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Guillaume Carton

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THÈSE

pour l'obtention du titre de

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Guillaume CARTON

La production des connaissances managériales : du rapport de la recherche à la pratique

JURY

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Université Paris Dauphine
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L'université n'entend donner aucune approbation ni improbation aux opinions émises dans cette thèse : ces opinions doivent être considérées comme propres à l'auteur.

“There is nothing so practical as a good theory”

Kurt Lewin (1951)

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[1] It would not have been possible to have access to such interesting people without the help of… Thanks for trusting me.

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[4] In advance, I do apologize for the French-speaking or English-speaking readers of this manuscript. As it is made of articles dedicated to be published in Anglo-Saxon journals, the introduction and the conclusion are written in French while the four other chapters are in English.

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Introduction

« A quoi sert la recherche en organisation ? »[5]. Tel est le titre d'un récent éditorial publié dans la prestigieuse revue académique *Administrative Science Quarterly* (Davis, 2015). Dans ce texte, Gerald Davis de l'Université du Michigan décrit l'évolution de la vie des affaires depuis la naissance du journal en 1956 et se demande s'il est toujours pertinent, en 2015, de développer le même type de recherche qu'à cette époque. A son origine, le journal n'avait pas pour objectif de s'intéresser aux besoins de court terme des managers mais de comprendre le monde des organisations en plein bouleversement suite à la naissance du management. Une question se pose cependant : suite à l'explosion du nombre de managers depuis 1956, « est-il toujours pertinent que la recherche les ignore ? A qui la recherche en sciences de gestion doit-elle s'adresser ? » se demande en substance Davis (2015).

Un tel questionnement venant de la part d'une personne aux responsabilités aussi importantes dans la recherche en management dénote une crise de légitimité du champ. Une vingtaine d'années avant cet éditorial, Donald Hambrick, alors président de l'*Academy of Management* se demandait « Et si l'Académie servait à quelque chose ? »[6] (Hambrick, 1994). Avant lui, la regrettée Janice Beyer supervise un numéro spécial dans *Administrative Science Quarterly* en 1982 qui vise à comprendre pourquoi « les sciences des organisations et de l'administration ont eu aussi peu d'effet sur la vie des organisations » (Beyer, 1982, p. 588). La crise semble perdurer si l'on en croit les appels à communications lancés dans au moins quatre revues académique : l'*Academy of Management Learning & Education* interroge la communauté sur la légitimité et l'impact des écoles de management (septembre 2015), le *British Journal of Management* explore la notion d'impact en recherchant les théories et les pratiques qui font la différence (décembre 2015), la Revue Française de Gestion en partenariat avec la FNEGE questionne l'impact de la recherche en sciences de gestion (mai 2016), et enfin,

[5] « What is Organizational Research For ? » (Davis, 2015)
[6] « What if the Academy Actually Mattered ? » (Hambrick, 1994)

la *European Management Review* cherche dans les théories de l'innovation une voie pour (re)fonder le management (mai 2016).

Ces diverses interrogations questionnent la façon dont sont produites les connaissances managériales. Pour définir ce type de connaissances, nous proposons la distinction faite entre l'abstrait et l'opérationnel (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008). Sur le plan abstrait, c'est « un ensemble de connaissances plutôt stable relatif à ce que font les managers… un ensemble de croyances, de principes acceptés et de procédures »[7] (Kramer, 1975, p. 47, cité dans Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, p. 828). Nous faisons référence ici à des concepts comme le management scientifique du travail, le management par la qualité totale et les organisations apprenantes. Sur le plan opérationnel, la connaissance managériale regroupe les pratiques managériales, les processus managériaux, les techniques managériales et les structures organisationnelles (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008).

Ces connaissances managériales sont-elles développées par les chercheurs et appliquées par les praticiens, comme le suggère la métaphore de l'aqueduc, moyen par lequel la connaissance managériale serait véhiculée de la science vers la pratique (Whitley, 1985, in Nicolai, 2004, p. 954) ? Au contraire, proviennent-elles de la pratique des entreprises et sont-elles ensuite théorisées par les chercheurs en management (Pfeffer, 2007, Pfeffer & Fong, 2002), comme l'évoque l'exemple de la structure multi-divisionnelle observée au sein de Du Pont, General Motors, Standard Oil of New Jersey et Sears Roebuck, puis théorisée Chandler (1962) (David, 2013, David & Hatchuel, 2008) ? La production des connaissances managériales n'aurait-elle pas plutôt une vision longue durée comme le propose par exemple David (2008) en suggérant la mobilisation d'une pluralité d'épistémologies utilisées de façon complémentaire afin de produire la connaissance managériale, ou encore Christensen & Carlile (2009) pour qui la construction se fait par la succession de méthodologies basées sur ce qu'ils nomment l'observation, la catégorisation puis l'association ? Ne pourrait-on pas non plus

[7] « fairly stable bodies of knowledge about what managers ought to do… a system of assumptions, accepted principles and rules of procedure » (Kramer (1975, p. 47) cité dans Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, p. 828)

penser que les connaissances managériales sont en fait issues d'autres disciplines, comme le montre l'exemple des travaux de Michael Porter, issus de l'économie industrielle (Oswick, Fleming & Hanlon, 2011, e.g. Porter, 1981) ? Enfin, cette application des sciences vers la pratique des organisations, ne serait-elle pas plutôt une « science-fiction appliquée », comme le suggère de façon critique Nicolai (2004), à propos de l'ouvrage de Michael Porter, *Competitive Strategy*, dont le succès ne serait pas dû à l'application de l'économie industrielle en stratégie mais plutôt à l'utilisation d'une rhétorique orchestrée au sein des cercles académiques et professionnels?

Pour explorer ces différentes propositions, nous interrogeons plus en profondeur la notion de « production des connaissances », d'autant plus qu'elle a fait l'objet de différentes conceptualisations comme en témoigne la publication d'ouvrages ces dernières années dans le champ des sciences sociales et des sciences de gestion. Un premier ouvrage est représentatif des nombreux essais publiés sur la question. Il s'agit de celui de Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott & Trow (1994), « la nouvelle *production des connaissances* – les dynamiques de la science et de la recherche dans les sociétés contemporaines ». Afin d'accomplir un objectif similaire à celui de Davis (2015), à savoir renouveler les sciences de gestion afin de les rendre plus à même de faire face aux défis de la fin du XXème siècle, les auteurs proposent un nouveau mode de production de connaissances, qu'ils nomment Mode 2, une recherche contextualisée et transdisciplinaire. Elle va à l'encontre de la vision traditionnelle de de la recherche académique qu'ils nomment Mode 1, conçue comme disciplinaire et plutôt tournée vers la théorie. Cette proposition a été largement reprise au sein de la communauté britannique de recherche en management (e.g. Starkey & Madan, 2001, Tranfield & Starkey, 1998). Le deuxième ouvrage a une visée historique. Il s'agit de l'ouvrage intitulé « The *production of knowledge*: the challenge of social science research » (Starbuck, 2006), où William Starbuck propose de faire un point sur sa carrière académique depuis les années 1950, observe son évolution et en fait la critique. Son recul sur sa pratique de recherche l'amène ensuite à effectuer un certain nombre de recommandations. Sa critique la plus acerbe est peut-être celle relative à la différence entre *publication* et *recherche* : « Dans la mesure où la recherche est un métier qui implique du prestige ainsi qu'une rémunération, on pourrait

s'attendre à observer des comportements carriéristes, et on les observe. Les chercheurs en sciences sociales semblent plus concernés à produire des papiers que produire de la connaissance"[8] (Starbuck, 2006, p. 84). Cette critique fait écho à deux autres ouvrages portant sur la production des connaissances. Tous deux publiés à la fin des années 1970 ou au début des années 1980, ils s'intéressent à comment se construit la connaissance dans les laboratoires de recherche. Le premier ouvrage, celui de Bruno Latour et Steve Woolgar, intitulé « la vie de laboratoire : *la production des faits scientifiques* » (Latour & Woolgar, 1979) est une ethnographie qui vise à comprendre la pratique scientifique d'un laboratoire de neuro-endocrinologie californien. Le second, celui de Karin Knorr-Cetina, « *La manufacture de la connaissance* » (Knorr-Cetina, 1981), entreprend un travail similaire en observant le processus de production de connaissance scientifique dans un laboratoire de recherche travaillant sur les protéines. En s'intéressant à la science en train de se faire, ces ouvrages ont cherché à déconstruire la fabrique de la science pour mieux comprendre comment une publication scientifique est réalisée et en quoi elle permet la production de connaissance scientifique. Ces différents ouvrages aux titres proches nous montrent que quelle que soit l'approche utilisée pour étudier la production des connaissances, sa finalité est questionnée : l'exemple tiré de l'approche essayiste vise à modifier la façon dont est produite la connaissance afin de mieux répondre aux enjeux sociétaux, celui venant de l'approche historique s'interroge sur le but de la recherche en science de gestion et celui emprunté à l'approche anthropologique étudie comment la connaissance est produite.

Par trois méthodologies différentes, ces approches nous amènent à nous intéresser dans cette thèse au rapport de la recherche à la pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales en formulant la problématique suivante : **comment sont produites les connaissances managériales dans leur rapport à la pratique ?**

[8] « Since research is an occupation that involves prestige and salaries, one should expect to see career-oriented behavior, and one does. Social scientists seem to be more concerned with producing papers than with producing knowledge » (Starbuck, 2006, p. 84)

En reprenant les différentes logiques par lesquelles la production des connaissances a été étudiée, la suite de cette introduction vise à problématiser et conceptualiser rele rapport entre recherche et pratique dans la production des connaissances managériale. Dans une première section, nous justifions institutionnellement et théoriquement notre problématique. Comme l'a fait William Starbuck à travers son expérience de chercheur en sciences de gestion, nous commençons par retracer l'histoire du champ des sciences de gestion aux Etats-Unis puis en France en développant l'évolution de son rapport à la pratique. Nous nous intéresserons ensuite à la naissance d'une tension entre recherche et pratique qui a été l'objet de nombreux débats, rapports, initiatives et conceptualisations dont le Mode 2 fait partie. Le manque de prise en compte de cette dimension institutionnelle ainsi que de recherches empiriques en sciences de gestion sur la production des connaissances managériales nous permettra de justifier notre problématique. Dans une deuxième section, nous mobilisons le cadre programmatique de cette recherche et développons ses sous-jacents théoriques. Nous décrivons l'approche héritée de la sociologie des sciences, née à la suite des ouvrages de Latour & Woolgar (1979) et Knorr-Cetina (1981), puis développons cette grille de lecture ainsi que le principe méthodologique de la traduction dont nous évaluons les limites. Enfin, dans une troisième section, nous décrivons la posture de chercheur situé entre recherche et pratique, telle qu'adoptée dans cette recherche, puis nous montrons l'articulation entre les différents travaux que nous développons dans cette thèse.

1. Justification institutionnelle et théorique de la problématique

Afin de justifier de façon institutionnelle et théorique l'étude du rapport à la pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales, cette section prend une approche historique pour étudier le développement des sciences de gestion aux Etats-Unis et en France. Son absence dans les cadres théoriques développés au sein des sciences de gestion nous amènera à développer dans la section suivante le cadre programmatique de la sociologie des sciences.

1. 1. Une histoire des sciences de gestion

Pour développer l'histoire des sciences de gestion, nous prenons comme exemple l'étude de la France. Pour cela, un rapide détour par les Etats-Unis s'impose car les sciences de gestion en France ont largement été influencées par le modèle nord-américain. Nous montrons ensuite comment le champ des sciences de gestion en France s'est structuré jusqu'à la naissance d'une tension entre recherche et pratique.

1. 1. 1. La naissance des écoles de commerce aux Etats-Unis et d'une recherche académique

En important d'Allemagne le PhD au cours du XIXème siècle, les universités américaines ont acquis un double rôle : éduquer les praticiens et créer de la connaissance par la recherche (Boyer, 1990). Le PhD a permis aux écoles de commerce américaines de construire leur modèle à la croisée des sciences, des professions et des universités (Khurana, 2010). La première école de commerce a été créée en 1851 au sein de l'université de Louisiane. La création de la Wharton School of Finance and Commerce dans l'université de Pennsylvanie a assis leur institutionnalisation. La discipline de gestion a cependant mis du temps à y rentrer. Si on s'intéresse au champ du marketing, ce sont d'abord les enseignants de la discipline de l'agriculture qui l'ont adopté par l'observation de pratiques de marketing, leurs retranscriptions dans des ouvrages pédagogiques et leur enseignement afin d'offrir une vision d'ensemble de la pratique de distribution qui jusqu'alors était disséminée entre différentes compétences. Ce n'est que plus tardivement que le marketing a intégré les écoles de commerce (Cochoy, 2010).

