

Strategic Media Entrepreneurship: Theory Development and Problematization

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ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurship and strategy enable media organizations to create new ideas and bring them to the market. However, despite their practical importance, synergistic combinations of these theories are currently under-investigated. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to theoretically explore the phenomenon of strategic media entrepreneurship and lay the foundations for further investigation and theory development. The paper highlights a convergence of strategy and entrepreneurship and shows how they add to organizational success through developing visions, exploring and exploiting opportunities, managing people, building networks, driving creativity, and facilitating strategic planning. Ultimately, the paper contributes by uncovering and reflecting on the assumptions of current theoretical approaches in strategic media management and media entrepreneurship through targeted problematization. This provides the basis for opening new discussions, generating new theories, and exploring emerging phenomena around strategic media entrepreneurship.

KEYWORDS

Conceptual Research, Entrepreneurship, Field Development, Media Entrepreneurship, Media Management, Practice Theory, Problematization, Startups, Strategic Media Management, Theory Building

INTRODUCTION

Media entrepreneurship is a growing field of research around underlying phenomena that are quickly developing. Media firms need to become more entrepreneurial (van Weezel, 2010; Will, Brüntje, & Gossel, 2016), and manage digitization internally (Habisch & Bachmann, 2017; Pérez-Latre & Sánchez-Taberner, 2015), as well as capitalize on the use of digital media to connect with audiences and stakeholders (Evens, Raats, & von Rimscha, 2018). In this regard, media entrepreneurship shares many challenges and opportunities with general entrepreneurship around the *mediatization* of entrepreneurship (cf. Couldry & Hepp, 2017; Hjarvard, 2013; Lindgren, 2017). This is reflected in recent overviews along core journals in the field, who invite a re-thinking and re-conceptualization of entrepreneurship and strategy in regards to digital technology (Nambisan, 2018; Plesner & Gulbrandsen, 2015; Shen, Lindsay, & Xu, 2018). The theoretical relevance of this paper, therefore, is grounded in their calls for more research and theoretical developments towards better understanding entrepreneurship in times of increasing digitization and mediatization.

The practical relevance of this paper is seen in current trends around digitization, eroding boundaries of the media industry, and increasing competition from new players in changing media markets, which create pressures for organizational survival and opportunities for innovation. These

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developments are consequential for media managers and organizations for two reasons. *First*, because they need to act more strategically and find new ways to conceptualize these challenges for being able to respond adequately to them (see for example Daidj, 2018; Horst & Järventie-Thesleff, 2016; Järventie-Thesleff, Moisander, & Villi, 2014; Küng, 2017b; Maijanen & Jantunen, 2014; Oliver & Parrett, 2018). *Second*, because they need to continually drive new ideas and more radical innovations to sustain success (see for example Achtenhagen, 2017; Baumann & Brüning, 2017; Evens et al., 2018; Hasenpusch & Baumann, 2017; Khajeheian & Tadayoni, 2016; Price Schultz & Jones, 2017; Zboralska, 2017). Towards this aim, Hang (2016, p. 3) explains that in today's environment "adaptation to the newness and proactive transformation are crucial to achieve and sustain business success. Therefore, media firms need to develop strategic tools that enable new business creation and facilitate capturing opportunities arising from the emerging fields". This means, media organizations need to become more entrepreneurial (Will et al., 2016), but necessarily so in strategic manner. As a consequence, media organizations need to manage entrepreneurship strategically.

The objective of this paper is to theoretically explore the phenomenon of *Strategic Media Entrepreneurship* and lay the foundations for further investigation. This relates to current academic research, which shows an underlying convergence of theories and practices regarding entrepreneurship and strategy around media (cf. Achtenhagen, 2017; Hang, 2018; Khajeheian, 2017; Nambisan, 2018; Nambisan, Siegel, & Kenney, 2018; Shen et al., 2018; Steininger, 2018). Essentially, entrepreneurship and strategy synergistically enable media organizations to share knowledge, create new ideas, manage networks, implement new processes and bring them to the market (Blundel, Lockett, & Wang, 2017). This convergence facilitates research to answer questions about "who, what, when, where, why and how" of entrepreneurship (Rehn, Brännback, Carsrud, & Lindahl, 2013, p. 545). This becomes evident in the way how phenomena are addressed, what concepts are used, and what theoretical and practical implications are developed. At the same time, the potential for synergies in *theory development* is currently underexplored because studies are often quite narrowly confined, which makes researchers disregard connected studies and neighboring fields (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011). This may risk overlooking productive similarities and synergistic combinations, even though these are critical for creating new theories and reflecting on assumptions regarding our constructs in media management and organization studies (cf. Alvesson & Kärreman, 2007; Shepherd & Suddaby, 2016). Therefore, the paper takes a broad view, detailing developments around converging research on strategy and entrepreneurship around media, and laying the foundations for further inquiry around strategic media entrepreneurship.

On this basis, the paper aims to make two contributions. First, it contributes by advancing a theoretical perspective of "strategic media entrepreneurship" by building on existing theories and discussions on the interdependence of strategy and entrepreneurship (Barringer & Bluedorn, 1999; Blundel et al., 2017; Burgelman, 1983; Dhliwayo, 2014; Ireland, Covin, & Kuratko, 2009; Ireland, Hitt, & Simon, 2003; Wickham, 2006). Second, the paper contributes by uncovering and reflecting on the assumptions of current theoretical approaches in strategic media management and media entrepreneurship through targeted problematization (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2007; Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011, 2013). These two contributions are grounded in recent calls from the field, which emphasize that we need more studies and efforts for theory building (Achtenhagen, 2016; Küng, 2017a; Mierzejewska, 2018; Picard & Lowe, 2016; Rohn, 2018), because only through acknowledging the way in which we build our understanding of media management with either existing, incremental (consensus-seeking) or new, frame-bending (consensus challenging) concepts and frameworks (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013, p. 109), can we develop our theories and models to be better fitting, more reflective, and more productive.

The paper is structured as follows. After defining the core concepts of media entrepreneurship, strategic media management and strategic media entrepreneurship, it discusses theory building in media management. Then, the paper reviews research on strategic media management and media entrepreneurship for building a theoretical framework of strategic media entrepreneurship. The paper closes by discussing contributions and giving an outlook for future research.

DEFINING CORE CONCEPTS

Media entrepreneurship is a developing and important area of social inquiry that supports our understanding and development of different entrepreneurial phenomena taking place in and around media. Following Khajeheian (2017, p. 102), media entrepreneurship may be defined as risk taking to exploit opportunities (creation/ discovery) by innovative use of re-sources to transform an idea into activities for offering value (content/platform/user data). Therefore, media entrepreneurship is encompassing many activities, resources, actors, and ideas. In other words, it consists of various social practices that shape media entrepreneurship.

