

**Understanding the farmer:
An analysis of the entrepreneurial competencies required
for diversification to farm tourism**

by

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STUDENT DECLARATION

I declare that while registered for the research degree, I was with the University's specific permission, an enrolled student for the following awards:

Post Graduate Certificate in Business and Management Research
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ABSTRACT

This study analyses the processes of agricultural and rural restructuring that have characterised rural economies since the end of the Second World War, leading to a reorientation from productivist to more entrepreneurial models of farming. In particular, the transition from the conventional role of the farmer as *price taker*, which requires appropriate technical and managerial competency, towards that of *price maker*, which calls for broader entrepreneurial competencies is highlighted. This transition is explored in the context of farm tourism, identified as a diversification strategy to promote a more sustainable rural economy and to protect farm incomes against market fluctuation. To date, the literature on farm tourism has overlooked many of these processes and whilst conceptualising the farmer as an entrepreneur, has not sufficiently engaged with key theories of entrepreneurship or indeed emergent frameworks of entrepreneurial skill and competency.

The research draws on a mixed-method's approach, which includes two distinct research phases conducted in the North West of England. In the initial phase, a survey of 118 diversified farm tourism businesses identifies that whilst the primary motivation to diversify is to provide additional household income, these farmers value business and management competencies at the expense of entrepreneurial competency. Thus, this initial phase, challenges the extent to which farmers are currently entrepreneurial in the context of the rural and agricultural restructuring highlighted. At the second research phase, utilising Q Methodology, a technique designed for the systematic study of subjectivity, a 42-item instrument developed from the extant literature on entrepreneurial competence was administered to 15 farm tourism entrepreneurs. The Q analysis identifies three distinct perspectives on entrepreneurial skill and competency which farmers identify as necessary for successful diversification, termed: the Reflective Leader, the Opportunity Aware Organiser and the Opportunity Driven Innovator. The main characteristics of these groups are discussed and provide the basis for a taxonomy of the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur. Moreover, the results reveal the heterogeneity of diversified farmers in the study region, which encapsulates a wide range of perspectives from the risk averse to the opportunity aware, from the managerial to the entrepreneurial

The thesis concludes by presenting a conceptual model of entrepreneurial competency, as well an additional taxonomy which classifies the farmer as a rural entrepreneur within a broad landscape of farming identity. The work thus provides a better understanding of farm tourism and a valuable insight into the complexity of rural and farm tourism entrepreneurship. As well as suggestions for future research, the findings will be of interest to academics and policy actors, with the conclusions providing a foundation to better understand farm diversification. Insights that may better inform rural business support, training and advisory services and foster critical policy discussion and debate.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

Agriculture, described as 'one of the most potent and enduring symbols of rurality', has for centuries been the dominant and driving force of rural economies (Woods, 2005, p.42), often representing the principal source of income, employment and output for rural areas (Bryden and Bollman, 2000; Pezzini, 2001). However, since the end of the Second World War, a decline in fortunes in the agricultural sector has been apparent as farming has moved from the centre towards the periphery of our everyday lives. For example, in many developed nations less than a fifth of the rural population is now dependent on agriculture for their livelihoods (Woods, 2005). Indeed, UK agriculture, which employed over one million people in the early 1950s, has seen this number halve, whilst France's agricultural population has also more than halved since 1980 (Storey, 2009).

At the same time, the relative importance of agriculture to national economies has also fallen, now accounting for less than 1 percent of GDP in the UK, Ireland, Germany and the USA, and less than 2 percent of GDP in France, Austria, Italy and the Netherlands (World Bank, 2010). Thus, as the dominance of agriculture has declined, farmers have adjusted by identifying and exploiting new streams of 'non-agricultural income' from both on- and off-farm sources (Ilbery, 1998; Woods, 2005, 2010). Indeed, in the United States in 2004, 52 percent of farm operators and 45 percent of spouses worked off-farm in order to provide additional income (Jones, Moreddu and Kumagai, 2009), whilst 58 percent of farms in England engaged in some form of diversified activity in 2009 (CRC, 2010). Consequently, Johnson (2001, p.15) notes the irony that, in the 21st Century 'farms are [now] more dependent on local communities, than local communities are on farms.'

However, whilst this post-war restructuring of agriculture remains significant, it tells only one half of the rural story as, following the agricultural changes already outlined above 'many rural areas [have] suffered continued population loss, lack of services, economic underperformance and environmental degradation' (Árnason, Shucksmith and Vergunst, 2009, p.3). Whilst Ilbery (1998) identifies these as the processes of social modernisation and socio-economic transformation taking place within rural areas generally, Woods (2005) highlights that, throughout the post-war period, these

processes have been marked by an intensity and persistence to the extent that they have affected every aspect of rural life. Certainly, a number of these transformations have been well documented and are readily identifiable in rural areas throughout the developed world, not least issues involving the outward migration of rural youth (Muilu and Rusanen, 2003; Fan and Stark, 2008); an ageing rural population (Amcoff and Westholm, 2007; Heenan, 2009); and social exclusion through declining access to public services (Farrington and Farrington, 2005; Agarwal, Rahman and Errington, 2009).

Indeed, whilst one must guard against what Hodge and Monk (2004) refer to as stylised fallacies - or broad generalisations relating to rural decline - the traditional model of rural change typified in the literature incorporates many of the factors noted above. At the same time, it is generally recognised that rural areas also tend to lag behind national average economic growth rates and experience weaker economic performance (OECD, 2006; Ward and Brown, 2009). Thus, the countryside and rural areas are frequently described as undergoing a process of 'restructuring', a situation that has been much documented by agricultural and rural geographers (Robinson, 1990; Marsden, et al., 1993; Ilbery, 1998; Robinson, 2004; Essex, 2005; Halseth, Markey and Bruce, 2010). Hoggart and Paniagua (2001a) contend that the term restructuring has been both misapplied and de-valued through over use. They note that a number of existing terms, including industrialisation and reorganisation, should be sufficient as descriptors so as not to trivialise the concept.

What is more, these structural changes have, in the context of European agriculture at least, taken place within the milieu of a changing economic policy which supports agriculture. More specifically, reforms to the European Union's (EU) Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) have led to a reorientation of farming away from productivist to more entrepreneurial models of agriculture that are considered more competitive and sustainable in nature (Phillipson, et al., 2004; Meert, et al., 2005; Jones, Moreddu and Kumagai, 2009). In effect, the net result has been that the role, attitudes and business practices of farmers are being forever changed and farms must be treated as firms, and become more market oriented, in order to survive. This suggests that, looking to the future, there will be 'a greater emphasis on personal capacities and

entrepreneurial skills of farmers with respect to commercialisation, promotion and organisation' (Phillipson, *et al.*, 2004, p.31-32).

Specifically, the CAP legacy of decades of subsidised agriculture and farm payments is said to have formed a reactive rather than proactive culture amongst farmers who, as a consequence, do not possess the requisite entrepreneurial skill-set and thus are not adequately prepared for this reorientation (Phillipson, *et al.*, 2004; Walford, 2005; Atterton and Ward, 2008; Rudmann, 2008). As the Curry Report (2002, p.20) on the 'Future of Farming and Food' in England concludes, some farmers have been

slow to change, and slow to innovate. Farming will have to be quicker to spot opportunities if it is to survive and prosper in a liberalised world... farmers need - as some have already done - to rediscover their businessman's mind, their marketing skills and their eye for new opportunities

Moreover, as farmers have been encouraged to become more market oriented and to seek out new opportunities, there has been an increased focus on the adequacy of both their general business and entrepreneurial skills (Phillipson, *et al.*, 2004; McElwee, 2006; Pyysiäinen, *et al.*, 2006; de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer, 2007), with Smit (2004) arguing that entrepreneurship is increasingly becoming the most important aspect of modern farming. This challenge may be summarised by acknowledging that, whilst historically farmers have been 'price takers', a role which may have enabled them to develop appropriate and adequate managerial competencies, their transition to 'price makers' exposes the inadequacy of their broader entrepreneurial competencies and attitudes (McElwee, Anderson and Vesala, 2006; Pyysiäinen, *et al.*, 2006; de Wolf, Schoorlemmer and Rudmann, 2007).

Consequently, a growing literature is now emerging on rural and farm entrepreneurship generally and, in particular, on the role of business enterprise characteristics and the range of skills deemed critical to the success of farm ventures (Carter, 1999, 2001; Alsos, Ljunggren and Pettersen, 2003; Carter, 2003; Phillipson, *et al.*, 2004; McElwee, 2006; Pyysiäinen, *et al.*, 2006; Richards and Bulkley, 2007; Vesala, Peura and McElwee, 2007; Couzy and Dockes, 2008; Hildenbrand and Hennon, 2008; McElwee, 2008; Alonso, 2009; Clark, 2009; Morgan, *et al.*, 2010; Vesala and Vesala,

2010; McElwee and Smith, 2012). Not surprisingly, many of these skills reflect those more generally proposed in the entrepreneurship literature. For example, de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer (2007) suggest that networking, innovation, risk taking, team working, reflection, leadership and business monitoring are fundamental to developing and improving the farm business. Hill (2007) concurs, identifying that many of the required skills or competencies, including business and strategic planning, marketing, collaboration and risk management, can be seen as entrepreneurial in nature. Equally, Morgan, *et al.* (2010) emphasise what they describe as higher order skills, namely: creating and evaluating a business strategy; networking and utilising contacts; and, recognising and realising opportunities. However, germane to this discussion, McElwee (2008, p.465) highlights that 'farmers are business people in that they run businesses but in practice they do not necessarily have well defined business skills.'

More recently, CAP reforms have also meant 'that farmers have had to take on new and multiple roles, channelling some of their effort from food production towards acting as environmental and countryside managers, and as rural entrepreneurs' with the downward pressure on farming incomes driving 'many farmers to seek other income sources and develop new types of business activity.' (Atterton and Ward, 2008, p.15). Increasingly, this search for new income has seen farmers opt to diversify all or part of their holdings, in effect to develop 'alternative farm enterprises' (Ilbery, *et al.*, 1998; Bowler, 1999). Moreover, farm diversification has been advocated more generally as an effective strategy to promote a more diverse and sustainable rural economy and to protect farming incomes against market fluctuation (Meert, *et al.*, 2005; Turner, *et al.*, 2006; Evans, 2009; Jones, Moreddu and Kumagai, 2009; Maye, Ilbery and Watts, 2009). Thus, as diversification has become an almost expected agricultural practice, this has again reiterated the need to conceptualise the farmer as an entrepreneur, and to consider their skills and competency needs in this context (See for instance: Pyysiäinen, *et al.*, 2006; McElwee, 2008; Clark, 2009; McElwee and Bosworth, 2010; Morgan, *et al.*, 2010; Vik and McElwee, 2011).

By way of example, in the UK, Defra (The Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs) has suggested that one of the key issues that inhibits a farmer's decision

to diversify, or indeed threatens the success of any diversified project, is a distinct lack of business skills. Moreover, Defra further argues that it is often the traditional failure to 'conceptualise farming as a business' that is at the heart of the matter; given that the need to diversify is often an economic necessity rather than because of any perceived business benefit' (Defra, 2007). This lack of insight has been said to manifest itself in the difficulties UK farmers have in identifying market opportunities, uncertainty about the direction in which to take their business, an inability to develop a long term business plan, and a reluctance to take an investment risk (NAO, 2004). Moreover, as Defra (2007, p.8) itself outlines:

Competence in business skills is key both to successful start-up of diversified businesses and ongoing profitability... few farmers can now rely solely on their knowledge of basic commodity production. Many have already diversified or added value to produce, and need the skills required to run new businesses, including dealing directly with customers, marketing their products, and selecting and managing staff

Further to the more general discussion of the reorientation of farming and the importance of diversification is the role of farm based recreation and tourism, which is acknowledged as one of a number of potential strategies for farm families who wish to remain on the land . However, whilst the increasing conceptualisation of farmers as entrepreneurs and the focus on the necessary entrepreneurial and managerial skill set amongst diversified farm ventures is welcomed, research to date has yet to focus on farm-based tourism diversification from this perspective. Indeed, Busby and Rendle (2000) note the absence of studies that discuss the role of entrepreneurship within the dynamics of the modern farm tourism business, whilst Barbieri and Mshenga (2008) add that not enough is yet known about the characteristics of either farm or farmer that might positively impact on performance within farm tourism enterprises. In short, to date, no conceptual model of entrepreneurial skills and competencies has been offered in the context of diversification to farm tourism and, indeed, discussions of entrepreneurial behaviour generally have been absent within the literature.

What is more, the importance of considering entrepreneurship in the context of diversification to farm tourism, and indeed the challenge facing farmers within this setting generally, is expressed succinctly by Getz, Carlsen and Morrison (2004: 125),

who observe that:

farming is supply-driven, tourism is market-led; farmers are cost-cutters, tourism businesses are revenue maximisers; farmers produce single standardised products at a given price, tourism businesses diversify into many products and offer a range of prices

Thus, it is clear that, whilst farmers are facing the challenge of reorientation from productivist to entrepreneurial agricultural models as highlighted above, diversification to tourism as a service-based enterprise presents additional challenges and the need for a unique skill-set. However, the extent to which this exists within the modern farm household remains unclear. Moreover, and as this thesis will demonstrate, the evident gap within the literature indicates a theoretical weakness and an evident lack of consensus on the range of entrepreneurial and competitive skills that farmers require. Therefore, despite the evident policy focus on the support for and promotion of diversification to farm tourism by regional and national governments (Hjalager, 1996; Hegarty and Przezborska, 2005; Hill, 2009), a fundamental gap in our understanding and knowledge base as to the essential managerial and entrepreneurial skills and competencies exists and, hence, becomes the focus of the research presented here.

Indeed, important questions now arise with respect to the entrepreneurial skills that farmers require in making the transition from traditional agriculture to a service-based enterprise and to the extent to which farmers who consciously embrace tourism already possess these skills. Thus, the specific research objectives of this thesis will now be considered, prior to outlining more fully the scope and limitations of this thesis and the nature of the research to be conducted.

1.1 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

This thesis combines the study of the distinct and separate fields of tourism, entrepreneurship, and agricultural and rural geography, the overall purpose being to more accurately understand the role of the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur (as identified in Figure 1-1 below). More specifically, the overall purpose of this thesis is to explore the range of entrepreneurial skills required by farmers who adopt a diversification strategy to farm tourism.

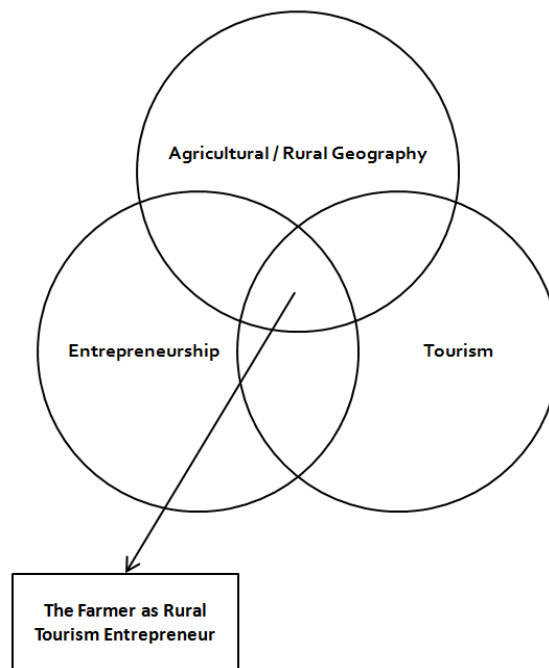


Figure 1-1: Thematic Overview – The Farmer as Rural Tourism Entrepreneur

Thus, this thesis aims to address a significant gap within both the academic literature and the formal policy arena on this subject and to develop a model of entrepreneurial skill and competency with respect to farm tourism. Specifically, this thesis aims to:

- I. analyse the entrepreneurial skill and competency needs of farmers within the context of farm diversification to tourism.
- II. critically appraise the extent to which farmers already foster these entrepreneurial skills and competencies.
- III. develop a taxonomy of the farmer as a basis for understanding entrepreneurial skill and competency needs in the context of traditional farming identity.

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The contribution of this study is twofold in that it makes both theoretical and practical contributions to the topic under discussion.

1.2.1 Theoretical Contribution

This thesis makes a noticeable contribution to several areas of research (moreover, it is acknowledged that work from Phase One of this research has already been published, see Phelan and Sharpley (2011, 2012) with papers enclosed at Appendix J). Its primary contribution is to bring greater focus and clarity to the study and understanding of entrepreneurship in the context of farm tourism diversification. As

will be considered in Chapters Two and Three, within the farm tourism literature there has been a noticeable absence of attention paid to the entrepreneurial characteristics of either farm or farm household. What is more, tourism discourse in the main has failed to pay adequate attention to issues of entrepreneurship (Wilson, *et al.*, 2001; Koh and Hatten, 2002; Russell and Faulkner, 2004; Koh, 2006; Shaw and Williams, 2010), theoretical work being considered to remain at a consistently low level and lacking in methodological sophistication (Li, 2008). Moreover, discussion within the tourism literature generally, as well as the farm tourism literature specifically, has yet to fully acknowledge the concept of entrepreneurial skills and competencies. At the same time, the literature on entrepreneurial competency in general is still at an early stage, with Mitchelmore and Rowley (2010, p.104) describing 'the search for entrepreneurial competencies to support business success and growth, as well as economic development of countries and regions' as 'akin the pursuit of the Holy Grail.' Thus, an additional contribution to knowledge clearly arises from any additional empirical investigation within these areas. Moreover, the use of Q Methodology as an innovative research technique (at Phase Two of this research) provides an additional methodological contribution, given that as a research method it remains underutilised within tourism and business and management, although, as will be demonstrated, it offers significant potential for the study of both entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial competencies.

1.2.2 Practical Contribution

In addition to the theoretical contribution noted above, this thesis identifies the entrepreneurial skills and competencies that farmers deem relevant and important in the context of farm diversification to tourism. Thus, the findings of the research presented in this thesis have the potential to inform policy development in this area and to provide the foundation for education and extension programmes in farming and rural communities. Furthermore, the taxonomy presented in Chapter Seven also serves as a model for understanding and facilitating farm tourism entrepreneurship in other regions.

1.3 THESIS OUTLINE, SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

The purpose of this introductory section is to outline the approach that this thesis will

adopt, as well as to acknowledge a number of delimitations that will define the scope and boundaries of this study. As has been outlined above, this thesis will integrate the disparate academic fields of Tourism, Entrepreneurship and Agricultural and Rural Geography according to the thematic overview presented at figure 1-2 below.

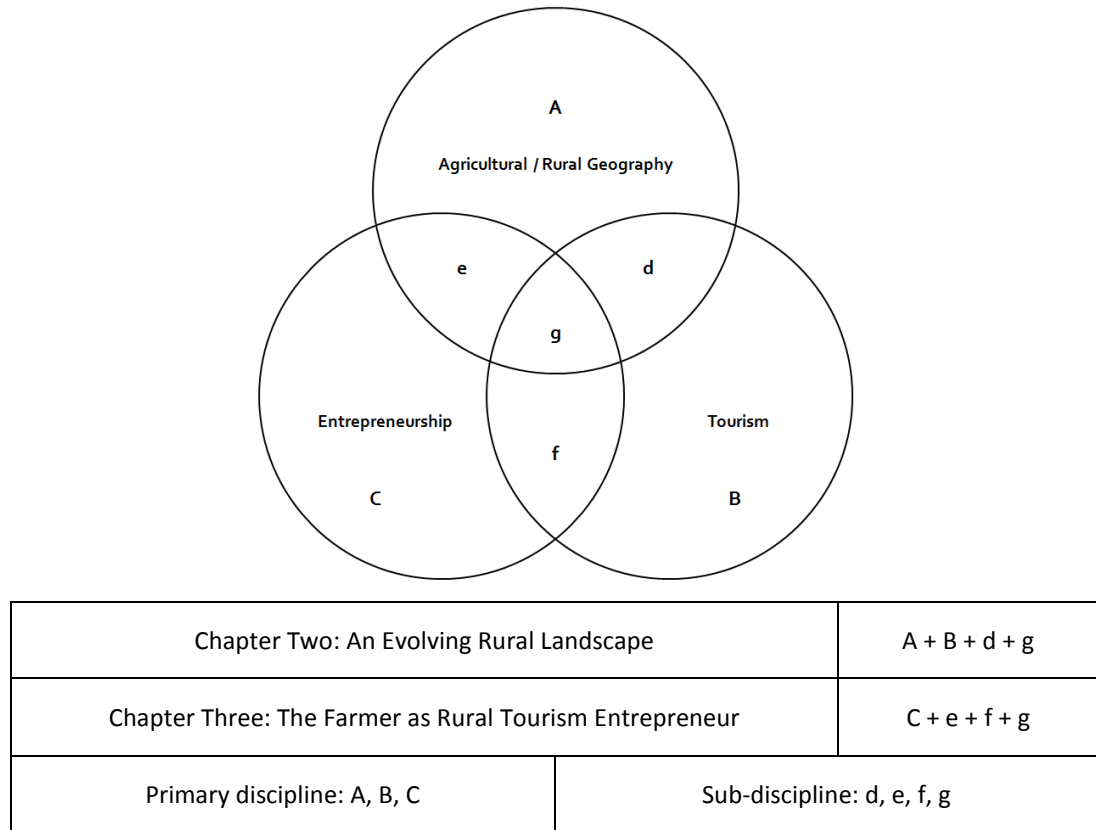


Figure 1-2: Thematic scope of the thesis - primary and sub-disciplines

The foundation for this integration will be provided in the literature review at Chapters Two and Three. More specifically, this discussion and review comprises:

- A. **Agricultural and Rural Geography:** As a necessary precursor to this thesis, Chapter Two will outline the restructuring of post-war agriculture and the associated social-economic transformation that has taken place within rural areas. More specifically, this chapter will delineate the evolution from the so-called productivist, through to post-productivist eras, towards the advent of a multifunctional rural space that exists today. In so doing, this chapter will summarise the period of 'the farm crisis' and the subsequent farm adjustment and diversification strategies that have taken place.

- B. **Tourism:** Whilst tourism provides the context for this study of farm diversification and the associated entrepreneurial skills and competencies, the discussion here is restricted to a brief overview of the importance of tourism in rural areas. This is a precursor to a more detailed discussion of farm tourism (see section (d) below).
- C. **Entrepreneurship:** Chapter Three will begin by defining entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship as a precursor to offering a summary of the traits, behavioural and opportunity identification approaches to the subject. Discussion will then move to a fourth approach, namely entrepreneurial human capital and, specifically, entrepreneurial skills and competencies. Within this section, the literature on skill and competency will be critically reviewed.
- d. **Rural and agricultural tourism:** Additional discussion in Chapter Two will be devoted to an introduction to farm-based tourism and recreation as an alternate farm enterprise and as a response to the restructuring and transformations acknowledged above. Here, discussion will focus on the conceptualisation of farm tourism to include the functions of farm tourism, the motivations of farm tourism operators and the characteristics of the farmer and farm household. The discussion here will begin to position the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur (see also, section g).
- e. **Rural and agricultural entrepreneurship:** This element of the Venn diagram falls at the intersection of entrepreneurship and rural and agricultural geographies. Here, the review in Chapter Three is limited to a focus on the rural and farm entrepreneurship literature that deals specifically with skills and competencies and is, thus, central to the aims and objectives of this work.
- f. **Tourism entrepreneurship:** this element of the Venn diagram falls at the intersection of entrepreneurship and tourism. Here, the review in Chapter Three is again limited, this time, to focus solely on the tourism entrepreneurship literature and predominantly on the literature that concerns skills and competencies.
- g. **The farmer as rural tourism entrepreneur:** Falling at the centre of the Venn diagram, where the three disciplines overlap, the farmer conceived as a rural tourism entrepreneur is a theme that will run throughout Chapter Two and

Three and which provides the context and justification for the research that follows.

1.3.1 Defining Tourism

Having acknowledged above that the discussion of tourism is primarily confined to farm tourism as an element of the broader phenomenon of rural tourism, and that the discipline of tourism is not addressed in its entirety, it is still nevertheless important to acknowledge how this has been conceptualised for the purposes of this thesis. Specifically, this has a bearing on the research design as well as the sampling strategy adopted and to how farm tourism businesses have been identified and recruited for this research.

Traditionally, definitions of tourism have tended to incorporate elements that allow for measurement by regional and national bodies. For instance, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), defines tourism as:

The activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and for the purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (UNWTO, 2001)

Evidently, whilst clarifying what constitutes tourism and who the tourist is, this definition, whilst including leisure, excludes domestic tourism given its emphasis on quantifying time. In doing so, it does not acknowledge that the majority of leisure visitors are not overnight tourists and are more accurately considered domestic tourists. By way of example, research conducted by Visit England identified that in 2011 tourism spend by domestic and overseas visitors amounted to over £70 billion, whilst the day visits alone were worth over £54 billion, signalling the importance of adopting the broadest possible definition of a tourist and tourism (Visit England, 2012). Moreover, a result of which, in the UK at least, policy actors are beginning to utilise the term visitor economy, which allows for the measurement of staying and non-staying visitors, given that it is a more fluid term which considers both the primary and secondary consequences on the economy (Reddy, 2006; Deloitte, 2008; Visit Britain, 2009).

Specific to this thesis and as will be outlined in later chapters, Defra (2011, p.7) records diversification by farmers against the categories of: (1) letting buildings for non-farming use, (2) processing and retailing of farm produce, (3) sport and recreation, (4) tourism accommodation and catering, and (5) other diversified activities. Here, and pertinent to the above discussion, it must be noted that in considering farm tourism, one would evidently need to take into account accommodation and catering but also elements of recreation and potentially the retailing of farm produce if sold to visitors. Moreover, as will also be demonstrated (in the Phase One results presented in Chapter Five), farmers frequently adopt multiple diversification options which may include, for instance, an open farm / farm zoo style attraction, with associated farm shop and cafe and even potentially on-site accommodation. This is evidently problematic, against both traditional definitions of tourism and also Defra's own reporting categories. For this reason, the research presented here has adopted an intentionally broad conceptualisation of farm tourism, more akin to the visitor economy concept, operationalised here, through Barbieri and Mshenga's (2008, p.168) definition of farm tourism as, 'any practice developed on a working farm with the purpose of attracting visitors'.

1.3.2 Defining Entrepreneurship

As will be outlined in Chapter Three, there remains a conflicting array of definitions for both an entrepreneur and entrepreneurship within the literature, with the discipline as a whole failing to achieve consensus as to meaning of the terms. For instance, entrepreneurship has been variously defined as the exploitation of opportunities, innovation, risk-taking, ownership, personality traits, or new venture creation. As a consequence, and as will be highlighted at Chapter Three, Stearns (1996) proposes that the definitional debate should be 'deemphasised', and that it is enough to offer a sample definition, in each study, that is later operationalised through analysis. Thus, for the purposes of this thesis, entrepreneurship is defined as the, "set of behaviours that initiates and manages the reallocation of economic resources and whose purpose is value creation through those means," (Herron and Robinson, 1993, p.286).

1.4 RESEARCH CONTEXT AND SCOPE

In Chapter Two, the reorientation of agriculture and the socio-economic transformation of rural areas in the post-war period is examined in some detail. However, it is acknowledged that this phenomenon is very broad in scope, embracing distinctive global, European, and UK-based transformations and characteristics. That being so, it is appropriate to introduce here the case study region which provides the context for the research in this thesis.

Specifically, the research upon which this thesis is based focuses on the North West of England, specifically the counties of Cumbria, Lancashire, Cheshire, Greater Manchester and Merseyside.

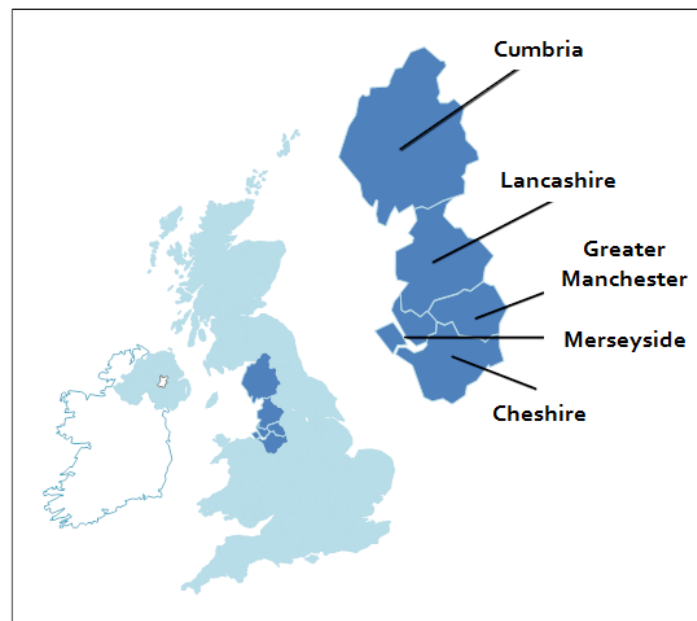


Figure 1-3: The North West of England – The Study Area

Almost 81 percent of the region is classified as rural or urban fringe, with its population of over 6 million people mainly concentrated in the conurbations surrounding Manchester and Liverpool. The agricultural sector in the North-West comprises over 25,000 farm businesses, employing 31,572 people, of whom 12,000 are full-time farmers. Agriculture in the region occupies 878,791 ha (10 percent of England's total agricultural area) with 46 percent classified as Less Favoured Area (LFA). The North West is dominated by livestock production, with 84 percent of its agricultural land under grass grazing. These livestock-based holdings dominate in

Cumbria and Lancashire, whereas arable and horticulture enterprises predominate in Cheshire and the South Lancashire plains. (Defra, 2012a; FBS, 2012).

In the year 2011/12, total income from farming in the North West region was £213,000 million, with individual farm business income (FBI) varying according to farm type: with a high of £84,686 for North West dairy farms, to a low of £32,363 for North West LFA cattle and sheep farms (Defra, 2012a; FBS, 2012). With sensitivity to farm gate prices and the weather, Defra forecasts a drop of between 40 and 50 percent in FBI for 2013/14 (Defra, 2013). Moreover, nationally, the average income per farm has fallen by 40 percent, to £25,175, due to the recent dry winters and wet springs whereas overheads including wages, fuel and feed have continued to increase. As a result, the Farm Crisis Network reports that its casework in the North West of England has more than doubled on the previous year (Sawer, 2013).

Income from non-farming activities has become a significant factor in the economic viability of many farm holdings. For instance, figures for 2009/10 show that nationally, 50 percent of farms have some form of diversification with the total income from diversified activity standing at £360 million and accounting for 15 percent of farm income. Moreover, nationally, for the 39 percent of businesses with diversified activities, diversified income accounts for a quarter or more of total farm income, whilst for 23 percent of farms, income from their diversified enterprise exceeds that from the remainder of the farm business (Defra, 2011).

in 2009/10, 41 percent of farm businesses in the North-West of England engaged in some form of diversified activity, with 14 percent of the region's farm income coming from diversification. Less certain is the level of farm tourism enterprise within these figures (an acknowledgement that, as highlighted above, income from tourism as a specific category is not accounted for by Defra). Research conducted by the North West Farm Tourism Initiative suggests that supplementary income from tourism represents, on average, 26 percent of turnover for the individual farm businesses in this region. However, the evidence for this remains unclear, particularly as 16 percent of farms acknowledge they do not know how much income is derived from tourism, the implication being they do not keep separate business records (NWFTI, 2006).

Nevertheless, it is apparent that tourism, as one of a number of diversification initiatives, is an important factor in both the sustainability of individual farm businesses and the economic viability of rural areas as a whole within the North West of England.

This section has introduced the North West of England as the case study area of the research which underpins this thesis and has provided a useful background with respect to the nature and type of agricultural holdings and the income from farming and from diversification. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the restructuring of agriculture and the socio-economic transformation of rural areas that is discussed in more depth in Chapter Two is applicable to the specific farming and rural communities that have been briefly introduced here.

1.5 THESIS STRUCTURE

The thesis is presented in seven chapters (see figure 1-4 below). In the opening Chapters (Two and Three), the relevant literature which positions the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur (see again Figure 1-2) is developed. More specifically, Chapter Two reviews the changing nature of the rural and agricultural landscapes in the post-war period, including the need for farmers to diversify to alternate farm enterprises in order to maintain the farm household way of life. In Chapter Three, the concepts of the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship are introduced and, following a review of four of the main approaches to the study of entrepreneurship, the concept of entrepreneurial skills and competencies is presented. This is followed by a review of skills and competencies in the context of both farming and tourism.

In Chapter Four, the methodology and research design adopted in this thesis – which comprises two phases of research as part of a sequential explanatory mixed method approach – are discussed. Chapter Five deals specifically with Phase One of this research which is a postal questionnaire of farm tourism operators in the North West of England. As will be outlined, and given the nature of this sequential explanatory approach, Chapter Five will also develop and present interim conclusions ahead of the next sequential stage. These interim conclusions provide the foundation for the qualitative data collection and analysis – using a technique known as Q Methodology

– which is presented at Phase Two of the research in Chapter Six. The integration of Phase One and Two along with a discussion of the findings and their implications is considered in Chapter Seven. Moreover, this final chapter presents a taxonomy of the farmer as a rural entrepreneur as outlined in the aims and objectives of this thesis.

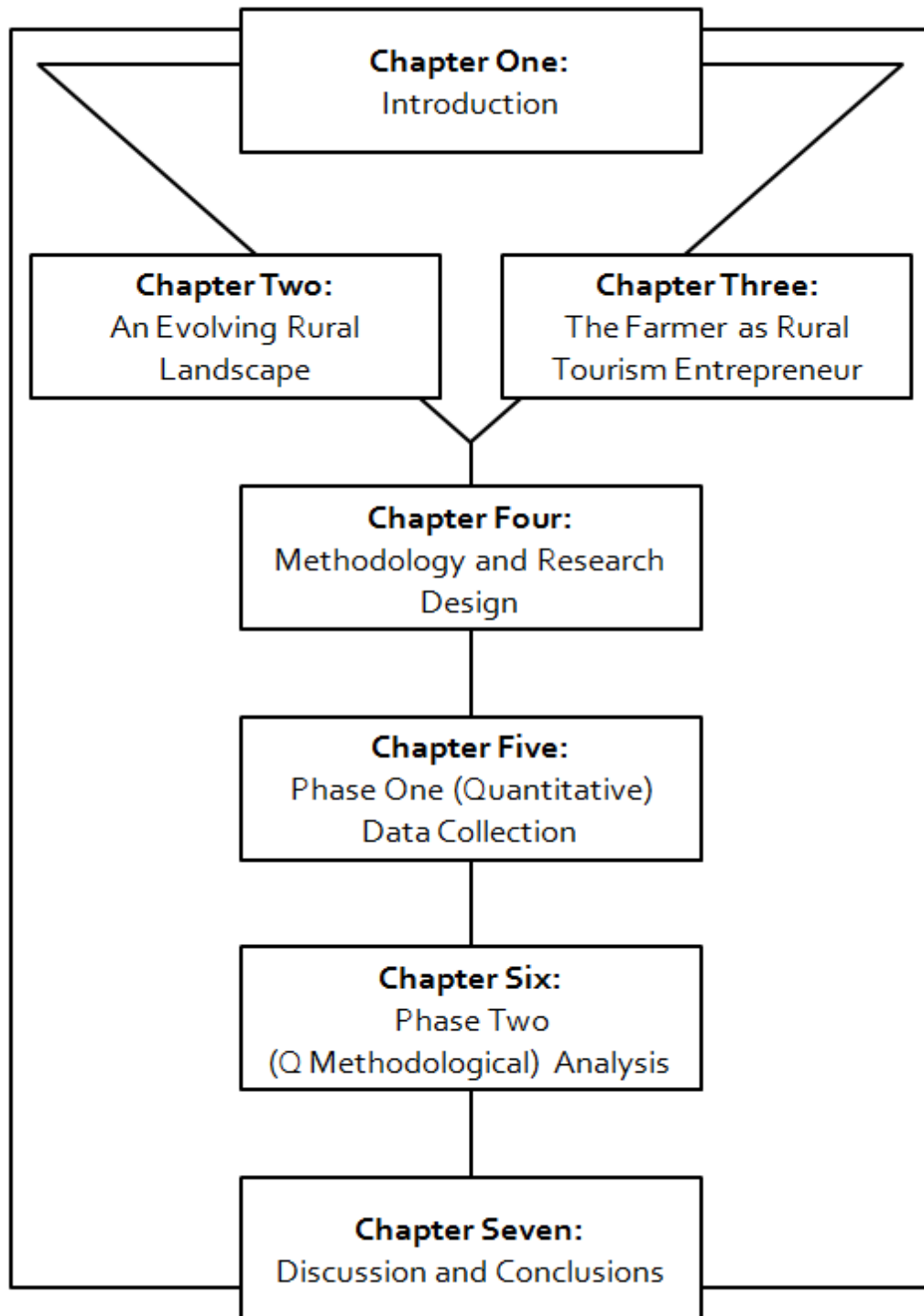


Figure 1-4: Overall Thesis Structure

AN EVOLVING RURAL LANDSCAPE

2.0 CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

As has been outlined in Chapter One, the changes that occurred in rural areas in the latter half of the twentieth century have had profound effects on how our countryside now functions. In particular, this period has been marked by a decline in agriculture which includes a fall in rural land-based employment, facilitated by increased mechanisation and specialisation in agricultural output. For instance, between 1960 and 2006, the agricultural workforce in the UK fell by a third, whilst the number of farm workers dropped by almost half (Defra, 2006). What is more, the overriding trend in UK farming has been that 'total income from farming' has declined steadily over the same timeframe, from £8.9m in 1973 to £4.4m in 2010 (Defra, 2010). Moreover, as has been previously outlined, the changing policy context facilitated by ongoing CAP reform has placed additional pressure on farm households and necessitated that farmers become more entrepreneurial in nature, and to develop new skills and capabilities to remain competitive (McElwee, 2006).

Kerry and Ilbery (1995, p.178) prefer to conceptualise this rural change as 'rural diversification', which they propose consists of two major components: (1) farm diversification, and (2) rural industrialisation. Farm diversification, referred to in Chapter One, is seen as a way of providing a 'new agricultural focus for communities', whilst the industrialisation of the countryside, characterised by an 'indigenous growth of rural industry' and, in particular, the rise in manufacturing and service industries, is seen as a reaction to the wider rural socio-economic problems identified, beyond traditional primary activities. Certainly, rural entrepreneurship is seen as an effective strategy in combating the issues related to rural decline (Lordkipanidze, Brezet and Backman, 2005) with farm diversification often contrasted to 'portfolio entrepreneurship' and farmers generally being seen as an important group with respect to establishing new business ventures in rural areas (Carter, 1996; Carter and Rosa, 1998; Carter, 1999, 2001, 2003; Vesala and Peura, 2003; Alsos and Carter, 2006; Ronning, 2006).

The purpose of this chapter is, therefore, to examine this process of 'rural diversification', exploring in particular farm diversification and the structural change

through new activities of rural industrialisation. More specifically, it will review the role of tourism in the context of both farm diversification and as one of the emergent service industries which characterises the process of rural industrialisation.

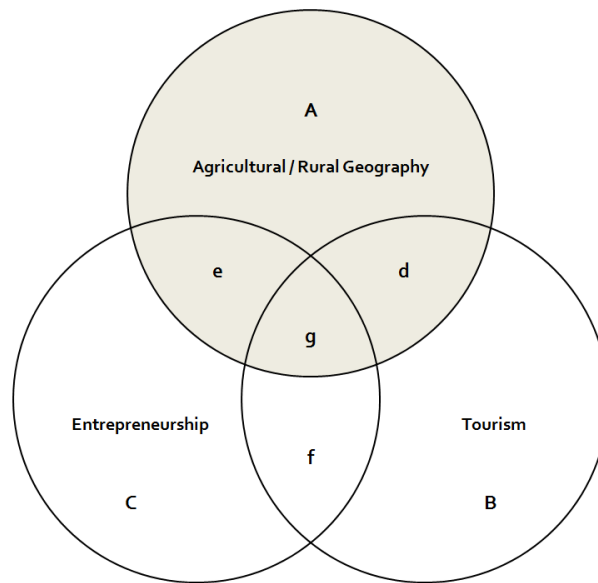


Figure 2-1: Chapter Two Thematic Overview

First, however, it is necessary to review in more detail the structural changes in agriculture that have marked the post-war period in the developed economies of the rural north. More specifically, this period has been characterised by two major phases of agricultural change; notably, the *productivist* phase from the early 1950's to the mid-1980s and the *post-productivist* phase – or *post-productive transition* (PPT) - beginning in the 1980s and lasting through to the present day. The following sections will provide an outline of these agricultural phases in order to provide the historical context for the discussions of rural diversification that follows.

2.1 PRODUCTIVISM AND THE CAPITALIZATION OF AGRICULTURE

As considered above, in the post-war period, the rural north has been subject to remarkable agriculture transformation. Indeed, change has been so dramatic that it has been described as the 'new agricultural revolution' (Robinson, 1990; Howkins, 2003). The dominant agricultural regime from 1945 through to the mid 1980s has been termed 'productivism', a term which relates to policy discourses aimed at maximising agricultural production (Ilbery, 1998; Ilbery and Bowler, 1998; Woods, 2010). Buttel (1980, p.45) observes that, whilst the overwhelming trend during this period was towards increases in production (both output per worker and per unit), the

period can be characterised more specifically by five 'interrelated and mutually reinforcing' structural changes:

- I. A trend towards large scale, specialised farm production units;
- II. Increased mechanisation;
- III. Increased purchase of biochemical inputs;
- IV. A trend towards regional specialisation of production;
- V. An increased level of food processing and inter-regional marketing.

Acknowledging these factors, Bowler (1985) suggests that the characteristics of productivist agriculture were threefold: firstly, *intensification* and the pursuit of ever greater productivity levels through investments in both machinery and infrastructure and through the use of agri-chemicals and biotechnologies; secondly, *concentration*, involving larger farmer units, aimed at maximising production, often coupled with 'concentration in the commodity chain' as farms moved towards contracts with a single purchaser or government-sponsored marketing board; and, thirdly, *specialisation* in agriculture, often linked to economies of scale, with production limited to only a few products by the farm business and with diversity being discouraged. Elsewhere, these processes have been described as the 'capitalization of agriculture' (Bowler, 1985), with the constant striving for greater cost effectiveness and the use of specialist machinery – often tailored to a single crop – further driving the process of intensification and concentration noted above.

In the context of its original and singular goal of increasing and maximising agricultural production, the productivist era may be considered a success. In the UK, for example, the area under wheat production increased from 746,000 ha in 1939 to 1,955,000 ha by 1990, with yields rising from around 2 tonnes per ha to over 7 tonnes, during the same period (Martin, 2000). Moreover, the 'capitalization of agriculture' meant that between 1960 and 1970, agricultural manpower in the UK fell by 25 percent, whilst output increased by 40 percent. For example, the Reading University farm estates typified this trend, with one person employed per 31 hectares of arable crops in 1950 and one per 210 hectares by 1993 (Wibberley, 2008). Thus, under a productivist model, the land was producing more food and fibre but, in doing so, was reshaping rural economies, societies and environments to achieve this end.

As Burton (2004) reveals in his research amongst farmers in southern England, productivist discourses in government policy had readily replicated themselves in wider rural lay discourses and particularly within farming communities. He notes that the perception of what it means to be a 'good farmer' is still dominated by the productivist rationale and has come to be defined as 'someone who tries to get three heads of corn where there used to be two...' Or, in the words of one farmer: 'you should always be looking to produce more per acre than already produced. It's the aim of everyone... at least it should be if you're a proper farmer' (Quoted by, Burton, 2004, p.202).

Of course, such sentiments came at a cost. Hedgerows were removed to make farm units larger and more productive, and wildlife suffered as chemical pesticides and fertilisers were increasingly used to maximise yields. As a result, farming was increasingly seen as betraying the rural heritage that it had been entrusted with and, as an industry, was being increasingly challenged by a growing environmentalist lobby, directly opposed to the practices productivist agriculture had engendered (Burchardt and Conford, 2008).

Moreover, intensive farming techniques employed under the capitalized approach were blamed for the spread of new animal diseases. Most notably, the practice of producing cheap feed from the by-products of slaughtered animals was linked to BSE, or mad cow disease, an issue that became highly politicised when a relationship was identified between BSE and Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (CJD) in humans (Macnaghten and Urry, 1998; Burchardt, 2002). A similar situation arose in 2001 with the outbreak of foot and mouth disease (FMD) in the UK. The FMD crisis had a significant impact on the UK rural economy both from lost meat exports but also from the restricted access to rural areas – and resulting economic losses to rural businesses – that was a necessary part of the quarantines used to control the outbreak (See: Sharpley and Craven, 2001; Miller and Ritchie, 2003; Irvine and Anderson, 2004).

With FMD, transmission to humans was not a factor, but it again highlighted animal welfare issues and, as with the earlier BSE outbreak, was believed to have been

transmitted through infected feed. Indeed, the productivist era saw an increased awareness of animal welfare standards in farming more generally, including a number of high profile campaigns in the late 1980s and early 1990s centred on the movement and export of live animals, with animal rights activists demonstrating at UK Channel ports and other similar well publicised reactions to high profile media campaigns over battery poultry systems (Burchardt, 2002; Howkins, 2003).

Meerburg, *et al.* (2009, p.511) offer a useful narrative of these perspectives in their review of the changing agricultural environment in the Netherlands:

Due to economies of scale and in order to remain economically profitable, it became necessary for farmers to increase farm size, efficiency and external inputs, while minimizing labour use per hectare. The latter has resulted in fewer people working in the agricultural sector. Consequently, Dutch society gradually lost its connection to agricultural production. This divergence resulted in a poor image for the agricultural sector, because of environmental pollution, homogenization of the landscape, outbreaks of contagious animal diseases and reduced animal welfare’.

Herein lies what Woods (2010) has termed the ‘productivist paradox.’ Whilst, on the one hand, the productivist era had reiterated that the primary function of rural areas was to produce food, fibre and other natural resources, it had, on the other hand, weakened the influence of agriculture within – and on – rural communities, having prioritised production over all other concerns. In doing so, argues Woods, productivism created the conditions in which alternative discourses and competing uses of the countryside could challenge the dominance of agriculture – and, in effect, promote a more ‘multifunctional’ rural space, as will now be explored.

2.2 THE FARM CRISIS AND THE POST-PRODUCTIVIST TRANSITION

Whilst the structural changes noted above were undoubtedly significant, the productivist regime has had additional and more far reaching consequences on economies and societies more generally. A victim of their own success, ever increasing yields meant that many agricultural producing nations began to search for new export markets leading to inevitable trade wars. These, in turn, led to a subsequent fall in

global commodity prices in the late 1980s hastening a farming crisis in many developed economies (Marsden, *et al.*, 1993; Essex, 2005). In many instances, this was further compounded by high levels of farm debt, as farmers had enjoyed low interest rates in the 1960s and 1970s which had facilitated the capitalisation previously discussed. Indeed, in the US farm belt of Iowa, Minnesota and Wisconsin, it is estimated that between 200,000 and 300,000 commercial farms had defaulted on their loans by the height of the farm crisis (Dudley, 2000).

In Europe, subsidy and agricultural quotas meant that the crisis was not nearly as severe. However, the situation was nonetheless bleak, with a combination of factors identified as eroding farm incomes, including exchange rate movements, falling world prices and ongoing reforms of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). The survival strategy of farmers in the UK was particularly tested, with a 62 percent reduction in total income from farming between 1995 and 2001. This situation did not recover until 2002, when a subsequent rise in farm income only occurred as a consequence of compensatory payments following the FMD epidemic (Lobley and Potter, 2004).

Indeed, as UK farm incomes continued to fall, the National Farmers Union reported that, by the late 1990s, 64 percent of British farmers had borrowed money to keep their farm operational (NFU, 1999), with agricultural borrowing reaching an all time high of £10 billion early the next decade (NFU, 2002). Moreover, the UK farming situation is not uncommon. For example, various reports reveal that between thirty and forty percent of farmers in Belgium, the Netherlands and Italy earn household incomes that fall below the legal social minimum for these nations (Meert, *et al.*, 2005; van der Ploeg, 2006).

Inevitably, and as a result of the factors outlined above, a progressive reversal of the trends of productivist agriculture took place. Termed the post-productivist transition (PPT), the process is generally agreed to have begun in the 1980s in the rural north and lasted through to the present day. In many ways, PPT has been described as the mirror-image of productivism and held to describe everything that its predecessor was not, with the emphasis moving away from production towards a more sustainable and

less aggressively farmed countryside (Wilson, 2009). This is conceptualised by Ilbery and Bowler (1998, p.70) as three 'bipolar dimensions of change': from intensification to extensification; from concentration to dispersion; and, from specialisation to diversification.

Additionally, and following the reduced emphasis on the countryside as a site of food production, it is increasingly recognised that under PPT, 'an increased emphasis [is placed] on the countryside as a place of consumption with high environmental sustainability' (Wilson and Rigg, 2003; Woods, 2005; Burton and Wilson, 2006). Thus, in its broadest sense, PPT is characterised by: a reduced intensity of farming through the encouragement of farm diversification schemes; generating second (non-agricultural) income for farm households, often through tourism and recreation; regional initiatives aimed at producing high quality and locally branded foods; support for conversion to organic farming; and an increased significance on countryside stewardship schemes, including payments for environmental improvements, including leaving fields fallow, as well as woodland and hedgerow renewal (Wilson and Rigg, 2003; Woods, 2005, 2010).

Whilst acknowledging that these many facets exist under PPT, there has been some criticism (echoing critiques of other 'ism' and 'post-ism' debates, such as transitions to post-fordism, post-modernism or post-socialism) that a productivist / post-productivist model is not robust enough to explain agricultural change (Wilson, 2009). For instance, whilst PPT is seen as useful in explaining changing policy, it has been argued that the concept was adopted too readily and with little critical attention, resulting in a concept that is poorly defined, is based on limited empirical evidence and offers no coherent framework (Wilson, 2001; Robinson, 2004; Wilson, 2009; Woods, 2010). As Evans, Morris and Winter (2002, p.325-326) have argued:

the idea of transition has become a key element for many proponents of post-productivism... however, this cannot disguise the fact that the deeper processes underpinning such a proposed transition will inevitably remain difficult to identify and substantiate in the absence of a theoretical framework. More progress in agricultural (and rural) geography could be achieved by abandoning post-productivism...

Hence, alternative ways of conceptualising the economies of the rural north have been sought, with increasing attention being paid to the multifunctional nature of the contemporary countryside, as explored in the following sections.

2.3 TOWARDS A MULTIFUNCTIONAL RURAL SPACE?

As has been outlined above, criticisms of post-productivism and the implication that this involves a linear progression from productivism have given rise to the idea of the 'multifunctional agricultural regime' (Wilson, 2001, 2007, 2009; Woods, 2010). Initially, it was argued that this new conceptualisation allowed for the 'multifunctional coexistence of productivist and post-productivist action and thought' (Wilson, 2001, p.95). However, as the concept has evolved, multifunctionality has been adopted to explain the multiple outcomes of agriculture beyond food and fibre, to include: the protection and maintenance of landscapes (Meerburg, *et al.*, 2009; Pfeifer, *et al.*, 2009), environmental values (Davies and Hodge, 2007; Evans, 2009) and, increasingly, the consumption of rural areas through tourism and leisure (Crouch, 2006; Garrod, Wornell and Youell, 2006). Green, DePhelps and Williams (2008, p.82) list these more explicitly as ecological, cultural, recreation and traditional production functions, before arguing that these may exist as either marketable (i.e. food, raw materials, ornamental plants), or non-marketable goods (i.e. wildlife and landscape). Moreover, they suggest that satisfying the maximum range of these functions is the desired end, advocating that, 'agricultural land is optimally allocated if it fulfills the mixture of functions demanded by society.' However, one may of course dispute the idea that either wildlife or landscape are non-marketable, especially as drivers for rural tourism (See for instance, Crabtree, *et al.*, 1994; Reynolds and Braithwaite, 2001; Brown and Raymond, 2007).

Thus, Marsden and Sonnino (2008, p.42) suggest that 'the concept of multifunctionality of agriculture embraces all goods, products and services created by farming activities' before proposing that 'an activity must add income to agriculture' to be considered multifunctional. Such a perspective necessitates a revaluation of a

wide range of farm production outputs and prompts the question as to whether many of these marketable and non-marketable goods can be valued. Indeed, Huylenbroek (2006) identifies the lack of empirical research in this area and, as a result, questions whether enough evidence yet exists to confirm that the multifunctionality of agriculture contributes to wider social values.

Whilst not directly addressing multifunctionality, Fleischer and Tchetchik (2002, 2005), have used 'hedonic price analysis' of rural tourism accommodation in Israel and identified a clear link between the presence of agricultural amenities and the price that can be charged for rural accommodation. Similarly, Vanslembrouck, Huylenbroeck and Meensel (2005, p.18) suggest that farmers' efforts to maintain the rural landscape were positively valued by 'citizens in general and rural tourists in particular' in their study of rural tourism accommodation in Belgium (See also, van Huylenbroeck, *et al.*, 2006), the implication being that agricultural landscape and character provide additional value. Of course, any reference to public values and expectations from agriculture remains entirely subjective and, whilst a positive value has been identified in the two rural tourist accommodation examples above, it remains to be seen how much rural stakeholders – and the public at large – would be willing to pay for the maintenance of farmed landscapes as a public good (for a useful overview of this issue see, Hall, McVittie and Moran, 2004).

With respect to farm production outputs, Ploeg and Roep (2003) depict the farm as a three dimensional enterprise under the multifunctional concept (See Figure 2-2 below). They propose that the farm fulfils its new societal functions through: (1) a *deepening* of the agro-food supply chain into organic farming, high quality production and regional products; (2) *broadening* of the farms relations with the rural area through farm tourism, diversification, landscape management and new on-farm activities; and (3) *regrounding* of the farms resources, through new forms of cost reduction and the generation of off-farm income.

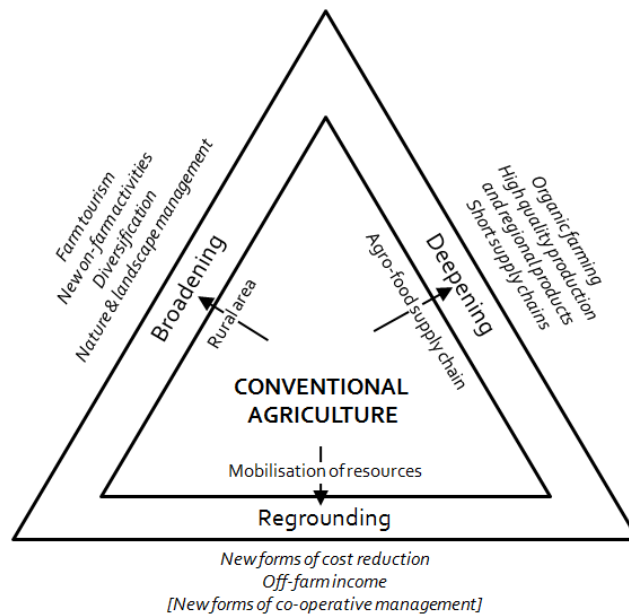


Figure 2-2: The structure of rural development at the farm enterprise level
(Source: van der Ploeg and Roep, 2003, p.45)

In a later interpretation of this model, Ploeg and Renting (van der Ploeg and Renting, 2004, p.235) highlight that the boundary shifts involved in the deepening, broadening and regrounding processes create the second enlarged 'outer triangle' in Figure 2.2, which refers to 'the augmented capacity to create wealth.' The case is also made that, within the EU, more than half of professional farmers (51 percent) are engaged in deepening and broadening activities in some way, as illustrated in Figure 2-3 below (Oostindie, van der Ploeg and Renting, 2002, p.218). These deepening and broadening activities add 3,114 million Euros and 2,458 million Euros respectively to the economies of the six EU member countries surveyed (van der Ploeg, Banks and Long, 2002).

For van der Ploeg and other rural scholars (van der Ploeg, *et al.*, 2000; van der Ploeg, Banks and Long, 2002; van der Ploeg and Roep, 2003; van der Ploeg, *et al.*, 2008; van der Ploeg, 2009, 2010), the recent trends highlighted above – centred on new agri-food networks, the emergence of new economic activities and new amenity values in landscapes – represent a 'paradigm shift' in the European countryside. In particular, they argue this 'new rural development' paradigm is evidenced in the emergence of organic and distinctive regional food production, along with landscape valorisation

activities such as farm tourism and other non-agricultural uses of rural areas. In particular, pluriactivity under the new paradigm is 'no longer seen as heralding the demise of the farm' but is instead becoming 'one of the new pillars supporting European farming' (van der Ploeg, *et al.*, 2000, p.398).

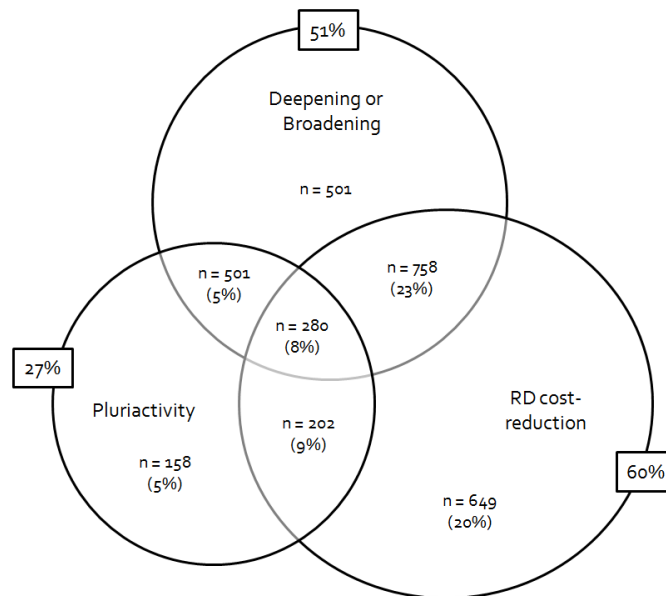


Figure 2-3: Farmers' experiences of rural development (EU6, n = 3264) (Source: Oostindie, van der Ploeg and Renting, 2002, p.218)

However, others reject the idea of a paradigm shift in rural development. Goodman (2004), in particular, claims that there are more continuities than departures with the past to be found within the present-day multifunctional countryside, whilst others question the empirical evidence for a paradigm shift. For instance, Evans *et al.* (2002) offer examples of 'quality food' under productivist models, whilst Wilson (2001, 2007) identifies the often contradictorily held opinions amongst farmers, noting that many continue to adopt productivist action and thought. This behaviour is particularly apparent in a number of studies of farm management, where farmers engage in agri-environment schemes through economic pragmatism rather than through changing values (Morris and Potter, 1999; Selfa, Fish and Winter, 2010). A further criticism of the 'paradigm shift' is that it is not truly representative of all EU countries, particularly Spain, Portugal and Greece (Hoggart and Paniagua, 2001b, 2001a; Wilson, 2001).

Research conducted amongst livestock farmers in Devon identified that the farm level changes taking place were 'coping strategies embedded within a productivist

framework' as opposed to evidence of a 'new paradigm of rural development' (Selfa, Fish and Winter, 2010). Here, the authors identified that broadening activity had not occurred on any of the farms in the sample, whereas deepening activities were present on only 5 percent of farms (see Figure 2-4). Moreover, where these activities had been undertaken they were pragmatic and primarily financial (i.e. to secure EU subsidy) as opposed to a change in farming values as a result of a paradigm shift. Of course, one must acknowledge that, as a case study of Devonshire livestock farmers, this study represented a relatively small sample and was restricted to only one farming type, as distinct from the activities reported by Oostindie, van der Ploeg and Renting (2002) in Figure 2-3 above.

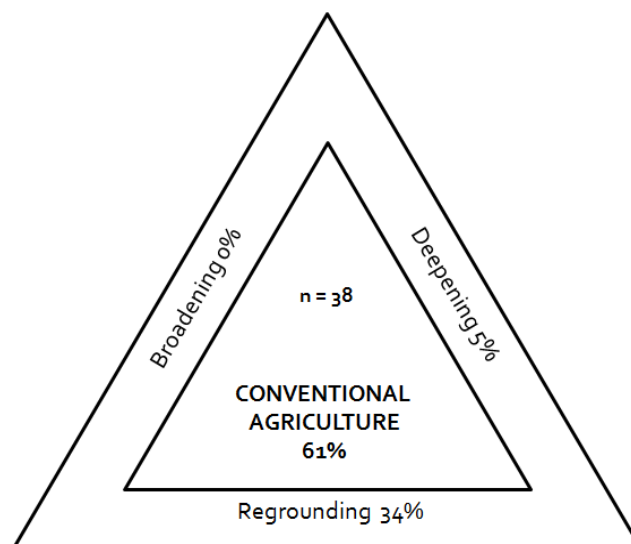


Figure 2-4: Devon livestock farmers and the new 'rural development framework'
(Adapted from, Selfa, Fish and Winter, 2010, p.604)

Moreover, it must be accepted that the concept of multifunctionality remains somewhat agricentric and, whilst acknowledging the 'new activities' within rural areas, restricts this discussion to the 'agrarian' as opposed to a wider 'countryside agenda' (Goodman, 2004; Marsden and Sonnino, 2008). To this end, Brouwer and Heide (2009) remind us of the merits of what they term the 'multifunctionality of rural space.' Woods (2010 p.81) concurs, observing that 'multifunctionality necessarily implies a rethinking of the meaning and purpose of rural space.' Holmes (2006)

addresses this issue in his commentary on the 'multifunctional rural transition' (MRT) taking place in Australia. He emphasises the new mix of production, consumption and protection goals, but chooses to frame these in the context of 'rural space' as opposed to solely agrarian or farm level objectives.

However, it must be acknowledged that, irrespective of whether it represents a true paradigm shift, the processes of *broadening*, *deepening* and *regrounding* are omnipresent in the European countryside as a whole (Jongeneel, Polman and Slangen, 2008; Andersson, Eklund and Lehtola, 2009). Moreover, in reviewing the opening premise of this thesis, that agriculture is no longer the sole and dominant force within rural areas, it can readily be seen that the term 'multifunctionality' neatly captures the range of traditional and emerging functions that now exist in rural areas. Indeed, under the multifunctional approach, this chapter has demonstrated a consensus that 'the rural is no longer the monopoly of farmers' (van der Ploeg, *et al.*, 2000, p.393) and that, whilst agriculture can still take centre stage in the supply of food and other primary goods, this must be balanced against other emerging 'ecological' and 'quality of life' functions (Wilson, 2007a). Furthermore, and more generally, tourism, gastronomy, nature protection, and second home ownership are now said to form the basis of the 'new rural economy' (Nilsson, 2002; Garrod, Wornell and Youell, 2006; OECD, 2006; Andersson, Eklund and Lehtola, 2009).

2.4 FARM ADJUSTMENT STRATEGIES: PLURIACTIVITY AND DIVERSIFICATION

The above discussion has highlighted that, whilst farming has traditionally been at the centre of rural economies, structural changes, the farm crisis and broad societal changes affecting rural areas generally, have meant that farm holdings may no longer be profitable through agricultural commodity production alone. As one French farmer, recorded in a Time Magazine article on this subject, neatly summarises:

When you understand the take-it-or-leave-it prices now being offered mean you'll pay more to produce crops than you'll get back in proceeds, you're left with the choice of either becoming a slave to this impossible system or find a niche to begin other activities in (Crumley, 2010, p.12).