Au début du XXème siècle, les écoles professionnelles ont été repositionnées en écoles de commerce pour progressivement évoluer vers des institutions académiques. Elles ont commencé à diffuser leur modèle à travers le *Master of Business Administration* (MBA). Cependant, la prolifération du modèle a conduit à la montée d'une préoccupation quant à sa qualité et à sa standardisation, notamment de la part de l'*American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business* (AACSB), fondée en 1916 par un groupement d'universités dans cet objectif (Khurana, 2010, Dameron & Manceau, 2011). En effet, les étudiants d'école de

commerce obtenant des résultats plus faibles aux tests standards que les étudiants issus d'autres disciplines, la qualification et la compétence des enseignants-chercheurs était remise en cause (Khurana, 2010). De ces critiques, la plus virulente vient certainement des fondations Ford et Carnegie. Préoccupées par l'impact de l'éducation sur la santé des entreprises américaines, l'économie et la démocratie, elles se penchent sur l'enseignement de la gestion et publient en 1959 deux rapports restés célèbres, le rapport Gordon-Howell et le rapport Pierson. En finançant la réforme de l'enseignement et de la recherche en gestion, les fondations ont déterminé leur orientation (Cochoy, 2010). Les rapports déplorent à la fois l'absence de formation en gestion aux standards élevés, qui permette de satisfaire les besoins de la population américaine, ainsi que le retard de la gestion en matière de formation supérieure par rapport aux autres disciplines, avec une quasi absence de formation doctorale. Ils proposent donc de mettre en place une réforme d'envergure. Celle-ci doit s'appuyer sur l'utilisation des matériaux tirés des sciences du comportement, des mathématiques et des statistiques à l'étude de problèmes de gestion. Elle doit viser à développer à la fois une recherche « pure » et fondamentale et des travaux appliqués avec un niveau analytique élevé. L'objectif est de construire les théories et les outils d'un management scientifique (Cochoy, 2010). Ainsi, dans un objectif de pertinence pour la pratique et pour les praticiens, ces deux rapports ont initié un mouvement vers une recherche plus inspirée des sciences dures (Khurana, 2010, Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015).

Les rapports Gordon-Howell et Pierson ont eu différentes conséquences immédiates. Tout d'abord, ils ont fait évoluer les politiques de recrutement et de promotion des enseignants-chercheurs issus des sciences de gestion afin de se conformer aux standards des autres disciplines universitaires (Khurana, 2007; Zell, 2001). Ils ont par ailleurs incité le développement d'une méthode de recherche très ancrée dans la théorie, ce qui a mené à des procédures de collecte et d'analyse de données, d'une part à dominante quantitative, et d'autre part, de plus en plus sophistiquées (Augier, March, & Sullivan, 2005; Juusola, Kettunen, & Alajoutsijärvi, 2015; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). Enfin, les rapports ont contribué à développer un ensemble de connaissances propres aux sciences de gestion diffusées dans des conférences et des journaux dédiés (Augier et al., 2005; Khurana, 2007).

A plus long terme, les conséquences des rapports Gordon-Howell et Pierson ont continué à perdurer. Si l'on reprend l'exemple du champ du marketing, il a été le sujet de luttes internes dans les années 1980 avec le développement de nouvelles méthodologies, de nouveaux journaux, de nouvelles épistémologies et de nouvelles sous-disciplines. Ces phénomènes sont apparus en réaction au modèle de recherche inspiré des sciences dures né après la diffusion des rapports Gordon-Howell et Pierson (Cochoy, 2010). Le modèle américain de recherche scientifique s'est par ailleurs internationalisé à la fin des années 1960 en Europe (Juusola, Kettunen & Alajoutsijärvi, 2015, Thietart, 2009), puis à la fin des années 1990 en Chine, au Japon et en Inde (Collet & Vives, 2013). Nous allons nous concentrer dans la prochaine sous-section sur les conséquences des rapports Gordon-Howell et Pierson sur le rapport à la pratique du modèle français d'enseignement et de recherche.

1. 1. 2. La naissance des écoles de commerce en France

Nous devons tout d'abord rappeler que le modèle des écoles de commerce n'est pas unifié au sein de l'Europe. Le modèle latin, auquel la France appartient, a la particularité d'avoir développé un système dual d'enseignement supérieur : les universités s'adressant majoritairement à la formation initiale, depuis la licence jusqu'au doctorat, tandis que les écoles privées ou semi-privées s'orientant vers le master et la formation permanente (Durand & Dameron, 2008). Le système privé, via les Grandes Ecoles, est perçu comme plus sélectif que le système public. C'est l'approche historique qui est certainement plus à même de l'expliquer. Napoléon avait créé cette dualité public/privé à dessein (De Montmorillon, 2011). D'une part, l'empereur souhaitait la formation d'une élite d'officiers, de fonctionnaires et de scientifiques pour l'Etat ayant un haut niveau de compétences techniques pour lesquels il a développé des écoles (e.g. école des Mines, école des Ponts et Chaussées…). D'autre part, il souhaitait une formation universitaire à même d'assurer la justice, d'améliorer la santé des citoyens, de former les citoyens et de guider la morale, il créa ainsi les facultés (faculté de médecine, faculté de droit…). Cette logique omettait la formation au management, dans la mesure où la discipline n'était enseignée dans aucune université dans le monde à cette époque. En effet, nous sommes au règne de la puissance publique, où « l'Etat-gendarme » conserve l'ensemble du pouvoir. Il

ne peut donc être question de débattre dans une enceinte académique de sciences de gestion (Laufer, 2012). De plus, l'entreprise moderne n'étant qu'à ses balbutiements, les quelques développement des techniques de gestion restent durant cette période cloisonnés dans l'espace privé.

Ce sont les chambres de commerce créées au XIXème siècle qui ont eu comme objectif de développer un haut enseignement aux techniques de gestion et de former des cadres commerciaux et de futurs repreneurs d'entreprises locales dans une perspective de soutien au territoire (Bailly & Lecocq, 2013). L'exception est peut-être la première école de commerce, l'Ecole Supérieure de Commerce de Paris, maintenant connue sous la dénomination de l'ESCP Europe, qui sera créée en 1819 et rattachée seulement par la suite à la Chambre de Commerce de Paris (Gouadain, 1998). Afin de subvenir aux besoins de l'industrie et du marché financier grandissant, la formation est fonctionnelle en s'appuyant majoritairement sur la formation initiale de cadres pour répondre aux besoins techniques des entreprises (Thietart, 2009, De Montmorillon, 2011, Bailly & Lecocq, 2013). En effet, l'enseignement s'appuie sur la doctrine positiviste d'Auguste Comte et l'enseignement est progressiste. Le sujet est séparé de l'objet afin de garantir l'objectivité du savoir scientifique contre les tentations de la subjectivité individuelle. On y exclut aussi tout savoir multidisciplinaire (Laufer, 2012).

La croissance des organisations mettant à mal la concurrence pure et parfaite, il devient nécessaire de développer une organisation bureaucratique ou une science des administrations (cf. Davis, 2015) basée sur un management scientifique. Il repose sur un certain nombre de principes. Le principe de division du travail explique l'adoption d'une division fonctionnelle par les firmes et se traduira par des enseignements dédiés à chaque division fonctionnelle (e.g. marketing, contrôle de gestion). Le principe de l'autorité hiérarchique qui est fondé sur la compétence scientifique met en avant l'importance d'une formation scientifique et implique son enseignement (Laufer, 2012).

Afin de répondre à l'évolution de la société et au besoin de la demande des firmes, le paysage universitaire des années 1960-1970 évolue et la formation au management s'adapte (Durand & Dameron, 2005). Les Instituts d'Administration et des Entreprises (IAE) se créent

au sein des universités dans les années 1960, ainsi que le premier Certificat d'Aptitude à l'Administration des Entreprises. Les Instituts Universitaires de Technologie (IUT) de gestion voient ensuite le jour en 1966 et l'université Paris-Dauphine est créé en 1968. Les maîtrises de sciences de gestion sont ouvertes en 1971 et les DESS pour accéder à un emploi de cadres sont créés dans les années 1960-1970 (Gouadain, 1998).

La main invisible du marché se trouvant remplacée par la main visible des managers (Chandler, 1977), cela nécessite l'enseignement de disciplines transverses comme la stratégie, le comportement organisationnel, les systèmes d'information et plus tardivement la notion de responsabilité sociale (De Montmorillon, 2011, Durand & Dameron, 2005). Mais c'est surtout l'américanisation du management qui engendrera les mutations les plus profondes de l'enseignement supérieur français et de la production des connaissances en gestion en modifiant le rapport à la pratique.

1. 1. 3. L'américanisation de l'enseignement de la gestion en France

Alors que les Etats-Unis ressortent grands gagnants de la Seconde Guerre Mondiale, ses pratiques et idées managériales sont prises pour modèle par l'Europe en reconstruction (Djelic, 2001, Servan-Schreiber, 1967). Cela se traduit dans l'enseignement du management (Juusola, Kettunen & Alajoutsijärvi, 2015, Engwall, 2007), aussi bien au niveau européen qu'au niveau français.

Au niveau européen, un certain nombre d'institutions se sont érigées en suivant le modèle nord-américain. Par exemple, l'Institut Européen d'Administration des Affaires (INSEAD) a été fondé en 1957 à Fontainebleau sur le modèle de la *Harvard Business School*, par le général Georges Doriot issu de la *business school* de Boston, Claude Janssen et Olivier Giscard d'Estaing. Par ailleurs, à la fin des années 1960, la fondation Ford ainsi que plusieurs agences publiques américaines ont distribué des bourses à des centaines de jeunes européens afin qu'ils effectuent leur doctorat dans des universités américaines (Thietart, 2009). Enfin, la recherche a été stimulée par le *European Institute of Advanced Studies in Management*

(EIASM) avec comme objectif de créer un réseau de chercheurs européens afin de faciliter le transfert de connaissances entre les écoles américaines et européennes.

Au niveau français, afin de développer et de promouvoir l'enseignement supérieur de gestion et de le rendre à un niveau comparable à celui des grands pays industrialisés, la Fondation Nationale pour l'Enseignement de la Gestion des Entreprises (FNEGE) a été créée en 1968 avec comme première mission d'envoyer des « missionnaires du management » formés en Amérique du Nord entre 1969 et 1973 (Chessel & Pavis, 2001). L'objectif consistait à former sept cent enseignants en sept ans chargés eux-mêmes de former d'autres enseignants et d'effectuer de la formation permanente. La volonté étatique est d'assurer la compétitivité du pays en formant à court terme les cadres des entreprises français. Deux cent quatre-vingt-huit personnes seront finalement formées entre 1969 et 1973, majoritairement aux Etats-Unis, mais aussi au Canada en étant accueillis en tant que *visiting scholars* ou *research assistants* (Chessel & Pavis, 2001, p. 123). Les logiques de l'enseignement nord-américain étant elles-mêmes différentes les unes des autres[9], la formation fut finalement plus différenciée qu'initialement anticipée. Malgré tout, la majorité des personnes a été financée pour un programme court ou pour effectuer un doctorat dans le domaine des sciences de gestion.

De plus, suite au développement d'un nouveau corps enseignant en France, le métier évolue et la formation des enseignants-chercheurs se professionnalise. D'un métier dispensé par des praticiens (patrons, cadres,…), par des spécialistes d'autres disciplines (économistes, juristes,…) ou par des professeurs de l'enseignement technique, ce sont de nouvelles positions professionnelles et de nouvelles compétences qui s'imposent dans les établissement de formation à la gestion (Pavis, 2010). Ce corps professoral est doté d'une importante autonomie permise par un recrutement réalisé par les pairs et une charge d'enseignement faible destinée à faciliter la pratique de la recherche. Il assoit la légitimité de la discipline des sciences de gestion (Pavis, 2010). Pour accompagner ce nouveau corps enseignant, la FNEGE crée la Revue

[9] Le modèle d'Harvard est centré sur la méthode des cas, le modèle de Chicago est basé sur une compréhension de l'environnement par les sciences sociales et la méthode du MIT et de Carnegie Tech est fondé sur l'analyse scientifique des processus de décision (Chessel & Pavis, 2001, p. 118).