Now, strategic entrepreneurship is defined as the coexistence or combination of “opportunity-seeking and advantage-seeking behaviors”, which are deemed to result in superior firm performance (Dhliwayo, 2014; Hitt, Ireland, Camp, & Sexton, 2002; Ireland et al., 2009; Ireland et al., 2003; Kraus & Kauranen, 2009; Wickham, 2006). Making this combination visible is critical, because seeking opportunities and achieving success are core practices for current media organizations if they want to stay ahead in the game. For that matter, strategy and entrepreneurship constitute the basis of success for media practitioners in today’s media industry and more broadly. Together these two concepts form the basis of *strategic media entrepreneurship*, which is defined as all activities, processes and practices leading towards entrepreneurial development and strategic success.

THEORY BUILDING IN THE FIELD OF MEDIA MANAGEMENT

To better understand what kind of research is being conducted around strategic media management and media entrepreneurship it is important to elucidate the similarities and differences in the converging fields.

Media organizations are facing increasing disruptions for traditional business models through tech giants (e.g. Küng, 2013, 2017a), a greater need for collaborating with possible competitors (e.g. Westlund, 2012), and new modes of work and content production –facilitated through digitization (Olleross & Zhegu, 2016; PwC, 2016)– which challenge large media conglomerates and traditional media companies (e.g. Pallas & Fredriksson, 2013; Sylvie & Gade, 2009; van den Bulck & Tambuyzer, 2013; Virta & Malmelin, 2017). However, these strategic challenges not only threaten large conglomerates to rethink and restructure their operations in the sense of a creative push-and/or-pull challenge towards innovative business solutions (Garud, Tuertscher, & Van de Ven, 2013, p. 779), but simultaneously facilitate entrepreneurial opportunities for small, often digital startups, either independently or in the greater sphere of larger media organizations (van Weezel, 2010).

Nevertheless, research at the intersection of strategy and entrepreneurship in our field remains scarce (Achtenhagen, 2017; Will et al., 2016). This is surprising because media organizations need to act more entrepreneurial and manage changes in digital media technologies. These changes, in turn, drive new business models and open the market for new players, which fundamentally impacts our understanding of media management: *media management* becomes a practice that goes beyond media organizations and the media industry (Ots, Nyilasy, Rohn, & Wikström, 2015, p. 104; Rohn, 2018, pp. 429-430).

Theory building currently focuses on narrow phenomena and core areas, such as either strategy in media organizations or media entrepreneurship. This may be explained because of scientific challenges for the field of media management itself and social science research more broadly (Cornelissen, 2018; Starbuck, 2016). Increasingly, researchers face a complex, networked and changing research phenomenon, which pressures them into more defined and clearer areas, such as business models, marketing/branding and strategy (Achtenhagen, 2016; Achtenhagen & Mierzejewska, 2016; Albarran, 2006, 2008; Lowe, 2016; Mierzejewska & Shaver, 2014; Ots & Picard, 2015; Picard & Lowe, 2016). Hence, contributions to the development of the field are often more narrow and deep, which is important in itself to achieve better descriptions and more robust theories (Achtenhagen, 2016; Picard

& Lowe, 2016; Rohn, 2018). But on the other hand, it may limit the possibility for working across research streams and pushing for revealing intrinsic foundations of a specific area for constructing a more revealing contribution (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013; Bartunek, Rynes, & Ireland, 2006).

Media management researchers face opportunities and challenges in theory building. On the one hand, as Mierzejewska (2018, p. 29) explains, “the danger of borrowing existing theories from other fields falls short in explaining many aspects of media operations”. Furthermore, the challenge for researchers is to keep up with the ever-expanding literature and horizon of knowledge, because the potentially relevant materials, theories, problems, topics and concepts are overwhelming and new critiques of older work multiply each passing year (Van Maanen, 2011, p. 146). On the other hand we experience great opportunities for describing new phenomena and taking a fresh look at existing discourses, theories and frameworks for reflecting on the conceptual and epistemological development of the field (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011), in particular through exploring combinations and shared developments that aim at stretching the field (Ots et al., 2015, p. 104; Rohn, 2018, pp. 429-430). What makes media ‘different’ from other industries makes a case for new, original theory development (Lowe, 2016; Mierzejewska, 2018). Nevertheless, while such theory-building efforts might be at an early stage, the aim should be to promote diverse and innovative research designs and scholarly questioning for shedding light on the complex phenomenon of media management (Mierzejewska, 2018, p. 29).

This fragmentation and its essential opportunities for scientific discovery have not gone unnoticed. In congruent manner, Will et al. (2016, p. 193) recently observed that the current literature focuses on certain media industries or special entrepreneurial phenomena rather than exploring the interrelation between media and entrepreneurship. Therefore, “entrepreneurial media management in the digital era is underdeveloped” (Will et al., 2016, p. 191). What this means on a broader level is that, in addition to considering the strategic and entrepreneurial elements of media management, “publications in media management –as well as media entrepreneurship– should pay more careful attention to building theory” (Achtenhagen, 2017, p. 5). This is essential, because as Mierzejewska (2011, p. 14) highlights, media management as a field is “underexplored and undertheorized”. Only by developing more systematic conceptual frameworks and models will we be able to transcend the current challenges towards making media management matter (Küng, 2007). Therefore, furthering theory building through working across discourses and uncovering the distinct assumptions around the in-house assumptions, root metaphors, paradigms, ideologies and/or the field behind our literature domains may be critical for developing our theories in more systematic manner (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013, p. 70). This will create a basis for strengthening our conceptual and explanatory potential as a growing and important discipline with increasing relevance towards the development of organizations and society (Achtenhagen, 2016; Küng, 2007; Mierzejewska, 2011; Murschetz & Friedrichsen, 2017; Picard & Lowe, 2016).

The paper will follow the method of “problematization” (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011; Sandberg & Alvesson, 2011). The purpose behind problematization is “to illuminate and challenge those assumptions underlying existing theories [...] about a specific subject matter” (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013, p. 53). This is achieved by “coming up with novel research questions through dialectical interrogation of one’s own familiar (or home) position, other theoretical stances, and the domain of literature targeted for assumption challenging” (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013, p. 49). This creates a “more reflective and inventive attitude”, encouraging researchers to broaden their view and draw from a multitude of starting points to produce more complex forms of questioning, which may result in “frame-bending theories” (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013, pp. 50, 109). Therefore, the paper provides a delineation of the two research streams (1) strategic media management and (2) media entrepreneurship with their assumptions and approaches, which allows carving out differences and similarities between them. From this, the paper constructs a conceptual model of *strategic media entrepreneurship* that is grounded in theories of social practices (see e.g. Geilinger, Haefliger, von Krogh, & Rechsteiner, 2016; Gherardi, 2012; Shove, Pantzar, & Watson, 2012), which underscore the multifaceted nature of social reality to which both research streams contribute significant lenses.

