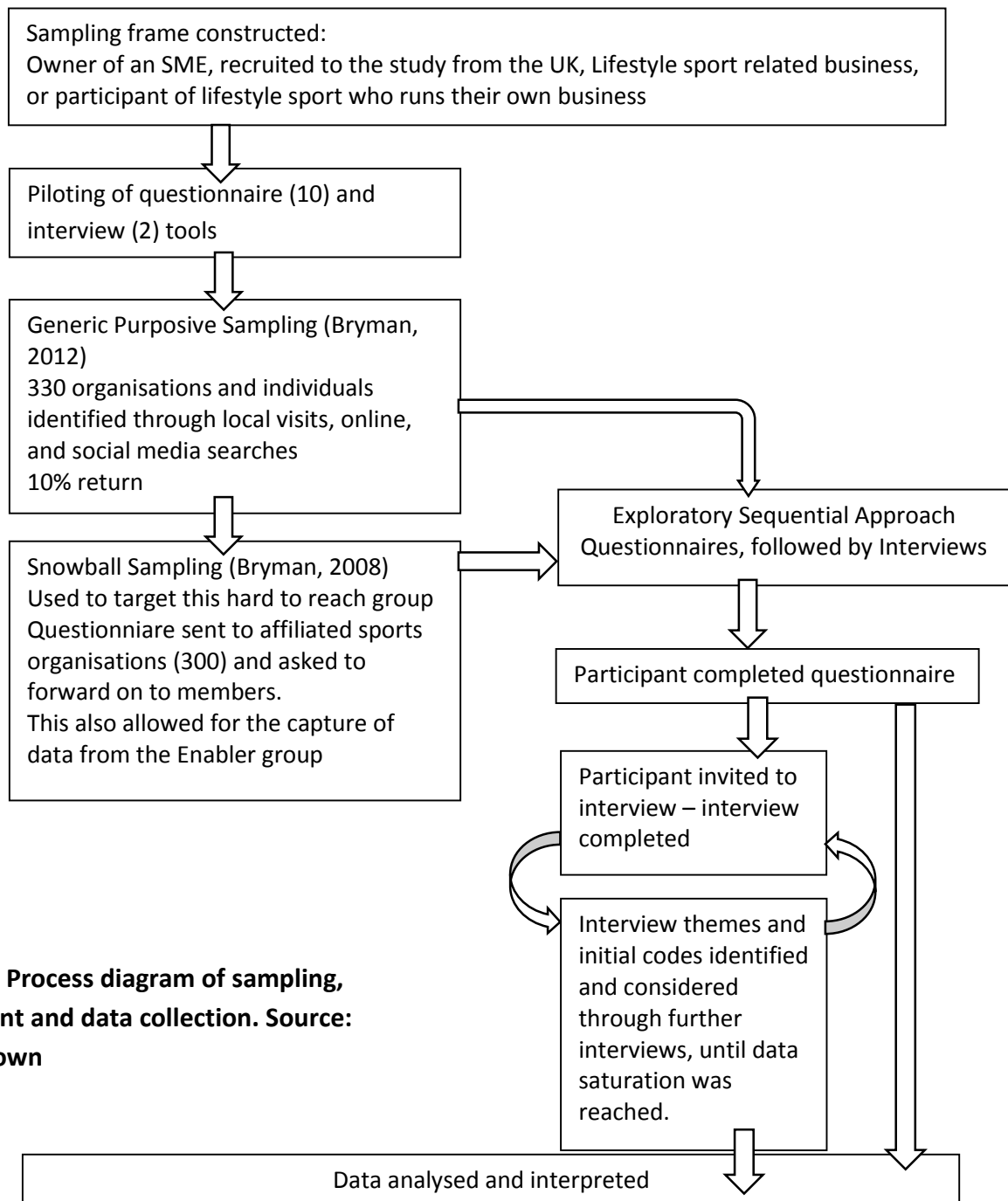


Figure 13. Process diagram of sampling, recruitment and data collection. Source: Author's own

Questionnaire

As the research required both quantitative and qualitative data collection, questionnaires were selected as an effective method of data collection. This initial tool for data collection allowed for the initial scoping of research themes as well as being able to ask the range of questions required. The use of the questionnaire tool also allowed the researcher to target a larger potential audience. In order to fulfil the requirements of interpretive data collection, and for it to have qualitative rigour, 'the use of different methods (triangulation) for the investigation of a small number of cases is often more informative than the use of one method for the largest possible number of cases' (Flick, 2006: 138).

In taking appreciation of Creswell's (2014) approach to mixed methods research design, the data collection will loosely follow his prescribed process;

the study begins with a broad survey in order to generalize results to a population and then, in a second phase, focusses on qualitative, open-ended interviews to collect detailed views from participants to help explain the initial quantitative survey" (Creswell, 2014: 19).

In the first instance, to capture the wide and varied participants that the researcher wished to engage with, the questionnaire method provided an effective means to target a large number of participants. The method also, without too much time or effort, suitably excluded those individuals that are not suitable for the research. This does however rely on the questionnaire being well written and structured. Although providing a helpful logistical process for the data collection, the questionnaires' main aim was to provide a suitable data collection method in its own right; making an independent contribution to the research as well as informing the ongoing data collection of the explanatory sequential approach.

As questionnaires can be adjusted to suit whether a quantitative or qualitative approach is being pursued, this makes them flexible to suit the needs of the research, for example from a quantitative perspective to be able to statistically analyse data (Howell, 2013). To this end however, a clear understanding is required of the data that is going to be collected; that is if discreet or continuous, and the associated analysis techniques that can take place. Similarly, with the qualitative questioning, significant thought needs to be put into the phrasing of questions, for example to do with behaviour, to avoid 'biased reports' (Bradburn et al., 2004: 35).

It has already been identified that the researcher wished to use the internet to facilitate the collection of questionnaire data. Mann and Stewart (2000) recognise that there are complexities involved in the use of the electronic collection of questionnaire data. They summarise that the use of web-based questionnaires is easier for the interpretation of data; 'the data received by the researcher are in a completely predictable and consistent format, making automated analysis possible' (Mann and Stewart, 2000: 70). However, Mann and Stewart (2000) warn of the technical knowledge required by the researcher in order to facilitate this type of questionnaire. The researcher received training in the use of the online questionnaire tool Qualtrics and was able to produce a questionnaire suitable for the requirements of data collection.

The questionnaire was descriptively designed; that is, it was 'concerned with large populations' (Oppenheim, 1992: 38), and supported the aim of the study to provide an initial scope of the potential lifestyle entrepreneurs who were connected to lifestyle sports. The questionnaire also brought about the quantitative aspect of the study; producing descriptive statistics. The questions asked provoked answers that came from a subjective answer; for

example, they measured the respondents' attitude. In order to facilitate this, the ways in which the participants could answer the questions allowed for the production of this type of data.

One way of measuring subjective responses is by the use of a scale or continuum (Fowler, 1995). The questionnaire consisted of categorical rating scales, such as confirming age, and ordinal scales that allowed the respondent to rank answers (Fink, 2013). Some issues can arise from using scaled responses however. Firstly, if adjectives are used, each respondent will interpret the responses differently, for example the perception of 'good' or 'very good'; 'whether a continuum is labelled with adjectives or with numbers, there obviously is potential for people to use the scales differently...to the extent that people differ in the way they use these scales, there will be an error in the measurement' (Fowler, 1995: 51).

Secondly, the number of categories can be difficult to balance. Fink (2013) appraises that 'an even number of choices – say, 4 – forces the respondent away from the middle ground' (2013: 44). Ultimately however, 'the needs of the survey and skills of the respondent must determine the number of categories' (Fink, 2013: 44). In a study comparing differing point Likert scales, Dawes (2008) concluded that 5-point and 7-point scales produce higher mean scores than that of 10-point scales, and that 'indicators of customer sentiment – such as satisfaction surveys – may be partially dependent on the choice of scale format' (Dawes, 2008: 61). While using a 10-point scale may be difficult to interpret by the respondent as there is reliance on a numerical interpretation, and not verbal (Dawes, 2008), it is noted that 'many people are familiar with the notion of rating 'out of 10'' (Dawes, 2008: 63).

The consideration of terminology used within the questionnaire was a key component. No other term presented such a difficult decision as "Sport". The researcher has defined their

use of the term “lifestyle sport” and therefore feels that the use of the term “sport” to get respondents to identify their chosen activity is seen as a legitimate way for respondents to complete the questions. This does however present some problems, and may even put off respondents who do not view their activity as a sport. This idea, as discussed in the literature review, is pointed out by both Wheaton (2004) and Rinehart (2002), however the researcher feels that there needs to be some degree of unilateral language used on which to level the understanding of the context of the questionnaire on. The issues of this language use are discussed by respondents within the results.

In their study into the interpretations of wording within questionnaire questions, Belson (1981) found that there was some level of ambiguity with understanding of terms such as ‘usually’ and ‘regularly’ within questions, in which concluding on this Belson (1981) says ‘there is no escaping the fact that question misunderstanding is a constant threat and that standard piloting of the questionnaire is no guarantee of safety. Direct question testing is essential’ (1981: 397). Having an appreciation for this, it is the researcher’s view that the direct question testing approach is not a viable or major requirement of the study, given the strong review of piloted data to ensure that the answering was as valid as possible.

The questionnaires were distributed electronically, reflecting Nelsen’s (2012) findings of accessing surfers for his data collection; ‘Use of Internet-based survey instruments that advertise on recreational web sites may facilitate responses from difficult to survey or hard to reach user groups. Internet surveys offer several important advantages. They are a relatively inexpensive way of reaching specialized respondent groups’ (Nelsen, 2012: 67). Mann and Stewart (2000) also highlight the efficiencies that web-page surveys can bring to the process of data collection.

The questionnaire was delivered using the online questionnaire programme Qualtrics. The extended data collection phase (including both convenience and snowball sampling methods) amassed 240 responses from the invitation to answer the questionnaire. 80 of these were recorded as fully completed responses, with 160 participants having been removed during the phase of two screening questions of “Do you own/run the business?” and “Does your participation influence the way in which you run the business?”. The decision tree model for these screening questions can be seen in Appendix 3. It was important to the researcher to establish that the owner entrepreneur was answering the questionnaire, as the focus of the research is on the individual entrepreneur, and their engagement in lifestyle entrepreneurship. This was something identified by reflecting on previous studies (Beaumont et al. 2016) as inhibiting the ability for the true identification of the individual entrepreneur’s thoughts.

It was particularly challenging to target individuals more directly, and therefore gain valid responses from the outset. This required detailed consideration by the researcher. It was not possible to target the questionnaires at individuals more directly other than to address the enquiry to the owner to ensure that they were the ones participating. Given the electronic format of the questionnaire, there was no way of otherwise knowing who was completing the questionnaire. The researcher could have requested the participants indicate what position they held within the organisation during the course of the questionnaire (as in the study by Beaumont et al. 2016), however this would have resulted in the possible acquisition of a large amount of data that would not have been applicable to the research process, and would have contravened the ethical processes that were being followed (requesting data which was then not used). This problem was ever-more compounded by the second snowball approach to the

questionnaires, where the identity of those individuals having access to the questionnaire link was truly unknown.

A topic guide to the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 1.

Interviews

The researcher recognised that the research provided a unique feature involved with the culture of the likely participants. Dawson (2009) recognises that for participants to speak freely, positive relationships need to be made between the participants and the researcher. When using the interview method, a range of structures can be used, from completely closed and structured to more informal and unstructured (Dawson, 2009). The type of interview that is used is dependent upon what the researcher wants to achieve. The researcher decided to take a semi-structured approach to the interviews. This allowed for the researcher to have a question guide, but that as the interviews proceeded, the researcher had the flexibility to ask questions outside of the structure (Bryman, 2008).

With regard to the recording of interviews, Mann and Stewart (2000) consider several key points of non-face-to-face interview. These are summarised as:

- Understanding language and interpretation
- Influences to the interview outside of the spoken word
- Technical issues

There are issues to also consider when recording the interview outcomes. This was done by firstly video or audio recording the interview, before then transcribing this recording so text analysis could be performed. Kvale (2007) states that 'Transcribing from tape to text involves a series of technical and interpretational issues – in particular, verbatim oral versus written

style – for which there are few standard rules, but rather a series of choices to be made’ (2007: 95). Other authors have identified different methods that can be used to transcribe interviews, such as verbatim transcription or Discourse or Conversation analysis (Isaac, 2017).

In addressing how to approach the analysis of the data collected, the researcher considered the most effective approach to take. Considering the strategy undertaken, the researcher was able to analyse and interpret data from the very beginning of data collection, as the process of informing further data collection opportunities, by way of the semi-structured interviews, was pursued. Semi-structured interviews also allowed participants to seek clarification on questions if required, and shared their interpretations and understandings. This offered a reliability check for both the researcher and the participant, and enhanced the reliability of the research, as discussed above.

In total, 21 participants were interviewed. At this point, the researcher felt they had reached saturation from a theoretical and data perspective, which Saunders et al. (2017) refer to as a ‘Hybrid’ form of saturation. Fusch and Ness (2015) identify that data saturation can be met in part ‘when further coding is no longer feasible’ (2015: 1408). Through an iterative process of evaluating and coding the interview transcripts, the researcher was able to identify when no new codes or themes were emerging. While the researcher recognises that this study is not generalizable to the entire lifestyle entrepreneurship population, interviews were stopped when the researcher felt that saturation had been reached. The researcher identifies that while more data could have been collected through the interview process, this needed to be set against the time and efforts available, and the benefits this would have brought to the study. Further data collection and its implications will be discussed in the limitations section of the thesis.

The interview process was semi-structured drawing on themes collected from the literature review and summarised through the conceptual framework, which were addressed to each of the 21 participants who participated in the interviews. A topic guide of the key themes of the interviews is available in Appendix 2. Further to these key themes, the semi-structured nature of the interviews allowed the researcher and the participant to link their specific situation to the concepts of the research being undertaken, and allowed for individual stories to emerge.

21 interviews were completed as a result of referrals from the questionnaire; participants were able to indicate if they would like to participate in a one to one interview. These interviews were conducted predominantly over the telephone (15), with others being conducted face to face (3), and over online video methods such as Skype (2) and Google Hangouts (1). The interviews ranged in length from thirty minutes to one and a half hours, and were transcribed using the verbatim method of transcription. Participants were then offered the opportunity to review the typed transcript, receiving this through a method that suited them, to allow them to alter, add or remove any information they preferred. Some respondents chose to review their transcripts and amend, and provide information on place and person names which were removed to provide anonymity.

Transcripts were anonymised for the protection of the participants, and pseudonyms have been assigned to participants for the purposes of discussion in the results, but to still allow for the authentic discussion of individual stories through a sense of voice. Seidman (2013) highlights the importance of the use of using pseudonyms for this purpose; 'At the heart of interviewing research is an interest in other individuals' stories because they are of worth. That is why people whom we interview are hard to code with numbers, and why finding

pseudonyms for participants is a complex and sensitive task' (2013: 9). As suggested by McLellan et al. (2003), each transcription included a cover sheet with the interviewees' profile detailing their age, gender, how long they had participated in their sport, and how long they had owned the business. This allowed for faster comparison between individuals.

Practical process of data collection

The raw data provided the researcher with 240 questionnaire responses. These were filtered firstly by those not willing to participate in the research. Respondents who were not the owners of their own businesses were also removed as the study focusses on the individuals who are running the business. The questionnaire was aimed at both those business owners whose businesses were related to a sport, and those that were not, but that their participation in a lifestyle sport influenced the way in which they run their business. Therefore a series of filter questions were asked to ensure that the relevant participants were included in the study, as reflected in the discussion on sampling frame above. A copy of the questionnaire demonstrating these filter questions can be seen in Appendix 3.

Ethical Considerations

It was important to ensure that the collection of data and the wider study conformed to the correct research ethics. An application for ethical approval was sent to the University of Plymouth Faculty of Business Research on the 6th August 2016, and approval was granted on the 22nd September. A revised approval to small amendments was granted on the 20th April 2017 by the Faculty Research Ethics Committee. All processes of data collection, storage,

withdrawal of participants and anonymity of respondents have been done in line with the procedure set out in the ethics approval.

In both modes of data collection, participants were provided with information on the project, and how the data being collected would contribute to this. Informed consent was obtained in both modes; questionnaire participants had to agree to the information before being able to proceed to the questionnaire start page, and a participant consent form was provided and had to be completed before interviews commenced.

Participants were advised on their right to withdraw from the process at any time during the data collection, and were given a date by which they could withdraw their participation. This date corresponded to when the researcher commenced data analysis, and therefore it would be difficult to remove data from the analysis. This was also to ensure that the participants did not request to withdraw after any publication of data.

The confidentiality and anonymity of respondents was respected at all times. At the interview phase, participants were given a pseudonym and any identifiable data such as names and places were anonymised in the data. Once an interview had finished, the audio recording was transcribed and both items were stored electronically in line with the University of Plymouth's policy for data storage. Participants were offered the opportunity to review their interview transcript and make any changes they required.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has identified the methodological approach that has been taken in the research. Through analysis of the researcher's own research perspectives, and the unique features that

made up the group to be examined, a pragmatic philosophy was adopted by the researcher, as this allowed for the clearest alignment of values to strategies for enquiry. An ethnographic grounded theory approach (Pettigrew, 2000) was adopted which presented the researcher with the best tools to conduct the research into the unique group of participants. It allowed the researcher to develop both an abductive approach to develop new theoretical perspectives on the phenomenon, whilst understanding this through a culturally embedded lens which the research demanded. Through an explanatory sequential approach (Creswell, 2014) to data collection, the researcher was able to facilitate the abductive nature of grounded theory which has allowed for the cyclical exploration and explanation of relationships between variables. The data collection methods of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews ensured that the researcher was able to gather rich data which could support robust interpretation of themes that emerged.

The following chapter will provide an overview of the results of the questionnaire and interview responses. The subsequent chapters will address each of the three research questions to develop a new conceptual framework.

Chapter 3: Results Overview

The 80 responses to the questionnaire were made up of both sport related (referred to as 'Engager') and non-sport related (referred to as 'Enabler') businesses owners, as demonstrated in Table 6 below. Again, it was important to the researcher that this distinction was made clear, so that the differences could be highlighted (if any) in the responses given to the questions. This is because the primary goal of the researcher is to explore the phenomenon of lifestyle entrepreneurship, with the context of lifestyle sports as the setting for which entrepreneurial behaviour occurs, but that the individual and their role in shaping this was central to this understanding.

It later emerged through some of the qualitative interviews that some participants could be classified as Engager and Enablers, as they owned both sport and non-sport related enterprises. The research felt however that it was important to retain the initial coding of such interviews based on their responses, as this included an important aspect of analysing their own self-identification. Discussions of these multiple ownerships are however analysed and highlighted throughout the results chapters.

The discussion of the results of the questionnaire will be discussed in the subsequent chapters; however, it is important to draw on the issues of the reliability of the data obtained. The results in Table 6 below indicate a number of factors which support the validity of the data. Firstly, there was a clear variation of types of respondents, spread firstly over the groups of Engager and Enabler. This allowed the researcher to draw on the comparison of the two groups. There was also a large variation of sports which were participated in, in line with the aim to not unduly limit the type of respondents.

Type of business	N=79	%	Sport participated in	N=107*	%
Sport related (Engager)	58	73.4	Surfing	18	16.8
Non-sport related (Enabler)	21	26.6	Kayaking (sea, river, surf)	15	14
Business sector	N=105*	%	Cycling	7	6.5
Primary	0	0	Mountaineering	3	2.8
Manufacturing	10	9.5	Windsurfing	3	2.8
Construction	2	1.9	SUP	5	4.7
Wholesale/Retail	23	21.9	Kitesurfing	6	5.6
Transport/Storage	1	1	Mountain biking	2	1.9
Accommodation/Food	4	3.8	Running (road, trail, fell)	2	1.9
Information/Communication	7	6.7	Multisport (incl. swim run, tri, quadrathlon)	5	4.7
Financial/Real Estate	1	1	Canoeing	4	3.7
Professional/Scientific	3	2.9	Paragliding	13	12.1
Administrative/Supportive	0	0	Hang gliding	4	3.7
Education	11	10.5	Water skiing	2	1.9
Health/Social Work	4	3.8	Snow sports	2	1.9
Arts/Entertainment	5	4.8	Mountain sports	1	0.9
Other Service – Please specify	34	32.4	Sailing	1	0.9
Business type	N=75	%	Power kiting	1	0.9
A Sole trader	31	41.3	Swimming	1	0.9
A Partnership	8	10.7	Paddle sports	1	0.9
A Private Limited Company (ltd)	36	48	Walking	2	1.9
A Public Limited Company (plc)	0	0	Other (incl. non-lifestyle sports)	9	8.4
Other- please specify...	0	0	How long have they been participating in the sport	N=80	%
Business related qualifications	N=74	%	0-9 years	15	18.8
Yes	26	36.6	10-19 years	14	17.5
No	45	63.4	20-29 years	21	26.3
Gender	N=75	%	30-39 years	18	22.5
Male	67	89.3	40+ years	12	15
Female	8	10.7	Age	N=80	%
Education	N=75	%	20-24	2	2.5
None	4	5.3	25-29	2	2.5
NVQ, GNVQ, BTEC (level 1)	6	8	30-34	5	6.3
GCSE (level 2)	9	12	35-39	13	16.3
A levels (level 3)	14	18.7	40-44	7	8.8
Bachelor degree	20	26.7	45-49	15	18.8
Postgraduate	11	14.7	50-54	11	13.8
Other	11	14.7	55-59	15	18.8
			60-64	5	6.3
			65+	5	6.3

*Business sector and sport responses totalled more than the total number of participants as participant were able to select more than one category.

Table 6. Respondent Profile

The researcher recognises that there was a relatively low uptake of questionnaire completions; this is something typical of studies conducted in this area, with Nelsen (2012) reporting the difficulties in obtaining questionnaire responses from specialist groups such as surfers; 'they have a low response rate to on-site surveying, and they use the coast at times that are different than other beach goers' (Nelsen, 2012: 34-35). It was hoped that by using an online survey that that is would allow for the capture of a larger number of participants.

Another way of interpreting this difficulty in obtaining participation can perhaps be linked to Ratten's (2018) thoughts on the relationship between athletes and entrepreneurs. In her opening statement on entrepreneurship, she states that 'some people associate entrepreneurship with positive developments in terms of creating new businesses or ideas. However, some see it as detrimental as it involves risk and can involve financial setbacks' (2018: 55). She goes on to state that 'most [athletes] have specific personality traits that make them entrepreneurial such as being competitive and a desire to achieve' (2018: 55). It is possible to suggest, therefore, that as the traits of the athlete differ to that of the lifestyle sports' person (as discussed previously) that perhaps they do not see themselves as entrepreneurial.

[Overview - Interviews](#)

An overview of the interview participants can be seen in Table 7 below. Details include pseudonyms, type of business and whether this is an engaging business; that is the business

is situated within the chosen sport industry, or an enabling business; that is the business is separate from the chosen sport, the length the business has been owned or run for, a short narrative on how the entrepreneur came to owning or running the business, the entrepreneur's age, gender, which sport they participate in, and the length of time they have been participating.