Française de Gestion en 1975 pour diffuser la connaissance managériale francophone. Elle développe les diplômes d'études approfondis puis les formations doctorales (1974) et introduit l'agrégation du supérieur en sciences de gestion (1976) (Gouadain, 1998).

Enfin, des facteurs institutionnels contribuent à développer l'américanisation des institutions de gestion françaises. D'une part, les organismes accréditeurs internationaux se rajoutent aux accréditations nationales pour encourager les institutions à adopter des normes de qualité en termes d'enseignement, de recherche et de lien avec les entreprises. L'AACSB, organisme qui se renomme en 1996 en *Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business* (AACSB) réussit son européanisation en accréditant sa première *business school* européenne en 1997, l'ESSEC. L'*European Foundation for Management Development* (EFMD) lance en réponse EQUIS la même année en accréditant également l'ESSEC (Dameron & Manceau, 2011). Pour une école, obtenir ces accréditations permet une reconnaissance internationale. Elle est poussée en France à son paroxysme par la création du « *triple-crown accreditation* » – l'obtention simultanée des accréditations de l'AACSB, EQUIS et de l'AMBA[10] – avec comme objectif pour les écoles de se différencier auprès des étudiants (Collet & Vives, 2013; Durand & McGuire, 2005; Thietart, 2009). D'autre part, les classements des écoles de commerce qui servent de guide aux étudiants afin de choisir leurs formations dans les meilleurs établissements ont imposé aux écoles la prise en compte de leurs critères, ceux-ci étant généralement en partie basés sur les publications de recherche issus d'un nombre restrictif de revues scientifiques[11]. Les écoles se retrouvent ainsi pour la première fois comparées au niveau européen en 1999 par l'arrivée de l'*European Business School Ranking* publié par le Financial Times. En 2005, le classement des *MSc in management* a pour effet de requalifier les programmes des grandes écoles en *Master of Science in Management*, alors que l'unique norme était jusqu'alors le MBA auxquels certains programmes Grande Ecole s'apparentaient (Dameron & Manceau, 2011).

[10] Il s'agit d'une accréditation relative aux programmes MBA, délivrée par l'*Association of Business Schools* (ABS), organisation britannique.

[11] Le classement des Master of Science du Financial Times, introduit en 2005 est une exception.

1. 2. La naissance d'une tension entre recherche et pratique

De cette singulière histoire de la naissance des sciences de gestion en France s'est formée une tension entre le monde universitaire et les besoins des entreprises. La recherche en gestion se développe ainsi en France sur le modèle américain, basé sur une rigueur scientifique héritée des rapports Gordon-Howell et Pierson et relayée par les accréditations et les systèmes de classement des écoles de commerce. Les accréditations internationales normalisent les institutions de gestion tandis que les classements dans la presse internationale imposent l'adoption d'une recherche basée sur les critères américains. Ces derniers mènent au développement dans les années 1990 d'une « course aux étoiles » (Berry, 2009, p. 242) accentuée à partir de 2003 par l'apparition du classement des revues par le CNRS. Les accréditations et les classements mènent également à une crise identitaire à laquelle les institutions françaises doivent soit se soumettre, soit se battre (Ramanantsoa & Berry, 2002). Le schéma de pensée nord-américain est peu à peu adopté par les institutions françaises et européennes (Thietart, 2009, Collet & Vives, 2012, Durand & McGuire, 2005, Pfeffer & Fong, 2004).

Les conséquences sont multiples. Les institutions se mettent à recruter des professeurs internationaux destinés à produire de la recherche de haut niveau – suivant les normes américaines – au sein des institutions françaises (Bailly & Lecocq, 2013, Durand & Dameron, 2005). L'écriture en langue française est délaissée (Chanlat, 2014, Denis, 2015). D'autres radicalisent leur posture académique, avec comme conséquence l'oubli des demandes des entreprises, qui en parallèle ont développé des universités d'entreprises afin de former à un coût moindre qu'aux sein d'institutions académiques (Bailly & Lecocq, 2013). La réflexion prospective menée par le groupe HEC à cette période est éclairante. Dans une volonté de former *l'Ecole des Managers de Demain* (Ramanantsoa & Groupe_HEC, 1994), l'école mobilise son corps professoral afin de l'aider à trouver le bon équilibre entre la professionnalisation et le développement de la recherche académique. L'objectif est de satisfaire aux classements universitaires internationaux tout en réfléchissant aux qualités nécessaires de développer pour les managers de demain. Nous retiendrons trois contributions liées spécifiquement au rapport

de l'institution à la pratique, parmi les trente-sept qui composent l'ouvrage collectif dirigé par Bernard Ramanantsoa, à cette époque Doyen du Corps Professoral et de la Recherche.

Dans la première contribution, Laufer (1994) constate que dans l'enseignement des années 1990, il est nécessaire pour une école de gestion de gérer de façon contradictoire une demande d'enseignements généraux, d'enseignements techniques et d'expérience. Historiquement, l'auteur démontre que ces trois types d'enseignement n'ont pas pu prétendre à l'autonomie ; il est nécessaire de les conserver tous les trois. Le rôle des écoles de gestion revient ainsi à gérer le conflit entre ces trois types d'enseignement de façon simultanée. Reprenant l'idée d'une gestion simultanée de différents types d'enseignements, Debié & Bouyeure (1994) s'interrogent dans la deuxième contribution sur le rôle de la théorie pour le développement des compétences des étudiants. Ils estiment que c'est dans l'oscillation entre théorie et pratique que les écoles de commerce sont les plus à même de délivrer un enseignement pertinent, éloigné des formations professionnelles. La théorie est selon eux à même d'enseigner une pratique car elle fournit un cadre permettant d'appréhender cette pratique (classifications, hiérarchisations, abstraction…). Elle permet la modélisation et donc la prévision ainsi que la transposition d'expériences en termes abstraits et donc l'explication de faits vécus. En effectuant un va-et-vient entre théorie et pratique et non en se contentant d'une technicisation de l'enseignement en abordant la technique comme une fin en soi (ou pour reprendre les termes de Laufer (1994), en favorisant les enseignements généraux et l'expérience par rapport à l'enseignement technique), les auteurs estiment que les écoles de commerce sont capables de former les futurs managers de demain aptes à réagir plutôt qu'à seulement obéir. Chesney & Laurent (1994) approfondissent cette idée dans la troisième contribution de l'ouvrage. Ils estiment que la recherche en management est amenée à jouer un rôle dans la création de capital humain, source de compétitivité dans la concurrence internationale à laquelle sont soumises les entreprises françaises. Au-delà de l'apprentissage de recettes éprouvées, les étudiants doivent être capables soit d'en inventer des nouvelles, soit de remettre en question des modes de gestion passées et d'explorer de nouvelles voies. Les étudiants doivent donc apprendre à apprendre. Pour cela, Chesney & Laurent (1994) revendiquent la pratique de la recherche comme utile car apporteuse d'un regard critique sur

les approches antérieures, en y recherchant de nouvelles perspectives. Une réflexion critique approfondie peut également permettre la mise en œuvre concrète de décisions. La proposition de Chesney & Laurent (1994) ne rejette pas pour autant l'entreprise car elle prend en compte le fait qu'elle est la raison d'être de l'existence de la recherche en management. Les organisations fournissent ainsi le cadre de la recherche empirique et apportent un soutien essentiel à la recherche, notamment financier.

En 2014, l'américanisation du système d'enseignement supérieur étant bien entamée, Mangematin & Belkhouja (2015) estiment que les écoles de commerce et les universités françaises se sont différenciées et imitées de façon simultanée. La différenciation s'est faite par l'établissement de partenariats avec différents acteurs ainsi que par la spécialisation des institutions (e.g. spécialisation de l'Edhec et de l'université de Toulouse en finance). L'imitation a eu lieu par une focalisation intensive des institutions sur la publication des enseignants-chercheurs dans des revues internationales à comité de lecture. Pour les auteurs, cela a mené à un effet *Red Queen*. Reprenant Lampel & Shamsie (2005) (in Mangematin & Belkhouja, 2015), la concurrence qui suit un effet *Red Queen* décrit « une rivalité concurrentielle dans laquelle les entreprises doivent augmenter leurs investissements afin de maintenir leur position de marché existante et en même temps, elles échouent à avoir des rendements qui permettent un investissement plus important »[12] (p. 203). Dans le cas de l'enseignement supérieur de gestion français, dans la mesure où d'une part la cible est devenue internationale et qu'elle ne cesse d'évoluer et d'autre part les investissements requis pour concourir ne cessent également d'augmenter, la majorité des ressources sont dédiées à essayer de rattraper les organisations leaders. Cet effet semble difficilement soutenable pour les institutions d'enseignement de gestion, d'autant plus que celles-ci sont soumises à des critères externes dictés par les classements et les accréditations. Dans cette course effrénée, les

[12] « The red queen competition describes competitive rivalry in which firms must increase their investment in order to maintain their existing market position while at the same time failing to earn returns that are commensurate with higher investments » (Lampel & Shamsie (2005) in Mangematin & Belkhouja, 2015, p. 203)

institutions de gestion en ont perdu de leur pertinence, comme nous le montrons dans la prochaine sous-section.

1. 2. 1. Du rapport à la pratique

Nous posions en début d'introduction un certain nombre de questions que l'histoire des sciences de gestion à la fois américaine et française peut maintenant éclairer. Nous avons en effet vu que les rapports Gordon-Howell et Pierson ont largement refondé l'enseignement de la gestion aux Etats-Unis. En France, l'américanisation des écoles de commerce a également changé les « règles du jeu » des enseignants-chercheurs. Cela a eu pour effet de changer leur rapport à la pratique. Nous aurons largement la possibilité de questionner le « rigor/relevance debate » (cf. chapitre 1, Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015), mais nous pouvons d'ores et déjà présenter quelques éléments du débat. Par exemple, Bennis & O'Toole (2005) estiment que les écoles de commerce se sont fourvoyées (« lost their way »). En faisant prévaloir les critères de la recherche purement académique (« the scientific model »), elles se seraient éloignées des praticiens. Pour Gulati (2007), le débat entre rigueur et pertinence de la recherche est un débat instrumentalisé par deux groupes de chercheurs, ceux en faveur d'une rigueur et ceux en faveur d'une pertinence. Au sein de chaque camp, il décèle des groupes rivaux qui empêchent la mise en place de dispositifs permettant d'être à la fois rigoureux et pertinents. Enfin, Zell (2001) estime que la régulation par le marché telle que l'ont permis à la fois les classements des écoles de commerce et les systèmes d'accréditation a certes eu des effets bénéfiques sur la recherche et l'enseignement produit par les enseignants-chercheurs, mais que ce système est maintenant allé trop loin. Ces trois exemples ne sont pas spécifiques aux Etats-Unis. La recherche européenne est également préoccupée par son rapport à la pratique comme le montrent deux rapports publiés par la *British Academy of Management* (e.g. Starkey & Madan, 2001, Tranfield & Starkey, 1998). De nombreuses publications d'auteurs français regrettent également le manque de pertinence et d'influence de la recherche en gestion (e.g. Barthélémy, 2013, Hatchuel, 2001, Demil, Lecocq & Warnier, 2007, Avenier, 2010, Durand & Dameron, 2011).

Au-delà de simples critiques liées à l'évolution du champ des sciences de gestion, des publications non empiriques par nature considèrent qu'il est possible et recommandé de rendre

la recherche en management pertinente, et constituent ce que Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl (2015) nomment la littérature programmatique sur la pertinence de la recherche. Tout d'abord, d'un point de vue conceptuel, nous évoquions le Mode 2 qui cherche à renforcer le rapport entre science et société par une production de connaissances transdisciplinaires produites en contexte d'application qui prend le contrepied du Mode 1 représentatif de la recherche académique disciplinaire. Ce n'est qu'une des formes de conceptualisations possibles. En effet, d'autres manifestations existent pour évoquer le rapport à la pratique. On peut par exemple penser à l'*Engaged Scholarship* (Van de Ven & Johnson, 2006), l'*Evidence-based management* (Rousseau, 2006), le *Design Science* (Hatchuel, 2001; Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2011), la recherche intervention (David, 2000) ou encore le modèle dialogique (Avenier & Parmentier Cajaiba, 2012). Elles prennent différentes formes et se basent parfois sur des épistémologies différentes.