Figure 2-5: Can farmers make money from town dwellers' love of the land?
(France's Rural Revolution: Time Magazine (Europe Edition) 2nd August 2010)

2.4.1 Development Pathways For The Farm Business

As a result, farmers have been forced to adjust and to innovate in a variety of ways: by changing specialisation and diversifying to alternative or novel crops (Damianos and Skuras, 1996; Bradshaw, 2004); by taking off-farm employment (McNamara and Weiss, 2005; Ronning, 2006); or electing to diversify the farms income stream through non-traditional activities (Shaw and Hale, 1996; McNally, 2001; Walford, 2001; Evans, 2009). Indeed, Halfacree (1997) suggests that, within British farming, significant levels of debt and depression among farmers as a result of the farm crisis was in itself a driver towards a growing involvement in non-food production activities and, in particular, farm diversification.

Using data derived from a study of 34 farm households in the Northern Pennines of England, Bowler, et al. (1996, p.289) developed a classification scheme which identifies seven potential development pathways open to the farm business in the face of the multiple stimuli facing agriculture, namely:

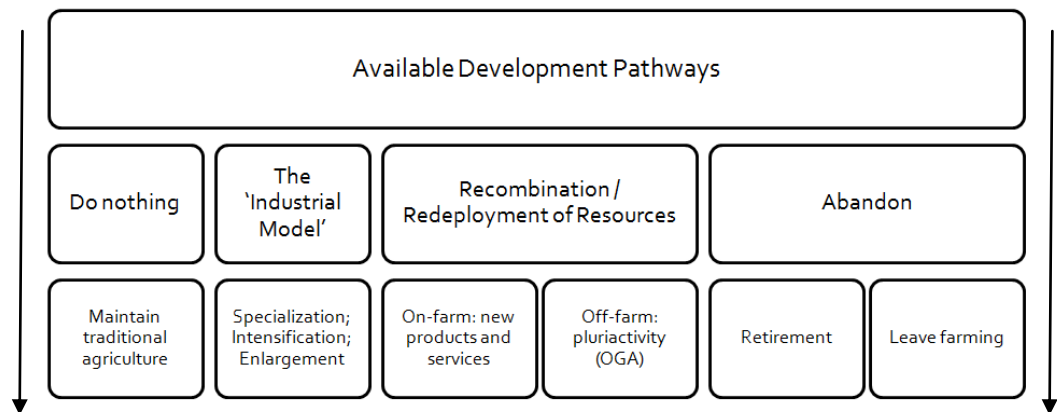
- I. The 'industrial model' of productivist agricultural development based on enlargement, intensification and specialisation using traditional farm products and services;
- II. Recombining farm resources into new non-conventional agricultural products and services on the farm;
- III. Recombining farm resources into new non-agricultural products and services on the farm;
- IV. Redeployment of farm resources (including human capital) in to off-farm employment;
- V. Maintain the 'traditional' model of conventional farm production or services.
- VI. Winding down to hobby or semi-retired farming;
- VII. Retirement from farming.

These potential pathways have been echoed by successive authors (See: Damianos and Skuras, 1996; McElwee, 2006) and, together, may be represented by the model displayed in Figure 2-6 below. Here, one must assume that the option of maintaining traditional farming maintains the 'status quo', as does (to a certain extent) the industrial model which maintains the ethos of productivism. Assuming, of course, that change is actively sought or, in the context of earlier discussion, of economic necessity, then abandoning farming can be assumed to be the least preferred option for the farm household (McElwee, 2006). Thus, the 'middle way', becomes the recombination or redeployment of farm resources into either new non-conventional agricultural or new non-agricultural products, referred to collectively by Bowler *et al.* (1996) as 'alternate farm enterprises' (AFE), and conceptualised elsewhere in the literature simply as 'farm diversification' (Ilbery, 1991; Kelly and Ilbery, 1995; McNally, 2001; McNamara and Weiss, 2005).

However, where this involves the use of resources in an 'off-farm capacity', this is frequently referred to as 'pluriactivity' or more often in policy discourse as 'other gainful activities' (OGA) (EU, 2008). Inevitably, confusion will arise within both the academic and policy literatures from making use of the varying descriptors of AFE, OGA, pluriactivity and diversification – often interchangeably – to describe a variety of both on- and off-farm situations. It is, therefore, necessary to further explore the concept of diversification, particularly in the context of recombining or redeploying

farm resources.

Figure 2-6: Available development pathways for the farm business



(Adapted from, Bowler, *et al.*, 1996; Damianos and Skuras, 1996; McElwee, 2006)

2.4.2 Conceptualising Farm Diversification

Having acknowledged the multiple terms associated with the redeployment of farm resources, Turner *et al.* (2003) offer a useful graphical representation of these terms (see Figure 2-7 below).

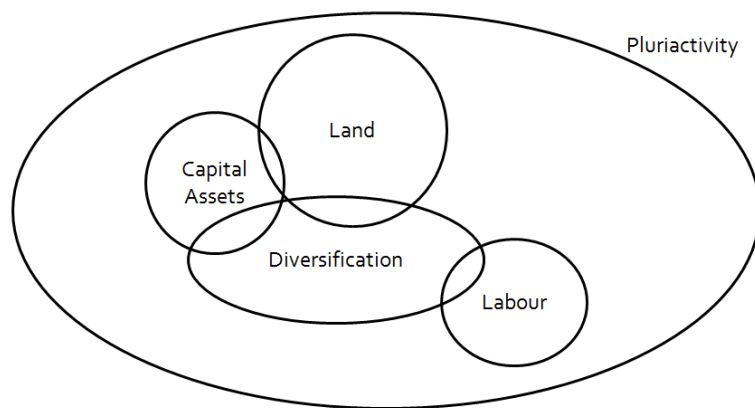


Figure 2-7: Imagining the elements of diversification
(Source: Turner, *et al.*, 2003, p.13)

This clearly shows pluriactivity as being outside the boundaries of the farm (i.e. off-farm work), whilst within the boundary (or on-farm) a recombination or reorganisation of the farms land, labour or capital assets, would be termed

diversification. Despite this, Ilbery (1991, p.208) notes that farm diversification 'has rarely been adequately defined or conceptualised... which creates problems when attempting to compare the results of different case studies and assess the importance of farm diversification as a farm adjustment strategy.' For instance, and as has been outlined above, whilst most studies recognise the differences between pluriactivity and diversification, others see them as one and the same or, at least, 'acknowledge there are fuzzy edges' (Turner, *et al.*, 2003, p.12).

For McInerney, Turner and Hollingham (1989, p.6), diversification is the, 'one off diversion to other-income earning uses of any of the resources previously committed to conventional farming activities.' However, the use of the term 'conventional' is problematic, when one accepts that what may be considered a novel product today may well be considered standard agricultural practice in the future. For example, in a number of early diversification studies (McInerney, Turner and Hollingham, 1989; Ilbery, 1991), organic farming was offered as a diversified activity, whereas today it would be considered an accepted and relevant agricultural practice (Turner, *et al.*, 2003).

For Ilbery (1991), farm diversification is the development of non-traditional (alternative) enterprises on the farm, although it must be recognised that the concepts of 'non-traditional' and 'alternative' are as subjective as the term conventional and thus subject to changing values over time. Ilbery offers a typology of farm diversification, which divides activities into both structural and agricultural diversification, before a further breakdown in to three groupings which represent a number of activities (see Table 2-1 below). Here, organic farming is again included, along with a number of what Ilbery terms alternative 'agricultural products', as well as tourism and recreation activities, retail and on-farm processing of foodstuffs, as examples of potential diversification activities.

Table 2-1: A typology of farm diversification options
(Source: Ilbery, 1991, p.210)

Structural Diversification	Agricultural Diversification
1. Tourism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Accommodation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Bed and breakfast</i> <i>Self-catering</i> ii. Recreation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Farmhouse teas/café</i> <i>Demonstrations / open days</i> <i>Farm zoo / children's farm</i> <i>Water / land based sports</i> <i>War games</i> <i>Horticulture</i> <i>Craft centers</i> <i>Nature trails / reserves</i> <i>Country / wildlife parks</i> iii. Combined Activity holidays 2. Adding value to farm enterprises <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. By direct marketing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Farm gate sales</i> <i>Farm shop</i> <i>Delivery round</i> <i>PYO scheme</i> ii. By processing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Cheese</i> <i>Ice cream / yoghurt</i> <i>Cider / wine</i> <i>Jams / preserves</i> <i>Potato packing</i> <i>Flour milling</i> iii. By selling skins / hides / wools 3. Passive diversification <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Leasing of land</i> <i>Leasing of buildings</i> 	1. Unconventional enterprises <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Crop products <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Linseed</i> <i>Teasels</i> <i>Evening primrose</i> <i>Borage</i> <i>Triticale</i> <i>Fennel</i> <i>Durum Wheat</i> <i>Vineyards</i> ii. Animal products <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Fish</i> <i>Deer</i> <i>Goats</i> <i>Horses</i> <i>Lamoids</i> <i>Sheep milk</i> iii. Organic farming 2. Farm woodland <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Energy forestry</i> <i>Amenity/recreation</i> <i>Wildlife conservation</i> <i>For timber</i> 3. Agricultural Contracting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>For other farmers</i> <i>For non-agricultural organisations</i>

For McNally (2001, p.247), diversification is concerned solely with 'the development of non-food production enterprise on the holding', though it remains unclear whether this would include the on-site processing and value adding activities offered by Ilbery's (1991) typology. Similarly, Ilbery's passive diversification options of leasing land and buildings as well as off-farm contracting offers additional contradictions against many conceptualisations of diversification. For many, these activities represent

'pluriactivity' or OGA for the farm household; given that although they include aspects of labour and capital as resources, they are outside of the farm unit and in the case of contracting, likely to be off-farm entirely. Indeed, the issue as to whether an act of diversification is agricultural or non-agriculture in nature, and centred on or off-farm, remains widely debated in the literature (See: Shaw and Hale, 1996; Bowler, 1999; Bradshaw, 2004; Hannson, Ferguson and Olofsson, 2010).

		FACTORS OF PRODUCTION		
		LAND	LABOUR	CAPITAL
L O C A T I O N	ON-FARM	Within agriculture, including speciality crops, organic and biomass production	Agriculture-related, e.g. direct sales and contracting (fencing, crop harvesting, etc.)	Agriculture-related, e.g. processing of farm products including cheeses, wine, olive oil
		Other, e.g. Forestry, wind turbine, recreation and aquaculture	Other, e.g. handicraft, farm tourism, contracting (snow clearance, etc.)	Other, e.g. biomass energy generation, wood processing
	OFF-FARM	Agriculture, e.g. land rented to other farmers for agricultural production	Agriculture-related, e.g. employment on another farm	Agriculture, e.g. purchase of additional farmland
		Other, e.g. land rented to others for forestry, wind turbine	Other, e.g. school teacher, nurse, government official	Other, e.g. investment income, pensions

Figure 2-8 OECD framework for classifying farm household diversification
(Source: Jones, Moreddu and Kumagai, 2009, p.73)

In this respect, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (Jones, Moreddu and Kumagai, 2009) offer a useful conceptual framework of farm household diversification; that whilst acknowledging land, labour and capital as the factors of production, also distinguishes between on- and off-farm activities and allows for an agricultural and non-agricultural distinction (see Figure 2-8 above).

Within the OECD framework, food processing and tourism activities would be seen as examples of 'on-farm capital' and 'on-farm labour' diversification respectively; whilst agricultural contracting and even non-farm employment within a profession are seen

as 'off-farm labour diversification.' However, whilst the OECD approach offers a useful additional layer of analysis, it also remains somewhat subjective. For instance, diversification to tourist accommodation is likely to include aspects of on-farm land, capital, and labour, which is not clear from the model above. Though admittedly, the framework does allow us to consider diversification scenarios in the context of the resources available to the farm household; a crucial distinction, given that it is within these surpluses that diversification options are most likely to present themselves.

Though of course, the off-farm dimension continues to present difficulties especially in the context of international comparisons. In New Zealand and Australia, for example, forestry is measured as a form of 'on-farm land diversification', whereas in the European Union forestry is not considered an OGA and would therefore not be recorded. Moreover, the EU does not account for the 'letting of farm buildings for non-agricultural' use within its own reporting; whereas for English farmers, this is seen to be the most significant diversification activity and as such is actively measured by the UK government.

Indeed, within England, Defra (2011, p.14) defines diversification as the, 'entrepreneurial use of farm resources.' With the resources in this context strictly defined as only that land or capital, previously used for agricultural purposes. Hence, where the farmer or spouse undertakes external employment, the Defra classification views this as pluriactivity or OGA, thus offering a much narrower perspective than many academic and policy definitions. For labour to be seen as an element of farm diversification, Defra identifies that it must be utilised along with that land and capital previously used for agriculture, for instance a farm shop selling the farms own produce or redundant farm buildings converted to holiday lets. Emphasis under the Defra definition and classification is placed on the, 'reduced dependence of farmers on agriculture as a source of income... [and] implies some kind of entrepreneurial activity', as expressed by the examples offered at Table 2-2 below.

McElwee and Bosworth, (2010) remind us that, rather than seeking to define diversification in relation to observed practices, we should instead recall the rationales

for farm diversification and emphasise the outcomes for the farmer. As Woods (2005, p.55) acknowledges, 'farm diversification seeks to reduce the dependency of farm households on agricultural production so that farms remain viable as an economic and social unit even as production is decreased' With this in mind, it is now necessary to briefly examine the farm diversification literature in the context of the above discussion regarding the social and economic changes in agriculture and rural areas.

Table 2-2 Diversification as the entrepreneurial use of farm resources
(Source: Defra, 2011)

<hr/>	
	Non-agricultural contracting: Included as it is likely to involve some entrepreneurial activity by the farmer.
✓	Letting of buildings: Included in diversification where it is undertaken for non-agricultural commercial purposes and would not be undertaken if the resource was to continue to be used for agriculture.
<hr/>	
	Letting of land for agricultural and non-agricultural end purposes: Even if the land was subsequently used for non-agricultural activity, this is not diversification as it is assumed that the farmer does not have an entrepreneurial role in the letting of land.
✗	
	Agricultural contracting: Excluded because, although it could include some entrepreneurial activity from the farmer, the activity itself is agricultural.
<hr/>	

2.4.3 The Nature and Scope of Farm Diversification

Initially seen as a 'deviation' from real farming (van der Ploeg, 2003, p.341) and, in the case of farm tourism, even as a 'betrayal of farmership' (Jongeneel, Polman and Slangen, 2008; Brandth and Haugen, 2011), diversification is now seen as an important element in maintaining the viability of the farm business (Meert, *et al.*, 2005; Mitchell and MacLeod, 2006). Moreover, a 'failure to diversify is [now] seen as poor farming practice and the social status of the farmer is no longer judged on the basis of nurturing and custodial abilities, but rather the ability to manage successfully a complex business operation', with 86 percent of farms in the UK said to engage in some form of diversification activity (Walford, 2003, p.61).

Nevertheless, for others, the idea that farmers have embraced diversification in huge numbers is a myth that has emerged in media and policy circles and as a response to

the much publicised declining fortunes of agriculture in the 1980s and 1990s, with the income from diversification seen as insufficient to solve many farmers' problems (Evans, 2009). Lobley and Potter (2004, p.499) suggest that, in reality, the true picture is likely to be a mixture of both, though they recognise that this varies greatly according to both location and economic context. However, they also acknowledge that 'researchers and policymakers are surprisingly ignorant of the nature and extent of farm household adjustment in the period since the mid-1990s.'

Indeed, data with respect to diversification activities is difficult to obtain and even more of a challenge to compare, not least because of the definitional and conceptual issues outlined above. Moreover, there has been criticism that the majority of farm level data was collected using systems that were designed when agriculture's principal task was the production of food. This has now led to 'blind spots' in official statistics when it comes to understanding broader rural development impacts (Knickel and Renting, 2000). Recent work by the OECD has identified the breadth of farm change activities across some member nations, noting that on-farm food processing is the preferred activity in Italy and Portugal, where over 80 percent of farms declare this interest. Contract work occurs on over 55 percent of farms in Finland and Greece, whilst 35 percent and 47 percent of farms in Austria and the UK respectively are said to engage in tourism enterprise as a complement to agricultural income (Jones, Moreddu and Kumagai, 2009).

As was outlined in Chapter One, data from the 2009/10 Farm Business Survey (FBS) identifies that, in England, income from diversified activities was £360 million, with 50 percent of farms having diversified. Moreover, for 23 percent of farms surveyed, income from diversified activity exceeded income generated by traditional farming activity, reaffirming the crucial role of diversified projects to farm household viability (Defra, 2011). The FBS identifies the most popular non-agricultural activity in England as the letting of farm buildings, which generates an average of 15 percent of total income for these businesses (£30 million across England). An increasing number of farmers are also becoming involved in food processing and retailing, typically generating 20 percent of income for these businesses (£40 million across England),

whilst sport, recreation, tourism accommodation and catering produce a further £20 million (CRC, 2010). What is more, additional figures from Defra (2012b, 2012c) highlight that 33 percent of all farms that have engaged in diversification incorporate some form of tourism activity only surpassed by the number of farms whose diversification involves contracting and haulage (See Table 2-3 below).

Table 2-3: Farm diversification in England by type
(n=8,111) (Source: Defra, 2012b)

Diversified activity	% of diversifying holdings †	No. of holdings
Contracting and haulage	47	11,577
Tourism	33	8,111
Environment	7	1,716
Processing and food manufacture	9	2,259
Commercial energy production for the market	2	396
Any other diversified activity not listed above	26	6,486

† Percentages based on total number of holdings with diversified activities.

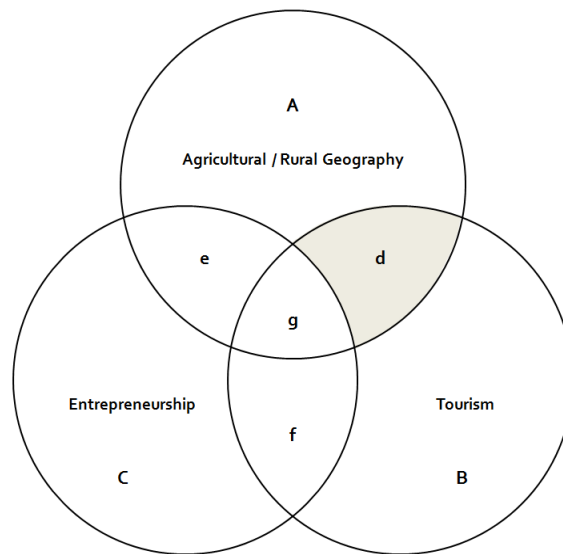
However, it must be remembered, and as Shucksmith *et al.* (1989, p.345) note, 'a preoccupation with forms of diversification or pluriactivity is likely to be less helpful analytically than a focus on underlying farm business and farm household strategies' (also, Evans and Ilbery, 1992).

2.5 FARM-BASED TOURISM AS AN 'ALTERNATE FARM ENTERPRISE'

The discussion thus far has considered the global pressure on agricultural production, along with the necessity of following various development pathways – including farm diversification – to maintain the family farming way of life. In the context of this discussion, it is acknowledged that whilst a number of potential development strategies for farmers have been identified (See, Meert, *et al.*, 2005; McElwee, 2006), the desire to remain 'on the land', as well as the perception that tourism is a viable alternative, has seen tourism enterprise become a key diversification activity (Hjalager, 1996; Hegarty and Przeborska, 2005; Knowd, 2006; Mitchell and Turner, 2010). Moreover, diversification to tourism enterprise has often been encouraged by

national and regional policy, as was the case with the EUs LEADER and Leonardo da Vinci structural funding programmes which offered financial assistance to farm diversification projects in the 1990s (Hjalager, 1996; Ollenburger, 2008). Thus, this chapter will now consider farm tourism in more detail as a precursor to discussing the role of the farmer as a potential farm tourism entrepreneur.

Figure 2-9: Thematic Overview – Farm and Rural Tourism



As has been highlighted above, 'European tourism authorities and policy advisers generally believe that tourism offers a natural development path for rural Europe' (Hegarty and Przeborska, 2005, p.64). This trend is illustrated by a round of EU rural funding, where of 3,485 applications approved under the measure 'diversification of agricultural activities', above one third (35 per cent) involved schemes to support farm tourism within various member nations; with the average public expenditure per application (irrespective of the diversification activity supported) standing at 34,844 Euros (EU, 2008, p.26). Moreover, research within the European Union, has identified that during the period 2000 to 2007, the number of farm holdings that incorporate tourism activity as a part of that holding has increased by around a quarter across the EU as a whole (See Table 2-4 below).

These figures also reveal that whilst some individual EU nations have seen a decrease (notably Ireland and some Scandinavian countries), others have seen considerable

change over this five year period included a 37 percent increase within the UK and more surprisingly, increases of 233 percent in Slovakia and 483 percent in Italian holdings (Eurostat, 2011). Indeed, Ohe and Ciani (2010) identify that demand for farm tourism in Italy increased by almost five times over a decade, accounting for just over 1.5 million inbound visits by 2006. Moreover, the authors highlight that whilst farm tourism represented only 2.4 percent as a share of beds in the national accommodation stock in 2006, (a figure which still represents 155,107 beds) this has almost tripled since 1997, no doubt to cater for the increased demand.

Table 2-4: EU agricultural holdings engaged in farm tourism activity
(Source: Eurostat, 2011)

	2000	2007	% change
Italy	3,070	17,890	483%
Slovakia	60	200	233%
Sweden	1,240	3,950	219%
Poland	4,940	10,180	106%
Latvia	300	580	93%
Hungary	1,110	1,830	65%
Denmark	330	470	42%
Luxembourg	50	70	40%
United Kingdom	22,320	30,540	37%
Portugal	440	600	36%
Greece	630	750	19%
Netherlands	2,240	2,240	0%
Austria	12,630	12,270	-3%
Belgium	430	410	-5%
Slovenia	690	650	-6%
Ireland	1,360	1,240	-9%
Norway	3,480	2,600	-25%
Finland	2,350	1,170	-50%
Total	102,440	127,570	25%

What is more, this trend in farm diversification to tourism extends beyond the borders of the European Union. For instance, in the United States, research conducted by the

Department for Agriculture (USDA) suggests that 52,000 farms nationally, receive a proportion of their income from recreation, amounting to approximately \$995 million (Brown and Reeder, 2007), with 63 million Americans, or 30 percent of the population, said to visit one or more farms annually (Carpio, Wohlgenant and Boonsaeng, 2008; Miller and Washington, 2010). A recent multinational study by the OECD (Jones, Moreddu and Kumagai, 2009) identified that farm tourism is an important on-farm diversification activity across a number of member nations.

2.5.1 Conceptualising Farm Tourism

Farm tourism is not a new phenomenon, with many researchers pointing to the long history of visitation to farms, practiced for over 150 years in Germany, though more prevalent in its conventional form in Scandinavia and many central European countries since the end of the Second World War (Nilsson, 2002). Whilst early forms of visitation tended to emphasise the farm stay and romanticism of the countryside, it has today evolved into a complex phenomenon, still recognisable as a form of rural tourism though more diverse and, hence, increasingly difficult to define. Indeed, Ainley and Smale (2010, p.61) question what distinguishes farm tourists from rural tourists generally; asking are farm tourists 'different from rural visitors at cultural and historical sites... or from those individuals simply trying to escape the hustle and bustle of the modern city in the idyllic countryside?' Research conducted by Sidali, *et al.* (2010, p.220) on demand for farm tourism in Germany identified that agritourists were seeking their own piece of the 'rural idyll' with an emphasis on health and wellness, regional food and the memorable experiences that 'urban life cannot give.' These findings very much equate with Roberts and Hall's (2001) vision of nature as a 'chocolate box' and Wilson, *et al.*, (2001) notion of the 'mystique' associated with rural destinations generally.

Certainly, the terms rural and farm tourism have been used interchangeably in many tourism studies, the suggestion often being that farm tourism can occur in any rural setting where agriculture or farming are present (Roberts and Hall, 2001; Barbieri and Mshenga, 2008). This would include settings such as farmers markets and agricultural fairs – or even tourism within farmed rural landscapes - where a farm based location

was not an essential element (Ainley and Smale, 2010). A more specific view of farm based recreation and farm tourism is as a niche activity within rural tourism in which the farm setting itself is a requirement. Indeed, according to Roberts and Hall (2001), farm tourism is one of five categories of rural tourism, alongside ecotourism, cultural, activity and adventure tourism.

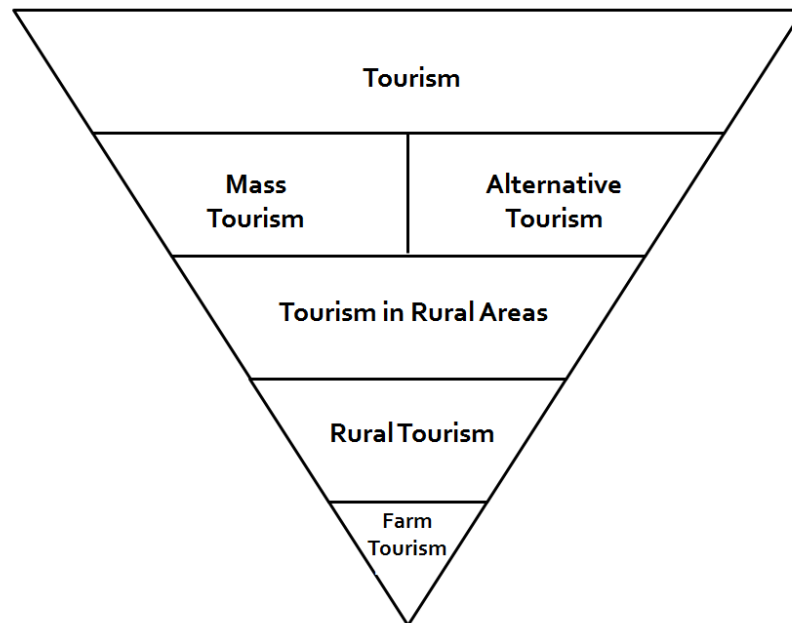


Figure 2-10: The Hierarchical Positioning of Rural and Farm tourism
(Adapted from, Sznajder, Przezborska and Scrimgeour, 2009)

A broadly similar position, is taken by Sznajder, Przezborska and Scrimgeour (2009), who present farm tourism as a subset of rural tourism (see Figure 2-10 above). Moreover, Sznajder, Przezborska and Scrimgeour (2009) identify three factors that they believe make farm tourism distinct from rural tourism more generally, including: (1) the opportunity for touristic involvement in the process of food production; (2) opportunities to learn about the lives of rural people, including their customs and culture; and (3) the possibility of direct contact with animals, farm products and the experience, smells, sounds and sights of the countryside and the farm generally.

Busby and Rendle (2000) propose a continuum which they describe as the transition from 'tourism on farms' to 'farm tourism.' They suggest that various factors, including the level of marketing, competition, entrepreneurship and investment – and even the

level of tourism versus agricultural income – will dictate where each farm lies on the scale. Other commentators argue that farm tourism exists only when it takes place on a ‘working farm’ (Clarke, 1996), whilst Peebles (1995) offers a simpler definition, that farm tourism is just tourism in a farm setting (see Table 2-5 below).

Table 2-5: Farm Tourism: A Chronology of Definitions
(Adapted and updated from, Busby and Rendle, 2000)

DART (1974): <i>any tourist or recreation enterprise on a working farm</i>
Hoyland (1982): <i>the provision of temporary accommodation and/or indirect recreational facilities on a working farm</i>
Frater (1983): <i>tourism enterprises that are present on working farms and yet are largely supplementary to existing farm activities</i>
Murphy (1985): <i>working farms that supplement their primary function with some form of tourism business</i>
Wales Tourist Board (1986): <i>working farms, irrespective of type or size, where the primary activity is agriculture and where tourism is a supplementary activity</i>
Denman and Denman (1990): <i>active provision of facilities for tourists within a working farm</i>
Davies and Gilbert (1992): <i>a form of rural tourism whereby paying guests can share in farming life either as staying guests or day visitors on working farms</i>
Pearce (1990): <i>farm tourism represents continuing ownership and active participation by the farmer in, typically, small-scale tourism ventures</i>
Roberts (1992): <i>farm tourism is about people who are away from the place where they normally live and work, and about the things they do on a working farm, whether they visit for the day or for a longer holiday</i>
Denman (1994): <i>a term which covers the provision of facilities for tourists on a working farm</i>
Clarke (1996): <i>tourism products in which the consumer is aware of the farming environment, at a minimum</i>
Weaver and Fennell (1997): <i>rural enterprises which incorporate both a working farm environment and a commercial tourism component</i>
Ilbery, et al. (1998): <i>farm tourism is conceptualised as an alternative farm enterprise (AFE) comprising one of seven possible ‘pathways of farm business development’</i>
Morris (2002): <i>farm tourism can be defined as any accommodations business or visitor attraction based on a working farm</i>
Carpio, Wohlgenant and Boonsaeng (2008): <i>visits to farm, ranches, and other agricultural settings with recreational purpose</i>

In North America, the descriptor ‘agritourism’ is more commonly used to refer to farm-based tourism ventures (Colton and Bissix, 2005; Carpio, Wohlgenant and Boonsaeng, 2008; Das and Rainey, 2010); whilst for Green, DePhelps and Williams

(2008) 'agricultural tourism', refers to the act of visiting a working farm or any agricultural, horticultural or agribusiness operation for the purpose of enjoyment, education, or active involvement in the activities of the farm or operation. Here, neither the terms *agri-* or *farm-* (tourism) are used and whilst status as a 'working farm' is acknowledged, the emphasis is on the visitor, with the implication that they should not take on a passive role but instead be engaged in some form of activity, enjoyment or education.

Furthermore, Henderson (2009, p.259), highlights that visitation to agricultural and horticultural sites is not reserved solely for rural locations, offering examples of farm tourism in the urban city-state of Singapore. Moreover, Henderson argues that where the tourism enterprise is related to farming but 'does not have a working farm constituent', then this is more accurately termed agrotourism. In contrast, the term agrotourism is used more generally to refer to farm-based tourism in Mediterranean countries, where it is the preferred descriptor (Gousiou, Spilanis and Kizos, 2001; López and García, 2006), and Henderson's (2009) suggestion that the prefix agro-relates to the working or non-working status of a tourism farm does not seem to be widely supported in the literature.

Gal, Gal and Hadas (2010) expanding on Busby and Rendle's (2000) proposed transition from 'tourism on farms' to 'farm tourism', report that the link between agriculture and tourism is weakening; proposing that as farmers develop tourism income, they are withdrawing from agricultural production. Indeed, this has been found to be the case within Croatian agriculture with farm families who engage in farm tourism activity, seen to be reducing agricultural production (Brščić, 2006). Similarly, Di Dimenico and Miller (2012), in their study of UK farm attractions, identify that many farm households, faced with an economic imperative to diversify, now self-identify as 'tourism entrepreneurs', rather than 'farmers', and possess a clear desire to exit farming. However, it is likely that this a trend that requires consideration on a regional case by case basis, with Garcia-Ramon, *et al.* (1995) acknowledging that in Spain, tourism on farms provides at most only supplementary income that is unlikely to replace farming.

Definitions aside, a number of demand side studies of farm tourism (Oppermann, 1995; Fleischer and Tchetchik, 2002, 2005) have noted that the status of an active farm does not have any value for the visitor, with Oppermann (1995, p.65) commenting, that 'the actual farm environment seems to take back stage to other travel motives.' In contrast, a profile of farmstay visitors in Victoria, Australia, identified that engaging in farm-related activities (the most salient element even being described as 'watching farming') was valued and prioritised as an activity by just over 30 percent of those surveyed (n=230); a figure only surpassed by those 44 percent who wanted to engage in passive activities such as 'walking' and 'bird watching', where one can hypothesise that the agricultural farmland setting was still important (Kidd, King and Whitelaw, 2004). Here, regional signatures of farm tourism development may well come in to play, with Ollenburg (2008) reminding us that state law in Italy requires farm tourism to have a direct connection with farming to avoid misuse of the Italian 'agriturismo' label. In contrast, the convention in Greece, is for farmers to offer accommodation sited at an additional property a few kilometres from the main farmhouse. Here, contact with both farm and farm family is understandably less likely.

Having identified that farm tourism performs specific roles for the rural visitor with respect to touristic involvement in the process of food production, the opportunity to interact with rural lives, and the potential for direct contact with animals and the experience of the farm generally (Sznajder, Przeborska and Scrimgeour, 2009) it is timely to move discussion from definitional and conceptual issues toward a consideration of the 'functions of farm tourism.' Iakovidou, Partalidou and Manos (2000), highlight that these functions can be expressed as spatial, environmental, economic, and socio-psychological functions, as outlined in Figure 2-11 below.

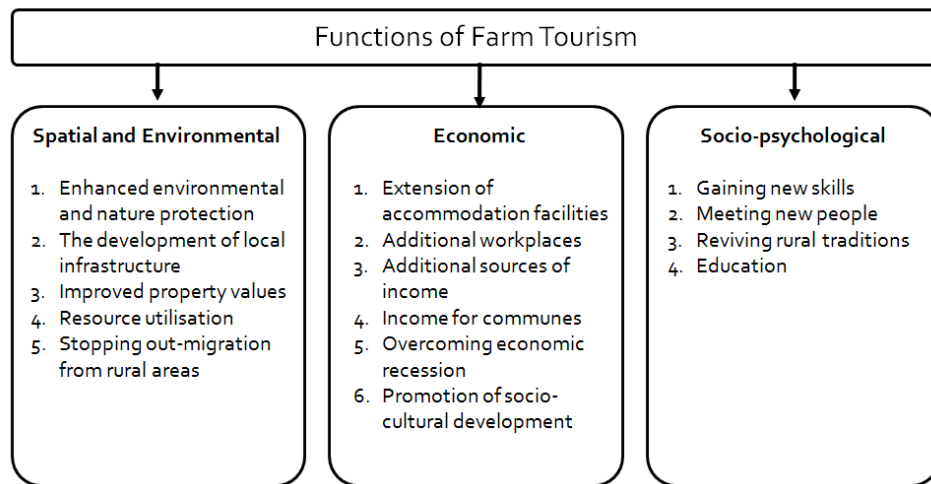


Figure 2-11: The Functions of Farm Tourism
(Source:Iakovidou, Partalidou and Manos, 2000)

With regards to environmental functions, farm-based tourism has been identified as holding an important nature protection role, given the primary concern of developing and maintaining the value of the natural environment for both hosts and visitors. Moreover, farm tourism is also identified as encouraging the development of local infrastructure (for instance, water supply, sewerage and transportation links) which in turn benefits local rural populations who themselves are prompted to maintain the aesthetic values of their houses, villages and public spaces (Iakovidou, Partalidou and Manos, 2000; Sznajder, Przezborska and Scrimgeour, 2009). Furthermore, Oppermann (1995) and Gössling and Mattson (2002), maintain that farm tourism protects the rural environment by maintaining biodiversity, in that it discourages out-migration and farm closures thus maintaining the farmed environment. Indeed, in respect to out-migration, Cavaco (1996, p.140) proposes that rural tourism more generally has the 'capacity to facilitate the re population of rural areas with younger people... as well as revitalize semi abandoned places.'

Walford (2001) explores the spatial distribution of farm-based tourist accommodation within the UK and identifies a 'neighbourhood effect' in many of the UK's designated scenic areas (most notably AONBs, Heritage Coast's and National Parks). More specifically, Walford identifies that the concentration is highest in the areas within 5km of these designated spaces and that in the majority of cases this is higher than

the concentration of farm tourism accommodation within scenic areas themselves. On the one hand, this reiterates the earlier point, concerning the value of the farmed landscape in relation to demand for rural tourism (See also: Fleischer and Tchetchik, 2005; Vanslembrouck, van Huylenbroeck and van Meensel, 2005; van Huylenbroeck, *et al.*, 2006). However, Walford further proposes that the lower concentration of farm tourism accommodation within the designated scenic areas themselves is a likely indicator that local planning frameworks determine the spatial distribution of farm based recreation.

Indeed, Shaw and Hale (1996) identified that the UK planning system prohibited farmers in two case study areas of the English Midlands from 'capitalising their assets' in developing new non-agricultural uses for redundant farm buildings. Moreover, research conducted by Defra (2007) has identified that second only to developing and acquiring the necessary skills set, planning regulatory frameworks were the main barrier to effective farm diversification. Thus whilst one of the stated spatial functions of farm tourism may be to provide new uses for derelict and redundant buildings and in doing so preserve the rural cultural heritage (Sznajder, Przezborska and Scrimgeour, 2009), this factor may remain location-specific and indeed warrants further study.

With respect to the economic functions of farm tourism, a number can be allied to the issues associated with out-migration and providing a new impetus for maintaining the farmed landscape, as outlined above. Indeed, farm tourism offers economic benefits to the local area through the multiplier effect, helps diversify rural economies and, as a flexible enterprise, it is proposed can expand and contract as the market demands (Gössling and Mattsson, 2002; Bryan, *et al.*, 2009). For these reasons, farm tourism strategies are now being adopted as a tool in emerging and developing economies, as in for instance Turkey (Karabati, *et al.*, 2009), Sri Lanka (Malkanathi and Routry, 2011), Thailand (Srikatanyoo and Campiranon, 2010), India (Chadda and Bhakare, 2012) and China (Yang, *et al.*, 2009; Yang, Cai and Sliuzas, 2010; Yang, 2012). However, as an economic driver, farm tourism is still cited as a useful poverty alleviation tool even within developed nations such as rural North America, where agricultural decline has

left many rural areas impoverished (Hara and Naipaul, 2008; Das and Rainey, 2010).

Amongst the socio-psychological functions of farm tourism are the alleged opportunities for rural and farming communities to meet new people and the opportunities for valuable exchange between rural and urban cultures (Iakovidou, Partalidou and Manos, 2000; Sznajder, Przezborska and Scrimgeour, 2009). In particular, farm tourism is offered as a viable mechanism for the revival of rural and folk traditions with a clear educational function in respect to both the natural and cultural heritage. Thus, Coomber and Lim (2004) identify the role of the farmer both as host, but also as interpreter and guide 'to a different way of life.'

Whilst many of the above functions can be seen to overlap and complement each another, others can be identified as drivers for the recent growth and increasing interest in farm-based recreation, not least issues related to a renewed public interest in rural areas and farming and the opportunities presented to reverse rural economic and cultural decline. It is also interesting to note that the literature on farm tourism has yet to engage with the concept of the (proposed) transition to a multifunctional agricultural space, or of a new rural development paradigm, as outlined earlier in this chapter. It can therefore be suggested that the rural and farm tourism literature currently sits in isolation – or, in effect, in an academic silo – with respect to the wider debates occurring in the rural and agricultural geography discourse. To the same end, the emphasis on land, capital and labour, as the resources available to the farm household and as a framework for considering diversification, would seem to be absent from the debate. Instead, the emphasis within the tourism literature has been to review both the demand and supply drivers of farm tourism.

Indeed, with respect to the supply-side analysis, there has been an increased emphasis on both the farmer and farm household in order to enhance understanding the motivations to diversify and to consider the characteristics of both the farm and farmer as the agent of change, and it is to these elements of the tourism literature that this review now turns.

2.5.2 The Motivations of Farm Tourism Operators

As outlined above, an emerging body of literature now emphasises the motivations of farmers and farm households in their decisions to diversify to tourism enterprise. In North America, research indicates that farmers primarily diversify to provide additional income and employment opportunities for the farm family. Research by Nickerson, Black and McCool (2001) on family farms and ranches in Montana tests eleven reasons for diversifying, with principal component analysis resulting in three factors: social reasons, economic reasons and external influences. Unsurprisingly, in the context of the earlier discussion regarding the pressure on US agriculture, 61 percent of respondents diversified for economic reasons, including: the need to generate additional income; to overcome fluctuations in agricultural income; and to make full use of existing resources. McGhee and Kim (2004) used the same motivational statements to assess 987 farm tourism operators in Virginia, again finding that economic drivers were dominant – with ‘additional income’ holding the highest mean importance – despite the nature of farming here being very different from that of Montana.

Work by Barbieri and Mahoney (2009, p.65) exploring the adjustment strategies of farmers and ranchers in Texas again confirms the dominance of economic motives and the need to generate additional farm income. However, here, the respondents also reported that the ‘continuance of farming [and] the enhancement of their family’s quality of life’, had equal if not greater importance as goals. Later work by Barbieri (2010) amongst Canadian farm tourism enterprises also reveals the importance of a number of these intrinsic goals, including the desire to ‘continue farming’ and to ‘enhance quality of life’ whilst acknowledging the need to respond to ‘market need or opportunity.’ Thus, Barbieri proposes that those who promote and facilitate farm diversification should not focus solely on the ‘economic potential of these activities as has traditionally occurred.’

Despite this assertion, the dominant discourse within the farm tourism literature remains an economic one, with Knowd (2006) identifying the principal motivation for engaging in farm tourism amongst farmers in the Hawkesbury area surrounding

Sydney to be economic sustainability. A similar situation exists in the UK, where a survey of farmstays in the North East of England found that 60 percent of respondents had diversified to generate additional income and secure long term financial security (Sharpley and Vass, 2006), whilst Wilson (2007) confirms that income was the primary motivator in a profile of open-farms in Northern Ireland. To illustrate this point, in an analysis of farmers in Israel, Gal, Gal and Hadas (2010, p.290) identify that 'new tourism activities were added when the profit level from agriculture failed to meet [the farmers'] expectations.' These authors state that although it was not inconceivable that a successful farmer would start a new tourism venture whilst earning acceptable agricultural profit, their research had not yet identified any such case.

Conversely, the primary motivation amongst thirty farm tourism operators surveyed in Sweden was social contact and cultural exchange, the suggestion being that given the decreasing social status of farmers in society, tourist presence and interest was viewed favourably by these farmers (Gössling and Mattsson, 2002). One must however acknowledge that this Swedish study involved a relatively small sample, although when balanced against the earlier suggestion that many European farmers view tourism as a 'betrayal of farmership' (Jongeneel, Polman and Slangen, 2008; Brandth and Haugen, 2011), the suggestion that new psychological motives arise from changing societal roles and farming identities – specifically in the context of a new multifunctional rural space outlined earlier – clearly warrants further empirical investigation.

Ollenburg and Buckley (2007, p.451) also identify social motivations to diversify as significant amongst Australian farm tourism operators and, whilst acknowledging that income generation still has a role to play, proposed that a Northern and Southern Hemisphere distinction can be drawn in terms of the primacy of economic and social goals in the decision to diversify. As if to illustrate this point, the authors present a table of selected 'worldwide motivations' of farm tourism operators (recreated here at Table 2-6 below) and indeed the New Zealand studies of Pearce (1990), Oppermann (1998) and Hogg (2001) would seem to confirm the pre-eminence of social motives

amongst the Southern Hemisphere sample.

Table 2-6: Stated motivations of farm tourism operators worldwide
(Adapted from, Ollenburg and Buckley, 2007).

Region	n	Motivations	Reference
Herefordshire, UK	118 (Not known)	71% Income 25% Social	(Frater, 1983)
Northumbria and Yorkshire, UK	79 (53%)	60% Income 13% Use buildings	(Sharpley and Vass, 2006)
Saskatchewan, Canada	40 (52%)	55% Income 34% Social	(Weaver and Fennell, 1997)
New York, USA	Not known	82% Income	(Kuehn and Hilchey, 2001)
Montana, USA	292 (41%)	61% Income 23% External 16% Social and Income	(Nickerson, Black and McCool, 2001)
Virginia, USA	412 (67%)	Income; utilise buildings; education	(McGehee and Kim, 2004)
New Zealand	13	Social	(Pearce, 1990)
New Zealand	172 (67%)	41% Social 32% Income	(Oppermann, 1998)
Southland, New Zealand	36 (55%)	64% Social 28% Income	(Hogh, 2001)

Ollenburg and Buckley (2007, p.451) go on to suggest that, with a more explicit need to generate income, farmers in the Northern hemisphere need to be more professional, as defined by the 'adoption of a business plan; seeking professional advice at establishment; separate accounting systems for tourism and farm businesses; involvement in regional and larger-scale tourism marketing initiatives; and [maintaining] occupancy rates and profitability.' Busby and Rendle (2000) echo this, noting that an additional criterion in moving from 'tourism on a farm' to 'farm tourism' may be the adoption of a tourism business plan and certainly, whilst the farm tourism literature remains limited, analysis has now begun to move beyond an

assessment of understanding motivations to diversify toward understanding the characteristics of both farm and farmer that make this transition possible. More specifically, McGehee (2007, p.120) argues that a number of issues remain un-addressed, and asks 'what technical assistance, skills and resources do farm tourism providers feel are most important to their success.' It must be acknowledged, however, that McGehee also calls for more research into the motivations of farm tourism operators and, admittedly, whilst the literature on motivations has grown considerably over recent years, it still lacks the geographical coverage that will allow for comparative case study analysis (as illustrated by Table 2-6 above).

Moreover, as well as there being a lack of geographical coverage within farm tourism research generally, it can also be argued that the continued emphasis on motivations of farm tourism operators has come at the expense of research on the characteristics of the farmer and farm household and indeed other aspects of entrepreneurship. Thus, this chapter will now review the literature that does address these issues.

2.5.3 Farmer and Farm Household Characteristics in Farm Tourism Supply

As outlined above, having considered the contextual factors surrounding farm tourism supply along with the goals and motivations of operators, it is now necessary to consider more closely both the farmer and the farm household in the context of diversification to tourism enterprise. Indeed, whilst the farm tourism literature remains fragmented and somewhat limited, a small number of studies have begun to move beyond motivations to address the characteristics and performance of farm tourism operators themselves. For instance, in a study of US farms, Brown and Reeder (2007), found that farmers with farm tourism holdings tended to have a higher education: with 95 percent holding a high school education compared to 89 percent of farmers generally; a further 44 percent also holding a college education, compared to 24 percent of farmers generally. This reflects a study by Haugen and Vik (2008), who reveal that Norwegian farmers who diversify tend to have a higher level of both general and agricultural education. Moreover, Bowler, *et al.* (1996) in a study of farms in the Northern Pennines of England, conclude that farmers with higher education tended to obtain greater profits.

Amongst other characteristics, Barbieri and Mshenga (2008), in a survey of North American farms and ranches, identify that white male farmers earn more than their female counterparts and that age was also inversely related to business performance, with income falling as the farmer's age category increased. Barbieri and Mshenga's work also places emphasis on the benefits of networking to venture success, identifying that membership of business and agriculture associations was seen to bring benefits, noting a positive correlation to gross farm income. In contrast, the adoption of farm business and marketing plans did not appear to contribute to success (despite the authors hypothesising to the contrary). Here, of course, one must acknowledge the earlier point that the adoption of business and marketing plans was a necessary step in the professionalisation of farm tourism, underscored by primarily economic motives, and one that would mark the transition from tourism on farms to farm tourism (Busby and Rendle, 2000; Ollenburg and Buckley, 2007). Certainly, business planning and marketing are skills frequently cited in the farm tourism literature as being notably absent, and skills which would be welcomed by farmers from those designing agricultural extension and farm business support programmes and promoting farm diversification through policy generally (Sharpley and Vass, 2006; McGehee, 2007; Wilson, 2007). As Ainley and Smale (2010, p.58) observe, for many farm families, the decision to engage in farm tourism is 'based more on a leap of faith than on sound market research.'

Elsewhere, limited discussion of the skills required to operate a successful farm tourism venture can be identified. Often this centres on the transferability of existing knowledge from operating the core farm operation. Butts, McGeorge and Briedenhann (2005) concur, discussing a case study of a successful 'Maize Maze' farm attraction in Devon, England. They argue that the fact that the farm family had already established the basic business principles from their farming operation was paramount to and, indeed, underscored their success. Others argue that different skill sets are needed when diversifying from agriculture (See, McElwee, 2006; Pyysiäinen, *et al.*, 2006, also later discussion at Chapter Three). Knowd (2006, p.35), in his case

study of farm tourism operators in Australia, asked farmers how they intended to acquire the necessary skills for managing tourism: 40 percent stated they intended to acquire the skills themselves; 23 percent said they would employ others to bring those skills on-farm; and the remaining 37 percent did not respond to the question. Knowd goes on to suggest that the non-response indicates that the farmers surveyed did not know what skills that they lacked or had no idea how they might acquire them. Whilst Knowd's hypothesis cannot easily be verified in the context of non-response, the wider implication remains that diversification to farm based recreation does require mastery of a new set of skills.

Wilson (2007), using the 'family business development model' (after Gersick, et al., 1997), explores the role that family and friends play, both as an available source of labour and also to offset the skills-gaps within farm operations. In their study of farm tourism in Flanders, van Huylbroeck *et al.* (2006, p.18) reveal that farm tourism demands an increased labour input from the farm unit. This additional labour input can range from 20 hours per month for guiding farm visitors, through to 750 hours per month on farms with guest houses. Moreover, they identified that in the majority of cases, it was the partner (or farm wife) who is in charge of these diversified activities.

Indeed, the role of the family business has been a recurring theme within farm tourism research (Andersson, Carlsen and Getz, 2002; Wilson, 2007), with Nilsson (2002) identifying that the farm wife is central to the tourism business. Moreover, in a review of farm tourism in England and Wales, McNally (2001) notes that the probability of tourism being present – as one of a range of diversification options – increases by 12 percent if the spouse is considered present as a part of the diversified holding. This spousal presence is also positively associated with the probability of observing retail or recreation on the holding, confirming that in line with the wider rural and farm tourism literature, many diversification roles may well be considered gender specific (See for instance, Brandth and Haugen, 2007; Wilson, 2007; Riley, 2009).

Garcia-Ramon *et al.* (1995) confirm this situation, demonstrating that the role of farm women is crucial to the success of farms in Spain, with caring for guests considered an

extension of their domestic farm duties. However, they note that this endowed the women with a higher profile and economic independence than they would ordinarily enjoy in their agricultural roles. These studies extend the debate and emphasise that, increasingly, tourism is seen as an important household as opposed to individual development strategy. Although Das and Rainey (2010), in their review of farm tourism in Arkansas, suggest that where recreation operations are a natural extension of agricultural activity, it is difficult for researchers to establish the relative contributions of family labour allocated between the two.

To summarise, then, it becomes clear that whilst the farm tourism literature has addressed certain elements of the farmer and farm household characteristics and has begun to consider the requisite skills set, it has still, as yet, failed to consider adequately the role of the farmer as entrepreneur. Hence, this chapter will now begin to address this issue.

2.6 THE FARMER AS FARM TOURISM ENTREPRENEUR?

As outlined in Chapter One, the premise of this thesis is that, following the restructuring and the reorientation of agriculture as a consequence of farm diversification to tourism, the farmer can now be conceptualised as a rural tourism entrepreneur. Moreover, this chapter has highlighted that whilst elements of the farm tourism literature do acknowledge entrepreneurship, these discussions are limited and fragmented and do not embrace many of the essential theories and concepts outlined in either the mainstream entrepreneurship literature or within the sub discipline of rural and farm entrepreneurship (as will be outlined in Chapter Three). Moreover, it is useful to recall here that Defra 's (2011) definition of entrepreneurship does specify, that farmers are now entrepreneurial.

At a more fundamental level, Cloesen (2007), commenting on farm tourism in New Zealand, argues that diversification in itself does not allow the farmer to be considered an entrepreneur. Ascribing to the definition of entrepreneurship popularised by Timmons (1994), as creating something from nothing, he argues that a separate legal entity needs to be created for the new venture for it to be considered

entrepreneurial. Thus, it is necessary to now consider the concept of 'entrepreneur' in Chapter Three, as applied to the specific context of the diversified farmer.

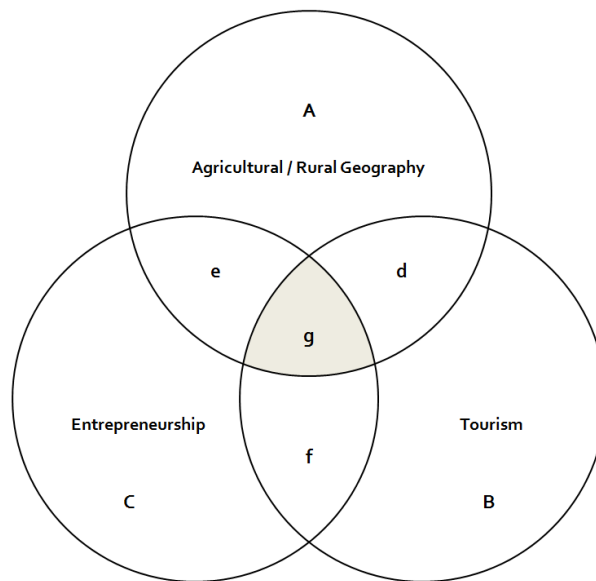


Figure 2-12: Thematic Overview – the Farmer As Rural Tourism Entrepreneur?

2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has examined the reorientation of agriculture and the socio-economic restructuring of rural areas in the post-war period. These trends have been neatly summarised by de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer (2007) in Table 2-7 below as including the shift from productivist to post-productivist agriculture, a move towards a multifunctional rural space and additional development pathways for the farm business. Furthermore, these additional development pathways have been shown to include farm diversification generally, as well as diversification to farm tourism.

Moreover, the fragmented literature on farm-and agri- tourism has been reviewed to identify that, whilst many studies do acknowledge (or at least label) the farmer as entrepreneur, there remains a lack of depth with regards to what entrepreneurship in this context actually means. Moreover, any discussion as to the requisite skills and competencies that diversification to farm tourism involves is also both limited and fragmented. Thus, Chapter Three which now follows, will review entrepreneurship theory generally as well as the literature on entrepreneurial skills and competencies, prior to also examining these concepts in the context of both farming and tourism.

Table 2-7: Trends in European agriculture
(Source: de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer, 2007, p.685)

Trends in the environment of agriculture	Trends in agriculture
Globalisation of the market	Cost price reduction
Changing EU and national policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ cost reduction, efficiency increase ○ scale increase ○ production increase
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ CAP reform ○ legislation 	Adding value
Changing consumer demands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ increasing product quality ○ product diversification ○ packaging ○ processing
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ demand for food safety ○ changing food pattern ○ low prices ○ continuous availability of products 	Diversification
Changing supply chain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ other functions and services ○ new income sources
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ growing power of retail and supermarkets ○ quality, tracking and tracing 	Ending farm activities, retiring
Changing environment	
Pressure on the rural area	
Growing demand for functions and services	
Climate changes	
Increasing energy prices	

THE FARMER AS RURAL TOURISM ENTREPRENEUR

3.0 CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

The terms entrepreneur and entrepreneurship are today widely used and are said to hold a special meaning pertaining to the actions of an individual risk taker or creative venturer (Hébert and Link, 1989). Indeed, entrepreneurs who succeed often enjoy mythical status as, for many, they are 'symbols of individualism, drive, and intuition... the embodiment of our romantic view of capitalism' (Ehrlich, 1986, p.33). Moreover, for Kuratko and Hodgetts (2007, p.xix) 'entrepreneurship is the most powerful economic force known to humankind!' Certainly, entrepreneurship is a much sought-after quality, 'perceived as crucial to the national integrity of virtually all countries in the world' (Matlay, 2005, p.666). What then are we to make of these mythical and heroic figures about whom so much hyperbole is written? Who or what is an entrepreneur and what makes them distinctive from the wider population? Within this chapter, a range of issues relating to the study of entrepreneurship will be explored as they relate to the thematic overview of this thesis at Figure 3-1 below.

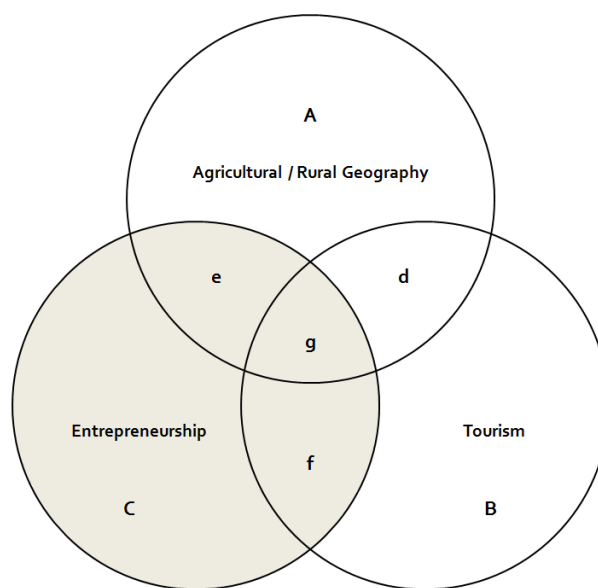


Figure 3-1 Chapter Three Thematic Overview

Initially, the field of entrepreneurship will be introduced to include a range of contested definitions as well as an overview of the traits approach, the behavioural approach and the opportunity identification approach to the study of entrepreneurship. This is prior to introducing the human capital approach and a discussion of entrepreneurial skills and competency frameworks. Subsequently, the concept of the farmer as a rural entrepreneur will be explored in more detail, prior to

considering entrepreneurial skills and competencies as they pertain to farming and agriculture. Here, discussion will emphasise the importance of entrepreneurship in tourism before addressing entrepreneurial skills and competencies as they relate to this domain. In summarising this chapter, and at the heart of the thematic overview of this thesis, the foundations will be laid to acknowledge the role of the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur.

3.1 DEFINING ENTREPRENEURS AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Before proceeding, it is necessary to first outline what is understood by the terms entrepreneur and entrepreneurship. A review of Table 3-1 and 3-2 below indicates that the term entrepreneur refers to the 'content of the phenomenon' whilst entrepreneurship 'refers to the process'. These tables also highlight that there is diversity and disparity amongst the definitions of the two terms. Firstly, they are evidently linked to the terms 'innovation, opportunity recognition, profit, economic growth, venture creation and change' whilst, secondly, entrepreneurship has been variously 'conceptualised as a characteristic, a behaviour, an activity and social role' (Misra and Kumar, 2000, p.136). Moreover, there is disagreement with regards to the level of analysis and whether entrepreneurship should be considered at the level of the individual or as a firm or organisational level phenomenon. What is more, these differing perspectives have

resulted in a conflicting array of definitions describing entrepreneurship in terms of dynamic change, new combinations, exploiting opportunities, innovation, price arbitrage, risk, uncertainty, ownership, new venture formation, non-control of resources, asymmetries of information, superior decision-making, personality traits, monopoly formation or something else (Gedeon, 2010, p.16).

Table 3-1: Definitions of entrepreneur

Author	Definition
Cantillon (1755)	Entrepreneurs buy at certain prices in the present and sell at uncertain prices in the future. The entrepreneur is the bearer of uncertainty.
Knight (1921)	Entrepreneurs attempt to predict and act upon change within markets. The entrepreneur bears the uncertainty of market dynamics.
Schumpeter (1934)	An entrepreneur is a person who carries out new combinations, causing discontinuity. The carrying out of new combinations can include a new good, quality of good, a new method of production, opening of a new market, conquest of a new source of raw materials or the reorganisation of any industry.
Hoselitz (1951)	The entrepreneur is one who buys at a price that is certain and sells at a price that is uncertain.
Liebenstein (1968)	An entrepreneur is one who marshals the resources necessary to produce and market a product that answers a market deficiency.
Kirzner (1978)	The entrepreneur recognises and acts upon profit opportunities, essentially an arbitrageur.
Kirzner (1985)	An entrepreneur is one who perceives profit opportunities and initiates action to fulfil currently unsatisfied needs.
Bygrave and Hofer (1991)	An entrepreneur is one who perceives an opportunity and creates an organisation to pursue it.

Table 3-2: Definitions of entrepreneurship

Author	Definition
Cole (1968)	Entrepreneurship is purposeful activity to initiate, maintain and develop a profit-oriented business.
Drucker (1985)	Entrepreneurship is an active innovation that involves endowing existing resources with new wealth producing capacity.
Gartner (1985)	Entrepreneurship is the creation of new organisations.
Stevenson, Roberts and Grousbeck (1989)	Entrepreneurship is the pursuit of opportunity irrespective of existing resources.
Kaish and Gilad (1991)	Entrepreneurship is the process of first, discovering, and second, acting on a disequilibrium opportunity.
Herron and Robinson (1993)	Entrepreneurship is the set of behaviours that initiates and manages the reallocation of economic resources and whose purpose is value creation through those means.
Timmons (1994)	Entrepreneurship is the ability to create and build a vision from practically nothing... it is the application of energy to initiating and building an enterprise or organisation, rather than just watching and analysing.
Shane and Venkataraman (2000)	[Entrepreneurship is the] examination of how, by whom, and with what effects opportunities to create future goods and services are discovered, evaluated, and exploited.

In short, the only consensus within the literature with respect to definitions is that there remains a complete lack of agreement on what defines both an entrepreneur and what constitutes entrepreneurial activity (Kilby, 1971; Long, 1983; Hébert and Link, 1989; Bull and Willard, 1993; Audretsch, 1995; Stearns, 1996; Sharma and Chrisman, 1999; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Matlay, 2005; Peneder, 2009; Kobia and Sikalieh, 2010). Indeed, Bull and Willard (1993) argue that, despite having been in use for over two centuries, the term 'entrepreneur' appears to be continually defined, redefined, extended and reinterpreted, with the literature base still lacking unanimity. For instance, from Tables 3-1 and 3-2 it becomes clear that a number of definitions focus on the act of creation, whether this be the founding of a new firm or value creation (Leibenstein, 1968; Gartner, 1985). For others, opportunity is the central and defining quality (Kirzner, 1978; Kirzner, 1985; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000); whereas for yet others, specific functional, individual and processual elements underpin the conceptualisations offered (Omrane and Fayolle, 2011).



Figure 3-2: Piglet dreams of the Heffalump
Illustration by E. H.. Shepperd, in A. A. Milne's *Winnie-the-Pooh* (1926)

This problem has been illustrated by the economist Peter Kilby (1971, p.1) who (in an analogy now much quoted in the entrepreneurship literature) has likened the entrepreneur to the fictitious creature 'the Heffalump', in A. A. Milne's 'Winnie-the-Pooh' stories. Kilby proposes that whilst many scholars claim to be familiar with the

entrepreneur and have attempted to define it, they resemble the characters from the famous children's story in that they all claim to know the elusive Heffalump whilst not being able to agree on its characteristics.

As Harwood (1982) states, if adopting a generous definition of entrepreneurship, then even Russian communist revolutionary Lenin may qualify; he states that Lenin took considerable risk, showed a high degree of independence, and applied innovative ideas to society that led to new organisational forms in many sectors of soviet life. Moreover, this confusion regarding definition extends to the policy sphere, with Ahmad and Seymour (2008) critical of attempts by the OECD to define entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial activity over the years. Indeed, key OECD publications have varyingly described entrepreneurship as: 'the dynamic process of identifying economic opportunities and acting upon them by developing, producing and selling goods and services,' (OECD, 1997, p.151); 'the ability to marshal resources to seize new business opportunities,' (OECD, 1998, p.41); 'the readiness to take risks...' (OECD, 2001a, p.81); and even at times equating entrepreneurship with self-employment, to denote 'anyone who works for himself or herself but not for someone else...' (OECD, 2001b, p.23). Thus, it can be seen that the OECD policy discourse has varyingly described entrepreneurship as the pursuit of opportunity, the bearing of risk and even self-employment, when in reality these are likely to represent the rhetoric of entrepreneurship generally, or the bias of individual authors, with little or no empirical foundation (Matlay, 2005; Ahmad and Seymour, 2008).