STREAM 1: STRATEGIC MEDIA MANAGEMENT

“Strategic management has been the most widely used theoretical or conceptual framework in media management studies to date” (Mierzejewska, 2011, p. 14). In this tradition, numerous studies have been conducted for describing, explaining and predicting firm performance, market behavior, and policy making (Mierzejewska, 2011). At the same time, strategic media management has changed dramatically in the last 15 years. At the turn of the century, we could see clear demarcations between different markets in the media industry. This meant that media managers could draw on established ways and practices to create and sustain successful strategies for their organizations. For example, the way to manage organizations such as the BBC and CNN was based on particular priorities and goals, which meant that the top managers were heavily guided by their unconscious “convictions about the meaning and function of their professional activities”, which in turn shaped their organization’s strategic developments and responses to their environments (Küng-Shankleman, 2000, p. 200). Similarly, managing newspapers or magazines (Becker, Vlad, & Martin, 2006; Daniels & Hollifield, 2002; Gade, 2004; Picard, 2001; Sylvie, 2003), films or film projects (Horst, Murschetz, Brennan, & Friedrichsen, 2018; Lee, 2006; Miller & Shamsie, 1996, 1999; Ribera & Sieber, 2009), TV and TV stations (Huang et al., 2006; Slocum & Albarran, 2006) or radio (Albarran, Chan-Olmsted, & Wirth, 2006; Maijanen & Jantunen, 2014) followed market specific sets of ideas and practices to guarantee organizational success. At the same time, large media conglomerates faced diverse management challenges across markets, which were a combination of strategic difficulties from their portfolio companies (Schulze, Thielmann, Sieprath, & Hess, 2005).

Throughout the last ten years, traditional media organizations faced a “global paradigm shift” (Vukanovic, 2009, 2016b). Issues such as managing headquarter subsidiary relations (Strube & Berg, 2011), managing joint ventures (Lee, 2006), managing the impact of VAT on portfolio strategies (Krumsvik, 2012), or how to react to new market entrants were prevailing management issues (Picard, 2001). In turn, these issues shaped the way in which media organizations adapted their strategic planning processes (Slocum & Albarran, 2006). Some best-practices were, for example, the strategic management of cross-media content distribution to achieve economies of scale, leveraging or repurposing (Vukanovic, 2009).

Increasingly, media organizations faced the challenges of convergence (Huang et al., 2006). Along with more competitors and technological innovations, convergence induced the need to change management practices for many media organizations. Here, convergence was conceptualized as “the flow of content across multiple media platforms, the cooperation between multiple media industries, and the migratory behavior of media audiences who will go almost anywhere in search of the kinds of entertainment experiences they want” (Jenkins, 2006, p. 2). The process of convergence contributed to creating a networked digital media reality (Meikle & Young, 2012), in which media managers cope with ongoing organizational change. For example, on an every-day level, the generation of ideas, research, sourcing, processing, packaging, and re-using of content changed so that journalists had to adapt existing routines and manage anxiety regarding change (Phillips, Singer, Vlad, & Becker, 2009). Team leaders needed to manage roles, expectations and conflicts with new partners (Lee, 2006), others the development of competencies of their employees for working with new technologies (Huang et al., 2006). Often times, managers needed to restructure their organizations, be it public or private (Faustino, 2008) and create new organizational forms that would fit better to the new organizational environment (Dubini & Provera, 2008).

One of the challenges in managing organizational change was the speed of change, because best practices were changing quarterly (Joseph, 2011). For this, viewing failure as useful, managing flat hierarchies, maximizing use of emerging technologies, and attracting inspired leaders to create focused innovation (Joseph, 2011) were suggestions, which appeared to be rather “stereotypical advises” (cf. Whittington & Cailluet, 2008) that would leave managers trying to figure out “how exactly things could be best managed strategically in [their] organizational context”, because strategic management

is a locally situated, context-dependent activity (Jarzabkowski, 2003; Jarzabkowski & Spee, 2009; Vaara & Whittington, 2012). Therefore, managing organizational change in media firms became a central aspect in practice and in scientific research on media management (Achtenhagen & Raviola, 2009; Baumann, 2013; Daniels & Hollifield, 2002; Dickinson, Matthews, & Saltzis, 2013; Ekdale, Singer, Tully, & Harmsen, 2015; Horst & Järventie-Thesleff, 2016; Horst & Moisander, 2015; Järventie-Thesleff et al., 2014; Maijanen, 2015; Maijanen & Jantunen, 2014; Oliver, 2013; Picard, 2009; Sylvie, 2003).

In managing change strategically, researchers focused on describing and understanding how to manage dilemmas and paradoxes (Achtenhagen & Raviola, 2009; DeFillippi, 2009; Horst & Moisander, 2015) and ambidexterity (Virta & Malmelin, 2017), such as intra-organizational tensions of individualization vs. belonging, autonomy vs. control, or exploration vs. exploitation (DeFillippi, 2009). Here, tensions could be identified in processes, structures, and cultures (Achtenhagen & Raviola, 2009), which could, unless consciously addressed, hinder strategic renewal and organizational survival (Horst & Moisander, 2015).

Moreover, other researchers uncovered difficulties for media workers living in an enterprise economy. For example, Storey, Salaman, and Platman (2005) showed that media organizations adapt their working and hiring practices to accommodate changed perceptions regarding media work. In parallel, the self-conception of media workers changed to incorporate a sense of ongoing change (see e.g. Moisander, Könkkölä, & Laine, 2013; Picard, 2009; van den Bulck & Tambuyzer, 2013). Together, they created an awareness for human resource and leadership aspects (Dal Zotto, 2005; Redmond, 2006), the management of organizational cultures (Harisalo, Rajaniemi, Stenvall, & Vallin, 2014) and identities (Deslandes, 2011).

Similarly, strategic media management focuses on understanding marketing and branding issues of media products (Baumann, 2015; Chan-Olmsted, 2011; Krebs & Siegert, 2015; Roll, Emes, & Horst, 2017; Roll & Horst, 2017; Siegert, Förster, Chan-Olmsted, & Ots, 2015; von Rimscha, 2015). An important trend in this literature lies in conceptualizing the media organization as a brand that can be communicated (Hatch & Schultz, 2003; Malmelin & Moisander, 2014; Schultz & Hatch, 2003). Through creating a successful brand in the marketplace, the manager seeks to differentiate the organization and create long-term success (Hatch & Schultz, 2001, 2008). These are the hallmarks of successful strategic management.

Essentially, media organizations face an “emergent strategic environment” which is characterized by high levels of uncertainty, unclear boundaries, evolving business models, unknown and shifting consumer preferences and growing competition (Küng, Leandros, Picard, Schroeder, & van der Wurff, 2008, p. 127). This means, they need to make due with competing requirements, such as speed and flexibility as first movers, early adopters and innovators vs. achieving economies of scale and scope, creating long-term learning effects; integration and control vs. separation, outsourcing and autonomy (Küng et al., 2008, p. 135). This is consequential for what kind of theories and concepts can be adopted for strategic media management today.