De nombreuses publications ont également traité le rapport recherche-pratique. Ce sont des rapports publiés par les organismes d'accréditation (e.g. AACSB, 2007, Porter & McKibbin, 1988), des rapports publiés par les sociétés savantes (e.g. Starkey & Madan, 2001, Tranfield & Starkey, 1998), des allocutions présidentielles des sociétés savantes (e.g. Hambrick, 1994, DeNisi, 2010), des numéros spéciaux publiés dans les revues académiques (e.g. Rynes, 2007, Rynes, Bartunek & Daft, 2001), des ouvrages (e.g. Bouilloud & Lécuyer, 1994, David, Hatchuel & Laufer, 2008, Kalika & Beaulieu, 2015, Dameron & Durand, 2011), des rapports publiés par les fondations ou les organismes gouvernementaux (e.g. Bailly & Lecocq, 2013), etc. Par exemple, le rapport publié par la FNEGE en 2013 et intitulé *Comment construire une relation féconde entre les écoles de management et les entreprises ?* (Bailly & Lecocq, 2013) est assorti de plusieurs recommandations. Les auteurs proposent de trouver des moyens pour mieux expliquer ce qu'est la recherche en gestion aux entreprises, ce que les entreprises peuvent en apprendre et comment les entreprises peuvent y participer. Ils proposent également de mettre en exergue la complexité des liens écoles – entreprises, de proposer un statut qui permette aux enseignants-chercheurs de passer plus de temps en entreprise, de trouver des moyens de renforcer les rôles de passeur entre recherche et entreprise et enfin de trouver des solutions permettant de mieux piloter la relation école – entreprise dans le temps.

Par ailleurs, des solutions pragmatiques ont été proposées. Les sociétés savantes académiques ont cherché à diffuser leurs recherches de différentes façons. On peut par exemple penser à la création de journal *Academy of Management Executive* qui avait pour ambition de vulgariser la recherche académique auprès des praticiens, qui lors de son changement en *Academy of Management Perspective* les a cependant vu évoluer. On peut également penser aux idées évoquées par Cummings (2007) dans son allocution présidentielle en tant que Président de l'*Academy of Management*. Il y propose de développer une collection d'articles déjà publiés au sein des journaux de l'*Academy of Management* qui soient organisés autour de thèmes particuliers afin d'être à la fois utiles pour les chercheurs et aient une pertinence pour les éducateurs et les praticiens. Il propose aux académiques de plus amplement participer à des émissions télévisées. Enfin, il évoque le développement d'un média qui soit constitué de contributions originales s'adressant aux décideurs politiques ainsi qu'aux dirigeants. L'objectif est de communiquer dans un langage simple la connaissance managériale des chercheurs afin de résoudre les problèmes des organisations et de la société.

En France, un certain nombre d'initiatives similaires ont vu le jour. Par exemple, le partenariat lié récemment entre la Revue Française de Gestion et le *web-TV* Xerfi Canal, permet de diffuser sur Internet des émissions présentées par les chercheurs en gestion et basées sur des articles publiés dans la Revue Française de Gestion. Le développement de *The Conversation* en Australie puis dans certains pays pilotes comme la France est également une initiative qui vise à mieux disséminer la connaissance académique en facilitant la co-écriture d'articles entre chercheurs et journalistes. Un autre type d'initiatives est celui du *Business School Impact Survey* qui permet de déterminer l'étendue et la nature de l'impact d'une *Business School* sur son environnement local – la ville ou la région dans laquelle elle est située – par un instrument développé en partenariat avec la FNEGE et l'EFMD. L'initiative de Consult'In (ex Syntec Conseil en Management) ayant comme objectif de récompenser les meilleures publications de recherche par un jury professionnel montre aussi les échanges possibles entre recherche et pratique. Enfin, on pourrait noter des initiatives émanant d'écoles de commerce pour diffuser leurs travaux au plus large public, notamment leurs alumni. La revue trimestrielle *Otherwise*

publiée par l'Edhec pour disséminer les publications de ses chercheurs est en ce sens un exemple révélateur.

1. 2. 2. Un manque de recherches empiriques sur le rapport à la pratique

Malgré la multiplication des initiatives visant à rapprocher les institutions de recherche de pratique, que ces initiatives soient conceptuelles ou pragmatiques, elles ne semblent pas encore avoir eu l'effet escompté. Le rapport à la pratique dans la production des connaissances managériale est-il en train d'évoluer ou la situation est-elle la même que celle qu'illustrait si bien Donald Hambrick en 1993 : « A chaque mois d'août[13], on vient se parler ; durant le reste de l'année on lit le papier des uns et des autres dans nos journaux et on écrit nos propres papiers afin qu'en retour, nous ayons une audience le mois d'août suivant : un cercle incestueux et fermé. »[14] (Hambrick, 1994, p. 13) ? Le manque d'études empiriques sur la question et la difficulté qu'ont les théories issues des sciences de gestion pour étudier le phénomène laissent présupposer de la difficulté d'étudier le rapport à la pratique.

D'une part, la multiplication des contributions visant à mieux comprendre le rapport à la pratique dans la production des connaissances, qui a lieu depuis les années 2000 (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014), ainsi que les appels à contributions que nous évoquions en début d'introduction ne sont pas forcément révélateurs d'un rapprochement de la recherche vers la pratique. En effet, la multiplication d'essais ayant comme objet de mettre en avant le besoin de pertinence de la recherche académique se fait au dépend d'études empiriques destinées à comprendre comment la recherche en management est produite. Un certain nombre de numéros spéciaux ou revues de littératures dédiés à combler cette lacune le montrent. Dès 1982, Beyer & Trice (1982) remarquaient dans *Administrative Science Quarterly* que « bien que la littérature dédiée à l'utilisation de la recherche en science sociale soit large et en forte

[13] La conférence annuelle de l'Academy of Management se déroule tous les ans au mois d'août.

[14] « Each August, we come to talk with each other; during the rest of the year we read each others' papers in our journals and write our own papers so that we may, in turn, have an audience the following August: an incestuous, closed loop. » (Hambrick, 1994, p. 13)

croissance, l'ensemble des études empiriques est faible et discontinu. »[15] (Beyer & Trice, 1982, p. 591). Près de 20 ans plus tard, en 2001, les éditeurs d'un numéro spécial de l'*Academy of Management Journal* dédié à présenter des études empiriques sur la création et le transfert de connaissances entre praticiens et académiques remarquent que « malgré le volume qui a été écrit à propos des probables causes et conséquences [de l'écart entre recherche et pratique], peu de preuves empiriques existent en ce qui concernent les différents points de vue. »[16] (Rynes, Bartunek & Daft, 2001, p. 340). Dans *Organization Studies*, en 2010, les éditeurs déplorent le manque d'études empiriques relatives à la génération et à l'utilisation de la connaissance académique sur les organisations. « En fait, on pense que plus d'études empiriques basées sur des cadres théoriques plaçant le travail académique dans un contexte plus large de la société sont nécessaires »[17] (Jarzabkowski, Mohrman & Scherer, 2010, p. 1199). Enfin, dans leur revue de littérature du débat recherche/pratique, Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl (2015) reprennent un certain nombre de ces études et concluent sur le besoin d'études empiriques visant à comprendre comment la connaissance managériale est utilisée ainsi que le processus nécessaire à la production des connaissances.

Toutefois, deux courants de recherche en sciences de gestion ont cherché à comprendre la production des connaissances managériales sous l'angle du rapport à la pratique : celui des modes managériales et de l'innovation managériale.

Le courant des modes managériales mobilise une approche néo-institutionnelle (Midler, 1986, Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson, 1991) en percevant les organisations comme opérant dans un environnement qui les influence par diverses pressions. Pour survivre, elles mobilisent des ressources à la fois économiques et symboliques. Elles ont une tendance à l'isomorphisme institutionnel qui leur permet d'acquérir une légitimité (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Dans ce

[15] « Although the literature on utilization of social science research is large and growing rapidly, the body of empirical studies on utilization is relatively small and discontinuous. » (Beyer & Trice, 1982, p. 591)

[16] « Although volumes have been written about the probable causes and consequences of this gap, surprisingly little empirical evidence exists concerning the various viewpoints. » (Rynes, Bartunek & Daft, 2001, p. 340)

[17] « Put simply, we believe that much more empirical work is required based on theoretical frameworks that place academic work in the broader context of society. » (Jarzabkowski, Mohrman & Scherer, 2010, p. 1199)

cadre, les concepts managériaux sont abordés comme des pratiques managériales issues d'un processus actif et volontaire de diffusion de la mode par un ensemble d'acteurs que sont les experts et les cabinets de conseils en management, les pouvoir publics, les chercheurs en science de gestion et les *business schools* et les médias de masse[18]. Le courant des modes managériales s'intéresse à la vitesse et l'ampleur de leur diffusion ainsi qu'aux acteurs qui participent à leur élaboration. Pour cela les auteurs mobilisent des méthodes basées sur des analyses de citation (e.g. Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999, Staw & Epstein, 2000) ou des perspectives macro (Cole, 1985, Scarbrough, 2002, Suddaby & Greenwood, 2001).

De son côté, l'approche de l'innovation managériale adopte une perspective inter-organisationnelle pour étudier « l'invention et la mise en œuvre d'une pratique, d'un processus, d'une structure ou d'une technique de management nouveaux par rapport à ce qui est connu dans l'objectif de mieux atteindre les buts de l'organisation. » (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, p.825, Le Roy, Robert & Giuliani, 2013). Volberda, Van Den Bosch & Mihalache (2014) différencient quatre perspectives qui se sont développées suite à l'article séminal de Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol (2008). La première est une perspective rationnelle centrée sur la façon dont les innovations managériales et les individus qui les conduisent améliorent l'efficacité des organisations. Elle est focalisée sur la génération des innovations managériales (e.g. Mol & Birkinshaw, 2014). La deuxième, que les auteurs nomment la perspective institutionnelle, est inspirée de la théorie des modes managériales en se focalisant sur la diffusion et les variations des innovations managériales (e.g. Ansari, Fiss & Zajac, 2010). La troisième se centre sur les entreprises internationales en s'intéressant à la génération locale des connaissances, et au transfert et à la dissémination de connaissances entre filiales et pays, majoritairement au sein de multinationales (e.g. Jensen & Pedersen, 2011). Enfin, la quatrième perspective a trait au développement de théories en mettant en avant le rôle des chercheurs en

[18] Certains acteurs – les pouvoirs publics – sont uniquement présents dans l'approche française [Midler] et d'autres – les gourous – uniquement dans l'approche américaine [Abrahamson]. Des différences culturelles peuvent l'expliquer.

management comme agents externes à la création des innovations managériales (e.g. David, 2013, David & Hatchuel, 2008).

Malgré les nombreux développements et avancées réalisées, les pistes de recherche restent encore largement ouvertes. En effet, nous avons montré la faiblesse des apports empiriques destinés à comprendre le lien entre recherche et pratique dans la production des connaissances. Le courant des modes managériales et de l'innovation managériale décrient par ailleurs la faible implication des académiques dans la production des connaissances managériales et suggèrent le développement de recherches visant à mieux comprendre leur implication (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, Abrahamson, 1996, Volberda, Van Den Bosch & Mihalache, 2014, Abrahamson & Eisenman, 2001). Une meilleure prise en compte du cadre institutionnel dans lequel les innovations managériales se développent est cruciale afin de comprendre comment la connaissance managériale est produite à l'interface entre recherche et pratique. Cela nous permet de justifier notre problématique de recherche que nous explicitons ci-après.