Pseudonym	Business and type of lifestyle entrepreneur (engaged/enabler)	Length owned /run	Reason for starting business	Age (as indicated in questionnaire)	Gender	Sport participated in	Length of time participated in chosen sport
Andrew	Sea kayaking instruction (Engager)	10 years	A number of events, including a serious accident, and passing away of a close friend, led Andrew to consider life choices. He had not had the drive to set up his own company, however after some interviews for potential positions, decided that the best way to incorporate his new lifestyle goals was to set up his own company.	50-54	M	Sea kayaking	20 years
Bob	Online climbing retailer (Engager)	Unknown	After leaving University, Bob decided he did not want to pursue the career he had trained for. He had been a climber for a while and taught himself website building skills, and had the idea with a friend to set up an online business.	Unknown	M	Climbing	Unknown
Craig	Online surf retailer (Engager and Enabler)	9 years	Craig is a graphic designer and had an interest in website building. He saw a gap in the market.	50-54	M	Surfing	20 years
Dennis	Surf shop (Engager)	26 years	Dennis originally worked in the shop he now owns. After the original business went into liquidation, he could see there was a better way to serve the market, and after various different incarnations, including sharing a retail space with a friend, founded the current shop.	45-49	M	Surfing	30 years

Ed	Design and retail wetsuits and watersports products (Engager)	13 year	Recovering from a serious accident, Ed found one of the only things he could do was sit at a computer desk. He had got into surfing and saw a gap in the market for a local brand. He was also running an online accommodation booking service.	45-49	M	Surfing	14 years
Frank	Surfboard shaper (Engager)	40 years +	Frank always knew he wanted to make surfboards.	60-64	M	Surfing	40 years +
Gregg	Surf and kayak photographer (Engager and Enabler)	7 years, 9 months	Gregg had been involved in photography since he was at school, and after doing some freelance work for magazines while in sixth form, decided to do a business course and start his own photography business focussing on working locally to where he lives, rather than the travelling involved as a freelancer.	20-24	M	Surfing	10 years
Harry	Kitesurf school and kayak, SUP retail (Engager)	4 years	After taking up kitesurfing and undertaking lessons, Harry knew he wanted to be an instructor. He had the opportunity to work and manage a kitesurf school abroad, but after Harry was involved in a bad business deal, he decided to come back to the UK and start his own kitesurf school.	45-49	M	Kitesurfing	9 years

Ian	Tuition and retailing windsurfing, SUP, kitesurfing (Engager)	11 years 3 months	Ian learned to windsurf as a child and after University went to work for a windsurfing magazine. He came up with the idea of a niche businesses.	35-39	M	Windsurfing	26 years
John	Surfboard maker (Engager)	40 years +	John left school at 14 and went to work in London. He did not like it and so came home and began to work for a local surfboard manufacturer. He progressed to working with friends to manufacture his own boards under his own brand.	65 +	M	Surfing	40 years +
Keith	Personal trainer and massage therapist (Enabler)	1 year 8 months	After leaving University Keith tried to set up as a sole trader, but after eight months of little success went to work for a chiropractor, and continued building his independent company until his business had taken off. Ultimately he knew he was going to run his own company as the work he does doesn't present many employed opportunities. Most people work self-employed.	20-24	M	Rugby	9 years 4 months
Laurence	Power solutions for telecoms (Enabler)	15 years 4 months	Lawrence grew up with the opportunity to work for his farther, however decided that he wanted to work for himself.	44-49	M	Swimming, cycling, running	31 years

Matt	Outdoor activities and adventure (Engager)	17 years	Right from the beginning Matt wanted a career out of being a kayaker. He began working for the company he now owns after being there on work experience during University. He eventually bought into the business by raising funds from property development.	35-39	M	Kayaking	30 years
Nigel	Online competitions results page (Enabler)	5 years	Nigel was keen to provide a service that allowed lots of different users to utilise software.	35-39	M	Surf kayaking	6 years
Olly	Surf and kitesurf retail, repair, hire (Engager)	8 years	Olly had a number of jobs before he decided to open his own retail unit. He was a surfer since aged 17, and progressed to kitesurfing in middle age in what he calls a mid-life crisis. His aim has always been to do what makes him happy.	45-49	M	Surfing, kitesurfing	30 years
Pete	Makes furniture and bespoke joinery (Enabler)	5 years 1 month	After leaving University Pete worked at as boat builder, and after this business wound up, proceeded to making his own bespoke furniture.	35-39	M	Paragliding	13 years
Richard	Cycle training	4 month	Richard was up until recently a full time stay at home dad. As the children got older and went full time at school, Richard had got back into cycling, and wanted to find a way of working in the industry. He began to work	45-49	M	Cycling	5 years

	(Engager)		for the organisation that he eventually took over very recently.				
Sarah	House rental (Enabler)	20 years	Sarah was a teacher until she was 40. At this point, her paragliding career had become very successful and she decided to move abroad to complete internationally. When she returned to the UK a year later, this coincided with inheriting some money, which she decided to invest in purchasing houses to rent.	60-64	F	Paragliding	28 years
Tom	Paraglider training (Engager and Enabler)	22 years	Having participated in a number of sports including sailing and climbing, Tom tried paragliding and instantly found he was naturally talented at it. As he enjoyed it as a hobby, he had an increasing number of people approach him for training and instruction. Tom also found that the practicalities of paragliding fitted well with the other businesses he ran.	55-59	M	Paragliding	22 years
Vinnie	Hang gliding retrieve driver. (Engager)	40 + years	Vinnie was one of the very early pioneers of hang gliding, taking it up as a hobby and working within the aerospace industry. He is now retired and lives on an airfield assisting with competitions and retrieve driving for other gliders.	65+	M	Hang gliding	40 + years
Will	Hang gliding and paragliding sales and maintenance	40 + years	Will originally wanted to be a racing car driver. After leaving his job in the city and working in a partnership which wasn't successful, he went to work with his father. He was taken with the location and the way of life, and began paragliding. Slowly, the business he worked in with his father morphed from a clothing to paragliding business.	65+	M	Hang gliding and paragliding	40 + years

	(Engager)						
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Table 7: Outline of interview participants

Respondent Profiles

There were many factors that shaped the profile of the respondents. Firstly, the size of the organisation indicated that the research had exclusively addressed entrepreneurs who run small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs), with the number of employees falling within the SME definition of less than 250 employees. The results also indicated that a large number of the organisations owned by the entrepreneurs were in fact micro-businesses, with the most frequent (mode) size of an organisation actually having no employees. The researcher recognises that responses to this question were significantly reduced compared to other questions, which may impede the ability to stipulate this was who was exclusively addressed. Dale (2006) warns of the implications of missing data on creating biased results. It is important to highlight however that the focus of the research is on the individual and their personal entrepreneurial journey.

	Permanent full-time (N=37)	Permanent part-time (N=34)	Seasonal full-time (N=34)	Seasonal part-time (N=37)
Mean	1.5	0.8	0.8	1.5
Median	0	0	0	0
Mode	0	0	0	0
Range	18	10	6	15
Minimum	0	0	0	0
Maximum	18	10	6	15

Table 8. How many employees are there in the business this year, aside from yourself, in the following categories?

The entrepreneurs also demonstrated other attributes of small business. 42% (n=78) of respondents reported the support of informal help from others in the business. On examining

what these informal helpers do, the roles and responsibilities fell into two different categories. These were physical day-to-day work running the business such as manning reception, volunteering, and purchasing. A second group also emerged which was coded as business support. This was predominantly formed of tax and account support, admin and marketing.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the questionnaire and interview data gathered, outlining the respondent profiles and providing some surface-level analysis. The explanatory sequential approach - quantitative followed by qualitative data collection (Creswell, 2014) - offered an effective approach to capture data against the research questions, and permitted an initial scoping of themes via a survey, followed by a more in-depth review of the survey results via interpretive interviews. This supported the ethnographic grounded theory approach to the thesis study by providing the researcher with opportunities to explore and expand on key themes, whilst being embedded in the culture of this unique group of participants which in itself allowed for the effective exploration to take place.

The following chapters will go on to probe more of the data collected through addressing the three research questions highlighted. Following this analysis of the respondent profiles, the first research question will seek to further the understanding of how lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports can be identified. With this in mind, the second question will scope out what factors affect the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneur, and how these are negotiated. Finally, these aspects will be combined to provide an analysis of how the context of lifestyle sport impacts upon the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs that can exist.

Chapter 4. Results and Discussion

The three research questions will now be considered in turn by firstly presenting the results and a discussion of each question.

Research question 1: How can lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports be identified? The lens of 'becoming' the entrepreneur

This question seeks to understand how lifestyle sports entrepreneurs can be identified, through a developed and robust method of identification that is currently missing from the literature. As highlighted in the literature review, this is the result of the very limited representation of who participants were, and how they were defined to be lifestyle entrepreneurs for their inclusion in extant studies of lifestyle entrepreneurship. This is an important initial question to address as it underpins the fundamental understanding of who lifestyle entrepreneurs are and their relationships with lifestyle sports.

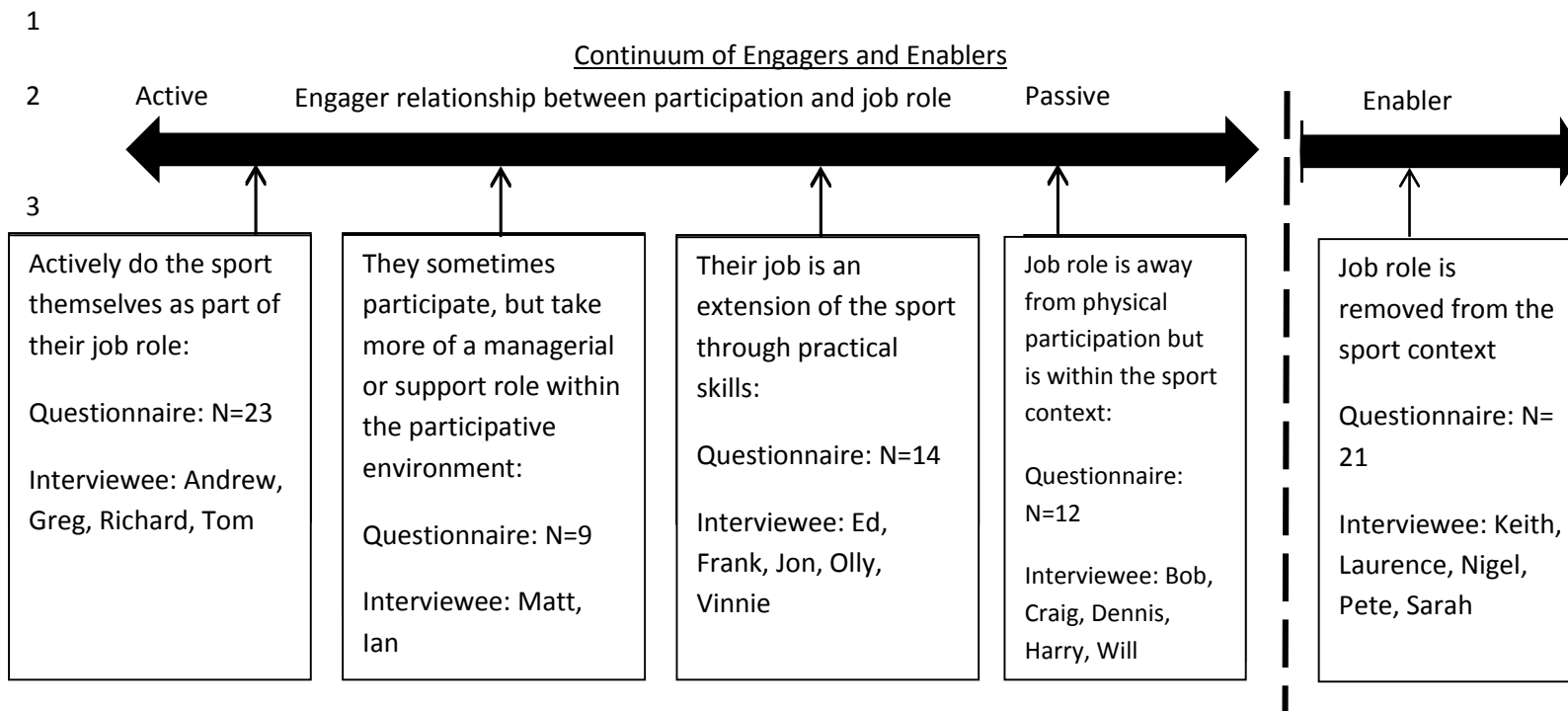
Furthermore, answering this question provides a discussion of how the lifestyle entrepreneurs identify themselves within the context of their industry, which to date has been missing from the literature, but has been highlighted as a key component of understanding the lifestyle sports entrepreneur. Firstly, and interpretation of the questionnaire findings will be addressed, and secondly the pursued themes through the interviews. The chapter will then discuss how the participant entrepreneurs identify themselves both as sports people, as well as business people, and the emergence of themes when these two identities collide.

Engagers and Enablers

It is important to address the differences between the two 'types' of entrepreneurs that have been targeted within the research; those for whom the sport is reflected in both the

entrepreneurial pursuit and the leisure time (the Engagers), and those whose entrepreneurial pursuit is nothing to do with the sport that they engage with in their leisure time (Enablers). The literature provided little evidence of research into the existence of this second group of individuals. Engagers do however represent the group of lifestyle entrepreneurs more traditionally researched in the lifestyle sport (Beaumont et al. 2016) and other lifestyle entrepreneurship literature (Tregar, 2005; Eikhof and Haunscild, 2006). Here, studies have provided evidence that suggests the type of work that is undertaken is more conducive to the individual's chosen lifestyle, but to date has provided little to support the understanding of how these entrepreneurs develop their own personal identities from combining their work and chosen lifestyle.

Engagers are those participants more readily researched within the lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports literature (Altejevic and Doorne, 2000; Marchant and Mottiar, 2011). They represent those participants for whom the business and the sport merge. The current research has however identified that there are some subtle differences within this group partly as a result of different sector focus. Figure 15 has been developed using the results of the study to conceptualise this;



8 **Figure 15. Engagers and Enablers scale of proximity to the sport**

1 The types of Engager entrepreneurs can therefore be described on a scale from active to
2 passive in the connection with the lifestyle sport. This approach was highlighted by Ollenburg
3 (2005, in Helgadóttir and Sigurdardottir's, 2008) in their research into equestrian tourism,
4 where they identified a number of different ways in which a consumer could interact with the
5 horse, and therefore the different enterprises that resulted. As the current research project
6 is concerned with the individual entrepreneurs, the approach to categorisation identified how
7 the entrepreneur engages with the lifestyle sport through their involvement in their
8 enterprise.

9 Questionnaire data permitted the researcher to code what type of activity the Engager
10 entrepreneurs could be categorised by. The first group are identified as actively participating
11 in the sport themselves as part of the business role. This included instructors, guides and
12 coaches. The second group, moving away from the most active, are those entrepreneurs who
13 take a more managerial approach to the participative theme of the business. These
14 enterprises are made up largely of limited companies, and the interview participants are
15 indicative of the group; both have owned or run the business for a considerable amount of
16 time, and both Ian and Matt (Outdoor activities and adventure) describe moving from a
17 participative role to a managerial role within their respective businesses. This aligned both
18 with how the businesses, and they themselves, matured.

19 The group that are identified through practical skills are exemplified as designers and
20 manufacturers of the equipment required for the sports. They are separated from the final
21 group who are made up of retailers because of the connection that authentic small-scale
22 manufacture has to the culture of the lifestyle sports context. This is exemplified in Edwards
23 and Corte's (2010) research into the commercialisation of BMX. They identified 'movement

1 enterprises' that were producers of equipment required for participation, but who were
2 participants themselves. This appeared to levy authenticity, as the culture was ingrained
3 within the business. The final group of Engagers are highlighted as being passive as their
4 enterprise roles are away from active participation, although still relate to the lifestyle sport.
5 Thus, this group is made up of retailers of equipment required for the lifestyle sports.

6 [The researchers' identification of lifestyle entrepreneurs](#)

7 The researcher has explained the process and complexities of recruiting participants to the
8 research. This has previously been explained by Nelsen (2012) as a difficult to access group,
9 principally from their sport participation. There was also a more inherent problem
10 surrounding how to establish if the entrepreneurs conformed to a lifestyle entrepreneur
11 definition. With this in mind, the researcher was open to interpreting the responses to the
12 questionnaire questions which highlighted the characteristics of the entrepreneurs.

13 With a view to further understanding of the nature and characteristics of lifestyle
14 entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports, one of the characteristics the questionnaire focussed on was
15 the notion of growth importance. The question 'Is the growth of your business more or less
16 important than the lifestyle it allows you to lead?' was posed to participants in the
17 questionnaire at two time-points- firstly at the start of the business, and again as at the time
18 of completing the questionnaire. This provided a comparison to give an understanding of how
19 the entrepreneurs identify the importance of growth and of lifestyle, and how this may have
20 changed over time, and supports the lens of analysing 'becoming' the lifestyle entrepreneur.
21 Figure 16 highlights the responses combined to demonstrate the feelings of the
22 entrepreneurs.

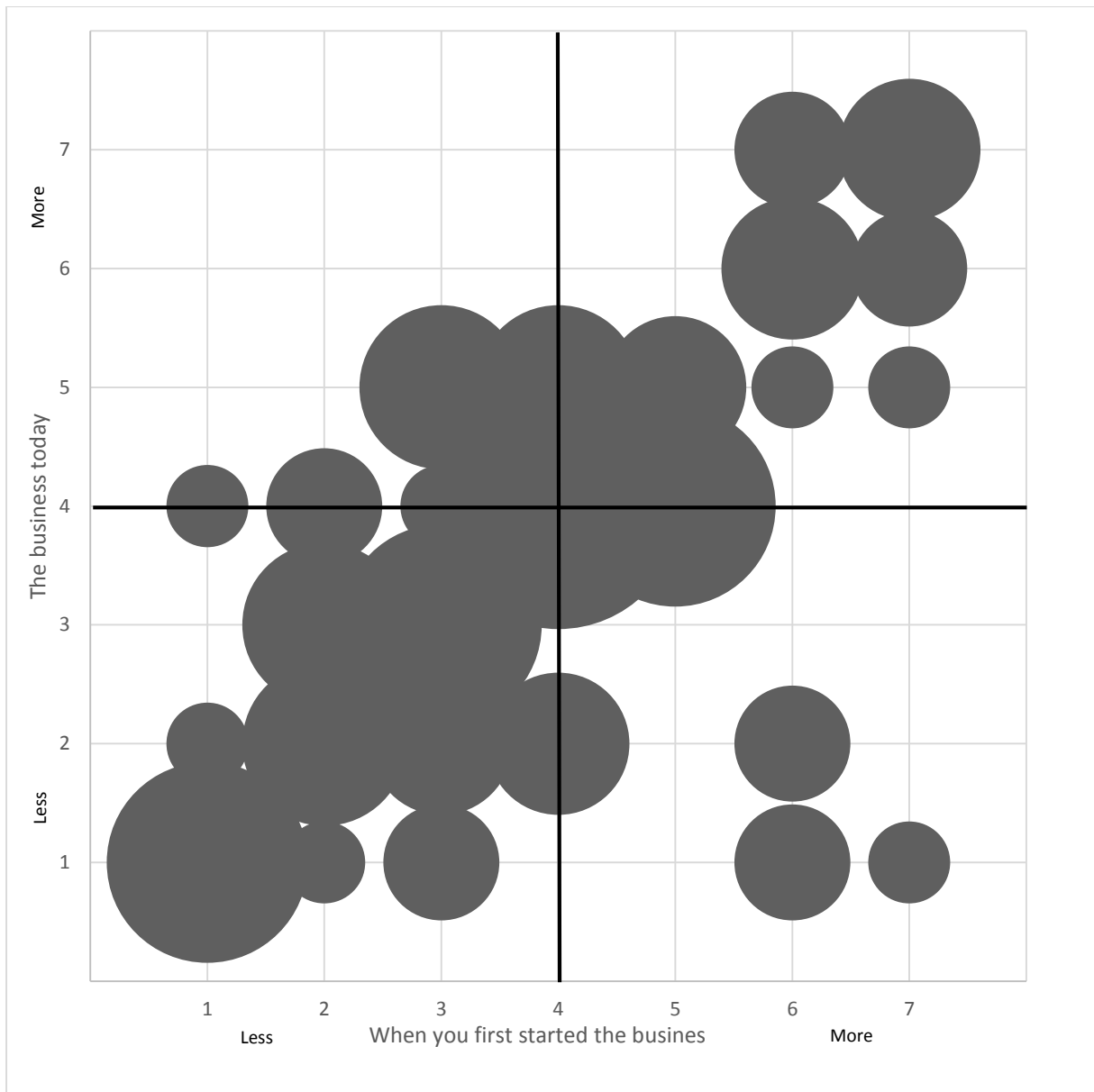


Figure 16: *Is the growth of your business more or less important than the lifestyle it allows you to lead? (Frequency of respondents to the question is represented in the size of each bubble graphic) (n=77)*

1 The results provide a positive correlation between the two answers, demonstrating that
2 participants for the most part are rating the importance of growth as the same both at the
3 start of the business, and at the point of completing the questionnaire. The length of time
4 that the entrepreneur has owned the business does not appear to influence the importance
5 placed on growth, for the majority at least. Contrary to the life cycle model identified with
6 Hanks et al. (1993), this indicates that some lifestyle entrepreneurs do not envisage or
7 manage a growth stage at the expense of lifestyle. Furthermore, this is inconsistent with
8 Peters et al.'s. (2009) interpretation of the becoming of the lifestyle entrepreneur, which again
9 adopts a period of growth focus at the expense of lifestyle, before the required balance is
10 met. This finding, while preliminary, suggests that there are more complex ways in which to
11 understand the lifestyle entrepreneur. These data must therefore be interpreted with
12 caution, and should be further explored by narrative enquiry.

13 The results of Figure 16 may be split into four categories. The participants who are positioned
14 at the extremities of the results are of particular relevance, as they represent what may be
15 described as Weber's 'ideal types'; those individuals who demonstrate 'what the object being
16 studied would be like in its most rational form' (Benton and Craib, 2011: 81). Those
17 participants that fell in the most extreme top and bottom 10% (scoring the lowest combined
18 scores, and highest combined scores) were selected to examine in more detail. As a method
19 of examination, this has been used in studies for a similar purpose, such as Nabi *et al.*'s (2018)
20 study of entrepreneurial intention. For the purpose of this study, it provides the first phase of
21 framing the lifestyle sports entrepreneur.

1 Lifestyle over growth – The Purist lifestyle entrepreneur

2 For participants who feature in the bottom left quadrant of Figure 16, growth was originally,
3 and was at the point of questionnaire completion, less important than lifestyle. These lifestyle
4 entrepreneurs represent the existing interpretation of the lifestyle entrepreneur, referred to
5 by Marchant and Mottiar (2011) as the ‘Purist’ lifestyle entrepreneur, based on growth not
6 featuring as a priority goal. This is exemplified by some of these individuals who were asked
7 to explain the reasons for their choices; “It’s never been about the money” (Engager,
8 Mountain guide, Q74) and “Money doesn’t always lead to happiness” (Engager, Paragliding
9 and microlight school, Q74). It is clear here that these participants held a direct link between
10 growth and financial gain, and that that financial gain was and is simply not important to these
11 individuals.

12 There is also focus on how the currently held view of the lifestyle entrepreneur is exemplified
13 through Peters et al’s. (2009) interpretation of the lifestyle entrepreneur highlighting a
14 specific point at which growth meets quality of life; “I am happy with how it is” (Engager,
15 Q74). Others exemplified the more of the connotations associated with the lifestyle
16 entrepreneur from previous studies, such as Lewis (2008); “I value my health, family and
17 enjoyment of life over financial growth...I have no need to grow an empire!” (Enabler,
18 Professional services, Q74). There is also evidence that some of these entrepreneurs conform
19 to the definitions that lifestyle entrepreneurs can be hobbyists (see Sorensson et al. 2017),
20 explaining their focus on lifestyle over growth by “Other income” (Enabler, Holiday cottage
21 company, Q74), or “It started as a hobby/obsession” (Engager, Design and manufacture
22 canoes, Q74).

1 This focus is extended by other entrepreneurs. Nigel (Online results page provider) identifies
2 that *“product or company makes that doesn't, at the moment make money, or certainly not*
3 *enough money, enough money to survive on so I do freelance stuff on the side for other*
4 *companies”*. This is partnered for some of the entrepreneurs, as in this example, portfolio
5 careers (on questioning in the interviews, three of the Engagers identified that they ran other
6 non-sport related businesses, and these supported their sport based businesses), or that
7 other household income supported the entrepreneur; *“thank God for the wife she earns the*
8 *money that pays all the bills!”* (Frank, Surfboard Shaper).

9 The notion of ‘other income’ as a factor to allow the entrepreneurs to not be concerned about
10 the growth is not the only factor that emerges. Other examples of an unwillingness to grow
11 were demonstrated. Olly (Kitesurf retailer) explained the reluctance of taking on staff after
12 having experiences through the 2008 recession, and people management issues. He also
13 explained his opinion on the detachment that large business owners have by using middle
14 managers, citing that the middle stage ‘can be difficult’. This evidenced a reluctance to expand
15 in this manner, however business development and business sustainability were highlighted,
16 identifying entrepreneurial ways of sustaining the business without the requirement for
17 additional staff and loss of managerial control.

18

19 [Growth over lifestyle – The Freestyle lifestyle entrepreneur](#)

20 Entrepreneurs who feature in the top right quadrant of Figure 16 scored growth as more
21 important than lifestyle at both the beginning and the current phase of the business. If
22 definitions of lifestyle entrepreneurship are used such as Kuratko and Hodgetts’ (2001), who
23 view that ‘neither large scales nor profits are deemed important beyond providing a sufficient

1 and comfortable living for the entrepreneur' (2001: 362), the researcher could conclude that
2 these entrepreneurs are not lifestyle entrepreneurs; they confirm that growth of the business
3 is more important than the lifestyle it allows them to lead. However, when asked to explain
4 their choices, there were clear and recurrent themes of growth aligning and complementing
5 lifestyle; *"My satisfaction comes from the success of my business so growth in the right way*
6 *will allow for me to improve my lifestyle"* (#50, Q74). Other respondents in this group gave
7 equally aligning responses; *"Growth leads to financial success which delivers independence"*
8 (#19, Q74). This indicates an approach of growth to enhance the lifestyle, not in spite of the
9 lifestyle. While Mottiar (2007) identified that a large amount of lifestyle entrepreneurship
10 research had identified lifestyle entrepreneurs as having lifestyle as a fundamental
11 motivation, this research supports the later work of Lewis (2008) which poses growth and
12 financial success to feature as a goal.

13 A chi-square test of independence comparing enablers and engagers and their turnover
14 expectations was calculated (see Appendix 4). No significant difference was found $X^2(1)$
15 $=2.526$, $p>0.05$. Although this demonstrated not to be significant, this was in part attributed
16 to the small sample size. These findings did however indicate that in both groups, a larger
17 percentage of entrepreneurs expected turnover to increase in the forthcoming year (64%
18 Enablers, 62% Engagers), compared to the categories of static or reduced turnover. Employee
19 number expectations however were found to be more likely to be static in each group (see
20 Appendix 4).

21

22 The findings above provide an interesting separation of factors considered for growth. While
23 turnover is likely to increase, the entrepreneurs do not appear to link this with other aspects

1 of business growth such as employee numbers. This therefore presents an interesting area of
2 consideration. While Al-Dajani's (2009) research indicated that the relationship between
3 growth and success can be seen as highly one-dimensional; 'You balance your life with other
4 things than work but are relegated to paying-the-rent success' (Al-Dajani, 2009: 7), other
5 studies have supported the above notion that lifestyle and growth can support one another.
6 Lewis (2008) concluded in her study that 'Growth in SMEs should also not be confused with
7 development or progress' (2008: 67). Success therefore emerges as a theme which does not
8 appear to have been addressed within the lifestyle entrepreneurship research to date, apart
9 from Lewis' (2008) notion that the lifestyle entrepreneur who factors growth as part of a
10 wider body of goals may be referred to as the 'freestyle' lifestyle entrepreneur, and also
11 Mottiar's (2007) findings that lifestyle entrepreneurs mentioned 'non-profit' aspects
12 foremost when discussing success.

13 The lifestyle entrepreneurs within the thesis therefore exhibit a complex combination of
14 success values which include both lifestyle and monetary elements. This research
15 demonstrates that success can take many forms, and that the lifestyle sport entrepreneurs
16 have a diverse interpretation of what success means to them. What consistently emerges
17 from the discussions however is that success is derived from being able to provide a clear
18 balance between their participation with the sport, and the needs and demands of the other
19 aspects of their lives. *"What drives me is to earn enough money to do the things I love to do
20 really"* (Ed, Designs and retails wetsuits and water sports products - Engager).