Foundational approaches to strategy in the tradition of Porter (1980) allow analyzing the industry and its competition. They focus on examining market entrants, the distribution of buying power and supply, the threat by substitutes, and rivalry of firms to achieve competitive positioning. Moreover, the concepts allow analyzing value chains and stable sourcing (Porter, 1991). These approaches are often complemented by research in the tradition of the resource-based-view (RBV), which focuses on how organizations may combine their resources to achieve competitive advantage in terms of unique, valuable, non-imitable, non-substitutable capabilities to satisfy consumer preferences better than their competitors (see e.g. Barney, 2001; Miller & Shamsie, 1996; Priem & Butler, 2001). However, while these approaches were important for media organizations in times of stable markets and slow, incremental changes, they do not provide the necessary means for adequately addressing fast-changing, turbulent and transformational conditions (Chakravarthy, 1997; Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000; Oliver, 2013) and as such, the way that strategic thinking is conceptually supported (Moon, 2013).

Therefore, researchers focusing on the idea of dynamic capabilities try to extend this tradition by adding an understanding of dynamics and change towards how an organization can achieve competitive success (Easterby-Smith, Lyles, & Peteraf, 2009; Teece, 2007). However, achieving dynamic capabilities is not straightforward and a long-term commitment, because “resource renewal” bears higher costs over a sustained period of time (Oliver, 2014, p. 61). Moreover, they have a routine element, which is more about repetition and less about adaptation (cf. Regnér, 2008; Salvato, 2009; Teece, 2012). Overall, these theories are useful because they provide the necessary terminology and roots for what strategy is. Furthermore, they may be supportive in highlighting how the strategic landscape is changing and help pinpointing emerging priorities (Küng, 2017b, p. 64). Nevertheless, Küng (2017b) explains:

“[L]egacy media organizations have found rationalist strategic approaches hard to apply in the industry’s dynamic and volatile environment. Rather than engage in traditional strategic planning, strategy work in many cases has become opportunistic and piecemeal, defined on the one hand by firefighting in response to specific challenges and on the other by a large number of individual strategic project that only, if at all, coalesce into a coherent strategy in retrospect.” (Küng, 2017b, p. 65)

Towards this aim, the concept of *strategy-as-process* enables scholars to include a thinking of change and adaptation (Burgelman et al., 2018). Strategy, here, is a “process not a state” (Pettigrew, 1992). This conception invites scholars and media practitioners to see strategy as “an evolutionary process where change takes place progressively as firms undertake strategic readjustments in response to changing environments” (Küng, 2017b, p. 66). In this tradition, Mintzberg, Lampel, Quinn, and Ghoshal (2003, p. 166) hold that managing strategy is to manage change – to recognize when a shift of strategic nature is possible, desirable, and necessary, and then to act – possibly putting in place mechanisms for continuous change. This is important for media managers in times of rapid, complex, transformational developments brought about by the Internet and digitization of media products, processes and media work (Deuze, 2007; Lindgren, 2017). It is reorganized as most challenging for leaders and uncomfortable for media workers because it involves abandoning traditional recipes and identities (DeFillippi, 2009; van den Bulck & Tambuyzer, 2013) and approaching change as an open-ended process (Tsoukas & Chia, 2002) which is more about sensing and sensemaking of what is going on (Balogun & Johnson, 2005) and appreciating the contextual factors and circumstances that enable or restrict strategic actions and decision-making towards an emergent development (Chia, 2014; Chia & Holt, 2009). In these situations, the ideas, plans and concepts used for achieving the organization’s success are being constantly interpreted and negotiated, made and remade, and put to practice (Clegg, Schweitzer, Whittle, & Pitelis, 2017, p. 323).

Overall, strategic media management today needs to focus more on people and process oriented theories of strategy and strategizing (Burgelman et al., 2018). This is because many assumptions of the earlier work on strategy do not hold true anymore for the media industry, and we need new theories and concepts for describing strategy which is characterized through the emergence and flow of events in and around the digitization of organizations (cf. Couldry & Hepp, 2017; Lindgren, 2017; Meikle, 2016).

STREAM 2: MEDIA ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Media entrepreneurship is a rather young discourse and has grown in importance and significance as a field of study (Achtenhagen, 2017; Hang, 2018). Changes in the media landscape created significant strategic pressures and have shifted the focus of many media organizations, professionals and policy makers towards understanding the importance of media entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurship can be broadly defined as an endeavor around discovering and/or creating opportunities by people and firms (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Often times, this has meant to discover a new and profitable way of making business and finding a way to exploit it (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). In consequence, media entrepreneurship has been defined as “the creation

and ownership of an enterprise whose activity adds an independent voice to the media marketplace” (Hoag, 2008, p. 74) or similarly, as the way in which “new ventures aimed at bringing into existence future media goods and services are initially conceived of and subsequently developed, by whom, and with what consequences” (Achtenhagen, 2008, p. 126). Both definitions reflect important early conceptualizations in the field of media entrepreneurship. Nevertheless, these definitions may be too narrow for helping us conceptualize and understand the phenomenon we see today. This is because we see that entrepreneurial venturing in general is a suitable means for acting in highly dynamic environments which drives innovation (Will et al., 2016). Therefore, entrepreneurship can be more broadly defined as a “context-dependent social process through which individuals and teams create wealth by bringing together unique packages of resources to exploit marketplace opportunities” (Ireland, Hitt, Camp, & Sexton, 2001, p. 51). As a consequence, “media management practice and entrepreneurship are drawing closer and are more connected –in short, the practice of media management is becoming [more] entrepreneurial” (Will et al., 2016, p. 189). What this means is that earlier studies in media entrepreneurship focused more on traditional media industries and left out the Internet as a medium (Hang & van Weezel, 2007, p. 54). This is consequential for our understanding of media entrepreneurship, as our conceptualizations around entrepreneurship in and with media are lacking behind the current digital realities of social media (Nambisan, 2018; Shen et al., 2018), which provide new opportunities to connect with audiences (Lindgren, 2017), receive feedback and input for producing products and services, and allow creating new business models and logics (Vukanovic, 2016a, 2016b).

Finding new ways of doing business is key when having to balance improving operational effectiveness (reduce costs and streamline businesses operations in decreasing markets) and finding new revenue streams (developing innovative ideas for growing markets) (van Weezel, 2010). Hence, convergence is no longer the issue, but “the goal is to make it work in a new, yet-to-be-found business model” (van Weezel, 2010, p. 47). Towards this aim, an *entrepreneurial orientation* allows developing innovative ideas and behave strategically towards unfolding circumstances. It is defined as the processes, practices, and decision-making activities that lead firms to decide to enter a new market or launch a new product (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). To become more entrepreneurial, Hang and van Weezel (2007, p. 55) urge firms to develop organizational aspects such as e.g. autonomy (in decision-making), innovativeness, risk taking, proactiveness, and competitive aggressiveness.

Media entrepreneurship goes hand in hand with a perceived enlargement of entrepreneurial activities in the media sector and with media technologies, driven by changes in the industry environment and competition, as well as the employment outlook for established media workers (Khajeheian & Arbatani, 2011). Losing a job in an established media organization resulted in more unemployed media workers having to work by themselves, needing to find new opportunities and becoming creative in defining their area of expertise (cf. Sindik & Graybeal, 2017, p. 57). As such, media professionals and media companies alike are becoming more interested in the phenomenon of entrepreneurship as a driver for innovation and growth.