1. 3. Explicitation de la problématique

Ainsi, dans cette thèse, nous cherchons ainsi à comprendre : **« comment sont produites les connaissances managériales dans leur rapport à la pratique ? »**

Nous avons déjà montré que la production des connaissances managériales était polysémique mais n'avons pas défini ce que nous entendons par le « rapport à la pratique ». Nous faisons ici référence aux oppositions entre recherche et pratique (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010, chapitre 1). En nous appuyant sur la sociologie des sciences (cf. Nicolai & Seidl, 2010), nous définissons la recherche ou la science comme une communauté scientifique, c'est-à-dire un groupe particulier de personnes dont le membre typique est le professeur, et comme une institution, que ce soient les universités, les écoles de commerce ou les départements de recherche (Nicolai & Seidl, 2010, p. 1259). A l'inverse, la pratique (ou pratique managériale) est caractérisée par une logique différente de celle de la recherche. Les comportements managériaux sont liés à la prise de décision, définie comme une réaction aux

attentes (Luhmann, 1984, cité dans Nicolai & Seidl, 2010). La pratique (managériale) inclut donc les activités permettant la préparation de décisions comme la communication et les négociations mais aussi les activités qui n'y sont pas directement liées, dans la mesure où elles sont perçues par les autres membres de l'organisation comme une décision (Nicolai & Seidl, 2010).

Pour cela, nous mobilisons un cadre programmatique hérité de la sociologie des sciences en utilisant les principes méthodologiques de la traduction. En effet, comme nous avons pu le voir en début d'introduction, le rapport science-société a été traité par la sociologie des sciences qui a développé des anthropologies de laboratoires (e.g. Latour & Woolgar, 1979, Knorr-Cetina, 1981). Elle a quitté dans les années 2000 son cœur premier de préoccupations, les sciences et la technologie, pour explorer de nouveaux cas empiriques de disciplines aussi variées que la santé, la géographie, la spatialité, l'éducation, les marchés, les technologies de l'information et les comportements organisationnels (Law, 2008). L'étude de Dumez & Jeunemaître (1998) montre d'ailleurs comment les résultats de la sociologie des sciences obtenus dans les sciences dures sont transposables dans l'industrie du ciment. Dans la mesure où la sociologie des sciences a pour objectif de montrer que la science permet de décrire et analyser aussi bien la nature que la société, Callon (2006) estime également que ces principes méthodologiques peuvent être utilisés de la même manière pour décrire et analyser les sciences sociales. Cochoy (2010) mobilise cette grille pour développer l'histoire du marketing ; Joannides (2013) la mobilise pour s'intéresser au débat scientifique ayant lieu sur le lien entre contrôle de gestion et religion. Nous proposons ci-après de développer deux exemples de disciplines contrastées dans laquelle elle a été développée, l'économie et l'agronomie, afin d'appuyer l'intérêt de sa mobilisation pour l'étude de la production des connaissances managériales dans leur rapport à la pratique.

En sa qualité de « grande sœur » de la gestion, l'économie est certainement une discipline sur laquelle nous pouvons nous appuyer pour comprendre comment la gestion est produite. Ronald Coase a publié en 2012 un article intéressant à cet égard dans la *Harvard Business Review* (Coase, 2012). Lauréat en 1991 du prix de la banque de Suède et économiste

notamment reconnu pour son article séminal de 1937, *The Nature of the Firm*, il dénonce ici l'écart entre la discipline économique et l'économie réelle. Il l'explique par un tournant paradigmatique qui a eu lieu au cours du XXème siècle. Les outils maintenant mobilisés par les sciences économiques sont trop abstraits pour guider les entrepreneurs et les managers. Coase (2012) déplore le fait que les sciences économiques soient devenues un outil, qui plus est mal adapté, utilisé par les Etats pour gouverner l'économie plutôt que pour aider la société et ses citoyens à comprendre le monde économique dans lequel ils vivent. Le chercheur américain estime qu'en se réduisant à une théorie du prix, les sciences économiques ignorent les différentes influences sociétales, économiques, culturelles et politiques qui agissent sur l'économie. Pourtant, la science économique a un certain succès auprès de la société civile. Les travaux d'Aggeri (2015) prennent ceux de Jean Tirole en exemple, car au-delà de notoriété récente acquise suite à son obtention du prix de la banque de Suède en 2014, ses travaux ont une véritable ambition « performative »[19]. En comparant cinq recherches de Tirole avec des travaux similaires développés en sciences de gestion, Aggeri dessine l'approche de l'école des économistes modélisateurs. En produisant des modélisations économiques basées sur un petit nombre d'hypothèses théoriques et de cadres de référence, l'approche micro-économique permet de s'affranchir de critères de pertinence et de fidélité dans la restitution des faits empiriques en produisant des analyses et des prescriptions à visée performative. Pour Aggeri, le succès remporté par les travaux de Tirole tient dans son approche scientifique à apparence rigoureuse. En effet, celle-ci parle aux décideurs ayant une formation économique similaire et elle offre des leviers d'action facilement mobilisables.

Aggeri & Hatchuel (2003) prennent l'exemple d'une discipline *a priori* opposée à la gestion, l'agronomie. Ils examinent les types de couplage qui se sont historiquement constitués entre des processus de production des connaissances scientifiques et techniques et des formes d'organisations contingentes de l'action collective. A ces fins, ils développent une approche située entre la sociologie des sciences qui vise à comprendre comment se fait la science (Callon,

[19] La notion de peformativité (Austin, 1962, Callon, 1998, MacKenzie, Muniesa & Siu, 2007) signifie dans ce contexte qu'au-delà de décrire une réalité, la recherche a comme volonté de la façonner. Nous développons en fin d'introduction (p. 42) ainsi que dans le chapitre 3 (p. 150) ce concept.

1986) et l'approche Mode 2 (Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott & Trow, 1994) qui s'intéresse au lien entre science et société. Ils montrent que dans la période qui a suivi la seconde guerre mondiale, l'effort qui a visé à coupler la recherche à des formes d'organisations contingentes de l'action collective a été planifié au plan national sur un petit nombre d'enjeux agricoles liés à une hausse de la productivité. Le modèle s'essouffle cependant suite à un certain nombre de facteurs contingents (surproduction, attention portée sur l'environnement, politique agricole commune et ouverture des frontières, crises sanitaires…) et fait apparaître dans les années 1980 un certain nombre de tensions entre d'une part un modèle académique organisé suivant des critères académiques (publications, reconnaissance par les pairs…) et d'autre part un modèle de polarisation éclatée par les nombreux intérêts agricoles avec leurs propres partenariats et projets de recherche. Les conséquences sont une recherche publique qui subit les controverses des débats qui traversent la société dans son ensemble. Par une analyse contextualisée des liens recherche-société, Aggeri et Hatchuel montrent les histoires conjointes de la recherche scientifique et des actions collectives où elle se déploie.

Les phénomènes observés et l'analyse qui en est faite par Aggeri (2015) et Aggeri & Hatchuel (2003) montrent la richesse de la sociologie des sciences pour développer le rapport à la pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales. Nous développons ce cadre programmatique dans la deuxième section de cette introduction.

2. Mobilisation du cadre programmatique de la recherche

La seconde section de cette introduction vise à développer le cadre programmatique de cette thèse. Ayant pour objet la compréhension de la science telle qu'elle se fait, le champ théorique des *Science Technology and Society* (STS) permet d'étudier comment se produit la connaissance managériale. Deux approches spécifiques sont ici développées : le principe méthodologique de la « traduction » qui a pour visée de suivre les acteurs qui participent à la construction des connaissances, ainsi que la performativité, qui s'intéresse à l'action des théories sur la pratique. En évaluant la limite du courant des STS en le comparant aux

approches développées par Bourdieu et Foucault, nous testons la validité du cadre programmatique de cette thèse.

2. 1. La sociologie des sciences

La sociologie des sciences et plus particulièrement le courant des *Science, Technology and Society* (STS)[20] met en évidence les mécanismes de construction des énoncés scientifiques et des innovations techniques afin de comprendre l'influence du contexte social sur la production des énoncés scientifiques et des innovations techniques. La sociologie des sciences a comme ambition d'expliquer, à l'aide d'études de cas, le processus de fabrication de faits scientifiques et des artefacts techniques pour comprendre comment leur validité ou leur efficacité sont établies et comment s'opère leur diffusion (Latour, 2005). Nous proposons dans un premier temps de développer la genèse de la sociologie des sciences ce qui va nous permettre d'introduire les STS. Nous développerons ensuite plus particulièrement la sociologie de la traduction dont nous expliquerons les intérêts pour notre thèse avant de détailler le processus par lequel les faits sont traduits. Enfin, nous ouvrirons le principe méthodologique de la traduction à l'étude de la performativité avant d'élaborer ses limites. Ces développements ont pour objectif de développer le cadre programmatique développé dans les développements de cette thèse.

2. 1. 1. La sociologie des sciences : entre rationalisme et relativisme

Alors que le courant de la sociologie des sciences démarre dans les années 1950 en prenant une vision *rationaliste* de la science, il faut attendre les années 1980 pour qu'elle adopte une vision plus *relativiste*.

Dans les années 1950, influencé par le contexte politique (e.g. Merton, 1938 sur l'influence du nazisme), Robert K Merton s'intéresse à la société anglaise de la fin du XVIIème siècle. Il montre comment elle a permis de fournir des réponses concrètes à des préoccupations

[20] Nous définissons ce terme ultérieurement (p. 29). Sa dénomination varie, comme le précise Law (2008).

contemporaines importantes. Merton adopte ainsi une vision rationaliste de la science en estimant qu'elle est incluse dans un système social relativement autonome des influences et intrusions des acteurs politiques et économiques, et ce, à condition de respecter quatre normes : (1) l'universalisme implique que l'acceptation ou le rejet d'une proposition scientifique ne doit pas dépendre des attributs sociaux ou personnels de l'énonciateur ; (2) le communautarisme implique que dans la mesure où l'examen des propositions émises par les scientifiques est un processus collectif, il ne doit pas être fait obstacle à leur libre circulation au sein de la communauté ; (3) le désintéressement ou l'intégrité fait référence au système de contrôle qui récompense les résultats scientifiquement valides ; et enfin, (4) suivant le scepticisme organisé, les résultats scientifiques sont soumis à un examen critique avant d'être acceptés et peuvent toujours être remis en cause (Merton, 1973). La rationalité et l'efficacité scientifique ou technique se définissent ainsi indépendamment de tout contexte historique, social ou anthropologique. On est ainsi capable de discerner la « vraie » science de la « fausse » science.

Ce sont ainsi sur des auteurs comme Thomas Kuhn et David Bloor plutôt que Robert Merton que s'appuie la vision *relativiste* de la science. A l'inverse du *rationalisme*, le *relativisme* présuppose que la science varie selon les contextes historiques, sociologiques et anthropologiques. Cette croyance fait suite à l'effondrement du mythe de la science comme source de progrès, notamment en répercussion des catastrophes nucléaires accidentelles ou terroristes récentes (Cabantous & Gond, 2014, Petit, 1998). Les preuves ne sont que localement valides dans le cadre d'un système de croyances donné, ce qui implique l'absence de critère universel et absolu de rationalité et d'efficacité (cf. Merton, 1973).

L'essai de Kuhn (1962) est en ce sens fondateur car il montre que la croissance et le développement de la connaissance scientifique sont la résultante de l'existence, à un moment donné, d'un ensemble ou d'un *assemblage* (cf. Callon & Latour, 1991) de règles, de pratiques, d'instruments, de concepts et de données partagées par tous, qui structurent l'activité de la communauté scientifique. Il s'agit du *paradigme* scientifique. Un paradigme guide un champ de recherche en permettant de résoudre des problèmes non résolus par les paradigmes existant. C'est une façon de concevoir et de percevoir le monde avec ses propres règles (Callon &

Latour, 1991). Dans la période de science dite « normale », les chercheurs exploitent les possibilités du paradigme, en tentant d'atteindre ses limites. Mais quand les évidences empiriques, ou les incohérences conceptuelles, inexplicables dans le cadre du paradigme, s'accumulent, la science passe par une crise qui conduit à une « révolution ». Celle-ci mène à l'émergence d'un nouveau paradigme qui permet de résoudre les problèmes auxquels étaient confrontés les chercheurs de l'ancien paradigme ainsi que de découvrir un ensemble de phénomènes entièrement nouveaux. Les sciences sont ainsi une succession de périodes normales et de révolutions (Kuhn, 1962).