21 In the traditional sense, some participants aligned success with the inability to manage
22 lifestyle;

1 *we made a choice to move down here really because we were- our other business*
2 *was really successful but I just found it was completely doing my head in, it was*
3 *just all about business - And we weren't taking time to have any lifestyle time. No.*
4 *So moving down here for us was a lifestyle change, it was to do less, to earn less*
5 *money and to spend more time enjoying ourselves (Ed, Designs and retails wetsuits*
6 *and water sports products - Engager).*

7 Success was derived from having a successful business and having flexibility to participate in
8 their chosen sport.

9 The relationship between identity and growth can therefore be seen in two ways. The identity
10 of the entrepreneur can be restricted by the issue of growth, and growth can restrict the
11 identity of the individual. This implicates how they identify themselves as operating with
12 lifestyle in mind. Identification of lifestyle entrepreneurs was a key consideration of the
13 literature. More specifically, clear identification of who lifestyle entrepreneur participants
14 were in previous studies was not given adequate consideration. The findings of this thesis
15 identify that a broader approach to understanding who lifestyle entrepreneurs needs to be
16 adopted. It also highlighted to the researchers that entrepreneurs should not be rejected
17 from the lifestyle entrepreneurship study at this stage, as clearly there are high levels of
18 lifestyle motivation that appear to manifest themselves through an alternate attitude
19 towards growth.

20

1 Identity as 'sports' people

2 Firstly, a discussion of how lifestyle entrepreneurs view their sport, their participation within
3 it, and what the implications of this are for definitions of lifestyle entrepreneurship needs to
4 be addressed. It is apparent from several previous lifestyle entrepreneurship studies that the
5 context in which the entrepreneurial endeavour is based affects the way in which the business
6 operates (see Tregar, 2005; Essig, 2015). Those studies that have used lifestyle sports as a
7 context have limited their discussions on how this impacts the entrepreneur's motivations
8 and intentions. This section will then go on to discuss the implications of how these
9 motivations and intentions affect the individual, and how the individual uses this
10 understanding to influence their businesses.

11 Interviewees offered an alternative idea that the 'sport' can have many levels; *"To me it's not*
12 *a sport at all, to a lot of people it is a sport um- but I'm not really interested in that sporting*
13 *element, particularly the sporting element is a commercialisation and it sells product"* (Ed).

14 This confirms Rinehart's (2002) research on extreme and alternative sports that 'many of
15 these participants...don't consider their activity a 'sport'' (2002: 511), and confirms the
16 premise set within the conceptual framework that these sports or activities have many ways
17 in which they can be identified with, normally from a competitive or non-competitive aspect.
18 It is down to the individual to decide how they identify with the activity, as highlighted by
19 Beaumont (2011).

20 Other factors that were identified through the literature were also demonstrated in the
21 collected data. The idea of the 'closed culture' is still prevalent however, again across all the
22 sports examined;

1 *“you say you fly a hang glider, you’re immediately my friend, you know it’s just no*
2 *question about it –yeah – though on Facebook you know if you’re a hang glider*
3 *pilot invited on Facebook, yes, you know –ok – accept, away, but if you’re just a*
4 *friend of a friend eh, probably not”* (Vinnie).

5 When asked why the entrepreneur valued growth of their business as less important than the
6 lifestyle it allowed them to lead, one entrepreneur answered *“You obviously haven't been*
7 *paragliding :-)”* (#56, Q77). This reinforces the notion of Social Identity Theory and the ‘in-
8 group’, as it signifies to the researcher that they are not part of, or understand, the feelings
9 that paragliding can bring, that can lead to it being more important than the growth of a
10 business.

11 And for others, such as described by Ed above, they situate themselves within a particular
12 section of the sport and this culture. Although throughout all of the interviews the theme of
13 specialism and specific skills were apparent, those individuals who sought distinction in the
14 part of the whole they were associated with were also more explicit in how their specialty
15 affected their business. For example, some of the business owners see how technical
16 knowledge separates the authentic participants from the others;

17 *“Where you’ve got the proper surfers sat at home and watching the weather*
18 *knowing where the next surfs going to hit, looking at what the wind direction is*
19 *going to be and what banks are working when and that’s the difference”* (Dennis).

20 So if not a sport, it is important to identify how the activity can be described. Many of the
21 participants use the word “play”. The notion of play to ‘engage in activity for enjoyment and
22 recreation rather than a serious or practical purpose’ (Oxford University Press, 2018). It

1 encompasses a number of factors presented within the literature that help create the
2 definition of the lifestyle sport; particularly those ideas of a lack of competitive drive against
3 others.

4 Figure 15 below demonstrates the entrepreneurs' reasons for participating in their chosen
5 lifestyle sport. This supports the findings of previous lifestyle sports studies which defined
6 the sports based on their freedom seeking opportunities (Wheaton, 2014), challenge,
7 achievement of personal goals, and clear social interaction. Fitness again was something that
8 was not previously found from previous studies. Importantly, the sport as a central life
9 interest was highlighted as being of importance to the entrepreneurs, again which was
10 something that had not been previously identified or explored in the lifestyle
11 entrepreneurship and lifestyle sport research.

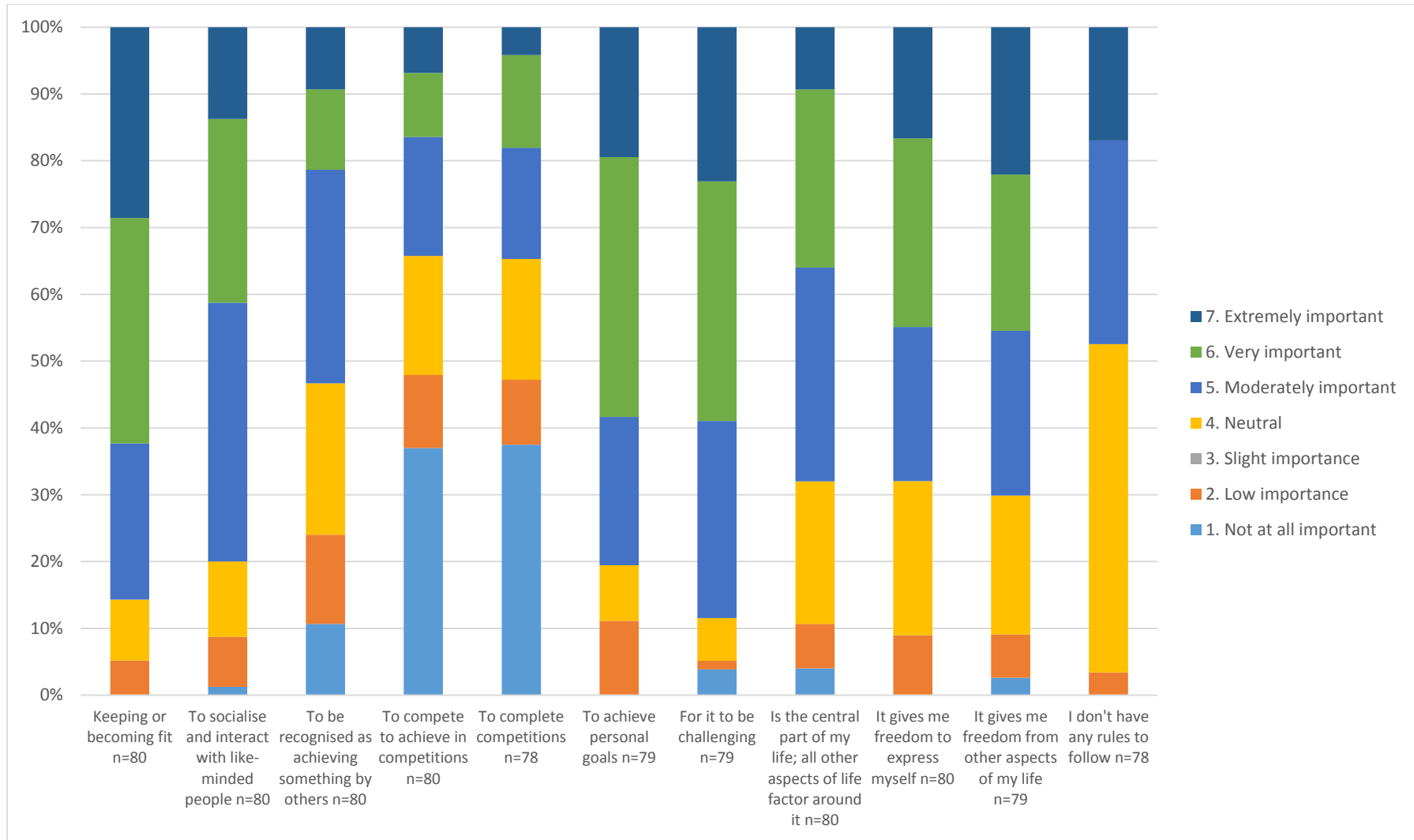


Figure 17. How would you rate the following factors as important in your participation in the sport?

The factor of seriousness is taken further by some of the participants, who take the lack of seriousness as actively important in the authentic participation in the sport; *“The best surfer in the water is the one with the biggest smile on his face, whether he’s good or not, it’s the person that enjoys it the most”* (Frank, Surfboard shaper). Olly reiterates this with kitesurfing; *“It’s all about the smile – so if you go out there, and you find a smile, and you come back in, who am I to say that’s wrong?”* (Olly)

Interestingly, this point is somewhat juxtaposed against the participants’ eagerness to embrace the technicalities of the sport as being one of the important factors. A lot of the participants refer to the details of the sport, and are drawn out as one of the defining features that make these sports lifestyle. Andrew was put off originally by ‘the numbers’ of sea kayaking – *“I was really put off by all the numbers, and the tidal planning, and the information at the time was in big books and I didn’t do particularly well at school, I had a form of dyslexia, so that’s sort of academic side didn’t attract me”* (Andrew, Sea kayaking instructor - Engager). Andrew’s interpretations of the various elements and challenges of the sport highlight the importance of personal context. This is considered further in response to research question 3 when participation and meaning are considered as variables that can affect the lifestyle entrepreneur.

Further evidence of previous definitions of lifestyle sports are also exhibited in the research finding. The draw and motivation to participate in these sports are explained by their captivating draw to always improve and progress; *“I think um it’s a cliché to say it but if it takes a minute to learn and a lifetime to master, yeah, it will keep you- keep you captivated, it’ll keep you sort of yearning for that next fix if you see what I mean”* (Ian, Tuition and retailer of windsurfing, SUP, kitesurfing - Engager).

The identity as the sport participant here is a similar finding to that of Helgadóttir and Sigurdardóttir's (2008) research into owners and operators of horse-based tourism businesses. Participants felt 'that they belong to a culture of horsemanship rather than a culture of tourism as business operations in a service industry' (2008: 105). This feeling of ascription to the culture has a fundamental position to the nature of the research, as it underpins the thinking of sport first, and then business will follow, for a predominant number of participants of the research. This ties them to their pursuits of specific lifestyles.

Identity as business people

The second perspective in analysing the entrepreneurs was through the lens of business-person identity. In their study of equestrian based tourism business operators, Helgadóttir and Sigurdardóttir (2008) found that 'while the information and interest in the workings of the business was scant, there was a readiness to discuss the content of the tours' (2008: 117). The interviews from the research study at hand concurred with this finding in many instances. When participants were asked 'How did you get to owning and running the business today?' all of the Engager interview participants focussed their discussions around the sport that they are engaged with, and most of the Enablers described it as part of their descriptions of their business development. The discussions were formed through describing their participation; an explanation of how their participation had developed, and how the business came to be as an outcome from this.

In assessing the influence to start the business and become an entrepreneur, 71% of the lifestyle entrepreneurs who answered the questionnaire question indicated that past employment experience had an influence on them when starting their own business. This

adds to the emerging picture of identity formation as lifestyle entrepreneurs. The following codes were identified as areas influencing decision making;

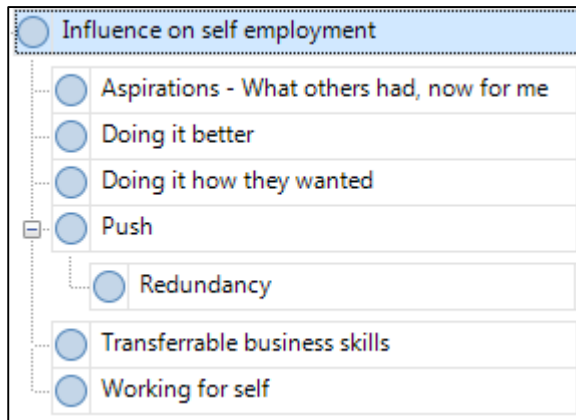


Figure 18. Coding tree for 'Influence on self-employment' (Source: Author's own).

Thirteen of the entrepreneurs clearly identified transferrable business skills which were the driving influence. For example, "I had years of experience in this field" (#19, Q67), "learnt the sector gathered qualifications" (#54, Q67), "Valuable experience and skills gained enabled me to start my own business" (#56, Q67). These align with Jack and Anderson's (2002) findings, and support the view that the business start-up of the lifestyle entrepreneur can be aligned closely with experience. However, the data provided far clearer evidence of social influences, such as independence; *"I thought I might like working for myself"* (#16), *"Helped me learn that I value my independence and doing things in a way I believe in"* (#71).

These values were also extended to separate out 'independence, autonomy and control' which aligned closely with entrepreneurial characteristics of Kuratko and Hodgetts' (2001) study; *"I was a Designer, constantly designing branding and doing marketing for other businesses. Finally, I get to do that for my own business for me and not for someone else"* (#50), *"I don't think I've always wanted- I've always wanted to have my company, I've always wanted to run a company the way which I want to run it instead of running it the way other*

people do" (Nigel, Runs online results pages). Pete (Makes bespoke furniture) identified that although he was not keen to work for himself initially, *"I couldn't find anyone else who was doing what I wanted to do"*.

Some explanations behind these reasons for self-employment conform to recent research conducted by Henley (2018), which identified that self-employment is derived more predominantly by individuals who have had negative employment experiences. Four entrepreneurs identified wanting to run the business in a better way; *"thought it could be done better"* (#12), and two reported being pushed into starting their enterprises through redundancy. This is counter to Deakins and Freel's (2003) interpretation of lifestyle enterprises emerging predominantly through redundancy, and supports the view that lifestyle entrepreneurship is emerging as a concept within the changing world of work.

On questioning, 45 out of 71 responders to the question regarding business qualifications have no business qualification. A chi-square test of independence comparing Enablers and Engagers and the business qualifications they hold was calculated (see Appendix 4).

No significant difference was found ($\chi^2(1) = 2.148, p > 0.05$). Although this demonstrated not to be significant, this was in part attributed to the small sample size. A review of the percentages per category revealed that a larger percentage of Engager entrepreneurs (69%) did not hold a business qualification, compared to that of the Enabler group (50%). It is possible that this could be attributed to the mode in which the entrepreneur chose to engage with the sport (Engager or Enabler), however this would require more data collection and analysis before links could be drawn.

Jack and Anderson (2002) identified within their embeddedness research into shaping and sustaining business that 'previous employment was not necessarily related to their own

venture' (2002: 475), and that this does not align with Storey's (1994) suggestion of entrepreneurs going on to work in a similar industry. They do go on to demonstrate however that previous employment had provided entrepreneurs with ancillary business skills that were transferrable, as discussed above.

Jack and Anderson (2002) do not go on to discuss beyond this, however the data here provides far more reaching explanations for the influences which add weight to the characteristics of the lifestyle entrepreneur. Figure 16 below demonstrates the number of entrepreneurs who indicated that past employment experience had an influence on them when starting their own business.

For some of the entrepreneurs there were clearly identified transferrable business skills which were the driving influence. For example, *"I had years of experience in this field"* (#19, Q67), *"learnt the sector gathered qualifications"* (#54, Q67), *"Valuable experience and skills gained enabled me to start my own business"* (#56, Q67). These align with Jack and Anderson's (2002) findings, and support the view that the business start-up of the lifestyle entrepreneur can be aligned with economic goals. However, the data provided far clearer evidence of social influences, such as independence; *"I thought I might like working for myself"* (#16), *"Helped me learn that I value my independence and doing things in a way I believe in"* (#71). There was also significant evidence of self-actualisation motivations which supports the social viewpoint, and will be discussed in reviewing research question 3.

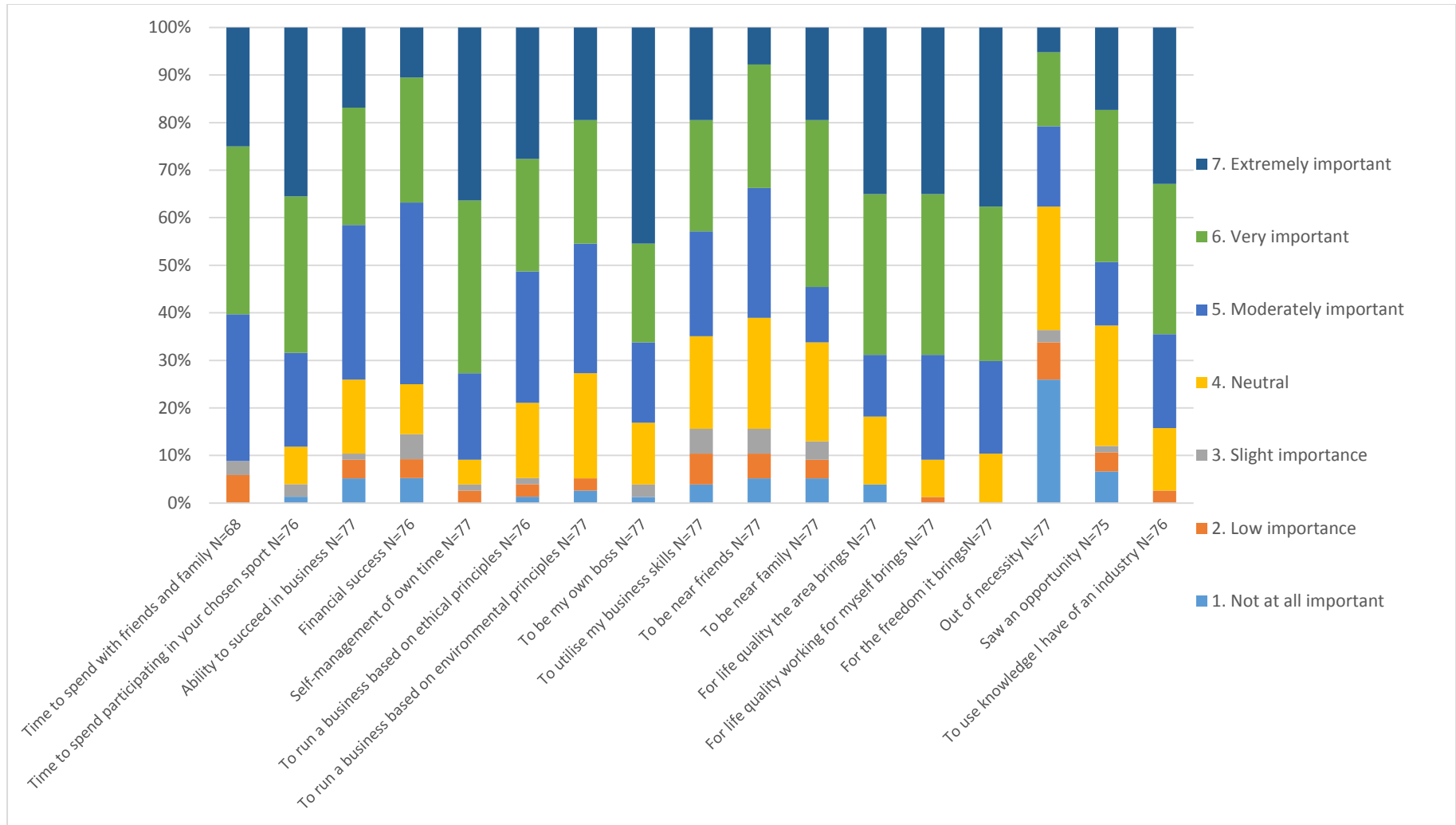


Figure 19. Thinking about your business today, how would you rate the importance of the following in your decision to run your own business

Kuratko and Hodgetts (2001) state that *'Lifestyle ventures appear to have independence, autonomy, and control as their primary driving forces'* (2001: 362). This is reflected in the results shown in Figure 16 above, with 'To be my own boss' and 'Self-management of own time' among the most important reasons. The biggest rejection of reasoning was 'Out of necessity', which goes against the views of lifestyle entrepreneurship emerging as a result of individuals having little ambition or education to do anything else. The results indicate a drive towards and pride themselves of knowledge utilisation.

There were other indicators that the entrepreneur had business focus. When asked to highlight business challenges (Figure 18), competition and macroeconomic issues were identified as some of the most frequently found. These are outward facing challenges to the enterprise and its entrepreneur owner, and therefore indicate a strong consideration for what is going on outside of the business, and the impact this has on their operation.

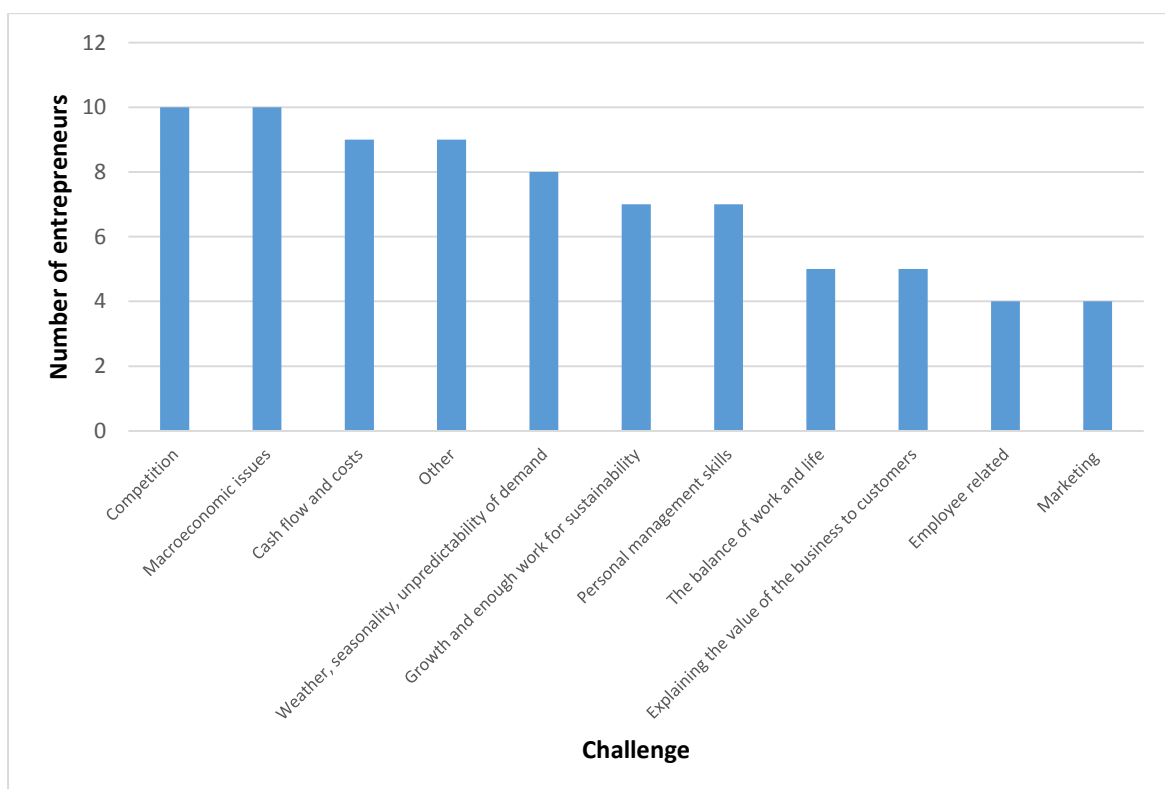


Figure 20. What would you describe as the biggest challenges you face within your business? (n=78)

As found through the literature review, there were a number of commonly held beliefs about the characteristics that a lifestyle entrepreneur displayed. As Deakins and Freel (2003) viewed that there was a distinction between 'lifestyle businesses' and 'entrepreneurial firms', indicating that the motives behind a lifestyle-focussed business could not be entrepreneurial, and were more associated with the push factors of redundancy and lack of employment opportunity of the individual. To some degree, this does resonate with participants Andrew (Sea kayaking instructor - Engager), and Ed; Andrew highlighted how he was not given the opportunities through employment to work in the physical role he wanted, and Ed found that he was limited to sitting at a computer while recovering from a serious accident. While these appear to be 'push' factors for both participants, they both also strongly exhibit both entrepreneurial qualities that pulled them into their entrepreneurial roles, and definitive lifestyle choices. Ed identified a clear gap in the market for a local brand was able to use his technical skills to successfully start the business. The difficulty in distinguishing between push and pull has also been identified by Nabi et al. (2013) in their discussion of graduate start-ups. The issue of lifestyle choice is perhaps one of the most fundamental ways in which lifestyle entrepreneurs are identified through the literature, however the results here suggest a much more complex approach to this reason. The best way to examine this is through the stories of how the businesses were formed. The entrepreneurs interviewed exhibited a number of different ways in which their businesses were formed, or how they came to be entrepreneurs. For some of them, it was a clear endeavour to work for themselves, however the majority of respondents came to the decision through a series of experiences.

Of the 80 participants to the questionnaire, there was a clear gender difference in the respondents, with 84% participants being male. This is concurrent with other lifestyle entrepreneurship studies (see for example Gomez-Velasco and Saleilles, 2007) and specifically lifestyle sports studies (see for example Atlejevic and Doorne, 2000; Marchant and Mottiar, 2007) where more male participants were seen. This difference in gender was carried forward into the interview sample.

The issues surrounding female participation were considered by the researcher, but this area of investigation requires further exploration beyond this thesis, and shall be considered in the Future Research section.