But being successful in entrepreneurial ventures is neither easy nor straightforward. This is shown in the empirical study conducted by Naldi and Picard (2012). Their study exemplifies that problems occur when professionals transfer organizational habits and work practices to new and different contexts. “Formational myopia” happens when professional newspaper practices and norms are transferred to an online medium, recreating topic coverage, beat systems and editorial management of traditional newspapers (Naldi & Picard, 2012, p. 92). Therefore, establishing a new medium or working with different media may require entirely different skills, management practices and organizational structures. This means, we need to focus our investigative efforts to better understand how and what kind of processes and practices of organizations, managers and creative workers are helping them to drive their new ideas and strategies forward.

In consequence, strategic media management research and media entrepreneurship are converging. Both urge scholars to pay more attention to the competitive processes instead of strategy content;

that managing innovation relates more to knowledge and learning than to engineering; and that the success of firms may be more dependent on how they adapt to and work with their given environment, instead of their strategy's design (van Weezel, 2010, p. 48). Towards this aim, Khajeheian (2013) provides a framework for the commercialization of media products. In mapping different elements of the phenomenon of media entrepreneurship, he reminds us that we need to aim for an integrative view of the subject and look at interrelations between the elements (concepts). This may mean looking at e.g. idea developments and teams, between strategy and stability, or agility and social networks (Khajeheian, 2013). However, it is critical to develop a cross-functional and cross-disciplinary understanding than resorting to an either/or condemnation if the field wants to move forward. In particular, this means opening up to new topical challenges, (e.g. digital realities, emergent strategies, etc.) and moving beyond the traditional functionalist theory variant towards approaches more adequate to capture the complex and evolving organizational and social reality (Murschetz & Friedrichsen, 2017, p. 26). This trend towards more reflective theories and theory development is evident more broadly and exemplified in current collaborations of top strategy process and strategy-as-practice researchers, who are making an effort to find out how the frameworks, concepts and knowledge build up over many years of independent research can be more productively used for shared inquiry and knowledge creation (Burgelman et al., 2018).

For research conducted on media entrepreneurship this means, we need to push our thinking and frameworks further by updating our epistemological sensibilities (Karatas-Ozkan, Anderson, Fayolle, Howells, & Condor, 2014; Steyaert, 1997) and draw inspiration from neighboring disciplines that offer a wider range of assumptions regarding management and entrepreneurship (Beech, Gilmore, Cochrane, & Greig, 2012; Rae, 2005; Watson, 2009). That enables us to describe and reflect on the differentiated developments of strategy and entrepreneurship as inseparable drivers for innovation and growth (Barringer & Bluedorn, 1999; Dess, Lumpkin, & Mcgee, 1999).

A significant step towards a greater sensitivity towards local organizational contexts is exemplified in the newest special issue on media entrepreneurship (Achtenhagen, 2017). Here, Price Schultz and Jones (2017) detail two cases of successful entrepreneurial hyper-local media organizations in vastly different contexts. Their descriptions highlights, how well both entrepreneurs knew their territory, related with their customers, and build sustainable models for revenue creation. More studies of this kind could be used for meta-analyses.

Similarly, the study of Zboralska (2017) is representative for more “contextualized studies” in media entrepreneurship (Karatas-Ozkan et al., 2014; Zahra, Wright, & Abdelgawad, 2014) and of a sociologically grounded theoretical framework. Through in-depth interviews with 41 Canadian media creators and executives she explores the concept “entrepreneurship as emancipation” (Rindova, Barry, & Ketchen, 2009), and finds that for an understanding of entrepreneurial emergence one needs to look at the conditions that an entrepreneurial actor is attempting to break free from and analyze the social dynamics of that context (Zboralska, 2017). She uncovers five motives for entrepreneurial engagement of Canadian Web-series creators. The media entrepreneurs strive for creative autonomy and more room for experimentation, dislike the lack of opportunity in traditional TV, enjoy taking control after feeling marginalized, and make use of the capacity to connect with a nice audience (Zboralska, 2017). What this study shows is how important it is to understand the local conditions and explore how individual processes of meaning and development are constructed in this particular context.

Therefore, if we want to better understand media entrepreneurship today –and ultimately *strategic media entrepreneurship*–, we need to explore the interrelations between strategy, entrepreneurship, and media. Towards this aim, the following section constructs a theoretical framework for strategic media entrepreneurship.

A PRACTICE-THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON STRATEGIC MEDIA ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The purpose of this section is to advance a theoretical construct called *strategic media entrepreneurship*. It is grounded in discussions which highlight the intimate connection between strategy and entrepreneurship (Dhliwayo, 2014; Hitt, Ireland, Camp, & Sexton, 2001; Hitt et al., 2002; Ireland et al., 2001; Ireland et al., 2003; Kraus & Kauranen, 2009; Wickham, 2006). It contributes by adding reflexivity through drawing on advances that have been made in conceptualizing entrepreneurship as a social practice (Clercq & Voronov, 2009; Johannisson, 2011; Watson, 2009). This conceptualization is based on the idea that social practices constitute social reality (Gherardi, 2012; Nicolini, 2012; Reckwitz, 2002; Shove et al., 2012). What this means for understanding the organizational world, and hence, what it means for conceptualizing strategic media entrepreneurship will now be explained.

Practice theory is a sociologically- and philosophically-rooted theory of social action. It describes that individuals, their actions and bodily activities, sensing and emotions, and similarly all kinds of mental activities, our knowledge and background understandings, as well as things and how we use them transpire in a mesh of social connections and social orders (Reckwitz, 2002; Schatzki, 2002). Social reality consists of “a contingently and differentially evolving configuration of organized activities and arrangements” (Schatzki, 2002, p. XII).

Following Reckwitz (2002, p. 249), a *practice* is defined as “a routinized type of behavior which consists of several elements, interconnected to one other: forms of bodily activities, forms of mental activities, ‘things’ and their use, a background knowledge in the form of understanding, know-how, states of emotion and motivational knowledge”. Therefore, a practice represents a pattern of action that can be carried out by people, which participate in upholding the practice through their actions and that are being shaped by how and what they do (Reckwitz, 2002, p. 250). A practice is thus a “routinized way in which bodies are moved, objects are handled, subjects are treated, things are described and the world is understood” (Reckwitz, 2002, p. 250). It has strong analytical power for conceptualizing strategic media entrepreneurship, because of “its ability to explain how strategy-making [–or any other social action like entrepreneurship–] is enabled and constrained by prevailing organizational and societal practices” (Vaara & Whittington, 2012, p. 1).

Very broadly, the studies taking a practice-theoretical approach concur that (1) situated actions are consequential in the production of social life, (2) dualisms in theory are rejected, and (3) relations between people, things and contexts are constitutive of what is occurring (Feldman & Orlikowski, 2011, p. 1241). By focusing on the practitioners (their roles, identities, etc.), the praxis (the contexts and flow of events how strategy work and entrepreneurship takes place), and the practices (tools and methods of planning, innovating, organizing and decision-making) (cf. Vaara & Whittington, 2012), these studies promote a more holistic and yet rigorous understanding of strategic media entrepreneurship, which allows us to conceptualize and explain how different actions, decisions, and habitual ways of behaving influence and constitute strategic entrepreneurship in a particular context.