Hébert and Link (1982, p.109) suggest that there have been 'four dynamic theory types' which reflect the evolving definitions of the entrepreneur, each of which can be labelled according to the 'chief burden on the entrepreneur'. These include: (1) pure uncertainty; (2) pure innovation; (3) uncertainty bearing and either ability or innovation; and (4) the perception of adjustment to disequilibria. In a later review of the literature, Hébert and Link (1989, p.41) go on to identify twelve distinct themes related to entrepreneurship, namely, the entrepreneur as the person who:

- i. assumes the risk associated with uncertainty;
- ii. who supplies the capital;
- iii. acts as an innovator;
- iv. acts as a decision maker;

- v. is an industrial leader;
- vi. is a manager or superintendent;
- vii. acts as the organiser and coordinator of economic resources;
- viii. is the owner of an enterprise;
- ix. is an employer of factors of production;
- x. acts as a contractor;
- xi. is an arbitrageur;
- xii. is an allocator of resources among alternative uses.

Bull and Willard (1993, p.183) propose that the constant and enduring search for a definition may have itself, 'impeded the development of theory', a position echoed by Stearns (1996) who suggests that the definitional debate should be 'deemphasised', arguing instead that it may be enough to offer a sample definition in each study which is later operationalised through the analysis. It is evident that challenges remain in attempting to define entrepreneurship, problems that the limited discussion here cannot hope to resolve. Hence, the purpose of the following sections will be to review the literature on three of the major approaches that have been employed in the attempt to understand entrepreneurship, namely; the traits approach, the behavioural approach and the opportunity identification approach (Kobia and Sikalieh, 2010). This is prior to considering entrepreneurial human capital and the skills and competencies as a fourth and alternative approach to the study of entrepreneurship.

3.2 THE TRAITS APPROACH

The traits approach draws heavily from psychology and, in particular, from theories of personality and focuses on the individual as the catalyst for entrepreneurship. It assumes that an enterprising individual can be distinguished from the wider population through the identification of specific personality traits (Low and MacMillan, 1988; Gartner, 1989; Kobia and Sikalieh, 2010; Caliendo and Kritikos, 2012). Moreover, the traits approach takes for granted that some internal construction to personality exists and that specific traits can be identified and measured and thus be used to predict future behaviour (Rauch and Frese, 2007; Kolvereid and Isaksen, 2012). Within the literature, what Chell (2008) refers to as the 'big three' have come to dominate the discussion of entrepreneurial traits, namely; (1) the need for achievement, (2) locus of control and (3) risk-taking propensity. Indeed,

the interest in these three constructs has, to some extent, been driven by the portrayal (as highlighted earlier) of the entrepreneur as a heroic figure within society, with the traits approach seeking to identify the characteristics that distinguish the entrepreneur from 'mere mortals' (Ogbor, 2000, p.618).

3.2.1 Achievement motivation

As a cornerstone of the traits approach, McClelland's (1961) 'achievement motivation' construct is the first of the 'big three' to be examined here. McClelland advocates that the need for achievement (NAch) is higher amongst entrepreneurs than amongst non-entrepreneurs. He further suggests that entrepreneurs are predisposed to seek out positions that will allow them to attain greater achievement satisfaction, a perspective that subsequently distinguishes entrepreneurs as 'high achievers'. McClelland's NAch construct has been tested and supported by a body of empirical work that identifies a positive correlation between enterprising individuals and achievement motivation (See, for instance: Fineman, 1977; Johnson, 1990; Stewart and Roth, 2007). In contrast, Hull, Bosely and Udell (1980) identify NAch as a weak predictor of an individual's predisposition to start a venture, with Chell (2008) reminding us that a variety of push- and pull- factors will influence start-up intention. More generally, Low and MacMillan (1983) are critical of McClelland's work, observing that NAch can just as easily be attributed to salespeople, professionals and managers. Collins, Hanges and Locke (2004) propose a more nuanced view and counter that the NAch construct is an effective measure to differentiate between those who found businesses and the general population, even if it is less effective in differentiating between business founders and business managers more generally. As a result, disagreement around NAch persists yet, whilst the literature remains divided over the issue, interest remains high, perhaps because NAch aligns with the societal view of the entrepreneur as a high achiever.

3.2.2 Locus of control

The second of the major personality traits, the concept of locus of control (LOC), originates in the work of Rotter (1966) who propose a dichotomy in individual belief; that events occur either within, or outside of, our control, giving rise to either an internal LOC or an external LOC respectively. Rotter hypothesised that individuals

with an internal LOC would be more likely to pursue entrepreneurial careers as a result of a desire to control their own destiny, as distinct from those with a high external LOC which is more closely aligned with those individuals who trust in fate. Subsequent research has attempted to link LOC with NACH, with the observation that both constructs fail to distinguish between entrepreneurs and managers (See: Hull, Bosely and Udell, 1980; Babb and Babb, 1992; Rauch and Frese, 2007). This gives rise to the question of whether NACH or LOC is the best predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour, with Kobia and Sikalieh (2010) identifying that many high achievers also exhibit high internal LOC. Following a review of the literature, Chell (2008, p.101) notes that 'research on LOC as a characteristic of entrepreneurs and a predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour is by no means convincing.' Moreover, Westhead, Wright and McElwee (2011) note that whilst the LOC construct has largely been abandoned in psychology, scholars in management and entrepreneurship continue to pursue it.

3.2.3 Propensity for risk

Perhaps the best known and most widely discussed of the 'big three' is risk, no doubt because so many of the (economic based) definitions of entrepreneurship highlight the role of the entrepreneur as the risk-taker or risk-bearer (Cantillon, 1755; Knight, 1921; Drucker, 1970). However, the traits approach positions risk-taking as something that is central to the psychology of the individual entrepreneur and not just as an economic activity that he or she engages in. Again, David McClelland's (1961) early work is influential, emphasising that those with high achievement needs have a predisposition to take risks. As with the previously discussed traits, the evidence for risk-taking remains mixed and is subject to sustained and critical debate. Work by Hull, Bosely and Udell (1980) and Timmons (1994) advocate that entrepreneurs do have a greater propensity to take risks, whereas, Stearns (1996, p.2) cautions that successful entrepreneurs may just as easily be 'effective risk managers rather than 'wild-eyed' risk takers.' This suggests that an entrepreneur may reasonably expect to undertake risk where the potential for reward is evident but that this process is measured and not necessarily an inherent character trait.

3.2.4 Criticism of the traits approach

Whilst NACH, LOC and risk-taking remain central to the study of entrepreneurship, the

constructs remain contested and the lack of consensus on the importance of each has encouraged researchers to identify and measure other personality constructs. For instance, research around the 'big three' has been more recently superseded by the study of five new components of (1) neuroticism, (2) extraversion, (3) openness, (4) agreeableness and (5) conscientiousness. Unsurprisingly (and unoriginally) referred to as 'the big five' (Zhao and Seibert, 2006) or the 'new personality traits' (Chell, 2008). Using this new five factor construct, Zhao and Seibert (2006) have conducted a meta-analytical review which suggests that entrepreneurs do differ from others in terms of their basic personality. Zhao and Robert's review identifies that entrepreneurs score higher than managers on the personality dimensions of conscientiousness and openness, but lower on neuroticism and agreeableness, with no difference in respect to extraversion. Moreover, in a later meta-analysis by Rauch and Frese (2007), additional traits, such as generalised self-efficacy, proactive personality, innovativeness and achievement motives are found to be strongly related to entrepreneurial behaviour. Considering their results, the authors of both meta-reviews acknowledge limitations with respect to the small number of studies against each personality dimension and the challenges of any meta-analysis of data gathered by others. Moreover, both call for further research with Rauch and Frese (2007, p.376) concluding that 'entrepreneurship research cannot develop a consistent theory about entrepreneurship if it does not take personality into account.'

Despite these calls, research to date has failed to identify a combination of traits that can explain the entrepreneurial personality, and Rauch and Frese (2007) acknowledge that there is now a deep-rooted scepticism in the literature when it comes to the relationship between traits and entrepreneurial behaviour. Low and MacMillan (1988) propose that any attempt to profile the personality of a typical entrepreneur is inevitably proved futile, whilst Aldrich (1999, p.76) comments more forcefully that 'research on personality traits seems to have reached an empirical dead end.' The central criticism of the traits approach remains; that many of the traits identified and discussed are shared by both entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs alike (Low and MacMillan, 1988; Gartner, 1989).

One criticism of the traits approach emerges from the lack of consensus in defining

the entrepreneur as outlined above. For instance, Gartner (1989) reviews a number of studies and identifies that they either lack a coherent definition or, where the entrepreneur is defined, the definitions are clearly inconsistent with other studies. This renders the identification of traits shared by these groups of entrepreneurs, which distinguish them from other populations of individuals, problematic. Moreover, and as identified above:

efforts to isolate demographic characteristics that are common to all entrepreneurs, or are unique to entrepreneurs, have generally met with failure due to weak, disconfirming, or non-significant results (Mitchell, *et al.*, 2002, p.95)

Thus, this chapter will now introduce the behavioural approach and elements of cognitive psychology that are being pursued as an alternative to psychological traits in the study of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship.

3.3 THE BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH

In contrast to the traits approach, the behavioural approach focuses 'on what the entrepreneur does and not who the entrepreneur is' (Gartner, 1989, p.57). This focus on process rather than person sees the behavioural approach emphasise venture creation and elevates the organisation to the primary level of analysis (Timmons, 1994). More specifically, the behavioural approach to entrepreneurship considers the set of activities and processes associated with the creation of a new venture.

3.3.1 Entrepreneurship as venture creation

William Gartner was one of the first entrepreneurship scholars to devote attention to venture creation and in what is now considered his seminal article, 'Who Is the Entrepreneur? Is the Wrong Question' (1988, 1989), he argues that the creation of organisations is what distinguishes entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs. Moreover, for Gartner (1989, p.57):

the study of the entrepreneur is actually one step removed from the primary phenomenon of entrepreneurship – the creation of organisations, the process by which new organisations come into existence. This behavioural approach views the creation of an organisation as a contextual event, the outcome of many influences. The entrepreneur is part of the complex process of new venture

creation... The personality characteristics of the entrepreneur are ancillary to the entrepreneur's behaviours...

Moreover, Gartner's views on entrepreneurship reveal three 'important foundations for entrepreneurship as a scholarly domain' that: (1) entrepreneurship is about behaviour, rather than dispositions or characteristics, (2) entrepreneurship is a process, and (3) entrepreneurship is about emergence (Davidsson, 2003, p.335).

Furthermore, both Gartner (1989) and Carsrud and Johnson (1989) draw parallels between the study of entrepreneurship and early studies which investigate the traits and personality characteristics of leaders. They highlight that no empirical evidence was identified to support the notion that a finite number of leadership characteristics exists or that these traits differentiated the successful and unsuccessful leader. As a consequence, they highlight that leadership theories subsequently progressed toward a focus on the behaviour of leaders and what they do, rather than what they are, the implication being that to mature, the field of entrepreneurship must do the same.

Whilst the behavioural approach is concerned with new venture creation, it does not necessarily lose sight of the individual, as it is individual behaviour, that is the necessary ingredient for venture creation. For Gartner, Carter and Reynolds (2010, p.101), entrepreneurship is an organising process as 'it is through the actions of entrepreneurs that organisations come into existence.' Moreover, the entrepreneurial behaviour perspective assumes that there are differences between those who found ventures (entrepreneurs) and those who do not (non-entrepreneurs). In essence, the behavioural approach 'treats the organisation as the primary level of analysis and the individual is viewed in terms of activities undertaken to enable the organisation to come into existence' (Kobia and Sikalieh, 2010, p.116).

3.3.2 Cognitive processes

However, as Mitchell, *et al.*, (2002) have highlighted, 'the fundamental idea that entrepreneurs are members of a homogenous group that is somehow unique, has not gone away.' It is for this reason that many entrepreneurship scholars have turned to cognitive psychology to explain how entrepreneurs think and behave (Mitchell, *et al.*,

2002; Katz and Shepherd, 2003; Baron, 2004; Grégoire, Corbett and McMullen, 2011; Sánchez, Carballo and Gutiérrez, 2011). Cognition and cognitive psychology helps to explain the mental processes that occur within individuals when they interact with other people and their environment and has been defined as 'all processes by which sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, recovered, and used.' Furthermore, entrepreneurial cognitions have been defined as 'the knowledge structures that people used to make assessments, judgements or decisions involving opportunity evaluation, venture creation and growth.' Therefore, the cognitive approach considers the mental processes by which entrepreneurs piece together information to enable them to start and grow a business (Mitchell, *et al.*, 2002, p.97). This section will now consider a number of cognitive elements that have been used to explain entrepreneurial behaviour including, self-efficacy, scripts, cognitive bias and opportunity recognition. However, it first must be acknowledged that there remains a reluctance within the literature to consider many of these cognitive processes with Markman, Baron and Balkin (2003) suggesting that this reluctance may be because criticism of the traits approach has spilled over to any entrepreneurship research which considers 'individual difference'.

3.3.3 Self efficacy, scripts and cognitive bias

Self- efficacy can be seen as 'task-specific self-confidence' and has been defined as, 'the belief in one's ability to muster and implement the necessary personal resources, skills, and competencies to attain certain level of achievement on a given task' (Shane, 2003b, p.267). With regards to entrepreneurial behaviour, self-efficacy is considered important in making distinctions between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs and explains why individuals of equal ability perform differently (Chen, Greene and Crick, 1998). Entrepreneurs with high self-efficacy perceive more opportunities, feel competent to overcome perceived obstacles and will persevere in the face of uncertainty. Moreover, self-efficacy helps to explain why some individuals choose not to become entrepreneurs, with the suggestion that this is not because of a lack of ability, but because they believe they do not have this ability (Markman, Balkin and Baron, 2002; Markman, Baron and Balkin, 2003; Sánchez, Carballo and Gutiérrez, 2011)

In the field of entrepreneurship, 'scripts' or a 'schema' refers to the knowledge structures that entrepreneurs utilise to make assessments, judgements or decisions regarding the assessment of opportunities, enterprise creation and business growth (Corbett and Hmieleski, 2005; Sánchez, Carballo and Gutiérrez, 2011). In short, entrepreneurial scripts refers to the simplified mental models that entrepreneurs use to develop new products or services and to identify the resources for venture creation and are said to 'enable researchers to begin to map the entrepreneurial mind.' (Mitchell, Mitchell and Mitchell, 2009). The area of 'entrepreneurial scripts' suggests that expert entrepreneurs think differently from novices and non-experts as they have refined their mental models, following the development and growth of early businesses, or have expert knowledge about a particular domain that allows them to perform better in certain environments (Sánchez, Carballo and Gutiérrez, 2011).

Baron (2004, p.226) also believes that entrepreneurs, in comparison to others, may be more susceptible to cognitive bias and as a result may expect more favourable results than are justified. Specifically, the cognitive bias that Baron believes may impact on entrepreneurs, includes: (1) 'optimistic bias' and inflated tendency to expect things to turn out well, (2) 'the planning fallacy' and a tendency to believe that we can complete more in a given period of time than is actually possible, and (3) 'affect infusion' and the tendency for our affective states to strongly influence perception and decisions

Within the cognitive approach, opportunity recognition has been viewed as a perceptual process and as object or pattern recognition and assumes that at some level opportunities exist as patterns or configurations of observable stimuli. The stimuli are distinctive features that can be stored in memory in that exposure to new stimuli – i.e. new patterns or new opportunities – will be compared through mental processes with those already stored in our memories to identify distinctive features. These distinctive features, might be newness, practicality, or novelty uniqueness that the entrepreneur may recognise and then exploit. This cognitive model assumes that, through experience, prototypes of opportunities will form as mental abstractions and that the process of opportunity recognition will involve 'comparison of ideas for new products or services with existing prototypes opportunity' (Baron, 2004). Moreover, it must be acknowledged that a significant body of entrepreneurial research now

focuses on the role of opportunity and this will be explored fully in subsequent sections.

Cognitive perspectives aside, the behavioural approach remains contentious because it implies that the individual is only entrepreneurial in the context of firm creation. As Gartner (1989, p.62) notes:

the individual who creates the organization as the entrepreneur takes on other roles at each stage – innovator, manager, small business owner, division vice-president etc. Entrepreneurs... are identified by a set of behaviors which link them to organization creation

Moreover, Gartner goes on to suggest that whilst we continue to view entrepreneurship as a state of being and something one is, as opposed to entrepreneurship being something one does, then we will continue to 'become embroiled in trying to pin down their inequalities and intentions'. Thus, for Gartner, and the behavioural approach generally, 'entrepreneurship ends when the creation stage of the organisation ends'.

3.4 THE OPPORTUNITY IDENTIFICATION APPROACH

According to Shane and Venkataraman (2000, p.220), 'to have entrepreneurship, you must first have entrepreneurial opportunities'. Indeed, it was clear from the discussion of definitions above that opportunity is a frequently cited element of both the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship (Kirzner, 1985; Stevenson, Roberts and Grousbeck, 1989 ; Bygrave and Hofer, 1991; Kaish and Gilad, 1991). What is more, it is argued that 'a focus on opportunities is what makes the theory of entrepreneurship unique' (Nielsen, *et al.*, 2012, p.45). However, despite this, the 'nexus of entrepreneurial opportunities and enterprising individuals' is a 'largely overlooked aspect of entrepreneurship' (Shane, 2003a, p.18).

3.4.1 Schumpeterian and Kirznerian opportunities

Any discussion of entrepreneurial opportunities must acknowledge the way in which these opportunities arise. Here, two of the key entrepreneurial theorists are frequently cited, namely, Schumpeter (1928, 1934, 1954) and Kirzner (1978, 1983;

1985). Schumpeterian theory proposes that opportunities emerge via new combinations of existing resources, whereas Kirznerian theory advocates that opportunity comes through identifying gaps in the market and having utilised existing market information (see Table 3-3 below).

Table 3-3: Schumpeterian versus Kirznerian Opportunities
(Source: Shane, 2003a, p.21)

Schumpeterian Opportunities	Kirznerian Opportunities
Disequilibrating	Equilibrating
Requires new information	Does not require new information
Very innovative	Less innovative
Rare	Common
Involves creation	Limited to discovery

Essentially, Schumpeterian and Kirznerian approaches differ with regards to whether entrepreneurial opportunities involve access to new information. For instance, Schumpeter (1934) believed that new information was vital and argued that changes in technology, political forces, regulation, social trends and macro-economic factors offered new information that entrepreneurs could utilise to recombine resources and create new value. In contrast, Kirzner (1983) proposed that the entrepreneur focuses on optimising and making the existing market more effective.

As Table 3-3 above shows, as well as the distinction between information, Schumpeterian and Kirznerian opportunities differ in regard to their frequency and elements of creation and innovation. Kirznerian entrepreneurial opportunities are not considered particularly innovative as they replicate existing products and processes whilst Schumpeterian opportunities – because of the emphasis on new knowledge – are seen as innovative and disequilibrating in regard to the market. However, perhaps the most fundamental difference between the two perspectives are their effects on economic activity, with Schumpeterian opportunities seen as disequilibrating whilst Kirznerian opportunities are equilibrating and reinforce the established way of doing things. As a result of this distinction, disequilibrating Schumpeterian opportunities are considered rarer, carry more risk, but have the potential for the greatest financial reward. In contrast, Kirznerian opportunities, which are equilibrating and less

innovative, are far more common and often involve the replication of existing organisational forms (Shane, 2003a; Nielsen, *et al.*, 2012).

3.4.2 The Individual and Opportunity

More fundamentally, the opportunity identification approach focuses on an individual's ability to exploit these opportunities whilst, at the same time, questioning why others do not. Often, this ability is influenced by a range of individual-level characteristics that are both psychological and non-psychological in nature, as illustrated in Figure 3-3 below. Of the non-psychological factors outlined in Shane's model, many relate to human capital and the idea that 'an entrepreneur with the right experience will do a better job at exploiting an opportunity than an entrepreneur without that experience' (2003b, p.69). It is believed that much of this experience emerges from a person's stock of information and skills and the general level of education that the entrepreneur holds, with education generally seen to increase the likelihood that an individual will exploit an opportunity (Schultz, 1980; Hébert and Link, 1989; Audretsch, 2003; Shane, 2003a).

Outside of education, career experience is seen as the alternate route to develop information and skills that are essential for opportunity exploitation. More specifically, career experience is seen to reduce the uncertainty of an entrepreneur with regards to opportunity and the pursuit of profit. This career experience can take the form of general business experience and knowledge, general industry experience and start-up experience (Shane, 2003a; Politis, 2005; Unger, *et al.*, 2011). Inevitably, experience comes with age, with age also seen as an additional non-psychological individual difference that influences the decision to exploit opportunities. Initially, age seems to have a positive effect because of its relationship to skill and knowledge acquisition. However, as those people become older, the effect of age on opportunity becomes a negative influence. It is suggested that this negative tendency is as a result of the unwillingness to bear uncertainty and risk as individuals become older. An individual's social position and social ties also influence their tendency to exploit entrepreneurial opportunity, with social status seen as an asset in convincing others the opportunity they identified is valuable, and social ties offering the necessary contacts essential in the exploitation process (Shane, 2003a).

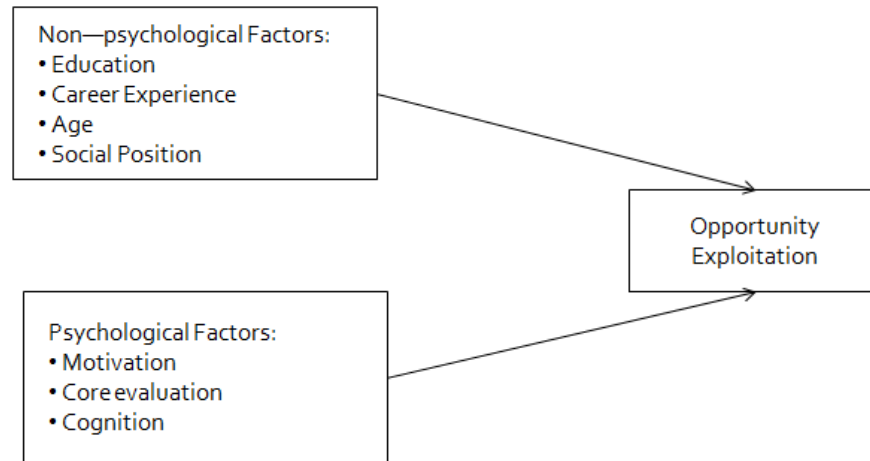


Figure 3-3: the effects of individual attributes on opportunity exploitation

(Adapted from: Shane, 2003a, p.62)

Shane's (2003a) individual attributes model also identifies a range of psychological factors that influence the likelihood that individuals will exploit opportunity. However, Shane is keen to highlight that 'psychological characteristics are not sufficient conditions and do not cause people to exploit entrepreneurial opportunities. Rather, they influence the exploitation decision' (p.96). Essentially, these motivations include many of the psychological traits previously discussed, including, NAch, locus of control, vision, the desire for independence, passion and drive as general motivators, as well as goal setting and self-efficacy as task-specific motivators (Shane, 2003a, 2003b). The influence of these motivating traits, for Shane, is on the transition from one stage of the entrepreneurial process to another. However, this is balanced by additional cognitive factors, including knowledge, skills and abilities that to some extent will be discussed in the sections that follow. To summarise, by revisiting both psychological traits and cognitive approaches here, there is a temptation to view the opportunity identification approach to entrepreneurship as merely an integration of the two previous sections. However, this would undermine the focus and prominence that opportunity has attained in the study of entrepreneurship. Having said this, the preceding discussions of the traits, behavioural, and opportunity identification approaches to understanding entrepreneurship, highlights that 'no one single approach captures the true and overall picture' (Kobia and Sikalieh, 2010, p.119). With this in mind, an additional body of literature which considers skills and competencies as elements of entrepreneurial human capital will now be explored.

3.5 ENTREPRENEURIAL HUMAN CAPITAL, SKILLS AND COMPETENCIES

Much of the literature above concerns what are considered desirable psychological assets for the entrepreneur including traditional traits and personality constructs. However, and as has been identified, the traits approach in particular has been criticised as being unsatisfactory in explaining entrepreneurial behaviour and performance. Thus, according to Lans *et al.* (2010b), an additional and preferable stream of research with its roots in human capital theory – as well as a later strand, which addresses the concept of competency – is now evident in entrepreneurship discourse.

Human capital theory has its origins in economics and focuses on the relationship between financial success and human resources. Gary Becker (1962, 1964) is credited with the most widely known application of the 'human capital' concept in economics in which he views human capital as a set of skills and characteristics that increases a workers' productivity. Specifically, Becker argues that one can invest in human capital via education, training and medical treatment. Similarly, in economist Theodore Schultz's (1975, 1980) 'human-capital approach to entrepreneurship', entrepreneurial ability is also seen as a form of human capital that can be increased through training, education and experience (See also: Klein and Cook, 2006). Thus, subsequent studies of human capital and entrepreneurship are usually concerned with education, experience, knowledge and skill. With a positive relationship said to exist between these human capital variables and success (Skuras, *et al.*, 2005; Ucbasaran, Westhead and Wright, 2008; Onphanhdala and Suruga, 2010; Unger, *et al.*, 2011; Kungwansupaphan and Siengthai, In Press).

Lans *et al.*, (2010b) are critical of many studies of entrepreneurial human capital, in that human capital is typically operationalised as the 'number of years experience' or 'types of education' and, as such, only touches superficially on entrepreneurial behaviours and activities. Within the third conceptual strand that Lans *et al.* (2010b) propose, the concept of competence is used to study entrepreneurial human capital in small firms. Moreover, for them, entrepreneurial competence can be seen as:

the competence related to the identification and pursuit of opportunities; which is a specific but essential task in small business management that relates to firm innovation, diversification and growth. More specifically, it refers to activities such as identifying customer needs, scanning the environment, formulating strategies, bringing networks together, taking initiative, introducing diversity and collaboration' (2010b, p.3).

Interest in entrepreneurial competencies stems from its perceived association with business performance and growth, the rationale being that increasing skill and competence among entrepreneurs will contribute varyingly to venture start-up, survival, growth and profitability (Chandler and Jansen, 1992; Bird, 1995; Mitchelmore and Rowley, 2010; Omrane and Fayolle, 2011). What is more, Bird (1995, p.53) argues that 'competence is behavioural and observable and... should offer us a stronger relationship between individual differences and venture outcomes than the personality trait-based approaches which characterise the early research on entrepreneurs.'

This is a position echoed by Omrane and Fayolle (2011, p.137), who suggest 'that competencies constitute the best predictors of the entrepreneur's performance.' Moreover, competencies are seen as changeable and so the development of entrepreneurs becomes feasible (Man, Lau and Snape, 2008). However, competence is a vague term that is not always adequately defined in the literature and is frequently associated with knowledge, skill and ability with the terms on occasion used interchangeably (Mitchelmore and Rowley, 2010). As such, the following sections will attempt to offer some clarity in respect of these terms prior to exploring entrepreneurial skill and competence in more depth.

3.5.1 Understanding Skills, Knowledge and Competence

Within the entrepreneurship literature generally, it is acknowledged that an entrepreneur needs an assemblage of factors when starting a business that have been described varyingly as knowledge, skills, abilities, expertise, acumen and competency. Moreover, it is acknowledged that while some of these constructs are interrelated, they are often used interchangeably within both the academic and policy literatures and not adequately defined (Mulder, 2001; Le Deist and Winterton, 2005; Winterton,

Le Deist and Stringfellow, 2006; Baum, Frese and Baron, 2007; Mitchelmore and Rowley, 2010; OECD, 2011; Chell, 2013). Rychen and Salganik (2000, p.8) confirm that the terms 'key competencies' and 'core skills' have become fashionable in policy discourse though often have very vague meanings, noting that:

in the social sciences there is no unitary use of the concept of competence, no broadly accepted definition or unifying theory. In fact, the meaning of such terms varies largely depending on the scientific perspective and ideological viewpoints involved and on the underlying objectives associated with their use, both at scientific and political levels.

With regards to skill, Chell (2013) reminds us that it is a generally under researched construct where we have lost sight of meaning, though acknowledges that it is generally thought to include talents, abilities and capabilities. Fischer and Bidell (2005, p.5) define skill as 'a capacity to act in an organised way in a specific context', with the context often interpreted as an industrial or occupational setting where the skill involves the mastery of a specific physical or manual ability associated with these workplace settings (Boyatzis and Kolb, 1995; Mascolo and Fischer, 1999; Clarke and Winch, 2006).

More broadly, multiple interpretations of skills exist, as either: (1) technical, associated with the exercise of labour power; (2) behavioural, reflecting the personal qualities of labour; and (3) cognitive, related to education, training and qualifications (Ashton and Green, 1996; Buchanan, Watson and Briggs, 2004). Kanungo and Misra (1992, p.1321) discuss skills from a management perspective and determine that skills can be understood as the abilities or capabilities to engage in specific behaviours to meet job demands. This may consist of observable behaviours i.e. leaders may engage in verbal articulation or expression through body language, as well as cognitive activities i.e. engaging in thinking and feeling to act in an appropriate way for a leader. Thus, they propose, that skills can be conceptualised as 'capabilities to engage in specific forms of behaviour... to include both overt and covert cognitive activities, and... as acquired dispositions.'

What emerges from the discussion above is that narrow definitions of skill will refer to the ability to engage in a specific task, often in a specific occupational setting, whilst

more broadly, skill also relates to behaviour and cognition. Thus, skill encompasses both manual and conceptual ability, including relevant knowledge and understanding (Winterton and Winterton, 2002). As outlined by Jessup (1991, p.121), the key criteria to measure skills, as distinct from 'knowledge', is in terms of outcomes, as 'skills can only be demonstrated through their application in performance (doing something) while knowledge can be elicited through the more abstract means of conversation, questioning or working,' suggesting therefore, that skill is conceptually and practically distinct from knowledge. More traditional definitions of knowledge suggest that it is information and skills acquired through experience and education, thus making the distinction between knowledge and skill difficult as it implies that acquiring knowledge involves developing specific skills (Winterton, Le Deist and Stringfellow, 2006)

Just as the distinction between skills and knowledge remains problematic, so too does the distinction between the terms skill and competencies. Moreover, such is the misuse of the terms, that Parry (1996, 1998) highlights that in a business environment, many people have taken to saying 'competency' when they mean nothing more than 'skill' as, for Parry (1998, p.62), 'skills tend to be situational and specific, whereas competencies are generic and universal.' Kanungo and Misra (1992) distinguish between skills and competencies in a number of ways as outlined at Table 3-4 below.

The primary distinction for Kanungo and Misra is that skills refer to the ability to engage in an overt behaviour whereas competencies relate to the ability to engage in cognitive activity. At a more fundamental level, they highlight that skills and competencies differ in respect to transferability and argue that skills are generic in nature and specific to a situation or task, whereas competencies are transferable to a wider variety of tasks and situations. By way of example, Kanungo and Misra suggest that the skills to 'prepare a balance sheet' or 'maintain a ledger' are routine specific tasks and unlikely to be used elsewhere. In contrast, cognitive competencies such as analytical thinking and planning have greater transferability and may lead to other forms of overt behaviour on the part of the manager; such as proactive or reactive responses depending on the outcome and the environment. Moreover, Kanungo and Misra's analysis suggests that an individual may acquire a number of task specific skills

but that the correct and appropriate utilisation of these is likely to be dependent on cognitive competencies

Table 3-4: Distinction between skills and competencies
(Source: Kanungo and Misra, 1992, p.1322)

	Skills	Competencies
Nature of manifestation	<i>Overt behavioural system or sequence</i>	<i>Cognitive meditational activities</i>
Nature of tasks	<i>Routine or programmed</i>	<i>Non-routine or unprogrammed</i>
Environmental characteristics	<i>Handle stable environment</i>	<i>Handle complex volatile environment</i>
Generalisability to other tasks and situations	<i>Limited to similar tasks and situations</i>	<i>Extended to a wide variety of tasks and situations</i>
Locus / mainspring	<i>Task driven</i>	<i>Person dependent</i>
Generic potential	<i>Fixed</i>	<i>Unlimited</i>

To summarise, therefore, a narrow definition of skill will relate to ability, whilst broad skills definitions relate to cognitive activity and behaviours, though with regards to cognitive aspects these may more accurately be defined as competencies. However, to further complicate the issue – and despite the identifiable differences between skill and competence – the use of the term ‘competence’ itself is said to be particularly ambiguous depending on the setting and context in which it is used (Winterton, Le Deist and Stringfellow, 2006). Certainly, two key uses of the term competence exist (as outlined at Table 3-5 below), with ‘competence’ (plural competences) defined as ability based on work related tasks and, secondly, ‘competency’ (plural competencies) referring to ability based on behaviour (Whiddett and Hollyforde, 2003; Hayton and McEvoy, 2006; Whiddett and Hollyforde, 2007; Egan, 2011).

The differing terms of competency and competence have also been linked to different theoretical schools of thought’ with the term competency linked to the ‘American School’ and competence associated with the ‘UK School’. Moreover, the terms of competency and competence are often used interchangeably in the literature without reference to either parent body of literature. To clarify the terms, for Le Deist and

Winterton (2005), competence refers to functional areas and competency to behavioural areas. Hayton and McEvoy (2006, p.292) note a similar distinction, with competence being a measure of performance and competency seen as 'a class of things that can be used to characterise individuals.'

Table 3-5: Key differences between competency and competence
(Adapted from, Whiddett and Hollyforde, 2003, p.6)

	Competency (plural competencies)	Competence (plural competences)
Focus	<i>The person</i>	<i>The job / role</i>
Summary	<i>Behaviours observed in effective people</i>	<i>Related tasks in the job / roles</i>
Examples	<i>Interpersonal effectiveness</i>	<i>Dealing with enquiries</i>
Performance indicators	<i>Behavioural statements</i>	<i>Outputs from the job, task or role</i>
Examples	<i>Adopts style of interaction to take account of feelings of others</i>	<i>Accurately completes enquiry forms</i>
	<i>Shares information to gain commitment from others</i>	<i>Replies within agreed deadlines</i>
		<i>Accurately enters details on database</i>

Following a review of the meanings associated with the term, Le Deist and Winterton (2005, p.39) propose a typology of competence (see Figure 3-4 below). For them, the areas of 'knowledge and understanding' are captured by the heading of cognitive competence, 'skills' are considered functional competencies, and 'behavioural and attitudinal competencies' are inclusive in what they term social competence. Within the typology, meta-competence is a fourth and more complex dimension, in that it is concerned with 'facilitating the acquisition of the other substantive competencies.'

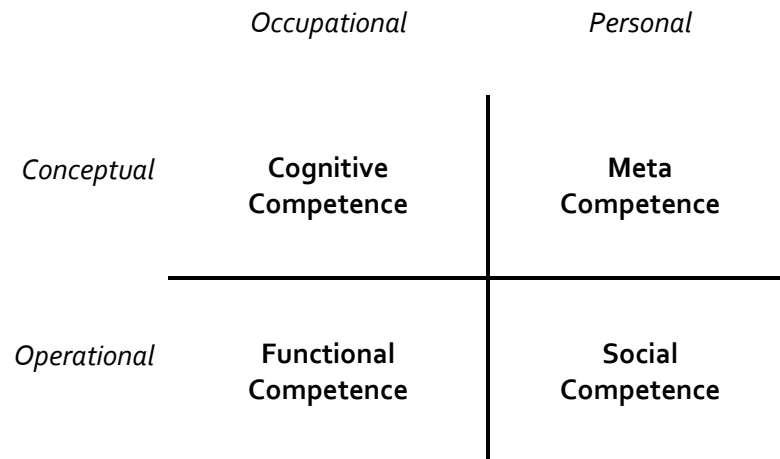


Figure 3-4: A typology of competence
(Source: Le Deist and Winterton, 2005, p.39)

3.6 ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILLS

As outlined above, entrepreneurs require a variety of skills in order to successfully manage an enterprise. Wickham (2006, p.100) defines skill as 'simply knowledge which is demonstrated by action', before going on to add that 'entrepreneurial performance results from a combination of industry knowledge, general managements skills and personal motivation'. Rae (2007) concurs, agreeing that both an entrepreneurial and managerial skill-set are required to run a successful venture and conceptualises these as 'entrepreneurial management capabilities' which include: leading and managing people, managing finances, personal organisation, innovation, strategic planning and investigating opportunity.

Chell (2008) employs a list of skills as practical indicators for judging the existence of entrepreneurial behaviour through textual analysis of a series of entrepreneurial cases. Whilst acknowledging that the individual constructs being assessed are 'complex and multifaceted', Chell identifies the expert term 'alertness' as the indicator of the ability to recognise an opportunity as an entrepreneurial behaviour. Conversely, 'leadership' denotes the ability to manage other people, whilst 'social' and 'strategic' competencies indicate networking and the ability to grow and sustain an enterprise. Chell identifies and scores these 'behaviours' and 'expert terms' and, whilst acknowledging that some may find the approach subjective, she suggests that the

expert terms (see Table 3-6 below), which elsewhere would be labelled simply as skills 'are being used as tools to indicate the form of life rather than an inherent trait within the individual' (p.214).

Table 3-6: Criteria for judging entrepreneurial behaviour
(Chell, 2008, p.211)

Creativity	Resourcefulness	Judgment	Resilience
Alertness	Persuasiveness	Risk Propensity	Flexible
Perception & Interpretation	Self Efficacy	Social Competence	Manipulative
Business Acumen	Self- Confidence	Political Astuteness	Stamina
Social / Market Awareness	Leadership	Adeptness	Strategic Competence

Chell's work and the selection and identification of appropriate entrepreneurial skills, expert terms or markers as criteria would therefore seem to hold some practical value for the study of entrepreneurship. However, as Ray (1993) notes, when entrepreneurial skills are cited in the literature they are often accompanied by a lack of clarity as to meaning and importance. For instance, Ray queries the conceptual line between skills and attributes as in for instance the distinction between 'opportunity seeking' and 'opportunity identification', noting that the former is behaviourally oriented whilst the latter is more skill based and can be taught.

Skills also underpin the work of Lazear (2004; 2005), who maintains that an entrepreneur is not necessarily required to be an expert in any single skill but, instead, is required to be a jack-of-all-trades (JAT). He argues that, in order to be successful, one must be 'sufficiently skilled in a variety of areas to put together the many ingredients required to create a successful business' (Lazear, 2005, p.676). Moreover, the JAT view of entrepreneurship is supported by Wagner (2003; 2006) and Astebro and Thompson (2011) who suggest that having a balanced skills mix stimulates entrepreneurship.

In contrast, Silva (2007) proposes a more cautious interpretation of the JAT approach, having found in a longitudinal study of Italian entrepreneurs that acquiring a wider skill set was not significant. Here, Silva speculates that would-be entrepreneurs purposefully invest in an intentionally broad skills mix that, in turn, increases the likelihood of running a business. Although Asteboro and Thompson (2011) are more broadly in favour of the JAT approach, they do extend their argument and propose that those with a greater taste for variety are more likely to become entrepreneurs, suggesting that a more varied education and employment history and, thus, skill-set is a likely expression of this taste. These later considerations aside, the implication of the JAT approach to entrepreneurship is that those with a broad and balanced skill set are more likely to become entrepreneurs. Moreover, Lazear (2004) proposes that if a nascent entrepreneur does not possess a complete skill set, then any additional skills can be acquired.

The idea that skills can be acquired also underpins the work of Lichtenstein and Lyons (2001) who developed a skills based framework termed the 'Entrepreneurial Development System' (EDS). The EDS framework has been applied to rural areas of the United States to establish both the quantity and quality of an areas entrepreneurial capital and is based on three main premises: (1) ultimate success in entrepreneurship requires the mastery of a set of skills; (2) these skills can be developed; and (3) entrepreneurs do not all come to entrepreneurship at the same skill level (See also: Lyons, 2003). This system has also been utilised by Smith, Schallenkamp and Eichholz (2007) and Schallenkamp and Smith (2008) who present the skills framework under the headings of technical, managerial, entrepreneurial and personal maturity skills, as outlined in Table 3-7 below.

Under the EDS approach, respondents are asked to rank the skills they consider most useful in their practice as well as perform a self-evaluation of their own ability against each of the entrepreneurial skills presented. The self-assessment allows facilitators to gauge the level of entrepreneurial capital present and to establish whether this can be enhanced or maximised over time, following peer-support and entrepreneurial development education, amongst other interventions.

Table 3-7: Entrepreneurial Development System skills framework
(Adapted from: Schallenkamp and Smith, 2008)

Technical Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Operational: the skills necessary to produce the product or service ○ Supplies/raw materials: skills to obtain them, as necessary ○ Office or production space: the skills to match needs and availability
Managerial Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Management: planning, organising, supervising, directing, networking ○ Marketing/sales: identifying customers, distribution channels, supply chain ○ Financial: managing financial resources, accounting, budgeting ○ Administrative: people relations, advisory board relations ○ Higher-order: learning, problem-solving
Entrepreneurial Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Business concept: business plan, presentation skills ○ Environmental scanning: recognise market gap, exploit market opportunity ○ Advisory board and networking: balance independence with seeking assistance
Personal Maturity Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Self-awareness: ability to reflect and be introspective ○ Accountability: ability to take responsibility for resolving the problem ○ Emotional coping: emotional ability to cope with a problem ○ Creativity: ability to produce a creative solution to a problem

Lou and Baronet (2012) have also developed a framework to identify entrepreneurial skill, however, the approach taken by these authors begins to bridge the division between skill and competency. Not least, by their use of both terms to describe the phenomenon observed. Here, the skills and competencies are derived from qualitative interviews with entrepreneurs in France, Canada and Algeria prior to quantitative testing and principal component analysis which identifies eight skill and competency clusters, to include:

- i. Opportunity recognition and exploitation
- ii. Financial management
- iii. Human resources management
- iv. Marketing and commercial activities
- v. Leadership
- vi. Self-discipline
- vii. Marketing and monitoring
- viii. Intuition and vision

However, Chell (2013) urges caution and reminds us that skills are not the same as

competencies and that they should also be distinguished from ability and aptitude. Thus, it is now appropriate to begin a separate discussion in respect to the literature on entrepreneurial competencies. This is prior to a detailed discussion of the skills and competencies in both rural and farm settings and within tourism.

3.7 ENTREPRENEURIAL COMPETENCIES

In contrast to skills and abilities, the 'competency approach' has emerged as an increasingly popular means of studying entrepreneurial characteristics with entrepreneurial competencies identified as important to business growth and success (Mitchelmore and Rowley, 2010). What is more, for Omrane and Fayolle (2011, p.140), competencies can help address the 'central question in entrepreneurship' as to 'why certain entrepreneurs succeed better than others?' Man, Lau and Chan (2002, p.124) describe competencies as 'higher level characteristics, representing the ability of the entrepreneur to perform a job role successfully.' For Bird (1995, p.51), entrepreneurial competencies are 'underlying characteristics such as generic and specific knowledge, motives, traits, self-images, social roles and skills which result in venture birth, survival and/or growth,' a list to which Caird (1990) adds possession of the 'appropriate attitude'.

Man, Lau and Chan (2002) distinguish between entrepreneurial and managerial competencies and suggest that whilst the first are prerequisites for starting a business, managerial competency is then required to grow the business. Bird (1995) concurs and distinguishes between essential baseline competencies – those required to plan or start a new venture – and those which contribute to success and contribute to a venture surviving and growing. Bird (1995) also notes that whilst some entrepreneurial competencies have been empirically supported, others remain at best theoretical and speculative. An additional limitation of the competency approach is that it is not definitive, with Bridge, O'Neill and Martin, (2009) highlighting that there are few competencies possessed by all entrepreneurs, just as some are possessed by non-entrepreneurs. Moreover, Caird (1990) notes the tendency within the literature to name competencies, rather than to identify them with the result that, potentially 'enterprise competency runs the risk of meaning everything and nothing.'

Whilst the entrepreneurial competency literature is still in its very early stages. (Brinckmann, 2007), the idea of competency and its origins in the wider business and management literature is more firmly established. For instance, White (1959, p.317) is credited with first introducing the concept of competency to describe motivation and superior job performance, defining it as 'effective interaction (of the individual) with the environment.' Later, McClelland (1976) also described characteristics which underpinned superior performance as competence and subsequently developed tests to predict for this known as 'job competence assessment' (JCA). Spencer and Spencer (1993, p.4) built on McClelland's JCA methodology through an analysis of six hundred and fifty job roles and identified, that for them, competence includes:

Motives, traits, self-concepts, attitudes or values, content knowledge, or cognitive or behavioural skills - any individual characteristic that can be measured or counted reliably and that can be shown to differentiate significantly between superior and average performers, or between effective and ineffective performers.

Boyzatis (1982), having studied the characteristics of over two thousand managers across twelve organisations, developed a model of managerial competency. His work identified over one hundred managerial competencies but was significant in that he subsequently proposed three competency levels of: (1) motives and traits, (2) social role, and (3) self-concept and role transitions.

With respect to the entrepreneurship literature that considers competency, Lans *et al.* (2010b) observe that two main strands emerge with the first seeking to identify the specific entrepreneurial competencies required in a variety of industries and the latter attempting to link the self-assessed competencies of individual entrepreneurs with venture performance. Thus, this section will now review these bodies of literature before going on to considering competency in the context of agriculture and farming as well as within tourism more generally.

Chandler and Jansen (1992) operationalise the competencies that the founder of a firm must assume against three roles, to include: (1) the entrepreneurial role, (2) the managerial role, (3) the technical-functional role. They asked the founders of one

hundred and thirty four firms based in Utah to provide self ratings using twenty one measures in six competency dimensions. Five factors emerged from their study, to include: (1) the ability to recognise opportunity, (2) the drive to see firm creation through to fruition, (3) technical-functional competence, (4) political competence, (5) human and (6) conceptual competence. With the last two merged to form one construct related to managerial competence (see Table 3-8 below).

Table 3-8: Self-perceived competencies of venture founders
(Source: Chandler and Jansen, 1992)

Human / Conceptual Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Organise and motivate people ○ Delegate effectively ○ Keep organisation running smoothly ○ Organising and coordinating tasks ○ Supervise, influence, lead ○ Maximise results in resource allocation ○ Organise resources
Ability to recognise opportunity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Identifying goods or services people want ○ Perceive unmet consumer needs ○ Look for products that provide real benefit ○ Seizing high-quality business opportunities
Drive to see venture through to fruition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Make venture work no matter what ○ Refuse to let venture fail ○ Make large personal sacrifices ○ Extremely strong internal drive
Technical / functional competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Expertise in a technical / functional area ○ Expert at the technical part of my work ○ Stay in my area of expertise
Political competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Involve people with important resources ○ Venture team with complementary competencies ○ Enlist the support of key people

Chandler and Jansen's work revealed that, for 'high-growth firms', the founders rated themselves highly for traditional entrepreneurial skills, which the authors identify as: the drive to see the venture through to fruition and the ability to recognise opportunity. For founders of 'highly profitable ventures', self rating scores revealed a high competency for managerial and technical skill. For those firms associated with high levels of growth and earnings, the perception of the founders was of holding competency in entrepreneurial, managerial and technical-functional roles, with the 'most successful founders seeing themselves as competent generalists' (p.234). In

acknowledging the study limitations, Chandler and Jansen recognise that it is not possible to determine whether perceived competence in either entrepreneurial, managerial or technical-functional roles was developed prior to, or concurrent with, the founding of the firm and call for longitudinal research in this area.

Using measures developed by Chandler and Jansen (1992), Chandler and Hanks (1994) explore the moderating effects of founder competence on venture performance of manufacturing firms in Pennsylvania (n=155). These authors test for both entrepreneurial and managerial competence in the context of firm performance; which they equate to both measured and perceived growth in market share along with changes in cash flow and sales growth. Chandler and Hanks found a direct relationship between a founder's entrepreneurial and managerial competence and firm performance; and it is thus considered important, as they demonstrate that competency may be more effective in predicting firm performance than experience alone. Moreover, and despite acknowledging the need for additional research in this area they acknowledge that their preliminary results infer that educators and policymakers should assist potential entrepreneurs to develop both entrepreneurial and managerial competence.

In later work, Man, Lau and Chan (2002) developed a model of entrepreneurial competency (see Table 3-9 below) that clusters or categorises six competency areas, including: (1) opportunity, (2) relationship, (3) conceptual, (4) organising, (5) strategic and (6) commitment competencies. Man, Lau and Chan propose that the entrepreneur needs to hold a balance of various competencies, with an emphasis on only a few these not being enough to ensure venture success.

Table 3-9: Entrepreneurial competency areas identified in the literature
(Source: Man, Lau and Chan, 2002)

Competency Area	Behavioural focus	Literature source [†]											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
(1) Opportunity Competencies	Competencies related to recognizing and developing market opportunities through various means		*	*		*		*			*	*	*
(2) Relationship Competencies	Competencies related to person-to-person or individual-to-group-based interactions, e.g., building a context of cooperation and trust, using contacts and connections, persuasive ability, communication and interpersonal skill		*		*	*	*	*		*	*	*	
(3) Conceptual Competencies	Competencies related to different conceptual abilities, which are reflected in the behaviours of the entrepreneur, e.g., decision skills, absorbing and understanding complex information, and risk-taking, and innovativeness		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
(4) Organising Competencies	Competencies related to the organization of different internal and external human, physical, financial and technological resources, including team-building, leading employees, training, and controlling	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
(5) Strategic Competencies	Competencies related to setting, evaluating and implementing the strategies of the firm	*	*		*		*	*		*	*	*	*
(6) Commitment Competencies	Competencies that drive the entrepreneur to move ahead with the business		*			*	*		*	*	*	*	

[†]Literature source: (1) Adam and Chell (1993); (2) Bartlett and Ghoshal (1997); (3) Baum (1994); (4) Bird (1995); (5) Chandler and Jansen (1992); (6) Durkan, et al., (1993); (7) Gasse (1997); (8) Hunt (1997); (9) Lau, et al., (1999); (10) McClelland (1987); (11) Mitton (1989); (12) Snell and Lau (1994)

By way of example, Man, Lau and Chan (2002) propose that a lack of organising competencies will affect the development of organisational capabilities, which will in turn hinder the utilisation of strategic and commitment competencies. Man, Lau and Chan's (2002) competency framework is conceptual in nature and, whilst underpinned by the literature base the authors acknowledge that it requires empirical study. Moreover, Man, Lau and Chan also recognise that whilst six major competency clusters have been identified, the individual competencies which lie within these areas must still be ascertained, along with the variables associated with each.

Taking the competencies in the above study as a basis, Man, Lau and Snape (2008) conduct an empirical study on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and SME performance in the Hong Kong service sector. Here, the competencies were pilot tested with fifty-five owner/managers and senior business executives, prior to a postal survey which was despatched to one hundred and fifty-three SME owner/managers. Unfortunately, it is not possible to comment fully on the findings as the authors are not clear in regard to the overall research design and in particular the variables that have been used to judge SME performance. However, what is a useful addition to the literature are the verbal statements, as listed in Table 3-10 below, that operationalises their study. Moreover, Man, Lau and Snape, observe that it will be interesting to note what entrepreneurial typologies emerge, if these competencies are used as the basis of classification, concluding that in classifying this way, it will be possible to offer them more focused training and assistance.

Table 3-10: Measures for identifying entrepreneurial competencies
(Source: Man, Lau and Snape, 2008)

-
1. Identify goods or services customers want.
 2. Perceive unmet consumer needs.
 3. Actively look for products or services that provide real benefit to customers.
 4. Seize high-quality business opportunities.
 5. Develop long-term trusting relationships with others.
 6. Negotiate with others.
 7. Interact with others.
 8. Maintain a personal network of work contacts.
 9. Understand what others mean by their words and actions.
-

(Continued)

(Continued)

-
10. Communicate with others effectively.
 11. Apply ideas, issues, and observations to alternative contexts.
 12. Integrate ideas, issues, and observations into more general contexts.
 13. Take reasonable job-related risks.
 14. Monitor progress toward objectives in risky actions.
 15. Look at old problems in new ways.
 16. Explore new ideas.
 17. Treat new problems as opportunities.
 18. Plan the operations of the business.
 19. Plan the organisation of different resources.
 20. Keep the organization run smoothly.
 21. Organize resources.
 22. Coordinate tasks.
 23. Supervise subordinates.
 24. Lead subordinates.
 25. Organize people.
 26. Motivate people.
 27. Delegate effectively.
 28. Determine long-term issues, problems, or opportunities.
 29. Aware of industry projected directions and how changes might impact the firm
 30. Prioritize work in alignment with business goals.
 31. Redesign the department and/or organization to better meet long-term objectives/changes.
 32. Align current actions with strategic goals.
 33. Assess and link short-term, day-to-day tasks in the context of long-term direction.
 34. Monitor progress toward strategic goals.
 35. Evaluate results against strategic goals.
 36. Determine strategic actions by weighing costs and benefits.
 37. Dedicate to make the venture work whenever possible.
 38. Refuse to let the venture fail whenever appropriate.
 39. Possess an extremely strong internal drive.
 40. Commit to long-term business goals.
 41. Learn from a variety of means.
 42. Learn proactively.
 43. Learn as much as I can in my field.
 44. Keep Up to date in my field.
 45. Apply learned skills and knowledge into actual practices.
 46. Maintain a high energy level.
 47. Motivate self to function at optimum level of performance.
 48. Respond to constructive criticism.
 49. Maintain a positive attitude.
 50. Prioritize tasks to manage my time.
 51. Identify my own strengths and weaknesses and match them with opportunities and threats.
 52. Manage my own career development.
 53. Recognise and work on my own shortcomings.
-

More recently, Mitchelmore and Rowley (2010) also sought to identify individual competencies. They propose a model that maintains a distinction between

'entrepreneurial' and 'business and management' competencies, along with additional clusters for 'human relations' as well as 'conceptual and relationship' competencies. Mitchelmore and Rowley's approach is again conceptual in nature and follows a review of the literature on entrepreneurial competencies, which is summarised at Table 3-11 below.

In generating this list, Mitchelmore and Rowley propose that it may be utilised as the basis of further research on competency. To a certain extent, this contrasts with an assertion by Hayton and McEvoy (2006) that generalisation should not be sought, given that competencies are both contextual and situational in nature. Mitchelmore and Rowley (2010, p.105) acknowledge this limitation but suggest that there may well be a 'unique set of characteristics that apply to all of those who can, have or might be entrepreneurial in business and community contexts'. Moreover, in addressing the additional limitations of clustering, the authors concede that many competencies may overlap – as in, for instance, managerial and leadership competencies – and that the context may well determine these interrelationships as well as the importance and prioritising of a competency.

In later work, Mitchelmore and Rowley (2013) apply their 'generic inventory of competencies' to a survey of female entrepreneurs in England and Wales. Here, four main clusters of competencies are identified as: (1) personal and relationship, (2) business and management, (3) entrepreneurial and (4) human relations competencies. These four competency clusters match those proposed in Mitchelmore and Rowley's earlier review (cited above) but it must be acknowledged that the 'Female Entrepreneurs Competency (FEC) Framework' that the authors present has been empirically tested and that the specific skill and competencies associated with each cluster are less generalised. Moreover, the FEC framework contributes strongly to what is otherwise a very limited discourse on entrepreneurial competency.

Table 3-11: A framework for entrepreneurial competencies
(Mitchelmore and Rowley, 2010)

Entrepreneurial Competencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Identification and definition of a viable market niche ○ Development of products of services appropriate to the firms chosen market ○ Idea generation ○ Environmental scanning ○ Recognising and envisioning taking advantage of opportunities ○ Formulating strategies for taking advantage of opportunities
Business and Management Competencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Development of the management system necessary for the long term functioning of the organisation ○ Acquisition and development of resources required to operate the firm ○ Business operational skills ○ Previous involvement with start-ups ○ Managerial experience ○ Familiarity with industry ○ Financial and budgeting skills ○ Previous experience ○ Management style ○ Marketing skills ○ Technical skills ○ Industry skills ○ The ability to implement strategy ○ Familiarity with the market ○ Business plan preparation ○ Goal setting skills ○ Management skills
Human Relations Competencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Development of the necessary organisational culture ○ Delegation skills ○ The ability to motivate others individual and in groups ○ Hiring skills ○ Human relations skills ○ Leadership skills
Conceptual and Relationship Competencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Conceptual competencies ○ Organisational skills ○ Interpersonal skills ○ The ability to manage customers ○ Mental ability to coordinate activities ○ Written communication skills ○ Oral communication skills ○ Decision making skills ○ Analytical skills ○ Logical thinking skills ○ Deal-making skills ○ Commitment competencies

Having now offered an overview of the foundations for the skill and competency constructs as well as a review of their application in the fields of entrepreneurship, it is now appropriate to review entrepreneurial skills and competency in the context of both rural and farm entrepreneurship, and tourism entrepreneurship, in the sections that follow.

3.8 RURAL AND FARM ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Writing as early as 1932, Wilcox identifies that it is the way in which the farm operator 'discharges his entrepreneurial function' and the skill with which this is performed that are the essential 'human factors in farm management' (p.121). This is later confirmed by Westermarck (1973, p.4) who studied the entrepreneurial human capital variables of Swedish farmers including, 'the age of the farm entrepreneur, his theoretical and vocational education and his mental ability,' finding a greater enterprise outlook amongst younger better qualified farmers, who it was identified, had made use of farm business planning advisory services. Moreover, Wilcox's (1932) remarks are echoed by Sachs (1973, p.194) who, in discussing the role of the farmer as an entrepreneurial personality, suggests that:

there is nearly complete agreement the entrepreneur is an important factor in any business, and if he controls the other production factors and combines them with the purpose of achieving economic success for the enterprise, he could be viewed as the most important factor

Given these citations, ranging in date from forty to over eighty years ago, the reader could be forgiven for assuming that the role of the farmer as entrepreneur is already widely acknowledged and understood. However, a careful review of the literature demonstrates this is not in fact the case, with Alsos, Ljunggren and Pettersen (2003, p.436) acknowledging, 'there is still a paucity of knowledge about which factors trigger the start-up of entrepreneurial activities among farmers.'

The purpose of this section, therefore, will be to review the intersection in the literature between entrepreneurship and agricultural and rural geography, as highlighted in the thematic overview presented at Figure 3-5 above. This, will involve a brief overview of the farmer conceptualised as an entrepreneur before discussion of the specific entrepreneurial skills and competencies that farmers now require to be successful. This discussion takes place in the context of the restructuring of rural areas as outlined in Chapter Two, with Van der Ploeg identifying that 'the viable farm' according to the discourse, 'is developed by the good entrepreneur' (2003, p.328), with 'exit from agriculture and farm closure... a defeat, proof of failure – since 'the good entrepreneur will make it' (2003, p.281).

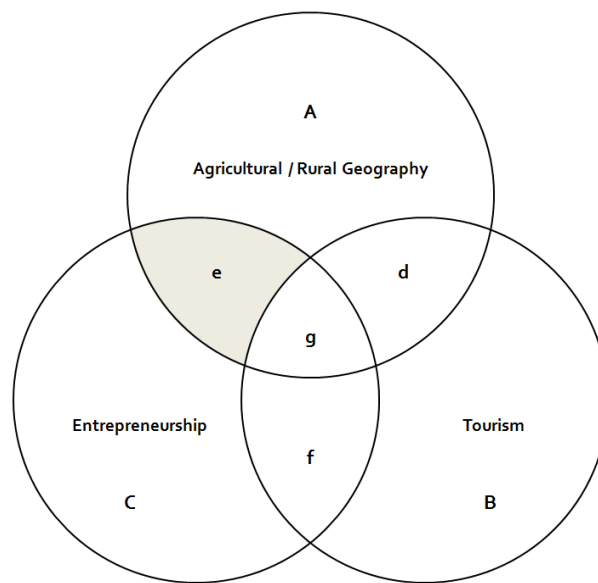


Figure 3-5: thematic overview – rural entrepreneurship

To a certain extent, it must be acknowledged that the difficulties associated with defining an entrepreneur – as has already been outlined earlier in the chapter – have also hampered the conceptualisation of the farmer as an entrepreneur. McElwee (2008) points to the works of Carter and Rosa (1998) and McNally (2001), who argue that the methods used to assess entrepreneurs in other sectors can be readily applied to the farm setting, before noting that the situation in regard to farms and farmers is much more complex.

For instance, McElwee highlights that the farmer can be an owner, tenant, manager, a subcontractor, or a combination of these and that the concepts of profit maximisation, separation of ownership and management control do not readily apply to a farm and in particular to a family farm. To counter these complexities, McElwee proposes that the researcher must highlight the distinction 'between the (social) identity of the farmer in relation to the (business) entity', as outlined in Table 3-12 below, as a precursor to engaging with the question 'what is the nature of the entrepreneurial farmer?' (p.470).

Table 3-12: The farmer and farm
(Source: McElwee, 2008, p.470)

<i>The farmer as...</i>	<i>The farm as...</i>
Entrepreneur	Organisation
Farmer	Business
Business person	Economic function
Social animal	Firm
Social entrepreneur	
Custodian of the countryside	

In seeking to conceptualise the issue, McElwee (2008) acknowledges that the farmer may be considered as the manager of a business or an entrepreneurial individual, and just as easily the two concepts may overlap. This complexity is addressed by his typology of the farmer as: (1) the traditional farmer who engages in limited diversification, with limited awareness of market opportunities; (2) the farmer as entrepreneur, who may undertake non-farming opportunities (such as tourism or food production) which become important for the rural economy; (3) the farmer as contractor, performing off-farm work to provide an income, which may in itself be undertaken in entrepreneurial ways; and (4) the rural entrepreneur who may well have ceased farming to concentrate on their alternative enterprises which may well have started as a diversified activity.

In a similar vein, Couzy and Dockes (2008) develop a typology of farming within two French regions, which comprises six farming profiles as outlined in Table 3-13 below. Here, Couzy and Dockes determine that four of these six types can be considered managers, what McElwee's earlier typology would perhaps consider as the farmer as business person, whilst only two relate to definitions of an entrepreneur. To a certain extent, these discussions are reminiscent of the potential development pathways for farmers as outlined in Chapter Two. However, what becomes apparent here is that some of these pathways are clearly entrepreneurial in nature whilst others can be seen as a less innovative and managerial response, while still others maintain the status quo and the social identity of traditional farming.

Table 3-13: The managerial and entrepreneurial identity of the farmer (n=40) (Adapted from, Couzy and Dockes, 2008)

<u>M</u>	Modernist farmers: <i>Aware of traditional values whilst developing a modern vision of their own they appreciate some decisional autonomy though surround themselves with advice.</i>
	Traditional farmers: <i>Manage autonomously and are wary of advice and who maintain the values of their parents and grandparents.</i>
	Dependent farmers: <i>Seeking security rather than change they are reassured by close personal support from advisors such as milk inspectors or industry figures.</i>
<u>E</u> <u>M</u>	Farming entrepreneurs: <i>Adaptable to markets they aim to succeed, possess commercial and managerial skills and the ability to take risks.</i>
<u>E</u> <u>M</u>	Entrepreneurial creators: <i>Innovative, adaptable, able to express an original idea and see it through to its conclusion even if this takes them outside of the traditional confines of a farming framework.</i>
<u>M</u>	Farmers with personal life objectives: <i>With a balance between family and profession they initiate personal, often tailor made, farming projects which are in line with their convictions and conception of life.</i>

M = Managerial Identity; E = Entrepreneurial Identity

Moreover, these sentiments are also expressed in an earlier study conducted by Alsos, Ljunggren and Pettersen (2003), who, following in-depth interviews in Norway (n=16) identify three types of farm household, as, (1) the pluriactive farmer, (2) the resource-exploiting entrepreneur, and (3) the portfolio entrepreneur. Alsos, Ljunggren and Pettersen's findings establish that the pluriactive farmer (n=7) feels that they have no choice but to engage in new business activity, often with a sense of duty, to maintaining the core farming business and the farm household way of life. The emphasis here is on utilising spare farm capacity, whether this be workforce or machinery, to develop additional household income. In contrast, the resource-exploiting entrepreneur (n =5), does not have as strong a tie to the core farming activity.