[What happens when the two identities collide?](#)

The participants saw their business as a way to follow their passion, as identified in Figure 16 above (reason for setting up the business). This is evidence of the entrepreneurs actively seeking to combine the two aspects of their lives; that of work and 'play'. Reflecting on Shaw and Williams' (2004) study of lifestyle entrepreneurs in Cornwall, Holland and Martin (2015) highlight that 'they embody a new breed of purposeful migrants to whom work and life are blurred' (2015: 25). This moves the debate of the lifestyle entrepreneur on from its initial definitions of individuals who sacrifice successful work and the expense of successful lifestyles, and supports the more recent definition suggested by Lewis (2008) that success should be investigated beyond the currently examined limits of growth and profitability.

In addressing the ways in which work and life co-exist, the research identified a number of ways in which these lifestyle entrepreneurs identified themselves, through the modes of work and life. This finding supports the presence of both Social Identity Theory and Identity Theory as potential frameworks on which to understand the entrepreneurs' positionality.

For some of the entrepreneurs, work and life were seen through the traditionalised lens of the balance; *“three years into the company I wouldn’t turn down work, so I was probably working 80:20, you know 80 per cent work, 20 percent play”* (Andrew, Sea kayaking instructor - Engager). Some of the entrepreneurs expanded this idea further, to established roles that they fulfilled; Laurence (Telecoms, Enabler) sees himself having three roles; a dad, a business man, and an athlete. These findings correspond directly to the notion of role-based identities of Identity Theory, which McCall and Simmons (1978, in Stets and Burke, 2000) says involves negotiation within the role.

Within this group, flexibility is used frequently as a term to describe how they manage the co-existence of these roles. In their study into lifestyle entrepreneurs, Mottiar (2007) identified that the entrepreneurs’ focus on lifestyle can change dependent on the situation of the individual, particularly with regards to changing requirements of other identities they possess, such as familial roles. This again aligns with Shepherd and Patzelt’s (2018) consideration of the importance of entrepreneurs’ managing their multiple identities, where strategies for managing various and boundaries of identities contributes to the entrepreneur’s overall psychological wellbeing.

For this reason, it is not possible to surmise that all the entrepreneurs experience the same levels of life quality positives or deficits at the expense of the business and growth requirements. This is supported by those entrepreneurs who demonstrate how growth can be a positive component of their enterprise. This is supported with similar findings of Spowart et al’s. (2010) study of surfing mums, where ‘for some of the women, the ‘time-out’ from motherhood figured strongly in their testimony; for others surfing was construed as

intrinsically satisfying, as an activity that facilitated access to a different mode of being' (2010: 142).

The understanding of the integration of the sport, work and life is critical for the research. Fundamentally what separates a lot of these entrepreneurs from 'regular' entrepreneurs or even other lifestyle entrepreneurs is the motivation and transformation of life goals; it is the unique draw of the sport and culture that ties them to work in the industry. John identifies this when describing his decision to work within the surfing industry;

"Well, for the type of work I did I was an apprentice tool maker –ok- so inaudible... yeah- But mainly it was just you know, I would get up in the dark and used to get home in the dark- yeah- and on the way to work, out the bus window, I could see this advert for Australian butter , and yeah the bloke was on his surfboard –right- his pair of shorts with a tray of butter (laughter) I just looked at this every morning and I just thought, shucks, I don't want to be here. –no" (John, Surfboard shaper, Engager).

The ways in which the lifestyle sport drives the individual's work and life goals is clear from many of the interviews. The feeling that the sport 'takes over' as the priority, whether that be gradually or suddenly as described by John above, begins to distinguish the identity of the lifestyle sports entrepreneur. More in-depth than just to say 'wanting' to make a living out of a hobby, for some of the entrepreneurs, a crux point came in their lives; *"I wanted to compete in world cups and I'd once went to my head teacher...the third time he said look [name] you can't keep on taking time off school – hmm – either you're a teacher or a paraglide pilot, so I said I'm going to give up teaching" (Sarah, House rental business, Enabler).*

Other researchers have analysed their lifestyle entrepreneurs' journey (see Mottiar, 2007), and have identified that the entrepreneurs can move towards a profit focus as they become more recognised. This is however not the case in this study. For some of the lifestyle entrepreneurs, the opposite occurs. This is exemplified in the discussions above, where at business start-up there is more profit focus, but as the business develops, so lifestyle goals become more predominant.

it's an investment in yourself and actually if you do get that and you kind of become quite passionate about the sport, then yeah I mean it really does begin to take over so the decisions of where you live, you know everything- what you eat, what you drive, um you who you go out with (Ian, Tuiton and retailing windsurfing, SUP, kitesurfing, Engager).

What emerges from this data is themes of competing and complementing motives or goals which ultimately appear to shape the entrepreneur, particularly as they begin their lifestyle entrepreneurial journey.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has analysed how lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports can be identified, particularly through the lens of 'becoming' the lifestyle entrepreneur. The chapter firstly set out the variation in the types of entrepreneurs who had participated in the research, to demonstrate any differences that may have resulted from their proximity to the sport through their enterprises. These groups were identified as Engagers and Enablers.

Further analysis of the data revealed the potential to segment the Engager group based on Ollenburg (2005, in Helgadóttir and Sigurdardóttir's, 2008) approach of active to passive

connection with the sport. This allowed for a more rigorous summary of the forms that lifestyle entrepreneurship within lifestyle sports can take, and any impact this may have had on the identity of the lifestyle entrepreneur. The impact of this has not been previously examined in the literature, however was considered by the researcher as an important factor, as 'connection' (to the environment, to the culture, to the community – see Rinehart and Sydnor, 2003; Wheaton 2004a) is seen as fundamental to lifestyle sport pursuits.

Through analysis of the questionnaire data, an identification of how the participants viewed the connection between growth and profit was achieved. An open interpretation of who lifestyle entrepreneurs could be was utilised at this stage, in order that themes could emerge from the data which would allow for a potential new reconceptualization. Through the examination of particular Likert scale and open-ended questions, the researcher identified the 'Purist' lifestyle entrepreneur type (Marchant and Mottiar, 2011) existing within the research group, and also evidence of the 'Freestyle' lifestyle entrepreneur (Lewis, 2008). The 'Purist' type was more predominant in the findings, and was represented through clear discussions of eschewing finances and profit making. Financial success was deemed important by other 'Freestyle' entrepreneurs in order to fulfil their individual lifestyle goals. Engaging specifically with the extreme cases, these types were clearly identifiable.

While current definitions use profit maximisation to identify lifestyle entrepreneurs through a process of exclusion of non-profit focussed entrepreneurs, it is clear from the analysis of the present data that there are other aspects that are meaningful to lifestyle entrepreneurs in this context affecting how they identify as lifestyle entrepreneurs (or not). This was summarised by one participant as "*growth in the right way*". For the Enabler group,

competing and complementing roles, responsibilities and identities were discussed alongside this.

While in some instances lifestyle entrepreneurs conformed to current definitions of the lifestyle entrepreneur (Kaplan and Warren, 2010 – earning income for the style of life; Marcketti et al. 2006 – aligning the business with ‘personal values, interests and passions’ (2006: 214)), an emerging theme unique to the lifestyle sports context appeared which married the business person identity and sports person identity through new ways, resulting in alternative views of identity that have to be carefully managed and negotiated by the lifestyle entrepreneurs themselves. This was most dominant in the Engager group. Traditional lifestyle sport cultural factors flowed throughout the lifestyle entrepreneurs’ discussions of self-identity of who they are and how they are defined, as well as how this impacts on their enterprises. Who does business with them, and who they do business with, is fundamentally linked to their position as a lifestyle sports entrepreneur. This supports and develops Edwards and Corte’s (2010) research on the “authentic” nature of what they term ‘Movement Enterprises’. The findings also support the continued discussions of underrepresentation of females in entrepreneurship. The masculine hegemony in lifestyle sports was represented though the data collected.

Al-Dajani’s (2009) conclusions of awareness of growth potential of lifestyle enterprises based on their motivations and growth potential may serve as both cause and effect. Furthermore, these findings do not support the conceptualisation of Peters et al. (2009) that there is always an initial deficit in quality of life at the beginning of the business. Instead, for some of the lifestyle entrepreneurs, no dip in quality of life is experienced as part of the business development process. Furthermore, for other entrepreneurs, quality of life can be more

volatile than for others, and, from the perspective of the lifestyle entrepreneur in lifestyle sports, again careful negotiation between life roles and identities needs to be met in order to maintain a stable harmony between work and life quality. This therefore impacts on how the entrepreneurs develop their preferred lifestyle.

The next chapter will review the factors that shape the lifestyle entrepreneur beyond the surface level themes of business growth and profit that are currently supported in the literature, to determine how the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneur can be affected.

Research Question 2: What factors affect the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneur, and how are these negotiated?

The aim of this research question is to explore the themes generated from the data collection which affect the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneur, and take the understanding of the lifestyle entrepreneur beyond the issues of profit, growth and lifestyle alignment. The author's conceptualisation of the literature will be consulted throughout this exploration to consider the current literature and understanding, as well as a building towards a new conceptual model.

From the previous research question which analysed how the entrepreneurs can be identified, factors shaping the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneurs began to emerge, none least the emergence of Engager and Enabler groups. It is clear that the merging of sport and business produces unique challenges which the entrepreneur has to negotiate in order to support a successful lifestyle orientation and identity. This question will therefore analyse how these factors affect the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneur, and explore how they are negotiated. Analysis will firstly draw on the emergence of the lifestyle entrepreneur's business, before moving to the running of the business, and finally future plans. These themes emerged from the questionnaire responses, which were then pursued further through the interviews. Themes were also apparent from the literature, and supported the development of lines of questioning.

Non-Business Events

The initial reason and rationale for starting a business were first explored as the researcher feels the decision making required for the entrepreneur to become a lifestyle entrepreneur played a significant role in beginning to understand the lifestyle orientation of the

entrepreneurs. The researcher's original conceptualisation of the literature demonstrated a number of 'push' and 'pull' factors which contributed to the creation of the lifestyle entrepreneur, but they did not adequately address the contextual rationale behind each of these reasons.

A recurring feature of the entrepreneurs' explanations were 'life events'; examples from the questionnaire responses such as *"a person I employed who became a good friend and we had some super adventures together died of Cancer - "don't put off to tomorrow what you can do today, as tomorrow may never come!"* (#3, Q67) - which prompted the start of their businesses. These life events were sub-coded to provide more detail, and can be seen from the coding tree below;

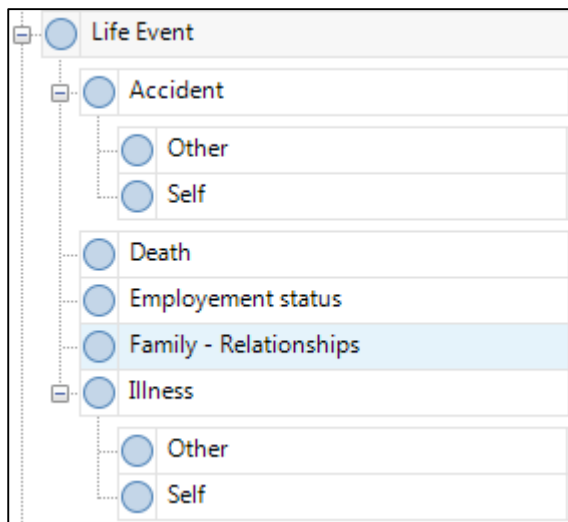


Figure 21. Coding tree for 'Life event' (Source: Author's own).

The entrepreneurs interviewed demonstrated a range of life events which have had a direct impact on the start-up of the business, resulting from and with a lifestyle focus, as well as the effect on the lifestyle orientation through the course of running the business. Some of these events were sub-categorised by happening to the entrepreneur – for example an accident -

or happening to others around them – for example the unexpected death of a close friend. The entrepreneurs demonstrated the complex nature of these factors; Andrew (Sea kayaking instructor - Engager) describes how *“a number of events coincided”*, and provided a re-evaluation of work life. These events were both physical – accident and injury, and employment opportunities. Ed’s stimulus to start his online businesses came from recovering from an accident; *“about the only thing I could do was sit at a computer – and that’s how the business started”*. This corresponds with Massey *et al’s.* (2006) research which highlighted ‘personal issues such as the death of a family member or close friend, a change in marital status or health problems’ (2006: 5) as points impacting on firm development.

In opposition to the researcher’s original conceptualisation, rather than identifying these events as ‘push’ or ‘pull’ factors, the lifestyle entrepreneurs discuss these as simply stimuli for the act of lifestyle entrepreneurship to take place. Nabi *et al.* (2013) identify the difficulty in distinguishing between such push and pull factors in decisions to start a business, and as such this offers a more comprehensible way of viewing these events. This is compounded by the requirement of the lifestyle element, and the focus on lifestyle sports.

In their study of firm development amongst SMEs, Massey *et al.* (2006) highlight similar life events which impacted on the ways in which the firms developed. They highlight these as ‘non-business events’, and identified that these ‘impacted on how the business was run, the direction it took, and ultimately on its future in terms of growth and development’ (2006). Furthermore, their research highlighted the ways in which lifestyle entrepreneurs can be identified through such narratives. This supports the view that the lifestyle entrepreneur can be defined by their focus on these ‘non-business events’, which act as stimuli for business direction. This gives more depth to the discussion of how lifestyle entrepreneurs are defined,

and as such also acts as a key variable for how the lifestyle entrepreneur orientates themselves as an entrepreneur.

Fundamental to this particular group of lifestyle entrepreneurs were non-business events that centred around the lifestyle sport, however all of the participants interviewed chose to actively describe their participation in their chosen lifestyle sport as a reason for starting their business. Much like the results of Gomez-Velasco and Saleillies' (2007) research, there appeared to be a 'central' lifestyle motivation, upon which other motivations were hinged. For almost all of the lifestyle entrepreneurs interviewed, this central motivation appeared to be their participation and connection to their sport.

This builds on the author's conceptualisation of the literature which originally posited this a one in a series of considerations, but in light of this research is articulated as a founding principle on which other decisions are then made. This also supports the interpretation of how these lifestyle entrepreneurs chose to construct their identities, through Social Identity Theory, aligning with 'in-group' culture.

Participation and meaning

Based on the above finding of central motivations of sport, participation and meaning emerged as a fundamental element of shaping the entrepreneur's lifestyle orientation. The data highlight the confusion surrounding lifestyle sports' classification as a sport. Thus, whether lifestyle sports can definitively be classified as sports continues to be unclear. For some, it is not a sport at all; *"I don't actually see it as a sport but hey all words"* (QR10), and identify how the two words can be contradictory; *"some see it as a sport, some see it as a lifestyle"* (Olly). Others actively seem to reject the notion that their business activity can be classified as a sport; one questionnaire participant indicated that their business was not

related to sport, however on describing the business activity this was described as “*relaxed, sociable cycling holidays*” (#5, Q10).

This furthers the discussion of the relevance of Social Identity Theory, as these entrepreneurs start to evidence their classification into a social ‘in-group’ (Stets and Burke, 2000), that has a distinction from an opposing out-group, with specific regard to their identity with ‘sport’. Coupled with this is the distinct sense of importance that the Engager positionality plays in supporting this social identity construct.

In consideration of this, Figure 19 below supports the current lifestyle sport literature on how a sport can be classified as ‘lifestyle’ (Rinehart and Sydnor, 2003; Wheaton 2004a). This was developed using question 82 from the questionnaire “How would you describe your reason for participating in the sport?” The areas of freedom, enjoyment and fun and love and passion were amongst the most frequently selected ways of describing their reason for participation. Physical strength (becoming stronger through fitness) was also seen as a popular reason for participating, and was not something highlighted from previous studies (see for example Wheaton 2004a).

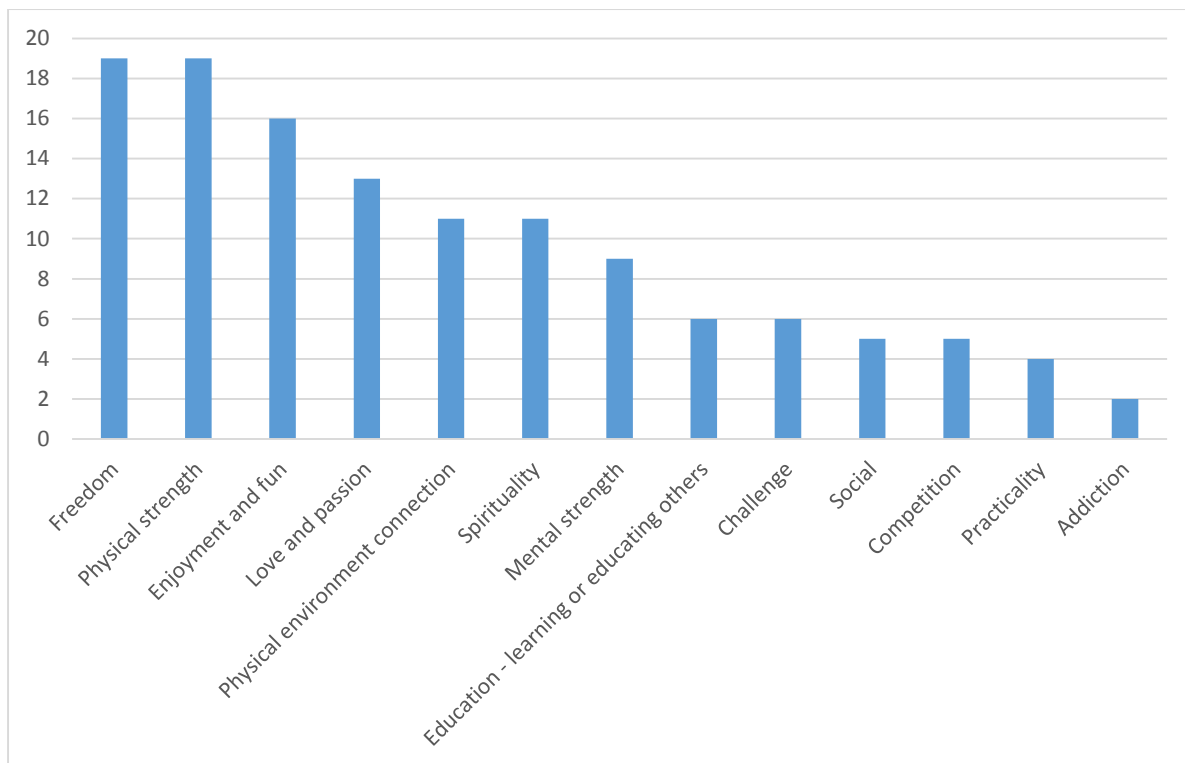


Figure 22. How would you describe your reason for participating in the sport? (Responses coded – multiple reposes per participant possible) (n=126)

There is a real variation in how participants came to participate in their chosen sport. Some participants described their participation as emerging from childhood; “well I grew up on the beach” (John). These were coded as an innate and natural affinity for the participation, and can be exemplified through some of the narratives provided by the participants through the interviews;

“my mum tells me stories of apparently when I was a child they’d be at the beach and I’d be blue, in and out the water, and they’d be trying to remove me to go home and I’d be screaming, ... So I think had that like natural affinity- draw- to the sea” (Andrew, Sea kayaking instructor - Engager).

The retelling of these memories appeared to play a key role in how entrepreneurs made choices around their lifestyle and business roles, and supports the importance placed on the

sport being central to the participants' lifestyle. Other participants highlighted how the location they grew up in provided them with the chance to explore participating in the sports; *"at lunchtime I'd be climbing up and down the cliffs and doing all sorts of stuff (laughter) so one nickname was jungle kid"* (Tom).

These remarks indicate the influence of social and environmental surroundings on the individual's decisions to participate, and the identity that is constructed. Beaumont (2011) described this as the 'Nurturing Stage' when applied to the surfer's career, and demonstrated how this was applied to both at a young and older age groups entering the sport. Beaumont (2011) goes on to identify how the nurture stage involves the support of others from within the culture. There was also evidence to support this through the data gathered. Examples can be seen in Andrew's participation in kayaking with his older brother, and how Bob started climbing with friends while at university.

Other participants talk about the influence of the media, and these were coded as such;

"at ten years old I saw um um World of Sport, in was on TV on a Saturday, and it said today we're going to bring you surfing from Hawaii, and as soon as I saw it the heart started thumping, the guts were churning and turning, and I thought that's what I want to do ... so it was always reading, you know looking at the Beach Boys album covers with surfboards on and things like that, and um that sparked the seed" (Frank, Surfboard shaper).

In the same way that some of the individuals associated childhood memories to the shaping of their business and sport participation, these interactions also describe how the entrepreneurs run their businesses, and how they view their own interaction.

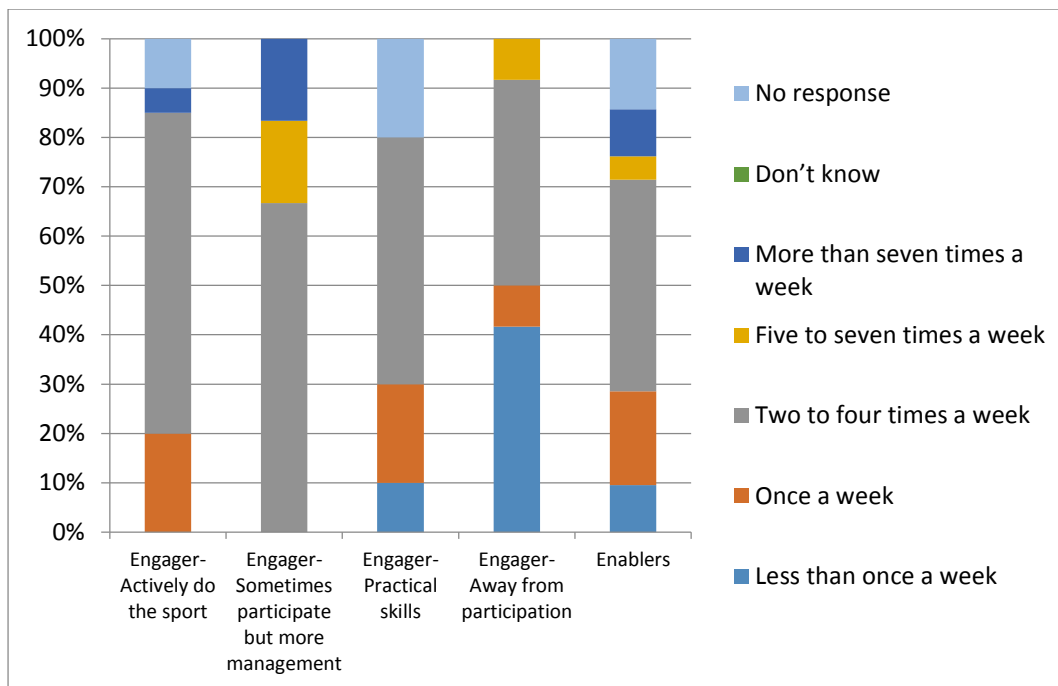


Figure 23. Questionnaire Question 79: How often do you participate in your chosen sport? Answers categories by Engagers (and sub categories) and Enablers.

The difference between the types of Engagers and Enablers raises an interesting point in the discussion of how the role impacts upon the ability of the entrepreneur to participate. As expected, the Engager sub-categories demonstrated a relatively high level of participation (see also Appendix 4). This was anticipated due to the ‘hands-on’ nature of the role, in the participation itself was part of the role and therefore there would be more opportunity to do this. This was not however the category which demonstrated the highest levels of frequency, which may have been expected. Instead, the higher frequency categories were seen with the Enablers, and the Engagers with more managerial positions.

Although Andrew highlights that his active role within the business allows him to follow his passion, the actual act of personal participation is separate; *“it’s a different level, it’s at a different time and place”* (Andrew, Sea kayaking instructor - Engager). Andrew also highlights that he has taken up other lifestyle sports; *“last year I took up paddle boarding and partly that’s because if I have done a ten day stretch and I’ve got two days off, I don’t want to get*

back in my sea kayak" (Andrew). He sees this as a positive however, being able to still connect with the environment; *"I can still be out on the sea bobbing around and I've got a new perspective so I like a new challenge in a sense"* (Andrew). Matt (Outdoor activities and adventure) provides a similar story of purposely selecting another sport, but instead this allowed him to channel his competitive side into the thing that was not his lifestyle sport and business focus.

This is an interesting and novel finding which appears amongst only some of the entrepreneurs. They appear to be turning to other activities because the original one has become 'work' to them. They still need the connection to the environment, but they appear to need it in a different way. There also appears to be a process of negotiation, similar to that seen in addressing the business and sports person identity, that is emerging here as participation. While there is still clear alignment with identity and lifestyle sports group, this adds a further dimension to the understanding of how this particular group of lifestyle entrepreneurs 'enact' their sport and entrepreneurship roles, over and above Peters and Frehes' (2009) interpretation demonstrated in the author's conceptualisation of the literature.

The Engagers who operate in roles that are away from active participation highlighted the less frequent categories, with 50 percent participating less than or only once a week. For some of these individuals, this was an active choice, but for others, the demands of the business meant that they physically could not participate. For example, Dennis describes how his own participation has diminished since having to work to support the business during some more challenging economic times. He is clear that this is not a negative however; as he appears

content in the compromises he has to currently make for the long term success of the business.

The ideas discussed above generate the impression of a cycle of negotiation between lifestyle terms and business terms as indicated previously. This will be developed further through the discussion of other factors that appear to affect the lifestyle entrepreneur.

The analysis of participation 'for all' was also explicit through the data, and was generic across all of the sports identified;

"it's great because I'm seeing more and more late 20's early 30's whereas once upon a time it was very much seagull-eating wellington-wearing individuals in a sense and it –I think it was more well if you paddle 40miles in a day you're a sea kayaker, and it's become really broad" (Andrew, Sea Kayaking instructor - Engager).

In Richard's business, he sees opportunities to expand his cycle training to all age groups and abilities too; *"so it's about seeing the benefits of cycling for different groups"* (Richard, Cycling instructor). These observations correspond to Hajkowicz et al.'s (2013) identification that with increasingly sedentary work lives, individuals are seeking more active and energetic past-times to support 'the innate human drive for adventure and thrills' (Hajkowicz et al., 2013: 12).