Strategic entrepreneurship can be defined as entrepreneurial action with a strategic perspective (Hitt et al., 2001, p. 480). In fact, strategy and entrepreneurship are strongly intertwined realms of social practices, because strategists already need to have an *entrepreneurial mindset* (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000). This is because *strategic entrepreneurs* have to sense opportunities, mobilize resources, and exploit opportunities, especially under complex and uncertain conditions (Hitt et al., 2001). Importantly, as McGrath and MacMillan (2000) explain, they can be seen to capitalize on uncertainty, rather than avoid it; they create simplicity where others see complexity, and they embrace learning on the basis of taking calculated risks. Furthermore, they recognize fleeting opportunities, and know how and when to act quickly; they favor options that are good enough and “roughly right”, instead of investing a lot of time for developing an analytically correct decision (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000, p. 2). This aspect of decision-making is connected to the principle of “satisficing” (March & Simon, 1958), where decision-makers select alternatives based on their life-and-work experience

and are able to be “rational within the bounds of their own experiences” (Clegg, Kornberger, & Rhodes, 2007, p. 399). In addition, entrepreneurial actors seek out opportunities passionately, pursue opportunities with discipline, don’t exhaust themselves by chasing every possible option, focus on adaptive execution –meaning an awareness of responding to changing circumstances–, and engage many people in their context for achieving network effects and synergies (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000, pp. 2-3). In summary,

“strategic entrepreneurship is the integration of entrepreneurial (i.e. opportunity-seeking behavior) and strategic (i.e. advantage-seeking) perspectives in developing and taking actions to create wealth” –or organizational success more broadly (Hitt et al., 2001, p. 481).

Hitt et al. (2002) explain that both concepts to understand behavior in and of organizations are complementary. Entrepreneurial action is built for identifying and pursuing opportunities and is valuable in dynamic and uncertain environments –such as the media industry–, because entrepreneurial opportunities arise from uncertainty. Next, integrating strategy enables identification of the most appropriate actions and opportunities and facilitation of a competitive advantage within a given socio-economic context (Hitt et al., 2002, p. 2). Hence, wealth creation –or simply achieving organizational success– lies at the intersection of entrepreneurial and strategic actions. This means, organizational success can be specified along the intersection of both and is based on aspects such as visions, opportunities, networks, creativity, learning, decision-making, leadership and planning, to name a few. This is presented in Figure 1.

Furthermore, Ireland et al. (2003) specify a process model of strategic entrepreneurship. This consists of an entrepreneurial mindset, culture and leadership for creating the conditions to manage resources strategically. This strategic application is meant to drive creativity and innovation for creating competitive advantage, which is necessary for creating wealth and/or organizational success (Ireland et al., 2003, p. 967). As strategy and entrepreneurship work synergistically, they contribute both to the development of organizational success. This pathway of strategic media entrepreneurship is depicted in Figure 2.

However, while these elements are fundamental for making strategic entrepreneurship work, researchers may not find them as neatly aligned in such a sequential process when researching the phenomenon of strategic media entrepreneurship. Therefore, we need to be careful to address the messiness of organizational reality, and allow for building new theories and models from practice in reflective manner (Schultz & Hatch, 2005).

Figure 1. The intersection of strategy and entrepreneurship (based on Ireland et al. [2001, p. 51])

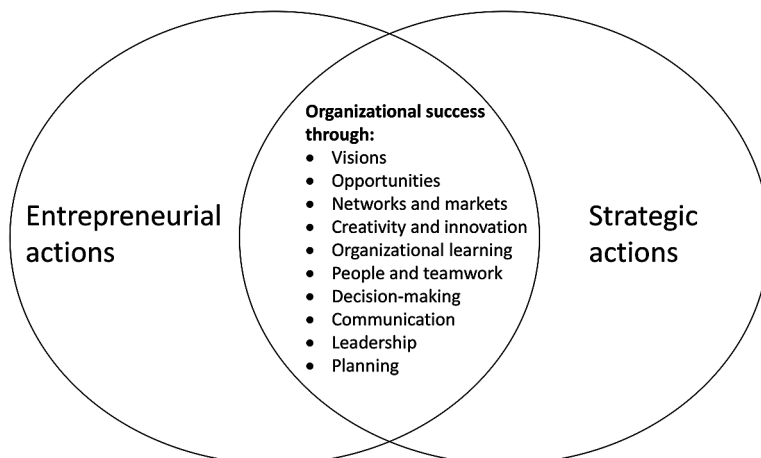
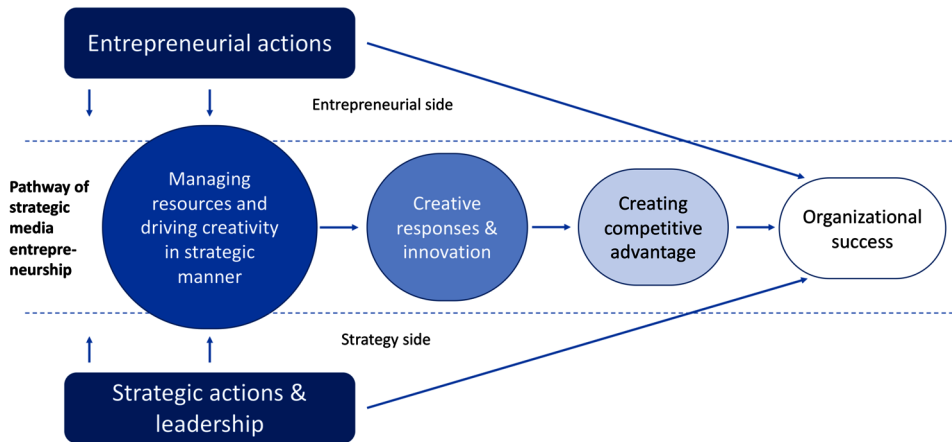


Figure 2. Pathway of strategic media entrepreneurship (based on Ireland et al. [2003, p. 967])



Practice theory urges us that the entrepreneur is only one of many actors that creatively engage with a world that is continuously developing, and which they influence through their actions, creating new opportunities, ideas, and products (see e.g. Steyaert, 1997). Following Schatzki (2002), a practice-theoretical approach to entrepreneurship would highlight that social things are organized in configurations, which determine one another via their connections. They exert effects on other configurations of things and are transformed through the action of other configurations, and thereby constitute the setting and medium of human action, interaction and coexistence. This is because the social order is “labyrinthine”, meaning that human and other phenomena are laced together into extensive arrangements that determine as well as bind together their characters and fates (Schatzki, 2002, p. XIII). This is reflected in newer work on entrepreneurship, which highlights that the individual, organizational and institutional dimensions of entrepreneurial action are closely linked (Watson, 2009).