The new business activity developed by these households is seen as a way of capitalising on farm resources, though the activity may well be off-farm and may also be organised as a separate firm, with its own financial statements. Lastly, the portfolio entrepreneur (n=4) is motivated to start a new business to exploit a business idea. This

opportunity may not relate to the farm business or farm resources and as such these farmers often have weaker ties to farming and the farm residence. What is more, Alsos, Ljunggren and Pettersen's typology highlights that whilst many of the drivers of rural change (discussed in detail in Chapter Two) are acting as push factors for entrepreneurship, alternative motivators scenarios also exist. Thus, in the context of entrepreneurship, farmers are not a homogenous set of actors (McElwee, 2006; McElwee and Smith, 2012).

Pyysiäinen et al.(2006) present a case study of a Finnish dairy farmer who having diversified to cheese making, subsequently withdrew from this enterprise and returned to the core farming business. Within the case study, the authors identify that conventional farming and the diversified business required a broadly similar skill set. However, in reviewing the farmer's narrative on the reasons for closing the diversified activity, it becomes apparent that a wider set of entrepreneurial skills that relate to marketing and product development were also required, yet shown to be lacking (See also: McElwee, Anderson and Vesala, 2006). Moreover, the emphasis on the ability to understand the market as well as the meta-level skill of gaining access to resources and social ties or networks would also seem to be a key distinction between conventional farming and the diversified business (McElwee and Bosworth, 2010).

Thus, in the context of this withdrawal from diversification, it is apparent that 'the entrepreneurial skills required for diversified farming are clearly different from the ones required in conventional farming,' (Pyysiäinen, *et al.*, 2006, p.34). Later work by McElwee and Smith (2012) also indicates that different farm diversification strategies may require different skills. However, thus far, the farm entrepreneurship literature has yet to adequately determine if this is the case or to identify which strategic orientations and ventures require which skills. What is clear is that 'farmers need to develop new skills and update old ones in order to compete' (McElwee, 2008, p.474) . As such, the discussion now turns towards the literature on these skills needs.

3.8.1 Entrepreneurial Skills and Competencies in Farming

As outlined above, a reorientation of agriculture has seen the farmer increasingly

conceptualised as an entrepreneur. What is more, this reorientation has brought the farm owners skill set into renewed and sharper focus. For instance, McElwee and Robson (2005) identify six sets of skills, that farmers require, to include: (1) business and management skills (including accountancy, financial capability, strategic planning, people management), (2) co-operation and networking skills, (3) information technology skills, (4) marketing and selling skills, (5) entrepreneurial qualities and values, and (6) technical and professional (i.e. farming) skills. In a later Defra funded review, Hill (2007) identifies that the essential skills requirements for farmers include: business planning, financial management, people management, sales and marketing, collaboration, leadership and risk management. However, it must be noted that while both of the above lists include elements that are essentially entrepreneurial, they may be more accurately described as business and management skills and competencies. Moreover, it is clear that whilst a body of literature which emphasises the role of the farmer as entrepreneur is now emergent, it has not as of yet adequately considered the requisite skills set. However, one notable exception, is the work of the ESoF project, and the associated peer-reviewed publications, to which this discussion now turns.

The ESoF project was an EU funded project developed to examine the economic, social and cultural factors hindering or stimulating development of the 'Entrepreneurial Skills of Farmers' across six European countries (Switzerland, the UK, Finland, the Netherlands, Poland and Italy) (See: McElwee, 2005; de Wolf, Schoorlemmer and Rudmann, 2007; Rudmann, 2008; Vesala and Pyysiäinen, 2008a), as well as a number of peer-reviewed outputs from the ESoF project (See: Pyysiäinen, *et al.*, 2006; de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer, 2007; Vesala, Peura and McElwee, 2007; McElwee, 2008; Morgan, *et al.*, 2010). An initial phase of the project involved interviews with one hundred and twenty-five expert stakeholders to identify the requisite skills set for the farmer to succeed in the farm business. This was followed by a subsequent research phase, in which questionnaire and follow-up interviews were administered to one hundred and fifty-one farmers across the six nations represented.

As has been highlighted above, the initial ESoF research phase involved interviews with expert stakeholders which identified that a range of skills are required for the

farmer to succeed in the farm business. These skills are listed in Table 3-14 below, and for the purposes of the ESoF project, were clustered into the skill categories of: professional skills, management skills, opportunity skills, strategic skills and cooperation and networking skills.

Table 3-14: The skills that a farmers needs to succeed in business
(de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer, 2007, p.688)

Category	Underlying skills
Professional Skills	Plant or animal production skills Technical skills
Management Skills	Financial management and administration Human resource management Customer management General planning
Opportunity Skills	Recognising business opportunities Market and customer orientation Awareness of threats Innovation skills Risk management skills
Strategic Skills	Skills to receive and make use of feedback Reflection skills Monitoring and evaluation skills Conceptual skills Strategic planning skills Strategic decision-making skills Goal setting skills
Cooperation / Networking Skills	Skills to cooperate with other farmers and companies Networking skills Team-working skills Leadership skills

Professional skills were mentioned by respondents in all countries with the exception of the Netherlands, where it was hypothesised that these were seen as a basic requirement for all farmers. Also seen as essential were management skills, which through analysis of interview data could be placed into three main groupings of: (1) proper financial management and administration, required by the business for monitoring and planning purposes, (2) human resource management skills, to reflect the growing labour requirements and the need for a professional workforce, and, (3) customer management skills, which also incorporate marketing, selling and

negotiation skills, which were important for all farmers but especially those engaged in diversification (de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer, 2007; de Wolf, Schoorlemmer and Rudmann, 2007).

Other skills raised by respondents across all countries were the ability to identify market opportunities, maintain a market and customer orientation, and to be aware of threats. Here, the changing rural and agricultural environment is acknowledged as requiring farmers to recognise new opportunities (and thus become more entrepreneurial) to maintain their farm businesses. Risk management skills were also identified here as being closely related to identifying and exploiting opportunity, as were IT, communication and networking skills, as a means of gathering information. In regard to strategic skills, the ability to receive and utilise feedback, as well as one's attitude to this feedback, was seen as essential to improving business processes. Reflection, monitoring and evaluation skills and conceptual thinking were also identified as important elements of improving farm strategy and business processes. Co-operation and networking skills were again mentioned by respondents in all of the ESoF countries. Here, co-operation tended to indicate other farmers, whilst networking indicates those from non-farming communities (de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer, 2007; de Wolf, Schoorlemmer and Rudmann, 2007).

With regards to opportunity, strategic, co-operation and networking skills, de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer (2007) acknowledge that whilst these do broadly relate to key entrepreneurial skills identified in the literature, respondents were not asked to make this distinction (i.e. between entrepreneurial and other skills in their answers). However, the ESoF stakeholder findings do suggest that 'recognising business opportunities and strategic planning are major requirements for farmers to create and develop a profitable business [whilst] cooperation and networking skills, innovative abilities and risk-taking are important requirements to realise business opportunities' (p.690). Thus, whilst the ESoF interview data does not provide sufficient information to assess entrepreneurial skill per se, analysis of the findings presented is generally in line with the literature on entrepreneurship.

In addition to skill set, the expert stakeholders also identified additional traits and

human capital variables considered essential criteria for success, including the age and education level of farmers (see Table 3-15 below). In particular, respondents alluded to a relationship between education (specifically higher education) and entrepreneurial success. In regard to age, de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer (2007) note a paradoxical relationship, in that ordinarily younger farmers hold less experience but respondents indicated that it is the younger generation that is better suited and more able to develop entrepreneurial skill.

Table 3-15: Skills-related remarks made by ESoF respondents
(Source: de Wolf, Schoorlemmer and Rudmann, 2007, p.112)

Personal characteristics	Attitudes	Other
Flexibility, dealing with uncertainties	Positive attitude	Education
Creativity, innovativity	Pro-active attitude	Experience
Ambition, motivation, commitment	Open-minded	Age
Self-knowledge	Open to new things	Gender
Feeling responsible	Attitude to feedback	
Courage to do new things	Being interested in the	
Carefulness	job	
Honesty	Risk-taking attitude	
Immunity to stress		
Communicativeness, politeness		
Humour		
Dynamism		

As has been highlighted, the findings above arise from phase one of the ESoF study with expert stakeholders and a subsequent research phase, focused on farmers themselves (Vesala and Pyysiäinen, 2008a). Moreover, given the earlier observation that professional and managerial skills are now considered basic requirements for farmers, then opportunity, strategic, co-operation and networking skills were considered 'as proper entrepreneurial skills' (p.433) for this later phase. More specifically, these were conceptualised as the higher-order entrepreneurial skill areas, to include: (1) recognising and realising opportunities, (2) networking and utilising contacts, and (3) creating and evaluating a business strategy. Research here also categorised farmers by region and by farm business strategy adopted, to include: firstly, those farms that emphasise and prioritise primary agricultural production; secondly, those that engage in value adding activities (e.g. processing, niche

products); and thirdly, farms that embrace non-food diversification. More specifically, diversification was categorised as conventional (C), value-added (VA), and non-food diversification (NFD).

Broad patterns of skilfulness could be detected across each of the six EU countries and, largely, farmers were able to connect the skills identified with their own farming activity and experience. Further to this, an additional pattern became apparent in relation to variations in the degree of skilfulness, with some farmers having no hesitation in assessing themselves as skilful and others showing hesitation in regard to skill set. However, no variation in skilfulness across the three farm business strategic orientations (i.e. C, VA and NFD) is apparent with both skilful and less skilful farmers in each category. However, the way that skills manifested themselves in the self presentations of farmers within each category does become apparent. For instance, in conventional production, farmers' long-term decision-making was a typical manifestation of strategic skill, as was contact utilisation with the farming community, whilst networks outside of agriculture were scarce.

Opportunity recognition and realisation skill amongst conventional farmers tended to be restricted to the production arena, with the market arena manifestations much rarer. For value adding farms, strategic skill was apparent in short-term adjustments to production, product development and marketing and customer relationships. For VA farms, networks beyond the local farming community were also important and resulted in potential opportunities, as well as opportunity recognition and realisation, connected to both the market and production arenas. For non-food diversification businesses, strategic skill often manifests itself in synergy between activities and the combining of the primary agricultural production and diversified activity. As would be expected, NFD businesses realised networks beyond the agricultural community and recognised and realised opportunities again in both the production and market arenas (Rudmann, 2008; Vesala and Pyysiäinen, 2008a).

Overall, findings from the ESoF study suggest that any discussion of entrepreneurial skills must be linked to discussion of the role and strategies adopted by these farmers and the geographic settings within which this takes place (Morgan, *et al.*, 2010).

Moreover, the level of the farmer's entrepreneurial skills is seen to be indicative of the farmers economic autonomy (Vesala and Pyysiäinen, 2008a) but also can be seen as a reflection of their ability to respond to agricultural policy and regulation changes and ongoing CAP reform (Morgan, *et al.*, 2010). However, ultimately, it is proposed that farmers 'agree that entrepreneurial skills are important and relevant for their own business activities' (Vesala and Pyysiäinen, 2008b, p.38).

Moving the discussion beyond skills and towards competencies, Bergevoet (2005), using data from Dutch dairy farmers, explores craft, managerial and entrepreneurial competencies in relation to psychological variables and venture success. Bergevoet's work utilises many of the skills and competency areas previously highlighted, including opportunity, strategic, conceptual, organising and relationship competencies, and finds a positive relationship between higher scores in these competency areas and entrepreneurial venture success. However, it must be noted that respondents were asked to self-report against their own entrepreneurial success, thereby introducing a subjective element to the process. Later work by Bergevoet and Van Woerkum, (2006), with extension and agricultural training programs, identifies that entrepreneurial competencies can be enhanced through farmer led study groups, thus highlighting the potential for competency evaluation as a basis for agricultural extension programmes.

Nuthall (2006) also explores competence in a farming context, specifically, the relative importance of various management competencies amongst family farm businesses in New Zealand. He determines that, whilst a relatively broad range of skills are deemed important, these were largely common to all farm types, age groups and educational backgrounds, with variations in farm objectives not influencing the ranking of the skills. Along with skills related to primary production, as one might expect from a study of farm management, were statements related to managerial style and entrepreneurial skills, with information seeking, forecasting and an ability to negotiate ranking highly alongside other entrepreneurial skills including recognising opportunities, control belief and risk factors (See also: Nuthall, 2010).

A significant body of work also emerges from the 'Education and Competency Study

Group' at Wageningen University in the Netherlands (See: Mulder, 2001; Lans, *et al.*, 2005; Lans, *et al.*, 2007; Mulder, *et al.*, 2007; Lans, *et al.*, 2008; Lans and Mulder, 2009; Mulder, *et al.*, 2009; Lans, *et al.*, 2010a; Lans, *et al.*, 2010b; Lans, Verstegen and Mulder, 2011). The majority of this work, utilises competencies derived from the work of Man, Lau and Chan (2002) as discussed above, to explore entrepreneurial competencies in the agrifood sector, which includes farmers, market-gardeners and greenhouse horticulturalists. Within these contexts, the authors 'see entrepreneurship as a specific profession' with the 'knowledge and skills needed for successful professional performance' conceptualised as professional competence (Mulder, *et al.*, 2007, p.34).

Specifically, the Wageningen work extends the Man, Lau and Chan (2002) framework by establishing the underlying competencies against each meta-level competence cluster (see Table 3-16 and 3-17) to include underlying competencies such as learning orientation, problem analysis, self-management, strategic orientation and international orientation, amongst others. The justification for this is that competence domains identified in the Man, Lau and Chan (2002) framework 'are still rather broad' (Lans, *et al.*, 2010a, p.152).

In an early study, Lans *et al.* (2007) asked twenty greenhouse horticulture entrepreneurs to identify which competencies they had developed over the previous five years, along with those they believed they had the possibility of developing in the future. What is more, the study provides additional triangulation of data via internal assessment of these same competencies by an employee or co-worker, along with external assessment by a consultant. With regards to the competencies themselves, having a learning orientation and facility for self-management were considered essential by entrepreneurs, co-workers and consultants. However, with regards to international orientation and human resource management, it was identified that significant room for improvement exists.

Table 3-16: Competence clusters and their underlying competencies

Competence Cluster ^Δ	Description (behavioural focus) ^Δ	Underlying Competencies [†]
Opportunity Competencies	<i>Competencies related to recognising and developing market opportunities through various means</i>	General awareness; International orientation; Market orientation.
Relationship Competencies	<i>Competencies related to person-to-person or individual-to-group based interactions, e.g., building a context of cooperation and trust, using contacts and connections, persuasive ability, communication and interpersonal skills</i>	Communication; Negotiation; Networking; Persuasiveness; Teamwork.
Conceptual Competencies	<i>Competencies related to different conceptual abilities, which are reflected in the behaviours of the entrepreneur, e.g. Decision skills, absorbing and understanding complex information, and risk taking, and innovativeness</i>	Conceptual thinking; Problem analysis; Vision; Judgment.
Organising Competencies	<i>Competencies related to the organisation of different internal and external human, physical, financial and technological resources, including team building, leading employees, training and controlling</i>	HRM / HRD; Leadership; Planning and organisation.
Strategic Competencies	<i>Competencies related to setting, evaluating and implementing the strategies of the firm</i>	Learning orientation; Management control; Result orientation; Strategic orientation
Commitment Competencies	<i>Competencies that drive the entrepreneur to move ahead with the business</i>	Self-management; Value clarification; Vision

^Δ Competency areas and description as identified in review by Man, Lau and Chan (2002, p.132); [†] Identification of underlying competencies as determined by Lans, et al.(2005) perspective

Table 3-17: Entrepreneurial competencies in horticulture and agribusiness
(Mulder, *et al.*, 2007; Lans, *et al.*, 2010a)

Learning Orientation	Problem Analysis	Management Control
Self-Management	Organising	Value Clarification
Planning	Conceptual Thinking	Judgment
Market Orientation	Negotiating	Team Work
Result Orientation	Persuasiveness	Strategic Orientation
Networking	Vision	International Orientation
Leadership	General Awareness	HRM / HRD

One additional finding of note was that competencies were rated differently by each group, with the entrepreneurs rating their competency levels much lower than their co-workers and the external consultants did. This, the authors speculate, means 'that competence should not be seen as an objective measure, but should be viewed as a socially constructed object' (p.42).

In a later study with thirty-six Dutch horticulture entrepreneurs undertaken by Lans *et al.* (2010a), a similar self-assessment methodology indicates that organising, problem analysis and leadership competencies have been mastered to a high extent. In contrast, personnel management and international orientation were again highlighted as only holding a low level of competence. Again, data analysis of the owner/manager scores against the internal and external assessors highlights that the Dutch horticulture entrepreneurs have a tendency to underestimate their competence when measured against the opinions of the internal and external assessments.

In 2011, Lans, Verstegen and Mulder developed a three factor framework for entrepreneurial competence following research with three hundred and forty-eight agrifood owner-managers who participated in an educational program in the Netherlands. Again, the Wageningen approach emphasised the competency framework of Man, Lau and Chan (2002) which includes competency clusters for opportunity, relationship, conceptual, organising, strategic, and commitment competencies. Moreover, this framework also identified a number of underlying

competence dimensions, in the belief that the main framework itself is too broad (see again Table 3-16 and 3-17). The study itself comprised of a questionnaire which include fifty-seven entrepreneurial competence items which emerge from the above cited competency clusters. Data collection in the form of a Likert scale was subject to an exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis which produced three factors of (1) analysing, (2) pursuing, and (3) networking (see Table 3-18 below).

Table 3-18: Analysing, pursuing and networking in the Dutch Agrifood sector
(Source: Lans, Verstegen and Mulder, 2011)

Factor	Items/Statements
Analysing	I keep an eye on the main issues and can point out the heart of a problem (CON) I know how to describe the problems in my enterprise (CON) I easily separate facts, opinions (CON) I am very aware of my own weak and strong points (COM) I can name my business goals straightaway (STRA) I can easily look at things from various points of view (CON) I have a clear idea of where my enterprise will be in five years (STRA)
Pursuing	A look for new information all the time (OPP) I am continuously looking for new possibilities (OPP) I am often the first to try out new things (OPP) I accept challenges more often than colleagues in my sector (COM) I am not easily diverted from the goals I set myself (COM) I often negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding our prices (REL)
Networking	I have many networks outside the agricultural sector (REL) During my presentations I can put my ideas across easily to my audience (REL) I try to incorporate feedback from the public in my products (COM) Cooperation with entrepreneurs in my sector is important to me (REL) I'm open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) (COM)

Items in brackets refer to the original Man, Lau and Chan (Man, Lau and Chan, 2002) coding: OPP = opportunity; REL= relationship; CON= conceptual; STRA= strategic; ORG= organising; COM= commitment.

The first factor, labelled analysing, included statements relating to cognitive abilities and in particular analysis and interpretation. This factor was identified as being most closely connected to conceptual competence. The second factor, labelled pursuing, included statements that concerned attitudes as well as proactiveness and searching for opportunities. The third factor, termed networking, represented social

competence both with respect to persuasion and adjusting to others as well as managing networks, cooperating with other entrepreneurs and being open to suggestions and feedback.

Fundamentally, the three factors of analysing, pursuing and networking presented by Lans, Verstegen and Mulder (2011) challenges the six competence domains of Man, Lau and Chan (2002) in that they empirically present a different configuration. Moreover, the three-factor solution 'makes a distinction between competencies that focus on *getting ahead*, and competencies in the social domain, that is, *getting along*' (p.708). What is more, the results here challenge the pre-eminence of opportunity, conceptual and strategic competence domains evident in so many of the competence models and frameworks discussed above. However, Lans, Verstegen and Mulder (2011) do acknowledge that their results are context specific and that further empirical work is required in different sectors with different features.

3.9 TOURISM ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Entrepreneurship has been identified as a critical success factor for the tourism industry both globally and regionally, and tourism entrepreneurs have been advocated as the essential ingredient to develop a sustainable and viable industry, given their role in establishing attractions and supporting enterprises (Szivas, 2001; Koh and Hatten, 2002; Lordkipanidze, Brezet and Backman, 2005; Koh, 2006; Yang and Wall, 2008; Ateljevic, 2009; López, Buhalis and Fyall, 2009).

However, despite this, the field of tourism entrepreneurship remains an under researched area, with López Buhalis and Fyall (2009) highlighting that academic articles on the topic are few and far between, whilst those that are published lack empirical rigour. This observation is confirmed by Li (2008), who reviewed the top tourism and hospitality journals over a twenty-one year timeframe (to 2006) and found that only 2 percent of the total published articles addressed entrepreneurship. Moreover, Li is also critical of the body of work that was found, noting 'a lack of methodological sophistication' (p.1013), and that 'theoretical work [in tourism entrepreneurship] remains at a consistently low level' (p.1017). Among the articles reviewed, the majority were identified as being in the area of 'small firms' in tourism,

as well as strands of the literature that explore the relationship between firm size and survival, failure among small tourism firms and an additional track dedicated to entrepreneurial behaviour and activities (for a review of the literature on small firms in tourism, see: Morrison and Thomas, 1999; Morrison and Teixeira, 2004; Morrison and Thomas, 2004; Thomas, 2004; Morrison, Carlsen and Weber, 2010; Shaw and Williams, 2010; Thomas, Shaw and Page, 2011). Thus, with perhaps the exception of the entrepreneurial behaviour elements, the literature on tourism entrepreneurship would appear to be much less sophisticated than the parent body of entrepreneurship discourse from which it emerges.

To a certain extent, Li's findings are unsurprising, with a number of authors describing the tourism entrepreneur as an overlooked player, both in the context of rural tourism development (Wilson, *et al.*, 2001) and from the perspective of tourism development by and large (Koh and Hatten, 2002; Russell and Faulkner, 2004; Koh, 2006). Moreover, Shaw and Williams (2010, p.6) propose that with regards to tourism studies generally, 'the last three decades have... been a period of missed opportunities, emanating in part from the distancing of tourism research from what may be termed generic or mainstream SME research.' Moreover, Shaw and Williams (2010, p.11) stress that research themes on tourism SMEs have emphasised their 'uniqueness', particularly in respect to lifestyle entrepreneurship with the result that there has been a 'dislocation of the research on tourism SMEs from wider SME studies' which has marginalised tourism researchers from the wider field.

To some extent the emphasis on uniqueness and resulting dislocation from mainstream bodies of literature is understandable, Indeed, Morrison, Rimington and Williams (1999, p.13) argue that the 'majority of small firms in the UK can be termed lifestyle businesses' given they are largely motivated by maintaining a particular way of life. Certainly, lifestyle entrepreneurship has become a fruitful area of tourism research (See for instance, Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000; Hollick and Braun, 2005; Schuckert, Peters and Fessler, 2008; Peters, Frehse and Buhalis, 2009; Lashley and Rowson, 2010). However, the purpose of this section is not to consider lifestyle entrepreneurship *per se*, or even the totality of the evidently limited tourism entrepreneurship literature but, rather, to consider the attributes of the individual

tourism entrepreneur and to identify the skills and competencies that this body of work proposes as essential ingredients.

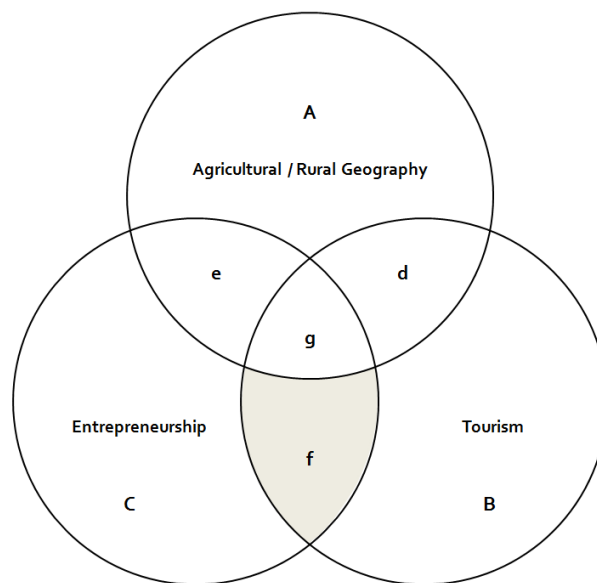


Figure 3-6: Thematic Overview – Tourism Entrepreneurship

Of these tourism entrepreneurs, Koh and Hatten (2002, p.32–39) develop a conceptual typology of nine types, to include:

- The inventive tourism entrepreneur: whose offer is entirely new to the industry, as for example, when Thomas Cook launched his tour agency.
- The innovative tourism entrepreneur: who offers something entirely new, for instance, casino hotels or the creation of Disneyland.
- The imitative tourism entrepreneur: where the enterprise offer holds little difference against the established offer, as in the case of franchisees, or differentiated motels, restaurants and cafes etc.
- The social tourism entrepreneur: who founds not-for-profit enterprises such as museums, galleries and community initiatives.
- The lifestyle tourism entrepreneur: who as the name suggests launches enterprises to support their desired lifestyle, hobby or interests with little intention of growing the venture.
- The marginal tourism entrepreneur: who operate businesses in the informal economy and are tolerated but unregulated or unregistered by government. These might include street traders, hawkers and unlicensed tour guides.

- The closet tourism entrepreneur: who moonlights and operate enterprises alongside a full-time job.
- The nascent tourism entrepreneur: whose venture is in the creation or early stages of being establishing as a touristic enterprise
- The serial tourism entrepreneur: to include those who have founded more than one touristic organisation including those whose initial enterprise(s) may have failed.

Koh and Hatten's (2002) typology demonstrates elements of a behavioural approach to entrepreneurship even though this is not explicitly stated. In regard to the psychology of tourism entrepreneurs, a number of authors have utilised the traits approach to explore aspects of personality. For instance, Berger and Bronson (1981) asked fifty successful hospitality entrepreneurs in the US to complete a psychological inventory which included values as diverse as self actualising, spontaneity, intellect, self-control, harmony and accomplishment. As a result, they paint a psychological portrait of the hospitality entrepreneur as an individual who emphasises accomplishment, self-respect, family security, honesty, ambition and a strong sense of self-worth.

Legohérel *et al.* (2004) use personality traits including attitude to risk and decision choice to understand hospitality managers as small business entrepreneurs and found that an individual's outlook has a significant influence on the strategic direction and performance of the firm. Schiebel (2005) uses three personality traits, locus of control problem-solving and social initiative, to judge the success of rural tourism operators in Austria under the assumption that successful entrepreneurs will differ with respect to levels of success. The study produced a typology of rural tourism operators following the gathering of questionnaire data (n=881) using the above cited personality traits. The typology identified six entrepreneurial types to include: (1) self-responsible (21.5 percent), (2) powerless (9.6 percent), (3) helpless (17.3 percent), (4) politically or socially inactive (10.7 percent) and (5) indifferent (40.8 percent). However, it must be acknowledged that the studies detailed above do not enter into any discussion as to the limitations of psychology and trait-based theories of entrepreneurship as acknowledged in earlier in this chapter.

From a more general and, what might be loosely termed, a human capital perspective, Morrison and Teixeira (2004) identify that small tourism firms suffer from 'financial and human resource poverty' which can include: (1) lack of ambition and vision, (2) gaps in managerial competencies, and (3) a limited resource capability to narrow any identified skills gaps. However, later work by Morrison (2006, p.204) suggests this finding is unsurprising having noted that tourism and hospitality are 'characterised by relatively low professional, skill and financial barriers to entry.' Lordkipanidze, Brezet and Backman (2005) confirm this human resource poverty in the context of Swedish rural tourism development, acknowledging an identifiably low skill level along with a lack of awareness or understanding of tourism and an inherent resistance to change.

Ioannides and Petersen (2003) identify a number of characteristics of tourism entrepreneurs on the Danish Island of Bornholm. This includes a general lack of professionalism, knowledge, experience and specialised training as well as more quantifiable issues such as an absence of formal business planning. Moreover, just over half of the sample (n=16) had no plan, defined action or strategy of any type. Ioannides and Petersen attribute these findings to the high proportion of retirees who have established tourism enterprises on Bornholm and argue that a lack of entrepreneurial attributes is hindering the destination's competitiveness.

Lashley and Rowson (2010) make similar observations amongst those who own and operate hotels and guesthouses in the English seaside resort of Blackpool. Here, they note that the owner-operators are not entrepreneurs in the classical sense but are lifestyle entrepreneurs whose key motivation is quality of life and in particular, the dream of owning a hotel by the sea. The net result, they argue, is a lack of business and entrepreneurial skill amongst the hoteliers sampled, with some respondents reporting that 'common sense' is all that is required. Furthermore, Lashley and Rowson identify that the consequences for the resort include a high churn rate in hotel operators – with many lifestyle entrepreneurs reporting that the business had not met their expectations being the prime reason for sale – as well as serious quality implications for the resort owing to a lack of business expertise, training and commercial objectives.

3.9.1 Entrepreneurial skills and competencies in tourism

Weiermair, Siller and Mössenlechner (2006, p.33) consider entrepreneurship in the context of Butler's (1980) Tourism Area Life-Cycle and in particular Alpine tourism. They note a number of skills and competencies that the entrepreneur will require though it must be acknowledged, that these do not align easily with the review of skills and competencies discussed in the chapter thus far. Specifically, Weiermair, Siller and Mössenlechner (2006, p.33) develop a list of entrepreneurial attributes that they believe are required in the context of 'turbulent, saturated and/or declining tourism markets,' to include:

- I. A clear vision of evolving customer needs, markets, and market requirements;
- II. Adequate market research information to calculate risk properly;
- III. The ability to delegate, outsource, and form different types of contractual and partnership alliances;
- IV. A capability to develop new business models, organizational structures, and new forms of financing;
- V. Securing risk or venture capital as an important source of financing for new products and markets;
- VI. Change management capacity and in particular overcoming institutional inertia, outdated mindsets, and/or vested and ineffective interests;
- VII. An understanding of the impacts of information technology and E tourism practices on the production and marketing of tourism services and experiences;
- VIII. The aptitude to deal with and understand the complexity of service, product, or experience quality for customers;
- IX. The capability to plan and think globally and translate this into local actions; and
- X. The ability to lead and motivate people in the organization.

Jonker, Saayman and De Klerk (2009) determine the six entrepreneurial attributes of entrepreneurs at the Klein Karoo National Arts Festival in South Africa via a questionnaire survey (n=249) to include: organisational skills, self edification, explorative, acquired skill, drive as well as resourcefulness which had the highest mean value. Here, the concept of resourcefulness was quite broad in scope to include innovation, initiative, creativity, dedication, vision and optimism, all of which are easily recognisable entrepreneurial and higher order competencies already acknowledged in the literature review thus far.

Many of the studies noted above report low skill levels as well as a devaluing of the concept of skill, a finding that Thomas and Long (2001, p.238) confirm for the tourism sector generally where they also highlight, more critically, that 'low skills expectation is connected to low business performance.' The findings above also suggest that many tourism entrepreneurs and, in particular, lifestyle entrepreneurs assume that they already have the requisite skills set to enter the industry.

This finding is confirmed by Szivas (2001) who identified a tendency amongst respondents in Somerset and Coventry (n=309) to rely on 'learning on-the-job' where gaps were identified in both business and sector specific skills. Moreover, Szivas asks respondents to choose from nine areas of entrepreneurial skills and knowledge that they believe they need in their role. The three strongest elements emerge as people handling, marketing and accounting, although it is not clear how the research design established these nine areas and it must be acknowledged that they are not fully representative of the entrepreneurial skills and competencies already highlighted above.

Table 3-19: useful skills from running a tourism business
(Source: Szivas, 2001, p.170)

Useful skills	No. mentions
Ability to handle people	90
Knowledge of finance and accounting	61
A knowledge of marketing	54
Ability to make contacts	31
A knowledge of the tourism industry	11
Ability to use computers	10
Other	8
A knowledge of economics	6
Ability to speak foreign language(s)	2

Haber and Reichel (2007), using data gathered through face-to-face interviews with three hundred and five tourism ventures in Israel, identify that the human capital of the entrepreneur, in the form of managerial skills, is the greatest contributing factor performance. However, the human capital variables that underpin the study are managerial skills, education level and prior entrepreneurial experience and the

research presented does not offer any further breakdown against these criteria. Haber and Reichel are not explicit with regards to the elements the skill set comprises, making comparisons against other skill-based empirical studies difficult, though it does reinforce the importance to venture success of the owner/entrepreneurs skill set.

A later study by Foster, McCabe and Dewhurst (2010) does offer a detailed breakdown of the management skills set required in the sector and emerges from survey responses of one hundred and seventy-eight Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire firms. The questionnaire asked respondents to rate the importance of thirty-nine key management skills using a five-point Likert scale and to rate the level of management competency using the same scale. The skills measured by Foster, McCabe and Dewhurst are presented in Table 3-20 below and lead to some complex results according to the specific subsector analysed (i.e. Bed & Breakfasts, visitor attractions, tourist information centres etc.) but generally show deficiencies relating to marketing, customer services and financial skills.

Moreover, the research by Foster, McCabe and Dewhurst (2010) identified deficiencies in at least half of the skills presented but noted that this did not translate into an evident desire to up skill with many businesses reporting no intention to engage in management development training as they felt there was no clear business case to do so.

What the discussion above reveals is that, further to a lack of methodological sophistication and theoretical development in regard to tourism entrepreneurship generally (Li, 2008), there has also been less of an emphasis on the requisite entrepreneurial skills and competencies. More specifically, some limited discussion of skill has been evidenced above but the concept of entrepreneurial competencies has yet to be embraced by the tourism literature, at least not to the extent, the competency frameworks have been embraced by the rural and farm entrepreneurship literature.

Table 3-20: Requisite skills for tourism and hospitality managers'
(Source: Foster, McCabe and Dewhurst, 2010)

Managing people in the business: *Training and developing others, coaching and mentoring, assessing training needs; Motivating individuals and teams; Monitor staff performance, conduct staff reviews/appraisals, praise and discipline staff effectively; Understand team dynamics and applying team building techniques; Interviewing and recruit suitable staff.*

Winning and keeping customers: *Understanding customer expectations, meeting or exceeding them and handling complaints; Differing methods of measuring customer satisfaction levels and the associated costs and benefits; Setting quality standards, monitor and evaluating them; Understanding differing quality assurance schemes; Identifying and assessing potential customer groups, their behaviour, buying patterns and needs.*

Understanding and selling to your market: *Understanding the nature of the tourism /hospitality business and the changing nature of the wider environment; Identifying and assessing opportunities to expand into new tourism / hospitality markets; Creating and monitor sales/marketing campaigns and promotions; Understanding and assessing different sales / marketing channels, i.e. advantages, disadvantages, costs and benefits; The role of branding and / or corporate image.*

Managing cash flow and finances: *Analysing financial performance; Financial forecasting; Understanding / monitoring budgets, cash flow, profit and loss; Sales reconciliations, Conducting cost and benefit analysis.*

Creating and managing business systems: *Creating / writing business plans and understanding business development; managing resources efficiently and minimising adverse environmental impacts; The principles and activities of project management; Operating job-specific systems (e.g. labour scheduling, stock control); The role of technology in the workplace and assessing the potential for development.*

Effective business networking and communication: *Principles of effective communication, selecting / applying them effectively in different contexts; Creating / delivering clear and concise presentations in ways that promote understanding; Methods for identifying and pursuing opportunities to work in partnership with others; Listening, understanding and negotiating with others; The importance and characteristics of different stakeholders.*

Managing legislation and government requirements: *The legislative and ethical restrictions relating to the collecting, storing and sharing of information; Identifying responsibilities and liabilities under health and safety legislation; Identifying and ensuring compliance with responsibilities and liabilities under equality legislation and codes of practice.*

General management: *Understanding linkages between decisions and business outcomes (e.g. profit, customer satisfaction); Problem solving; Making effective decisions; Time management and working under pressure; Implementing and managing workplace changes*

3.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has introduced and discussed the main theoretical schools of thought in regards to the study of entrepreneurship, prior to introducing the main skills and competency frameworks, in both the general entrepreneurship literature, as well as the fields of rural and farm entrepreneurship, and tourism entrepreneurship. Firstly, it has shown that there remains a lack of consensus concerning the definitions of both the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship, whether this be the pursuit of opportunity (Shane, 2003a), or venture creation (Gartner, 1988, 1989). Secondly, this chapter has highlighted that these differing perspectives rest, to a certain extent, on the theoretical approach adopted. In this regard, the traits approach is shown to have a basis in personality theory and to value certain aspects of the entrepreneur's personality such as achievement motivation, locus of control and propensity for risk. Moreover, whilst there has been much criticism of the traits approach (as evidenced in section 3.2.4), the idea that the entrepreneur is a charismatic individual, with certain attributes not held by others, remains a consistently held view. In contrast, the behavioural approach, while still drawing from psychology, focuses on what the entrepreneur does and not who the entrepreneur is. Here, cognitive processes including self-efficacy, scripts and cognitive bias provide the foundation for understanding this entrepreneurial action. In the third of the approaches discussed, opportunity identification was highlighted as an active area of discussion within the entrepreneurship literature which centres upon the nature of opportunities (Schumpeterian versus Kirznerian) and the role of the individual relation to this pursuit of opportunity. Finally, the human capital approach to entrepreneurship was identified as also holding some value. More specifically, an aspect of entrepreneurial human capital that includes skills and competencies was introduced. With skills shown to be overt and behavioural and task driven, whilst competencies are cognitive and dependent upon the individual (Kanungo and Misra, 1992).

Having provided these foundations, this chapter went on to detail entrepreneurial skills and competencies through a review of the key skill and competency frameworks of Schallenkamp and Smith (2008), Lou and Baronet (2012), Chandler and Jansen (1992), Man Lau and Chan (2002), Man Lau and Snape (2008) and Mitchelmore and Rowley (2010). Moreover, entrepreneurial skill and competencies within the context

of farm entrepreneurship were also discussed and in particular the body of work that emerges from the EU funded 'Entrepreneurial Skills of Farmers Project' (de Wolf and Schoorlemmer, 2007; Rudmann, 2008; Vesala and Pyysiäinen, 2008a) as well as a body of work on entrepreneurial competencies in horticulture and agribusiness which emerge from those working at Wageningen University (Mulder, *et al.*, 2007; Lans, *et al.*, 2008; Mulder, *et al.*, 2009; Lans, *et al.*, 2010a; Lans, Verstegen and Mulder, 2011). Subsequently, discussion emphasised entrepreneurship within tourism discourse though it was identified that discussion of skills and competencies within this literature base was far more limited and indeed, our understanding of entrepreneurship in the context of tourism generally remains fragmented and limited (Li, 2008). Ultimately, this chapter has shown that human capital approaches to the study of entrepreneurship and in particular entrepreneurial skills and competencies holds real potential for understanding the dynamics of the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur. Thus, the purpose of the chapters that now follow is to introduce the research design that will facilitate the examination of the roles and skills and competencies and diversification to farm tourism (Chapter Four), prior to an analysis and discussion of the exact nature of the skills and competencies (Chapters Five, Six and Seven).

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

4.0 CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce and justify the research design and data collection tools employed within the present study. It begins by introducing the concept of research paradigms and the epistemological and ontological principles used in the social sciences. Following this, the chapter outlines the 'sequential explanatory' mixed method research design that has been adopted in the current thesis and which utilises both quantitative and qualitative approaches within a pragmatist research paradigm. This discussion, is a precursor to explaining and justifying the methods of data collection adopted within the two sequential phases of this research design namely, a postal questionnaire at Phase One and the use of Q Methodology – as an innovative research approach – at Phase Two.

4.1 INTRODUCING RESEARCH PARADIGMS

Paradigm thinking is an acknowledged way of understanding research methodology and refers to an established way of doing things or to a set of assumptions or perceptions shared by members of a research community (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). More specifically, a paradigm will determine how this community studies a phenomenon as well as determining the research methods employed (Blaikie, 2004; Donmoyer, 2008; Kelemen and Rumens, 2008). The paradigm construct was developed and popularised by Thomas Kuhn in his 1962 book 'The Structure of Scientific Revolutions' and, despite a lack of conceptual clarity, has subsequently been much debated and discussed in both the natural and social sciences (Masterman, 1970). One common interpretation of Kuhn's paradigm idea is that it relates to a 'disciplinary matrix' to include: commitments, beliefs, values, methods and outlooks, that indicate a worldview or shared general perspective, across a discipline (Schwandt, 2007).

In the years following the publication of Kuhn's monograph, discussion of contrasting paradigms, methodologies or worldviews has provoked intense debate that has been sensationally termed the 'paradigm wars' (See: Gage, 1989; Hammersley, 1992; Oakley, 1999; Bryman, 2006; Bryman, 2008). As a consequence, researchers in the social sciences now have a tendency to define themselves with respect to their 'differentness', distinguishing themselves according to the research paradigm or

worldview to which they belong (Alasuutari, Bickman and Brannen, 2008; Bryman, 2008). Elements of 'differentness' within these paradigm debates include philosophies such as positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism, as well as contrasting technical methods in the form of quantitative and qualitative approaches. The following sections of this chapter will consider these underlying theoretical perspectives and methods in more detail. This discussion is followed by the introduction of a mixed method research design that integrates both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and which emerges as a 'third way' from a growing pragmatism in the context of the wider paradigm debate.

4.2 EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND ONTOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

As noted above, it is important to identify the paradigm that underpins a programme of research and to make them explicit in order to justify and explain the subsequent choice of research method. Indeed, to ignore them, is to potentially compromise the quality of the research presented (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Creswell, 2009). What is more, whether labelled paradigm, worldview or research philosophy, the theoretical stance that underpins a chosen methodology indicates the principles that relate to a researcher's ontological and epistemological position; terms themselves which require careful consideration and explanation. Specifically, ontology concerns the assumptions we make about how the world is made up, the nature of things and our perceptions of reality (Crotty, 1998; Spratt, Walker and Robinson, 2004), whereas epistemology is the branch of philosophy that deals with the nature of knowledge and, in looking at the world, seeks to make sense of it; in short 'how we know what we know' (Crotty, 1998, p.8).

Ontological assumptions about the way the world operates can originate from either an objectivist or subjectivist position. Researchers with an objectivist view assume that social entities are external to, and independent of, social actors. In contrast, those taking a subjectivist approach believe that social phenomena are influenced by social actors (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Crotty, 1998). Moreover, subjectivism assumes that these social phenomena are in a constant state of flux. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the details of a situation in order to understand what is happening or to understand fully the reality behind these events (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).

As observed above, epistemology is concerned with what constitutes acceptable knowledge within the field of study and, with respect to epistemological stance, two main philosophical traditions or competing paradigms must be considered namely positivism and interpretivism (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Creswell, 2009) (see Table 4-1 below).

Table 4-1: A comparison of research philosophies and approaches
(Adapted from: Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007, p.140)

	Positivism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism*
Ontology: <i>The view the nature of reality or being</i>	External, objective and independent of social actors.	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple.	External, multiple, view chosen to best enable answering the research question.
Epistemology: <i>The view regarding what constitutes acceptable knowledge</i>	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law-like generalisations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements.	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon the details of situation, a reality behind these details, subjective meanings motivating actions.	Either or both of observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent on the research question. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data.
Data collection <i>Techniques most often used.</i>	Highly structured, large samples, measurement, quantitative, but can use qualitative.	Small samples, in-depth investigations, qualitative.	Mixed or multiple method designs, quantitative and qualitative.

*A discussion of pragmatism as a research philosophy follows later in this chapter, but is included here has a useful cross-reference.

Essentially, a positivist philosophical stance is said to reflect the principles of the natural sciences. Proponents of a positivist worldview typically argue that knowledge can only be arrived at by gathering verifiable facts, testing theories and making generalisations for the development of laws in a way that is objective and value free (Benton and Craib, 2001; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Snape and Spencer, 2007). In contrast, interpretivism (also outlined in Table 4–1 above) is the name given to the

contrasting epistemological position to positivism. Advocates of interpretivism subscribe to a philosophical worldview that the scientific model cannot be applied to the social world, arguing that the social world is too complex to allow for theorising and the generation of definite laws (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Snape and Spencer, 2007). More fundamentally, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007, p.106) suggest that interpretivism emphasises the importance of understanding the differences between humans in roles as social actors, emphasising that interpretivism emerges from the intellectual tradition of phenomenology. Stressing the importance of the term, they note that phenomenology, as a research philosophy, considers how individuals make sense of the world around them, and, 'see[ing] social phenomena as socially constructed... is particularly concerned with generating meanings and gaining insights in to these phenomena.'

Having discussed the respective epistemological orientations of positivism and interpretivism it is now also necessary to introduce the distinction between a quantitative and qualitative research strategy. Interestingly, such a distinction is considered by some to no longer be relevant, though it must be acknowledged that when discussing methodological issues the two terms, along with a discussion of the respective differences between the two approaches is still widely used (Bryman and Bell, 2007). At the most basic level, a distinction can be made between the two in that quantitative research involves data and measurement whereas a qualitative approach involves a greater emphasis on words rather than quantifiable data (Creswell, 2009). At a deeper level, however, Bryman and Bell (2007) point out that many consider the absence of quantification between the two research strategies to be a superficial distinction. Rather, it should be emphasised that quantitative and qualitative research strategies differ with respect to their epistemological and ontological orientations hence their inclusion in the discussion here as contrasting positions within the paradigm debate (Bryman, 2008).

Essentially, the quantitative approach is said to lend itself to positivism given that its reliance on data and quantification and its objectivist stance aligns with the natural sciences. Conversely, qualitative research, with its reliance on words, and thus the way individuals interpret the social world, is allied to the world of interpretivism. Thus,

although it is the absence of quantification that appears to distinguish qualitative from quantitative research, it is the underlying philosophical issues that essentially divide them (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Bryman, 2008). In summary therefore, many of the methodological and research design issues noted above cannot be separated from the ontological and epistemological assumptions held by the researcher. Therefore, the discussion now turns to a consideration of these philosophies within business and management (and to a certain extent, entrepreneurship) research.

4.2.1 Epistemology, ontology and business research

The work of Burrell and Morgan, and in particular, their 1979 publication 'Sociological Paradigms and Organizational Analysis' has become a well-known paradigm typology within business and management research. Burrell and Morgan argue that there are a number of ways that a researcher can view and understand the social world and present a two-by-two matrix that presents four paradigms illustrative of what they believe to be the major theoretical and philosophical positions (see Figure 4-1 and 4-2 below). This matrix is arranged across two conceptual dimension which consider the nature of science (from objective to the subjective) and the nature of society (from radical change to regulation). The subjective / objective dimension on the matrix relates to the earlier discussion of ontology. From the subjectivist view, a business is socially constructed and can only be analysed from the point of view of social actors who are directly involved in the businesses activities. By contrast, from the objectivist view, a business consists of specific processes and structures and can, therefore, be analysed from an external perspective. In addition, Burrell and Morgan's matrix makes assumptions about the nature of business and management research and proposes a distinction between radical change and regulation. Within the radical change view, judgements are made about the way organisational affairs are conducted and suggestions made in respect to ways in which changes can be made. In contrast, with respect to the regulatory (sometimes termed stability) perspective, explanations are sought as to how organisational practice can be improved over current approaches. In short, the radical change dimension can be seen as an attempt to overturn the existing state of affairs, whilst the regulatory dimension seeks to maintain the status quo.

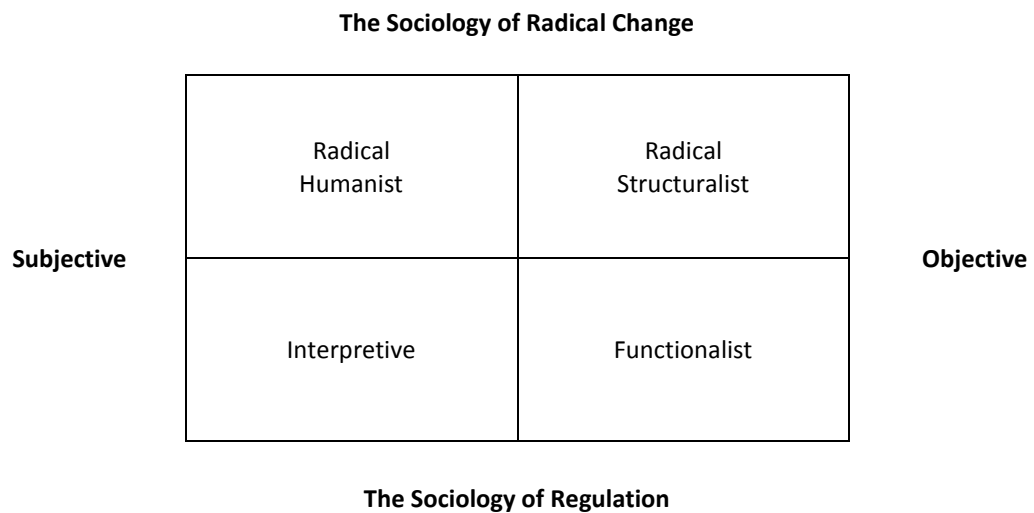


Figure 4-1 Four Paradigms for the Analysis of Social Theory
(Source: Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.22)

In the top left of the quadrant of Burrell and Morgan's matrix is the radical humanist paradigm, located on the subjective / radical change dimension. Positioned here, the researcher's worldview would be one that adopts a subjectivist or constructivist ontological perspective and as noted above, would seek to change the established order of things. In the opposite right-hand corner, the radical structuralist quadrant is placed along the objective / radical change dimension and emphasises hierarchies and structural patterns, here, the researcher seeks to achieve fundamental change based on this analysis. In the bottom left of the quadrant along the subjective / regulation dimension sits the interpretative paradigm which, relating to the philosophy of interpretivism discussed earlier, seeks to make sense of the world around us. Emphasis here will be on discovering irrationalities rather than rationalities, the researcher seeking to understand and explain events rather than to change them. Finally, in the bottom right of the matrix along the objective / regulation dimension sits the functionalist quadrant. This paradigm embraces objectivism as its primary ontological positioning and assumes that organisations are rational and – with rational explanations – are able to offer solutions to rational problems (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Gioia and Pitre, 1990; Johnson and Duberley, 2000; Bryman, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).

Radical Change	
Subjectivism	Radical Humanist: Socially constructed realities entrap people who are complicit in their sustenance. The aim is to release people from these ideological constraints through developing alternatives.
	Radical Structuralism: Society/organisations are dominating and exploitative. The aim is to analyse these processes and their contradictions objectively so as to identify how they can lead to social change.
Regulation	Interpretative: Since organisations have no prior independent existence they are to be understood from the participant's point of view with the aim of understanding how shared versions of reality emerge and are maintained.
	Functionalism: Society and its institutions have a concrete tangible existence which produces an ordered status quo which is analysable objectively through the rigour of what is taken to be the scientific method.
Objectivism	

Figure 4-2: Burrell and Morgan's Four Paradigms Revealed
 (Adapted from: Johnson and Duberley, 2000, p.80)

Gioia and Pitre (1990) review Burrell and Morgan's (1979) work, along with subsequent business and management research that embraces the four paradigms approach, and identify that it is the functionalist/functionalism paradigm that has been most dominant. Consequently, they offer a revised view of the matrix to reflect this imbalance in the discipline (see Figure 4-3 below). Subsequently, the dominance of the functionalist paradigm and objectivist approach has been identified within the field of entrepreneurship (Jennings, Perren and Carter, 2005; Pittaway, 2005). In particular, Grant and Perren's (2002) analysis of thirty-six papers across the lead entrepreneurship and small business journals reveals that thirty-two papers were functionalist, four were Interpretivist studies, whilst none adopted radical humanist or radical structuralist approaches.

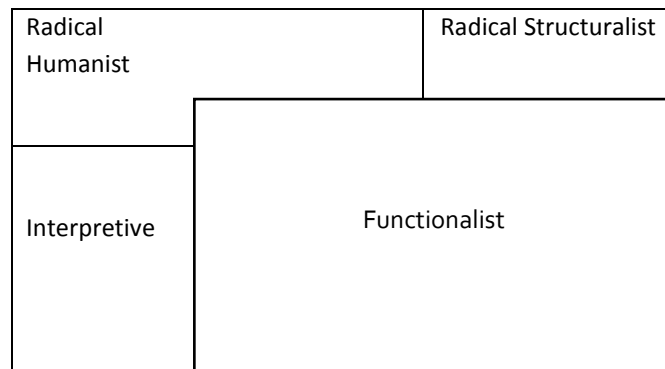


Figure 4-3: Functionalist dominance in organisational/entrepreneurship theory
(Adapted from: Gioia and Pitre, 1990, p.586)

Despite its prevalence, Burrell and Morgan's (1979) matrix has been criticised against a number of facets including: (1) criticism on the interpretation of the objectivity-subjectivity dimension, (2) the perceived inadequacy of the radical change-regulation dimension, and (3) paradigm commensurability (See: Deetz, 1996; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Deetz, 2009; Karataş-Özkan and Chell, 2010). However, as Bryman and Bell (2007) note, whatever the view on the four paradigms approach, the matrix has clearly had a significant influence on business research, encouraging scholars to explore their assumptions about the social world and to consider the relationship between epistemology and ontology.

4.3 THESIS PARADIGM: A MIXED METHODS RESEARCH APPROACH

From the above discussion it is apparent that a variety of paradigms can underpin the selected research design and that these are largely driven by the ontological and epistemological assumptions held by the researcher. Moreover, according to one's paradigmatic positioning, either quantitative or qualitative research approaches will be adopted, these methods being allied to positivism and interpretivism respectively. However, the integration of quantitative and qualitative research techniques has been increasingly proposed as a third methodological movement (hereafter, termed mixed methods research or MMR) and which, as was highlighted in Chapter One, is the approach that has been adopted within this study.

This third way is supported by the epistemology of pragmatism (see again Table 4-1), where the research question is elevated over both method and paradigm (Hohenthal, 2006; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). To this end, Brannen (2005) acknowledges that

a MMR approach is often necessary because of multiple and complex research questions, some underpinned by realist and others by interpretivist assumptions. Facing this dilemma, the decision to select MMR may be for pragmatic reasons, philosophical reasons, or a combination of both. Bryman (2007) concurs and adds that the choice of method may just as easily be driven by technical concerns as by any underlying philosophical positioning.

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) highlight that MMR is a growing area of methodological choice for scholars, whilst Bazeley (2004) proposes that it has gained not just acceptability but popularity. However, this observation is not applicable for all disciplines. For example, Cameron and Molina-Azorin (2011), having conducted a methodological review across six business and management disciplines, found that whilst 76 percent of articles were quantitative, only 10 percent were qualitative and only 14 percent utilised mixed methods. This the authors suggest, indicates only minimal acceptance of MMR within the business and management field. Nevertheless, Jogulu and Pansiri (2011) advocate the use of MMR approaches in the design of doctoral dissertations in business and management and a number of authors advocate the potential of MMR in the study of entrepreneurship (See: Gilmore and Coviello, 1999; Hohenthal, 2006; Molina-Azorín, 2011; Molina-Azorín, *et al.*, 2012).

Proponents of mixed approaches argue that the combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques provides an understanding not possible by using either technique alone. They further posit that the weaknesses of each approach can be overcome, or compensated for, by the strengths of the other. Moreover, MMR allows the researcher to address questions that one singular approach does not allow as in the case of, for instance, of utilising qualitative interview data to explain quantitative survey results, when one method alone would be considered limiting (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2006; Hohenthal, 2006; Jogulu and Pansiri, 2011).

Given the complex relationship between MMR and the favouring of pragmatism over broader philosophical assumptions, it is considered important to offer transparency in regard to the reason(s) for combining quantitative and qualitative approaches (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Often, this justification will arise from one of the five

criteria identified by Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989, p.259), as follows:

- Triangulation: seeks convergence, corroboration, correspondence of results from the different methods.
- Complementarity: seeks collaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of results from one method with results from the other method.
- Development: seeks to use the results from one method to help develop or inform the other method.
- Initiation: seeks the discovery of paradox and contradiction, new perspectives of frameworks, the recasting of questions or results from one method with questions or results from the method.
- Expansion: seeks to extend the breadth and range of inquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components.

For the purposes of this thesis and accepting the importance of transparency, it is acknowledged that elements of complementarity, development and expansion – as noted by Greene, Caracelli and Graham above – underpin the rationale for adopting MMR here. Moreover, with respect to research design and following on from the preceding discussion, it is further acknowledged that, in the context of this thesis, MMR and pragmatism:

- does not privilege epistemology or emphasise ontology over method and holds that the most important determinant in regard to theoretical positioning is the research question (Brannen, 2005; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).
- recognises that there are many different ways of interpreting the world and faced with multiple realities, multiple methods are more appropriate;
- combines the strengths (and offsets the contrasting weaknesses) of a quantitative and qualitative approach and is thus the preferred and most feasible research option (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).
- is abductive in reasoning and allows the researcher to move between induction and deduction in the respective qualitative and qualitative research phases (Morgan, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

- acknowledges that the dichotomy between objective and subjective (as applied to quantitative and qualitative research), is too idealistic and artificial with no researcher able to be either completely objective/subjective and required to move between these frames of reference (Morgan, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).
- promotes transferability, in recognising that no emergent knowledge is either solely universal/generalised (quantitative) that it applies across all settings, or wholly context dependent (qualitative) that it has no implications for other actors/settings (Morgan, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

Thus, for the reasons noted above, the MMR approach and the combining of both quantitative and qualitative techniques has been adopted here. The following sections will outline in more detail how this will be implemented.

4.3.1 The Selection of a Mixed Method Research Design

Having been transparent on the reasons for embarking on a MMR design, essential decisions regarding how to proceed with regard to the relative quantitative and qualitative strands must be made, including: (1) determining the level of interaction, (2) the priority, (3) the timing, and (4) the procedures for mixing them. With respect to interaction, the strands can be either independent, with data collection and analysis kept separate, or interactive – implying the opposite – with methods mixed before final interpretation. The decision regarding priority and weighting of the respective strands can see either quantitative priority, qualitative priority, or equal priority in the research approach. Timing can be concurrent or sequential in approach with timing decisions referring to both the time the data are collected and the time at which the researcher utilises the two sets of data. Considerations of mixing relate to the ‘point of interface’ or ‘stage of integration’ and are more complex but may involve mixing at the level of design, during data collection, during data analysis, or at the stage of interpretation. (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Jogulu and Pansiri, 2011).

Table 4-2: Prototypical characteristics of the major MMR designs
(Adapted from: Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p.73)

Prototypical Characteristics	Convergent Parallel Design	Explanatory Design	Exploratory Design	Embedded Design
Definition	Concurrent quantitative and qualitative data collection, separate quantitative and qualitative analyses, and the merging of the two datasets.	Methods implemented sequentially, starting with quantitative data collection and analysis, followed by qualitative data collection and analysis in phase two, which builds on.	Methods implemented sequentially, starting with qualitative data collection and analysis in phase one followed by quantitative data collection and analysis in phase two, which builds on phase one.	Either the concurrent or sequential collection of supporting data with separate data analysis and the use of the supporting data before, during, or after the major data collection procedures.
Design purpose	Need a more complete understanding of the topic; Need to validate or corroborate quantitative scales.	Need to explain quantitative results.	Need to test and measure qualitative exploratory findings.	Need preliminary exploration for an experimental trial; Need a more complete understanding of an experimental trial, such as the process and outcomes; Need follow-up explanations after an experimental trial.
Typical paradigm	Pragmatism as an umbrella philosophy.	Postpositivist in phase one; Constructivist in phase two.	Constructivist in phase one; Postpositivist in phase two.	Constructivist for the qualitative component and postpositivist for the quantitative component.
Interaction	Independent tab.	Interactive.	Interactive.	Interactive.
Priority	Equal emphasis.	Quantitative emphasis.	Qualitative emphasis.	Either quantitative or qualitative emphasis.
Interface	Interpretation if independent. Analysis if interactive.	Data collection.	Data collection.	Design level.
Mixing strategy	Merging the two strands: after separate data analysis; with further analysis of separate results.	Connecting the two strands: from quantitative data analysis to qualitative data collection; use qualitative results to make decisions about qualitative research questions, sampling, and data collection in phase two.	Connecting the two strands: from qualitative data analysis quantitative data collection; use qualitative results to make decisions by quantitative research questions, sampling, and data collection in phase two.	Embedding one strand within a design based on the other type: before, during, or after major component; you second results to enhance planning, understanding, or explaining of primary strand
Variants	Parallel databases; data transformation; data validation.	Follow-up explanations; participant selection.	Theory development; instrument development.	Embedded experiment; embedded correlational design; mixed methods case study; mixed methods narrative research; mixed methods ethnography.

Many of the decisions identified above will influence the overall MMR design, although Creswell (2011) identifies six major designs. These include the four basic designs, as illustrated in Table 4-2 above, of: (1) convergent parallel design; (2) explanatory sequential design; (3) exploratory sequential design; and (4) embedded design. With the two remaining MMR approaches – which bring multiple design elements of the earlier four together – are transformative and multiphase designs. These designs are only a small proportion of the more than forty MMR designs identified within the literature (See: Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006, 2009) rendering a review of each within this chapter problematic. As such, discussion will now move to the specific research design and MMR approach employed by this thesis.

4.3.2 A sequential explanatory mixed methods design

A number of mixed methods approaches emphasise a sequential two-phase approach, including the 'sequential model', 'sequential triangulation' and 'iteration design', which can begin with either the quantitative or qualitative phase (Brannen, 2005; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2006, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). For the purposes of this study, a 'sequential explanatory' MMR design has been adopted, involving an initial quantitative phase, followed by an explanatory qualitative phase (elsewhere, this design has been called the qualitative follow-up-approach, see Morgan, 1998). This later phase is designed to explain and expand upon the Phase One results and is considered especially useful when any unexpected or surprising findings are identified following the initial quantitative phase. Moreover, this sequential design is also useful in allowing the researcher to identify respondents from the quantitative strand who hold particular characteristics that warrant purposeful sampling - at the second qualitative phase (Morgan, 1998; Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).

From a philosophical position, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) identify that the researcher is likely to move from a positivist orientation at phase one to a constructivist orientation at Phase Two as the assumptions associated with each design element change. Moreover, they propose that these design aspects are likely

to be emergent as the second phase and can be formulated based on what is learnt at the initial quantitative phase. However, this does require the researcher to make firm decisions as to which aspects of the quantitative results require follow-up.

A further distinction within the sequential explanatory approach is whether to privilege either research stage. Ordinarily, the initial quantitative phase is given priority as the qualitative data collection comes first in the sequence. However, depending on the research aims and objectives, and the design of each stage, the researcher can choose to give priority to either the quantitative or qualitative analysis, or both. Moreover, these decisions can be made at either the data collection or analysis stages (Morgan, 1998; Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006). Ivankova, Creswell and Stick (2006, p.14–15), argue that:

a graphical representation of the mixed-methods procedure helps a researcher visualise the sequence of the data collection, the priority is either method, and the connecting and mixing points of the two approaches within the study [and]... facilitates comprehending a mixed-methods study by interested readers.

As such, a graphical representation of the research conducted for this thesis is provided in Figure 4-4 below.