De son côté, Bloor (1976) établit un *programme fort* qui vise à proposer un principe de symétrie selon lequel les échecs et les succès doivent faire l'objet du même type d'analyse et doivent invoquer les mêmes arguments. Celui-ci vient à l'encontre du programme que Bloor (1976) qualifie de *faible* car il prend trop faiblement en compte les facteurs sociaux et la dimension cognitive de la sociologie des sciences. Par son programme fort, Bloor rejette ainsi le principe selon lequel une théorie scientifique est acceptée parce qu'elle est vraie (ou rejetée parce qu'elle est fausse) et suggère que les théories scientifiques deviennent vraies quand elles sont acceptées (ou fausses quand elles sont rejetées) (Cabantous & Gond, 2014). Suivant le principe de symétrie, rien ne distingue donc, au sein même d'une controverse scientifique, à savoir « la division persistante et publique de plusieurs membres d'une communauté scientifique, coalisés ou non, qui soutiennent des arguments contradictoires dans l'interprétation d'un phénomène donné » (Raynaud, 2003, p. 8), les deux parties en présence et aucun critère rationnel, objectif et universel ne permet de les discriminer. En d'autres termes, il est interdit de changer de grille d'analyse, de concepts, selon que l'on rend compte du rejet d'une théorie ou de son acceptation (Callon & Latour, 1991). Rien ne sert d'étudier le processus de construction des connaissances, il faut laisser les scientifiques décider et les suivre, *ex post*, dans leurs jugements. Le principe de symétrie invite donc les chercheurs à reconstruire toute les épreuves qui ont peu à peu établi le consensus.

C'est ainsi la vision relativiste de la sociologie des sciences qui construit le champ des STS autour de trois critiques de la sociologie des sciences rationaliste : le style, la théorie et la

méthodologie (Renaud, 2012). D'un point de vue stylistique, ce champ rejette la focalisation sur les seuls éléments techniques de la science au motif que seule la science détiendrait le pouvoir technique sur la société. En termes théoriques, il estime que les controverses sont autant scientifiques que sociologiques. On ne peut pas considérer que le savoir sur la société est certain, clair et indiscutable, alors que le savoir sur la nature serait incertain, ambigu et indiscutable. Enfin, en termes méthodologiques, il refuse une vision des controverses qui ne prendrait pas en compte leur dynamique. Ainsi, l'adoption d'une vision relativiste des sciences permet d'étudier la production des connaissances managériales sans avoir de préjugé quant aux raisons de leur succès ou de leur échec. Elle invite également à adopter un principe méthodologique consistant à reconstruire *ex post* la production des connaissances managériales. Nous développons dans la section suivante le courant des STS né d'une vision relativiste de la sociologie des sciences que nous adoptons dans cette thèse.

2. 1. 2. La sociologie des sciences moderne : les STS

Le champ des STS, *Science Technology and Society* est issu de différentes disciplines, allant de l'anthropologie, de l'éducation, de la géographie, de l'histoire, de l'histoire des sciences, de l'analyse organisationnelle, de la philosophie des sciences et bien entendu de la sociologie. Cette discipline académique est également nommée *Science Studies, Science and Technology Studies, The Sociology of Scientific Knowledge* et *Social Studies of Science and Techology* (Law, 2008). Elle s'est construite en porte à faux à l'épistémologie des sciences, et plus généralement à une vision rationaliste de la science, qui ne permet pas d'expliquer correctement la production d'un fait scientifique (Latour, 2005). Ses défenseurs rejettent le préjugé effectué par les philosophes des sciences en séparant la science de la non science (e.g. Levi-Strauss, Bachelard, Garfinkel…) (Latour, 2006). Comme nous allons le voir, la sociologie des sciences qu'ils développent permet de comprendre et de donner un sens aux processus sociaux et historiques par le développement d'une microsociologie (Law, 2008).

Les STS s'intéressent ainsi à la compréhension des controverses scientifiques par la mobilisation d'études de cas. Pour cela, elles prolongent le programme fort de Bloor pour aller au-delà d'une symétrie entre science et non science et proposent d'appliquer les principes

d'ethnométhodologie ainsi que d'adopter une réflexivité dans la méthodologie de recherche. L'application de ses principes permet d'étudier la production des connaissances managériales dans leur rapport à la pratique.

L'étude de controverses scientifiques

L'étude de controverses scientifiques[21] vise à montrer que le processus scientifique est sujet à une négociation continue allant de l'interprétation des résultats jusqu'à la reproduction des expériences en passant par l'administration de la preuve (Callon, 2006). Elle montre que les connaissances sont continuellement négociées au travers des discussions entre acteurs aux points de vue différents et difficilement conciliables. La solution ne peut que sortir de la discussion entre acteurs. Négocier des connaissances signifie presque toujours en modifier le contenu, chaque protagoniste devant tenir compte des arguments de son adversaire (Callon & Latour, 1991). L'étude des controverses met en lumière le rôle des intérêts, des stratégies et des rapports de force au travers desquels les sciences se fabriquent réellement. Elles constituent également un terrain privilégié pour étudier les mécanismes par lesquels certaines solutions, qui s'imposent d'abord localement, finissent par s'étendre à toute la société. Les controverses ne sont en réalité pas tellement technologiques car la technologie est déjà réifiée. Pour appuyer ce point, Callon (2006) prend l'exemple de Pinch (1981) (publié en français dans Callon & Latour (1991), pp. 344-389) où l'auteur met en évidence cette situation dans le cas des recherches menées sur les neutrinos solaires[22]. Chaque groupe de spécialistes, en fonction de ses origines, de ses positions et de ses intérêts cognitifs et professionnels, interprète différemment les résultats acquis, ne doute pas des mêmes choses et place les certitudes à des endroits différents.

[21] Nous les avons définies auparavant comme « la division persistante et publique de plusieurs membres d'une communauté scientifique, coalisés ou non, qui soutiennent des arguments contradictoires dans l'interprétation d'un phénomène donné » (Raynaud, 2003, p. 8)

[22] Le prix Nobel 2015 de physique a été attribué à deux chercheurs – Arthur McDonald et Takaaki Kajita - ayant mis en évidence la masse des neutrinos, ce qui est l'objet de la controverse observée par Pinch. Ils semblent avoir réalisé leur découverte quelques temps après l'étude de Pinch, qu'ils ont donc transformée en « boîte noire » (voir p. 36).

L'étude de controverses montre qu'il est impossible de concevoir sciences et techniques, recherche fondamentale et recherche appliquée comme des domaines ou des secteurs distincts. C'est une seconde étude également publiée dans le recueil de Callon et Latour (pp. 297-343) qui permet de le montrer. Dans un article consacré aux sciences dites paranormales (Collins & Pinch), Collins et Pinch s'intéressent aux lieux où s'organisent et s'enferment les controverses scientifiques. Ils proposent de distinguer le forum *constituant* du forum *officieux*. D'un côté, le forum *constituant* est le lieu où se discute et se publie la science considérée comme orthodoxe et légitime (théorisation scientifique, expérimentation, publication dans les revues spécialisées, communications dans les colloques). D'un autre côté, le forum *officieux* est le lieu dans lequel circulent les articles issus des revues populaires ou semi-populaires, les discussions et les ragots, les actions visant à réunir des fonds ou à se faire de la publicité. Pour Collins et Pinch, la différence entre ces deux forums ne tient pas tant à l'opposition entre la science pure et la vulgarisation, mais aux stratégies, ressources, intérêts et règles du jeu déployés par les acteurs qui ne sont pas les mêmes. Ainsi, les négociations, même si elles prennent part au sein du laboratoire, peuvent mobiliser des acteurs et des arguments qui se situent au niveau de la société. Les arguments développés dans la controverse sont hétérogènes. Ils mélangent programmes politiques, convictions philosophiques, résultats d'expériences… (Callon & Latour, 1991)[23] L'objectif de l'étude des controverses n'est pas tant de décrire l'échec ou le succès mais de repérer les terrains sur lesquels se déroulent les confrontations (Callon, 2006).

Comme nous avons pu le voir, de la tension entre recherche est pratique est né un débat autour de la pertinence de la recherche académique, dont Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl (2015) proposent une synthèse. Par l'adoption d'un cadre programmatique basé sur les STS, Ce débat peut être assimilé à une controverse, dont il s'agirait de comprendre les différentes voix qui s'y expriment.

[23] On retrouve une idée proche dans les travaux de Bourdieu (1976) développés en limite de ce cadre théorique (p. 44).

Le développement d'études de cas

L'approche des études de cas telle que développée dans *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (Kuhn, 1962) est prise pour modèle par les STS en cherchant à aller au plus près de la science en montrant qu'elle s'articule autour de l'observation, de la détection et de manipulations systématiques afin de de dégager des similitudes (Law, 2008). Dans son ouvrage, Knorr-Cetina (1981) cherche ainsi à comprendre comment la recherche est contextualisée, comment elle est située dans les actions sociales, tout comme toutes les autres formes d'actions sociales. De leur côté, Latour & Woolgar (1979) ont la volonté de décrire la pratique scientifique de première main, indépendamment de ce que les scientifiques eux-mêmes peuvent dire. Ces deux exemples, tout comme le recueil d'articles publié entre 1974 et 1984 par des sociologues et historiens de langue anglaise et traduit en français dans Callon & Latour (1991) nous montrent que la motivation des chercheurs des STS est de penser à travers les matériaux empiriques : « la nature ne parle pas d'elle-même ; les faits scientifiques sont construits » (p. 8) expliquent Callon & Latour (1991) en introduction du recueil d'articles. Cette approche est toujours mobilisée aujourd'hui aussi bien en sociologie (e.g. MacKenzie, 2008) qu'en sciences de gestion (e.g. Cabantous & Gond, 2014). Développer une étude de cas dans le cadre de cette thèse permettrait d'aller au plus près de phénomène de la production des connaissances pour comprendre comment celle-ci se développe dans son rapport à la pratique.

Prolongation du programme fort de Bloor

Alors que Bloor (1976) montre l'importance d'une symétrie de traitement entre les vaincus de l'histoire des sciences et ses vainqueurs, ce principe n'est pas suffisant dans la mesure où il assume que le social préexiste et qu'il peut représenter les activités scientifiques et technologiques. Latour (1991) propose ainsi le principe de symétrie généralisé : il faut traiter également et dans les mêmes termes la nature et la société. Le chercheur doit utiliser un même répertoire pour exprimer les différents points de vue d'une controverse, qu'ils soient techniques, scientifiques ou sociaux, et ce afin de rendre symétriques les facteurs techniques et les facteurs sociaux (Cabantous & Gond, 2014). Ce principe semble ici clé afin de ne pas valoriser la recherche par rapport à la pratique. Il ne s'agirait pas de supposer, par exemple, comme nous le montrions en début d'introduction, que la connaissance managériale se

développe suivant la métaphore de l'aqueduc, à savoir de la recherche vers la pratique (Nicolai, 2004).

Ethnométhodologie

En reprenant de Garfinkel (1967) le principe d'ethnométhodologie, les STS prennent l'acteur et sa pratique comme le seul sociologue compétent. L'objectif est d'aller au-delà du discours ordonné des savants pour parvenir aux pratiques et aux discours désordonnés des chercheurs. L'observation directe sur le terrain permet à la fois de ne pas prendre en compte le discours philosophique que tient spontanément le savant et de respecter le métalangage désordonné qui se mêle intimement à la pratique.

Réflexivité et relativisme

Enfin, le chercheur doit également chercher à être agnostique aux sciences sociales. S'il est neutre par rapport aux énoncés techniques et scientifiques, il doit aussi l'être par rapport aux considérations sociales du discours. De la même manière qu'il ne fait pas l'hypothèse sur ce qui constitue la science, il ne doit pas en faire sur ce qui constitue la société. Une telle réflexivité est difficile à mettre en place car il faut respecter le principe de symétrie généralisé (ne pas distinguer le vrai du faux et la nature de la culture).

Synthèse

En synthèse, par une volonté de multiplication des études de cas, les STS cherchent à construire un récit montrant comment l'activité scientifique résulte d'un processus de construction aussi bien social que technique, où les scientifiques sont plongés dans des controverses. Elles s'intéressent à la construction sociale des faits scientifiques et elles s'intéressent aux stratégies des acteurs en portant un regard sur leurs rôles et leurs intérêts dans les controverses scientifiques (Aggeri & Hatchuel, 2003, Callon, 1981). Comme le résument Aggeri & Hatchuel (2003), « la diffusion d'une théorie dépend moins de ses qualités intrinsèques que des capacités des scientifiques à opérer des *traductions* pour enrôler des alliés, et, ce faisant, à étendre leurs réseaux et à clore les controverses » (p.116, italique rajoutée). Dans une volonté de développer ce type d'analyse pour comprendre comment les

connaissances managériales sont produites dans leur rapport à la pratique, nous développons la notion de *traduction* dans la prochaine sous-section.