Networks, Community and Embeddedness

It is the view of McKeever et al. (2014) that 'context is now recognised as a critical factor in explaining the situatedness of the entrepreneurial process. According to this, entrepreneurs

are embedded in networks, places and communities which socially frame resources and opportunities' (2014: 50).

Engagement with others, on customer and community levels, is central to the understanding of this group of entrepreneurs. Jack *et al.* (2002) define embeddedness as 'the nature, depth, and extent of individual's ties into the environment' (2002: 468). The discussion of the integration of sport and work therefore moves on to concern itself with the integration of the entrepreneur in the environment, but more importantly reputation, to build the business through informal networks, to develop embeddedness both as an entrepreneur and sports-person. Figure 24 demonstrates the response to questions surrounding customer relationships for the Engager group.

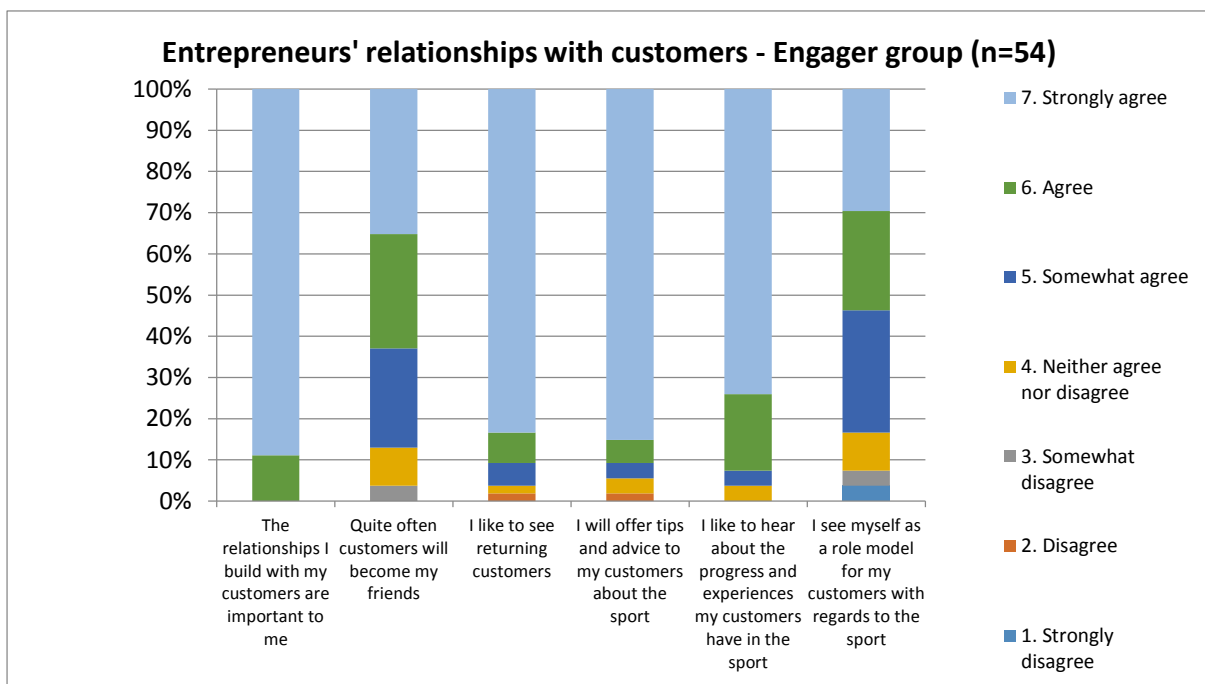


Figure 24. Engagers customer relationships (n=54)

The responses indicate that the entrepreneurs do not see their businesses through a transactional lens, and instead place value on the relationships that are created. Advice,

knowledge of experiences, and ongoing relationships at the business level were all clearly important aspects to the entrepreneurs. Aspects of friendship and role model relationships were also identified as being important. This conforms to Johannisson and Mønsted's (1997) interpretation that '*craftsperson owner-managers* usually build networks based on shared norms (according to tradition) and values, while *genuine opportunistic entrepreneurs* are assumed to combine calculative as well as the more individual oriented affective strands e.g., friendship in their personal network ties' (1997: 116).

Interpretation of the questionnaire data surrounding customer relationships provided evidence to support the further enquiry of this theme through the interviews. Firstly, the notion of building relationships through the business was identified through a number of means, as demonstrated from the codes below;

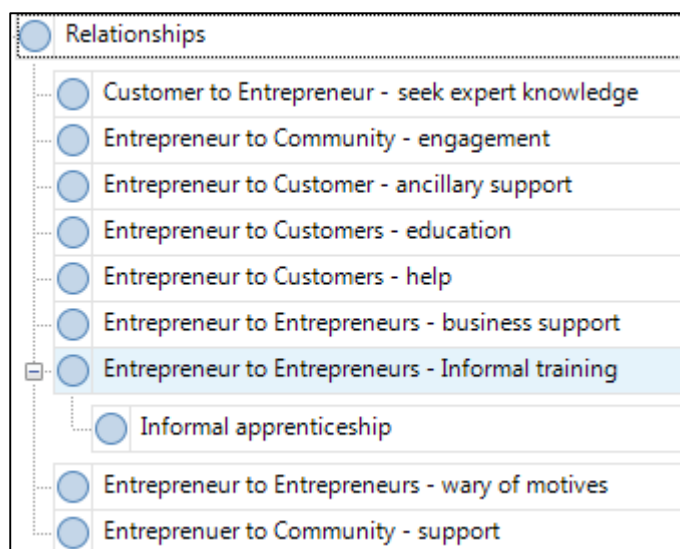


Figure 25. Coding tree for 'Relationships' (Source: Author's own).

The first set of relationship codes centred around the help and education, and were mostly, and unsurprisingly, found in those Engagers whose businesses were formed around customer participation. There was repetition amongst the entrepreneurs identifying that helping

customers with their participation is important; *“I get an enormous amount of satisfaction out of helping people um to get engaged in the sport and to educate them along the way”* (Harry), *“I’m actually qualified British cycle coach so I can actually help someone like you to improve their technique”* (Richard). This help was extended to the equipment required - *“to offer them advice about equipment as well which is why I’ve taken on the role of a shop as well”* (Harry), and also tied to business focus - *“If you sell them the right kit, they’ll keep coming back”* (Olly). These findings corroborate with Andersson Cederholm and Hultman (2010)’s conclusions that ‘intimacy is used to differentiate lifestyle businesses from other kinds of comparable activities, the interaction between producer and consumer is at the heart of the commercial offering’ (2010: 29).

McKeever et al’s. (2014) findings of entrepreneurial embeddedness support this and develop the idea of embeddedness to support a reciprocal notion that ‘communities can be shaped by entrepreneurship but communities also shape and form entrepreneurial outcomes’ (2015: 62). This is taken from the social perspective of contribution, not an economic one. This is exemplified by Frank;

“I always used to ride other people’s surfboards, and it’s what got me into riding- um making me own boards as well is when I’d buy somebody else’s board or try somebody else’s board and they didn’t go as well as mine, so I thought well I’m not going to make one of theirs when I can make my own, so it was that progression of keep making boards, and then friends would say, oh that’s nice, can you make me a board? So you go ok, you make them a board and then that whole thing built up” (Frank, Surfboard shaper).

The community embeddedness extended beyond this to include the training of the entrepreneurs in their fields of work. For example, the surfboard shapers served informal apprenticeships through experience in the networks of the existing shapers within the community; *“the fact that I was a fairly decent surfer- promoted the surfboards to an extent – ok – ‘cos people would come to me because I was a fairly decent em, shaper, and surfer as well”* (John). Olly was described as ‘the font of all knowledge’ during his interview, and although he is a kitesurf repairer and retailer, often is asked his advice on the weather and conditions for kitesurfing. He is therefore recognised by the kitesurfing community as being knowledgeable. This therefore gives him legitimacy.

Location

In examining enterprises within the rural setting, Jack and Anderson (2002) identified that embeddedness can therefore specifically create ‘a contextual competitive advantage. Social embeddedness was found to be a process of becoming part of the structure’ (2002: 468). Frank identifies this through his business;

“he saw our boards down in, this industrial estate here since the seventy’s has been where the surfboards in [location] have all been made, ... so it’s been encapsulated round here, as [location] as the place to make boards.” (Frank, Surfboard shaper).

Frank’s description of the ‘encapsulated’ location of the hand-made surfboard industry echoes the description of Edward and Corte’s (2010) findings of the ‘BMX Mecca’ in their research into the commercialisation of BMXing. This geographic attraction creates the destination for the sport, which then provides an opportunity for entrepreneurs to develop businesses.

There is however a practicality element which appears in both the Engager and Enabler narratives which concentrates the of the discussions. Just as Frank describes ‘the place to make boards’, other lifestyle entrepreneurs discussed the geographical requirements for their business. Andrew explained a clear rationale for positioning his business in its current location, after examining several potential sites, he identified the location based both on its appropriateness for the business, and also access for his potential customers. Harry noted that he “*found a spot after wading round for many weeks um in a wetsuit along our beaches*” to set up his kitesurfing business.

It is clear that the issue of location has complex meanings. McKeever et al. (2014) identify that ‘places are not simply sites of production and consumption, but areas of meaningful social life’ (2014: 52). In their study of entrepreneurs within nature based businesses, Sorensson et al., (2017) identified place as a significant identifier for their entrepreneurial types. In their identification process, Sorensson et al (2017) use focus on place against focus on product or service to create the continuum.

In comparison to Sorensson et al’s (2017) study, location was a complex feature of the results from this thesis. For some participants the desire to live in a certain location is motivated entirely from the perspective of being able to participate in a sport, and for others there appears to be a package of benefits that the location offers. This was somewhat predicated by the Engager, Enabler, or Engager and Enabler make-up of the entrepreneur, and again the Engagers and Enablers scale of proximity to the sport as demonstrated in Figure 15. Engagers with the most active roles chose to position their businesses out of necessity for example.

Location was therefore denoted from the business perspective and from a practical perspective of sport participation for many of the entrepreneurs. Both Bob (Online climbing

retailer) and Pete (Makes furniture and bespoke joinery) utilised workshop space on their parents' farms to start up their businesses. Pete identifies that the practical location for his business can mean tempering his ability to fly; he admits that the amount of flying he can do is compromised by the location of the business; *"not something that I could really transfer abroad without taking a very long time so to build up a reputation again"*.

For Gregg, the location of the business had complex meaning;

"Yeah I mean I love- I live in [location] obviously and I love the bay and I mean in terms of where we are for the business, it doesn't really make a difference I don't think you know. Wedding's, commercial work, it's pretty easily available if you want to hunt for it anywhere. Yep. Um, the surf photography side of things obviously is a little trickier here, we don't get amazing waves, we have to travel quite a bit for that" (Gregg, Surf and kayak photographer)

It is clear that location is a priority in his lifestyle choices. The irony here is that the location choice is driven by lifestyle, but not totally for the sport or the business, but a combination of other lifestyle factors. In their research, Jack and Anderson (2002) found that 'for the entrepreneurs, location provided advantages rather than disadvantages. However, these were no conventional economic advantages but were more to do with the social aspects of the area' (2002: 478).

The use of networks extends beyond the externalities of customer acquirement, to the informal relationships that the entrepreneurs have with others to assist them with their work. As well as their employees, entrepreneurs also demonstrated the use of informal assistance, through friends and family helping out with the business. 43.8% (n=80) of the entrepreneurs utilise help from others. These people undertook a range of roles, from non-business related

“make tea” (#1), through to technical skills “Help with marketing advice” (#4), “Help with tax return” (#34), and full outsourcing of work “subcontractors, not employees” (#43), “I operate a network of freelance workers based on their skill and area of expertise all over the world” (#76).

Extensions to this network were often seen in the family relationships that the individuals have. Sarah tells the story of how it was her husband’s income that first supported her when she launched her paragliding career and left teaching. In 2002, her business became successful enough that it supported him to go to art school. She talks about the reciprocal value that they have shared; *“so since 2002 my business has been a support for both of us, you know him- him supporting me in 1996 – yep – um because he was earning good money then, enabled me to develop my skills to paraglide...but my business has maintained his artwork since 2002”* (Sarah, Enabler).

It is therefore clear that networks and embeddedness have a guiding on entrepreneurial behaviour.

“there are a lot of others, self employed craftsmen like me in this area so if I have a big commission I can, um, get extra hands on board to help with that short term, jobs, short term contracts. – sure - Things like metal work, I’ve got to make a massive great table, industrial style boardroom table next week, - right – I’m not, I’m not very good at welding, I know a guy who can” (Pete, Makes furniture and bespoke joinery).

Uzzi (1997) highlights the problems of over-embeddedness. They state that this can stifle a network of businesses. Craig (Online surf retailer) highlights he experienced this with entering the surf retail market; he had started a new online shop and he felt that because this was not

the traditional approach to retailing within the surf community, his business was refused by wholesalers. He goes on to describe the lack of trust given to him;

“when I started uh I think there was even wholesale companies that refused to sell to me because I was only an internet company and I didn’t have a shop. Um, and also there was very much a stigma towards internet, you know, people thought it was almost cheating because you know you didn’t have to buy a shop and pay the rates and all that” (Craig, Online surf retailer)

In their research into lifestyle entrepreneur’s and inter-firm relationships, Mottiar (2007) proposed that lifestyle entrepreneurs who were not originally from the location may have experienced difficulties with inter-firm relationships. This mirrored some of the findings from the thesis study, as Craig identified;

“Very much a kind of you know who are you. You know I used to get people coming- I mean I run that from my home. I used to get people turning up and going so, who are you? Wow. Where’ve you come from? Wow. They- oh it was very weird- kind of weird” (Craig, Online surf retailer)

Craig is an example of an innovator in his field and highlights the struggles he had to enter into the networks. These struggles were not so apparent with those individuals who had always been involved in the industry and sport, such as Ed and Frank (Surfboard shaper). This therefore highlights a further uniqueness to the context that lifestyle sports bring. The counter-cultural movements that are represented in the literature (Wheaton, 2004) and the push and pull of commercialisation in the sports (Humphreys, 1997; 2003) produce challenges for newcomers into the business operation, when they do not bring with them historical

underpinnings of belonging to the culture; they therefore have a constructed embeddedness as they try to develop their place within the culture.

Olly's is an example of an organic approach to embeddedness, as his business evolved over time to the position that it is in now. His participation also evolved; he was a surfer from the age of 17 and progressed to kitesurfing in middle age in what he defines as a mid-life crisis. He was introduced to it by a friend, but at a time when the sport was only just emerging, and as such he found it difficult to find lessons.

Self-actualisation and altruistic actions

In light of the previous work on lifestyle entrepreneurship (see Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000), there was the expectation that there would be a degree of selfishness in their pursuit of personal happiness and achievement. This was supported by Olly "*I've always done things I enjoy*", and Tom "*I'm teaching I do it because I like to teach*". The data revealed a more complex approach to altruistic motives; "*regarding teaching paragliding I'm ONLY interested in saving lives, nothing else matters!*" (sic) (#75), "*well I don't want to sound like I'm too sort of saintly but I think the main thing that drives is I just want to see more people riding their bikes*" (Richard), "*Whatever I'm doing today is my choice*" (Nigel, Online results page provider).

The hedonism that Wheaton (1997) discusses as a part of lifestyle sport participants' characteristics is not so apparent amongst this group. Whilst they seek the freedom that she also attributes to the types of sports, there is much less of a sense of self-only satisfaction. This point also goes against some of current definitions of lifestyle entrepreneurs, as they can

be identified as being introspective when deciding on how and why their businesses operate. There are however clear links to the cultures that they serve which demonstrates a fundamental speciality amongst the Engager group of lifestyle sports entrepreneurs. Nigel (Online results page provider) summarises this well;

So that's why (the business) exists, is it's purely for the small communities... it's helping communities rather than just trying to make money. I mean, I don't I personally don't charge it for anything to use it because of that, because I want it to be these are free. I because of that, I do enjoy doing it. (Nigel)

The data revealed far more of a correspondence to the studies of Cederholm and Hultman (2010) and Sweeney *et al.* (2018), which both identified that lifestyle entrepreneurs develop their own lifestyles through the idea of being 'both producers and consumers' (Sweeney *et al.*, 2018: 96). For example, Nigel (Online results page provider) identifies that "*I want- I want people to want to work with me rather than for me. So, you know, it's a semantic difference, but it's quite important difference in how our companies work. Like if you if you want to work with someone that the company does better*".

The values expressed above resonate with research conducted by Anderson and Smith (2007) where entrepreneurship, examined through a socially constructed lens, can be seen to be legitimate and authentic; 'if an entrepreneurship practice is socially legitimized, it can be deemed 'authentic'; that is to say it fits well with the nature of the entrepreneurial narrative and discourses' (Anderson and Smith, 2007: 494). This again echoes Edwards and Corte's (2010) findings of their examination of BMX commercialisation, in which they conclude

'commercialization as a multi-faceted process involving both collective and individual actors who often pursue competing agendas' (2010: 1147).

Authenticity was something else that dominated a number of the interviews and was investigated as a theme as a result of the questionnaires highlighting this area. There emerged from the data a clearer sense than from previous studies (see for example Marchant and Mottiar, 2007) that authenticity, in the product and service offering, was vital not just to the business but the individual entrepreneurs' identity. Olly described this through his approach to customers - *"We get some complete pillocks, but we tend to filter them out quite quickly – sponsored riders – or surf aggression, we get rid of them quite quick"* (Olly). *"Legally and morally do the right thing, be safe, offer every customer the best experience possible"* (#67)

Being 'business'

As described previously, a large variety of lifestyle enterprises participated in the research. These varied from limited SMEs with employees, to one individual who was retired but still worked independently for income. Some of the entrepreneurs exhibit the business requirements *"I had the drive and the foresight, but I didn't know how to make it work"* (Olly, Kitesurf repairs and sales, Engager). Olly talks about problems with suppliers not being business professionals and his issues with obtaining stock.

Olly told the story of selling some fins to a customer for thirty-eight pounds when they should have been thirty-two. He put this down to something called BMT; 'Bad Manners Tax' when the person asked for discount. This reinforced to the researcher the requirement of the entrepreneurs' to present allegiance to the values placed on the business from the cultural

perspective, and aligns with Ateljevic and Doorne's (2000) conception of the 'sociopolitical ideology', and also aligns with Cederholm and Hultman (2010) and Sweeney et al. (2018), and supports the notion of the 'authentic self'.

Di Domenico (2005) identified through their research into lifestyle entrepreneurs in Scotland that 'the rejection of an overtly growth- or profit-driven motive as an entrepreneurial style can also be seen to afford opportunities for greater product individuality and service differentiation' (2005: 109). This is supported by Tregar (2005) who found their participants to be 'principled, ideological, commerce-eschewing- [which] gave them a specialist marketing cachet' (2005: 12). These deliberate rejections of business motives in these instances appear to provide the entrepreneur with a business approach to their market - niche marketing – which they may or may not actively be doing. Instances of this appeared through the collected data, as participants of the research reported on the commercial nature of their industries, and their deliberate aims to avoid this;

you would not find the results of any of those competitions, because it being a niche sport, they can't afford to have websites and all this stuff. And they can't afford to pay a developer to- to do that - Yeah - So that's why (the business) exists, is it's purely for the small communities (Nigel, Online results page provider)

The neglect of following business rules and processes was actively seen across the data sets, with varying degrees of explicitness. For example, Olly, in his interview, tells the story of how he was given advice from a friend to increase footfall into his shop during a sale. "[a friend] said in between Christmas and new year {pause} paper your windows. Big sale, and put

everything in. And I'm like uh I don't want to lose that view mate. It worked. He said we did that at [local surf shop] fifteen years ago, and it was like a bank holiday" (Olly). It was clear that Olly made a conscious decision to put his lifestyle enjoyment at that present moment before a clear business idea.

The data revealed that the relationships between the individual and act of entrepreneurship are inseparable, as described by Smith (1967), Carson et al. (1995), Beaumont et al. (2016), Leitch and Harrison (2016). The relationship between the entrepreneur and the subsequent type of enterprise that emerges and operates is clearly aligned and the participants reflected on this as part of their workflows. This was clearly aligned with the Engager and Enabler positionality. This transferred into the operation of the organisations; Matt indicated that he liked to employ individuals who had similar life goals and motivations of work as he. John talked of passing his business on to a young board shaper, under his new trade name, when John retires.

Flexibility

The inseparability of the individual and the act was portrayed through various discussions on flexibility by the participants. Craig identifies fitting in processing the orders from his website around being able to surf; *"I'll get up early is I know I'm wanting to go for a surf, I'll get up early, do a load of work, do all my emails, pack all my orders up, take them to the post office on the way to the beach, and you now it's all done so. And then I know I've got a bit of time when I get back, four o'clock or whatever, so do some more work, respond to those emails that I've sent in the morning. And it doesn't look like I've really been anywhere" (Craig, Online surf retailer). Nigel (Online results page provider) purposely selects his working hours; "typically my hours is normally seven to four, because it means that I get the afternoons to,*

particularly during summer, I can go surfing and stuff in the evenings without having to really worry about stuff'. Pete (designs and makes bespoke furniture) summaries the flexibility he has from being an Enabler;

"might have one week when it'd beautiful weather every morning every morning we were flying – yes – and everything else goes on the back burner, I probably wouldn't even go into the workshop on those days" (Pete, designs and makes bespoke furniture).

There is also compromises that are highlighted by the participants, several of which come from active Engagers. Harry (Kitesurfing instructor) identified this, as when starting his business, he had to compromise on the boards and kites he could own; *"in the early days of setting up a kitesurf school it might be- one of the impositions might be that you can only afford enough kits to have for the school, and you can't have your own personal kites on top of those kites"* (Harry). This indicates that these entrepreneurs can relate to Peters et al's. (2009) interpretation of the positioning of the lifestyle entrepreneur, as the lifestyle entrepreneur's identification and negotiation of how their own sport participation should be positioned in relation to their business and its performance is also seen as a constant negotiation process, as seen in Harry's example above. Therefore, this provides an added dimension to understanding the lifestyle entrepreneur; as the added concept of the sport participation is a previously unexplored area of lifestyle entrepreneurs in previous research.

This can be expressed in the development of the author's conceptualisation of the literature, through the constant renegotiation that is observed through lifestyle and business. What is also illuminating from this example is the confirmation that the position of lifestyle is firmly

associated with more than just wealth. This confirms the historical definitions that the lifestyle is not determined by financial success.

Other negotiation and renegotiations appear in the form of restricting the growth of the business. Nigel identified this clearly;

“it has to build up slowly, because I can't, I don't have the time to support a huge influx of things. It's always been open for anyone to use it. But in terms of me actually going out and getting other people to use it, it's where it starts getting more complicated. Because if I get lots of people suddenly use it, and then I have- suddenly have this whole huge collection of things that go wrong or a lot more support issues, I suddenly lose a lot more time, because I lose time I can't add the new stuff that other people might be asking for or wanting. Yeah, sure. And you know having it- at the moment by having a small it's run for a couple of years now, sort of full time with having people use it. I've gotten a lot of the problems ironed out now, and I know what people want, you know if, if they asked me for new things, then someone inaudible? Yeah. Yeah, it just takes time to do that and go through. Okay, so I'm kind of, it's very hard, because it will become a tipping point where I can't handle it. And then I will need someone else. Yeah. But at that point, I also would need to have some money to pay for someone else. Yeah. And that's- that's the complicated part of trying to manage all that.” (Nigel)

In their study into entrepreneurs' movements into tourism entrepreneurship, Vaugeois and Rollins (2007) were able to identify lifestyle motivators as preceding other motivators; even observing some entrepreneurs migrating from prospering industries to move into the tourism sector. This is supported by Harry (Kitesurfing instructor), who identifies that even though his

business can cause problems with his own participation, he would not change this for a nine to five; *“it enabled me to have...a kind of work-social um lifestyle balance which suits me a lot better now and gives me a lot more flexibility”* (Harry), and confirms the premise of the central life motivation (Gomez-Veasico and Saleillines, 2007) that lifestyle sports appear to bring this group of entrepreneurs.

The participation, networks and embeddedness, self-actualisation, and business acumen are all variables which the lifestyle entrepreneur has to negotiate. In order for this to take place, there appears to be a cycle of negotiation between lifestyle requirements and business requirements. These can be summarised in Figure 24 below.

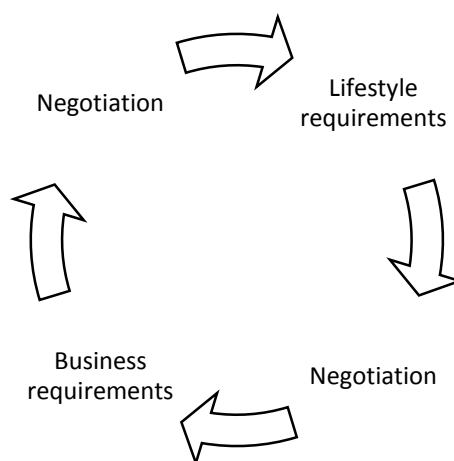


Figure 26. The cycle of negotiation (Source: Authors own)

Specifically, this extends the focus of existing literature which identifies that once the optimal positioning of lifestyle is reached, further management is concerned with maintenance rather than development (Burns, 2001). The research identifies that there is a process of negotiation between goals and factors, which may or may not result in the trade-off between them.

For other participants there was the description of needing to make money, and therefore making money out of doing what they loved seemed the best method. For these individuals,

opportunities to enable their vision of the business are actively sought out, and include the hiring of staff, and looking for business-focussed ways to develop their business. Matt (Outdoor activities and adventure centre, Engager) is one such example. Seeing the opportunity to buy into the business he wanted to own, Matt used other methods; *“developed a couple of properties, made some cash, and with that cash bought into the business – yep – and then buying into the business I was then able to use the business to my own means”* (Matt). In their research into entrepreneurs in the creative industries, Eikhof and Haunschild (2006) identified that ‘creative work is reported to be spontaneous, unpredictable and following no strict rules, whereas interference with the market brings about the need to manage, plan and organize processes of creative production’ (2006: 234).