What is more, Figure 4-4 acknowledges Ivankova, Creswell and Stick's rules that the drawing of such MMR designs should include: (1) boxes indicating quantitative and qualitative stages of data collection, data analysis and interpretation; (2) capitalised/lowercase letters to designate priority; (3) arrows to show the flow of procedures; (4) specified procedures for each phase; and (5) specified/expected outcomes of each phase. Moreover, Phase One, which as highlighted in the graphical representation and includes quantitative data collection and analysis will now be examined in more detail in the sections that follows. This is prior, to a more detailed examination of Phase Two and the qualitative stages which incorporates Q Methodology.

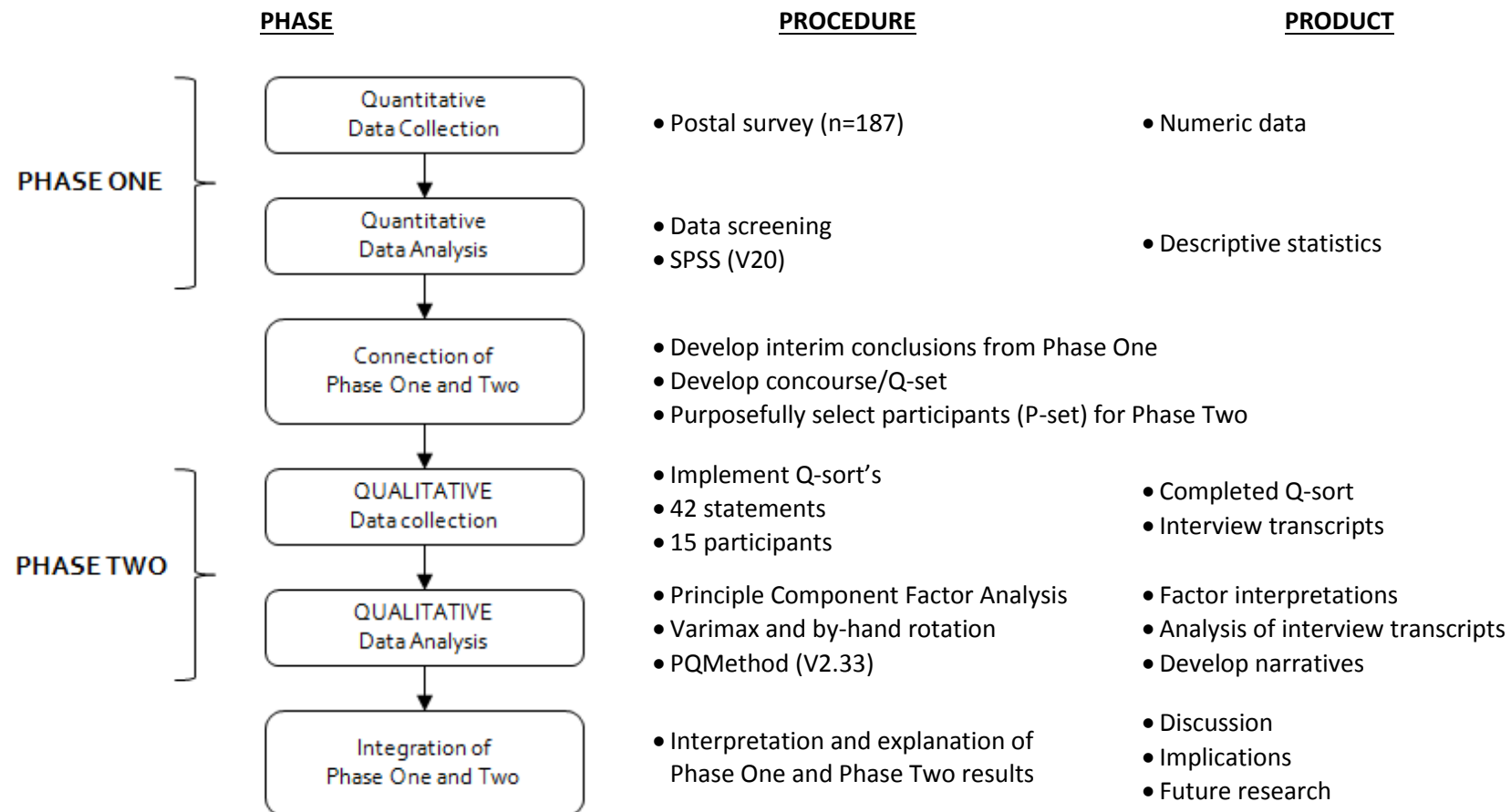


Figure 4-4: Sequential explanatory design adopted within this thesis

4.4 PHASE ONE (QUANTITATIVE) DATA COLLECTION

As has been outlined above, Phase One of this sequential explanatory MMR design is quantitative in nature and more specifically, involves a postal questionnaire to - and subsequent quantitative data analysis of - farm tourism businesses in the North West of England. Saunders and Thornhill (2007) note that a questionnaire is a useful survey strategy to collect descriptive and explanatory data about opinions, behaviours and attributes.

4.4.1 Data Collection – The Postal Survey.

Sampling techniques can be divided into the categories of probability and non-probability sampling. For the purposes of this study, where the population of farms engaging in tourism activity within the study region is not known, it has been necessary to select a non-probability sampling technique (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). More specifically, a purposive or judgement sampling approach was utilised with a sampling frame developed using a variety of sources, including: (1) the online tourist board directories for the North West of England (Cheshire Tourist Board, 2009; Cumbria Tourist Board, 2009; Lancashire and Blackpool Tourist Board, 2009; Marketing Manchester, 2009; Mersey Partnership, 2009), (2) the National UK Farm Stay brochure (2009); and (3) a web-based search. The tourism board and Farmstay listings were relatively straightforward to acquire, whereas the on-line search necessitated the construction of a framework of key search terms derived from existing typologies of farm tourism ventures (See: Cox and Fox, 1991; Sznajder, Przezborska and Scrimgeour, 2009; Phillip, Hunter and Blackstock, 2010).

The full list of search terms, which was refined and extended to ensure the terminology was appropriate to the study region (i.e. substituting 'ranch' from earlier typologies with 'farm'), is provided At Table 4-3 below. What is more, similar approaches utilising internet searches, directories, brochures and mailing lists where adequate databases to serve as a sampling frame do not exist have been reported in both the farm tourism and the general farm management literatures (Burton and Wilson, 1999; McGehee and Kim, 2004; Ollenburg and Buckley, 2007; Barbieri and

Mshenga, 2008), as well as micro-enterprises within tourism (Thomas and Hind, 2007).

Table 4-3: Purposive sampling frame - key search terms
(Own framework, built on the earlier reviews of, Cox and Fox, 1991; Sznajder, Przeborska and Scrimgeour, 2009; Phillip, Hunter and Blackstock, 2010)

Cumbria	Farm	Tourism
		Holiday
		Visitor
		Day Out
		Daytrip
		Holiday Cottage
		Cottage
		Bed and Breakfast
		B & B
		Camping
Lancashire	Farmer	Caravan
		Bunkhouse
		Walking
		Wildlife / Nature
		Trails/Walking
		Horse Riding
		Hunting
		Fishing
		Paintball
		Golf
Cheshire	Agriculture	Indoor Play Area
		Outdoor Play Area
		Maze
		Zoo
		Animal Petting
		Animal Feeding
		Animal Handling
		Demonstrations(s)
		Tour(s)
		Education
Merseyside	Agricultural	Classroom
		Museum
		Shop
		Produce
		Cafe
		Restaurant
		Nursery
		Garden Centre
		Pick Your Own
		PYO
Greater Manchester		

For the purposes of this study – and as acknowledged earlier in respect to the contested definitions of both farm tourism and tourism generally – the research

adopted an intentionally broad definition of farm tourism as 'any practice developed on a working farm with the purpose of attracting visitors' (Barbieri and Mshenga, 2008, p.168). Thus, the farm tourism enterprises included in this thesis provide a wide variety of recreational opportunities, such as: (1) on-farm accommodation; (2) farm-based visitor attractions, including petting zoos and maize mazes etc.; (3) farm tours and educational activities; (4) retail and catering operations; (5) pick-your-own harvesting; and (6) other on-farm recreation including bird watching, hunting, fishing and horse riding.

Moreover, in acknowledging the purposive sampling approach adopted, it must be conceded that a number of limitations exist, not least, that the sampling frame could not be expected to identify all farm tourism enterprises in the region. Furthermore, it is accepted that the use of tourist board / farm stay membership and directory listings, as well as on- and off-line marketing material, undoubtedly excludes less commercially-oriented operations. In addition, the use of such sources does in itself imply that those sampled have already adopted an outward or 'market-oriented' approach with regard to networking and marketing, two of the enterprising skills under review in this thesis.

Having been justified as the most pragmatic approach, the sampling technique identified 387 farm tourism businesses, to which self-completion questionnaires were mailed during phase one. In all instances the questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter (see Appendix A) which explained the purpose of the study and requests participation. Moreover, the questionnaire was sent with a stamped addressed envelope to encourage return. In total, 118 fully completed questionnaires, representing a response rate of 30 percent, were returned. This is lower than has been the norm in comparative farm tourism research (for instance, Nickerson, Black and McCool (2001), McGehee and Kim (2004) and Barbieri and Mahoney (2009) each report a response rate of around 40 percent whilst Sharpley and Vass (2006) record a response rate of 53 percent). However, it is argued that the low response rate for this study can be partly attributed to extreme flooding – described as the worst in over 100 years – in the survey area shortly after the questionnaire was despatched (See: Peck,

et al., 2010; Sibley, 2010). Nonetheless, the challenges in achieving an acceptable response from postal surveys are well documented (Johnson and Duberley, 2000; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Zikmund, Carr and Griffin, 2012); with Veal (2011) identifying that response rates of only 30 percent are frequently reported in the literature

4.5 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

As has been highlighted, following purposive sampling and the compiling of a database of North West farm tourism enterprises, questionnaires were dispatched which facilitated 118 responses. The questionnaire itself was limited to four pages of A4 (see Appendix B). Consistent with the literature on survey design, the questionnaire was piloted with a knowledgeable audience ahead of the main study. At this pilot stage, respondents were asked to identify any ambiguities or difficulties with regards to question wording and general survey design and in particular to consider whether the entrepreneurial skills and competencies listed were appropriate and comprehensive (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Alasuutari, Bickman and Brannen, 2008).

The structure used to guide this questionnaire is the segmentation framework developed by McElwee (2005), based on an earlier model developed by, Atherton and Lyon (2001), that segments aspects of the farmer and farm business, including: (1) personal characteristics of the farmer, (2) characteristics of the farm business, and (3) the activities and processes undertaken by the farmer (see also, McElwee and Smith, 2012). For the purposes of this study, the framework was refined to suit the geographic area and its characteristics, to acknowledge interest in both the core farm and tourism enterprise and to include the entrepreneurial skills and competencies under review. Thus, the segmentation framework used to frame the questions is as follow:

- Personal characteristics of the farmer
- Age
- Gender
- Length of time farming

- Education
- Status (own/manager/tenant)
- Characteristics of the farm business
- Farming type
- Farm size
- Formal business plan
- Formal marketing plan
- Characteristics of the tourism enterprise
- Nature of diversification
- Length of time diversified
- Hours per week devoted to the tourism venture
- Motivations to diversify
- Key decision-makers
- Proportion of income from tourism
- Formal business plan
- Formal marketing plan
- Relative importance/self rating of entrepreneurial skills and competencies
- Management skills and competencies
- Entrepreneurial skills and competencies
- Higher-order/personal maturity skills and competencies

4.5.1 Personal Characteristics of the Farmer (and Partner)

The opening questions addressed the socio-economic data of both the farmer and partner in the farm tourism enterprise. The decision on whether to gather data against both farmer and partner was considered fully, the concern being, that the unit of analysis for the research as a whole (Phase One and Phase Two) is the farmer (as small business owner) unless, during the course of the research, it was identified that an alternate member of the business/family unit took the main enterprising role. Of concern, is that irrespective of who holds the enterprising role, traditional gender constructions of farming will mean that the male 'as farmer' is the most likely to respond to the research question irrespective of their actual role in the business (Howden and Vanclay, 2000).

Therefore, to alleviate these concerns, details of both farmer and partner were sought along with a later 'check question' as to who holds decision-making responsibility for the diversified tourism enterprise. Moreover, this approach (collecting data for farmer and partner) is consistent with that adopted by the EU-funded project 'Developing the Entrepreneurial Skills of Farmers ' (See: McElwee and Baker, 2008). Moreover, the approach is a compromise that is necessitated by the objectivist/positivist leanings of a postal survey and acknowledges that when utilising a technique in which the researcher is not present, one cannot prompt, probe or control for the intrusion of non-respondents (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

4.5.2 Characteristics of the Farm Business and Tourism Enterprise

Recognising the farmer/small business owner was a priority focus, it was also deemed necessary to gather data regarding both the farm business unit and the diversified tourism enterprise. Thus, while the farmer/small business owner is the main 'unit of analysis', the farm/tourism enterprise is the 'unit of observation' (Long, 2004). Hence, questions in the following survey sections consider the nature of the nature and size of the farm holding as well as enquiring if the farm business had a formal written business or marketing plan. With regards to the on-farm tourism activity, the question about the possession of a formal written business or marketing plan was repeated, along with questions about how long the tourism element had been established and how many hours (on average) were devoted to the on-farm tourism activity.

The most comprehensive element of this section asks respondents to identify the specific nature of the tourism activity on their farm. Responses here relate very much to the strategy (and underpinning frameworks and typologies of farm and agritourism) that justified the online search strategy identified in Table 4–3. The design of this question allows respondents to select multiple tourism activity, as it is a reasonable assumption that a variety of options will be offered (i.e. farm petting zoo, maize maze, cafe and farm shop on one site).

Following these questions, additional free text responses were encouraged to allow

respondents to identify any tourism enterprise activity overlooked in the questionnaire design. Additional questions enquire about the income from tourism (as a percentage of total farm income and encourage respondents (using a Likert scale) to consider their motivations for diversification, with statements here derived from the review of motivations at Chapter Two.

4.5.3 The Relative Importance and Self Rating of Skills and Competencies

Of direct relevance to the thesis aims and objectives, the closing sections of the survey focus on skills and competencies in managing the diversified tourism activity. Firstly, respondents are asked to rate the importance – based on their own opinion – of a range of skills and competencies in relation to managing and operating the diversified enterprise. This was done utilising a five-point Likert scale from 1 (unimportant), through to 5 (very important). Following this, respondents are asked to rate their own abilities against the same set of skills as either low, medium or high. The skills around which this element of the questionnaire is constructed emerge from the earlier literature review in Chapter Three. The nature of the questionnaire design here was reflective of the 'Entrepreneurial Development System' (EDS) proposed by Lichtenstein and Lyons (2001), as operationalised in the work of Smith, Schallenkamp and Eicholz (2007). However, whilst the survey design here draws on their approach, it has been adapted – and a number of skills and competencies substituted – for those considered more relevant to the rural, land-based or tourism and hospitality service industries, as identified by the UK Sector Skills agencies for these industries (Lantra, 2003, 2005; People 1st, 2007).

To close the questionnaire, free text responses encourage respondents to expand on any questions already addressed or highlight additional issues that they consider relevant. Moreover, respondents are invited to leave contact details if they would like to be involved in the Phase Two aspects of the research. All contact details inserted here were subsequently stored separately from the survey data to maintain anonymity and to comply with the University research ethics and data protection guidelines. On return, completed questionnaires were recorded and coded and all variables and free text responses were entered into a spreadsheet which was

subsequently 'imported into the 'Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for Windows' (SPSS) software for analysis. This data was then subjected to a range of appropriate statistical tests as explained in Chapter Five, where the results will be analysed.

4.6 PHASE TWO DATA COLLECTION – Q METHODOLOGY STUDY

The purpose of this section is to introduce Q Methodology as the second phase of the sequential explanatory mixed method research design. Initially, this section will consider the historical foundations of Q Methodology along with its emphasis on the study of human subjectivity and the pursuit of shared viewpoints, followed by the identification of a range of relevant Q studies that underpin and justify its selection for the study of entrepreneurial skills and competencies here. Subsequently, this section will explore Q's quantitative/qualitative hybridity and its abductive logic. Next, the specific stages of implementing a Q Methodology study will be explored both from the perspective of the literature base and as it relates directly to the implementation of phase two of this thesis. Moreover, it is acknowledged that, at times, it is necessary to take a more descriptive approach than is the norm. This is justified on the grounds that Q Methodology is an innovative yet underutilised technique, the application of which is still rare within the social sciences and, as such, requires a careful and sequential introduction and overview. At times, the design elements of a Q study are introduced with concurrent discussion with regards to how Q Methodology is integrated at Phase Two. Thus, the literature base on Q Methodology is often discussed in parallel with the practices adopted here.

4.6.1 Q Methodology: An Overview

Q Methodology was introduced in 1935 by psychologist and physicist William Stephenson (1902–1989) in a letter to the journal *Nature*, in which he outlined his ideas for 'correlating persons instead of tests.' Stephenson, then employed at University College London, was an assistant to Charles Spearman and later Cyril Burt, with Q Methodology emergent from Stephenson's innovative adaptation of Spearman's traditional method, factor analysis. Essentially, Stephenson's ideas in the form of Q, came to be distinguished from more traditional statistical techniques

(known as R methodology), in that they inverted the traditional factor analysis technique to allow for a by-person as well as by-variable factor analysis; (Brown, 1980; McKeown and Thomas, 1988; Brown, 1993; Watts and Stenner, 2012). Moreover, this shift in analytical focus provides the basis for this innovative research technique, as Q employs, 'persons as its variables... in which traits, tests, abilities and so on, are treated as the sample or population' (Watts and Stenner, 2012, p.12).

Essentially, therefore, Q Methodology focuses on the subjective or first person viewpoints of its participants. At its core, Q Methodology assumes that subjectivity has a measurable structure and central to Q is the notion that the respondent gives meaning to the statements by sorting them. Thus, the technique can be used to describe a population of viewpoints, and not, as is the case with more traditional methodologies, a population of people (Brown, 1993). Furthermore, it is essentially the individuals in a Q-study who do the measuring, rather than being measured themselves, with the insights from Q, allowing us to see if there are shared patterns across individuals, whilst the factors (or discourses) that Q generate, provide order in a way that is both structured and interpretable by the researcher. As Stainton-Rogers (1995, p.180) notes, it is not 'the constructors – the participants – who are the focus of the approach but the constructions themselves.' This, Q methodologists argue, makes the technique particularly suited to situations where there is 'much debate, conflict and contestation' and where the 'express aim is to elicit a range of voices, accounts and understandings' (Barry and Proops, 1999, p.339). Thus, proponents of Q argue that it overcomes many of the shortcomings of positivism in that it provides a technique for the objective study of human subjectivity (Brown, Durning and Selden, 1998).

Indeed, Q is said to provide a foundation for the systematic study of subjectivity therein, a person's viewpoint, opinion, beliefs and attitudes are incorporated and considered (Brown, 1980). Thus, Q provides the means to expose this subjectivity in any situation, given that interest centres upon 'how actors come to know and make meaning and sense of their worlds from their own perspectives and experiences' (Previte, Pini and Haslam-McKenzie, 2007, p.141). This is achieved by asking

respondents to operationalise their viewpoint through a self-referencing procedure which the researcher subsequently interprets in order identify shared subjective accounts among participants (Davis and Michelle, 2011). This self-referencing procedure and indeed Q more generally has been described succinctly by Robbins (2009), as;

an empirical technique for eliciting subjective beliefs, opinions and discourses, in a way that allows controlled comparison between individuals and groups, but that also enables an exploration of the relationships between ideas, claims, and concepts within people's subjective points of view. At its essence Q is a procedure in which respondents rank-order their agreement/disagreement, like/dislike, or affinity/repulsion to a carefully selected set of independent claims or items.

More specifically, respondents are asked to rank order items – according to their degree of preference or agreement – against a condition of instruction established in the research design. These items are typically written statements, but can be photographs, sounds or other items against which the researcher seeks to identify the operant subjectivity or shared viewpoints of individuals.



Figure 4-5: Carrying out a Q-sort (Source: Stainton-Rogers, 2003, p.93)

These Q-sort's are subsequently subjected to a by-person (as opposed to a by-variable) factor analysis using dedicated Q Methodology software. This analysis then requires the researcher to identify shared viewpoints based on an interpretation of the emergent factors (McKeown and Thomas, 1988; Brown, Durning and Selden, 1998; Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005; Stenner, Watts and Worrell, 2008; Watts and Stenner, 2012). This post Q-sort interpretation is often aided by the analysis of additional qualitative data, gathered from supporting interviews, in which respondents are asked

to elaborate upon their rationale for the placing of certain statements (Gallagher and Porock, 2010).

The specifics of designing and implementing a Q Methodology study are explored fully below. Firstly, however, it is necessary to establish the philosophical foundations of this approach as well as to identify how it fits within the sequential explanatory mixed method research design offered in this thesis.

4.6.2 The disciplinary relevance of Q Methodology

Q Methodology originates in the field of psychology (Stephenson, 1953) and remains a relatively underutilised technique across other disciplines. Moreover, where it does occur, it is frequently described as an innovative research approach (Eden, Donaldson and Walker, 2005). For this reason, it is necessary to review a number of relevant Q studies that relate to the literature base that underpins this thesis. Most notably, these are in the areas of rurality, farm management, tourism and entrepreneurship as well as more generally in relation to skills and competencies (see Figure 4-6 below). This review does not aim to be comprehensive, but rather to provide additional justification and foundation for the adoption of Q within this MMR design

Previte, Bini and Haslam-Mckenzie (2007), highlight Q Methodology's potential within the rural social sciences, where it has been utilised to reveal social constructions of rurality as well as to investigate the values and attitudes of individual farmers and land owners. For instance, Zografos (2007) uses Q to investigate the role of development trusts in the context of rurality discourses in Scotland, whilst López-i-Gelats, Tàbara and Bartolomé (2009) identify four discourses of rurality in the Catalan Pyrenees, namely, the agriculturalist, the conservationist, entrepreneurial and endogenous development discourses. In the hinterland of Hamburg, Duenckmann (2010) reveals three distinct constructions of reality as idyllic, reform-oriented and anti-conservationist view.

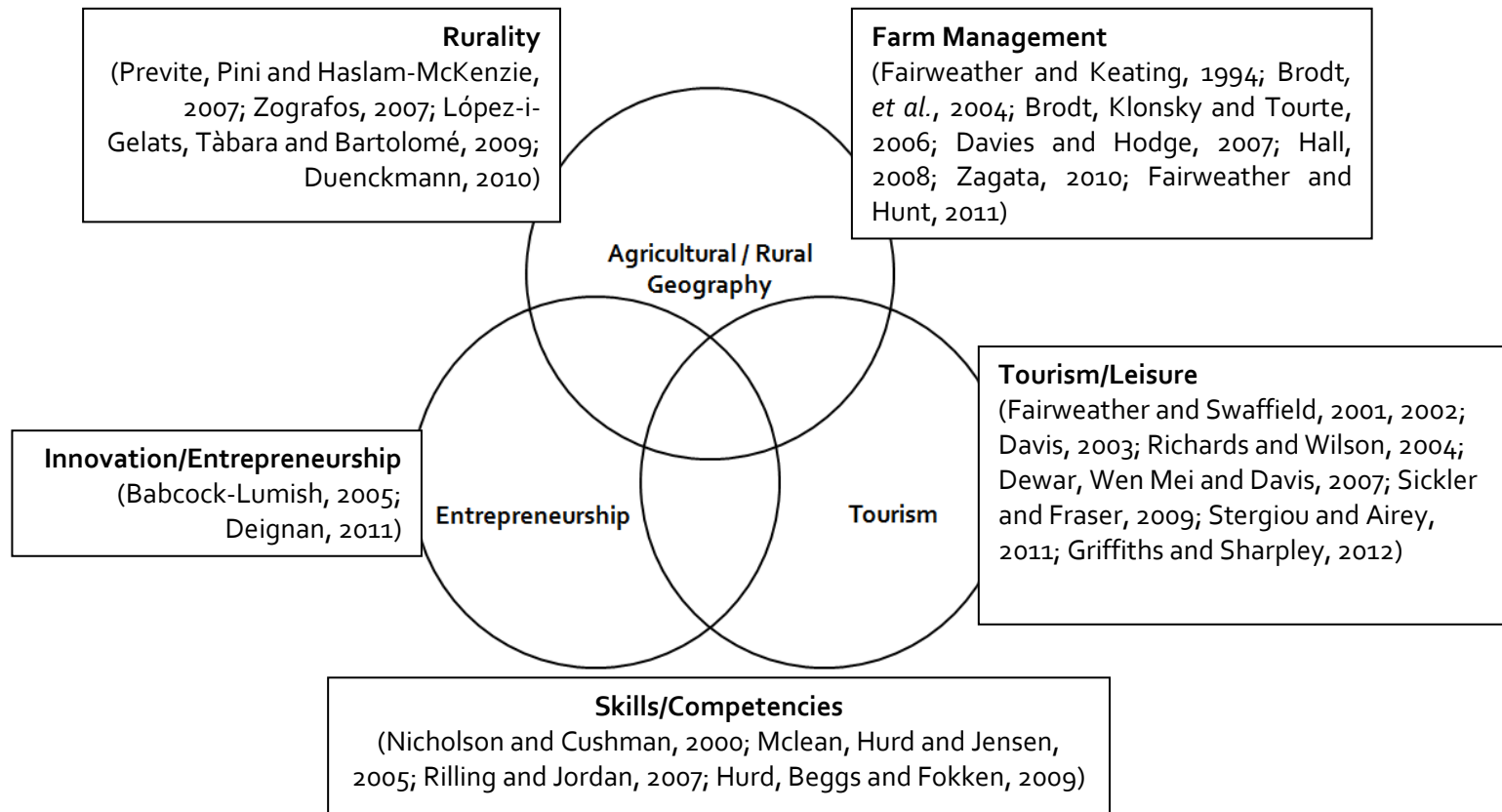


Figure 4-6: Q Methodological studies and their relationship to the literature

In New Zealand, Fairweather and Keating (1994), ask farmers to sort forty-five statements related to goals and farm management styles. In so doing, they uncover three distinctive styles of the dedicated producer, the flexible strategist and the environmentalist. A later study of New Zealand farmers by Fairweather and Hunt (2011) also utilises Q to reveal how farmers receive and understand their farm system. Brodt, Klonsky and Tourte (2006) examine the management styles of almond and wine grape growers in California. Having collected rankings of economic and social values and goals, they establish factors which identify growers as environmental stewards, production maximisers and networking entrepreneurs. Their conclusions recognise that farmers cannot be expected to adopt management strategies whose values are inconsistent with their personal values and remind us that farmers are part of a wider society whose values and goals reflect the wider cultural context (See also: Brodt, *et al.*, 2004).

In the UK, Davies and Hodge (2007) use Q Methodology to identify how farmers conceive their environmental rights and responsibilities with the intention of informing policy surrounding EU agri-environmental schemes. Moreover, European Union policy, this time in the context of the GM debate, also provides the basis for Hall's (2008) Q study. Here, Hall is able to identify a group of 'middle ground' farmers situated between the pro- and anti-GM groups which had previously been unrecognised in the GM debate. In the Czech Republic Zagata (2010) conducts a thirty-six item Q-sort with seven farmers to reveal three perspectives on organic farming, as: a way of life, an occupation, and as a desire to produce better quality food over conventional produce. This reveals previously unknown motives in the region and also details the underlying strategies adopted by each group.

Within tourism research Stergiou and Airey (2011) advocate the use of Q as a rich methodological alternative to democratise the research process. Their call is well timed, with Q Methodology earning a small, but growing, presence in the tourism literature. For instance, Fairweather and Swaffield (2001) use a visual Q-sort of tourist images, asking both domestic and international visitors to arrange them from most to least liked, in order to understand the experiences sought and appreciated by visitors

to Kaikoura on New Zealand's South Island. Their later study at the North Island resort of Rotorua also utilises a Q-sort of photographs to identify four factors of: sublime nature, iconic tourism, New Zealand family and picturesque landscape, thereby outlining how Q can be used to advance our understanding of destination image (Fairweather and Swaffield, 2002). In a similar vein, Davis (2003) utilises tourist images to better understand the travel activities and major segments amongst visitors to the Bay of Fundy in New Brunswick, Canada. His approach, identifies opportunities for a new product/service mix that could be developed by entrepreneurial tourism operators based on identified visitors wants and needs. Dewar, Wen Mei and Davis (2007) use photographic images of travel products and destinations to understand – again from tourism marketing standpoint – the group-specific perceptions of Canadian and Chinese students.

From a leisure perspective, Sickler and Fraser (2009) use Q to explore how visitors define enjoyment within a zoo experience, asking twenty-six visitors to New York's Central Park, Prospect Park and Bronx zoo's to sort forty-two statements. Two of the emergent factors here share an emphasis on the social/family experience of the zoo visit, whilst the third derived enjoyment primarily from the collections on offer. In the fourth identified perspective, of those seeking self-discovery, Sickler and Fraser were able to identify a type of zoo visitor not identified in previous research. More recently, Griffiths and Sharpley (2012) conduct two parallel Q-sort's to probe the tourist-host relationship in Bala, North Wales. From the tourist perspective, three factors emerge - with both an empathy for and an embarrassment of - Welsh nationalism, as well as a third group who felt the vagueness about being English in the presence of strong 'other' Welsh identity.

The third element in the thematic overview of the literature base – as it relates to this thesis – is entrepreneurship. Here, and indeed in business and management more generally, Q Methodology has yet to become established as a research approach. However, the work of Babcock-Lumish (2005) and Deignan (2011) does demonstrate its potential. For instance, Babcock-Lumish (2005) compares the decision-making and risk perception of US and UK entrepreneurs, investment angels, venture capitalists

and institutional investors following the bursting of the dot.com bubble. Whilst principally an economic geography study, Babcock-Lumish uses Q Methodology to reveal behavioural trends and risk propensity amongst stakeholders in entrepreneurial and innovation communities and importantly identifies that the differences between the US and UK clusters are not cultural but relate more to learning and experience. Deignan (2011, p.65) considers the views of Further and Higher Education staff on entrepreneurial skills development for art and media students and, uncovering areas of tension and engagement, identifies that Q 'offers a way to model and better understand the challenges that need to be addressed.'

Whilst Deignan's work above directly concerns entrepreneurial skills, a small number of studies have utilised Q to explore skills and competencies. Though not entrepreneurship per se, nonetheless, they are relevant to the thesis here. For instance, Nicholson and Cushman (2000) employ Q to reveal the attributes and characteristics that industry figures and academics believe are important for retail graduates. Their study reveals that industry figures consider skills such as leadership and decision-making the most desirable, whilst academics favour more interpersonal affective competencies. Rilling and Jordan (2007) develop a thirty-six item Q-sort to assess the skills and traits required by outdoor trip leaders as perceived by their co-leaders. Within their work are Q statements relating to communication, self-awareness, decision-making, creativity and emotional maturity. Thus, this study has clear overlap with the skills and competencies to be explored here.

McLean, Hurd and Jensen (2005) explore the competencies of public park and recreation Chief Executive Officers (CEO) to reveal three factors of: the practical CEO (considered problem solvers), the structured CEO (who emphasises structure and organisational skill) and the traditionalist CEO (who values formal skill sets and education as well as external validation of skill). A later study of public park and recreation board member competencies by Hurd, Beggs and Fokken (2009, p.35) reveals three board member types, including participatory, community representative and conceptual non-political that provide, 'a better understanding of what competencies are important for board members to function efficiently and

effectively.'

4.7 Q METHODOLOGY, ABDUCTION AND THE MIXED METHOD CONTINUUM

In the introduction above, it is acknowledged that Q involves numerical data and complex statistical analysis. Inevitably, this can portray Q as a quantitative technique in the eyes of qualitative researchers, just as its emphasis on the collection of verbal statements and post Q-sort interviews makes it appear a qualitative technique to quantitative researchers (Davis and Michelle, 2011). However, more fundamentally, Q is said to combine the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods (Brown, 1996), to the extent that it has been described as qualiquantological in nature, a rather cumbersome term developed to explain and justify its hybridity (Stenner and Stainton-Rogers, 2004). Certainly, the fact that Q extracts subjective opinion using factor analytical techniques has allowed some scholars to emphasize the scientific basis of the approach (McKeown and Thomas, 1988). What is clear however, is that at its core is a rejection of 'quantitative logic' and the 'hypothetico-deductive' methods that have more traditionally been viewed as science, those championing 'Q' reminding us that it was designed (by Stephenson) for the very purpose of challenging the Newtonian logic of 'testing' that dominated at the time (Watts and Stenner, 2005). Moreover, within the social sciences, Q is advocated as a new research technique, said to aid the critical turn away from traditional positivist approaches that dominate (Stergiou and Airey, 2011).

What is more, Q Methodology is said to be an abductive technique and distinct from the more familiar and well known deduction and induction (Stephenson, 1953; 1961; Goldman, 1990; Brown, 1993; Stainton-Rogers, 2009; Watts and Stenner, 2012). In an abductive approach, rather than moving from theory to data (deduction), or data to theory (induction), the emphasis is on moving back and forth, the intention being to identify themes and generate new or modified theory which is then tested via additional data collection (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). In short, abduction does not simply seek description of an observed phenomenon but the pursuit of an explanation and new insights. Watts and Stenner (2012) note that abduction is most prominent in the analysis stages of Q, firstly in the initial factor rotation, with its

tendency to produce unanticipated relationships, and, subsequently, in the way that the factors are interpreted when unique configurations serve as clues that must be tracked backwards to gain an understanding of the viewpoint revealed (for instance the use of post Q-sort interview to provide clues during the interpretative process).

Despite the fact that Stephenson was resistant to Q being placed within any theoretical framework (Stenner, 2008), Ramlo and Newman (2011a, 2011b) propose that, because of its dual quantitative and qualitative aspects, Q should be embraced within a mixed method continuum. To justify this, they place Q within the MMR continuum proposed by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) as outlined in Table 4-4 below.

Table 4-4: Q Methodology within a mixed methodology continuum.
Adapted from, Ramlo and Newman (2011a); based on the earlier.
continuum proposed by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009)

Quantitative Extreme	Mixed/Other	Qualitative Extreme
Objective purpose	Q	Subjective purpose
Explanatory	Q	Exploratory
Numeric data	Q	Narrative data
Structured / close ended	Q	Open-ended
Statistical analysis	Q	Thematic analysis
Probability sample	Q (sample is items)	Purposive sample
Deductive inference	Q (uses abductive reasoning)	Inductive inference
Value neutral	Q	Value rich

Ramlo and Newman place Q at the centre of the MMR continuum in all but one area, placing Q toward the qualitative end of the scale in respect to purpose. This is unsurprising, given that the intention of Q is to measure subjectivity. With regards to the remaining elements of the continuum, Q is credited with a central mixed method positioning with Ramlo and Newman offering a range of justifications for this, including: Q's narrative quality, its emphasis on thematic analysis, its purposive sampling techniques and its abductive reasoning. In summary, Ramlo and Newman propose that Q Methodology was a mixed method before the term mixed-method

existed. It should also be noted that the distinction between quantitative and qualitative, and their respective epistemological positions, was immaterial when Stephenson first conceived of Q almost 80 years ago.

4.8 IMPLEMENTING A Q METHODOLOGY STUDY

Having introduced Q Methodology along with its underpinning framework it is now necessary to offer further detail against each of the constituent Q phases. This is a necessary precursor to the discussion and analysis of the Phase Two Q Methodology findings at Chapter Six. This is achieved by outlining Q's six stages and identifying both the key literature on this element and then acknowledging the approach taken within this thesis. The six stages examined include: (1) the definition of the concourse, (2) the development of the Q-set (item sampling), (3) the selection of the participants (the P-set), (4) the Q-sorting or ranking procedure, (5) the subsequent statistical analysis, and (6) the interpretation and presentation of the emergent factors.

4.8.1 Establishing the Concourse

The concourse, not to be confused with the term discourse, is a technical term within Q Methodology for the collection of all possible statements that respondents could make regarding a subject. Typically a concourse may comprise of hundreds of statements that must be reduced to a manageable yet representative sample for respondents to sort (Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005; Stenner, Watts and Worrell, 2008). By far the most time-consuming aspect of any Q Methodology study, the concourse can be derived from a variety of sources including interviews, focus groups, participant observation, media reports, newspapers, novels, the scientific literature and opinions of both experts and lay people (Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005; Robbins, 2009; Watts and Stenner, 2012). Thus, as Brown notes (1993), it is the level of discourse that will dictate the sophistication of the concourse. Watts and Stenner (2012, p.34) highlight that Stephenson's original meaning in regard to the concourse concept is complex and difficult to pin down, with a single theoretical definition very hard to find. Moreover, they note that in considering the concourse methodologically, it is: 'no more or less than the overall population of statements from which a final Q set is sampled. In other words, concourse is to Q set what population is to person sample (or P-set).' They

further add, that the concourse itself cannot be realised or become clear until it has been delimited by a specific research question and a particular context.

For the purposes of this thesis, the concourse (which is presented at Appendix C) was drawn entirely from the literature base reviewed in the earlier chapters. In effect, it was developed from an appraisal of the entrepreneurship literature on entrepreneurial skills and competencies, as well as the tourism and farm entrepreneurship literatures on this topic. Moreover, subsequent refinements of the concourse were informed by the interim conclusions of the primary research at Phase One. Furthermore, the concourse presented at Appendix C provides the basis for the Q-set, the discussion of which now follows (see also Figure 4-7 below).

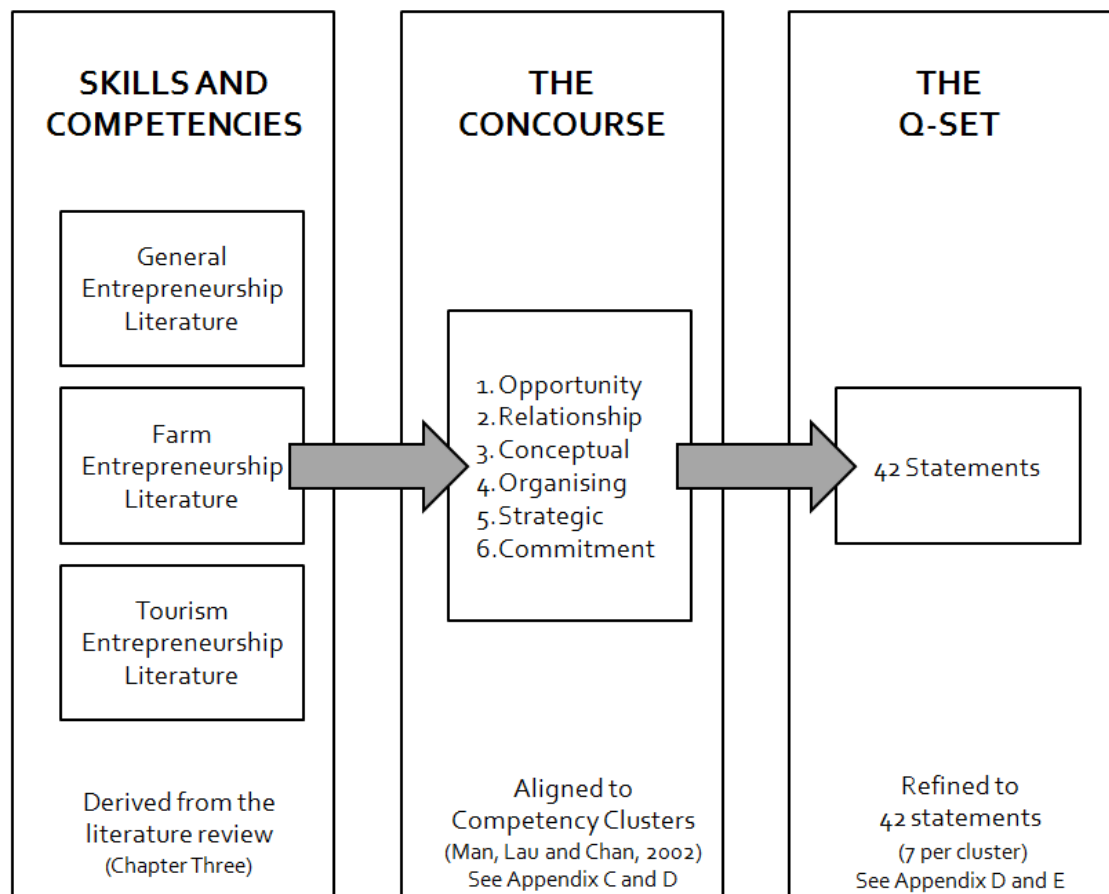


Figure 4-7: From literature, to concourse, to Q-set

4.8.2 Development of the Q-Set (Item Sampling)

Having established the concourse, the researcher now develops the Q-set (or Q-

sample) which consists of a range of statements that could be considered a representative sample of the concourse. At a practical level, this means that the concourse – which may well comprise of hundreds of statements – must be distilled down to a more manageable Q-set of statements for the respondent to sort (Watts and Stenner, 2005). The reduction and selection of statements from the concourse is said to resemble more of an art than a science and may be emergent (bottom-up) following an examination of the concourse or may be imposed based on theory (top-down) appropriate to the study (Brown, 1980). Whether a theory driven or emergent approach is used to structure the Q-set, the essential aim is to develop a range of statements (or other items) that is representative of the existing views and opinions of a topic. Inevitably, this is an area of any Q methodological design that will attract criticism, given the pivotal role of the researcher in deriving both concourse and Q-set. However, as Brown (1993) notes, it is the respondent who gives meaning to the selected statements by sorting them. Essentially, the Q-set should at least allow a respondent;

to grasp the central problems at play. It is... not the Q-set itself that is of prime importance in this context, but what the participants *do* with it. The ultimate aim of Q study is not, after all, to estimate a theme or issue, it is to identify (in a holistic fashion) the various positions that *participants* adopt in relation to it' (Stenner, Watts and Worrell, 2008, p.221).

As was highlighted above, the Q-set for this study was drawn from the concourse, of entrepreneurial skills and competencies, presented at Appendix C and reviewed in earlier chapters. In total, forty-two statements were selected to create a manageable Q-set with the statements presented for review in Appendices D and E. Moreover, as is outlined within these appendices, the six competency clusters proposed by Man, Lau and Chan(2002) are used as a mechanism with which to structure both concourse and resulting Q set, with seven statements identified against each cluster (thus providing forty-two statements in total) (See again, Figure 4-7).

4.8.3 Selection of Participants (The P-Set)

Within Q Methodology, the participants who will implement the Q-sort are referred to as the P-set. Herein lies one of the most fundamental distinctions from other research

approaches, for according to Stephenson's design, the participants are the variables and the items being sorted are the cases. This makes Q Methodology unique and it is therefore inappropriate to impose traditional R-methodological criteria upon a Q design. Fundamentally, participants in the Q study are not subjects in the traditional sense where responses can be extrapolated to a wider population. This means that relatively small participant-sets can yield interesting results. This concept further underpins Q, in that the intention is not to identify the worldview of participants within the sample, but rather to identify and describe the viewpoints that are more broadly available in the wider population. For this reason it is preferable to recruit a P-set that holds a diverse range of positions and opinions, in order to increase the likelihood of including the broadest range of worldviews possible (Brown, 1980; Stenner, Watts and Worrell, 2008).

Opinions on the size of the participant-set in relation to the Q-set vary, although the common (but not clearly articulated) view is that the P-set is usually smaller than the Q-set (Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005). Barry and Proops (1999) argue that relatively few participants are needed to give statistical significance suggesting that as few as twelve participants can generate statistically meaningful results in respect to the range of discourses uncovered. Moreover, Ramlo (2013) argues that the P-set 'could be as small as one if the purpose is, for example, to see how a person's view of himself compared to his perceptions of others' views of him.' The P-set for this study consists of 15 farmers who were purposively sampled from respondents who engaged with the research at Phase One. What is more, the selection attempted to recruit respondents who would have a diverse range of positions and opinions and are detailed more fully within Chapter Six when the results are presented and discussed.

4.8.4 The Ranking Procedure (Q-Sorting)

Having generated the Q-set from the concourse and selected the participant-set, the third and most easily identifiable stage is the Q-sorting task. Here, participants are asked to sort the statements or items contained within the Q-set. Traditionally, this involves giving the respondents a pack of randomly numbered cards that contain the statements. The respondents are then asked to sort the statements according to a

condition of instruction, with regards to how they view the particular issue or topic. For instance: most agree or most like at one end, through to most disagree or most dislike at the other (Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005).

The sorting of the statements/cards is a forced distribution with a number of patterns possible though generally across a 9 to 11 point scale. Moreover, kurtosis of the distribution normally depends on how controversial the topic is, and the distribution can be made steeper or flatter (to remove room for ambiguity and indecisiveness in the middle of the distribution, or to allow room for stronger agreement and disagreement). However, irrespective of design, respondents are instructed to adhere to the distribution provided (Brown, 1980; Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005). More detailed guidance from Brown (1980), advocates that 'as a rule, Q samples smaller than $n=40$ can safely utilise a range of +4 to -4; from 40 to 60, a range of +5 to -5 is generally employed... [whilst] most Q samples contain 40 to 50 items and employ a range of +5 to -5 with a quasi-normal flattened distribution.'

For the purposes of the research conducted here, a range of +4 to -4 was chosen, given the 42 statements selected and participants were presented with a shallow or platykurtic distribution. A type that offers 'greater opportunity to make fine-grained discriminations at the extremes of the distribution (where feelings run high), a strategy that allows us to maximise the advantages of our participants excellent topic knowledge' (Watts and Stenner, 2012, p.80). In accordance with the literature on the implementation of Q-sorts, respondents in this study were asked to read through all statements carefully. They were then asked to do an initial sort into three piles, to include: (1) those items they felt were important skills and competencies; (2) those items they felt were of lesser importance; and (3) those statements about which they felt indifferent or unsure, or that induce mixed feelings. Next, respondents were asked to rank order the statements from these piles against the forced distribution chart from +4 to -4 according to the instruction 'most' to 'least' importance (see Figure 4-8 below). More specifically, the condition of instruction for this Q-sort was: 'identify the skills and competencies that you believe are important for successful diversification to farm tourism'.

Following the completed Q-sort, short interviews were conducted and respondents asked to comment on the most salient statements i.e. those placed at the extreme ends of the continuum (i.e. most strongly and least strongly agree). Time here also allowed respondents to comment more generally on wider issues to the statements being sorted and to offer any thoughts or observations that the Q-sort process had generated for them. This additional qualitative interview phase – uncommon in early Q Methodological studies – is identified as being useful later, and assists the researcher in the interpretation of factors (Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005; Gallagher and Porock, 2010).

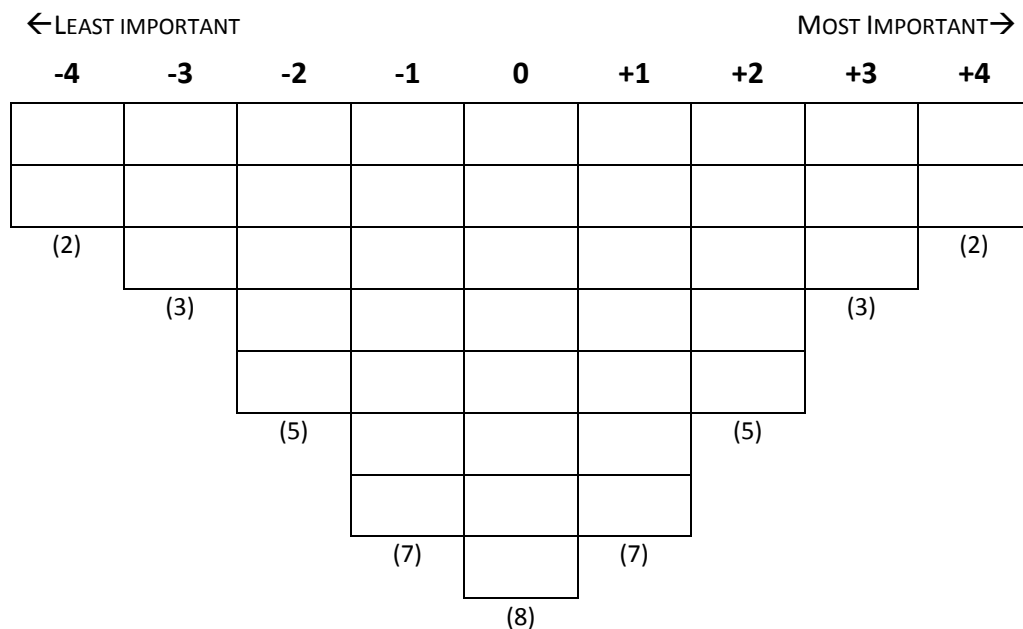


Figure 4-8: The 42 item Q-sort distribution
(numbers in brackets denote the number of statements in each column)

4.8.5 Statistical Analysis and Factor Interpretation

Q Methodology uses factor analytical techniques to reveal the underlying explanations for patterns emerging from the Q-sort data, with the resulting factors representing the 'idealised sorts' or 'social perspectives' that comprise the subjective expressions of participants. The researcher's role is to now interpret these idealised Q-sorts and develop a narrative that describes each of these social perspectives (Webler, Danielson and Tuler, 2009). The actual analysis of a Q-sort is both technical and objective and is said therefore to provide the scientific base of Q. More specifically,

data analysis within Q, involves application of three statistical procedures, comprising: (1) correlation, (2) factor analysis, and (3) the computation of factor scores (Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005). This analysis is conducted using dedicated Q methodological software which, for the purposes of this study, was the package PQMethod (Schmolck, 2012). Moreover, the research here, utilised the sequential approach to generating a Q methodological factor analysis (using PQMethod) advocated by Watts and Stenner (2012).

Firstly, the correlation matrix, which represents: 'the level of (dis)agreement between the individual sorts, that is, the degree of (dis)similarity in points of view between the individual Q-sorters' is calculated (Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005, p.10). In effect, the correlation matrix identifies the relationship of each Q-sort with every other sort in the study; with these patterns seen as important, as it is from here that the resulting factors will be drawn (Watts and Stenner, 2012). Next the correlation matrix is subjected to factor analysis to reveal the natural groupings of Q-sorts with respect to similarity/dissimilarity to one another, with those showing similar views belonging to the same factor. Next the sorts are subjected to a factor analysis, which are in line with the PQMethod software choices may be either the Centroid Factor Analysis technique or a Principal Component Analysis (PCA). Within Q Methodology, PCA is considered to offer the best mathematical solution and thus is often favoured by the purists. However, PCA has been criticised, for removing the researchers opportunity to fully explore the data or to engage in the abductive approach that Q champions (Brown, 1980, 1993). Ultimately, therefore, the decision must rest with the researcher.

These emergent factors are then rotated to arrive at the final set of factors with rotation being either objective (and aligning with statistical principles, as in varimax rotation), or theoretical (according to either some prior knowledge, as in judgemental or by-hand rotation). Here again, a decision must be made with Q purists preferring Stephenson's preference for judgemental or by-hand rotation, the rationale being that a computer should not be the means to decide which point of view is valid with respect to one's own data when an infinite number of views are possible. In contrast, many other Q methodologists are said to prefer the simplicity and reliability of

varimax rotation, though one method is not considered superior to the other (Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005).

In contrast, Watts and Stenner (2012, p.126) advocate that both types of rotation can be used during analysis, which they describe as 'the best of both worlds' given that the researcher can exploit 'their complementary strengths.' In addition, Webler, Danielson and Tuler (2009) advocate that given that rotation is a matter of judgement, it is best to make use of both and to compare the final outputs. Thus, for this thesis, PCA, followed by varimax and by-hand rotation were performed having identified that this offered the best factor output against the data presented in Phase Two of the research at Chapter Six.

The final stage involves the calculation of factor scores, or Z-scores, which are the 'normalised weighted average statement scores' for participants that define on that factor. The Z-scores can be used to identify an idealised Q-sort for each factor, which would represent how a hypothetical respondent would have ordered all of the statements in their Q-set if they shared a one hundred percent loading with that factor (Van Exel and De Graaf, 2005). Analysis in PQMethod also produces additional information which will be outlined in more depth in the subsequent analysis in Chapter Six, which includes:

- The defining sort: outlining which people (and the extent) to which they agree with each factor;
- The correlations between factor scores: identifying how similar pairs of factors are;
- Normalised factor scores: offering idealised Q-sort's against each factor showing how far each statement is from the sort's midpoint;
- Descending array of difference: highlighting which statements factors ranked most differently, useful in clarifying the differences between factors;
- Distinguishing and consensus statements: which shows the statements ranking significantly between factors and those ranked differently by any factor, (Webler, Danielson and Tuler, 2009, p.31).

Prior to a more detailed analysis, decisions are then made in respect to which factors to select for interpretation, two criteria are standard: (1) Q factors with an eigenvalue in excess of 1.00, and (2) a minimum of two Q-sort's loading significantly upon that factor; with Q-sort's that satisfy these requirements said to be 'factor exemplars' (Brown, 1980; Watts and Stenner, 2005). However, Webler, Danielson and Tuler (2009, p.31) propose that a more varied range of criteria may determine the final set of factors, including:

- **Simplicity:** Fewer factors are better as it makes viewpoints easier to identify and understand. However, this should not be overly simplistic to lose important and interesting information about viewpoints
- **Clarity:** An ideal factor solution occurs when each sorter loads highly on one, and only one factor. The aim is to minimise the number of confounders (those who load on multiple factors) and non-loaders (those who do not load on any factor).
- **Distinctness:** Lower correlations between factors are preferred as highly correlated factors indicate they are saying similar things. However, it is possible that two factors agree on many issues but that it is the points of disagreement that are areas of importance.
- **Stability:** When analysing the results using a number of factors it is possible to identify people who clustered together – an indicator that these individuals think similarly – good factors will preserve these stable clusters.

Having made these crucial decisions, the researcher is now required to interpret the factors and to develop narratives though this will again be explored more fully in the analysis and discussion in Chapter Six. What is important in the discussion here, is to emphasise that, with regards to Q methodological analysis, the:

first transition is from Q-sort's to Q factors, via the correlation and factor analysis of the Q-sort's, the second is from factors to factor arrays, via the weighted averaging of significantly loading or factor-exemplifying Q-sort's, and the third is from factor arrays to factor interpretations, via the process of interpretation (Watts and Stenner, 2012, p.180).

4.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

To summarise, this chapter has outlined the methodological approach and the research design adopted within this study. Overall, the epistemological position of pragmatism has been selected to embrace Phase One (positivist) and Phase Two (pragmatist) stages of this sequential explanatory mixed method research design. Moreover, the use of a quantitative postal survey and the later use of Q Methodology have been introduced and justified as procedures to address the research questions presented here (See Figure 4-9 below).

Thus, it is timely to revisit the aims of this thesis, which are:

- I. To analyse the entrepreneurial skill and competency needs of farmers within the context of farm diversification to tourism.
- II. To understand to what extent farmers already foster these entrepreneurial skills and competencies.
- III. To develop a taxonomy of the farmer as a basis for understanding entrepreneurial skill and competency needs in the context of traditional farming identity.

Moreover, as was outlined in the introduction to this thesis, this research aims to address a gap within both the academic literature and the formal policy arena and to develop a model of entrepreneurial skill and competency in respect to farm tourism thus, Chapters Five and Six that now follow, will present and analyse the research on this topic.

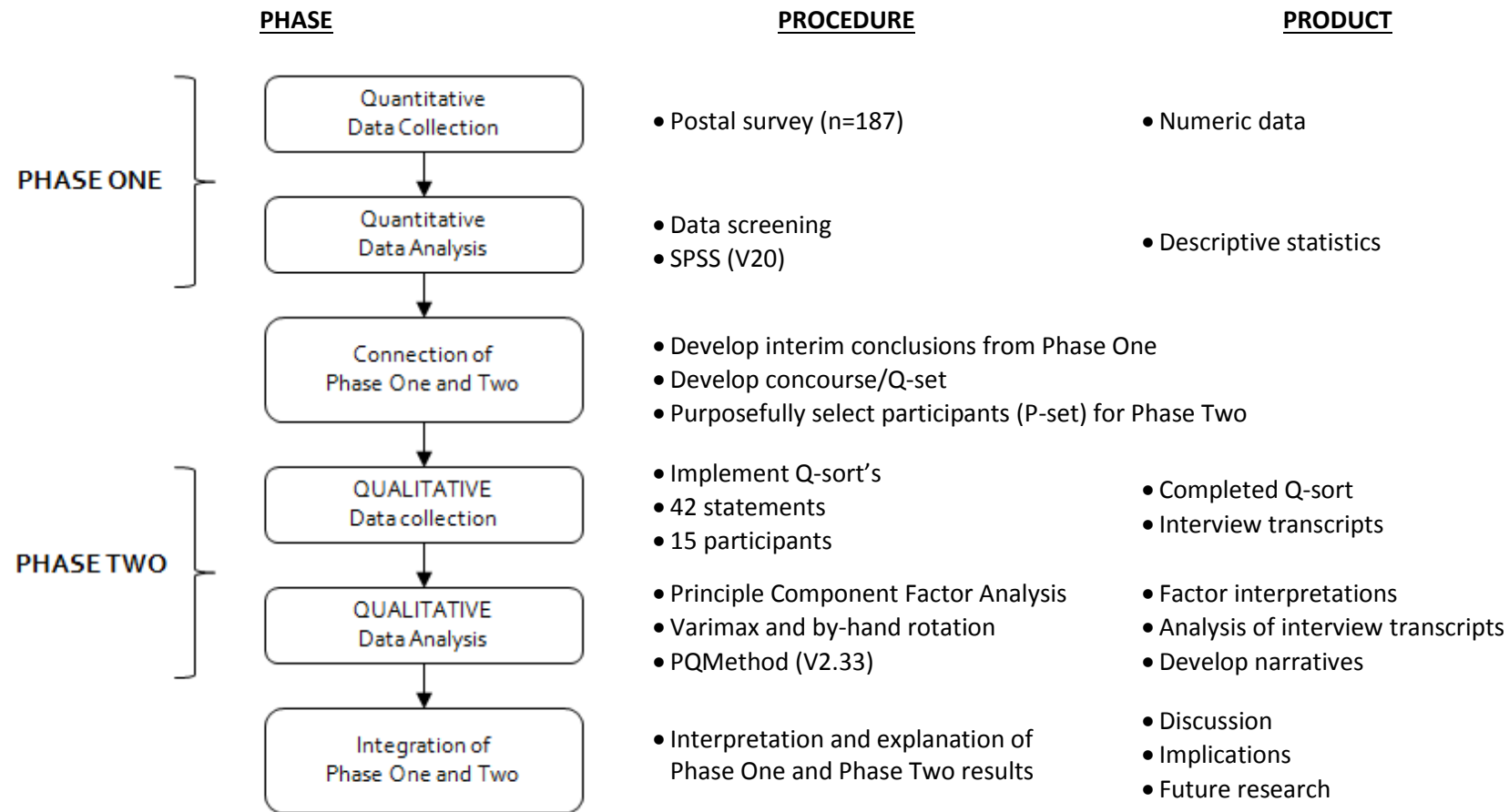


Figure 4-9: Reprint of Figure 4-4
(Thesis MMR sequential explanatory design)

PHASE ONE: (QUANTITATIVE) ANALYSIS

5.0 CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

As was outlined in the previous chapter, Phase One of this sequential explanatory mixed method research design is quantitative in nature and involves a postal questionnaire of farm tourism businesses in the North West of England. Moreover, as Robson (2002) notes, data in their rawest form will not speak for themselves, and thus the data from this quantitative survey must now be analysed in order to be useful. More specifically, this chapter will present a range of descriptive statistics which summarise the data gathered from the postal questionnaire sample using a predominately univariate analysis. This is in contrast to inferential statistics where multivariate analysis seeks to explain the relationship between several variables simultaneously, in an attempt to make generalisations, in regard to the wider population. What is more, the presentation of the descriptive statistics here is justified, given that no hypotheses are to be tested and that the population from which the sample is drawn is not random (Crowe, 2006; Jupp, 2006; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).

In making this distinction, it must be acknowledged that descriptive statistics alone places limitations on the subsequent analysis, in that they 'cannot capture the complexity of the social world' (Jupp, 2006, p.68). However, the analysis and discussion here, is a necessary preliminary stage to uncover the farm tourism picture in the North West of England, ahead of more detailed examination at Phase Two. Moreover, this preliminary stage is considered essential given the absence of such information in the public domain, as was established at Chapter One. Thus, the aim of this chapter is to offer a descriptive overview of farm tourism in the region, prior to outlining in more detail the requisite skills and competencies that farmers perceived to be important in the context of diversification to tourism.

The analysis and interpretation of these data will be presented in line with the segmentation framework previously highlighted in Chapter Four, including: (1) the personal characteristics of the farmer, (2) the characteristics of the farm business, (3) the characteristics of the tourism enterprise, and (4) the relative importance and self rating of entrepreneurial skills and competencies. Moreover, it is acknowledged that a

detailed discussion of the Phase One research can also be found in Phelan and Sharpley (2011; 2012, see also Appendix J).

5.1 THE PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FARMER

The questionnaire and covering letter were addressed to the person with responsibility for operating the diversified tourism enterprise, with 70.2 percent of those returned having been completed by the male partner in the farm household. This might be considered a departure from the literature, given that 79 percent of respondents in Sharpley and Vass's (2006) study in the North East of England were completed and returned by the farmer's wife/partner. What is more, Sharpley and Vass's work reflects the findings of earlier studies which, in general, suggest that farm tourism enterprises are run and operated by female family members (See for instance: Garcia-Ramon, Canoves and Valdovinos, 1995; Busby and Rendle, 2000; Nilsson, 2002; Brandth and Haugen, 2007). In contrast, Howden and Vanclay (2000), in their study of farming styles, identified that gender constructions of farming meant that the male 'as farmer' was the more likely to respond to their research questions. It may well be, therefore, that whilst the role of the farm wife remains central to the operation of the farm tourism enterprise (for instance against traditional gendered roles of receiving guests, serving meals and organising activities), the emphasis of this research on the farms business activity and individual entrepreneurial skill and competency, reinforces established gender roles.

Then again, a later survey question asked for confirmation of who had decision-making responsibility with respect to tourism enterprise. Here, 33.3 percent of responses indicated that the person completing the form had overall and sole responsibility for decision-making whilst 20 percent recorded that the spouse or partner had responsibility. However, the situation is further complicated by a number of respondents who selected multiple answers. These revealed that in an additional 35.9 percent of cases, decisions were made jointly (i.e. spouse and partner) and, in 11.1 percent of cases, decisions involved the spouse/partner along with other family members. Thus, it is clear that generalisations with respect to gender roles within diversified farm enterprises cannot be made and that, as observed earlier, questions

remain over the most appropriate 'unit of analysis' in farm tourism studies. What is more, this is acknowledged as limitation of the research presented here. However, it is deemed acceptable, given that this element of Phase One (as has been previously outlined) is seeking background data in respect to farm tourism in the region, where no other data source is publicly available. Moreover, in acknowledging this limitation, it must be noted that the data that now follow pertain to the respondents who completed and returned the postal questionnaire only.

As outlined in table 5-1 below, respondents were typically aged between 35 and 65, although 78 percent were over 45 years of age. Interestingly, only 20 percent of respondents held a degree level or equivalent qualification. Conversely, around 53 percent of respondents either possessed either no formal qualifications or were educated only to traditional age 16-level qualifications (i.e. NVQ L2, GCSEs, O levels). This again marks a departure from the literature on diversification and farm tourism, which suggests that it is predominantly those with higher, or degree level education who establish new ventures on the farm (Haugen and Vik, 2008).