2. 1. 3. La sociologie de la traduction

Le courant des STS s'appuie sur la sociologie dite « sociologie de la traduction », également nommée la théorie de l'acteur-réseau (*Actor-Network Theory* en anglais – ANT). Celle-ci a été développée dans les années 1970 autour des travaux de différents chercheurs, notamment Michel Callon et Bruno Latour en France et John Law en Grande-Bretagne. La sociologie de la traduction a la volonté de comprendre comment les théories scientifiques et les méthodes sont construites et adoptées. Autrement dit, au lieu de s'intéresser à *pourquoi* les événements se déroulent, elle s'intéresse à *comment* ils se déroulent. Elle suggère qu'une théorie ou une méthode ne se diffuse pas par elle-même. A ce titre, Akrich, Callon & Latour (1988) et Latour (2005) différencient la sociologie de la traduction de visions plus diffusionnistes comme par exemple celle de Rogers (1995).

Afin de comprendre la dynamique de production des connaissances managériale, il nous paraît important dans cette thèse de « suivre » des acteurs, qu'ils soient chercheurs ou praticiens, La mobilisation de la sociologie de la traduction paraît dans ce cadre pertinente. Nous proposons donc dans cette section de développer ses principales caractéristiques en montrant tout d'abord comment elle permet d'aligner des acteurs multiples, puis en mettant en évidence le fait qu'elle ne cherche pas à différencier la taille des acteurs mais simplement à suivre la chaîne des éléments indissociables, et enfin, en montrant qu'elle ne différencie pas le technique du social en s'intéressant à l'enrôlement à la fois des humains et des non-humains. En synthèse, nous proposons de voir en quoi cette approche permet de répondre à notre problématique.

Analyser aussi bien les micro-acteurs que les macro-acteurs

La dénomination « acteur-réseau » également donnée à la sociologie de la traduction peut être vue comme un oxymore, tant les termes acteur et réseau sont habituellement considérés comme opposés. La volonté de la sociologie de la traduction n'est pas tant de

résoudre la tension entre micro et macro ou entre *agency* et *structure* (e.g. Giddens, 1986) que de suivre la construction du réseau et de fournir des outils pour l'analyser. La sociologie de l'acteur-réseau vise ainsi à suivre les faits, les concepts et les théories scientifiques qui émergent d'un processus de construction consistant en l'assemblage et au désassemblage d'un ensemble d'éléments hétérogènes, un acteur-réseau (Cabantous & Gond, 2014).

Le rôle du sociologue vise ainsi à repérer, sans grille d'analyse à priori, les catégories, les acteurs, les entités ou les êtres divers ainsi que les relations mises en jeu. Callon emprunte à Hobbes et Serres la notion de représentation de macro-acteurs autorisés à parler au nom d'une multitude d'acteurs hétérogènes et à utiliser des formulations réduites. En effet, partant de la philosophie de Hobbes, Callon et Latour proposent de ne pas distinguer le micro du macro car pour le philosophe, « il n'y a pas de différence de niveau ou de taille entre les microacteurs et le Léviathan, qui ne résulte d'une transaction » (Callon & Latour, 2006, p. 2). Toutes les différences de niveau, de taille, d'envergure sont le résultat d'une bataille ou d'une négociation. La taille des acteurs ne peut être décidée a priori puisqu'elle est le résultat de longs combats. Partant de ce principe, leur analyse s'intéresse à savoir « comment un micro-acteur obtient-il d'être un macro-acteur ? ». Ils nomment ce processus « la traduction », en référence à Serres (1974) (in Callon & Latour, 2006), pour décrire les activités par lesquelles les intérêts des entités humaines et non humaines sont redéfinies afin de s'aligner les unes avec les autres et ainsi de rendre possible l'assemblage d'un acteur-réseau. Ils définissent ainsi la traduction comme « l'ensemble des négociations, des intrigues, des actes de persuasion, des calculs, des violences grâce à quoi un acteur ou une force se permet ou se fait attribuer l'autorité de parler ou d'agir au nom d'un autre acteur ou d'une autre force » (Callon & Latour, 2006, p. 4). C'est par les opérations de traduction que l'on voit grandir le Léviathan. C'est donc à partir de la même grille d'analyse que l'on étudie les macro-acteurs ou les micro-acteurs.

Aligner les intérêts d'acteurs multiples

Le processus de traduction conduit les acteurs à promouvoir un projet, à enrôler des entités et à aligner leurs intérêts en leur fournissant un rôle ou une identité social et en structurant un problème. Si les entités acceptent ces définitions de leurs intérêts, de leurs rôles

et de leurs problèmes, ils deviennent alliés et le projet devient un point de passage obligé qui achemine l'ensemble des intérêts dans une direction et à travers lequel les acteurs doivent passer (Callon, 1986).

Pour cela, les scientifiques doivent convaincre leurs pairs que leur projet et valide et utile, à travers les épreuves de force (Latour, 2005). Ces situations ne sont autres que les controverses scientifiques. Elles sont souvent caractérisées par d'intenses débats durant lesquels les postulats du paradigme présenté par les chercheurs seront challengés et défendus par la partie adverse. Quand une théorie scientifique gagne une *épreuve de force* et devient acceptée au sein de la communauté scientifique, elle devient une *boîte noire* (Callon, 1981)[24]. A ce moment-là, les acteurs n'ont plus qu'à se préoccuper des *inputs* et des *outputs* et nullement de la complexité interne de la *boîte noire*. Par exemple, le concept d'ADN est aujourd'hui accepté par les chercheurs du domaine. Lors de l'écriture d'un article mobilisant l'ADN, il n'est nul besoin de le redéfinir, l'ADN devenu une boîte noire (Latour, 2005). De façon paradoxale, plus les sciences et les technologies rencontrent de succès, plus elles deviennent opaques et obscures (Latour, 1999 in Cabantous & Gond, 2014). En biologie, une multitude de concepts sont ainsi pris pour acquis, dont l'ADN qui a été acceptée au sein de la communauté. Les boîtes noires ne sont jamais parfaitement fermées et peuvent être rouvertes (Callon, 1981). La notion d'ADN pourrait ainsi être remise en cause par une controverse scientifique, si tant est qu'un chercheur soit en possibilité de le faire (Latour, 2005).

La sociologie de la traduction permet d'expliquer les relations de pouvoir ou de domination qui se développent lors du processus de traduction. C'est en effet un processus politique où des porte-paroles parlent pour d'autres personnes, ce qui résulte en des situations où certaines entités en contrôlent d'autres (Callon, 1986). Maintenir un assemblage nécessite un travail continuel d'alignement des intérêts des entités de l'acteur-réseau. La traduction est une tentative sans fin, dans la mesure où les alliances qui forment l'acteur-réseau peuvent être fragiles et que leur reconsidération peut conduire à un désassemblage.

[24] La notion de boîte noire est reprise de Kuhn (1962) qui évoque la notion de « boîte ».

Inclure aussi bien les humains que les non-humains

La sociologie de la traduction s'intéresse à l'assemblage des dispositifs sociaux, techniques, documentaires, naturels, humains, et animaux (Law, 2008, Callon, 1986). De cette façon elle considère à la fois les humains et les non-humains dans l'analyse des situations sociales. Elle nomme cet ensemble les *actants*. Etant donnés les investissements croissants dans la recherche et dans l'innovation technique, Callon (1981) estime que la contribution des non humains ne peut plus être ignorée ou minimisée par les sciences sociales.

La circulation passe par différents supports, que ce soit des instruments de mesure (cf. Latour, 2005), des rapports, des articles scientifiques, etc. Les références circulent avec les énoncés et avec les inscriptions dont ils sont issus. En circulant, les inscriptions articulent un réseau, que Latour (2005) qualifie de sociotechnique. En certains points du réseau sont placés des centres de traduction qui capitalisent l'ensemble (ou une partie) des inscriptions et des énoncés en circulation. Certains sont des organisations frontières qui permettent de traduire les supports dans la perspective des différents actants (Guston, 2001). Les inscriptions constituent des informations, qu'il est possible de combiner et d'évaluer et qui permettent la prise de décision, l'engagement, etc. Ces actions stratégiques ne sont possibles que parce que le réseau sociotechnique existant fournit les lignes d'action possibles et autorisant leur accomplissement. L'action et le réseau sont ainsi les deux facettes d'une même réalité, d'où la notion d'acteur-réseau. Par la traduction, les intérêts des humains et non humains convergent avec les modalités de la problématisation. A la fois les humains et les non humains adhèrent aux mécanismes d'intéressements et se font enrôler par le réseau qui se constitue. Le processus de traduction agit comme un lien entre des activités hétérogènes, des déclarations et des enjeux (Callon, 1981).

Synthèse

Si l'on reprend les trois critiques qui ont menées à la fondation des STS (Renaud, 2012), la sociologie de la traduction propose une nouvelle approche en termes théorique, méthodologique et stylistique. En termes théoriques, elle montre le besoin de déconstruire la sociologie des sciences afin de réétablir une symétrie entre la Nature et la Société. En termes

méthodologiques, elle montre le besoin de connaître les acteurs qui participent à la création des faits scientifiques. Enfin, en termes stylistiques, elle montre que la construction sociale de la nature se fait en parallèle d'une activité de construction d'une communauté scientifique. Il y a donc négociation simultanée de la Nature et de la Science.

Cette approche est complémentaire aux approches développées au sein des sciences de gestion (e.g. modes managériales, innovation managériale) pour comprendre comment sont produites les connaissances managériales dans leur relation avec la pratique. En effet, ne dissociant ni acteurs internes et externes à la production des connaissances managériales (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008), et en n'adoptant pas une approche institutionnelle qui aurait pour vocation de différencier le micro du macro (Abrahamson, 1991), elle a plutôt pour vocation de comprendre la construction des connaissances managériales en identifiant ses acteurs. Nous proposons dans la sous-section suivante de rentrer plus en détail dans le processus de traduction afin de détailler le cadre programmatique mobilisé dans cette thèse pour comprendre comment sont produites les connaissances managériales dans leur relation avec la pratique.

2. 1. 4. Le processus de traduction

En cohérence avec les principes méthodologiques des STS, c'est par une étude de cas, celle de la domestication des coquilles Saint-Jacques de la Baie de Saint Brieuc, que Callon (1986) décrit le modèle de la traduction. Le processus de traduction est un processus composé de quatre étapes, même si celles-ci sont entrelacées dans la mesure où le processus est itératif, récursif et engendre de nombreuses boucles de rétroaction. En reprenant la lecture faite par Renaud (2012) du processus de traduction, nous développons les étapes de ce processus (Callon, 1986).

Le primum movens

Le point de départ du processus est nommé le « primum movens » (Callon, 1986, p. 180). Cette notion fait référence au débat en cosmologie autour de l'existence, ou non, d'un

élément fondateur, qui n'a pas de cause à lui-même et qui serait à l'origine de la constitution de notre univers (Renaud, 2012).

La problématisation

La problématisation est le moment au cours duquel un acteur, ou un groupe d'acteur formule un problème en identifiant et en définissant un ensemble d'actants qu'il estime pertinents pour sa résolution. Dans la mesure où chaque actant a sa propre approche, son propre positionnement et sa propre appréhension du problème initial, la problématisation a comme objectif de faire en sorte que l'identité et les intérêts des actants qu'elle définit soit cohérents avec la solution qu'elle apporte. La problématisation doit représenter un point de passage obligé pour les actants.

Elle ne consiste pas uniquement à poser une question ou à soulever un problème mais aussi à mettre en scène différents actants en définissant leurs identités, leurs liens avec le problème soulevé et leurs objectifs : « Ce qu'ils visent, ils ne peuvent pas l'atteindre par eux-mêmes » (Callon, 1986, p. 184).