These factors discussed above indicate that there is a correlation between Peters et al (2009) interpretation of how lifestyle entrepreneurs come to a point at which they decide the growth of their business meets the quality of life they desire. What Peters et al (2009) do not appear to consider, and what this research sheds new light on, is that in fact lifestyle entrepreneurs will have different phases of business-lifestyle orientation depending on how they negotiate the factors considered above. This leads to a development of Peters et al’s. (2009) work, as we begin to identify the differences that can exist between lifestyle entrepreneurs operating in similar contexts. What Peters et al (2009) also appear to neglect, and what this research starts to demonstrate, is that when the optimal point is reached between growth and lifestyle, this is not necessarily fixed. Instead this research demonstrates that the factors create a cycle of negotiation for the entrepreneur to constantly consider to enable them to maintain set level of intersecting ideal growth and lifestyle.

The above analysis leads to the determination that these lifestyle entrepreneurs should no longer be considered a homogeneous group of individuals. Instead, there should be more consideration for how these different factors affect the entrepreneur, how they negotiate these factors, and how they develop their own graph of intersecting growth and lifestyle.

Another important issue that emerges from the findings on flexibility was the notion of support. The results of the study indicated that the entrepreneurs identified took advantage of informal support in their businesses, including that of family members and other external parties. While Olson et al (2003) identified that it is 'smaller, less successful firms that rely on unpaid family labor' (2003: 662), there is a wider discussion in the current lifestyle entrepreneurship literature on the use of support from a wider community to retain the lifestyle approach to the business. This is exemplified in Doorne's (1993) research including water rafting enterprise which utilised the ad-hoc labour from the local area.

Chapter Summary

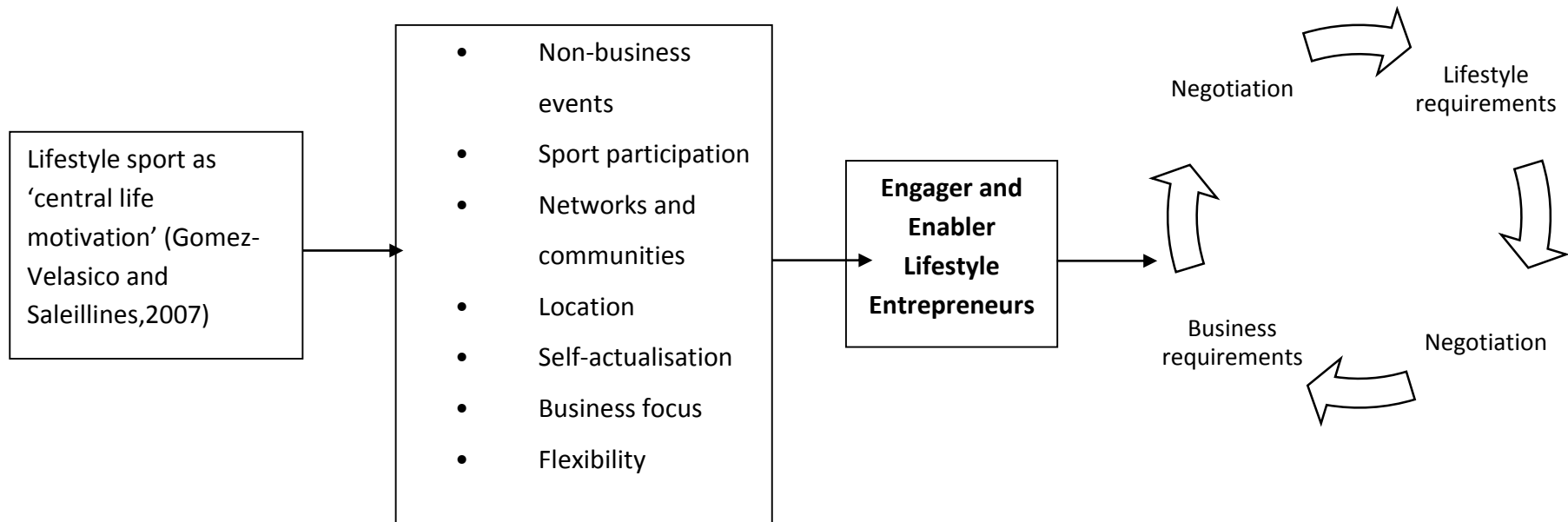
The data demonstrated that a number of factors affect the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneur. Seven significant themes emerged from the data and were found to be critical to the planning and inception of nascent entrepreneurs, and the management of enterprises by established entrepreneurs. These themes were:

- Non-business events
- Sport participation
- Networks and communities
- Location
- Self-actualisation
- Business focus

- Flexibility

Based on these themes, and the emergence of a requirement of negotiation of variables, the reconceptualization of the lifestyle entrepreneur model can be seen in Figure 25 below;

Figure 27. The Author's reconceptualization of lifestyle entrepreneurship in lifestyle sports.



Some of the nascent and established entrepreneurs, from the Engager and Enabler groups cited non business events as poignant to their stories of their business start-up and re-evaluation of life goals. These were centred around life events which have affected them (such as accidents), or those close to them, and how this created a point of self-reflection. These aligned with Massey's (2006) research on the impact of such non-business events and furthers the understanding of how important and relevant these events can be to entrepreneurs. While Massey et al's. (2006) research focussed on the interruptions to business that can result from these life events, the entrepreneurs in this research chose to explain them performing a pivotal role in the inception of their businesses.

Importantly for this group of lifestyle entrepreneurs, lifestyle sport was identified as the central motivation, and could be traced to a non-business events, such as exposure to surfing on TV (surfboard shaper), and watching friends perform kayak roles (sea kayak instructor). These findings also progress the understanding currently held within the literature on the nature of how lifestyle entrepreneurs 'become' who they are.

Participation and meaning were identified as other key factors affecting the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneurs. The data revealed that the meaning of terms associated with lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports continued to be unclear. While the nomenclature of 'sport' was contested, their reasons for participating aligned to current literature on how lifestyle sports can be defined. Developing physical strength or fitness was seen as a new feature of lifestyle sports which has not featured in previous research.

It is clear from the data that the extent of participation in the sport is fundamental to whether the entrepreneurs' view their lifestyle pursuit as successful. By extension, it is fundamental to shaping the enthusiasm of the sport-based Engager businesses. Discussions emerged from

the more active Engagers who revealed that their participation through the business context can have a detrimental impact on their participation, to the extent that they have sought other lifestyle sports to act as an outlet. This provides an added dimension to understanding what affects the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneurs.

The importance of context therefore is central to understanding these specific entrepreneurs. Networks, the communities they are engaged with, and how embedded the entrepreneurs feel within these, were key to the understanding of the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneurs. Engagement within these contexts are highly important to the entrepreneurs and highlights more than just a transactional approach to the enterprises that are run. Key relationships of customer and entrepreneur, entrepreneur and community, and entrepreneur to entrepreneur, were identified as significant relationships that shaped the entrepreneur.

There was evidence of location driving practicality and cultural motives. The practical elements of the location allowed the Engager entrepreneurs to exploit opportunities to develop their businesses successfully, whilst it also provides them with the lifestyle that they wanted. Enabler entrepreneurs identified that the location of their businesses – mainly online – allowed them to work from anywhere, at any time, and aligns them with some interpretations of the lifestyle entrepreneur as being the individual who can work from anywhere. There was further recognition that sport culture often drove the location of the Engager businesses, and that there was some commercial benefit of being positioned within these well-known locations, as well as providing a sense of ‘authenticity’ in the enterprises that they create.

Previous research on lifestyle sports identified them as individualistic pursuits, and this was represented strongly in the data collected. The data collected from the questionnaire, and

the narratives from the interviews, provide a strong sense of the entrepreneurs' pursuit to do things for themselves. The context of lifestyle sports drives an added dimension to this however, as from the business perspective, there was the view that the entrepreneurs view themselves as both consumers and producers, and create what Alteljevic and Doorne (2000) referred to as a 'sociopolitical ideology'. This also aligns with Cederholm and Hultman (2010) and Sweeney *et al.* (2018), and supports the notion of the 'authentic self'.

Further to interpreting their 'authentic self', a proportion of the entrepreneurs expressed how this lined to business motivations and skills. Others however couch their behaviour within the context of their sport community. There was evidence of deliberate rejections of business focus, but not explicitly for the purposes of niche marketing as described by Tregar (2005). For the Engager groups, they serve specific markets, but this is the nature of their work. In making these business decisions, both groups of entrepreneurs expressed the requirement to temper decisions with their lifestyle goals and motivations, which then influence the entrepreneur.

These influences highlight that flexibility is a key component of the entrepreneurs' navigation of becoming and remaining as a lifestyle entrepreneur. Having power over their day was one of the most important things highlighted throughout all interviews, as well as reasons for starting the business. The ability to participate in sport featured predominantly in these discussions. Some compromises are made with their participation. Engager and Enabler entrepreneurs identified that on occasion business needs come before participation, and also that participation can come before business needs.

While this study has identified a progression in the understanding of how factors can affect the lifestyle entrepreneur, this leads to a development of how we may understand the

lifestyle entrepreneur through the 'types' of entrepreneurs that can exist. The next chapter will therefore focus on the interpretation of findings which has led to the development of a new conceptualisation of these 'types', framed within the unique context of lifestyle sports.

Research Question 3: How does the context of lifestyle sport impact upon the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs that exist?

The final analysis of results focuses on how the context of lifestyle sports has influenced the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs that have been identified in this study. This chapter will focus on how the understanding of lifestyle sports has impacted on the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs that can be identified, based on their connection with the social and cultural context, and their own personal values. Addressing the first two research questions demonstrated a diverse set of individuals can be classified as lifestyle sports entrepreneurs, and while they exhibit different narratives surrounding their entrepreneurial stories and development, their identities revolve around key concepts.

In searching for a suitable method to demonstrate the unique nature of the lifestyle entrepreneurs examined, Bredvold and Skålén's (2016) model of lifestyle entrepreneurship has been selected. Their work on the lifestyle entrepreneur identity narrative states that 'the modern lifestyle entrepreneur narrative suggests a relationship between being true to cultural traditions and business success' (2016: 104), and therefore fits most succinctly with the findings of this research study.

The impact of identity

In addressing the concept of identity construction, Bredvold and Skålén (2016) utilise the 'embedded-versus-independent identity construction' approach from Lindgren and Walin (2001) to identify differences between the entrepreneurs they have analysed. They highlight that 'embedded identity construction refers to a process of alignment with the cultural and social environment while independent identity construction refers to a process of breaking

free from the cultural and social environment' (Lindgren and Wahlin, 2001, in Bredvold and Skålen, 2016: 102). Their conceptual model is highlighted in Figure 25 below;

Figure 28 has been removed due to Copyright restrictions

Figure 28. Bredvold and Skålen's (2016) original model of narrative types of lifestyle entrepreneurs

The model provides a clear and original approach to identifying characteristics of lifestyle entrepreneurs. However, when applying this model (or framework) to entrepreneurs engaged within lifestyle sports, there appear to be more complexities surrounding what the 'cultural and social environment' definitively is. With the unclear boundaries of lifestyle sports, through increased commercialisation, commodification and accessibility, the idea of authenticity becomes ever more ambiguous. It is however possible to use this to identify how

the entrepreneurs in this study have situated themselves between embedded or independent identities.

Embedded or Independent Identities

The results of this study identify a clear link between the entrepreneurs and their need to have an embedded identity. Examples of embedded identities are that of Frank (Surfboard shaper) and Vinnie (hang glider retrieve driver), who operate their businesses from a particular location. While these locations offer clear convenience (Frank is close to the long board surfing beaches, and Vinnie on-site for flying), the importance of place appeared to have historical and cultural value;

“this industrial estate here since the Seventies has been where the surfboards in [location] have all been made... so it’s been encapsulated round here, as [location] as the place to make boards” (Frank, Surfboard shaper).

This finding counters Gomez-Velasco and Saleillies’ (2007) findings that ‘their location is above all a residential choice, so they can move easily if they wish because change of localization does not affect their business’ (2007: 18), and instead points to a clear link between the entrepreneurs’ intention to become embedded within the culture, and therefore localisation was a conscious decision.

For others, the embeddedness is still present, however it is a much more purposeful positioning within the sport and community cultures. For example, Andrew (kayaking instructor) and Harry (windsurf instructor) explain how the choice of location was important in the process of developing the business idea, and Craig (Online surf retailer), who encountered both resistance and intrigue into his newly-founded internet business. This

notion complements Beaumont's (2011) discussion of the surfer's career and support her discussion of the 'nurturing stage' of the surfer being applied at both a young and older age when entering into the sport, as it draws parallels with the formation of the lifestyle business and the entrepreneurs' identity that is developed alongside this.

From the data collected there was no evidence of what Bredvold and Skålén (2016) termed 'independent' identity construct as none of the participants exhibited a willingness to deviate from the cultural values represented within their sports. The lifestyle sports entrepreneurs highlight that they operate outside of the 'norm', through their expressions of not wishing to conform to the 9-5 aspects of a traditional job, and the priorities of the sport and lifestyle over the business. The cultural values here are therefore derived from the sport perspective and aligns with Bredvold and Skålén's (2016) notion of their meaning of embeddedness versus independence.

The Enabler group of entrepreneurs still exhibited an embedded approach through the clear requirement of the enterprise, and role as entrepreneur, to fit around the requirements of the lifestyle sport. Therefore, building on but then also extending from Bredvold and Skålén's (2016) work, within the context of lifestyle sports the 'outward journey' of the lifestyle entrepreneur can be transformed from embedded versus independent, to organic versus constructed within the embeddedness construct.

This aligns with Bredvold and Skålén's (2016) idea of the 'socially and culturally embedded versus independent' (2016: 96).

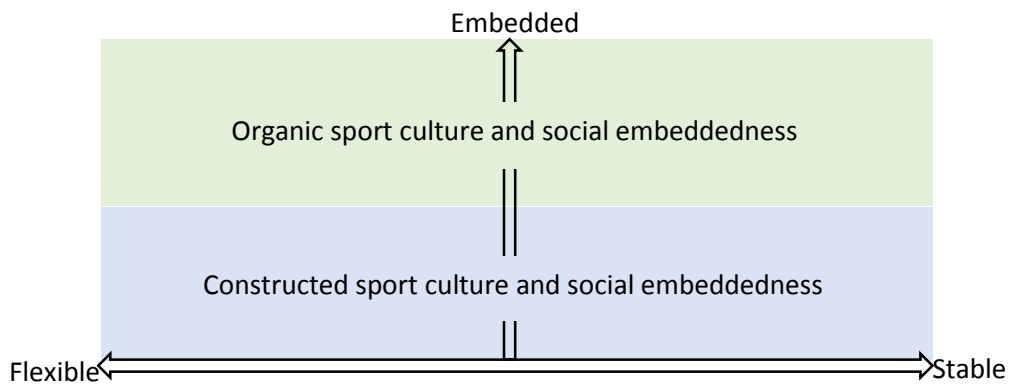


Figure 29. Organic and Constructed cultural and social embeddedness (Adapted from Bredvold and Skålen, 2016).

Thus, developing the model further based on the findings of this study also support a development of the narrative aspect of the model; it is suggested that the embedded narrative can be further split into whether the embedded identity is organic, or constructed.

The constructed embeddedness combines many features found in the literature. These include migration to the area where the business is being run. Jack et al. (2002) found from their research into embeddedness that the process of embeddedness included ‘developing credibility and acquiring knowledge’ (2002: 468). It is argued that the data presented here demonstrate instances where this is the case, and also where it is not. The constructed embedded identity is caused by those entrepreneurs who have actively moved into the industry and, or, the sport. Jack and Anderson (2002) identify that ‘it seems to be a reciprocal process of becoming accepted and also learning about and accepting the local “rules”’ (2002: 480).

The organic embeddedness orientation has specific relevance to the nature of lifestyle sports. As identified by many of the lifestyle sports scholars (Beal and Weidman, 2003; Edwards and Corte, 2010), there is a clear conflict on the notion of authenticity and those that are seen as ‘genuine’ participants, consumers and producers. Because of this, Edwards and Corte (2010)

identify the forms of commercialisation that emerge from the lifestyle sport discipline. For those entrepreneurs who are participants themselves, marketing and producing for other participants, Edwards and Corte (2010) identify them to be 'Movement' forms of commerce. It aligns somewhat with those individuals wishing to develop a business from a hobby (Sorensson et al. 2017), and can be exemplified by the emergence of commercial activities out from the lifestyle sports scene (Edwards and Corte, 2010). This differs from the constructed external identities, as summarised by Donnelly and Young (1988) who recognise the requirements of the 'rookie' to demonstrate their authenticity within the sport. The researcher feels that this is clearly demonstrated through the data collected, and shall be exemplified through the discussion.

Their organic identity construct is supported by those entrepreneurs who are also well known by both customers and the wider sport community, and those people chose to use the products and services from these individuals based on their expert knowledge. This aligns with Rattan's (2018) commentary on athlete entrepreneurs, who are known for their ability within sport, and so engender 'credibility' for their position as business people. She states that 'people in the community who know the athlete from their sporting pursuits will sometimes associate the social aspects with business needs' (2018: 51).

Flexible or Stable Identity Construction

There is evidence from the research to support Brevold and Skalen's (2016) view that 'inward' identity construction can be flexible or stable. For those entrepreneurs such as Tom (paraglider trainer), Craig (Online surf retailer) and Gregg (Surf and kayak photographer), internal reflection of identity is formed from many different roles and identities that they hold. This is derived from the multiple work roles (for example, Tom and Gregg both have

Engager and Enabler businesses), and identities as business people and sports people (for example Laurence). This supports the Social Identity Theory concept of role identification as identity.

To support stable inward identity creation, entrepreneurs such as Frank (Surfboard shaper), Andrew (sea kayak instructor), and Dennis (surf shop owner), display the 'deeply rooted values' that Bredvold and Skålen (2016: 102) identify with those individuals who identify themselves from one perspective. For example, Andrew views his role as the sea kayak instructor to mean more than just offering a service through a transaction approach. He sees and comments on how his service offering has an impact on the lives of those he interacts with- his customers. He reflects on this with a holistic approach to his business offering;

“although my initial aim was about coaching independents, so people can go and have the adventures like I did, I soon began to discover that probably six or eight percent of my clients don't want that. They want me to take them to the place, they want me to look after them, ... but I think more people are just wanting some form of outlet” (Andrew, Sea kayaking instructor - Engager).

The notion of the 'flexible' identity creation for this group of entrepreneurs however appears to be far more complex than how Bredvold and Skålen (2016) initially identified. While this identification is welcome, and responds to Hytti's (2005) point of view that 'identities are emergent, paradoxical and fluid' (2005: 605), as highlighted in response to research question 2 participants of the research identified competing and complementing roles and identities, through the business person and the sports person. The concept of competing or complementing roles within that flexibility is not considered by Bredvold and Skålen (2016), and yet the research conducted here highlights some differences in how well the flexibility

aspect complements and ultimately affects the success of the businesses. For example, Tom has both sport and non-sport related businesses, which complement each other and support his flexible identity, rather than competing for position. Laurence however identifies himself to have 'three roles'; a father, a business owner, and a triathlete, and describes the complexities of managing these roles, and how they could compete with one-another if not managed by him effectively. The Enabler group also frequently made reference to their entrepreneurial role allowing them to pursue the job in line with their participation in sport, and so there were particularly strong flexible identities that were intentional in their situation.

Shepherd and Patzelt's (2018) discussion of the synergies that can be created between these various identities supports these findings; 'Specifically, identity synergy denotes the degree of relatedness among identities, with higher likelihood that each identity will improve the success of the other' (2018: 152). Synergy was observed at the stable inward identity level, and less so at the flexible level, which corresponds to Shepherd and Patzelt's (2018) approach.

The results of this study however appear to present an additional dimension to both models; that of a flexible inward identity construction that is complementary or competing. While Bredvold and Skalen refer to this as 'more ambiguous and inconsistent' (2016: 98).

The Engager lifestyle sport entrepreneurs also demonstrated competing aspects to their identity construction. Some of the most active Engagers identified that, as an oxymoron, their intense participation in the sport as part of their job role actually prevented them from being able to participate in the way that was identified as participation to them. This can be seen for example in Andrew, who describes his participation as "*it's another time and place*", and Harry who admits to cancelling lessons so that he can kitesurf himself if conditions are good, but by going out to retrieve a kite during a lesson "*you kind of get a little bit of a scratch at*

the itch you know” (Harry, Kitesurf instructor). One of the Enablers identified that there can be times when his work can get in the way of his sport participation; *“and sods law always it takes when I’m in somebody’s house it’s nice...paragliding probably does take a bit of a hit”* (Pete, Designs and manufactures bespoke furniture).

[A New Conceptual Model of Lifestyle Entrepreneurs in Lifestyle Sports](#)

The previous discussions highlight that both Social Identity Theory and Identity Theory is present in the analysis of the lifestyle entrepreneurs examined. Stets and Burke (2000) identify that it is logical for both theoretical positions to be present in establishing the identity of an individual; it is possible to possess both a ‘role *and* social category’ (2000: 228). Furthermore, Stets and Burke (2000) argue that ‘being and doing are both central features of one’s identity’ (2000: 234) considered from Thoits and Virshup’s (1997, in Stets and Burke, 2000) interpretation that ‘who one is’ relates to social identity theory and ‘what one does’ relates to role based Identity Theory.

The new conceptual model therefore allows for the following four types to occur. These types are specific to lifestyle sports entrepreneurs;

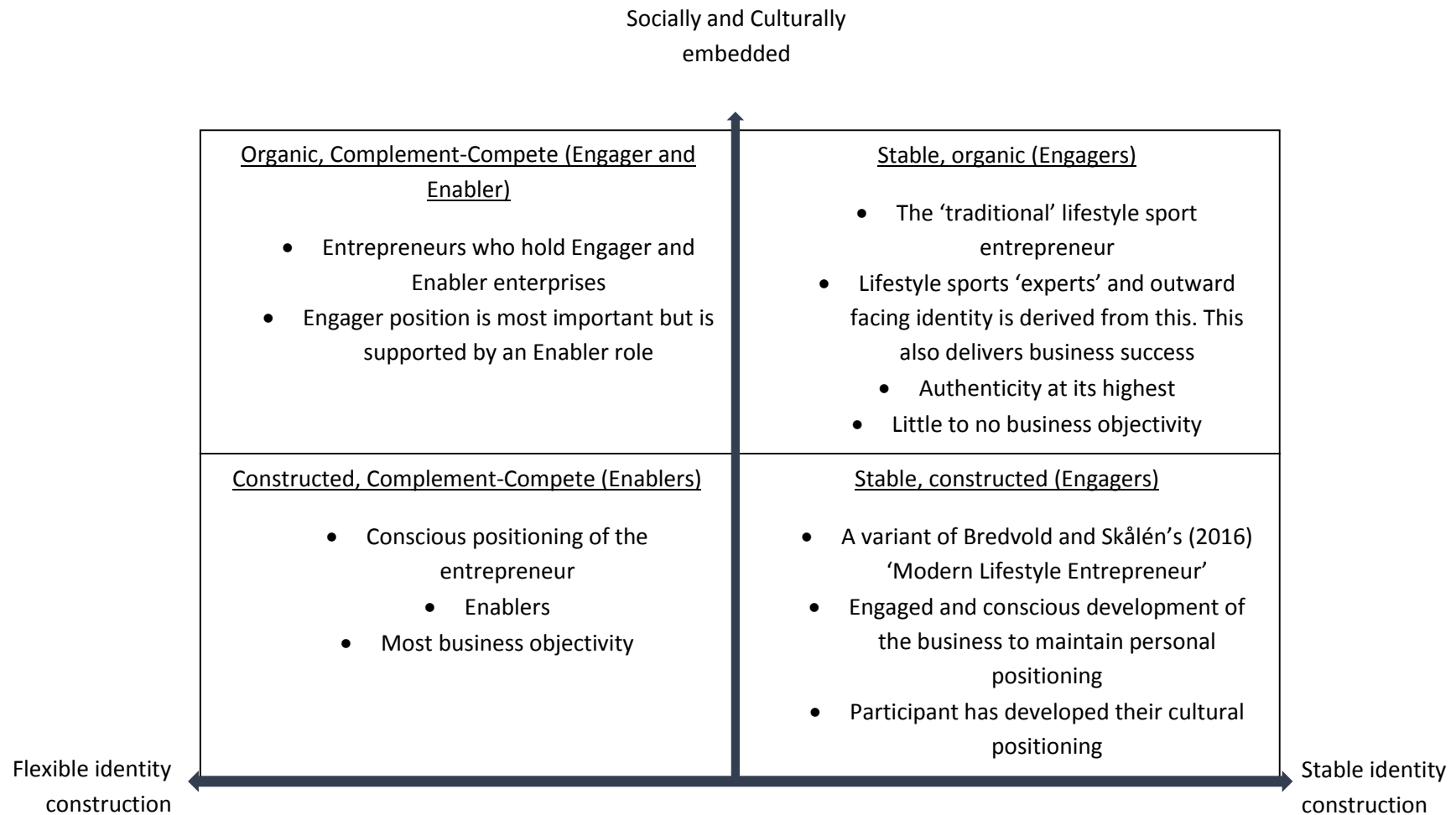


Figure 30. The new conceptual model of lifestyle sport entrepreneur ‘types’ with types description

The following descriptions detail how these identities can be exemplified through the data collected.

The Stable Organic

The stable organic lifestyle entrepreneurs share elements with the definitions of lifestyle entrepreneurs by Marcketti et al. (2006), who describe lifestyle entrepreneurs as 'individuals who owned and operated businesses closely aligned with their personal values, interests, and passions' (2006: 214). This includes those individuals wishing to develop a business from a hobby (Sorensson et al. 2017), and are summarised as individuals who have engaged with the sport and its community for a long time, and as such may have developed to be classified as experts in knowledge in their sport.