Table 5-1: Respondent characteristics

	f	%		f	%
Farmer's age (n=118)			Operator's gender (n=114)		
18 to 34 years	3	2.5	Male	80	70.2
35 to 44 years	23	19.5	Female	34	29.8
45 to 54 years	46	39.0			
55 to 64 years	35	29.7	Level of education (n=114)		
Over 65 years	11	9.3	No Qualifications	25	21.9
			NVQ L2, GCSEs, O Levels	36	31.6
Years farming (n=107)			NVQ L3, A Levels	9	7.9
Less than 10 years	22	20.6	HND, HNC, NVQ L4-5	20	17.5
11 to 20 years	21	19.6	First degree (BA, BSc, etc)	11	9.6
21 to 30 years	30	28.0	Professional Qualification	8	7.0
31 to 40 years	19	17.8	Higher Degree	5	4.4
Over 40 years	15	14.0			

The number of years spent farming was spread quite evenly across categories, with just over 20 percent having completed less than ten years, 14 percent having completed over 40 years, and 28 percent of farmers – the highest category overall – having completed between 21 and 30 years in the profession. In respect to ownership,

74.6 percent of respondents indicated they were the owner of the farm business, with 22.8 percent indicating they were tenant farmers with only marginal responses indicating a role as farm manager or other position.

Table 5-2: Farm ownership status

	%
Owner	74.6
Tenant	22.8
Manager	1.8
Other	0.9

n=114

5.2 THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FARM BUSINESS

Reflecting the known characteristics of the study region (as outlined in Chapter One), farm type is predominantly dairy (22.6 percent) and livestock grazing (57.6 percent). The latter figure, including both lowland grazing and grazing in 'less favoured areas' (34 percent), a term referring to more marginal hill-top and moorland sites, where farmers face even harsher economic pressure to diversify. Farm sizes are predominantly smaller than comparative regions, with over 60 percent of holdings comprising of less than 100 hectares; of the remainder, 16.7 percent are over 200 hectares in size.

Table 5-3: Characteristics of the farm business: farming type and size

	f	%		f	%
Farm size (n=108; M=115.3)			<i>Farm type</i> (n=106)		
Less than 50 hectares	38	35.2	Dairy	24	22.6
51 to 100 hectares	28	25.9	Grazing Livestock (LFA)	36	34.0
101 to 150 hectares	15	13.9	Grazing Livestock (Lowland)	25	23.6
151 to 200 hectares	9	8.3	Cereals/ General Cropping	5	4.7
201 to 300 hectares	11	10.2	Pigs & Poultry	2	1.8
Over 300 hectares	7	6.5	Horticulture	1	0.9
			Mixed	13	12.3

Concerning formal business planning, the number of farm businesses who acknowledge a formal business or marketing plan is quite low, at 24.6 percent and 13.6 percent respectively. To some extent, this is unsurprising in the context of the low

levels of business competency which underpin the rationale for this study (Defra, 2007; Hill, 2007; Jones, Moreddu and Kumagai, 2009), although the implications of this finding are considered in more depth in respect to formal business and marketing planning – against the tourism venture – below.

Table 5-4: Business and marketing planning (core farm)

	Business Plan		Marketing Plan	
	f	%	f	%
Yes	29	24.6	16	13.6
No	89	75.4	102	86.4

n=118

5.3 THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TOURISM ENTERPRISE

With respect to tourism enterprise, the survey reveals a long history of farm tourism in the region (see Table 5-5), with 20.5 percent of respondents having diversified over 21 years ago and seven holdings diversifying 30 years ago. Predominantly, however, farm businesses have engaged in tourism enterprise within the previous 10 years, with 50 properties (42.7 percent).

Table 5-5: Length of time diversified

Years	f	%
0-5	30	25.6
6-10	36	30.8
11-15	10	8.5
16-20	17	14.5
21-25	9	7.7
25-30	8	6.8
30+	7	6.0

n=117

Table 5-6: Income from farm tourism*

Income	f	%
0-10%	11	11.8
11-20%	7	7.5
21-30%	14	15.1
31-40%	8	8.6
41-50%	17	18.3
51-60%	6	6.5
61-70%	6	6.5
71-80%	6	6.5
81-90%	7	7.5
91-100%	11	11.8

n = 93 (*Expressed as a percentage of farm gross annual income)

With respect to tourism's contribution to farm income (Table 5-6), no easily discernible pattern emerges, with mean income from tourism being 53.5 percent of

total farm income. However, it is interesting to note, that despite indicating that they remain working farms, 20.4 percent of holdings earn over 80 percent, and 8 properties indicate that they earn 100 percent of farm income from tourism. This suggests that, for these businesses, the farming and tourism operations remain separate entities, that tourism is the farm's sole income generator, or perhaps, that respondents continue to retain their social identity of a farmer as custodian of the land, despite no longer engaging in farming activity.

The range of farm tourism products and services reported is very diverse (See Table 5-7 and 5-8), with the most frequently cited answers being, holiday cottages (37.3 percent) and bed and breakfast (32.2 percent). However, also prominent were themed farm parks or petting-zoo style attractions, educational tours and purpose built classrooms, as well catering and retail operations. Moreover, in the majority of cases, the farms surveyed have established multiple farm tourism ventures (i.e. a combination of on-farm accommodation along with themed attractions, retail or catering options (aimed primarily at the day visitor market), rendering a detailed breakdown as to skill and competency level, by diversified venture type, problematic.

Table 5-7: Most popular farm tourism activities

	f	%
Holiday Cottage	44	37.3
Bed & Breakfast	38	32.2
Direct sales of 'own' farm produce	27	22.9
Cafe or Restaurant	31	27.3
Farm demos/educational tours	22	18.6
Petting zoo/ farm animals	20	16.9
Camping/caravan pitches	20	16.9
Farm shop	15	12.7
Purpose built classroom	14	11.9

[#] Most frequent responses illustrated here; multiple answers possible including activities not listed (for full list see Table 5-7)

Table 5-8:. Nature of tourism/leisure diversified enterprise¹

		f	%
On-farm sporting and leisure activities	Walking/nature trails	37	31.4
	Horse riding	15	12.7
	Hunting and/or Shooting	5	4.2
	Fishing	19	16.1
	Bird hide/Wildlife viewing area	5	4.2
	Other Sport/Leisure	7	5.9
On-farm attractions and activities	Farm zoo/petting/feeding/handling	20	16.9
	Farm demonstrations/tour - general public	22	18.6
	Farm demonstrations/tour - schools/education	20	16.9
	Purpose built classroom/education facility	14	11.9
	Museum or farm/rural heritage attraction	5	4.2
	Maize maze/soya maze - or similar	5	4.2
	Observation of agriculture/manufacturing	14	11.9
	Indoor children's play area	7	5.9
	Outdoor children's play area	19	16.1
	Other attraction and activities	7	5.9
On-farm accommodation	Holiday Cottage	44	37.3
	Bed & Breakfast	38	32.2
	Camping	15	12.7
	Caravan pitches	20	16.9
	Bunkhouse style accommodation	8	6.8
	Other accommodation	3	6.8
On-farm catering provision	Restaurant	6	5.1
	Cafe	25	21.2
	Other catering provision	4	3.4
On-farm retail	Direct sales of 'own' farm produce	27	22.9
	'Pick your own' type sales	4	3.4
	Farm shop	15	12.7
	Other retail enterprise	5	4.2

¹Respondent could select more than one diversified enterprise

With regard to the hours devoted to managing and operating the diversified activities highlighted above, again, no clearly discernible pattern emerges with the mean number of hours devoted being 32.5.

Table 5-9: Hours per week devoted to tourism enterprise

Hours	f	%
0-20	46	42.2
21-40	30	27.5
41-60	23	21.1
60+	10	9.2
n=109		

With regard to motivations to diversify, and consistent with discussions in the literature (See: Nickerson, Black and McCool, 2001; McGehee and Kim, 2004; Sharpley and Vass, 2006; Barbieri and Mahoney, 2009), the need to 'generate additional income' emerged as a prime influence, with 89 percent of respondents rating this as important or very important. Conversely, social motivations to diversify remain low and thus the suggestion that farmers driven by the need to generate income will be more professional (Ollenburg and Buckley, 2007), particularly in the context of the discussion surrounding skills and business planning below, is not substantiated here. However, evidently, further empirical analysis is required concerning economic and social motivations and the relationship to skill and competency set.

Table 5-10: Motivations for diversification to farm tourism

	M	SD
Generate additional income*	4.63	0.86
New use for farm resources	3.15	1.59
Opportunities for children to inherit	2.92	1.55
Educate the public	2.95	1.46
Employment opportunities for family	2.77	1.47
Meet new and interesting people	2.69	1.17
Satisfy an existing hobby or interest	2.19	1.34
Exit strategy from farming	2.05	1.35

*89 percent of respondents stated the need to generate new income was either 'important' or 'very important'

In addition, and as a precursor to the discussion of the skills required for diversification, the survey instrument also sought to assess how many respondents made use of a business or marketing plan in respect to the diversified tourism venture.

Both are identified as being very low, with 71.2 percent reporting that they possess no written business plan and 78 percent having no formal marketing plan for their tourism enterprise. This contrasts with Barbieri and Mshenga's (2008) sample of US based farm tourism ventures, where 63 percent held a formal business and marketing plan. In this instance, formal planning may be seen as unnecessary or imply that farmers lack the ability to plan effectively, suggesting that farm business advisory and training support services should address this issue, particularly given the assertion that a 'tourism business plan' is one element of the transition from 'tourism on farms' to 'farm tourism', and thus the professionalism of farm tourism operators (Busby and Rendle, 2000, p.640).

Table 5-11: Business and marketing plan for diversified tourism enterprise

	Business Plan		Marketing Plan	
	f	%	f	%
Yes	34	28.8	26	22.0
No	84	71.2	92	78.0

n=118

What is more, it is also revealing to note a number of the free text responses that were made in respect to formal business and marketing planning, in that they offer an insight into the views that it may be assumed many respondents hold in regard to formal written plans:

We have no formal written business plan and know all our written plans, writing it down was not necessary and a waste of valuable time [P1-015].

We did have a written plan but achieved all our targets in the first six months so haven't needed one since [P1-109]

5.4 ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILLS AND COMPETENCIES: THE FARMERS PERSPECTIVE

As has been previously outlined, the purpose of the research at Phase One was to assess the skills and competencies that farmers identify as relevant for effective and

successful diversification to farm tourism, by asking respondents to rate the importance of a range of skills and competencies. This is prior, to asking them to then conduct a personal evaluation of their own abilities against the same list. Many of the skills and competencies around which the questionnaire was constructed are widely accepted in the literature, and are thus acknowledged as entrepreneurial in nature. Others, however, have been introduced as more suitable in the context of farm tourism diversification and as more applicable to this study. A number of the skills have been adapted from the work of Lichtenstein and Lyons (2001), who propose an 'Entrepreneurial Development System' (EDS) to foster entrepreneurship and build the entrepreneurial potential of regional communities in the United States (as has been outlined previously at Chapter Three). The EDS is based on three main premises, that: (1) ultimate success in entrepreneurship requires the mastery of a set of skills; (2) these skills can be developed; and (3) entrepreneurs do not all come to entrepreneurship at the same skill level (Lyons, 2003).

This system has been utilised in the work of Smith, Schallenkamp and Eicholz (2007), who present the skills under the headings of technical, managerial and entrepreneurial skills, as well as personal maturity skills. The research design here draws on this approach, although for the purposes of this study, many skills within the EDS categories have been substituted for those considered more relevant to the rural, land-based or tourism and hospitality service industries, as identified by the UK Sector Skills agencies for these industries (Lantra, 2003, 2005; People1st, 2006). The outcomes of this research are discussed in the following sections, with the 15 individual skills and competencies, subdivided into business and management, as well as entrepreneurial and personal maturity skills, as identified at Table 5-12.

5.4.1 Farmers' perception of entrepreneurial skills and competencies

This section focuses on the competencies and skills considered necessary for successful diversification and, as has been previously identified, respondents were initially asked to rate the skills they deemed most important in operating their diversified enterprises, from (1) unimportant through to (5) very important. The mean rankings against each of the skills deemed most applicable by the farmers sampled

are shown at Table 5-12 below, with the competencies grouped into business and management and then entrepreneurial and personal maturity skills and competencies, to allow for ease of analysis

With respect to business and management competencies, 'customer service' skills are clearly identified by the respondents as being the most important attribute, with a mean ranking of 4.52 and a standard deviation of 0.88. Indeed, 23.7 percent of respondents categorise service skills as important and 67.8 percent as very important in managing their tourism operations. Additionally, high mean values were recorded for 'managing finances' (4.28), 'marketing and sales' (4.14) and 'organisation skills' (4.13).

Table 5-12: Perceived importance of selected skills and competencies

	M	SD
Business & Management Skills / Competencies		
Customer Service: <i>Handling service expectations and dealing with problems</i>	4.52	0.88
Financial: <i>Managing financial resources, accounting, budgeting</i>	4.28	0.95
Marketing/Sales: <i>Identifying and reaching customers/distribution channels</i>	4.14	1.02
Organisational Skills: <i>Day to day administration, managing yourself / your time</i>	4.13	0.97
Small Business Regulations: <i>. i.e. H&S, risk assessment, disability legislation</i>	3.95	1.16
Supervision: <i>Manage/supervise employees and their needs</i>	2.98	1.59
Entrepreneurial & Personal Maturity Skills / Competencies		
Accountability: <i>Ability to take responsibility for solving a problem</i>	4.39	0.81
Emotional Coping: <i>Emotional ability to cope with a problem</i>	4.31	0.89
Critical Evaluation: <i>The ability to think critically</i>	3.91	1.09
Networking: <i>Co-operation with others, networking and utilising contacts</i>	3.81	1.14
Self Awareness: <i>Ability to reflect and be introspective</i>	3.75	1.14
Environmental Scanning: <i>Recognise market gap, exploit market opportunity</i>	3.68	1.16
Business Concept: <i>Business and strategic planning</i>	3.66	1.13
Goal Setting: <i>Ability to set personal goals, reach them and set new ones</i>	3.64	1.14
Negotiation: <i>Persuasive communication and negotiation skills</i>	3.58	1.12

Of slightly less significance to respondents, was the fifth-ranked management variable of 'small business regulations' (3.95). This may be considered more of a knowledge competency than skill base but is included given its prominence in the policy literature (Lantra, 2003; People1st, 2006; Hill, 2007) and that this may include licensing, health and safety and disability legislation not ordinarily encountered by traditional farming operations.

Of least importance is the 'supervision and management of employees' (2.98) although, as many of the farms surveyed were family operated, the anticipated roles of recruitment, training and appraisal, were unlikely to be deemed relevant by respondents. Moreover, and as will be outlined more fully in chapter 6, it may well be that the term 'employee' in the context of this skills statement was an issue for a number of respondents.

Amongst the remaining skills and competencies, considered entrepreneurial – or conceptualised as higher order or personal maturity skills and competencies – 'accountability' and 'emotional coping' are ranked highly at 4.39 and 4.31. Here, one might relate these skills to farming identity and, indeed, it is easy to imagine that emotional coping as a trait, may well be developed, when managing the transition from falling agricultural returns to a new and challenging diversified environment, whilst seeking to maintain family and personal connections to both property and land.

The remaining entrepreneurial and higher order skills, from the ability to 'think critically' to 'persuasive negotiation skills,' are ranked from 3.91 to 3.58, suggesting that they remain of importance in diversifying from the farmers' perspective, but less so than a number of the management skills and competencies acknowledged above. Within this selection, it is important to note that two competencies frequently associated with entrepreneurship – namely 'environmental scanning' (elsewhere termed opportunity recognition) and 'business concept' (or planning) – are revealing. Both have very similar mean values (3.68 and 3.66) though wide distributions. Indeed, closer analysis identifies that 38.1 per cent of those surveyed rated 'environmental scanning' in the categories unimportant through to moderately important, whilst 37.3 per cent rated 'business concept' in the same unimportant to mid-importance range. Taken at face value, this indicates that, for a number of farm businesses, entrepreneurial competencies are not deemed to be as significant as those management – or functional competencies – identified above.

5.4.2 Farmer's self-assessment of entrepreneurial skills and competencies

As has been outlined above, in the follow up section of the Phase One questionnaire, farmers were asked to rate their own abilities against each of the 15 skills and competencies listed, as either (1) low, (2) medium or (3) high. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 5-13 below, whilst the skills that respondents evaluated as both the highest and lowest ability are presented later at Table 5-14 and 5-15.

Table 5-13: farmers self-assessment: mean rankings

	M	SD
Customer Service: <i>Handling service expectations and dealing with problems</i>	2.69	0.53
Accountability: <i>Ability to take responsibility for solving a problem</i>	2.65	0.54
Critical Evaluation: <i>The ability to think critically</i>	2.62	0.73
Emotional Coping: <i>Emotional ability to cope with a problem</i>	2.54	0.63
Organisational Skills: <i>Day to day administration, managing yourself and your time</i>	2.47	0.64
Financial: <i>Managing financial resources, accounting, budgeting</i>	2.31	0.60
Goal Setting: <i>Ability to set personal goals, reach them and set new ones</i>	2.31	0.69
Marketing/Sales: <i>Identifying and reaching customers/distribution channels</i>	2.19	0.68
Networking: <i>Co-operation with others, networking and utilising contacts</i>	2.19	0.74
Self Awareness: <i>Ability to reflect and be introspective</i>	2.19	0.71
Negotiation: <i>Persuasive communication and negotiation skills</i>	2.14	0.67
Business Concept: <i>Business and strategic planning</i>	2.13	0.66
Small Business Regulations: <i>i.e. H&S, risk assessment, disability legislation</i>	2.02	0.78
Environmental Scanning: <i>Recognise market gap, exploit market opportunity</i>	2.02	0.75
Supervision: <i>Manage/supervise employees and their needs</i>	1.94	0.78

With regards to the skills in which the respondents considered themselves proficient, 'customer service' emerges as the strongest at Table 5-13, with a mean ranking of 2.69. What is more, a review of table 5-14 and 5-15 below, reveals that 72.9 percent of respondents proposed that they had a high ability, whilst only 3.4 percent considered scoring themselves low. In the context of the perceived skills need outlined in the earlier section, this result is encouraging, given that farmers have clearly identified that service skills were critical to effective diversification. Indeed, Nickerson, Black and McCool (2001) outline the importance interpersonal skills in farm tourism, calling for more research to determine their role in ventures success.

Table 5-14: Farmers self- assessment:
Skills ranked at 'low' ability

	f	%
Supervision	39	33.1
Environmental Scanning	32	27.1
Small Business Regs	30	25.4
Networking	23	19.5
Self Awareness	21	17.8
Negotiation	19	16.1
Business Concept	19	16.1
Marketing/Sales	18	15.3
Goal Setting	15	12.7
Critical Evaluation	10	8.5
Financial	9	7.6
Emotional Coping	9	7.6
Organisational Skills	5	4.2
Customer Service	4	3.4
Accountability	4	3.4

Table 5-15: Farmers self- assessment:
Skills ranked at 'high' ability

	f	%
Customer Service	86	72.9
Accountability	81	68.6
Emotional Coping	73	61.9
Organisational Skills	65	55.1
Critical Evaluation	52	44.1
Goal Setting	51	43.2
Financial	46	39.0
Networking	45	38.1
Self Awareness	43	36.4
Marketing/Sales	40	33.9
Negotiation	35	29.7
Business Concept	34	28.8
Environmental Scanning	34	28.8
Small Business Regs	32	27.1
Supervision	32	27.1

Perceived competency in service skills, are followed closely by 'accountability', 'critical evaluation' and 'emotional coping', which are again reflected by a very high number of respondents ranking themselves with high ability (mean scores of 2.54 to 2.65). Given the earlier results which indicated that farmers considered these competencies as essential, the relatively high scoring of these 'higher order' and 'personal maturity skills' is encouraging. However, 'financial' and 'marketing' skills, previously identified as important for successful diversification, rank quite low in the self-assessment exercise. More specifically, only 39 percent of those surveyed, considered that they hold a high level of competency in financial management skills, whilst only 33.9 percent suggest they have high marketing skill. What is more, given that both financial and marketing skills were earlier identified by respondents as an important skill for successful diversification, this suggests that farmers would welcome the emphasis on these competencies in farm business advisory and training support services.

At the lower end of the scale, Tables 5-14 and 5-15 indicate that 'supervision' as a skill offers mixed results, with 27.1 percent rating themselves high and 33.1 percent evaluating themselves with low self ability. Here one must acknowledge that as a skill,

'supervision' resulted in mixed feelings amongst those surveyed, which evidently comprises mainly family enterprises. Thus, perhaps the use of the term employee may have manifested itself in a mixed response. Likewise, 'small business regulations', which respondents also deemed relatively unimportant for successful diversification, recorded only 27.1 percent as high and 25.4 percent with low ability. Here, one must consider whether this signals ambivalence towards new regulations and regulatory frameworks, an important consideration given that farm tourism entrepreneurs will be exposed to new risks and liabilities when diversifying. This is illustrated by the recent high profile E. Coli outbreaks at a number of UK open farm / petting zoo style attractions (Griffin, 2010; HSE, 2012; RVC, 2012), and highlights that further research in this area is required.

Of greater interest are abilities that are identifiable in the literature as entrepreneurial in nature yet which clearly represent very low mean rankings in respect to the respondents' personal skill evaluation. For instance, in Table 5-13 'business concept' and 'environmental scanning' have mean values of 2.13 and 2.02 respectively, whilst Table 5-15 indicates that only 28.8 percent of respondents appraise themselves as having a high personal ability in 'business concept' and 'environmental scanning'. With an almost comparable number rating themselves as low for 'environmental scanning' (27.1 percent), though less so for 'business concept' (16.1 percent).

Thus, it is evident that, by asking farm respondents to self evaluate their own skills and competencies, one can readily identify that a number of managerial and personal maturity skills dominate at the expense of those competencies which are easily identifiable as entrepreneurial. Such a finding is significant, both given the continued emphasis on the need for these entrepreneurial skills and competencies in the wider literature and indeed may challenge the contemporary assumption outlined in earlier chapters, that farmers are becoming more enterprising in response to the structural changes in agriculture. Especially, when related to the earlier observation, that diversification in this region was primarily to generate and exploit new sources of income.

5.5 DISCUSSION AND INTERIM CONCLUSIONS

What becomes clear from the discussions above, is that farmers value a number of managerial skills and competencies, including customer service, managing finances and marketing, as necessary skills for successful diversification. What is also clear is that, when presented with a self-assessment tool, whilst customer service scores highly, competency in finance and marketing are ranked lower. This suggests that farmers would welcome support in these areas in farm business advisory and support services. What the results above also indicate, is that whilst farmers are increasingly turning to farm tourism as an alternative farm enterprise, they evidently lack many of the fundamental business competencies that are required for successful diversification, a situation which becomes more revealing when one considers the economic, as opposed to social motivations to diversify that the Phase One research also highlights.

Moreover, whilst managerial competencies are clearly important, also prominent within the results is the implication that a range of entrepreneurial and higher order competencies are considered less important, and also self-assessed at a lower competency level. Whilst acknowledging that the business and management competencies identified remain important, entrepreneurship is about much more than simply managing (Pyysiäinen, et al, 2006); it is about innovation and risk-taking (Timmons, 1994) and, increasingly, is recognised as the 'discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities' (Shane and Venkatraman, 2000, p.218). Moreover, as opportunity increasingly becomes the focus for entrepreneurship research, then one must acknowledge that 'environmental scanning' (or the ability to recognise and exploit market opportunities) exists only at relatively low levels amongst farm tourism operators in this study area. Thus, as opportunity is placed central to many discourses of entrepreneurship, one must acknowledge that 'environmental scanning' (or the ability to recognise and exploit market opportunities) exists only at relatively low levels amongst farm tourism operators in this study area. Similarly, the ability to both create and evaluate a business strategy as a higher order entrepreneurial skill (Morgan et al, 2010) is undermined by the low levels of formal business planning. As well as the perception amongst farmers that 'business concept' (i.e. business and strategic

planning) is relatively unimportant for diversification, along with low self-evaluations of their abilities in this regard, this raises additional concerns.

Overall, the findings at Phase One highlight a distinct lack of business competency and the failure to conceptualise the diversified project as a business may have very real implications for the long term survival of the diversified business. Certainly, whilst many farmers may not readily identify themselves as entrepreneurs, the need to embody a number of key business competencies – and, indeed, to become more enterprising and embrace new opportunities – has been shown (within Chapters One to Three) to be fundamental to surviving as agricultural markets become ever more liberalised. What is more, following an evaluation of the results here, one is forced to question whether the farmers in this research area are entrepreneurial to the extent that the emerging literature on rural entrepreneurship (at Chapter Three) suggests. Evidently, this is an aspect that requires greater depth of analysis and focus at Phase Two of this MMR design. However, in the context of the introduction to this thesis – that farmers must develop new skills and competencies to remain competitive – then the distinct lack of a many of the entrepreneurial competencies identified may have very real implications for the long term survival of these farm tourism ventures. However, it should be acknowledged that the skills evaluated here have been assembled apriori by the researcher using the framework and central premise of the Entrepreneurial Development System (Lichtenstein and Lyons, 2001; Smith, Schallenkamp and Eichholz, 2007; Schallenkamp and Smith, 2008; Kutzhanova, Lyons and Lichtenstein, 2009). This advocates that success requires a mastery of a set of skills, that these skills can be developed and that entrepreneurs do not all arrive at the same skills level (Lyons, 2003).

With this in mind, and acknowledging the exploratory elements of the research presented here, it is acknowledged that the fifteen skills and competencies are not representative of the literature overall. Moreover, the discussion in Chapter Three identifies a number of skill and competency frameworks that the space in this postal questionnaire did not allow. What is more, the research aims and objectives identified in Chapter One highlight that this thesis aims to assess the entrepreneurial skill and

competency needs of farmers within the context of diversification to tourism. Thus, greater depth of analysis is required as to this requisite skills and competencies that will be developed via the qualitative aspects of the Phase Two research in Chapter Six that now follows. Moreover, it is acknowledged that the purpose of a sequential phase within this MMR design is indeed to explain to clarify initial quantitative findings.

PHASE TWO: (Q - METHODOLOGICAL) ANALYSIS

6.0 CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter, describes and interprets the results of the first (quantitative) phase of the research, highlighting that farmers evidently value and recognise the need for a number of managerial and entrepreneurial skills and competencies in order to engage successfully in diversification. However, the picture that emerged from this initial research was far from conclusive, pointing to the need for further empirical work. In particular, the discussion in Phase One begins to question the extent to which diversified farmers in the study area may be considered entrepreneurial, given that a number of key competencies related to opportunity, business strategy and planning, appear to be either missing or valued to a lesser extent. Thus, and as previously indicated, the next stage of this sequential explanatory MMR design requires a more detailed and comprehensive analysis of these viewpoints. To this end, and as explained in Chapter Four, Q Methodology has been selected as the most appropriate research technique to reveal the subjective or first person viewpoints of diversified farmers in this study area. More specifically, the purpose of Q Methodology is to apply factor analytical techniques to reveal underlining explanations for the patterns that emerge from the Q-sort data, the resulting factors being seen to represent the idealised sorts – or social perspectives – that comprise the subjective expressions of the participants. Thus, it is expedient here to both review the manner by which the final set of factors is established and to present a brief explanation as to how the interpretation and understanding of these factors is addressed.

As noted previously in Chapter Four (section 4.9 .5), the decision about which factors to select for interpretation is based upon the identification of those Q factors with an eigenvalue in excess of 1.00 and which have minimum of two Q-sort's loading significantly upon that factor (Brown, 1980). Moreover, as was also highlighted, Webler, Danielson and Tuler (2009, p.31) recommend that the criteria against which the final set of factors is determined should be guided by (1) simplicity: the fewer factors the better; (2) clarity, and the desire to minimise the number of confounders i.e. those who load on multiple factors; (3) distinctness, with lower correlations between factors preferred, and (4) stability, indicated by those people who cluster and, thus, think similarly.

Furthermore, this analysis is aided by a range of tables within Q method's output files that provide the researcher with an initial overview of the emergent factors that includes (1) the correlations between factor scores; (2) the factor matrix; (3) the normalised factor scores for each factor; (4) the descending array of difference between factors; and (5) the distinguishing statements and consensus statements for each factor (Schmolck, 2012). Firstly, the correlations between factors indicate how similar the factors are (see Table 6-1), whilst the factor matrix (Table 6-2) highlights those participants who, following factor rotation and flagging, agree with each factor and by how much. Next, the normalised factor scores for each factor are presented, these essentially represent idealised Q-sorts for this factor. In addition, the 'descending array of differences between factors' allows the researcher to make sense of the factors presented, in that it shows which items the factors ranked most differently and thus allows for clarification of the differences. Finally, the tables of distinguishing statements and consensus statements indicate those statements which were ranked differently between the given factor and all other factors, as well as those that were not ranked differently by any factor (Webler, Danielson and Tuler, 2007, 2009; Watts and Stenner, 2012). Also important within the analysis are the z-scores associated with the items, as these provide a measure of salience and indicate how far the statement lies from the middle of the forced distribution. Effectively, the z-scores are standard deviations and, thus, a 'z-score of -3.0 is three standard deviations below the mid-point of the distribution...' that is, 'a statement at the very far left end of the Q-sort' (Webler, Danielson and Tuler, 2009, p.32).

The above discussion evidently focuses on the numerical and quantifiable aspects of Q Methodology, although to focus solely on the 'statistical information relative to the individual items of the Q set' is an invitation to lose sight of the 'holistic character of the factor arrays'. Moreover, to do so is to depart from Stephenson's pursuit of a *holistic* procedure which he devised to distinguish it from 'the *atomistic* (by variable by item) methods and approaches that were predominant both then and now' (Watts and Stenner, 2012, p.148-149). Moreover, as Webler, Danielson and Tuler (2007, p.27) indicate:

You are in essence doing the reverse of what the participants did while Q sorting – they took their views and translated them into an arrangement of cards. Now, you are taking arrangements of cards and translating them into viewpoints.

Thus, it is the role of the researcher, whilst not losing sight of the constructors (or participants) who completed the Q-sort, to now focus on the constructions themselves (Stainton-Rogers, 1995). At the same time, and to reiterate the key rationale for Q Methodology as considered in detail in Chapter Four, the intention is to identify the subjective beliefs or viewpoints of participants through the self-referencing procedure that they have engaged in. To this end, the research presented in this chapter utilises the approach to factor interpretation advocated by Watts and Stenner (2012) which is both systematic and methodical. What is more, Watts and Stenner's system retains the abductive logic that underpins Q, whilst advocating a narrative style that maintains reference to each of the original Q-sort items at the same time as introducing pertinent qualitative comments presented in the participants own words. Thus, it is to the interpretation of these factors, and the subjectivities that diversified farmers in this study area offer in regard to entrepreneurial skills and competencies, to which this chapter now turns.

6.1 INTRODUCING THE THREE EMERGENT FACTORS (A, B AND C)

Following the data collection at Phase Two of the research which included a Q-sort of 42 items by 15 participants, the data were subjected to varimax and by-hand rotation using the dedicated PQMethod software package (Schmolck, 2012). In addition, according to the course of action outlined in the sections above, three factors were extracted that provide three distinct interpretations of the skills and competencies that farmers identify as important in the context of diversification to farm tourism. The selected factors each have an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 and collectively explain 54 percent of the variance and account for all 15 participants (see Tables 6-1 and 6-2 below). Moreover, within Q Methodology, any factor solution in the region of 35 – 40 percent or above of the total study variance is considered a sound solution, suggesting promise for the three factors identified here (Watts and Stenner, 2012).

Table 6-1: Correlation Between Factor Scores

	A	B	C
A	1.00	0.43	0.20
B	0.43	1.00	0.32
C	0.20	0.32	1.00

Table 6-2: The Factor Matrix

Participant	A	Factor B	C
P2-01	-0.0032	0.7401X	-0.0474
P2-02	0.2783	0.6661X	0.0593
P2-03	-0.0222	0.4363	0.6988X
P2-04	0.8156X	0.3047	0.1048
P2-05	0.0790	0.4664X	-0.0739
P2-06	0.7584X	0.1629	-0.0457
P2-07	0.1321	0.6556X	-0.0548
P2-08	0.8516X	0.0463	0.0000
P2-09	0.2521	0.6651X	0.3743
P2-10	0.1550	-0.2137	0.5996X
P2-11	0.0163	0.2546	0.4586X
P2-12	0.6029X	0.0494	0.3805
P2-13	0.6429X	0.2249	0.4128
P2-14	0.7041X	0.3472	-0.2039
P2-15	0.2104	0.5689X	0.0354
Eigenvalue	9.66	7.98	5.04
% expl.Var.	23%	20%	11%

X = a defining sort

The factor array for these factors is outlined in Table 6-3 below, which also includes the item number and the statement wordings. In addition, the notations in parentheses denote the competency cluster from which the statement originally emerged following the literature review and refinement through the concourse (see explanatory note accompanying Table 6-3). This factor array enables a comparison of the item rankings across Factors A, B and C, with the rankings indicative of the viewpoints of participants from least important (-4) through to the most important (+4).

Table 6-3: Factor arrays for the three emergent factors

<i>Item number and wording</i>		Factor Arrays		
		A	B	C
1	Able to easily describe the problems in your business (ConComp)	-1	-2	-1
2	Have a large measure of creativity (ConComp)	-3	-3	1
3	Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (RelComp)	2	-4	3
4	Have sound financial management skills (OrgComp)	2	4	2
5	Continuously aware of new possibilities (OppComp)	-1	0	1
6	Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (OppComp)	-1	2	4
7	The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (RelComp)	3	1	2
8	Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (OrgComp)	1	1	0
9	Able to generate new and innovative ideas (ConComp)	1	1	3
10	Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (OrgComp)	0	1	-2
11	Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (OppComp)	0	1	-1
12	The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (CommComp)	1	-2	-2
13	Willing to look for new information all time (OppComp)	-2	-2	-1
14	Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) (CommComp)	0	-2	-3
15	Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (ConComp)	1	-1	0
16	Be able to enlist the support of key people (RelComp)	2	2	1
17	Able to look at problems in new ways (ConComp)	-1	-1	0
18	The ability to make the venture work no matter what (CommComp)	-4	0	0
19	Be an effective leader (OrgComp)	4	3	2
20	Be able to delegate effectively (OrgComp)	3	0	-2
21	Be able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (OppComp)	-2	2	3
22	Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (RelComp)	-3	3	2
23	Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (OppComp)	-1	2	0
24	Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (StratComp)	-2	-1	-2
25	The ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your products / services (CommComp)	-1	0	0
26	Be good decision maker (OrgComp)	2	4	2

(Continued)

		<i>(Continued)</i>		
		Factor Arrays		
<i>Item number and wording</i>		A	B	C
27	An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (StratComp)	1	2	-1
28	Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (CommComp)	2	0	-1
29	Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (StratComp)	-2	-3	-4
30	Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (StratComp)	-2	1	-1
31	The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (StratComp)	0	0	1
32	Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (RelComp)	0	-1	-4
33	Be able to motivate others (RelComp)	3	0	1
34	Be the first to try out new things (OppComp)	-4	-2	-3
35	Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (StratComp)	1	1	0
36	Maintain a network of professional contacts (RelComp)	-3	-4	0
37	Be prepared to take risks (ConComp)	0	-3	4
38	Be able to see things from various points of view (ConComp)	1	-1	-3
39	Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (CommComp)	-1	-1	-1
40	Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (CommComp)	0	-1	1
41	Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the decisions you make (StratComp)	0	3	1
42	Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (OrgComp)	4	0	-2

Wording in parentheses denotes the competency cluster (Man, Lau and Chan, 2002) which was utilised to structure the Q-set (see again Appendix C and D). This was not included within the items sorted by the participants (see Appendix E), but has been reintroduced here, as a useful reference. Moreover, a number of the tables and figures in the following sections, also include reference to the original competency cluster.

(OppComp = Opportunity Competencies; RelComp = Relationship Competencies; ConComp = Conceptual Competencies; OrgComp = Organising Competencies; StratComp = Strategic Competencies; CommComp = Commitment Competencies).

6.2 FACTOR A: REFLECTIVE LEADERS

Factor A has an eigenvalue of 9.66 and explains 23 percent of the study variance, whilst 6 participants are significantly associated with this factor (see Appendix F). The distinguishing statements for Factor A are detailed in Table 6-4, whilst an idealised or composite Q-sort for this factor is shown in Figure 6-1. Moreover, the crib sheet presented in Appendix G also contributes toward the understanding and interpretation of this factor.

Table 6-4: Distinguishing statements for Factor A

Item number and wording	Q-Sort Value	Z Score
19 Be an effective leader (OrgComp)	4	2.01*
42 Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (OrgComp)	4	1.86*
20 Be able to delegate effectively (OrgComp)	3	1.55*
7 The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (RelComp)	3	1.50
33 Be able to motivate others (RelComp)	3	1.44*
38 Be able to see things from various points of view (ConComp)	1	0.41*
12 The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (CommComp)	1	0.09*
9 Able to generate new and innovative ideas (ConComp)	1	0.07
14 Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) (CommComp)	0	0.06*
32 Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (RelComp)	0	-0.09
37 Be prepared to take risks (ConComp)	0	-0.14*
41 Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the decisions you make (StratComp)	0	-0.16
6 Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (OppComp)	-1	-0.19*
21 Be able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (OppComp)	-2	-0.60*
30 Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (StratComp)	-2	-1.15
22 Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (RelComp)	-3	-1.15*
18 The ability to make the venture work no matter what (CommComp)	-4	-2.20*

Distinguishing statements significant at $p < 0.05$ Asterisk () indicates significance at $p < 0.01$*

Factor A is illustrative of those diversified farmers who consider effective leadership and the ability to organise and coordinate people, whilst delegating effectively, as an essential aspect of managing their diversified tourism venture (Items 19 and 42: +4; Item 20: +3). Indeed, a number of participants commented specifically about the need and importance of delegation:

You have to delegate... why employ people if you can't? (P2-o8)

Delegation... Not something I'm good at but I know how important it is... you've got to lead...(P2-13)

In addition, they recognise that additional organisational competencies are essential

to the economic success of a venture, including the need to be a good decision maker with a solid grasp of the financial side of the business (Items 4 and 26: +2), the need to plan daily operations and to allocate the necessary resources to their operations to allow them to run smoothly (Item 8: +1; Item 10: 0).

I mean, every decision matters doesn't it... There's no point being a good leader if the decisions you make are bad (P2-13)

Further to these key organisational competencies, the fostering of relationship competencies are also valued highly with an evident need to motivate those they lead and organise whilst, at the same time, communicating their requirements effectively and making them clearly understood (Items 7 and 33: +3). Moreover, the importance of these relationship skills is evidently fundamental to those in Factor A, with the need to enlist the support of key individuals and the requirement to put one's ideas across also featuring prominently (Items 16 and 3: +2). Again, these fundamental competencies are demonstrated best in the words of participants themselves:

Motivation is very important... It's quite easy to have bad staff who, if you motivate them, can actually do good work... but equally, if you have good staff, who ain't motivated, they just don't do anything... (P2-13)

I have to be clear what I want, but it means nothing if I can't get everyone on board with it... I have to get the lads to understand what I am doing and why... (P2-12)

However, the additional relationship competencies of networking and negotiation (Items 22 and 36: -3) are deemed far less important. Moreover, this would seem to reveal a dichotomy between those relationships competencies which exist within the farm venture (i.e. motivating and communicating with those you lead and organise) and those that take place beyond the farm gate (i.e. networking and negotiation externally).

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
The ability to make the venture work no matter what (18)	Maintain a network of professional contacts (36)	Willing to look for new information all time (13)	Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (6)	Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (10)	Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (8)	Be a good decision maker (26)	Be able to delegate effectively (20)	Be an effective leader (19)
Be the first to try out new things (34)	Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (22)	Able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (21:OppComp)	Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (23)	Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (11)	Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (35)	Have sound financial management skills (4)	Be able to motivate others (33)	Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (42)
	Have a large measure of creativity (2)	Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (24)	Continuously aware of new possibilities (5)	The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (31)	An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (27)	Be able to enlist the support of key people (16)	The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (7)	
		Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (29)	Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (39)	Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the business decisions you make (41)	Be able to see things from various points of view (38)	Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (3)		
		Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (30)	Ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your prods / servs (25)	Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc.) (14)	The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (12)	Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (28)		
			Able to look at problems in new ways (17)	Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (40)	Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (15)			
			Able to easily describe the problems in your business (1)	Be prepared to take risks (37)	Able to generate new and innovative ideas (9)			
				Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (32)				

Figure 6-1: Idealised or composite Q-Sort (Factor A)

Interestingly, a number of opportunity competencies are of a lesser importance to diversified farmers in Factor A, including the ability to recognise a gap in the market (Item 21: -2) and the identification of unmet customer needs (Item 6: -1). Indeed, many aspects of opportunity skill and competency are generally valued far less, or seem to be of lesser importance (Items 5, 11, 13 and 23: are all ranked from -2 to 0), than the organisational relationship competencies noted above.

What is more, farmers in this group demonstrate a fundamental disagreement with the notion that they should be the first to try out new things (Item 34: -4), with some of the more vocal participants arguing:

It's not my job to be first, let others try that and we can follow... I don't think it matters... they can tell me if something works (P2-04)

The guys that want to try new things with their diversification... they're the ones who probably never wanted to farm... we're about setting up something we know will work, something that we've been able to see at other places and we know the people here will want... (P2-12)

A similar depth of feeling surrounds a number of commitment competencies and the idea that the venture should be made to work no matter what (Item 18: -4).

No matter what... yeah, that could be costly [laughs]... (P2-08)

If it actually meant it was doing more harm than good to the farm and the family and eventually leaving it to the kids, then you've probably gone too far... no, I wouldn't agree with that...(P2-13)

The 'no matter what' might mean 'no matter who you hurt'... a lot of people count on this farm, I have a lot of people to think of... there is always a 'what' (P2-14)

However, some additional commitment competencies provoke much less strength of feeling. For instance, farmers here recognise the need to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses and the importance of evaluating their own actions (Item 28: +2; Item 12; +1). Moreover, this suggests an element of reflection on the part of these individuals, who agree that having the emotional ability to cope with problems, as well as being able to see issues from varying perspectives (as conceptual

competencies) along with the ability to weigh the costs and benefits of the decisions they make (an essential strategic competency), are of equal yet moderate importance (Items 15, 38: +1; Item 41:0). As one diversified farmer explains:

I've got to understand the effects of the decisions I make, no one is around to do it for me. These ones [points to statements about awareness of strengths and weaknesses and the costs and benefits of decisions] are about managing yourself. I still think it's important to manage others but I do have to have these ones here [points again]... (P2-06)

However, these important conceptual and strategic competencies do not extend to naming one's business goals or to laying these goals down on paper (Items 24 and 29: -2). More specifically, knowing these goals would seem to be important but committing them to a formal business plan is less so:

You have to know what your goals are... but writing it down? Yeah, it's what you're supposed to do, but yeah, as long as I know what they are... (P2-12)

[about business planning] I think it's probably a good thing to do... it's one of those things I should do, but it's easy to say and it... it's so time-consuming... so I think you only do it when you really have to... as soon as the work picks up, you just don't get round to it... (P2-13)

Moreover, the requirements to be clear about where the business will be at a future point in time (Item 30: -2), to not be diverted from these goals when set (Item 39: -1), and to prioritising them (Item 31:0), are also attributed much less importance than many of those noted above. For instance:

In this business, it can be completely different in one year, never mind in five years... [P2-06]

You know where you would like to be, but things change... grants come and go... new government rules push you down a different track... [P2-08]

However, whilst farmers here do not consider placing these goals on paper or realistically being able to look too far to the future, they are at least aware of external changes and any potential resulting impacts (Item 35: +1), and consequently adopt a

middle ground position with regards to risk (Item 37:0). Furthermore, to place this propensity to take risks in context, it is interesting to note that farmers in Factor B, explored later, consider risk to be of little importance with regards to successful diversification (-3), whilst those in Factor C would seem to positively embrace risk (+4).

Having presented the factor narrative above, it is evident that the diversified farmers in this group value a number of organisational and relationship competencies over and above the opportunity and strategic competencies discussed. Having identified in Chapter One, that an aim of this thesis is to develop a taxonomy as a basis for understanding entrepreneurial skill and competency needs, it is therefore necessary to now examine these competency groupings more closely. Moreover, having explained that Man Lau and Chan's (2002) six competency clusters provide the underpinning structure for the selection of Q-sort items, these will now be mapped against Factor A. Specifically, the relationship between competency clusters can be represented by means of the (hypothetical) conceptual diagram presented in Figure 6-3 below which itself is derived from the idealised or composite Q-sort for Factor A, which is highlighted by competency cluster (see Figure 6-2).

The conceptual diagram and the composite Q-sort together demonstrate visually that organisational competencies are valued highly, or considered to be of most importance, to participants in this factor. What is more, the relationship between these organisational elements and the opportunity competencies represented is shown to be polarised, with the latter deemed to be of much less importance. Thus, for this factor, we are able to challenge the established logic that diversified farmers can be conceptualised wholly as entrepreneurs, given the emphasis on opportunity competency in so many of the entrepreneurial frameworks, and indeed the entrepreneurship literature generally as discussed in Chapter Three. Moreover, whilst this conceptual relationship will now also be explored with regards to Factor B and C, a review of each of these conceptual diagrams in Appendices H and I makes these relationships appear even more apparent.

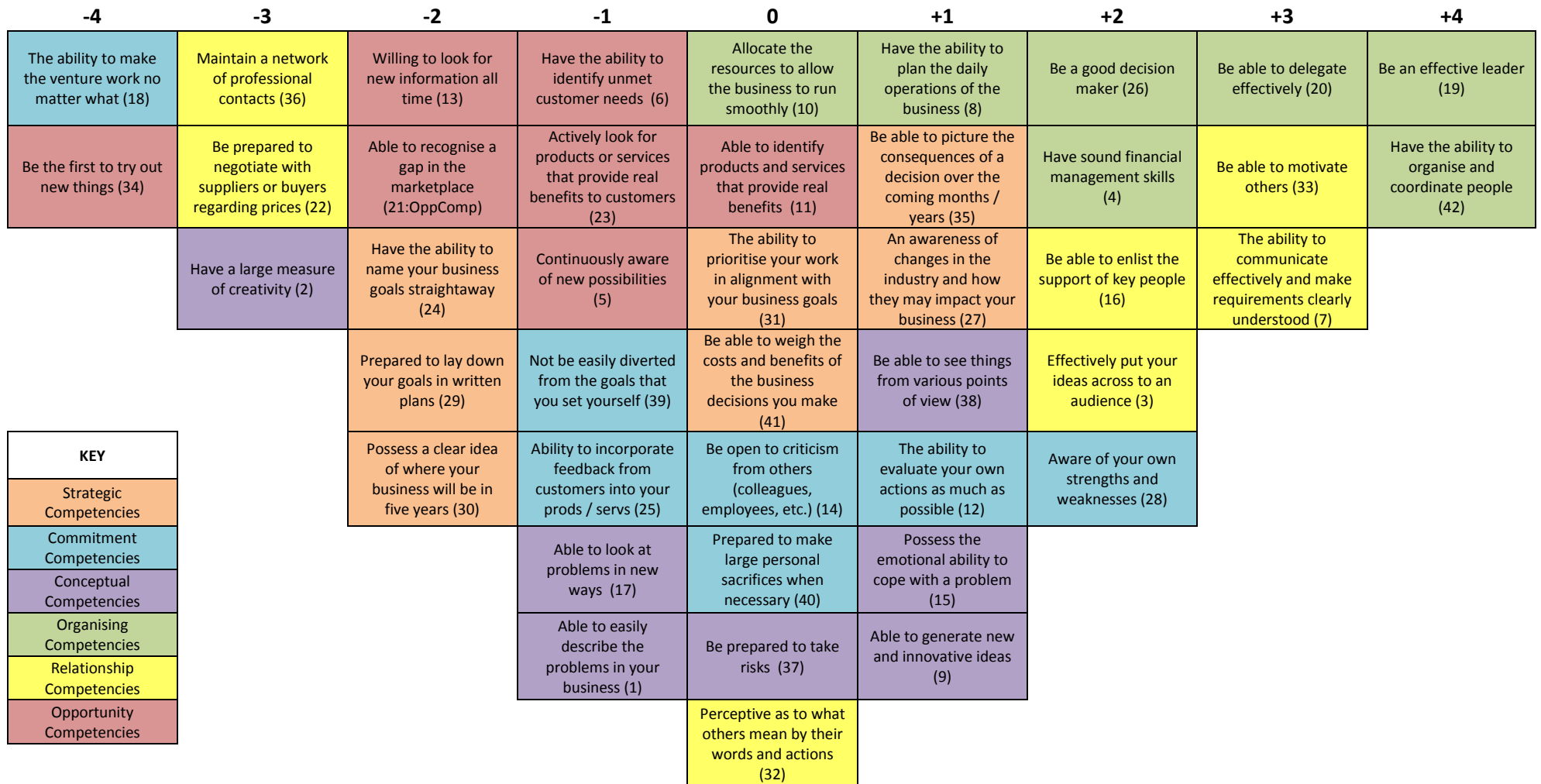


Figure 6-2: Composite Q-Sort by competency cluster (Factor A)

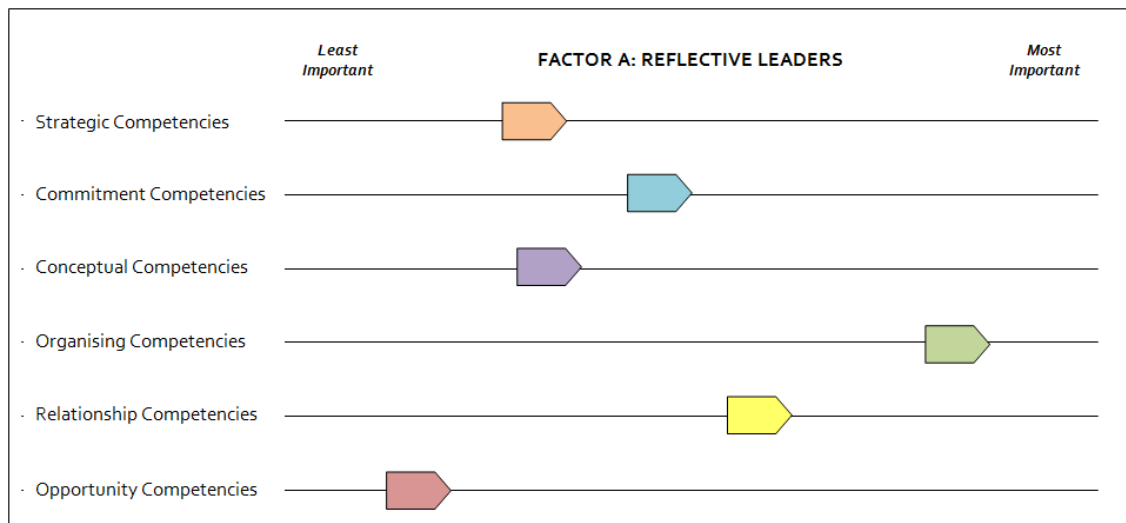


Figure 6-3: The relationship between competency clusters (Factor A)

6.3 FACTOR B: OPPORTUNITY AWARE ORGANISERS

Factor B has an eigenvalue of 7.98 and explains 20 percent of the study variance with, again, 6 participants significantly associated with this factor (see Appendix F). The distinguishing statements for Factor B are detailed in Table 6-5, whilst an idealised or composite Q-sort for this factor is shown in Figure 6-4. Moreover, once again, the crib sheet presented at Appendix G also contributes toward the understanding and interpretation of this factor.

Factor B shares some correlation with those farmers in Factor A (see again Table 6-1) though the subtle differences identified during factor interpretation make this an equally significant viewpoint and worthy of analysis. For farmers in Factor B, organisational competencies are again of high importance, though the need to be an effective leader (Item 19: +3) is now (marginally) surpassed by the need to be a good decision maker (Item 26: +4), as was elaborated upon in the supporting interviews. However, it would appear here that it is the importance of the decisions being made that is key, as opposed to merely being decisive:

Everyone's going to make the odd bad call but if you get too many wrong then you've got real problems... (P2-07)

Moreover, the organisational competencies considered to be of high importance in the previous factor interpretation are valued to a lesser extent here, including the planning of daily operations and the allocation of resources (Items 8 and 10: +1) and effective delegation and the organisation and coordination of people (Items 20 and 42:0).

Table 6-5: Distinguishing statements for Factor B

Item number and wording	Q-Sort Value	Z Score
4 Have sound financial management skills (OrgComp)	4	1.80
23 Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (OppComp)	2	0.99*
27 An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (StratComp)	2	0.96
6 Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (OppComp)	2	0.83*
30 Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (StratComp)	1	0.73*
10 Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (OrgComp)	1	0.69
11 Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (OppComp)	1	0.69*
20 Be able to delegate effectively (OrgComp)	0	0.54*
42 Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (OrgComp)	0	0.25
38 Be able to see things from various points of view (ConComp)	-1	-0.38
32 Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (RelComp)	-1	-0.65
14 Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) (CommComp)	-2	-0.85
37 Be prepared to take risks (ConComp)	-3	-1.46*
13 Willing to look for new information all time (OppComp)	-2	-1.46
3 Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (RelComp)	-4	-1.93*

Distinguishing $p < 0.05$ Asterisk () indicates significance at $p < 0.01$*

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (3)	Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (29)	The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (12)	Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (32)	Be able to motivate others (33)	The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (7)	Be able to enlist the support of key people (16)	Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (22)	Have sound financial management skills (4)
Maintain a network of professional contacts (36)	Be prepared to take risks (37)	Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) (14)	Able to look at problems in new ways (17)	Be able to delegate effectively (20)	Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (8)	An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (27)	Be an effective leader (19)	Be good decision maker (26)
	Have a large measure of creativity (2)	Able to easily describe the problems in your business (1)	Be able to see things from various points of view (38)	Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (42)	Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (10)	Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (6)	Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the decisions you make (41)	
		Willing to look for new information all time (13)	Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (15)	Continuously aware of new possibilities (5)	Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (11)	Be able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (21)		
		Be the first to try out new things (34)	Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (24)	The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (31)	Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (30)	Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (23)		
			Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (39)	Ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your prods / servs (25)	Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (35)			
			Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (40)	Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (28)	Able to generate new and innovative ideas (9)			
				The ability to make the venture work no matter what (18)				

Figure 6-4: Idealised or composite Q-Sort (Factor B)

For these farmers, the need to have sound financial management skills (Item 4: +4) has now been elevated as the organisational competency of greatest importance to successfully diversify to farm tourism. Certainly, this was expressed by number of participants:

Financial skills are about as important as it gets... (P2-01)

If you're no good with money, you're gonna fail, so I think you have to have a basic understanding of that... you have to understand your margins, that's how you make a living... (P2-15)

However, it must be noted that the remaining organisational competencies are still valued highly, with each of the remaining five being on the right-hand side of the forced distribution (i.e. from 0 to +4).

Also prominent for these farmers is a range of opportunity competencies which have been placed to the right of the distribution and, thus, ranked more highly and potentially identified as holding greater importance here than for participants in the previous factor. For instance, being able to recognise gaps in the market, identifying, customer needs and actively looking for products or services that provide real customer benefit (Items 6, 21 and 23: +2) are evidently important. Moreover, a number of participants pass comment using the language of opportunity portrayed in the Q-sort:

Spotting opportunities, you have to be able to identify these... otherwise, you have no business... (P2-01)

Making money on spotting a gap in the market... it's what business is all about... at the end of the day, it's all about what the customer wants... (P2-02)

... well, obviously, you haven't got a business unless you can see something that someone actually wants to buy or a service that someone needs... you can be the best at producing something but if no one needs it... (P2-05)

What is more, actively looking for products or services that provide real benefit to customers and being able to identify these unmet customer needs are distinguishing statements for this factor (see again Table 6-5), whilst so too is the strategic

competency of being aware of changes in the industry and how they may impact the business (Item 27: +2). All of these are aspects that suggest that the diversified farmers in Factor B are very outward facing and commercially aware. However, just as being the first to try new things and willing to look for new information all the time was contentious within the previous factor, as additional opportunity competencies, they have also been ranked quite low here though less so and not to the extremes as demonstrated in the previous factor (Items 13 and 34: -2).

If opportunity competencies feature highly in importance, then conceptual competencies would seem to be the contrasting competency cluster, with six of the seven conceptual competencies placed at the least important end of the distribution (from -1 to -3). In particular, being prepared to take risks and being creative (Items 2 and 37: -3) are considered to be of lesser importance. Indeed, being prepared to take risks as a conceptual competency is a distinguishing statement for Factor B, and is rated far less important than by any other factor (i.e. Factor A: 0; Factor B: +4). This gives rise to the tentative suggestion that the farmers here are the most risk averse, though this hypothesis cannot not be easily confirmed given that the participants may still deem it important, though perhaps less so in comparison to the other competencies presented.

Relationship competencies are reflected across the entire range of importance (from -4 to +3), though 'putting one's ideas across to an audience' and 'maintaining a network of professional contacts' represent little value to these participants (Items 3 and 36: -4). This is conceptualised neatly by one participant, who comments:

Networking has no relevance to me whatsoever... doesn't matter if I never speak to another business owner... it only matters that I speak to the visitor... (P2-070)

Similarly, as with Factor A, setting out or establishing goals in written plans would not appear to be deemed necessary or relevant (Item 29: -3). Moreover, a range of strategic and commitment competencies are clustered around the midpoint of the distribution, suggesting that they are of importance but only to a moderate level having been offset by the opportunity and organisation competencies previously

discussed (strategic competencies 24, 30, 31 35: -1 to 01; commitment competencies 18, 25, 28, 39, 40: -1 to +1).

With respect to the Factor B narrative above, once again it is evident that the diversified farmers in this group value a number of organisational and relationship competencies. However, as distinct from those farmers in Factor A, the relative importance of both opportunity and strategic competencies has now markedly increased. This is again demonstrated via a conceptual diagram (Figure 6-5 below) derived from the composite Q-sort, which reveals the relationship between competency clusters for Factor B in Figure 6-6.

Moreover, these visual representations underpin the earlier rationale for including this factor that, despite the very low correlation between Factor A and B, there is enough difference to warrant inclusion of both. Specifically, a comparison of the conceptual diagrams for both of these factors (see again Appendix I) demonstrates the extent of the similarity (with regards to organising and relationship competencies) but also makes evident the increased importance of opportunity competencies now demonstrated by Factor B participants.

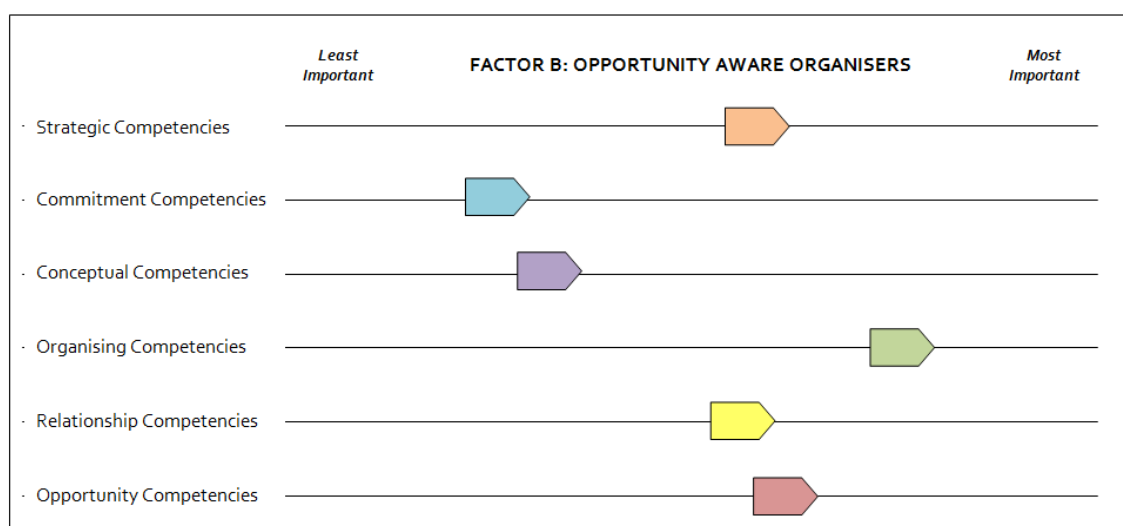


Figure 6-5: The relationship between competency clusters (Factor B)

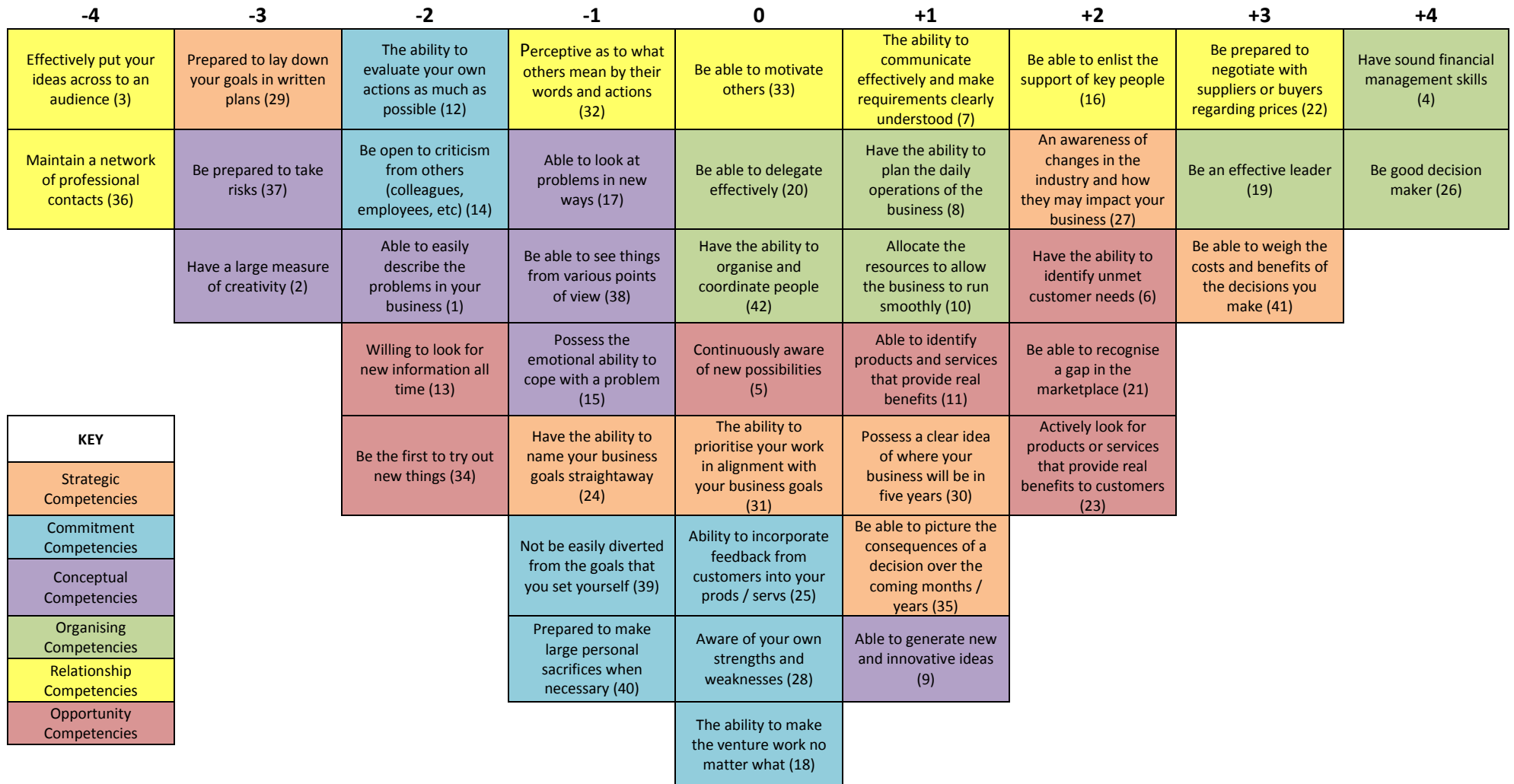


Figure 6-6: Composite Q-Sort by competency cluster (Factor B)

6.4 FACTOR C: OPPORTUNITY DRIVEN INNOVATORS

Factor C has an eigenvalue of 5.04 and explains eleven percent of the study variance and has 3 participants significantly associated with this factor (see Appendix F). The distinguishing statements for Factor C are detailed in Table 6-6, whilst an idealised or composite Q-sort for this factor is shown at Figure 6-7. Once again, the crib sheet presented in Appendix G also contributes toward the understanding and interpretation of this factor.