Practice-theoretical studies of entrepreneurship will be sensitive to the issues of context and circumstances (Fletcher, 2006; Karatas-Ozkan et al., 2014; Watson, 2009; Zahra et al., 2014). This means, they will take into account that entrepreneurial action is always a situated activity of an entrepreneurial actor, who performs various forms of identity work and responds creatively to emergent situations (Watson, 2009). For example, Watson (2009) has shown that industry-level institutional logics such as competing in a market, contradicts the need for bureaucratic administration for internal organization. Corporate-level logics, such as creatively devising new exchange relationships, produce tensions with maintaining stability and predictability of existing relationships. In turn, entrepreneurial action may contradict administrative action, because of its underlying logic (Watson, 2009, p. 414). However, some of these tensions are productively engaged in when addressing the practice of strategic media entrepreneurship. This is because you aim for reconciling the contradictions of building new opportunities (innovative engagement) with seeking advantages in existing relations (strategic behavior) (Ireland et al., 2003). What this shows is that a practice-theoretical study is closer to the world of practice, e.g. in describing processes, routines and actions which practitioners encounter in their everyday work, and yet committed to sociological theories of practice, because concepts, descriptions and theoretical explanations share the same ontological and epistemological assumptions – hence it is sociologically and philosophically informed (Vaara & Whittington, 2012). The following table provides a systematic overview of a theoretical conception of strategic media entrepreneurship with respective problematizations regarding a more reflective engagement based on taking a practice-theoretical perspective (Table 1).

This framework may be extended to include other aspects of strategic media entrepreneurship, such as decision-making, the use of particular technologies and artefacts, the importance of language,

culture or many other contextual elements in productive manner. As Khajeheian (2013), Karatas-Ozkan et al. (2014) and Achtenhagen (2017) underline, we want to address and research the relations between the elements of the phenomenon of (strategic) media entrepreneurship. This is important because it follows a practice-theoretical sensibility of the interrelatedness and inseparability amongst different constructs in practice (Geilinger et al., 2016; Reckwitz, 2002; Schatzki, 2002). This understanding of *entrepreneurship and strategizing as entangled social practices* allows us to conceive more carefully and productively how people engage in strategic entrepreneurship in mediated organizational contexts.

DISCUSSION

The field of media entrepreneurship is growing rapidly and proliferating into many directions. Currently, studies address corporate media entrepreneurship or individual entrepreneurship in the media industries (Hang, 2018). They focus on new products of classical media organizations, innovation processes, and strategic developments of audiences, markets and products (Achtenhagen, 2017; Hasenpusch & Baumann, 2017; Price Schultz & Jones, 2017; Zboralska, 2017). At the same time, the media industry is changing fast, attracting new technology-driven actors (Hess, 2014; Küng, 2017a), because digital media-technologies are becoming central platforms for connecting with audiences, sharing product ideas, building brands, and sustaining social life as an entrepreneur (Couldry & Hepp, 2017; Lindgren, 2017).

This means, there is strong potential for more studies on strategic media entrepreneurship, as well as “media management” in general, because media is playing an important role for many organizations and individuals. Media entrepreneurship and managing with media is present in large media-content producing organizations (Albarran, 2008; Daidj & Jung, 2011; Küng, 2007; Küng et al., 2008; Lowe, 2016; Lowe & Brown, 2016; Will et al., 2016) and simultaneously in other organizations and startups which are situated in different industries. Therefore, entrepreneurship researchers can approach “media entrepreneurship” from a broader perspective and be able to move beyond a pure “sector approach” (Rohn, 2018, pp. 429-430) and utilize the frame of media management in other contexts for analyzing “media-relevant areas in terms of digital transformation of society” (Ots et al., 2015, p. 104). This is closely connected with research streams on “digital entrepreneurship” (Nambisan, 2018; Shen et al., 2018). Essentially, innovation may be driven over media platforms, crossing organizational boundaries and include audiences in an open and transparent manner (Nambisan et al., 2018).

Generally, entrepreneurship is an important phenomenon in the media industry and more broadly, which may capture various creative responses to today’s challenges. Further studies could track the development of individual entrepreneurs over time, or look into media entrepreneurship in different cultural contexts, providing comparative studies between different settings for delineating special effects, idiosyncratic developments and opportunities. Further studies can even more profoundly challenge our assumptions and thinking in regards to taken-for-granted concepts such as gender and gendered roles (Verduijn & Essers, 2013), the importance of growth as something good or successful (Kiviluoto, 2013), the embeddedness in an institutional background (Greenman, 2013), and/or the role of the individual in entrepreneurial success (Williams & Nadin, 2013). This would allow more “frame-bending” and “consensus-challenging” scholarship to emerge (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013).

For that matter, our study is not without limitations. It is a theoretical paper with many provocative elements, which may invoke critical discussions and responses. Subsequent studies could review specific elements around strategic media entrepreneurship, or provide historic, culture-specific narrations and overviews. This could serve as a springboard for carving out new theoretical contributions and finding similarities around specific phenomena, such as decision-making, connecting to audiences, identity development of entrepreneurs, self-reflection, leadership in startups around media.