Their organic identity construct comes from those who felt they were always involved with the sport, right from childhood. They are well known by both customers and the wider sport community, and those people chose to use the products and services from these individuals based on their expert knowledge. This aligns with Rattan's (2018) commentary on athlete entrepreneurs, who are known for their ability within sport, and so engender 'credibility' for their position as business people. She states that 'people in the community who know the athlete from their sporting pursuits will sometimes associate the social aspects with business needs' (2018: 51).

Frank and John are examples of lifestyle entrepreneurs who fit within this concept. Through their narratives, they do not identify with any challenges or considerations of alternative identities, and clearly demonstrate their 'in-group' social identity through their experience in the sport. John told a couple of stories which demonstrated his authority within the sport; he, and the quality of his boards are so well known in the local area and beyond that this drives

his business. This demonstrates a clear embeddedness within the culture of the lifestyle sport, and a distinct way in which the business is marketed.

In considering Figure 15 (*Engagers and Enablers scale of proximity to the sport*), this group are made up of semi- passive Engagers; they are identified through practical skills, such as designers and manufacturers of the equipment required for the sports. This group are similar to that of Edwards and Corte's (2010) 'movement enterprises' of BMX culture. These entrepreneurs appear to levy authenticity through experience and knowledge, and their business actions reflect this. This is similar to Tregar's (2005) study who found their participants to be 'principled, ideological, commerce-eschewing- [which] gave them a specialist marketing cachet' (2005: 12).

This conforms to Johannisson and Mønsted's (1997) interpretation that 'craftsperson owner-managers usually build networks based on shared norms (according to tradition) and values, while genuine opportunistic entrepreneurs are assumed to combine calculative as well as the more individual oriented affective strands e.g., friendship in their personal network ties' (1997: 116). Not only then do these lifestyle entrepreneurs exist within the 'in-group' themselves, but are more likely to only wish to deal with customers and consumers who sit within the 'in-group' too.

These entrepreneurs have carefully managed business motivations and are the most common of all the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs to actively reject business objectiveness, both through naivety and as a deliberate attempt of maintaining a niche market. They make it very clear that their sport participation, inclusion and association is the most important factor to them, and as such have a stable internal identity construction, as their narratives only reveal one identity than encompasses all that they are, all at the same time. This is highlighted in

considering research question 1 where there is little or no conflict in their business or sports person identities, as they are one and the same. Lifestyle sport entrepreneurs within this type therefore do not appear to enter the negotiation cycle as identified from research question 2, as the boundaries of work, life and sport are blurred to the extent that renegotiation would not need to occur. This supports Wicklund et al's (2019) view that 'people pursue entrepreneurship for deeply personal, idiosyncratic reasons. Therefore, as in other self-organised human pursuits, how entrepreneurship relates to fulfilment and well-being is of utmost importance' (2019: 579)

The Stable Constructed

The Stable Constructed type typifies a more commercially driven entrepreneur, who's constructed embeddedness emerges through seizing a business opportunity, or a life event which prompted them to start the business. This is supported by Osorio et al's (2015) interpretation that entrepreneurship can also provide 'enactments of social transformation that may or may not lead to socioeconomic benefit' (2015: 71).

This is a variant of Bredvold and Skålen's (2016) Modern Lifestyle Entrepreneur, as this type was categorised as 'being true to cultural traditions and business success' (2016: 104). Examples of Stable Constructed entrepreneurs are Ed, Will and Andrew, who all cited life changing events which prompted them to change their careers. This exemplifies the shift in both adopting a lifestyle approach to their businesses, and also focussing on their passions of their respective sports. Harry and Ian identify that they deliberately chose to start businesses in their sport areas after realising their interest, ability and passion for the sport matched the entrepreneurial expertise and potential that they had.

This type aligns most closely with Lewis' (2008, and later developed by Beaumont *et al.* 2016) lifestyle entrepreneurship type of the Freestyler, who she identified 'for them it is not about less time in the business but more time on the business' (Lewis, 2008: 67). This is the engaged and conscious development that the entrepreneur uses to develop the business and respond to business and personal lifestyle needs through a process of negotiation. This aligns with how Beaumont *et al.* (2016) described the balancing of competing motivations through input, throughput, output and feedback. This approach to lifestyle entrepreneurship is reiterated in Spinelli and Adams' (2016) discussions in to the definition of lifestyle ventures that 'if done right, one can have a lifestyle business and actually realize higher potential' (2016: 81).

The Organic, Complement to Compete

The Organic Complement to Compete types typifies lifestyle entrepreneurs defined by having an organic embedded identity construction, with multiple identities which can be complementary or competing towards one another though the course of the life of the lifestyle entrepreneurship act. Tom and Gregg are examples of lifestyle entrepreneurs who can be described by this concept, as they have multiple roles as a business people, through holding a number of businesses which make them both an Enabler and Engager. Their attraction to the lifestyle sport related business that they have is complemented by their other businesses. For Tom these support his hang gliding business which would otherwise be difficult to sustain on its own. For example, he talks about how the pricing strategy he uses has not changed in since he started the business. Gregg similarly identifies that his wedding photography underpins his ability to do surf photography, and live in a location which serves both businesses effectively. This finding is supported by the findings of Hytti's (2005) study,

in which the entrepreneur demonstrated ‘negotiation [in] the ways the two can coexist’ (2005: 606).

This identification encompasses a number of the other lifestyle entrepreneurs examined, because their organic embeddedness to the sport culture has always been a present within their lives, but in contrast to the Stable Organic entrepreneurs, have identified a more complex positioning and narrative towards their ‘becoming’ of a lifestyle entrepreneur. For some of these lifestyle entrepreneurs, this was from holding several previous employments. In contrast to Tom and Gregg, it is possible that some entrepreneurs’ flexible identity could include a competing nature of these identities.

[The Constructed, Complement to Compete](#)

The lifestyle entrepreneurs who demonstrate a clear necessity for traditional business operations, which sit alongside and contribute to their lifestyle, can be described as having a Constructed flexible identity which can hold complementing or competing values. This group is made up of Enabler lifestyle entrepreneurs, as their business start-up and operations are motivated by the goal of participating in the lifestyle sport. They see growth as a positive requirement and in short, the business, and its successfulness, allows them to pursue their chosen lifestyle.

Participants observed matching this type from the data can be for example Sarah, who made the decision to leave her career to ensure she was able to participate in paragliding to the level she wanted to. Pete, who’s bespoke furniture business means he can paraglide for the most part when he wants, is another example.

In order for the complementing nature of the type to occur, this group of entrepreneurs are the most likely to take advantage of support systems from others around them. For example, Sarah explains how her family and carefully selected members of support the running of her business when she is away participating in paragliding. Laurence highlighted that his employees are important to him in ensuring he can take the time he needs away from the business to participate in his chosen sports. Keith comments that the nature of the industry that he works in (personal training) means that he was pushed into self-employment, but that this allows him to manage his own work time and sport participation time.

The competing flexible identities that are combined with a constructed embeddedness create a lifestyle entrepreneur who has a complex and volatile narrative towards their approach to entrepreneurship. These entrepreneurs do not successfully negotiate between their business and lifestyle goals, and as such have competing identities between their sports self and business self. While this study did not find evidence of this type of entrepreneur, it is important to highlight this as a potential position that lifestyle sports entrepreneurs could be in.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has focused on how the understanding of lifestyle sports has impacted on the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs that can be identified, based on their connection with the social and cultural context, and their own personal values. In addressing the first two research questions of the study, it is clear that a diverse set of individuals can be classified as lifestyle sports entrepreneurs, and while they exhibit different narratives towards their entrepreneurial stories, their identities appear to revolve around the two key concepts of internal and external identity construction.

In reviewing the current conceptualisation of lifestyle entrepreneurship identity, Bredvold and Skålen's (2016) model provided the most suitable method of addressing the diversity of the entrepreneurs, with its particular relevance to internal and external identity construction. By taking account of the cultural setting of the entrepreneurs, this model represented an opportunity to address the complexities of identity that emerge as a result of the lifestyle sport context. In their conclusion, Bredvold and Skålen (2016) advocated the elaboration of their conceptualisation.

The study demonstrated embedded identities, but not the independent that Bredvold and Skålen (2016) found. The embedded identity was further developed to demonstrate how the embeddedness is organically developed by the entrepreneurs, or if it is constructed. The stable identity that Bredvold and Skålen (2016) identify was prevalent in the data collected, exclusively among the Engager group. The flexible identity construct was also observed, and participants that sat within this construct could be seen to have flexible identities which were on a scale from complementary to conflicting.

The development of Bredvold and Skålen's (2016) model therefore builds on the Modern Lifestyle Entrepreneur, and Loyal Lifestyle Entrepreneur, to provide four types of entrepreneur that can exist within these. This builds on the findings of Bredvold and Skålen (2016) with specific reference to lifestyle entrepreneurs within the lifestyle sports context, and also furthers the building of the conceptual understanding of the lifestyle entrepreneur.

The types identified can be seen as discrete entities that the lifestyle entrepreneurs conform to. While the current positions of the lifestyle entrepreneurs examined suggest competing or complementing internal identity constructs, which emerge from the negotiation between work and lifestyle goals.

Conclusion, contribution and limitations

This chapter will conclude the thesis by presenting the major contributions that it makes within the field of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports, before considering areas of limitation and future research. The key findings that make a major contribution to the field from the thesis are as follows:

- The research provides a clear evaluation and representation of the Engager and Enabler types of lifestyle entrepreneur, and presents how this positionality contributes to the orientation of the entrepreneur.
- In light of the research findings, the researcher has developed their conceptual model to reveal that the lifestyle entrepreneurs enter a continuous process of negotiation and re-negotiation of various goals to maintain their desired lifestyle and identity. In fact, lifestyle and identity aspirations can vary overtime adding to the need for continuous (re)negotiation of goals and ambitions with implications for how the businesses are run.
- The research has highlighted the significance of embeddedness in context which drives the lifestyle entrepreneur. This goes beyond current surface level interpretation of lifestyle entrepreneurs, and provides more evidence to support their similarities and differences with other types of lifestyle entrepreneurs.
- This study extends existing frameworks of lifestyle entrepreneurship identity to provide a more complete but therefore also heterogeneous understanding of who lifestyle sports entrepreneurs are, with implications also for explaining how their behaviour may vary in terms of how they manage their businesses.

Implications, limitations and future research

The research from the thesis has many implications for practice. Firstly, the data gathered supports a more robust attempt to identify and target lifestyle sports entrepreneurs. With this in mind, the research has provided a landscape on which future theoretical and empirical work can be built and discussed.

Having recognised these sub-types of lifestyle entrepreneurs, through establishing the factors that influence decision making, will help to focus attention to support those who wish to grow, and to understand and appreciate the contribution that non-growth pursuers make in society. Furthermore, the research provides support to the literature that argues lifestyle entrepreneurship is a valid form of entrepreneurship. The researcher recognises that the findings corroborate Al-Dajani's (2009) conclusion of the need to consider the growth potential from a cause and effect perspective of lifestyle enterprises based on their motivations, in order that they may be better understood in the support and guidance they may require.

The difficulties in identifying and obtaining participants was very apparent and led the issues of limitations with the study. This led to a change in the strategy for attracting participants which developed as the research progressed. Despite drawing in part on a survey and being able to gain results from 80 lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports, to the researcher's knowledge the largest of its kind of this type of entrepreneur, only tentative claims can be made as to statistical generalisability. This however comes with the territory of lifestyle entrepreneurship where definitions vary, and where therefore being able to come up with a robust sampling frame has proven to be challenging. In fact, one of the outcomes of the study

is that by providing a more in-depth analysis of characteristics of lifestyle entrepreneurs future studies may draw on these in creating their own, more credible, sampling frames.

Given the complexity of the concept, the researcher would encourage future research in this area to be very clear on how samples of lifestyle entrepreneurs are identified; but many studies of lifestyle entrepreneurs provide very limited discussion of who they regard as being a lifestyle entrepreneur. In reflecting on other works such as that of Mottiar (2007), it is possible that by selecting a specific geographic location, a better assumption can be made that a more robust sample is obtained, as Mottiar (2007) identified that it was likely most of the area's lifestyle entrepreneurs were identified and contacted.

With regard to the qualitative aspect of the study, again, the sample size is small though in line with similar studies in this area (see for example Beaumont, 2011). Moreover, based on the notion of saturation, in terms of novel themes emerging from the analysis the potential returns on collecting more data were deemed to be marginal when off-set against resources required to do so. In fact, rather than seeking statistical generalisability the study sought to identify a wide variety of lifestyle entrepreneurs within lifestyle sports thereby documenting their diversity. It is therefore the recommendation here that further research needs to be conducted in this area based on these findings; the barriers and challenges quite specific to data collection on the phenomenon of lifestyle entrepreneurship should be noted. The research does however concur with some of the pre-existing literature that lifestyle entrepreneurship is a valid and yet regularly misunderstood form of entrepreneurship, and that it provides a gateway to further work on understanding and interpreting the phenomenon.

One of the key areas to furthering this would be to view the saturation of data from Starks and Trinidad's (2007) perspective, which Saunders et al. (2018) describes as "not 'given the data, do we have analytical or theoretical adequacy?', but 'given the theory, do we have sufficient data to illustrate it?'" (2018: 1895). If this viewpoint was taken, there are clear areas of the proposed model which are under-represented from the current investigation, and therefore require more research in order to explain their positioning.

The research excluded some potentially interesting facets in order that it could focus on its selected key concepts. Firstly, the group of entrepreneurs could be further dissected through measures such as gender in the perception of entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports. In particular, this follows from the difficulties that the researcher observed in attracting female lifestyle sports entrepreneurs into participating in the research, and the observed on-going debate of the gendered interpretation of lifestyle sports (see for example Wheaton, 2013).

The gender split of respondents of the questionnaire and the interviews is something of interest to the researcher and presents a further area of potential research. It is important to also note that as the population size was largely unknown, as discussed through the thesis, it is impossible to say to what extent the respondents are representative of the wider population of lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports. Of the initial identified group of potential participants, 23 were known to be female (through identifying them through their name only, from their website or promotional material that led the researcher to identify them as the owner of the business). Of these however, only seven appeared to demonstrate independent ownership, whereas the other 16 were named alongside a male partner.

In the overall sample a substantially higher proportion of owners were sole owners (106), or in joint male partnerships (10). The questionnaire responses identified eight female

respondents, of whom three identified as a sole trader, four a private limited company, and one as a partnership with another female co-owner. The conversion rate from survey to interview was higher for men (29%) than for women (13%), with only n=1 for women, and n=20 for men.

The difference in gender responses largely conforms to the existing literature on lifestyle sports. The current gender focussed research on lifestyle sports identifies the ways in which masculinity and the marginalisation of women are still present (see Hubers-Withers and Livingson, 2013). This supports Wheaton's (2013) response to Wait's (2008) proposition that 'gender is not an issue' (2008: 77, in Wheaton, 2013) is not the case. It is not clear from the results here how these ongoing issues impact on the gender of lifestyle sport businesses, however the results do indicate the comparable minority of female lifestyle sport entrepreneurs.

The compounded difficulties of female entrepreneurship and female participation in the context of the enterprise has been analysed by other researchers. Jones et al. (2018) notes the difficulties that women face in the high-tech sector as 'the aspect of belonging as an important learning aspect for women entrepreneurs in male-dominated sectors, as there is the potential for a triple-sense of un-belonging – linked to the individual, to the firm and to the industry' (Jones et al. 2018: 4). While it is not the purpose of this thesis to review the extant literature on gender and entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports, these surface-level observations provide some evidence of a link to other research of this nature.

The overriding evidence demonstrates that significantly more men are engaged with generalised start-up enterprises than women (Miller, 2017), with a lack of self-confidence in ability as cited as one of the significant reasons for this difference (Kirkwood, 2009). However,

as the questionnaire was open to all types of businesses and industries, it was hoped that there would have been a greater response from female entrepreneurs.

As already highlighted, in the first round of participant identification, the gender of the participants was known to the researcher. While a number of female entrepreneurs were identified, they did not respond. There may have been a number of reasons for this. Firstly, it is possible that the female entrepreneurs do not consider themselves as entrepreneurs. Secondly, it may have also been possible that the nature of the contact (for example the email), and/or, the questionnaire questions themselves were off-putting to the female respondent; perhaps they did not consider themselves relevant to the research. This opens a wider debate on how and if individuals themselves considered themselves to be entrepreneurs. In order to try to overcome this, the researcher included questioning within the questionnaire to identify if the pre-conceived qualities of entrepreneurship as aligned with Shane's (2003) definition, such as the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities, were present, however this would not have overcome the initial non-applicable thoughts individuals may have faced. This gender result however does align with the definition provided by Smith (1967).

Although some female entrepreneurs were identified, there is no reason to suggest that the gender difference seen from the results reflects the larger population of lifestyle entrepreneurs. For this to be more accurate, more work would need to be done on establishing the nature of participation. The difference in gender does however reflect the disparity in sport participation, with there being more men than women participating in sport (Sport England, 2016). It therefore follows that it was more likely to find more male than female participants, particularly through the snowball method of attracting participants to

the research through sending the questionnaire to various affiliated sport societies and clubs. While the gender inequality in sport is not the focus of this study, there appears to be a movement towards equality, for example in the World Surf League's recent decision to provide equal prize money to male and female competitors (BBC, 2018). There are also grass roots initiatives for wider societal initiatives, such as Women in Sport, which advocates the active participation of women in sport for health and well-being, as well as opportunities for them to pursue a professional sports career (Women in Sport, n.d).

Other ideas that have emerged through the research that may benefit from further study include the role of the age of the entrepreneur and the age of the organisation. As an emerging theme, this could inevitably mean different and greater life experiences, opportunities to build capital, and being positioned at different stages in the life course with regards to family and relationships. This study, while making inroads into the largely uncharted territory of lifestyle entrepreneurship in lifestyle sports, also reveals the need for further work in this area. More detailed and specified work could be done on the individual fields, for example, however researchers should understand the complexity and difficulties the researcher encountered during the data collection phase.

Further refined work on the differences between Enabler and Engager groups would hold some promise. In addition to this, ideas for further research revolve around three main areas. Firstly, although the thesis has taken Bredvold and Skålen's (2016) identity model and developed as per their insights, it is possible that this could be further developed with greater data collection of Engager and Enabler types. Secondly, the thesis has only begun to examine the differences with what it terms Engagers and Enablers, and future studies could focus on this area as a method of examining the impact of context and embeddedness further. Finally,

because the study was based on a cross-sectional design, although interview participants were asked to reflect on their personal entrepreneurial stories, a full review of how the individual's identity as lifestyle entrepreneur developed has not been undertaken. In order to more clearly affirm the possibilities of movement between the Constructed and Organic positions of embedded identity, longitudinal studies would prove beneficial. The model could also be tested on lifestyle entrepreneurs in contexts other than lifestyle sports.

Other methodological approaches would be welcomed by the researcher to enrich the understanding of this group of entrepreneurs. How the life position of the entrepreneur impacts on the entrepreneurial embeddedness is of valid discussion, and if there is an impact on the stage of life and the type of entrepreneurship that is undertaken.

The concept of lifestyle entrepreneurship as it applies to employees within organisations is also of interest. During the course of the research and interactions with individuals within lifestyle sports, the researcher came across several individuals who worked within the lifestyle sports industry purposively to support their personal lifestyle goals associated with their sport. Their passion and motivation came from the pursuit of working within their chosen industries, supporting the working ethos as highlighted by the lifestyle entrepreneurs. A good example of this is seen in Matt's discussion of employing individuals with a similar ethos. There is some evidence that suggests this is at the expense of higher wages, much like the perceived definition of the lifestyle entrepreneur.

Finally, the concept of 'lifestyle washing' has been briefly discussed within the study, and the idea that the 'selling of lifestyle' is an integral part to commercial and lifestyle enterprises within the lifestyle sports context is an interesting area which the researcher feels could be examined further. This is supported further by the discussion in the literature review that the

nature of (or characteristics of) the entrepreneur impacts on the type of enterprise that is created, and the emergence of a range of consumers that consume the lifestyle sport through involvement in the culture, as highlighted by Edwards and Corte (2010). Through examination of the data gathered, the results support the interpretation of the strong cultural aspects tied to lifestyle sports, meaning that physical participation is only one element, and support the notion that further work could be done to understand and interpret this emerging group of entrepreneurs.

Final Conclusions

The aim of this thesis was to explore the notion of lifestyle entrepreneurship within lifestyle sports. It aimed to address the complex issues of identification of lifestyle entrepreneurs, how they negotiate their work and lifestyles, and what this results in for entrepreneurial practice. The first research question investigated how lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports can be identified, and the complexities that are inherent to this. The second research question addressed what factors affected the lifestyle orientation of the entrepreneur, and how these were negotiated in order for the lifestyle entrepreneurs to operate successfully in their work and life goals as an entrepreneur. A key contribution to this was how success was defined by the lifestyle entrepreneurs. Finally, the third research question drew on the previous two to address how the context of lifestyle sport impacted upon the types of lifestyle entrepreneurs that exist.

This study offers key contributions to the area of lifestyle entrepreneurship in lifestyle sports, and moves current debates on. There are a number of specific ways in which the research contributes. Firstly, the robust approach to data collection was important to the researcher. While a number of studies of lifestyle entrepreneurs exist, a focus within the context of lifestyle sports is very limited. It was clear from the start of the study that the researcher

wanted to focus on a rigorous methodological approach. This came from the lack of rigour that the researcher perceived from previous studies on the topic of lifestyle entrepreneurship, and the context of lifestyle sports (this was particularly evident in the lack of clarity of how lifestyle entrepreneurs were defined). It was very clear that both phenomena were open to numerous interpretations, however the researcher was keen to develop a clear way in which to identify and contact participants. The rigour employed contributes to furthering the understanding of how to target lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports for future research.

The study demonstrates a robust and informative way of recognising who lifestyle entrepreneurs are and has been explicit in its approach. The findings of this study offer a more refined understanding of how lifestyle entrepreneurs can be identified because it offers a more detailed insight into who they are and moves beyond the traditional conceptions of growth and profit measures. The research has exposed a number of ways in which lifestyle entrepreneurs can be identified and differentiated. This was firstly established through the differentiation between Engager and Enabler groups and aligned with the goals of the study to identify who lifestyle entrepreneurs were.

Starting with the existing definitions, the researcher was able to identify that there are a number of ways in which lifestyle entrepreneurs were viewed, defined and therefore identified in previous studies. Through the research investigation, the researcher recognised that the classifying terms of growth and profit neglect were not sound, or at least not sufficient, ways to identify entrepreneurs from the lifestyle category, because they featured as one of many goals that the entrepreneur pursued. Instead, understanding their *approach* to profit and growth was more important.

This both supports and develops further the work of Lewis (2008) and Beaumont et al. (2016) on the Freestyle lifestyle entrepreneur, and the Purist lifestyle entrepreneur identified by Marchant and Mottiar (2011) because it provides more support to the understanding of the complex interplay of goals set by this group of entrepreneurs. Specifically, with lifestyle sports entrepreneurs, understanding of this goal orientation has been identified as being couched in the individuals' association with the lifestyle sports culture and how their participation is a key feature to the shaping of their identity, as described by Jensen (2007) through the merging of lifestyle with self-identity, and Chaney's (1996) approach to lifestyles as social maps.

While some of the existing literature provided a discussion on the notion of the cyclical nature of thought (see Marcketti et al's. 2006 Input-Throughput-Output-Feedback loop), the current research provides a more nuanced understanding of how entrepreneurs negotiate their goals and boundaries. For some of the entrepreneurs this means that they enter a period of discontent where there is a mismatch of roles leading to competing identity constructs. Complementing roles can be found if these goals are successfully negotiated. The thesis revealed a unique feature of some of the lifestyle sports entrepreneurs who do not enter into the negotiation/re-negotiation cycle, as their identity construct is stable and they do not express a variety of identities. Instead, their one identity is all encompassing.

The literature to date on the concept of lifestyle entrepreneurs was found to be largely one-dimensional, and focussed on the definition of lifestyle entrepreneurs as growth averse (Burns, 2001), even business ignorant individuals, who can simply be pushed or pulled into the act of entrepreneurship. While a number of studies of lifestyle entrepreneurs exist, a focus within the context of lifestyle sports was very limited (see for example Ateljevic and

Doorne, 2000; Marchant and Mottiar, 2006; Beaumont et al 2016). Furthermore, many of the existing studies offered only a limited perspective of lifestyle entrepreneurs (see for example Burns; Kaplan and Warren, 2010). This study sought to explore the intersection of lifestyle entrepreneurship and lifestyle sports to further our understanding of this under-explored group of entrepreneurs. The review of the extant literature identified that there were key gaps in the process of understanding how lifestyle entrepreneurs can be identified and understood.

The predominant approach to positioning the lifestyle entrepreneur in the literature to date referred to a linear process; Peters et al. (2009) provide the notion of the intersecting lines of business growth and lifestyle to demonstrate the positioning of the lifestyle entrepreneur. While the researcher felt this was one of the clearest ways to demonstrate the positioning of the lifestyle entrepreneur against the broad themes of lifestyle and business growth, the complex nature of the entrepreneurs' identity construction through this positioning was underplayed in this model.

The factors that shape their identities as lifestyle entrepreneurs, and how this in turn shapes their behaviour, have been recognised with practical implications for future research. The implications of lifestyle sport, and the role this plays in the shaping and becoming of the lifestyle entrepreneur in this context, have been established.

Through enquiry into the nature of these lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports, the researcher was able to recognise a more nuanced understanding of who these entrepreneurs are, including their becoming, and began to unpick the competing and complementing identities that made up these individuals, as highlighted through answering research question 2. This applies both to the lifestyle sports entrepreneurs identified within this study, but can

also be generalised to the wider population of lifestyle entrepreneurs. The results demonstrated that entrepreneurs who identify the importance of growth and profit can be actively seeking lifestyle focussed enterprises, and that the importance of growth and profit is part of the process of getting to this required state. This interpretation also uncovers another under-researched element of lifestyle entrepreneurship (in lifestyle sports), which is their changing state over time.