Table 6-6: Distinguishing statements for Factor C

Item number and wording	Q-Sort Value	Z Score
37 Be prepared to take risks (ConComp)	4	2.42*
6 Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (OppComp)	4	1.73*
40 Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (CommComp)	2	0.86
5 Continuously aware of new possibilities (OppComp)	1	0.52
2 Have a large measure of creativity (ConComp)	1	0.17*
16 Be able to enlist the support of key people (RelComp)	1	0.17
36 Maintain a network of professional contacts (RelComp)	0	0.07*
28 Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (CommComp)	-1	-0.35
30 Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (StratComp)	-1	-0.38
42 Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (OrgComp)	-2	-0.59
20 Be able to delegate effectively (OrgComp)	-2	-0.66*
38 Be able to see things from various points of view (ConComp)	-2	-1.18
14 Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) (CommComp)	-3	-1.56
32 Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (RelComp)	-4	-2.08*
29 Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (StratComp)	-4	-2.77*

Distinguishing statements significant at $p < 0.05$ Asterisk () indicates significance at $p < 0.01$*

Those who operate diversified farm tourism ventures in Factor C value the importance of, or at least recognise the need, to take risks (Item 37: +4), as illustrated by one particularly vocal participant:

If you're gonna go out there to make some money then number one, you've gotta take risks... you're not gonna get very far if you don't...
(P2-11)

Moreover, those at Factor C have a keen awareness of the need to identify unmet customer needs (Item 6: +4), of the requirement to recognise gaps in the marketplace and to generate new and innovative ideas to fill these gaps (Items 9 and 21: +3), evidently seeing it as essential to operating a diversified tourism venture:

For my money, if you're going to start a business, you have to have a niche... you have to identify the gap in the market... and that's your product (P2-11)

Indeed, this mix of conceptual and opportunity competencies displaces the organisational competencies that Factor A and B consider to be most important. That being said, the need for sound financial management skills, effective leadership and decision-making are still considered relatively important (Items 4, 19 and 26: +2).

If you can lead all the other stuff will follow... you need to make people sit up and take notice of you... definitely... it's not necessarily about being popular either (P2-02)

However, these organisational competencies are ranked lower than other factors and, in themselves, supersede the remaining organisational competencies of organising and coordinating people, delegation and allocating resources (Items 10, 20 and 42: -2) which are evidently deemed to be far less important.

Similarly, despite the two very highly rated conceptual competencies of innovation and risk, the remainder, including creativity, emotional ability, describing business problems and approaching them in new ways, are far less significant (Items 1, 2, 15 and 17: rated from -1 to +1). However, whilst it is easy to interpret those in the middle of a factor array as being of less significance, it is worthwhile to note that having a measure of creativity is considered a distinguishing statements for Factor C and is ranked higher here than for any other (i.e. Factor A and B: -3). Thus, it is reasonable to hypothesise that, for these farmers, creativity may be an important precursor to the innovation and market awareness competencies previously highlighted. To the same ends, whilst being aware of new possibilities (Item 5: +1) is considered far less important than the remaining opportunity competencies, is also a distinguishing statement and again may feed into the elements of innovation and market awareness previously highlighted.

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (32)	Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) (14)	The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (12)	Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (28)	The ability to make the venture work no matter what (18)	Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (40)	Have sound financial management skills (4)	Able to generate new and innovative ideas (9)	Be prepared to take risks (37)
Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (29)	Be the first to try out new things (34)	Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (42)	Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (39)	Ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your prods / servs (25)	Be able to motivate others (33)	Be an effective leader (19)	Be able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (21)	Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (6)
	Be able to see things from various points of view (38)	Be able to delegate effectively (20)	Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (11)	Maintain a network of professional contacts (36)	Be able to enlist the support of key people (16)	Be good decision maker (26)	Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (3)	
		Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (10)	Willing to look for new information all time (13)	Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (23)	Continuously aware of new possibilities (5)	The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (7)		
		Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (24)	Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (30)	Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (35)	Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the decisions you make (41)	Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (22)		
			An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (27)	Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (15)	The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (31)			
			Able to easily describe the problems in your business (1)	Able to look at problems in new ways (17)	Have a large measure of creativity (2)			
				Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (8)				

Figure 6-7: Idealised or composite Q-Sort (Factor C)

Once again, farmers in Factor C do not appear to see the benefit of committing goals to paper, though they reveal stronger opinions of this issue than those in the previous factors (Item 29: -4). Again, this is notable in the supporting interviews:

You fluctuate too much... I mean... you have a plan, but... it will all be in your head, you don't want to write it down, you want to keep it to yourself, because you want to protect it... you know what I mean? I might write it down, but I might change it, all the time it's changing... (P2-03)

Written plans are for right at the start... but, once you go down the road you don't need them (P2-12)

Ranked to the far left of the distribution and, thus, potentially of very little importance, as well as being a distinguishing statement for this factor, the requirement to be perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions, as a relationship competency, is placed very low (Item 32: -4). In contrast, all remaining relationship competencies feature quite prominently in respect of agreement (Items 3, 7, 16, 22, 33 and 36: all placed from 0 to +3).

Thus, relationship competencies, whether with people inside or outside the business, are evidently valued within this factor. What is more, networking, whilst only placed on the midpoint of the distribution (Item 36:0), is considered far more important by farmers in this factor than by those in the other factors (i.e. Factor A: -3; Factor B: -4). Once again, this confirms the importance of paying holistic attention to the overall factor array.

In addition, farmers in Factor C identify that being able and open to take criticism from others was not particularly important (Item 14: -3). As one participant elaborates:

Criticism from others... you believe in yourself... you believe that what you're doing is the right thing... if you take too much notice about what people are saying to you, if you are too open to criticism... you're never gonna get there... (P2-03)

I really believe... if you really want something, you've got to be totally focused on that... irrespective of what other people think...

you've got to have that drive and determination... not everybody's got that... (P2-03)

With respect to the Factor C narrative above, it is apparent that, unlike previous factors, organisational competencies are now considered of lesser importance. Here, as demonstrated by the conceptual diagram at Figure 6-8, and the composite Q-sort in Figure 6-9, whilst relationship competencies remain important, conceptual and opportunity competencies have now been elevated in importance, to the extent that diversified farmers in this factor consider them to be of the most importance for successful diversification.

Once again, the conceptual relationship between these is best presented in Appendix I. However, bearing in mind the preceding discussion and with reference to the entrepreneurial competency frameworks and general review of the literature in Chapter Three, Factor C may well be considered the closest match to the entrepreneurial farmer. At the very least, the emphasis on both conceptual and opportunity competencies suggests that this factor is more enterprising than managerial.

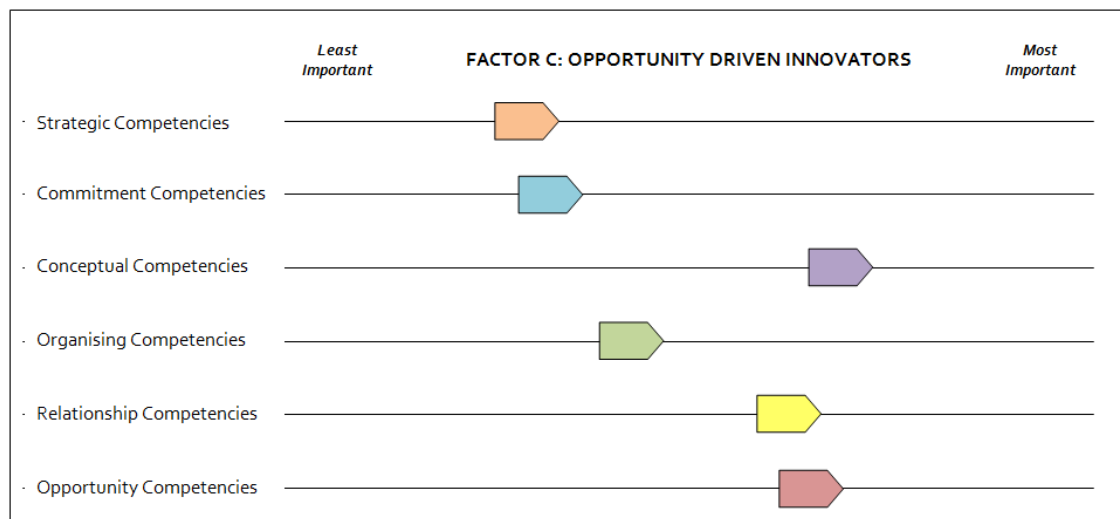


Figure 6-8: The relationship between competency clusters (Factor C)

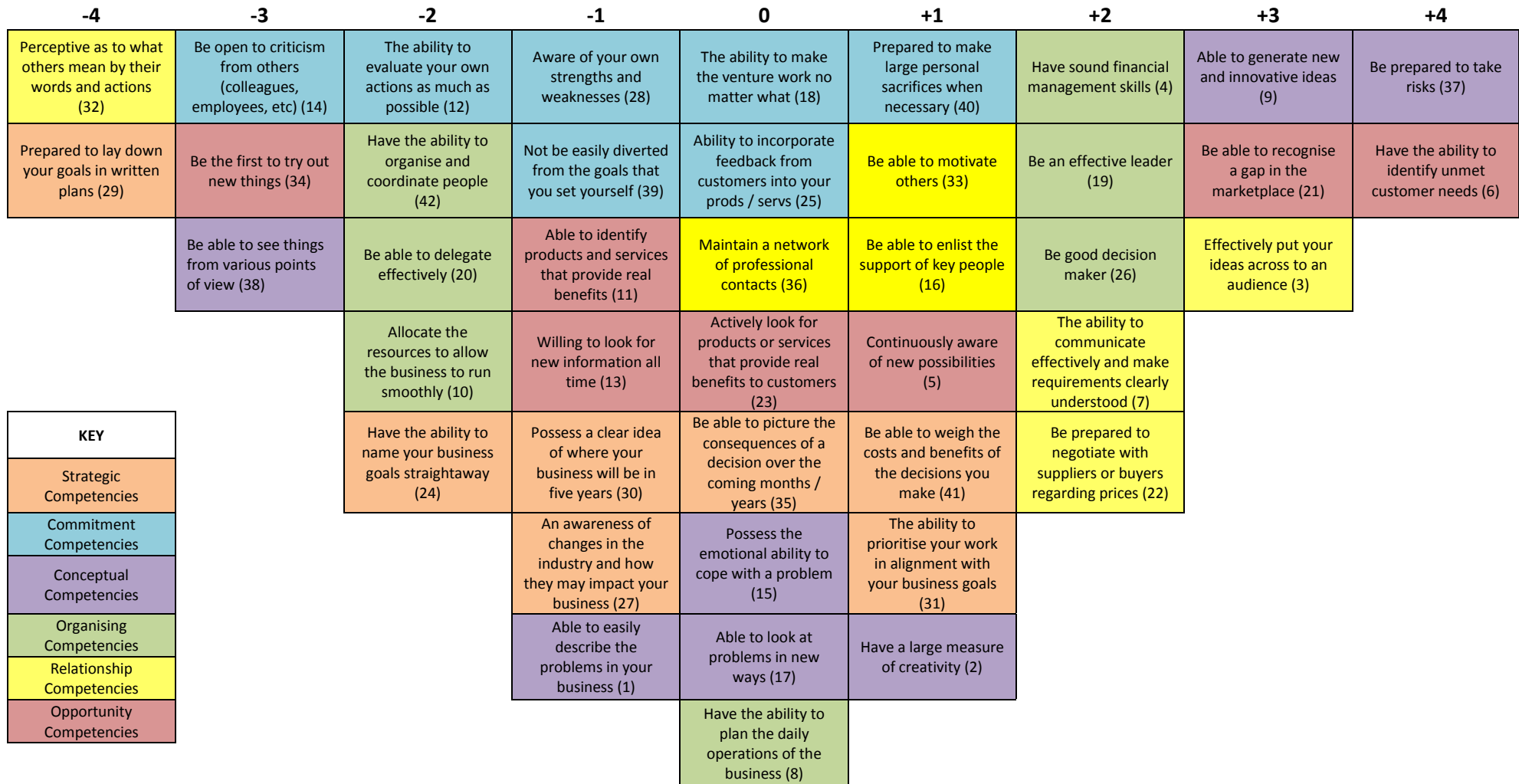


Figure 6-9: Composite Q-Sort by competency cluster (Factor C)

6.5 COMMON FEATURES ACROSS ALL FACTORS

Whilst the factor narratives presented in the sections above have attempted to highlight the distinctiveness of each factor, it is evident that some items are not specific to any one factor and that elements of shared subjectivity exist. Thus, Table 6-7 below lists those Q items about which there was consensus across each factor array.

Table 6-7: Consensus statements for Factors A, B and C

Item number and wording		Factor		
		A	B	C
1	Able to easily describe the problems in your business (ConComp)	-1	-2	-1
8*	Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (OrgComp)	1	1	0
13	Willing to look for new information all time (OppComp)	-2	-2	-1
17*	Able to look at problems in new ways (ConComp)	-1	-1	0
24*	Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (StratComp)	-2	-1	-2
26	Be good decision maker (OrgComp)	2	4	2
31*	The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (StratComp)	0	0	1
34*	Be the first to try out new things (OppComp)	-4	-2	-3
35*	Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (StratComp)	1	1	0
39*	Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (CommComp)	-1	-1	-1
40	Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (CommComp)	0	-1	1

Consensus statements non-significant at $p>0.01$ Asterisk () indicates non-significant at $p>0.05$*

In interpreting these consensus statements, it is clear that there is very broad general agreement that being a good decision maker (Item 26: A+2; B+4; C+2) is relevant to operating the diversified venture. Indeed, many participants commented that this was common sense and relevant to their business generally (farming and diversification). Moreover, there was broad agreement that having the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (Item 8: A+1; B+1; Co) and to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (Item 31: A0; B0; C+1) is important. What is more, one can easily identify that each of these competencies has value and are easily transferable skills both from and back to the farm business.

However, whilst prioritising work in alignment with goals achieves a positive consensus, other goal-driven strategic and commitment competencies which address business goals do not rank as highly. For instance, having the ability to name your business goals straightaway (Item 24: A-2; B-1; C-2) and not being easily diverted from these goals (Item 39: A-1; B-1; C-1) achieve consensus as being of less importance. Thus, it may be the case that the earlier statement (Item 31: prioritise work in alignment with business goals) was deemed important because of the ability to prioritise workload and not necessarily its focus on goals.

Moreover, it may be suggested that it is the emphasis on business goals specifically that is key. Many participants identify that they prefer a greater degree of flexibility and to be responsive to circumstances as they arise and, therefore, often forego specific named goals. However, this also gives rise to the suggestion that whilst having now diversified to tourism, there may be some hesitancy on the part of farmers and farm households in attributing specific business goals to the diversified venture and in taking a strategic viewpoint generally.

Pertinent to the above discussion, a broadly positive consensus was achieved with regards to picturing the consequences of a decision over the coming months and years (Item 35: A+1; B+1; Co). Thus, it would not appear to be the elements of vision and conceptualising the future that is at question but rather the specific goals themselves. What is more, in the context of the primarily economic motivations to diversify as established both in the literature review and at Phase One of the research, the focus on business goals and the potential failure to identify them warrants further research. More specifically, motivations to diversify were identified at Phase One as being primarily economic in nature, followed by finding a new use for farm resources and providing opportunities for children to inherit the business (see again section, 5.3). However, in the factor narratives presented here, no business goals would seem to be evident, giving rise to the question as to why initial motivations are clear, yet ongoing strategy and business goals are not.

With regards to opportunity competencies, which are evidently a key facet of being

entrepreneurial (Ucbasaran, Westhead and Wright, 2008; Nielsen, *et al.*, 2012), being the first to try out new things (Item 34: A-4; B-2; C-3) and looking for new information all the time (Item 13: A-2; B-2; C-1) demonstrate consensus across the factors as being of little importance. Here, future research direction may consider the nature and role of opportunity and innovation in the context of farm diversification. For instance, it is reasonable to hypothesise the diversification options pursued by the participants here, are Kirznerian in nature, being less innovative, and requiring little innovation and as such, replicate existing farm tourism opportunities in the region (See: Shane, 2003a, and again discussion at section 3.4.1). What is more, an emphasis on the nature of opportunities and the skills of opportunity recognition and exploitation may well require greater prominence in extension, advisory and training services to potential rural and farm entrepreneurs.

In addition, being able to describe the problems in your business (Item 1: A-1; B-2; C-1), as well as looking at problems in new ways (Item 17: A-1; B-1; Co) also demonstrate consensus as being of lesser importance. Thus again, it may well be that there is a genuine agreement that these competencies are not required to the same extent as others. Then again, additional research is evidently required and the potential to include conceptual competencies within rural and farm entrepreneurship training programs and agricultural extension services should not be overlooked.

The final item in which consensus was demonstrated is the commitment competency of being prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary. Falling broadly in the middle of each factor array (Item 40: A0; B-1; C+1), it became evident during the research that participants have mixed opinions in this regard with, on the one hand, numerous comments being made about doing what is necessary to get the job done whilst, on the other hand, some participants questioning just what sacrifices were meant by the statement. Hence, it may be the wording of this item that is at issue, the lack of clarity combined with the questions it raises in participants minds perhaps resulting in it being placed at the midpoint in any distribution, respondents neither agreeing nor entirely disagreeing with it.

6.6 DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF THE EMERGENT FACTORS

The above discussion has identified three clear and distinct shared subjective constructions of entrepreneurial skill and competency in the context of diversification to farm tourism.

Factor A (Reflective Leaders) is an account of leaders who value decision-making and the ability to organise and coordinate. The key aspects of this factor are the value placed on supporting relationship competencies, including effective communication, gaining consensus and support, and fostering motivation amongst those being led organised. However, whilst comfortable with the idea of these internal relationships, the people skills of those with this shared perspective may not extend beyond the farm gate, either through a lack of willingness or, perhaps, reflecting the fact that these respondents do not value external networking. This factor is closely linked to Factor B with regards to the organisational and relationship competencies highlighted, placing less of an emphasis on strategic and opportunity competencies than Factor B. Moreover, whilst one must guard against making sweeping generalisations, this shared viewpoint would seem to be most closely aligned with a more traditional farming culture and a traditional managerial persona (See: Nuthall, 2006; Nuthall, 2010). Indeed, the skills and competencies valued here may well be those deemed important within the core farm operation and, for those concerned, prove equally suitable in the diversification strategies subsequently adopted (Butts, McGeorge and Briedenhann, 2005).

Evidently, this perspective does not value opportunity competencies but, rather, places emphasis on the importance of a very reflective skill set: appreciating the need to be keenly aware of one's own strengths and weaknesses and to continually weigh the costs and benefits of decisions made and see things from differing perspectives. In this regard, the lesser importance attached to seeking and identifying opportunities would again seem to reinforce the earlier cited managerial persona. To this end, those diversified farmers who would align themselves with the views presented in Factor A would likely score highly on the managerial and personal maturity elements of the

earlier cited Entrepreneurial Development System framework, but less so against entrepreneurial skill (Lichtenstein and Lyons, 2001; Lyons, 2003; Kutzhanova, Lyons and Lichtenstein, 2009). Moreover, under Chandler and Jansen's (1992) framework, this factor perspective is aligned to both human and conceptual competency as well as technical and functional competency, though perhaps not to the ability to recognise opportunity and elements of wider political competency.

Factor B (Opportunity Aware Organisers) is closely linked to A, in that parallels can be drawn in regard to the emphasis and importance placed on organisational and relationship competency. However, whilst organisational competencies are still valued highly, the significance now appears to be placed on making the right decision (as opposed to being decisive) and the need for solid financial management skill. This shared viewpoint also places emphasis on strategic and opportunity competencies to the extent that they offset a number of the conceptual competencies advocated by Factor A. Moreover, distinguishing statements reveal that high importance is given to identifying products and services that provide customer benefits and indeed to being able to identify these unmet customer needs. Similarly, this shared viewpoint places emphasis on strategic awareness with regards to future business direction, as well as the need to understand what take place in the industry overall. Thus, in placing significance on being more strategic and opportunity aware, one might argue that if a continuum between managerial and entrepreneurial exists, then this perspective is much further along and values a perspective that is more enterprising and outward facing in its stance. Thus, the shared viewpoint of Factor B would rank highly with regards to many of the management, opportunity and strategic skills that the ESoF project identified as essential to succeed in farm business generally (See: de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer, 2007, and again discussion at 3.8.1). Moreover, this factor perspective would also now value a limited number of the entrepreneurial skills to support the existing managerial and personal maturity skills, of the Entrepreneurial Development System framework as identified above.

Factor C, labelled (Opportunity Driven Innovators) is differentiated by its emphasis on conceptual and opportunity competencies and, whilst still valuing relationships, has a

reduced emphasis on organising competencies demonstrated by the previous factor viewpoints. In particular, this shared perspective would seem to champion risk taking or, at the very least, recognise that an element of risk is inherent in all business activity. Moreover, as the words of the participants themselves highlighted, identifying what the customer wants and seeking to fulfil this is the *raison d'être* for those holding this viewpoint. Moreover, elements of creativity and being aware of 'what is possible' would seem to underpin this opportunistic streak and risk propensity. Distinguishing statements reveal that the need to delegate and the ability to organise and coordinate people are, for this factor, far less important. However, it remains unclear whether this is because those diversified ventures that share this viewpoint have a far smaller team, or indeed no team, or that the skill set is just not valued. Moreover, Factor C is conspicuous as the only factor that embraces elements of the more traditional definitions of entrepreneurship as in, for instance, opportunity (Kirzner, 1978; Kirzner, 1985; Stevenson, Roberts and Grousbeck, 1989 ; Bygrave and Hofer, 1991; Shane and Venkataraman, 2000) and risk (Drucker, 1970; Hull, Bosely and Udell, 1980; Timmons, 1994).

Having provided an overview of the shared subjectivities that emerge from the factor narratives above, it becomes clear that three differing perspectives of the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur have been identified. Moreover, it is clear that these three emergent viewpoints value different skills and competencies, that can be conceptualised through the model at Figure 6-10 below. Furthermore, it becomes apparent, that each of the factor perspectives embrace a different position on a continuum between managerial and entrepreneurial, as well as between strategic and opportunity awareness. To this end, Figure 6-11 below offers a 'conceptual space diagram' to visually present these inter-factor relationships and difference in perspectives. Specifically, these relationships are shown on a managerial to entrepreneurial bifurcation, as well as a reactive to proactive bifurcation. Here, whilst managerial and entrepreneurial is self-explanatory, the proposed proactive to reactive axis is a crude attempt to highlight the differences with regards to seeking opportunity and being strategic in approach (proactive) as opposed to not embracing strategic and opportunity competencies, or valuing them less (i.e. reactive).

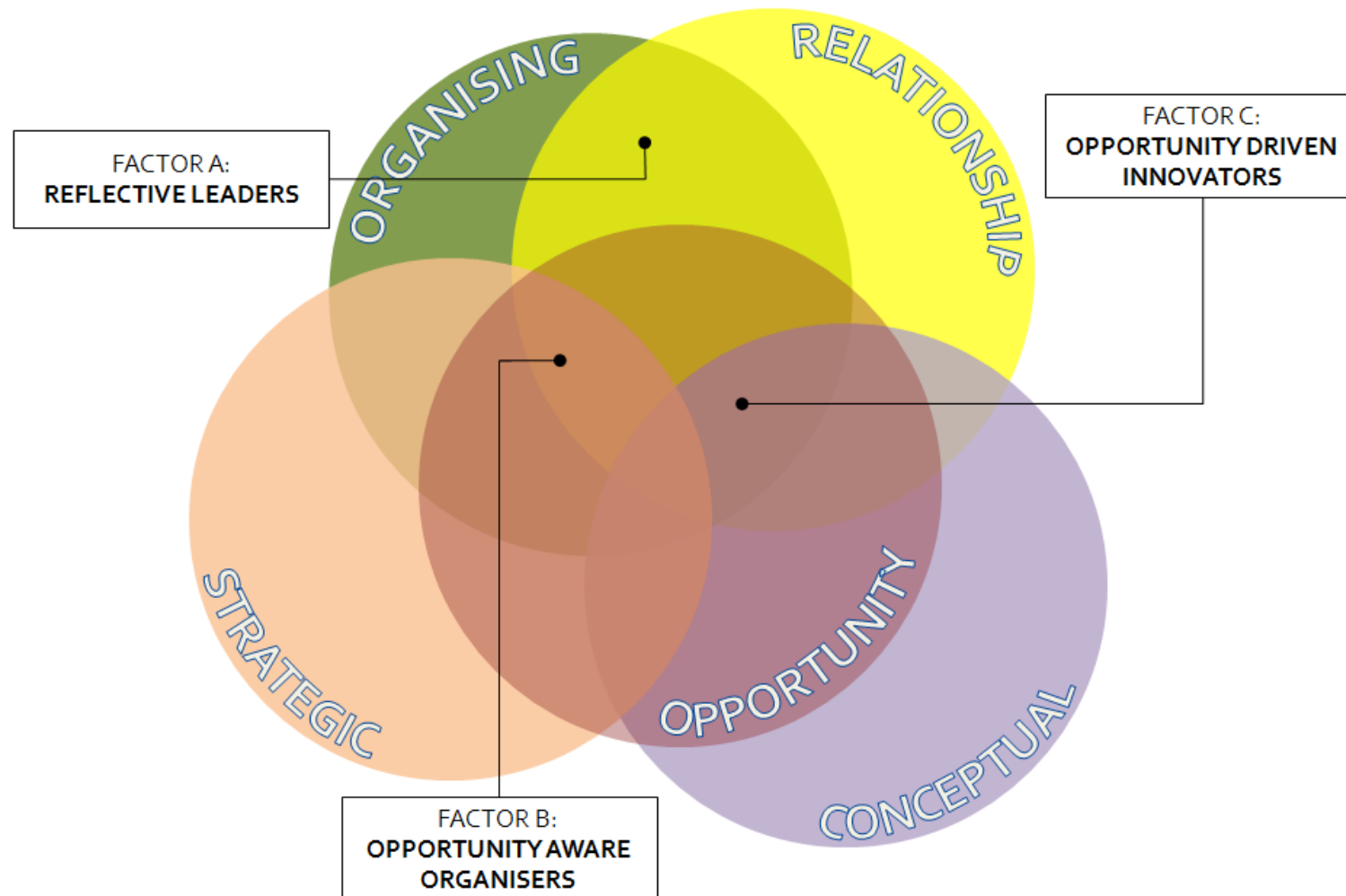


Figure 6-10: The conceptual relationship between competency cluster and factor

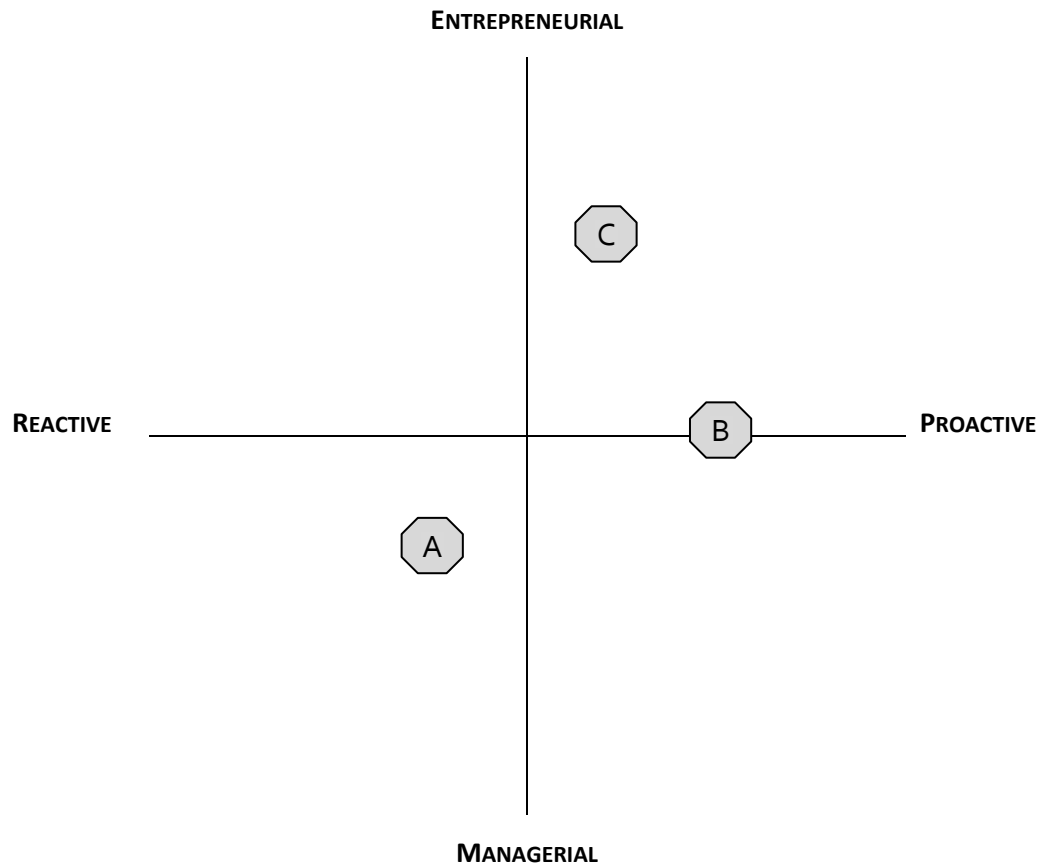


Figure 6-11: Conceptual space diagram Factors A-C
Factors illustrated along the 'entrepreneurial / managerial' bifurcation, and the
'proactive / reactive' bifurcation

Moreover, as with the conceptual diagrams in the previous sections, these interpretations are hypothetical in that they are representative of the factors but not rooted in any empirical data. What is more, they are, as advocated by Watts and Stenner (2012) in respect Q Methodology generally, a means with which to convey pertinent themes to frame one's discussion, as well as to make these themes evident to one's audience.

Thus, the research presented here has shown that the conceptualisations of the diversified farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur as offered in the literature would benefit from refinement and from a clearer analysis as to which specific competencies are most evident or, indeed, to the nature of entrepreneurship under empirical scrutiny. Moreover, the above discussion reinforces the view that, in the context of entrepreneurship, farmers are not a homogenous set of actors (McElwee, 2006; McElwee and Smith, 2012).

Indeed, there is a heterogeneity to the shared factor viewpoints which suggests that, amongst the farming population in the North West of England at least, farmers as the operators of diversified tourism ventures take on to varying degrees managerial and entrepreneurial characteristics, irrespective of the ongoing structural reforms within the agricultural sector and the need to be more entrepreneurial and competitive within this context. To this end, and as a reflection of this heterogeneity in relation to the skills and competencies that are deemed necessary for successful farm diversification to tourism, a taxonomy of the range of views and values that exist on this topic is presented in Figure 6-12 below.

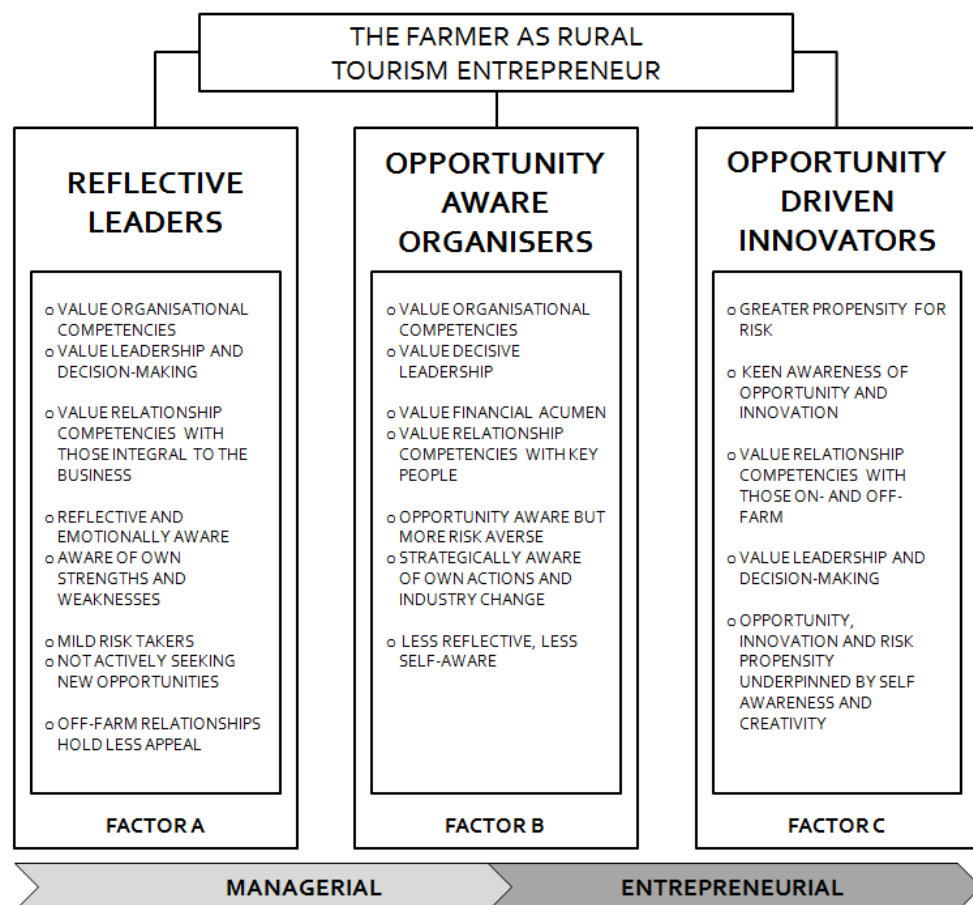


Figure 6-12: A taxonomy of the farmer as rural tourism entrepreneur

6.7 ADDRESSING THE LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH APPROACH

Whilst the limitations of the research presented in this thesis will be explored in more depth in the closing chapter, it is timely to address a number of them here in the context of the research and the three shared factor viewpoints that have been

presented. However, in acknowledging the limitations, it is also important to note the strengths of Q Methodology in that it can, and arguably has, brought clarity to a potentially complex subject area. Moreover, it has proven a novel and engaging activity for participants, who take charge of the procedure, and through the data construct their individual viewpoint. What is more, participants frequently commented that they had enjoyed the Q-sort and that it had challenged them to think quite carefully about issues that they ordinarily took in their stride throughout their working day.

However, one inevitable limitation of the research presented here concerns the condition of instruction given to diversified farmers who completed the Q-sort (see again section 4.9.4), and to whether the results identified represent opinions or practice. Specifically, it is difficult to assess whether the participants (as farmers who have diversified to tourism) have prioritised the skills and competencies that they believe are likely to be important or, alternatively, that they already know from practice that such skills and competencies are actually required. Similarly, it is difficult to assess whether participants were drawing on their experience of the diversified tourism venture specifically, or other non-tourism diversification, the farm business generally, or even some off-farm pluriactivity. Moreover, it is important to also distinguish that the results and analysis offered here, can at the least, only equate to claims to competences, or the value that farmers attached to them, and not to actual skills or competencies.

In addition, the Phase Two research presented here makes no claims that the subjective constructions presented are applicable to a wider population. Thus, the data presented do not allow the conclusion to be drawn that the differing constructions (i.e. the three shared factor viewpoints) are prevalent within other farming communities. Indeed, it is acknowledged that to infer that elements of these factors exist within a wider population would require a different methodology. To this end, it is useful to identify how these three factors could be validated and what additional research – with these factor viewpoints as their basis – could now be undertaken. Baker, van Exel and Stricklin (2010) have specifically addressed this issue

and have identified ways to connect Q Methodology and surveys and to use the viewpoints that emerge from Q, to explore factor membership within large samples. More specifically, they advocate the use of Talbott's (1963) 'Q block', Brown's (2002) Standardised Factor Index Score, as well as respondent self-categorisation against abbreviated factor descriptions.

In the Q-block approach advocated by Talbott (1963), the intention is to assign people to specific 'Q typologies' through the design of questionnaire items that require scale responses using specially selected statements from the original Q study. Specifically, a sub-set of Q statements are selected, because of their salience and distinction in the original Q factor analysis output and are subsequently presented in blocks, with each factor represented by one statement in each block. The decision of which Q statements to select is aided by identifying those with high z-scores against one factor and far lower Z-scores against the other factors. Respondents are then directed to rank order the statements and attach a score to each (in effect, the score is attached to the underlying factor). The subsequent total score then infers, for example, that a respondent was most closely associated with Factor A yet had the least in common, with perhaps Factor C.

As the second approach, Brown's (2002) technique attempts to identify the likely factor membership and distribution of factors in a representative sample of the population. Here, a sub-set of Q statements, in particular distinguishing statements that are salient for at least one factor, are used to develop a survey questionnaire with a seven-point Likert scale. Whilst the approach is more complex than space here allows (See: Brown, 2002; Baker, van Exel and Stricklin, 2010), the most likely factor membership against the original Q-study is determined through a statement index score and a factor index score calculated for each respondent. Finally, and perhaps the simplest of the three techniques referred to above, is to present survey respondents with abbreviated or summary descriptions of the emergent Q-factors, as a basis for asking them the degree to which each one is similar to their own point of view. The intention here is, that respondents consider the factor as a whole, and not the individual Q-statements.

In short, this section has sought to acknowledge that, whilst Q analysis would ordinarily cease at the point of factor description, there exists the potential to take the three factor viewpoints identified here as a basis for survey research of a wider farming community. Moreover, whilst acknowledging the limitations of the approach adopted, the intention is to illustrate that the rich descriptions and shared viewpoints obtained here from a small number of participants, whilst having value in and of themselves, may also provide the basis for a traditional R methodological approach that would allow us to infer to a wider population.

6.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to explain and expand upon the earlier quantitative results as a part of a sequential explanatory mixed method design. In particular, this second qualitative phase was necessary to clarify the research picture that emerged from Phase One. In particular, to clarify the suggestion that whilst farmers in this study area evidently value a number of managerial skills and competencies, the lack of emphasis paid to entrepreneurial and higher order competencies, was indicative that farmers were not entrepreneurial to the extent indicated by the literature. In so doing, Phase Two of this research has revealed the heterogeneity of diversified farmers in the region and identified three holistic shared viewpoints amongst participants, namely: Factor A 'Reflective Leaders', Factor B 'Opportunity Aware Organisers', and Factor C 'Opportunity Driven Innovators'. More specifically, this chapter has highlighted that each of the emergent viewpoints holds differing values as to the importance of a number of entrepreneurial skills and competencies. Moreover, this valuing of competencies can be represented through the taxonomy of farmers, as rural tourism entrepreneurs discussed above, as well as by the range of conceptual diagrams also offered. Thus, also in keeping with a sequential explanatory research design, the outcomes of both quantitative and qualitative phases must now be integrated, in order to fully address the initial research aims and objectives established at Chapter One. This integration of the research outcomes from Phase One and Two and the renewed focus on the thesis research aims will now take place in the chapter that follows.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1 CHAPTER INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have attempted to identify the requisite entrepreneurial skills and competencies, that farmers in this study area, identify as necessary for successful farm diversification to tourism. The purpose of this chapter therefore, is to conclude the thesis and to demonstrate that this aim has been addressed. Initially, this chapter will begin with a restatement of the problem and a brief synopsis of the relevant literature. Subsequently, a précis of the main findings from Phase One and Phase Two will be presented as a precursor to revisiting the initial thesis research aims and objectives. What follows, will be discussion of the key research findings as well as an acknowledgement of the contribution that the research here has made. Finally, a range of research limitations will be acknowledged before outlining the importance of future studies in this field.

7.2 A SUMMARY OF THE THESIS

This thesis began by outlining that the ongoing processes of agricultural decline and rural restructuring, and in particular ongoing CAP reforms, have led to a reorientation of farming from productivist to more entrepreneurial models (Phillipson, *et al.*, 2004; Meert, *et al.*, 2005). Moreover, this reorientation sees the historic role of farmers as 'price takers', which requires managerial competency, transition to that of 'price makers', which requires an altogether different set of entrepreneurial and competitive skills (McElwee, Anderson and Vesala, 2006; Pyysiäinen, *et al.*, 2006).

Furthermore, within Chapter Two, the case was made that following these ongoing agricultural pressures and periods of 'farm crisis', and in order to maintain the family farm way of life, farmers have been faced with a range of different development pathways for the farm business (Bowler, *et al.*, 1996; McElwee, 2006). Additionally, central within these pathways, is the option to develop new, on-farm products and services. Conceptualised as farm diversification, or alternate farm enterprises, these development pathways again require a skill and competency set which is arguably different from that of traditional agriculture production (McElwee, 2008; McElwee and Smith, 2012). Also, within the context of this discussion, tourism was shown to be increasingly recognised as a means to generate additional farm household income

(Sznajder, Przezborska and Scrimgeour, 2009; Woodward, 2009; Mitchell and Turner, 2010), and a strategy which has been frequently advocated by regional and national rural policies (Hjalager, 1996; Ollenburg, 2008; Jones, Moreddu and Kumagai, 2009).

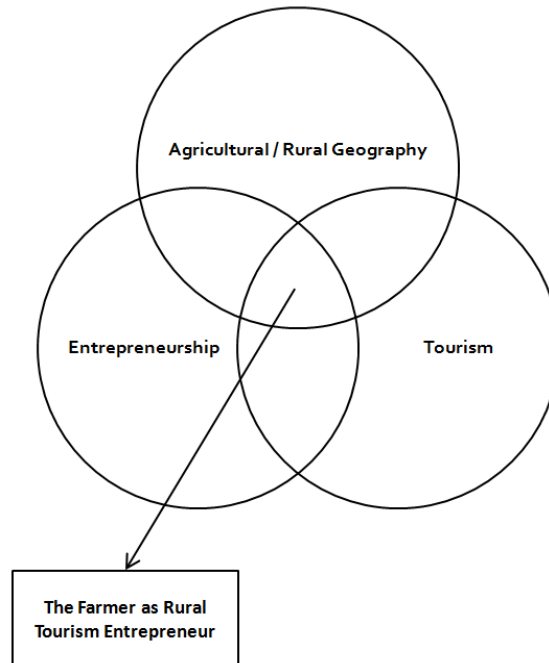


Figure 7-1: Reprint of Figure 1-1
The Farmer as Rural Tourism Entrepreneur as a premise for this thesis

What is more, this particular development pathway, whilst being conceptualised as entrepreneurial within the tourism literature, has not been addressed in the context of entrepreneurial skills and competencies and indeed is shown to be lacking in this regard (Busby and Rendle, 2000; McGehee, 2007). This observation is key, given the rationale for this thesis offered within Chapter One, that, as a service-based enterprise, farm tourism poses additional challenges in the context of the reorientation from productivist to entrepreneurial models already highlighted. A situation conceptualised by Getz, Carlsen and Morrison, (see again section 1.1) who comment that:

farming is supply-driven, tourism is market-led; farmers are cost-cutters, tourism businesses are revenue maximisers; farmers produce single standardised products at a given price, tourism businesses diversify into many products and offer a range of prices (2004: 125)

What is more, within Chapter Two generally, it was identified that the farm tourism

literature is fragmented and limited and had to date emphasised motivations to diversify, as well as some limited farm and farm household characteristics, over and above the consideration of the key research themes evident within the entrepreneurship literature. Judged in the context of farm tourism, this observation is unsurprising, given that in the review at Chapter Three, tourism discourse was shown to have paid limited attention to theories of entrepreneurship generally (Wilson, *et al.*, 2001; Russell and Faulkner, 2004; Koh, 2006; Shaw and Williams, 2010), with the entrepreneur described as the overlooked player in tourism development (Koh and Hatten, 2002).

Thus, what followed at Chapter Three, was a critical review of the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship, along with a subsequent exploration of the traits, behavioural, opportunity identification, and human capital approaches to the subject. Moreover, an emergent, though as of yet still relatively limited, literature on entrepreneurial skill and competency was critically reviewed to reveal a range of research informed and conceptual frameworks that would be synthesised within the research design here.

The research presented at Phase One (Chapter Five) was quantitative in nature and involves a postal questionnaire to diversified farm tourism ventures within the study area. The results of this research phase ($n=187$) indicate that whilst diversified farmers value a range of business and management competencies, including customer service, managing finances and marketing, they considered a range of entrepreneurial and higher order competencies as far less significant.

The research at Phase Two (Chapter Six) embraces Q Methodology as an innovative research technique to identify the shared subjectivities, or viewpoints, of diversified farmers in regard to the requisite skills and competencies when engaging in farm tourism. Initially, a concourse, which is a representation of all the possible viewpoints on skills and competencies, was developed from a review of the frameworks at Chapter Three. Subsequently, this concourse was reduced to 42 items that would comprise a Q-sort, with 15 participants from the earlier research phase asked to sort these items, using a forced distribution, from least to most agree. The completed

distributions, along with the supporting interviews, thus formed the basis of the data collection for this research phase. Moreover, following the use of specialist Q Methodology software, and bespoke factor analytical techniques, three factors which explain 54 percent of the study variance, and included all participants are identified. Subsequently, these three factors were developed into factor narratives, supported by a range of conceptual models to develop a taxonomy of the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur.

Having thus offered a synopsis of the thesis overall, the section that follows will consider the specific aims and objectives of the research, prior to identifying its contribution to knowledge.

7.3 REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

As was outlined in Chapter One, the aim of this thesis was to address a significant gap within both the academic literature and the formal policy arena on this subject and to develop a model of entrepreneurial skill and competency with regard to farm tourism. Specifically, the aims of the thesis were to:

- i. Analyse the entrepreneurial skill and competency needs of farmers within the context of farm diversification to tourism.
- ii. Critically appraise the extent to which farmers already Foster these entrepreneurial skills and competencies.
- iii. Develop a taxonomy of the farmer as a basis for understanding entrepreneurial skill and competency needs in the context of traditional farming identity.

Thus, the following sections will now address each of these research aims in turn, with a summary of selected findings presented at Table 7-1 below.

7.3.1 Analysing entrepreneurial skill and competency needs

Following an extensive review of the literature, it became evident that there remains no consensus in regard to the skill and competency needs of farmers within the context of farm diversification to tourism.

Table 7-1: Summary of key findings against research aims

OBJECTIVE	SELECTED FINDINGS
ANALYSIS OF ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILL / COMPETENCY NEEDS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Farmers require new skills and competencies to remain competitive in the context of ongoing agricultural and rural restructuring (Ch 1 & 2). ○ Farm diversification requires additional skills and competencies not addressed in conventional productivist agriculture (Ch 2 & 3). ○ Entrepreneurial skill and competency needs have not yet been adequately addressed in the context of farm tourism (Ch 2). ○ Farmers indicate requisite business and management skills include customer service, financial management, organisational skills, marketing / sales skills (Ch 5). ○ Farmers indicate requisite entrepreneurial and personal maturity skills include emotional coping, and accountability. Skills of critical evaluation, networking, self-awareness, opportunity recognition, goal setting, negotiation, business and strategic planning are deemed to be of lesser importance (Ch 5). ○ Committing to written business plans is not considered necessary (Ch5 & Ch 6). ○ Phase Two identifies three shared perspectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflective Leaders: Organising Competencies, Relationship Competencies (Ch 6). • Opportunity Aware Organisers: Organising Competencies, Relationship Competencies, Opportunity Competencies, Strategic Competencies (Ch 6). • Opportunity Driven Innovators: Conceptual Competencies, Relationship Competencies, Opportunity Competencies and Limited Organising Competencies (Ch 6).
CURRENT ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILL / COMPETENCY LEVEL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Research conducted by Defra indicates that farmers do not currently possess the requisite skills and competencies but the extent of this is not known (Ch 1). ○ Self-assessed competency generally high for customer service, accountability, emotional coping and organisational skill. Self-assessments much lower for a number of entrepreneurial skills, including, networking, business concept, environment. Skills of managing and supervising employees also deemed low (Ch 5).
DEVELOPMENT OF TAXONOMY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Development of taxonomy to classify the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur: Reflective Leaders, Opportunity Aware Organisers, Opportunity Driven Innovators (Ch 6). ○ Positioning within a wider taxonomy of the farmer as entrepreneur and farming identity (Ch 7).

As has been outlined, the question of entrepreneurial skills and competencies has only recently been addressed within the context of farming and farm diversification. Moreover, within the broader field of entrepreneurship, skill and competency frameworks and discussion generally, remain limited and at an early stage of development. In response to these evident gaps, a two phase sequential explanatory approach was adopted.

In the first phase (Chapter Five) it became clear that the skill and competency needs of farmers who have diversified to tourism focuses primarily on business and management functions. As in for instance, customer service skills, sound financial management, organisational skill, marketing and sales skills. What is more, research in this phase indicated that a range of entrepreneurial and personal maturity skills, (which following a comprehensive literature review have been positioned as being of high importance) were not deemed important aspects by farmers in this sample. In particular, skills relating to networking, opportunity, negotiation, business and strategic planning (which the literature conceptualises as entrepreneurial in nature), were not identified by respondents as important in the context of farm diversification.

Given the discrepancy between the literature and perceived practice (in the form of Phase One results) a sequential explanatory phase was undertaken to offer a greater depth of analysis and to apply qualitative and abductive techniques. Within this second phase (Chapter Six) three factors, or shared subjectivities in regard to the entrepreneurial skill and competency needs of farmers, were identified. Of these, Factor A (Reflective Leaders) is an account of those diversified farmers who value decision-making and the ability to organise and coordinate and who demonstrate elements of being reflective and emotionally aware, particularly in regard to their own strengths and weaknesses. Moreover, reflective leaders, would seem to be mild risk takers though not actively engaged in the practice of seeking and identifying new opportunities. Furthermore, whilst they also value relationship competencies this seems to be limited to on-farm encounters and, for instance, does not extend to networking and negotiation.

Those diversified farmers in Factor B (Opportunity Aware Organisers) also value a range of organisational competencies and decisive leadership, with an emphasis placed on sound financial management skill and relationship with key people. Farmers who share this viewpoint, would appear to be far more strategically and opportunity aware, though this is balanced, by being less reflective and self-aware and to being more risk averse.

The third factor, Factor C (Opportunity Driven Innovators), refers to those diversified farmers who show a far greater propensity for risk and an awareness of opportunity and innovation. Moreover, this group value relationships with those on- and off-farm and whilst also valuing leadership and decision-making, this is perhaps to a lesser extent. For this group, the element of opportunity, innovation and risk propensity would seem to be underpinned by self-awareness and creativity.

Thus, in the context of the initial research aims, the evidence from this study suggests that numerous entrepreneurial identities exist, as opposed to just advocating the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur, with each valuing different entrepreneurial skills and competencies. Moreover, the relationship between these entities can be visualised by way of the conceptual relationship model presented at section 6.6, and reprinted here at Figure 7-2 below.

Moreover, in addition to identifying specific skill and competency needs as regards the initial research aim and objective here, the research presented further acknowledges that farmers are not a homogenous group (McElwee, 2006; McElwee and Smith, 2012). With the three factor narratives presented, as well as the supporting conceptual models (at Chapter Six), reflecting the heterogeneity in relation to entrepreneurial skills and competencies revealed by diversified farmers.

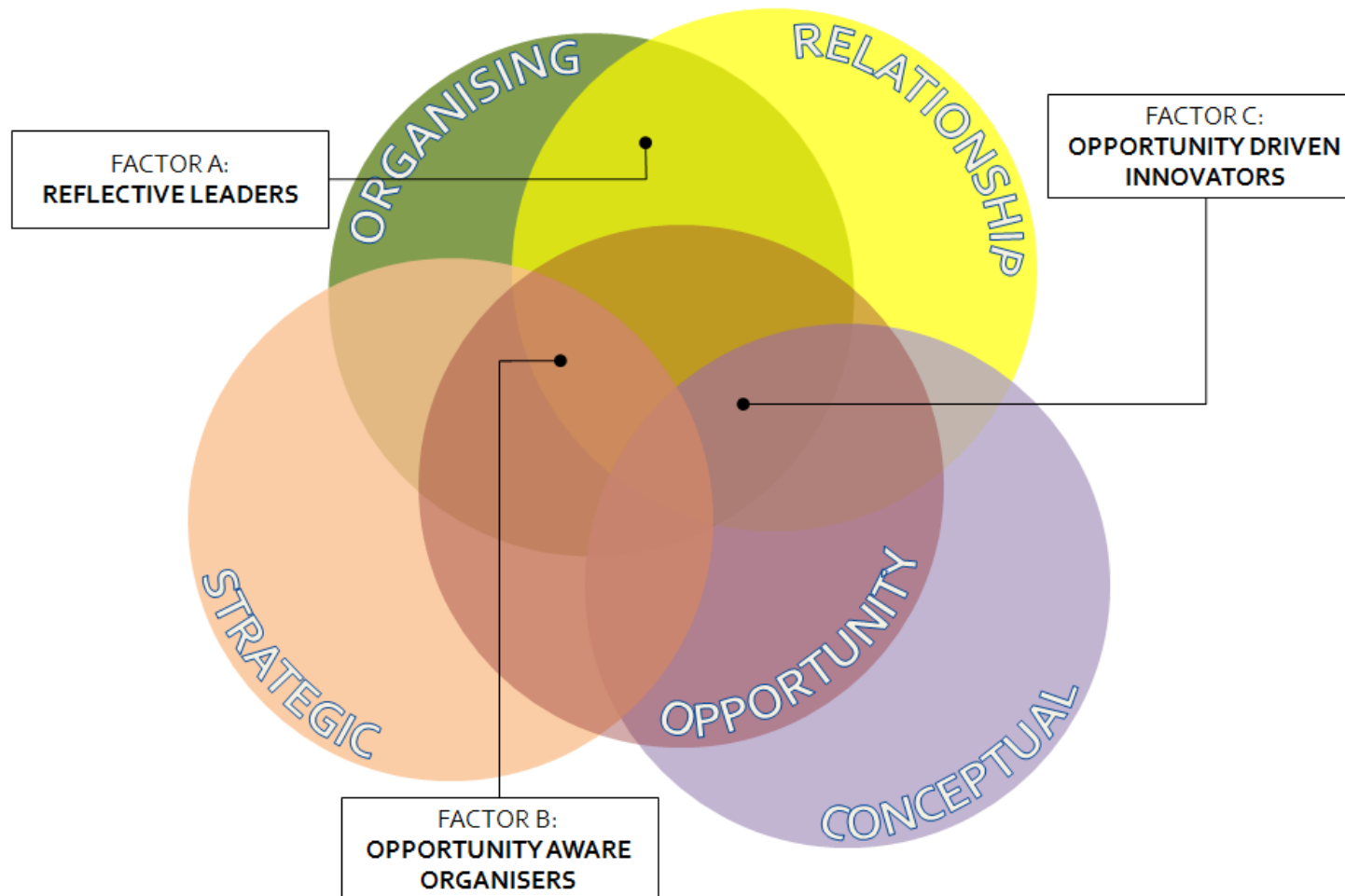


Figure 7-2: Reprint of Figure 6-10
The conceptual relationship between competency cluster and factor

7.3.2 Identifying entrepreneurial skill and competency levels

Further to the identification of skill and competency needs, the second research aim was to appraise the extent to which farmers already foster these entrepreneurial skills and competencies. To assess this, the research respondents at Phase One (Chapter Five) were asked to rate their own abilities against the entrepreneurial skills and competencies presented in the survey. The results of this phase indicate that respondents considered themselves proficient in regards to customer service skill, accountability, emotional coping and critical evaluation. However, financial and marketing skills ranked quite low in the self evaluation exercise. A critical finding, in the context of the skill-set earlier identified as being necessary to succeed. Moreover, most revealing, were low self-assessments against a range of skills identified as entrepreneurial in nature, including, business concept (or business and strategic planning) and environmental scanning (or opportunity recognition).

Thus, the results of this phase, indicate that a number of managerial and personal maturity skills dominate at the expense of those competencies which are identified in the literature as being entrepreneurial. Moreover, by asking respondents to self evaluate their own competencies, the research here challenges the contemporary assumption that farmers are becoming more enterprising in response to the structural changes in agriculture. What is more, it was this observation that led to a sequential explanatory phase which revealed the three factors, or shared perspectives, as discussed above.

Evidently, there are inherent limitations in regard to the approach taken and indeed it is acknowledged that this particular research aim, to appraise the extent to which these entrepreneurial skills and competencies currently exist, is the most narrow in scope. However, the research design adopted here, sought to replicate aspects of the approach taken within the Entrepreneurial Development System (See: Lichtenstein and Lyons, 2001; Lyons, 2003, and again section 3.6), and acknowledges that other skill and competency frameworks involve self-assessment and rating by respondents (Chandler and Jansen, 1992; Chandler and Hanks, 1994; Bergevoet, 2005). One potential solution to this limitation, as reported at Chapter Three, is to adopt a

process of triangulation by asking, (1) the farmer, (2) those who work closely with them (i.e. employees or partners), as well as (3) an external observer known to the farmer (i.e. advisers or consultants), to each rate for observable skill and competencies (Lans, *et al.*, 2007; Lans, Verstegen and Mulder, 2011). However, it must be acknowledged that whilst this approach is more robust, it still involves an element of subjectivity and poses considerably more logistical and procedural difficulties when large samples are employed.

7.3.3 Developing a taxonomy of the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur

The third research aim was to develop a taxonomy of the farmer as a basis for understanding entrepreneurial skill and competency needs in the context of farming identity. With a taxonomy defined as a process of classification, or system of ordering, as opposed to a typology (more prevalent within the entrepreneurship literature) used to describe 'classifications of types regardless of their basis' (Filion, 2000, p.1). This taxonomy emerged from the research and supporting conceptual models presented in Chapter Six, and is reprinted at Figure 7-3 below. This taxonomy as a system of classification, situates the 'farmer as entrepreneur' as the primary (top level) classification, with the shared subjectivities of: (a) the reflective leader, (b) the opportunity aware organiser, and (c) the opportunity driven innovator, as the secondary level of classification. What is more, the taxonomy also attempts to replicate the transition from managerial to entrepreneurial, though acknowledges that the point of this transition is blurred.

Moreover, in addressing this final research aim, a broader taxonomy of the entrepreneurial farmer is offered at Figure 7-4. This broader model positions the taxonomy, emergent from this thesis, within the wider framework offered by McElwee (2008), who conceptualises the farmer as: (1) the traditional farmer, who maintains land based economic activity; (2) the farmer as contractor, who possesses a specific skill / expertise set and experience coupled with the ownership of plant; (3) the farmer as entrepreneur, who is innovative and opportunity oriented; and engages in diversification as the outward sign of strategic orientation; and (4) the entrepreneur who is no longer a farmer, but now a rural entrepreneur, having ceased farming to

concentrate on alternative non-food production business (see again section 3.8).

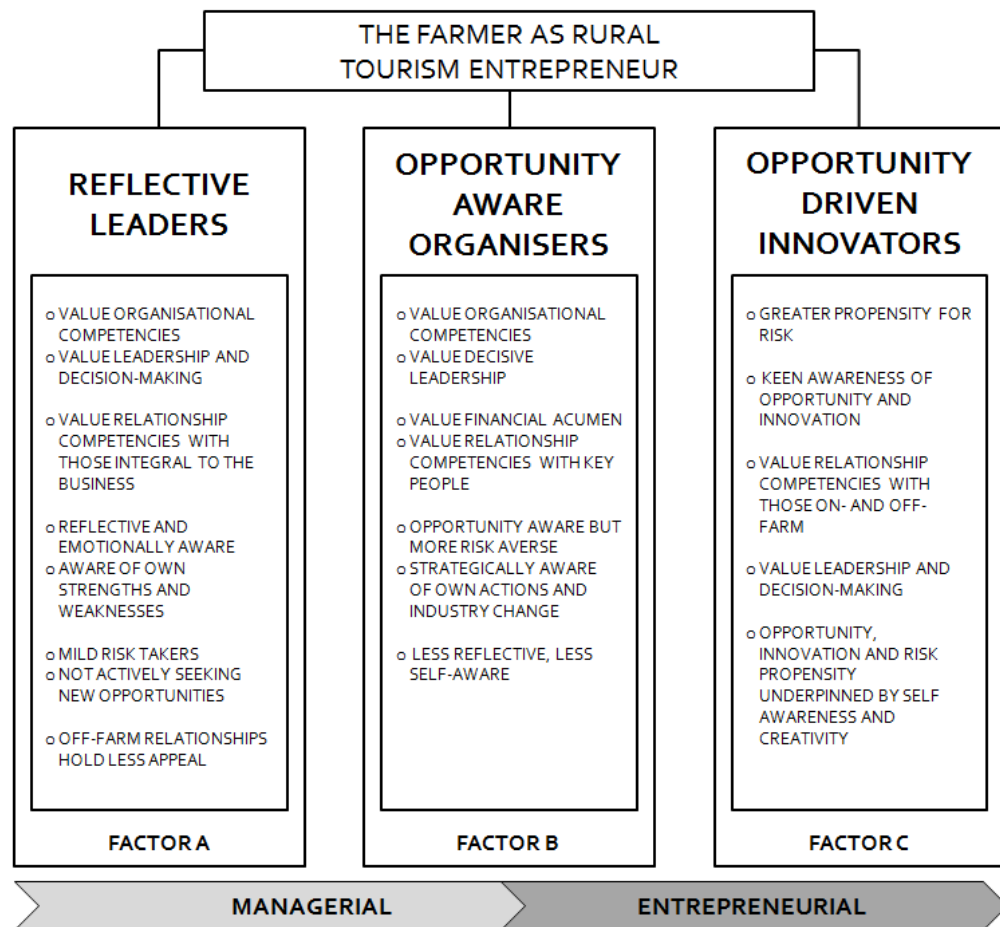


Figure 7-3: Reprint of Figure 6-12
A taxonomy of the farmer as rural tourism entrepreneur

In situating the farm tourism taxonomy within this wider framework, the primary level classifications have been adjusted (from left to right) to reflect the potential routes for the farmer from a productivist toward an entrepreneurial model, or from farmer as non-entrepreneur, to farmer as entrepreneur and rural entrepreneur. Thus, the arrows are indicative of potential pathways, as in for instance, the traditional farmer electing to diversify and thus potentially becoming an entrepreneur. Moreover, McElwee acknowledges that the rural entrepreneur (i.e. no longer farming) may well have begun as a diversified farm venture (initially as a second income), that has developed to replace the core farm business. Hence, this pathway is one potential transition within the taxonomy. In addition, this broader taxonomy highlights a transition from technical, to managerial and then entrepreneurial skill and competency. Though again, it is acknowledged that the point of transition may well be blurred.