Table 1. Framework and problematization of strategic media entrepreneurship

Framework and Problematization of Strategic Media Entrepreneurship			
Concept	Definition	Example in Media Management Research	Problematization
<i>The entrepreneur</i>	Entrepreneurs are people who seek to generate value, through the creation or expansion of economic activity, by identifying and exploiting new products, processes or markets. (Blundel et al., 2017, p. 2)	A wide range of individuals who may be starting a new business, creating new products for bringing them to the market, or using opportunities to do something different (emancipation) (Zboralska, 2017)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who is the entrepreneur? • Who qualifies as an entrepreneur? • What makes researchers judge individuals as entrepreneurs? • Can people develop to become media entrepreneurs?
<i>The development of entrepreneurs and their identity</i>	The actions and behaviors of a founder or founding team on the creation and subsequent development of a firm are pro- found. (Leitch & Harrison, 2016) Knowledge of the role of founder identity in entrepreneurial processes and outcomes is in its very early stages (Fauchart & Gruber, 2011; Navis & Glynn, 2011).	Research looks at performing identities in social media and how language is used for constructing identity (Dooly, 2017) The idea is to show how “self-branding” over social media may enable personal development (Deckers & Lacy, 2018)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do entrepreneurs see themselves? • What are the stories they tell? • What is the influence of media on self-perception of entrepreneurs? • How do entrepreneurs develop? What do they learn? On what basis? • How are identities formed that contribute to successful innovations and new ventures?
<i>Entrepreneurial mindset & cognition</i>	A way of thinking about business that focuses on and captures the benefits of uncertainty. (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000) The relationship between thinking-intending-acting is important for understanding entrepreneurs. (Van Gelderen, Kautonen, & Fink, 2015)	To prepare students for the changing media industry, educators must determine whether part of their mission is to prepare students to think and act entrepreneurially. (Ferrier, 2013) Approaches to teaching may differ, based on the institutional context. (Förster & Rohn, 2015; Sindik & Graybeal, 2017)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the influence of media on self-perception of entrepreneurs? • How do audiences contribute to feeling successful? • How do you teach media entrepreneurship in the classroom? • How can you learn about contextual elements if you are not practicing it in a real industrial context? • What are differences and similarities in teaching media entrepreneurship?
<i>Entrepreneurial culture</i>	An entrepreneurial culture is characterized by multiple expectations that facilitate firms’ efforts to manage resources strategically through sustaining and facilitating both opportunity-seeking and advantage-seeking behaviors. (Ireland et al., 2003)	Media entrepreneurs may try to break free from particular institutional restrictions and work towards new products, processes and social realities. (Zboralska, 2017)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can you create a culture which supports entrepreneurial behavior? • How much lies out of the control of the manager and is co-constructed with other actors in a web of social practices? • What is the effect of external actors on the startup?
<i>Entrepreneurial leadership</i>	Entrepreneurial leadership is characterized by nourishing entrepreneurial capability, protecting innovations that threaten the current business model, making sense of opportunities, questioning the dominant logic of the market, reflecting on the own business model, and aligning entrepreneurship and strategy. (Corvin & Slevin, 2002)	How is entrepreneurial leadership described and supported by societal discourses? (Achtenhagen & Welter, 2011) Leadership may mean going against the grain or common knowledge, and develop a sufficient comprehension of the situation in order to make decisions for moving the project forward. (Price Schultz & Jones, 2017)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How is entrepreneurial leadership practiced in different cultural contexts? • How much are our perceptions of what constitutes “good leadership” influenced by the discourses we take part in? • What do the people in the organization feel like that good leadership consists of? • How much intuition is ingrained in the practice of leadership?
<i>Managing resources</i>	Building resources that are rare, valuable, imperfectly imitable, and non-substitutable or transferable, which harbor the elements for building a competitive advantage. (Barney, 1991, 2001)	Media organizations need certain capabilities and resources that can support their ongoing adaptation to changing circumstances or entrepreneurial venturing in an evolving industry. (Naldi & Picard, 2012; Naldi, Wikström, & Von Rimscha, 2014; Oliver, 2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What counts as a resource? • What resources are needed for supporting or ensuring success? • What is under your control as an entrepreneur? • Are there newer approaches to managing and conceptualizing value?
<i>Managing strategy</i>	Managing strategies in the entrepreneurial organization to ensure organizational success. (Dhliwayo, 2014; Melewar, Foroudi, Gupta, Kitchen, & Foroudi, 2017)	Media organizations follow distinct plans and processes for being successful, e.g. to enter a market, achieve a next stage in product development, obtain stakeholder support, funding etc. (Compaine & Hoag, 2012; Hasenpusch & Baumann, 2017; Naldi & Picard, 2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What counts as strategy? • What is a strategic development? • What planning and other strategy practices can be identified? • What mistakes do entrepreneurs make? • Is everything strategic?
<i>Managing creativity</i>	Creativity leads to the generation of novel and appropriate ideas, processes, or solutions. It is a continuous process rather than the outcome of single acts. (Shalley & Perry-Smith, 2008). Creativity is the basis for innovations and is supported when resources are managed strategically. (Ireland et al., 2003, p. 981)	Managers see creativity often as something manageable. These functional approaches seldom accommodate the paradoxical and unpredictable aspects of creative processes, people and products. Consequently, ‘manageable creativity’ remains something of a contradiction. (Bilton, 2010; Bilton & Cummings, 2010; Nylund, 2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is managing creativity possible? • How do you manage creativity in different entrepreneurial contexts? • What kind of skills and resources do you need? • Can anybody be creative? • Are people either always creative or may they only be become creative over time?

Table 1.. Continued

Framework and Problematisation of Strategic Media Entrepreneurship			
Concept	Definition	Example in Media Management Research	Problematisation
<i>Developing innovation</i>	Incremental innovation is based on learning how to exploit existing capabilities that contribute to competitive advantages. In contrast, radical or disruptive innovation is based on identifying and exploiting opportunities through new combinations of resources to create new capabilities that lead to competitive advantages. Ideally firms are able to do both (Ireland et al., 2003, p. 981)	Media innovation is a multi-level negotiation process shaped by heterogeneous actors and system related dimensions. (Dogruel, 2015) Innovation is a term used in many different ways; views range from something new, to contributions to society, to a recombination of existing elements. (Wijngaarden, Hitters, & V. Bhansing, 2016)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How can innovation be managed? • What is being innovated? • What is the downside of innovation for existing practices? • How is the approach different when you take social reality as constituted through social practices? • How have practices in organizations changed?
<i>Innovation space, time and local context</i>	Current approaches to strategic entrepreneurship do not take into account managing the spatial aspects of innovation. Actors, processes and context have only recently been introduced to the agenda by post-positivistic calls for research contributions. (Karatas-Ozkan et al., 2014; Zahra et al., 2014) We need to create new concepts that account for the context in which entrepreneurial actions occur. (Hjorth, Jones, & Gartner, 2008)	Media context may differ significantly, based on their traditions and trajectories. (Achtenhagen, 2008) Contextual approaches show specific conditions that make a media start-up successful, and allow for comparison across contexts and actors. (Price Schultz & Jones, 2017) Entrepreneurial inspiration may result from localization and proximity to other founders. (Bhansing, Hitters, & Wijngaarden, 2018)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the role of individual identities? • Which are good ways to describe these developments of local contexts? • What is the role of proximity for individual development? • What is the role of timing for starting a new media venture? • What is the role of language and cultural background/ context for opportunity-use? • Are there any clusters? Or myths related to very successful contexts (Silicon Valley, Berlin, MIT)?
<i>Use of digital media</i>	Digital media technologies play an increasingly important role for entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship. (Nambisan, 2018; Nambisan et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2018; Steininger, 2018) Digital media technologies open processes of entrepreneurship towards more participation and reduce boundaries. (Nambisan, 2018)	With the increasing use of social media the role of media in influencing entrepreneurship practices is a prosperous topic for study in the years to come. (Hang, 2018, p. 267) Entrepreneurs use crowdfunding platforms for communication and obtaining resources. (Baumann & Brining, 2017)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do entrepreneurs manage media? What qualifies as successful use? • What role does digital media play? • What is the role of media platforms and infrastructures? • What do they enable? What do they hinder? • How does media support self-reflection of entrepreneurs? • Can entrepreneurship be successful without media?

CONCLUSION

Strategic media management and media entrepreneurship are burgeoning core areas with exciting research opportunities and significant potential for discovery. They are exemplary for the field of media management in making an impact for understanding organizations at large (cf. Ots et al., 2015; Rohn, 2018). Nevertheless, at the current stage, the field of media management can gain by reflecting more closely on its assumptions and approaches for building more substantial and reflexive theories of media organizations and organizational phenomena. This would help address current fundamental shifts in how media organizations function, operate and change. Furthermore, this would support a reflective development of organizational and social progress in increasingly mediated digital realities (Couldry & Hepp, 2017; Lindgren, 2017). Essentially, the impact of digitization on media organizations, as well as the impact of digital media technologies on other organizations, will set the tone for the development of media management for the years to come.

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