Another area that the literature search highlighted was a lack of understanding as to what defined and shaped the lifestyle entrepreneur. There was limited contribution to understanding the performance of the lifestyle entrepreneur, and how this met the lifestyle requirements set out in their definition. The researcher felt that this was an under-researched area requiring exploration to further the understanding of this group of entrepreneurs. From the existing literature, the researcher was able to offer a conceptualisation of how the current understanding framed the 'becoming' and shaping of the lifestyle sport entrepreneur. The research conducted supports the view that lifestyle entrepreneurs in lifestyle sports are entrepreneurial which contrasts with some literature that suggests small businesses are anything but entrepreneurial (as previously highlighted by Carland et al. 1984; Dewhurst and Horobin, 1998; Bridge et al. 2003; Bohn, 2013).

The data provided a wealth of information which supported the notion that the individual's characteristics and behaviours aligned with entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs identified characteristics which supported Shane's (2003) definition of entrepreneurship;

Entrepreneurship is an activity that involves the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities to introduce new goods and services, ways of

organizing, markets, processes, and raw materials through organizing efforts that previously had not existed (Shane, 2003: 4).

Each entrepreneur demonstrated alignment to this definition through their discussions of seizing opportunities, introducing new goods and services into new or under-served markets, and clearly identified organising efforts which were synonymous with entrepreneurial behaviour. The findings of this thesis provide evidence that the very nature of managing their business and lifestyle goals identified them as behaving as entrepreneurs.

The research explored the themes from the original conceptualisation of the enterprise, and through the research, identified further undiscovered themes which supported the 'becoming' of a lifestyle entrepreneur, and the shaping through negotiation of factors. On considering these factors, the entrepreneur highlighted a continuous process of negotiation of lifestyle and business factors, which goes beyond current interpretations of entrepreneurial position negotiation (Glancey, 1998) and specifically lifestyle entrepreneurship (Marketti et al. 2006). This has further refined the conceptualisation of lifestyle sports entrepreneurs, as demonstrated through answering research question 3.

Finally, an evaluation of these findings has delivered a conceptualisation of how these lifestyle entrepreneurs can be segmented, specifically based on their internal and external identity constructions. These findings contribute to the debate on lifestyle entrepreneurship, as well as provide new insights and avenues of research that merit further investigation, if this group of entrepreneurs is to be more fully understood.

The literature pointed towards a shaping of 'types' of lifestyle entrepreneurs, however this appeared to be in an early stage of development. There appeared to be a trend towards

critically appraising lifestyle entrepreneurs' motives, ambitions and work ethos (Allardyce, 2015), but little attention toward the interplay of context with the individual. While the existing classifications of lifestyle entrepreneurs (see Dewhurst and Horobin 1998; Shaw and Williams, 1998; Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000; Al-Dajani, 2009; Marchant and Mottiar, 2011; Allardyce, 2015; Bredvold and Skálén, 2016) have supported the development of understanding the phenomenon of lifestyle entrepreneurship, they did not specifically target the lifestyle sports entrepreneur, and therefore did not wholly capture the uniqueness of this type of entrepreneur. The integration of sport and its cultural value (through embeddedness) means there was a much clearer representation of value and value creation through their chosen modes of entrepreneurship. It is possible that with further investigation this could be applied to other different contextualised groups.

The study has therefore offered a reconceptualization of the Engager and Enabler lifestyle sports entrepreneur while also offering an approach to classifying these entrepreneurs through their external and internal identity constructions. This was formed through interpreting the lifestyle entrepreneurs' embeddedness and personal identity construction through Bredvold and Skálén's (2016) approach to lifestyle entrepreneur identity. This work moves beyond pre-existing conceptualisations (for example Allardyce, 2015) by offering the added complexity of context embeddedness which is unique to the understanding of lifestyle sports entrepreneurs.

Appendix 1. Questionnaire Topic Guide

Initial filter questions

Respondents were firstly asked a series of filter questions which ensured they were the correct participants for the research. These filter questions and the decision tree can be found in Appendix 3.

The business and its construction

Awareness of business sector, size and market presence, location, registered status, and age will help to build a picture of the types of businesses that are being operated, and how these relate to the individual entrepreneurs that are operating them. The discussion on the business appears to be something that is missing from the literature.

Knowing if the business was started by the respondent, or if they took it over, will aid understanding of if the business was started under lifestyle principles, or if it altered, and if this was influenced by the start up or takeover. This will also be supported by knowing how many partners there are and have been in the business gives further insight into how the business has developed, and if it is started by more than one person, if they have the same lifestyle motivations. This information may be pursued through the interviews.

Defining the lifestyle entrepreneur- Growth

Understanding business growth – number of employees

Assessing the employee numbers, and how these have changed, and how they are likely to change, will help establish an aspect of growth that is talked about in the literature. By looking at the history and future plans of the entrepreneurs for this aspect of growth, this may help to identify the 'ebb and flow' of the balance of goals 'cycle', as demonstrated in the conceptual framework, that may occur. Instead of the literature which currently says lifestyle entrepreneurs get to a certain level of growth and then stop, I am testing the later more recent studies which suggest that the growth and lifestyle goals are considered consistency, or, that different types of entrepreneurs exist, and these types may show a 'career' that the lifestyle entrepreneur goes through. To try and keep this an even comparison, if a business is affected by seasonality, I am asking the entrepreneur to consider employee numbers at peak season times.

Understanding business growth – resources and assets

Another aspect of growth in the literature is the expansion of the business through asset, capital and opportunity recognition (also in aspects of determining entrepreneurial activity).

Understanding business growth – turnover

Turnover is another aspect of growth that is reported by the literature as being one of the fundamental criteria. These two questions will identify if the business has grown in the previous 12 months, and if they expect it to grow in the next 12 months. By not asking directly for figures, it is hoped that the respondent is more likely to answer the question, and therefore provide useful information. The actual figures are not so relevant to my study, as I am more concerned with the intention or evidence of growth through this aspect;

Understanding business growth – future plans

Still looking at growth, to understand if the business is going to be growing, shrinking, or remaining the same size, a number of growth factors are asked to see how likely it will be for the entrepreneur to pursue them.

Understanding the external and internal influences on the entrepreneur - the entrepreneur's business acumen.

After gaining an understanding on the growth aspects of the entrepreneur's business, I now would like to try and add to the knowledge on how 'entrepreneurial' the entrepreneur is. Later on in the questionnaire, I will ask questions to determine if the entrepreneur is driven by lifestyle goals. The questions in this section will therefore add to the knowledge of if lifestyle entrepreneurs are entrepreneurial by holding business principles.

Understanding the external and internal influences on the entrepreneur – help and support

Using business start-up agencies and business support. This allows me to relate to the debate on whether lifestyle entrepreneurs just don't use the business support agencies, or whether they do ask them for help but do not find the help appropriate, or that the support agencies are not interested in them because they are too small.

Understanding the external and internal influences on the entrepreneur – business pressures

Understanding business pressures that the entrepreneur faces will also give an insight into why they run their business in the particular manner. This is something that can be explored further through the interviews.

Understanding the external and internal influences on the entrepreneur - the relationship between the producer and consumer of the sports business

Questions relating to the origin and type of customer contribute to the understanding of what sort of business the lifestyle entrepreneur is running, by understanding the target market. This adds to the debate relating to the authenticity of the lifestyle sport, and where on the spectrum the business can be placed in relation to authenticity to commercialisation; this is driven by the participants. This will also add to the knowledge on any conflicts that may occur between the entrepreneur and the market that they serve. The unique selling points and principles of the business will also contribute to understanding if lifestyle principles are what the entrepreneurs base their business decision making on.

Understanding the external and internal influences on the entrepreneur - how lifestyle has influenced decision making

Questions surrounding this help to identify the other lifestyle motives from previous employment that may have contributed to their business decision making.

Understanding the lifestyle sport

The determinants of a lifestyle sport, as discussed in the literature review are, a) a high level of participation, b) a strong knowledge of the sport, c) socialising and interacting with similar people in the sport, d) the sport providing mental, social and physical benefits. The questions in this section are aimed at trying to understand the participants' association with the sport, to make sure they view it as a lifestyle sport.

Demographics

Obtaining data on age, gender and education of respondents means that the data that is obtained can be correlated to see if there is a predominance of age or gender for example.

Appendix 2. Interview question key topic themes

Employment background

How they got to owning and running the business

Opportunity recognition for the business

Work life balance and roles

Work role supporting work life balance and roles

Growth of business

Success

Location

Sport participation

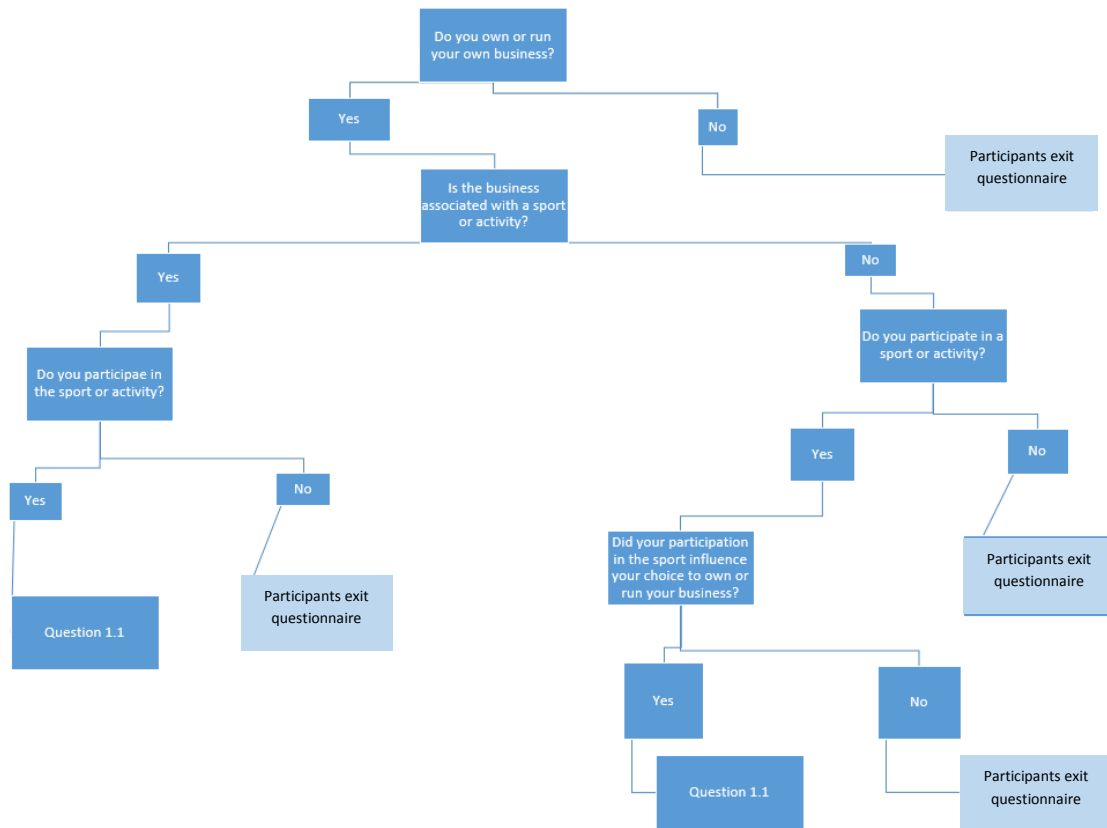
Changes in the sport

Business and following a passion

Authenticity in the sport

Future challenges and changes

Appendix 3. Decision tree for questionnaire filter questions



Appendix 4. Quantitative test results

Is a business qualification held?

A chi-square test of independence comparing enablers and engagers and their business qualification was calculated. No significant difference was found $X^2(1) = 2.148, p > 0.05$

Type * BusinessQual Crosstabulation

		BusinessQual		Total	
		Yes	No		
Type	Enabler	Count	10	10	20
		Expected Count	7.3	12.7	20.0
	Engager	Count	16	35	51
		Expected Count	18.7	32.3	51.0
Total		Count	26	45	71
		Expected Count	26.0	45.0	71.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.148 ^a	1	.143		
Continuity Correction ^b	1.420	1	.233		
Likelihood Ratio	2.105	1	.147		
Fisher's Exact Test				.176	.117
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.117	1	.146		
N of Valid Cases	71				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.32.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Turnover expectations

A chi-square test of independence comparing enablers and engagers and their turnover expectations was calculated. No significant difference was found $X^2(1) = 2.526$, $p > 0.05$

Type * TurnoverExpectation Crosstabulation

			TurnoverExpectation			Total
			To increase	To stay the same	To decrease	
Type	Enabler	Count	14	6	2	22
		Expected Count	13.7	7.4	.9	22.0
	Engager	Count	34	20	1	55
		Expected Count	34.3	18.6	2.1	55.0
Total		Count	48	26	3	77
		Expected Count	48.0	26.0	3.0	77.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.526 ^a	2	.283
Likelihood Ratio	2.275	2	.321
Linear-by-Linear Association	.144	1	.704
N of Valid Cases	77		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .86.

Employee numbers expectations

A chi-square test of independence comparing enablers and engagers and their employee numbers expectations was calculated. No significant difference was found $X^2(1) = 0.410$, $p > 0.05$

Type * EmployeeNumbers Crosstabulation

		EmployeeNumbers		Total	
		To increase	To stay the same		
Type	Enabler	Count	3	18	21
		Expected Count	4.0	17.0	21.0
	Engager	Count	10	38	48
		Expected Count	9.0	39.0	48.0
Total		Count	13	56	69
		Expected Count	13.0	56.0	69.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.410 ^a	1	.522		
Continuity Correction ^b	.093	1	.760		
Likelihood Ratio	.427	1	.514		
Fisher's Exact Test				.740	.391
Linear-by-Linear Association	.404	1	.525		
N of Valid Cases	69				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.96.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Type * ParticipationPerWeek Crosstabulation

		ParticipationPerWeek					Total	
		Less than once a week	Once a week	2-4 times per week	5-7 times per week	More than 7 times per week		
Type	Enabler	Count	2	4	10	1	2	19
		Expected Count	2.3	3.1	11.7	.8	1.0	19.0
	Engager	Count	7	8	35	2	2	54
		Expected Count	6.7	8.9	33.3	2.2	3.0	54.0
Total		Count	9	12	45	3	4	73
		Expected Count	9.0	12.0	45.0	3.0	4.0	73.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.016 ^a	4	.733
Likelihood Ratio	1.859	4	.762
Linear-by-Linear Association	.312	1	.576
N of Valid Cases	73		

a. 6 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .78.

Participation

A chi-square test of independence comparing enablers and engagers and their participation was calculated. No significant difference was found $X^2(1) = 2.016, p > 0.05$

Appendix 5 – Questionnaire questions

Q. Do you own/run your own business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Q. Is the business to do with sport?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Block

Q. Do you participate in the sport or activity?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Display This Question:

If Is the business to do with sport? No Is Selected

Q. Do you participate in a sport?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Display This Question:

If Do you participate in a sport? Yes Is Selected

Q. Does your participation influence how you run your business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Q. Which of the following sectors does your business fall under? Tick all that apply

- Primary sector e.g. farming, fishing, mining (1)
- Manufacturing (2)
- Construction (3)
- Wholesale/Retail (4)
- Transport/Storage (5)
- Accommodation/Food (6)
- Information/Communication (7)
- Financial/Real Estate (8)
- Professional/Scientific (9)
- Administrative/Supportive (10)
- Education (11)
- Health/Social Work (12)
- Arts/Entertainment (13)
- Other service - Please specify (14) _____

Q. Can you describe in your own words what your business does?

Q. What country are you and your business based in?

- UK (1)
- New Zealand (2)
- Austria (3)

Q. How many sites does your business run from? (For example, do you have an office, in a separate location to a shop)

Q. Would you identify your business as any of the following?

- A Sole trader (1)
- A Partnership (2)
- A Private Limited Company (Ltd) (3)
- A Public Limited Company (plc) (4)
- Other - Please specify (5) _____

Q. How long has the business been in operation?

Q. Was the business started by you?

- Yes (1)
- Yes, with another or others (2)
- No (3)

Display This Question:

If Was the business started by you? No Is Selected

Q. How long have you owned the business for?

Q. How many owners/partners are there currently in the business, aside for yourself?

- 0 (1)
- 1 (2)
- 2 (3)
- 3-5 (4)
- 6-10 (5)
- 11+ (6)

Q. How many employees are there in the business this year, aside from yourself, in the following categories?

- Permanent full-time (1) _____
- Permanent part-time (2) _____
- Seasonal full-time (3) _____
- Seasonal part-time (4) _____

Q. How many employees do you expect to have in the next twelve months?

- More than currently (1)
- About the same (2)
- Fewer that currently (3)
- Don't know (4)

Q. Aside from employees, do you have any help from friends/family? If so, how many?

- 0 (1)
- 1 (2)
- 2 (3)
- 3-5 (4)
- 6-10 (5)
- 11+ (6)

Display This Question:

If Aside from employees, do you have any help from friends/family? If so, how many? 0 Is Not Selected

Q. What do they do? Please describe in your own words:

Q. How likely is it that you will increase the number of sites you operate the business from in the future? Please select from 1-7, 1 being extremely unlikely, and 7 being extremely likely:

	Extremely unlikely (1)	Moderately unlikely (2)	Slightly unlikely (3)	Neither likely nor unlikely - don't know (4)	Slightly likely (5)	Moderately likely (6)	Extremely likely (7)
Likelihood of increasing number of sites (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. What are your expectations of turnover of the business in the next twelve months?

- To increase (1)
- To decrease (2)
- To stay roughly the same (3)
- Don't know (4)

Q. Below are some factors that may be plans for your business over the next three years. Please rate each one 1-7, 1 being extremely unlikely to happen, and 7 being extremely likely to happen:

	Extremely unlikely (1)	Moderately unlikely (2)	Slightly unlikely (3)	Neither likely nor unlikely (4)	Slightly likely (5)	Moderately likely (6)	Extremely likely (7)
Increase the skills of the workforce (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Develop and launch new products/services (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Introduce new working practices (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Invest capital in, for example, new premises, new machinery (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increase the leadership capabilities of managers (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. Are there any other plans not listed above that you are considering?

Q. How would you best describe what is important to you that your business does? Please rate each statement 1-7, 1 being of no importance, and 7 being of extreme importance:

	Not at all important (1)	Low importance (2)	Slightly important (3)	Neutral (4)	Moderately important (5)	Very important (6)	Extremely important (7)
Spotting a gap in the market for a product/service and thought I had the skills to provide it (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Create new products and services (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Take advantage of opportunities (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Taking risks if benefits are possible (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using common resources but in a different way to offer something new (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provide a similar product or service to that of many other businesses in the area (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Contribute to the local economy, for example, through providing employment opportunities (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Provides an authentic product (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Q. Do you have any business related qualifications?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Do you have any business related qualifications? Yes Is Selected

Q. What are they?

Q. Did you obtain any formal business start-up training prior to setting up/taking over your business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Did you obtain any informal business start-up training prior to setting up/taking over your business? Yes Is Selected

Q. Please give details of the training

Q. Did you obtain any informal business start-up training prior to setting up/taking over your business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Did you obtain any informal business start-up training prior to setting up/taking over your business? Yes Is Selected

Q. Please give details of the training

Q. Did you utilise any business support agencies for your business start-up/when you took over?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Did you utilise any business support agencies for your business start-up/when you took over?

Yes Is Selected

Q. Can you give details of what for?

Display This Question:

If Did you utilise any business support agencies for your business start-up/when you took over?

No Is Selected

Q. Can you explain why not?

Q. What would you describe to be the biggest challenges you face within your business?

Display This Question:

If Do you participate in the sport or activity Yes Is Selected

Q. Would you say that your customers are mainly based...?

- Locally e.g. within 30 miles of your main site (1)
- Across your region (2)
- Nationally (3)
- Internationally (4)
- None of these (5)
- Don't know (6)

Display This Question:

If Do you participate in the sport or activity Yes Is Selected

Q. And how would you describe the majority of the people that come into contact with your business, with 1 being Novices, and 7 being Experts:

	Novice (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	Expert (7)	A complete mixture (8)
Customers of the business (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Display This Question:

If Do you participate in the sport or activity Yes Is Selected

Q. What would you say are your unique selling points of your business?

Q. What principles would you say you run your business on?

Q. Are you...

- Life-long resident of the area - never lived away (1)
- Born in the area, moved away and then returned (2)
- Moved to the are, but had visited before (3)
- Moved to the are, never visited before (4)
- Other - Please specify (5) _____

Q. Did you work for someone else before starting your business, or did you have a different career before starting your business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Did you work for someone else before starting your business, or did you have a different career before starting your business? Yes Is Selected

Q. Which sector was it in?

- Primary e.g. farming, fishing, mining (1)
- Manufacturing (2)
- Construction (3)
- Wholesale/Retail (4)
- Transport/Storage (5)
- Accommodation/Food (6)
- Information/Communication (7)
- Financial/Real Estate (8)
- Professional/Scientific (9)
- Administrative/Supportive (10)
- Education (11)
- Health/Social Work (12)
- Arts/Entertainment (13)
- Other service - Please specify (14) _____

Display This Question:

If Did you work for someone else before starting your business, or did you have a different career before starting your business? Yes Is Selected

Q. Did this experience influence your decision to start or run your own business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Did this experience influence your decision to start or run your own business? Yes Is Selected

Q. Can you explain how or why it influenced you?

Q. Did you run another business before the current one?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Did you run another business before the current one? Yes Is Selected

Q. Please can you provide a brief description of what it was?

Q. Do you run another business or work anywhere else as well as running your current business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Display This Question:

If Do you run another business or work anywhere else as well as running your current business?

Yes Is Selected

Q. Can you provide details of what is is?

Q. When you first set up/took over the business, how would you rate the importance of the following in your decision to run your own business? Please rate each option 1 to 7, with 1 being not important, and 7 being highly important:

	Not at all important (1)	Low importance (2)	Slightly important (3)	Neutral (4)	Moderately important (5)	Very important (6)	Extremely important (7)
Time to spend with friends and family (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Time to spend participating in your chosen sport (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to succeed in business (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Financial success (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Self-management of own time (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To run a business based on ethical principles (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To run a business based on environmental principles (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be my own boss (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To utilise my business skills (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be near friends (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be near family (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

For life quality the area brings (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For life quality working for myself brings (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For the freedom it brings (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Out of necessity (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Saw an opportunity (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To use knowledge I have of an industry (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. Was the growth of your business more or less important than the lifestyle it allows you to lead?
Please rate this 1 to 7, with 1 being less important, and 7 being more important:

	Less important (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	More important (7)
Growth of the business more or less important than lifestyle (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. Can you explain your reason for this choice?

Q. And now thinking about your business today, how would you rate the importance of the following in your decision to run your own business? Please rate each option 1 to 7, with 1 being not important, and 7 being highly important:

	Not at all important (1)	Low importance (2)	Slightly importance (3)	Neutral (4)	Moderately important (5)	Very important (6)	Extremely important (7)
Time to spend with friends and family (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Time to spend participating in your chosen sport (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ability to succeed in business (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Financial success (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Self-management of own time (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To run a business based on ethical principles (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To run a business based on environmental principles (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be my own boss (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To utilise my business skills (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be near friends (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be near family (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

For life quality the area brings (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For life quality working for myself brings (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For the freedom it brings (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Out of necessity (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Saw an opportunity (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To use knowledge I have of an industry (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. Is the growth of your business more or less important than the lifestyle it allows you to lead?
Please rate this 1 to 7, with 1 being less important, and 7 being more important:

	Less important (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	More important (7)
Growth of the business more or less important than lifestyle (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. Can you explain your reason for this choice?

Q. What is the main sport that you participate in?

Q. How often do you participate?

- Less than once a week (1)
- Once a week (2)
- Two to four times a week (3)
- Five to seven times a week (4)
- More than seven times a week (5)
- Don't know (6)

Q. How long have you been participating in the sport?

Q. How would you rate the following factors as important in your participation if the sport? Please rate each factor 1 to 7, with 1 being not important, and 7 being highly important:

	Not at all important (1)	Low importance (2)	Slightly important (3)	Neutral (4)	Moderately important (5)	Very important (6)	Extremely important (7)
Keeping or becoming fit (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To socialise and interact with like-minded people (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be recognised as achieving something by others (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To compete to achieve in competitions (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To complete competitions (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To achieve personal goals (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For it to be challenging (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is the central part of my life; all other aspects of life factor around it (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It gives me freedom to express myself (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

It gives me freedom from other aspects of my life (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't have any rules to follow (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. How would you describe your reason for participating in the sport?

Q. How would you rate your ability in the sport, where 1 is novice, and 7 is expert:

	Novice (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	Expert (7)
Ability is... (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. Thinking about the time you spend on/in this activity, what proportion of your time do you spend doing the following?

	Never (1)	Sometimes (2)	About half the time (3)	Most of the time (4)	All of the time (5)
Physically participating (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spectating organised live events (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Volunteering at organised live events (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spectating non-organised events (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Watching the sport on TV/internet (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reading about the sport on social media (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reading about the sport in specialist magazines, on the internet (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Connecting with people who also participate in the sport via social media (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spending time with people who also participate in the sport in person (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. Below are some statements about how influential your sport is on how you run your business. Please rate each statement 1 to 7, with 1 being strongly disagree, and 7 being strongly agree:

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
My job means I can participate as much as I want (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
By being involved in the sport through my job I feel a good connection (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I designed my job around my sport participation (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job is flexible enough to allow me to participate as much as I want (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q. How old are you?

- 18-19 (1)
- 20-24 (2)
- 25-29 (3)
- 30-34 (4)
- 35-39 (5)
- 40-44 (6)
- 45-49 (7)
- 50-54 (8)
- 55-59 (9)
- 60-64 (10)
- 65+ (11)

Q. Gender:

Display This Question:

If What country are you and your business based in? UK Is Selected

Q. What qualifications do you have?

- None (1)
- NVQ, GNVQ, BTEC (2)
- GCSE (3)
- A Levels (4)
- Bachelor Degree (5)
- Postgraduate (6)
- Other - Please specify (7) _____

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