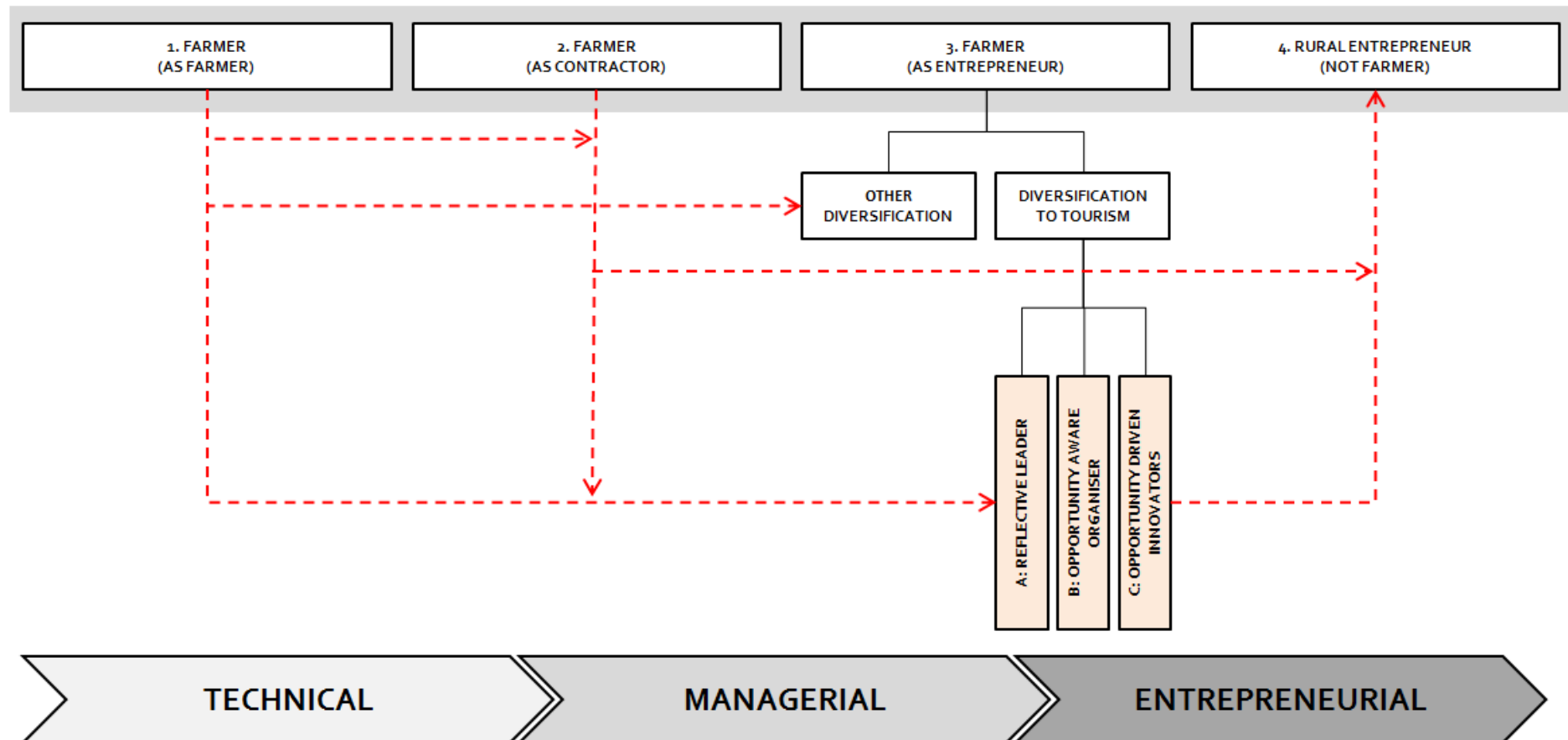


Figure 7-4: A taxonomy of entrepreneurial farmers
The four primary level classifications (1-4) emerge from the work of McElwee (2008)

In reviewing Figure 7-4, it becomes apparent that additional levels of classification and pathways could also be presented. For instance, do the three shared subjectivities that emerge from the research here align with the entrepreneurial personas that might exist against other diversification (i.e. non-tourism) elements of the taxonomy? Are similar skill and competency clusters identified as important by the rural entrepreneur (i.e. those no longer farming), or indeed for rural entrepreneurs generally? Indeed, do those with a farming background, who here have now exited farming, differ from rural entrepreneurs, with no agricultural background, in regard to current and perceived skill and competency need? However, these questions are perhaps best confined to the section that considers future research questions below. In summary though, the taxonomies of the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur presented above, are offered as a basis for understanding entrepreneurial skill and competency needs.

7.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

7.4.1 Contribution to knowledge

The findings from the study contribute to the extant pool of knowledge relating to farm diversification and farm tourism. As previously highlighted, the farm tourism literature is narrow, in that, whilst conceptualising the farmer as an entrepreneur (McGehee and Kim, 2004; Che, Veeck and Veeck, 2005; McGehee, 2007; Barbieri, Mahoney and Butler, 2008; Barbieri and Mshenga, 2008; Barbieri and Mahoney, 2009; Barbieri, 2010), it does not sufficiently engage with key theories of entrepreneurship, paying little attention to the nature of the entrepreneurial activity presented, or to the aspects of farm, farm household, or farmer, that might be considered enterprising.

As has also been identified, the tourism literature has also routinely failed to engage with these discussions on a wider level, with theoretical work shown to remain at a consistently low level and lacking in methodological sophistication (Li, 2008). Admittedly, and as highlighted at Chapter Three, the field of entrepreneurship is itself contested, with multiple conflicting definitions and schools of thought. However, in failing to acknowledge these wider debates, our knowledge of tourism entrepreneurs, identified as an essential element in tourism development (Wilson, *et al.*, 2001; Koh and Hatten, 2002; Russell and Faulkner, 2004; Koh, 2006; Shaw and Williams, 2010),

cannot hope to progress. Thus, this thesis advances research not only in the area of farm tourism, but in the context of tourism entrepreneurship, where gaps in both practical and theoretical knowledge evidently exist.

In addition, the literature on entrepreneurial skills and competencies, whilst again overlooked in tourism discourse, is itself a nascent field of study. Whilst a number of entrepreneurial skill and competency frameworks have now been advocated (Chandler and Hanks, 1994; Man, Lau and Chan, 2002; Mitchelmore and Rowley, 2010; Lans, Verstegen and Mulder, 2011; Omrane and Fayolle, 2011), these are often conceptual in nature and still require empirical validation. Moreover, the pursuit of models and frameworks that position competency as a means to facilitate the entrepreneur and acts of entrepreneurship is likely to continue unabated, for, as Mitchelmore and Rowley (2010) have stressed:

the search for entrepreneurial competencies to support business success and growth, as well as economic development of countries and regions is akin to the pursuit of the Holy Grail

Furthermore, this thesis has provided valuable insight into the complexity of identifying the entrepreneurial skills and competencies that farmers identify as important in diversification to tourism. Thus, making a contribution in respect to each of the gaps in knowledge identified above.

An additional theoretical contribution is made in the development of the conceptual models which match the three factor narratives or shared perspectives, to the underpinning competency clusters advocated by Man Lau and Chan (2002). Moreover, in doing so, it has been possible to identify the importance to farmers of both individual skill and competencies and the broader competency clusters. Additionally, the development of the taxonomies at Chapter Six and Seven contribute not only to our existing knowledge about the field but provide a basis on which future research may be based.

In summary, having acknowledged within this thesis that Q Methodology is a relatively underutilised and innovative technique it is proposed that an additional

methodological contribution has been made in regards to research design and the use of Q in the context of both tourism and entrepreneurship. However, the key contribution remains the formulation of an advanced theoretical stance, with new practical understandings, of the farm tourism entrepreneur.

7.4.2 Contribution to practice

At a policy level, the research presented in this thesis is brought conceptualisations of the farmer as entrepreneur into sharper focus has revealed the heterogeneity of modern farming identity. Specifically, it has identified that farmers who diversify to tourism are not a homogenous set of actors but encapsulate a wide range of perspectives from the risk averse to the opportunity aware, from the managerial to the entrepreneurial. Given the policy narrative which was discussed in depth in Chapter One and Two, that farmers must be entrepreneurial and more competitive in the future, the findings presented here have the potential to allow for more tailored policy initiatives through which to engage with farmers and facilitate this transition. In particular, the emphasis on individual skill and competency and broader competency clusters has the potential to provide the basis for refinement to existing farm and rural business advisory services and extension training programmes. Moreover, this refinement may be to either establish a skill and competency baseline, to develop a framework or curriculum, or as an evaluative element or criteria against publicly funded initiatives. In addition, further to the theoretical contribution outlined above, the conceptual models and taxonomies hold potential for rural development bodies to both aid understanding and foster critical debate.

7.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS

The limitations of this research have been highlighted throughout the thesis when relevant. For this reason, the discussion here will be will not be extensive, but will emphasise the broader limitations of the work presented. Firstly, there is an inherent limitation in any attempt to delimit the literature and the scope of the study. However, as was identified at Chapter One, this was deemed necessary given the range of disciplines and sub-disciplines and the need to integrate the fields of tourism, entrepreneurship and agricultural and rural geography. As such, important bodies of

literature have evidently been overlooked, or have been given scant attention, as in for instance the body of literature on rural tourism. Nonetheless, it is argued that in delimiting scope, it has been possible to review the literature most pertinent to the research aims and objectives and in particular, those key areas and studies which will inform the concourse for Phase Two.

In a similar vein, an additional limitation is in ensuring that the concourse, and resultant Q-set, is as comprehensive as possible. Indeed, this is an inherent limitation and frequent criticism of Q Methodology generally. However, it must be acknowledged that the concourse is itself delimited by the research question and the intention is to understand what meaning respondents give to a set of statements. Thus, guided by the research question, the concourse should be theoretically informed and must take account of the level, range and variety of statements, as well as the redundancy between items, and the realistic length of time that respondents can be asked to complete the sort.

An additional limitation of Q Methodology, as was acknowledged in Chapter Six, is that the factors, as shared perspectives or narratives that emerge from the research, cannot be generalised to a wider population. Indeed, within Q, no claims such as this are made as this would require a wholly different (R) methodological technique. However, it is reasonable to assume that the narratives developed do exist within this wider population, so as a basis for future research and as an acknowledgement of this, a number of potential post-Q research strategies were advocated at section 6.7.

As a final research limitation, and one that was acknowledged within Chapter Four and Five, there are ongoing concerns over the correct unit of analysis in regards to the study of farm tourism and indeed farm diversification entrepreneurship generally. Moreover, the question is whether this should be farmer, farm household, or the farm/farm business unit itself. Evidently, a failure to address this issue has had an inevitable impacts on the quantitative research conducted at Phase One. However, and as was acknowledged at section 4.5.1, some compromises were necessitated, given the objectivist/positivist leanings of a postal survey and the acknowledgement that the

researcher cannot be present to control for the intrusion of non-respondents. Inevitably, this was an issue that could be alleviated in the later qualitative phase where the researcher was present. However, whilst the debate in regard to unit of analysis will inevitably continue, it is the position of this researcher and this research, that entrepreneurial skills and competencies exists at the level of the individual.

7.6 FUTURE RESEARCH

As with discussion limitations above, a number of potential research areas have been highlighted within the thesis overall where relevant, but the purpose of this section is to raise further questions that emerge from this thesis overall. Firstly, the work presented here was confined to farm tourism ventures in the North West of England and evidently additional empirical work is necessary to validate the findings in other UK and European contexts. Moreover, as has been discussed, given that Q methodological results cannot be generalised to a wider population, additional quantitative work of the type advocated in section 6.7 will be necessary to determine to what extent the perspectives identified exist within the diversified farm tourism community as a whole.

In addition, the earlier taxonomies presented whilst themselves providing a useful foundation for further discussion and debate, can be used to identify potential avenues for further research. To this end, the wider of the two taxonomies has been reproduced and annotated at Figure 7-5 below. In particular, potential research questions may consider:

1. What entrepreneurial skills and competencies do farmers in traditional farming roles believe are important as a precursor to diversification? Whilst it is acknowledged that the issue of skills and competencies has been addressed more widely in the literature (for instance the ESoF project and subsequent peer-reviewed papers, see again section 3.8.1), can a range of entrepreneurial competencies be identified that facilitate diversification along the path marked 1A? Moreover, can Q Methodology and elements of the concourse and Q-set developed here inform this approach?

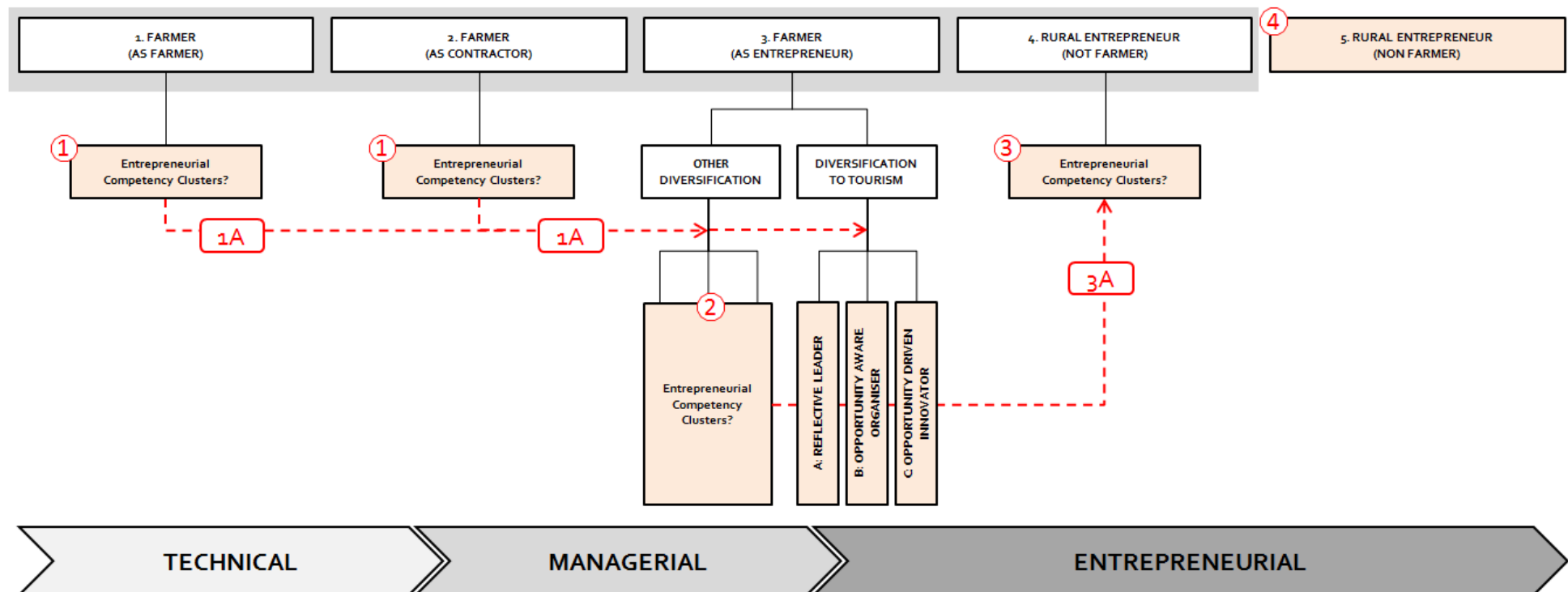


Figure 7-5: Revisiting the entrepreneurial farmer taxonomy: Future research directions?

2. What entrepreneurial skills and competencies do farmers who adopt other forms of diversification believe are important to succeed? Again, it is acknowledge that an emergent literature base (see again section 3.8.1) exists in this area, but it would be revealing to see what shared perspectives emerge using the Q-set and research approach adopted here. Moreover, do non-tourism diversified farmers load on to the factors narratives presented in the thesis here, or are additional entrepreneurial types identified?
3. In a similar vein, what skills and competencies are exhibited by McElwee's (2008) rural entrepreneur category, to denote those farmers who diversified but have now left farming? Again, what overlap can be identified with the skill and competency clusters identified in this thesis? Perhaps of greater interest, what attributes may facilitate the transition along pathway 3A? Does this pathway embrace each of the types identified in this thesis, or just those who are more opportunity driven, or have a greater propensity for risk?
4. As an additional element in the taxonomy, to what extent do rural entrepreneurs who do not come from a farming background exhibit different competency clusters? What is the relationship between these and those presented by farm entrepreneurs? Moreover, does the transition from a productionist land based industry, which as highlighted, sees a transition from technical, through managerial toward entrepreneurial identities, produce different entrepreneurial personas than rural communities generally?

7.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study aimed to make a contribution to our understanding of entrepreneurship in the context of farm tourism. Having identified that farmers need to explore alternative development strategies, and that an aspect of the new conceptualisation of rural space as being multifunctional, this has proved both an important and timely research question to address. It is argued that the research presented here has made a significant contribution to our understanding of these issues and in particular to conceptualising the farmer as a rural tourism entrepreneur.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: COVERING LETTER TO PHASE ONE RESPONDENTS



School of Sport, Tourism & The Outdoors
University of Central Lancashire
Greenbank Building
Preston, PR1 2HE

Dear Sir or Madam

FARM TOURISM IN THE NORTH WEST OF ENGLAND

As a student at the University of Central Lancashire, I am writing to ask for your assistance with my PhD project, which examines the issues involved in operating a farm tourism enterprise in the North West of England.

As you know, tourism has become an increasingly important component in the livelihoods of many farmers and rural communities. Despite this, it is not often given adequate attention in rural development policies at either the regional or national level.

The current recession has also seen a marked increase in the number of people taking UK based short breaks and day trips, in contrast to an overseas holiday. With this trend in mind, my project will adopt an intentionally 'broad definition' of farm tourism to include all leisure, recreation and visitor activity on farms, from the more obvious farm stay accommodation, themed attractions and school visits, through to farm shops, 'pick your own' and other retail schemes.

Specifically, I am exploring the skills that farmers identify as necessary when operating a diversified tourism and leisure enterprise. At the same time, I am trying to gain a deeper understanding of the role of farmers as rural entrepreneurs, and exploring the motivations and challenges associated with farm diversification.

Whilst later stages of the project will consult regional and national bodies that have an interest in these issues, I am currently at the initial and the most critical stage in seeking the opinions of farmers themselves. Having compiled a database of over 400 farms in the North West that are actively engaged in tourism and visitor activity (based on websites, brochures, tourist boards etc.), I am eager to learn of your own experiences and insights on these issues. I would therefore be grateful if you could assist me in this process by spending some time completing the attached questionnaire.

I know that you are busy, and I do appreciate that the paperwork associated with modern farming - and of course operating an additional tourism/leisure/retail enterprise - is becoming ever more complex. On top of this, you probably receive

many such questionnaires. However, the survey has been kept as short as possible whilst still addressing as many of the relevant issues and skills involved.

Having reviewed the questionnaire, you may not feel that it is appropriate to your own situation; perhaps you are no longer actively farming, or the visitor/tourist element of your business is marginal. Nevertheless, I would still appreciate it if you could complete as many sections of the form as possible. The greater the response, the better our understanding of both farming and tourism in the North West and the challenges it now faces. Ultimately, your views, as the owner/operator of a diversified farm enterprise are a vital part of this survey.

Whilst all results will be completely anonymous, the form does ask for your contact details. This is because over the next eighteen months, I will be visiting farms throughout the North West, to hear firsthand about the issues involved in operating a diversified farm tourism enterprise. If you feel that you could assist in this phase, then your contact details would be greatly appreciated. If of course you prefer to remain anonymous, then your completed response will still be a very valuable contribution to my studies.

I look forward to receiving your completed questionnaire, which you can return using the stamped addressed envelope provided. If you have any questions about the survey itself, or the project as a whole, then, please do not hesitate to contact me by telephone, or by email, at the address below.

In the meantime, thank you very much for your help, your contribution is greatly appreciated.


Yours Sincerely,

Chris Phelan
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APPENDIX B: PHASE ONE POSTAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire was produced in a booklet format, equivalent to 4x A4 pages



Farm Tourism Survey

FARMER'S DETAILS

1. Age 18-24 ☐ 1 25-34 ☐ 2 35-44 ☐ 3 45-54 ☐ 4 55-64 ☐ 5 65+ ☐ 6

2. Gender Male ☐ 1 Female ☐ 2

3. What year did you first take responsibility for managing a farm?

4. What was your occupation (if any) prior to farming?

5. What is the highest qualification you hold? (please tick one)

Higher Degree ☐ 1 (please state what this higher degree is)

Professional Qualification ☐ 2 (please state what this professional qualification is)

First Degree (e.g. BA, Bsc) ☐ 3

NVQ Level 4-5 ☐ 4 NVQ Level 2, GCSEs, CSEs, O Levels ☐ 6

NVQ level 3, A Levels ☐ 5 No Qualifications ☐ 7

6. What is your primary position on the farm? (please tick one)

Owner ☐ 1

Tenant ☐ 2

Manager ☐ 3

Other ☐ 4 (If other, please state what this is)

If your partner is involved with the farm, please complete the details in the next section. If not, please go straight to page 2.

PARTNER'S DETAILS

7. Age 18-24 ☐ 1 25-34 ☐ 2 35-44 ☐ 3 45-54 ☐ 4 55-64 ☐ 5 65+ ☐ 6

8. Gender Male ☐ 1 Female ☐ 2

9. What year did he/she first become involved with a farm?

10. What was his/her occupation (if any) prior to farming?

11. What is the highest qualification he/she holds? (please tick one)

Higher Degree ☐ 1 (please state what this higher degree is)

Professional Qualification ☐ 2 (please state what this professional qualification is)

First Degree (e.g. BA, Bsc) ☐ 3

NVQ Level 4-5 ☐ 4 NVQ Level 2, GCSEs, CSEs, O Levels ☐ 6

NVQ level 3, A Levels ☐ 5 No Qualifications ☐ 7

12. What is his/her primary position on the farm? (please tick one)

Owner ☐ 1

Tenant ☐ 2

Manager ☐ 3

Other ☐ 4 (If other, please state what this is)

YOUR CORE FARMING ACTIVITIES	
13. How would you describe your core farming business? (please tick one)	
Dairy <input type="checkbox"/> 1	Cereals <input type="checkbox"/> 4
Grazing Livestock (LFA) <input type="checkbox"/> 2	General Cropping/Pigs <input type="checkbox"/> 5
Grazing Livestock (Lowland) <input type="checkbox"/> 3	Poultry <input type="checkbox"/> 6
Other (please state what this is) <input type="text"/>	
14. What is the size of your farm/holding? <input type="text"/> Hectares	
15. Do you have a formal, written business plan for your core farm business? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> 1 No <input type="checkbox"/> 2	
16. Do you have a formal, written marketing plan for your core farm business? Yes <input type="checkbox"/> 1 No <input type="checkbox"/> 2	
17. Alternatively, if you have now left farming, what was the last year that you operated? <input type="text"/> Year	
YOUR DIVERSIFIED TOURISM ENTERPRISE	
18. Please identify all of the tourism, leisure and visitor activities that you offer on your farm/holding (Please tick <u>all</u> that apply)	
On-farm sporting and leisure activities 1 <input type="checkbox"/> Walking/nature trails 2 <input type="checkbox"/> Horse riding 3 <input type="checkbox"/> Hunting 4 <input type="checkbox"/> Fishing 5 <input type="checkbox"/> Paintball 6 <input type="checkbox"/> Golf Other sporting/leisure provision (please state) <input type="text"/> 7 <input type="text"/>	On-farm accommodation 18 <input type="checkbox"/> Holiday Cottage 19 <input type="checkbox"/> Bed & Breakfast 20 <input type="checkbox"/> Camping 21 <input type="checkbox"/> Caravan pitches 22 <input type="checkbox"/> Bunkhouse style accommodation Other accommodation (please state) <input type="text"/> 23 <input type="text"/>
On-farm attractions and activities 8 <input type="checkbox"/> Farm zoo/petting/feeding/handling 9 <input type="checkbox"/> Farm demonstrations/tour - general public 10 <input type="checkbox"/> Farm demonstrations/tour - schools/education 11 <input type="checkbox"/> Purpose built classroom/education facility 12 <input type="checkbox"/> Museum or farm/rural heritage attraction 13 <input type="checkbox"/> Maize maze/soya maze - or similar 14 <input type="checkbox"/> Observation of agriculture/manufacturing process 15 <input type="checkbox"/> Indoor children's play area (e.g. Soft play area/play barn) 16 <input type="checkbox"/> Outdoor children's play area Other attraction/activity (please state) <input type="text"/> 17 <input type="text"/>	On-farm catering provision 24 <input type="checkbox"/> Restaurant 25 <input type="checkbox"/> Cafe Other catering provision (please state) <input type="text"/> 26 <input type="text"/>
On-farm retail 27 <input type="checkbox"/> Direct sales of 'own' farm produce 28 <input type="checkbox"/> 'Pick your own' type sales 29 <input type="checkbox"/> Farm shop Other retail enterprise (please state) <input type="text"/> 30 <input type="text"/>	
19. Please list any additional provision for tourism or leisure visitors not already identified above <input type="text"/>	
20. In what year was your first diversified tourism enterprise established? <input type="text"/> Year	
21. On average, how many hours per week do you devote to these diversified tourism enterprises? <input type="text"/> Hrs/week	

Please consider your motivations for diversification to farm tourism. Please rate against the following criteria:

	1: Unimportant	2: of Little Importance	3: Moderately Important	4: Important	5: Very Important
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(circle one)

22. To generate new income for the farm	1	2	3	4	5
23. To provide new use for redundant buildings/land/resources	1	2	3	4	5
24. To meet new and interesting people	1	2	3	4	5
25. As part of an exit strategy from farming	1	2	3	4	5
26. To satisfy an existing hobby or interest	1	2	3	4	5
27. To educate the public about farming/rural life	1	2	3	4	5
28. To provide employment opportunities for other family members	1	2	3	4	5
29. To provide opportunities for my children to inherit the business	1	2	3	4	5
30. Other Motivation - Please state					

31. Who has responsibility for decision making in respect to your diversified tourism enterprise?

Self ☐ ¹ Other family ☐ ³ (If other, please state who this is)

Spouse/Partner ☐ ² Other employee ☐ ⁴

32. What proportion of your farms total income is derived from your diversified tourism enterprise?
(please express as a percentage of your farms gross annual income) %

33. Do you have a formal, written business plan for your diversified tourism enterprise? Yes ☐ ¹ No ☐ ²
(As distinct from a business plan for the whole farm business as asked at question 15)

34. Do you have a formal, written marketing plan for your diversified tourism enterprise? Yes ☐ ¹ No ☐ ²
(As distinct from a marketing plan for the whole farm business as asked at question 16)

From your own point of view, please rate the importance of each of the skills below in relation to managing and operating the diversified enterprises that you have identified on your farm at question 18.

	1: Unimportant	2: of Little Importance	3: Moderately Important	4: Important	5: Very Important
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(circle one)

35. Financial: Managing financial resources, accounting, budgeting	1	2	3	4	5
36. Organisational Skills: day to day administrative affairs, managing yourself and time	1	2	3	4	5
37. Supervision: Manage/supervise employees and their needs (inc. training/recruitment)	1	2	3	4	5
38. Marketing/Sales: identifying and reaching customers/distribution channels	1	2	3	4	5
39. Customer Service: handling service expectations and dealing with problems	1	2	3	4	5
40. Small Business Regulations: i.e. H&S, risk assessment, Disability legislation	1	2	3	4	5
41. Goal Setting: Ability to set personal goals, reach them and set new ones	1	2	3	4	5
42. Environmental Scanning: recognise market gap, exploit market opportunity	1	2	3	4	5
43. Business Concept: Business and strategic planning	1	2	3	4	5
44. Critical Evaluation: The ability to think critically	1	2	3	4	5
45. Networking: Co-operation with others, networking and utilising contacts	1	2	3	4	5
46. Negotiation: Persuasive communication and negotiation skills	1	2	3	4	5
47. Accountability: Ability to take responsibility for solving a problem	1	2	3	4	5
48. Emotional Coping: Emotional ability to cope with a problem	1	2	3	4	5
49. Self Awareness: Ability to reflect and be introspective	1	2	3	4	5

Please consider your own abilities against each of the skills listed below. Please indicate your own level of skill against each, with 'L' indicating low, 'M' medium and 'H' high.

L = Low	M = Medium	H = High
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(circle one)

50. Financial: <i>Managing financial resources, accounting, budgeting</i>	L	M	H
51. Organisational Skills: <i>day to day administrative affairs, managing yourself and time</i>	L	M	H
52. Supervision: <i>Manage/supervise employees and their needs (inc. training/recruitment)</i>	L	M	H
53. Marketing/Sales: <i>identifying and reaching customers/distribution channels</i>	L	M	H
54. Customer Service: <i>handling service expectations and dealing with problems</i>	L	M	H
55. Small Business Regulations: <i>i.e. H&S, risk assessment, Disability legislation</i>	L	M	H
56. Goal Setting: <i>Ability to set personal goals, reach them and set new ones</i>	L	M	H
57. Environmental Scanning: <i>recognise market gap, exploit market opportunity</i>	L	M	H
58. Business Concept: <i>Business and strategic planning</i>	L	M	H
59. Critical Evaluation: <i>The ability to think critically</i>	L	M	H
60. Networking: <i>Co-operation with others, networking and utilising contacts</i>	L	M	H
61. Negotiation: <i>Persuasive communication and negotiation skills</i>	L	M	H
62. Accountability: <i>Ability to take responsibility for solving a problem</i>	L	M	H
63. Emotional Coping: <i>Emotional ability to cope with a problem</i>	L	M	H
64. Self Awareness: <i>Ability to reflect and be introspective</i>	L	M	H

If you would like to expand on any of your answers, offer additional comment against any of the skills, or outline what you perceive to be the key issues affecting farm tourism in the North West. Then please feel free to use the additional space here, or continue on a separate sheet and return with your completed questionnaire.

**THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS SURVEY
YOUR INFORMATION IS A VALUABLE PART OF THIS RESEARCH PROJECT**

Your contact details:

Please indicate, if you would be happy to participate in a follow-up interview, during phase two of this research project ☐

Please return completed forms using the SAE provided to: Chris Phelan, Farm Tourism Survey,
School of Sport, Tourism & The Outdoors, University of Central Lancashire, Preston, PR1 2HE.

APPENDIX C: THE CONCOURSE: A REVIEW OF ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILL AND COMPETENCE FRAMEWORKS

The tables on the following pages summarise the main skills and competency frameworks reviewed in Chapter Two. Moreover, these frameworks reflect the concourse from which the final Q set at Phase Two has been derived.

For the purposes of this study, the concourse has been structured around the competency headings identified in the work of Man, Lau and Chan (2002) to include: (1) opportunity competencies, (2) relationship competencies, (3) conceptual competencies, (4) organising competencies, (5) strategic competencies, and (6) commitment competencies. What is more, the subsequent placement of skills and competencies against these six headings has been based on the decisions of the researcher, as informed by Man, Lau and Chan's own description, of the cluster. At times, this has led to a pragmatic placing of an individual skill or competence that difference from that of the original source. For instance, for de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer (2007), innovation and risk management skills were placed against the heading opportunity skills, whereas for the purposes of the concourse here, they were deemed more appropriate against Man, Lau and Chan's conceptual competence cluster. Similar value-based decisions were made against other sections, where the original author(s) have not provided any evident clustering of skills or competencies as in for instance Chell's (2008, p.211) 'practical criteria for judging the existence of entrepreneurial behaviour.'

Greater depth against each of the entrepreneurial skills and competencies cited can be gained from a review of Chapter Three of this thesis. Similarly, an overview of Q methodology and the terms Concourse and Q-set can be gained from reading Chapter Four. Moreover, the completed Q-set, derived from the concourse, is presented at Appendix D and E.

(Man, Lau and Chan, 2002)	OPPORTUNITY COMPETENCIES (OppComp) Competencies related to recognizing and developing market opportunities through various means	RELATIONSHIP COMPETENCIES (RelComp) Competencies related to person-to-person or individual-to-group-based interactions, e.g., building a context of cooperation and trust, using contacts and connections, persuasive ability, communication and interpersonal skill	CONCEPTUAL COMPETENCIES (ConComp) Competencies related to different conceptual abilities, which are reflected in the behaviours of the entrepreneur, e.g., decision skills, absorbing and understanding complex information, and risk-taking, and innovativeness	ORGANISING COMPETENCIES (OrgComp) Competencies related to the organization of different internal and external human, physical, financial and technological resources, including team-building, leading employees, training, and controlling	STRATEGIC COMPETENCIES (StratComp) Competencies related to setting, evaluating and implementing the strategies of the firm	COMMITMENT COMPETENCIES (CommComp) Competencies that drive the entrepreneur to move ahead with the business
(Chandler and Jansen, 1992)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying goods or services people want • Perceive unmet customer needs • Look for products that provide real benefit • Seizing high-quality business opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enlist the support of key people • Involve people with important resources • Venture team with complementary competencies 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organise and motivate people • Delegate effectively • Keep organisation running smoothly • Organising and coordinating tasks • Supervise, influence, lead • Maximise results in resource allocation • Organise resources 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make venture work no matter what • Refuse to let venture fail • Make large personal sacrifices • Extremely strong internal drive
(Lans, <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General awareness • International orientation • Market orientation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication • Negotiation • Networking • Persuasiveness • Teamwork 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conceptual thinking • Problem analysis • Vision • Judgement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HRM/HRD • Leadership • Planning • Organisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning orientation • Management control • Result orientation • Strategic orientation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-management • Value clarification • Vision

	OppComp	RelComp	ConComp	OrgComp	StratComp	CommComp
(de Wolf, McElwee and Schoorlemmer, 2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognising business opportunities • Market and customer orientation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skills to cooperate with other farmers and companies • Networking skills • Team-working skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awareness of threats • Innovation skills • Risk management skills • Reflection skills • Conceptual skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technical skills • Financial management • Human resource mgt • Customer management • General planning • Leadership skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategic planning skills • Strategic decision-making skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skills to receive and make use of feedback • Monitoring and evaluation skills • Goal setting skills
(Man, Lau and Snape, 2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify goods or services customers want • Perceive unmet customer needs • Actively look for products or services that provide real benefit to customers • Seize high-quality business opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop long-term trusting relationships with • Negotiate with others • Interact with others • Maintain a personal network of work contacts • Understand what others mean by their words and actions • Communicate with others effectively 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Apply ideas, issues, and observations to alternative contexts • Integrate ideas, issues, and observations into more general contexts • Take reasonable job-related risks • Monitor progress toward objectives in risky actions • Look at problems in new ways • Explore new ideas • Treat new problems as opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plan the operations of the business • Plan the organisation of different resources • Keep the organisation run smoothly • Organise resources • Coordinate tasks • Supervise subordinates • Lead subordinates • Organise people • Motivate people • Delegate effectively 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determine long-term issues, problems, or opportunities • Aware of projected directions of the industry and how changes might impact • Prioritise work in alignment with goals • Redesign the Department and/or organisation to better meet long-term objectives and changes • Align current actions with strategic goals • Assess and link short-term into, day-to-day tasks in the context of long-term direction • Monitor progress toward strategic goals • Evaluate results against strategic goals • Determine strategic actions by weighing costs and benefits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dedicate to make the venture work whenever possible • Refuse to let the venture fail whenever appropriate

	OppComp	RelComp	ConComp	OrgComp	StratComp	CommComp
(Schallenkamp and Smith, 2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmental scanning: recognise market gap, exploit market opportunity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advisory board and networking: balance independence with seeking assistance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher-order: learning, problem-solving • Self-awareness: ability to reflect and be introspective • Emotional coping: emotional ability to cope with a problem • Creativity: ability to produce a creative solution to a problem 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Operational: the skills necessary to produce the product or service • Supplies/raw materials: skills to obtain them, as necessary • Office of production space: the skills to match needs and availability • Management: planning, organising, supervising, directing, networking • Marketing/sales: identifying customers, distribution channels, supply chain • Financial: managing financial resources, accounting, budgeting • Administrative: people relations, advisory board relations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business concept: business plan, presentation skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accountability: ability to take responsibility for resolving the problem
(Chell, 2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resourcefulness • Alertness • Social/market awareness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasiveness • Social competence • Manipulative • Political astuteness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creativity • Judgement • Risk-propensity • Flexibility • Perception 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership • Adeptness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business acumen • Strategic competence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resilience • Self-confidence • Stamina • Self-efficacy

	OppComp	RelComp	ConComp	OrgComp	StratComp	CommComp
(Mitchelmore and Rowley, 2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification and definition of a viable market niche • Development of products of services appropriate to the firms chosen market niche / product innovation • Environmental scanning • Recognising and envisioning taking advantage of opportunities • Formulating strategies for taking advantage of opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ability to motivate others individual and in groups • Human relations skills • Interpersonal skills • The ability to manage customers • Oral communication skills • Deal-making skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Idea generation • Development of the organisational culture management feel is necessary to guide the firm • Conceptual competencies • Mental ability to coordinate activities • Written communication skills • Decision making skills • Analytical skills • Logical thinking skills • 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of the management system necessary for the long term functioning of the organisation • Acquisition and development of resources required to operate the firm • Business operational skills • Managerial experience • Financial and budgeting skills • Management style • Marketing skills • Technical skills • Industry skills • Familiarity with the market • Management skills • Hiring skills • Delegation skills • Leadership skills • Organisational skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Familiarity with industry • Previous experience • The ability to implement strategy • Business plan preparation • Goal setting skills • Previous involvement with start-ups • 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commitment competencies
(Lans, Verstegen and Mulder, 2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proactive searching • Alertness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teamwork • Social perception • Negotiation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diagnosing problems • Analysis • Judgement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personnel management • Planning and organising 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Result orientation • Strategic orientation • Vision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning orientation • Self-management

	OppComp	RelComp	ConComp	OrgComp	StratComp	CommComp
(Lans, Verstegen and Mulder, 2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I look for new information all the time • I am continuously looking for new possibilities • I am often the first to try out new things • I consider the funding policy of (international) government to be an excellent opportunity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I often negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding our prices • I have many networks outside the agricultural sector • During my presentations I can put my ideas across easily to my audience • Cooperation with entrepreneurs in my sector is important to me 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I keep an eye on the main issues and can point out the heart of a problem • I know how to describe the problems in my enterprise • I easily separate facts from opinions • I can easily look at things from various points of view 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I can easily identify problems on the work floor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I can name my business goals straightaway • I have a clear idea of where my enterprise will be in five years • I have a clear idea about how my enterprise performs in relation to other enterprises in the sector • My goals are laid down in written plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I am very aware of my own weak and strong points • I accept challenges more often than colleagues in my sector • I am not easily diverted from the goals I set myself • I try to incorporate feedback from the public in my products • I'm open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) • I try to incorporate feedback from the public in my products • I'm involved in activities contribute positive image of my professional group • I evaluate my actions as much as possible

APPENDIX D: THE 42 Q-STATEMENTS (BY COMPETENCY CLUSTER)

Forty-two statements were selected to form a structured Q-set. As highlighted at Appendix C, the structure was derived from Man, Lau and Chan (2002) competency clusters and seven statements (derived from the literature reviews / refined by the concourse development) were selected against each cluster.

OPPORTUNITY COMPETENCIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs ○ Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits ○ Able to recognise a gap in the marketplace ○ Willing to look for new information all time ○ Continuously aware of new possibilities ○ Be the first to try out new things ○ Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers
RELATIONSHIP COMPETENCIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Be able to enlist the support of key people ○ Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions ○ The ability to motivate others ○ Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices ○ Maintain a network of professional contacts ○ Effectively put your ideas across to an audience ○ The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood
CONCEPTUAL COMPETENCIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem ○ Be prepared to take risks ○ Able to look At problems in new ways ○ Have a large measure of creativity ○ Able to generate new and innovative ideas ○ Able to easily describe the problems in your business ○ Be able to see things from various points of view
ORGANISING COMPETENCIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Be able to delegate effectively ○ Have the ability to organise and coordinate people ○ Have sound financial management skills ○ Have the to plan the daily operations of the business ○ Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly ○ Be a good decision maker ○ Be an effective leader
STRATEGIC COMPETENCIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business ○ The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals ○ Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the business decisions you make ○ Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway ○ Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years ○ Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans ○ Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years
COMMITMENT COMPETENCIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The ability to make the venture work no matter what ○ Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary ○ Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses ○ Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set myself ○ The ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your products / services ○ To be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) ○ The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible

APPENDIX E: THE 42 Q-STATEMENTS PRESENTED TO THE P-SET

Able to easily describe the problems in your business (1)	Have a large measure of creativity (2)	Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (3)
Have sound financial management skills (4)	Continuously aware of new possibilities (5)	Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (6)
The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (7)	Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (8)	Able to generate new and innovative ideas (9)
Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (10)	Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (11)	The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (12)
Willing to look for new information all time (13)	Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc.) (14)	Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (15)
Be able to enlist the support of key people (16)	Able to look at problems in new ways (17)	The ability to make the venture work no matter what (18)
Be an effective leader (19)	Be able to delegate effectively (20)	Able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (21)

Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (22)	Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (23)	Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (24)
The ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your products / services (25)	Be a good decision maker (26)	An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (27)
Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (28)	Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (29)	Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (30)
The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (31)	Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (32)	Be able to motivate others (33)
Be the first to try out new things (34)	Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (35)	Maintain a network of professional contacts (36)
Be prepared to take risks (37)	Be able to see things from various points of view (38)	Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (39)
Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (40)	Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the business decisions you make (41)	Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (42)

APPENDIX F: PHASE TWO PARTICIPANTS

Factor	Participants
A	P2-04, P2-06, P2-08, P2-12, P2-13, P2-14
B	P2-01, P2-02, P2-05, P2-07, P2-09, P2-15;
C	P2-03, P2-10, P2-11

Participant	County	Core Farm	Diversified tourism Enterprise
P2-01	Merseyside	Grazing Livestock (Lowland)	Holiday Cottages.
P2-02	Gtr Manchester	Grazing Livestock (Lowland)	Bed & Breakfast; Farm Shop.
P2-03	Cheshire	Cereals	Bed & Breakfast; Weddings/Events.
P2-04	Cheshire	Grazing Livestock (Lowland)	Holiday Cottages.
P2-05	Lancashire	Grazing Livestock (LFA)	Open Farm Style Attraction; Farm Tours/Classroom; Museum; Play Areas; Cafe.
P2-06	Cheshire	Cereals / Horticulture	Farm Shop; Tearooms; PYO.
P2-07	Cumbria	Grazing Livestock (LFA)	Open Farm Style Attraction; Farm Tours; Play Areas; Cafe; Farm Shop
P2-08	Cheshire	Grazing Livestock (Lowland)	Heritage Centre/Museum; Farm Demonstrations/Tours; Cafe; Farm Shop.
P2-09	Cumbria	Grazing Livestock (LFA)	Holiday Cottages; Camping.
P2-10	Lancashire	Dairy	Open Farm Style Attraction; Farm Tours/Classroom; Maize Maze; Play Areas; Restaurant / Cafe; Farm Shop.
P2-11	Cumbria	Grazing Livestock (LFA)	Holiday Cottages; Bed & Breakfast; Teashop.
P2-12	Lancashire	Dairy	Holiday Cottages; Camping; Bunkhouse; Cafe.
P2-13	Lancashire	Dairy	Farm Tours; Arts Centre; Farm Shop; Restaurant/Cafe.
P2-14	Cumbria	Dairy	Cafe; Farm Shop
P2-15	Cumbria	Grazing Livestock (LFA)	Bed & Breakfast.

APPENDIX G: CRIB SHEETS FOR FACTOR A, B AND C

CRIB SHEET FACTOR A
ITEMS RANKED AT +4 (42) Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (OrgComp)(+4FB/6FC) (19) Be an effective leader (OrgComp)(+1FB/+2FC)
ITEMS RANKED HIGHER IN FACTOR A ARRAY THAN IN OTHER FACTOR ARRAYS (7) The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (RelComp) (+2FB/+1FC) (8) Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (OrgComp) (=FB/+1FC) (12) The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (CommComp) (+3FB/+3FC) (14) Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) (CommComp) (+2FB/+3FC) (15) Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (ConComp) (+2FB/+1FC) (16) Be able to enlist the support of key people (RelComp) (=FB/+1FC) (20) Be able to delegate effectively (OrgComp)(+3FB/+5FC) (28) Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (CommComp)(+2FB/+3FC and 3/C) (32) Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (RelComp)(+1FB/4FC) (35) Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (StratComp) (=FB/+1FC) (38) Be able to see things from various points of view (ConComp) (+2FB/+4FC) (39) Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (CommComp)(=FB/=FC)
ITEMS RANKED LOWER IN FACTOR A ARRAY THAN IN OTHER FACTOR ARRAYS (2) Have a large measure of creativity (ConComp) (=FB/-4FC) (5) Continuously aware of new possibilities (OppComp) (-1FB/-2FC) (6) Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (OppComp) (9) Able to generate new and innovative ideas (ConComp) (=FB/-2FC) (13) Willing to look for new information all time (OppComp) (=FB/-1FC) (21) Be able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (OrgComp) (-4FB/-5FC) (22) Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (RelComp) (-6FB/-5FC) (23) Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (OppComp) (-3FB/-1FC) (24) Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (StratComp) (-1FB/=FC) (25) The ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your products / services (CommComp) (-1FB/-1FC) (30) Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (StratComp) (-3FB/-1FC) (31) The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (StratComp) (=FB/-1FC) (34) Be the first to try out new things (OppComp) (-2FB/-1FC) (41) be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the decisions you make (StratComp) (-3FB/-1FC)
ITEMS RANKED AT -4 (34) Be the first to try out new things (-2FB/-1FC) (18) The ability to make the venture work no matter what (-4FB/-4FC)

CRIB SHEET FACTOR B
ITEMS RANKED AT +4 (4) Have sound financial management skills (OrgComp) (+2FA / +2FC) (26) Be good decision maker (OrgComp) (+2FA / +2FC)
ITEMS RANKED HIGHER IN FACTOR B ARRAY THAN IN OTHER FACTOR ARRAYS (8) Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (OrgComp) (=FA/+1FC) (10) Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (OrgComp)(+1A / +3C) (11) Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (OppComp)(+1A / +2C) (16) Be able to enlist the support of key people (RelComp) (=FA/+1FC) (18) The ability to make the venture work no matter what (CommComp) (+4FA/=FC) (23) Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (OppComp)(+3FA / +2FC) (25) The ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your prods/servs (CommComp)(+1FA/=FC) (26) Be good decision maker (OrgComp)(+2FA / +2FC) (27) An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (StratComp)(+1FA / +3FC) (30) Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (StratComp)(+3FA / +2FC) (34) Be the first to try out new things (OppComp)(+2FA / +1FC) (35) Able to picture consequences of a decision over the coming months/years (StratComp)(-FA/+1 FC) (39) Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (CommComp)(=FB/=FC) (41) Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the decisions you make (StratComp)(+3FA / +2FC)
ITEMS RANKED LOWER IN FACTOR B ARRAY THAN IN OTHER FACTOR ARRAYS (1) Able to easily describe the problems in your business (ConComp)(+1FA / +1FC) (2) Have a large measure of creativity (ConComp) (=FA/-4FC) (9) Able to generate new and innovative ideas (ConComp) (=FA/-2FC) (15) Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (ConComp)(-2FA / -1FC) (17) Able to look at problems in new ways (ConComp) (=FA/-1FC) (22) Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (RelComp)(+6FA / +5FC) (31) The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (StratComp) (=FA/-1FC) (33) Be able to motivate others (RelComp)(-3FA / -1FC) (36) Maintain a network of professional contacts (RelComp)(-1FA / -4FC) (37) Be prepared to take risks (ConComp)(-3FA / -7FC) (40) Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (CommComp)(-1FA / -2FC)
ITEMS RANKED AT -4 (3) Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (RelComp) (-6FA/-7FC) (36) Maintain a network of professional contacts (RelComp) (-1FA/-4FC)

CRIB SHEET FACTOR C
ITEMS RANKED AT +4 (6) Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (OppComp)(+5FA / +2FB) (37) Be prepared to take risks (ConComp) (+5FA / +7FB)
ITEMS RANKED HIGHER IN FACTOR C ARRAY THAN IN OTHER FACTOR ARRAYS (1) Able to easily describe the problems in your business (ConComp) (-FA/+1 FB) (2) Have a large measure of creativity (ConComp) (+4FA / +4FB) (3) Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (RelComp) (+1FA / +7FB) (5) Continuously aware of new possibilities (OppComp) (+2FA / +1 FB) (6) Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (OppComp)(+5FA / +2FB) (9) Able to generate new and innovative ideas (ConComp) (+2FA / +2FB) (13) Willing to look for new information all time (OppComp) (+1FA / +1FB) (17) Able to look at problems in new ways (ConComp) (+1FA / +1FB) (18) The ability to make the venture work no matter what (CommComp) (+4 FA/-FB) (21) Be able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (OppComp) (+5FA / +1FB) (25) The ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your products / services (CommComp) (+1 FA/-FB) (31) The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (StratComp) (+1FA / +1FB) (36) Maintain a network of professional contacts (RelComp) (+3FA / +4FB) (39) Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (CommComp)(=FB/=FC) (40) Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (CommComp)(+1FA / +2FB)
ITEMS RANKED LOWER IN FACTOR C ARRAY THAN IN OTHER FACTOR ARRAYS (4) Have sound financial management skills (OrgComp) (-FA/-2 FB) (8) Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (OrgComp) (-1FA / -1FB) (10) Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (OrgComp) (-2FA / -3FB) (11) Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (OppComp) (-1FA / -2FB) (12) The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (CommComp) (minus 1FA/-FB) (14) Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc) (CommComp) (-3FA / -1FB) (16) Be able to enlist the support of key people (RelComp) (-1FA / -1FB) (19) Be an effective leader (OrgComp)(-2FA / -1FB) (20) Be able to delegate effectively (OrgComp)(-5FA / -2FB) (24) Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (StratComp) (-FA/-1 FB) (26) Be good decision maker (OrgComp) (-FA/-2 FB) (27) An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (StratComp) (-2FA / -3FB) (28) Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (CommComp) (+3FA / +1FB) (29) Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (StratComp) (-2FA / -1FB) (32) Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (RelComp) (-4FA / -3FB)
(continued)

(35) Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (StratComp)(-1FA / -1FB) (38) Be able to see things from various points of view (ConComp) (-4FA / -2FC) (42) Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (OrgComp)(-6FA / -2FC)
ITEMS RANKED AT -4 (29) Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (StratComp)(-2FA / -1FB) (32) Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (RelComp) (-4FA / -3FB)

The crib sheet system is proposed by Watts and Stenner (2012, p.150) as a procedure for a 'systematic and methodological approach to factor interpretations that might: (a) be applied consistently in the context of each and every factor; and (b) allow the researcher to deliver genuinely holistic factor interpretations.'

APPENDIX H: A COMPARISON OF COMPOSITE Q-SORTS BY CLUSTER AND FACTOR (AT SIZE A_3 IN BOUND THESIS)

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
The ability to make the venture work no matter what (18)	Maintain a network of professional contacts (36)	Willing to look for new information all time (13)	Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (6)	Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (10)	Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (8)	Be a good decision maker (26)	Be able to delegate effectively (20)	Be an effective leader (19)
Be the first to try out new things (34)	Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (22)	Able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (21; OppComp)	Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (23)	Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (11)	Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (35)	Have sound financial management skills (4)	Be able to motivate others (33)	Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (42)
	Have a large measure of creativity (2)	Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (24)	Continuously aware of new possibilities (5)	The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (31)	An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (27)	Be able to enlist the support of key people (16)	The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (7)	
		Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (29)	Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (39)	Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the business decisions you make (41)	Be able to see things from various points of view (38)	Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (3)		
		Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (30)	Ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your prod/s / serv/s (25)	Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc.) (14)	The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (12)	Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (18)		
			Able to look at problems in new ways (17)	Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (40)	Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (15)			
			Able to easily describe the problems in your business (1)	Be prepared to take risks (37)	Able to generate new and innovative ideas (9)			
				Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (32)				

FACTOR A: 'REFLECTIVE LEADERS'

Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (3)	Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (29)	The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (12)	Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (32)	Be able to motivate others (33)	The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (7)	Be able to enlist the support of key people (16)	Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (22)	Have sound financial management skills (4)
Maintain a network of professional contacts (36)	Be prepared to take risks (37)	Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc.) (14)	Able to look at problems in new ways (17)	Be able to delegate effectively (20)	Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (8)	An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (27)	Be an effective leader (19)	Be good decision maker (26)
	Have a large measure of creativity (2)	Able to easily describe the problems in your business (1)	Be able to see things from various points of view (38)	Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (42)	Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (10)	Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (6)	Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the decisions you make (41)	
		Willing to look for new information all time (13)	Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (15)	Continuously aware of new possibilities (5)	Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (11)	Be able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (21)		
		Be the first to try out new things (34)	Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (24)	The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (31)	Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (30)	Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (23)		
			Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (39)	The ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your products / services (25)	Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (35)			
			Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (40)	Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (18)	Able to generate new and innovative ideas (9)			
				The ability to make the venture work no matter what (18)				

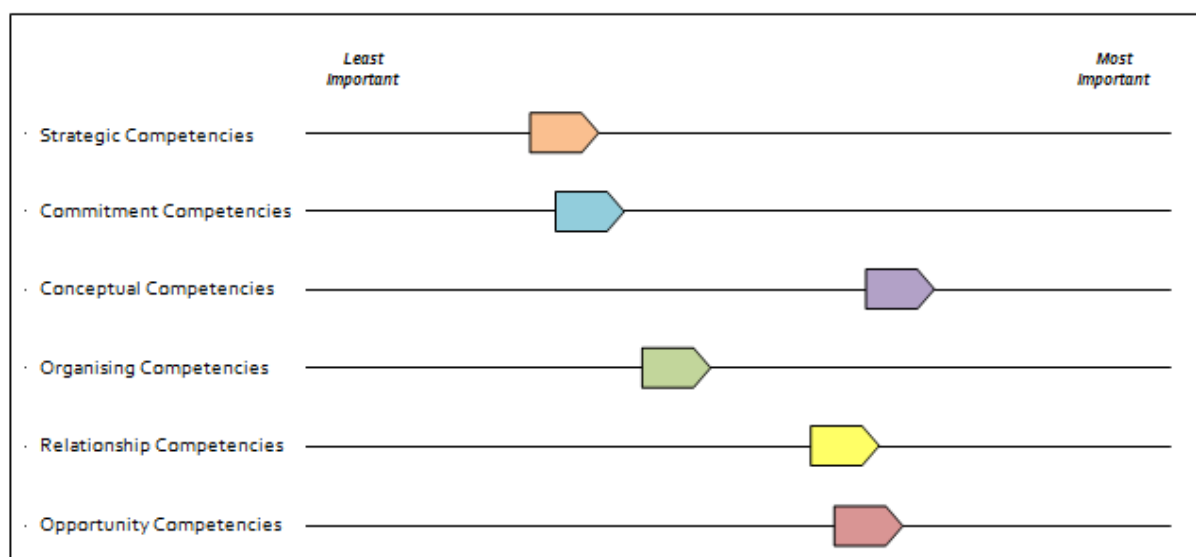
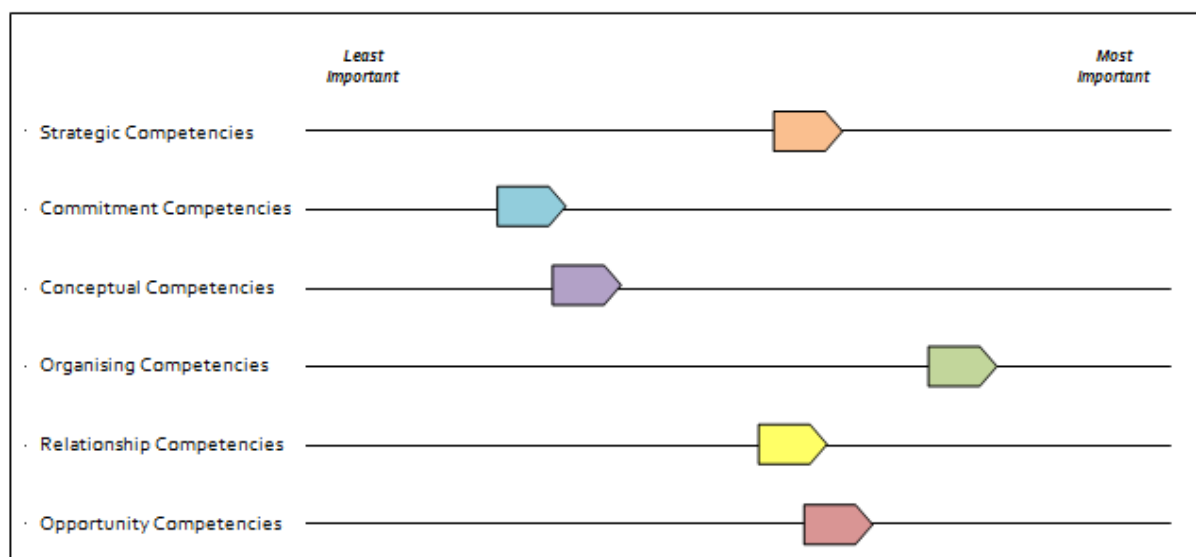
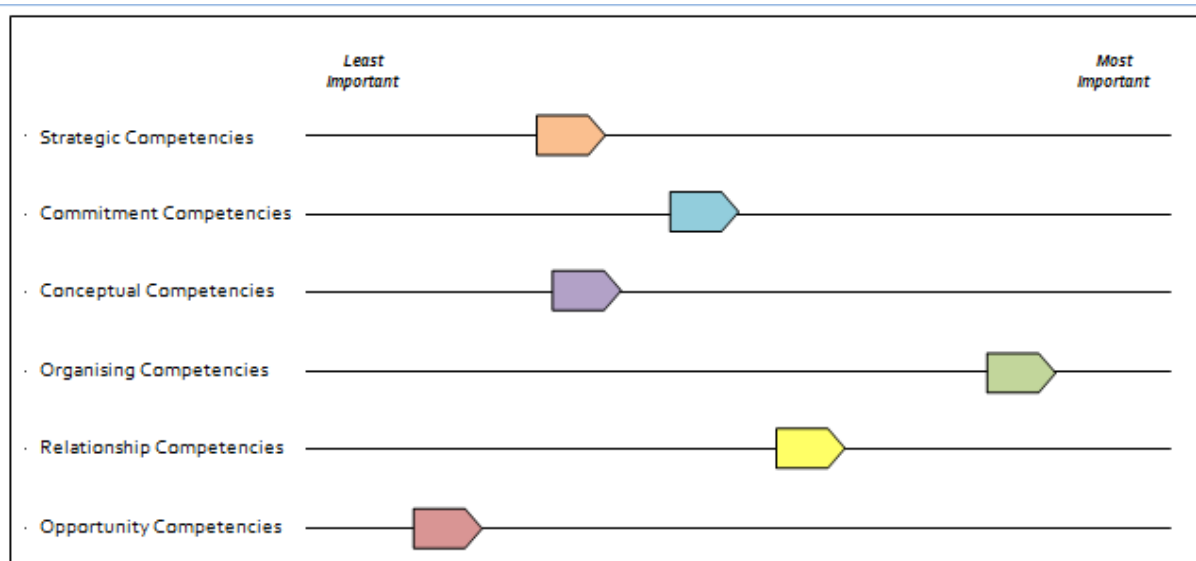
FACTOR B: 'OPPORTUNITY AWARE ORGANISERS'

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
Perceptive as to what others mean by their words and actions (32)	Be open to criticism from others (colleagues, employees, etc.) (14)	The ability to evaluate your own actions as much as possible (12)	Aware of your own strengths and weaknesses (18)	The ability to make the venture work no matter what (18)	Prepared to make large personal sacrifices when necessary (40)	Have sound financial management skills (4)	Able to generate new and innovative ideas (9)	Be prepared to take risks (37)
Prepared to lay down your goals in written plans (29)	Be the first to try out new things (34)	Have the ability to organise and coordinate people (42)	Not be easily diverted from the goals that you set yourself (39)	Ability to incorporate feedback from customers into your prod/s / serv/s (25)	Be able to motivate others (33)	Be an effective leader (19)	Be able to recognise a gap in the marketplace (21)	Have the ability to identify unmet customer needs (6)
	Be able to see things from various points of view (38)	Be able to delegate effectively (20)	Able to identify products and services that provide real benefits (11)	Maintain a network of professional contacts (36)	Be able to enlist the support of key people (16)	Be good decision maker (26)	Effectively put your ideas across to an audience (3)	
		Allocate the resources to allow the business to run smoothly (10)	Willing to look for new information all time (13)	Actively look for products or services that provide real benefits to customers (23)	Continuously aware of new possibilities (5)	The ability to communicate effectively and make requirements clearly understood (7)		
		Have the ability to name your business goals straightaway (24)	Possess a clear idea of where your business will be in five years (30)	Be able to picture the consequences of a decision over the coming months / years (35)	Be able to weigh the costs and benefits of the decisions you make (41)	Be prepared to negotiate with suppliers or buyers regarding prices (22)		
			An awareness of changes in the industry and how they may impact your business (27)	Possess the emotional ability to cope with a problem (15)	The ability to prioritise your work in alignment with your business goals (31)			
			Able to easily describe the problems in your business (1)	Able to look at problems in new ways (17)	Have a large measure of creativity (2)			
				Have the ability to plan the daily operations of the business (8)				

FACTOR C: 'OPPORTUNITY DRIVEN INNOVATORS'

KEY
Strategic Competencies
Commitment Competencies
Conceptual Competencies
Organising Competencies
Relationship Competencies
Opportunity Competencies

APPENDIX I: CONCEPTUAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COMPETENCY CLUSTERS – A COMPARISON OF FACTORS (AT SIZE A₃ IN BOUND THESIS)



APPENDIX J: PEER REVIEWED PUBLICATIONS ARISING FROM THIS THESIS
 (ORIGINAL JOURNAL ARTICLES INCLUDED IN BOUND THESIS)

Phelan, C. and R. Sharpley (2011) 'Exploring Agritourism Entrepreneurship in the UK', *Tourism Planning & Development*, **8**, 2, pp. 121-136.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2011.573912>

ABSTRACT Farm-based recreation or agritourism is increasingly seen as a diversification strategy to promote a more diverse and sustainable rural economy and to protect farming incomes against market fluctuation. Thus, farmers are increasingly being recognised as entrepreneurial, needing to develop new skills and capabilities to remain competitive. However, few studies have addressed the role of entrepreneurship within the context of the diversified farm tourism business. This paper examines the range of skills and competencies that farmers in the North West of England identify as important for successful diversification and explores the extent to which these competencies are evident. The findings indicate that although farmers are increasingly turning to agritourism as a means to generate additional income, they lack many of the fundamental business competencies required for success. This has implications for rural development policies and signals the need to address these skill deficiencies through farm advisory processes and via more effective training of and support for agritourism providers.

Phelan, C. and R. Sharpley (2012) 'Exploring Entrepreneurial Skills and Competencies in Farm Tourism', *Local Economy*, **27**, 2, pp. 103-118.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0269094211429654>

ABSTRACT Diversification to farm tourism is increasingly seen as a viable development strategy to promote a more diverse and sustainable rural economy and to counter declining farm incomes. However, the dynamics of the modern farm tourism business and the entrepreneurial and competitive skills farmers require in making the transition from agriculture to a diversified enterprise remains limited. This article explores the range of skills and competencies that farmers in the North West of England identify as important when adopting a diversification strategy to farm tourism. The findings indicate that, whilst a range of managerial skills are valued by farmers, they lack many of the additional business and entrepreneurial competencies required for success. The article acknowledges the need to generate consensus on the requisite skill-set that farm tourism operators require.