L'intéressement

Après la problématisation, l'intéressement permet de savoir « comment les alliances sont scellées » (Callon, 1986, p. 185). C'est à ce moment-là que se concrétise le système d'alliances porté par la problématisation en imposant et en stabilisant les identités des actants qu'il définit. Dans la mesure où une problématisation n'est pas unique, elle peut être contestée par d'autres problématisations. L'intéressement consiste alors à isoler les actants identifiés des autres problématisations. Si l'intéressement fonctionne et que les actants adhèrent à leur définition et se reconnaissent dans la problématisation, celle-ci est validée. Au contraire, s'il échoue et que les actants se détournent de la problématisation au profit d'autres alternatives, elle est réfutée.

L'enrôlement

L'enrôlement a pour objectif de chercher à « comment définir et coordonner les rôles » (Callon, 1986, p. 189). Il « désigne le mécanisme par lequel un rôle est défini et attribué à un

acteur qui l'accepte » (Callon, 1986, p. 189). Il est constitué par l'ensemble des négociations multilatérales, des ruses ou des coups de force qui permettent à l'intéressement d'aboutir. Le dispositif d'intéressement ne se concrétise pas forcément dans la constitution d'un réseau d'alliances. Cependant, l'actant ou le groupe d'actants qui problématise doit agir activement pour intéresser. La phase d'enrôlement permet de définir et de distribuer les rôles. Elle est cruciale car si le rôle est refusé par un actant, cela fragilise le réseau, dans la mesure où il peut entraîner d'autres refus en cascade.

La mobilisation

La mobilisation des alliés ou la représentativité des porte-paroles permet de fédérer un ensemble d'actants autour d'une problématisation, ou autrement dit d'inscrire le plus grand nombre d'alliés au sein d'un réseau. Dans la mesure où il est difficile de rallier tous les actants individuellement et de les impliquer dans les différentes étapes de la traduction, il convient pour chaque actant de constituer « une chaîne d'intermédiaires qui aboutisse à un seul et ultime porte-parole » (Callon, 1986, p. 197). Les intermédiaires émergent à différents niveaux selon un processus en cascade. A son issue, un porte-parole est désigné, élu ou imposé. Il a la responsabilité de parler au nom du groupe avec les autres actants. Si la représentativité des porte-paroles est garantie par consensus, la problématisation et son caractère hypothétique laisse place à la constitution d'un réseau d'actants contraignant (l'acteur-réseau). Il demeure fragile car contestable à tout moment. Il doit ainsi être continuellement consolidé et renforcé en impliquant toujours plus les acteurs clés afin de le rendre irréversible donc difficilement contestable.

La traduction comme une trahison

L'étude de cas décrite par Callon (1986) montre que le processus de constitution du réseau n'est jamais définitivement stabilisé. Le cadre dans lequel il se passe évolue et de nouvelles contingences, de nouvelles problématisations peuvent toujours se déclarer, des problèmes dans les mécanismes d'intéressement apparaître et fragiliser l'enrôlement, etc. Les porte-paroles peuvent également ne plus être jugés représentatifs.

En nous appuyant sur le travail de Renaud (2012), nous proposons de récapituler le processus de traduction à travers le tableau ci-après.

Tableau 1 : Processus de traduction

Moments	**Description**
Identification du **Primum Movens**	Point de départ du processus étudié
La problématisation : comment devenir indispensable ?	Identification des actants et formulation d'un problème afin de stimuler leur opportunisme parce que la problématisation définie par un actant, ou un groupe d'actants, devient un point de passage obligé pour la résolution du problème de chacun de ces actants.
L'intéressement : comment scelle-t-on les alliances ?	Il faut interpréter ce que les actants veulent, leurs inclinaisons naturelles, tout en les isolant des influences extérieures (autres problématisations) qui pourraient nuire à leur adhésion.
L'enrôlement : comment définir et coordonner les rôles ?	L'acteur doit accepter son rôle. L'enrôlement est le mécanisme permettant de définir et d'attribuer ce rôle à travers la négociation. Il valide la réussite de l'intéressement.
La mobilisation des alliés : les porte-paroles sont-ils représentatifs ?	Pour mobiliser l'ensemble des entités composant les acteurs, il faut convaincre et mobiliser leurs porte-paroles.

Source : Renaud (2012), p.166

Les travaux issus des champs des STS et de la sociologie de la traduction analysent ainsi la construction de disciplines scientifiques comme un processus culturel, politique et matériel. Ils proposent un vocabulaire riche qui permet de décrire les activités sous-jacentes à la création d'une discipline. Ces travaux considèrent les scientifiques comme engagés dans l'assemblage continu des relations entre entités hétérogènes et ils s'intéressent à comment ils stimulent les intérêts des entités pour les enrôler dans un acteur-réseau (Cabantous & Gond, 2014). Ils ont le potentiel de permettre de comprendre le processus de production des connaissances managériales de manière complémentaire aux approches utilisées en gestion, en prenant en compte le contexte institutionnel dans lequel les connaissances sont produites. Par

ailleurs, la mobilisation de cette grille conceptuelle dans des travaux issus des sciences de gestion visant à comprendre comment la connaissance est produite (e.g. Cochoy, 2010, Joannides, 2013, Cabantous & Gond, 2014) motive sa mobilisation comme cadre programmatique de notre recherche.

Dans la mesure où la sociologie de la traduction a donné naissance à un concept qui s'intéresse particulièrement au lien entre recherche et pratique dans la production de connaissances académiques, nous développons dans la sous-section suivante le concept de performativité.

2. 2. De la sociologie de la traduction à la performativité

A partir des travaux en sociologie des sciences, une communauté de chercheurs a eu comme volonté de construire une histoire sociale des sciences afin de montrer comment ses notions abstraites ont été formulées en relation constante avec des questions pratiques qui, en retour, elles ont aidé à reformuler (e.g. Callon, 1998, MacKenzie, Muniesa & Siu, 2007). C'est ce que propose l'ouvrage séminal de Callon (1998) en adoptant une vision anthropologique de l'économie. Pour cela, il s'appuie sur deux arguments. En premier lieu, l'étude de Garcia (1986) sur le marché des fraises en Sologne montre qu'il est possible que la science économique « performe » l'économie, c'est-à-dire qu'elle « contribue à la construction de la réalité qu'elle décrit » (Callon, 2007, p.316). Pour cela, il est important d'étudier le rôle des instruments, des professionnels ainsi que celui de l'enseignement dans la performativité (voir également la notion de praxis performative, Cabantous & Gond, 2011). En second lieu, l'étude sur l'industrie du ciment menée par Dumez & Jeunemaître (1998) montre qu'il est possible de transposer les résultats des STS dans les sciences sociales. Les mêmes types de controverses présentes dans les sciences de la vie (cf. Latour & Woolgar, 1979, Knorr-Cetina, 1981) sont observables dans l'industrie du ciment. De ces 2 arguments, Callon (1998) propose une anthropologie des marchés visant à comprendre les « homo economicus » et à explorer la diversité des formes et distributions de « calculative agencies » et donc de marchés. De ce travail séminal est né un courant sur la performativité en théorie des organisations (Gond, Cabantous, Harding & Learmonth, 2015). Le terme est emprunté au philosophe anglais J. L.

Austin, qui dans le recueil des conférences qu'il a données, *How to do Things with Words* (1962) désigne par « performatif » les énoncés qui font quelque chose. L'exemple qui en est généralement repris est celui du mariage. En disant « Je vous marie », le prêtre fait plus que dire, il « performe » l'action de se marier.

Nous sommes partis des travaux séminaux sur l'étude des laboratoires (Latour & Woolgar, 1979, Knorr-Cetina, 1981), nous avons développé le cadre théorique des STS et le principe méthodologique de la traduction avant de nous intéresser à la performativité. Nous proposons maintenant d'évaluer les limites de l'approche des STS en la comparant aux travaux de Bourdieu et de Foucault.

2. 3. Limites des STS et de la sociologie de la traduction

Tout comme Michel Callon et Bruno Latour, Pierre Bourdieu et Michel Foucault se sont intéressés à la *production des connaissances scientifiques*, sans cependant mobiliser ces termes exacts. L'étude de leur œuvre relative à cet objet de recherche nous permet de voir leurs apports à la compréhension de la production des sciences et donc d'évaluer les limites de la sociologie de la traduction.

2. 3. 1. Le champ scientifique *de Bourdieu*

Tout comme Callon et Latour (Callon, 1986, Latour, 2005), Bourdieu ne place pas la science au-dessus des autres champs mais perçoit le champ scientifique comme un champ ayant ses propres spécificités : « l'idée d'une science neutre est une fiction » (Bourdieu, 1975, p. 40). Il ne sépare pas non plus la nature de la société et donne au champ scientifique un périmètre qui s'étale au-delà des simples chercheurs pour également prendre en compte l'enseignement, les revues à comité de lectures, etc. et globalement l'ensemble des acteurs qui jouent un rôle dans le gain de capital social. Par contre, contrairement à Callon et Latour, au lieu de s'intéresser à la production des connaissances scientifiques par l'analyse des interactions entre humains et non-humains (Callon, 1986, Latour, 2005), Bourdieu estime que la société ne peut

être comprise qu'en analysant les pratiques scientifiques et en les reliant à la position et à la trajectoire de leur auteur dans la société (Bourdieu, 1975).

Si le sociologue peut percevoir les pratiques scientifiques comme désintéressées, c'est par référence aux intérêts des autres champs qui diffèrent de ceux du champ scientifique. Pour Bourdieu, l'objectif du chercheur est en effet d'atteindre le monopole de la compétence scientifique. Cette dernière est à la fois définie par sa capacité technique et par son pouvoir social : Pierre Bourdieu définit le champ scientifique comme l'« espace objectif d'un jeu où se trouvent engagés des enjeux scientifiques, qu'il est vain de distinguer entre des déterminations proprement scientifiques et des déterminations proprement sociales de pratiques essentiellement surdéterminées » (Bourdieu, 1976, p. 90).

Dans la mesure où toutes les pratiques sont orientées vers l'acquisition d'une autorité scientifique, Bourdieu parle du « double visage de la raison scientifique » (Bourdieu, 2001, p. 130). L'autorité scientifique constitue ainsi une espèce particulière de capital qui peut être accumulé, transmis et même reconverti en d'autres espèces sous certaines conditions. « La poursuite de l'accumulation des savoirs et de connaissances est inséparablement recherche de la reconnaissance et désir de se faire un nom ; la compétence technique et la connaissance scientifique fonctionnement simultanément comme instrument d'accumulation du capital symbolique… et ainsi de suite » (Bourdieu, 2001, p. 132).

Pour gagner du capital scientifique, le chercheur peut acquérir du pouvoir politique lié à son occupation au sein des institutions scientifiques et du pouvoir lié au prestige. La particularité du champ scientifique réside dans le fait que les clients des producteurs de capital social ont comme clients d'autres producteurs de capital social. Un scientifique atteint ainsi une reconnaissance uniquement par ses pairs qui sont paradoxalement les moins enclins à la lui accorder. C'est en effet la communauté des pairs qui juge. La lutte scientifique vise ainsi pour les pairs à continuellement se distinguer sous peine d'être dépassés et déclassés.

La structure du champ scientifique est définie à chaque moment par l'état du rapport de force entre les protagonistes de la lutte, c'est-à-dire par la structure de la distribution du capital

spécifique résultant à la fois des luttes précédentes et des luttes présentes. La possibilité d'un acteur de plier les forces du champ dépend de sa position dans la structure de la distribution du capital. Les dominants qui sont les personnes situées les plus haut dans la distribution du capital scientifique ont pour objet de faire imposer la définition de la science. De leur côté, les dominés, c'est-à-dire les nouveaux entrants, veulent gagner du capital scientifique. Ils possèdent un capital scientifique d'autant plus important que les ressources scientifiques accumulées dans le champ sont plus importantes. Ils ont deux stratégies possibles. En premier lieu, ils peuvent adopter une stratégie de succession. Dans ce cas, ils suivent la voie qui leur est tracée. En second lieu, ils adoptent une stratégie de subversion. Dans ce cas, leur objectif est de redéfinir complètement les principes de légitimation de la domination et la distribution du capital.

Appliquant la théorie du champ scientifique à l'éducation au management au niveau global, Vaara & Faÿ (2012) expliquent la multiplicité des forces de reproduction qui ont lieu entre (1) la société dans son ensemble, (2) le champ de l'éducation et (3) les pratiques pédagogiques dans les programmes éducatifs. Les auteurs montrent que les croyances, valeurs et pratiques managériales reflètent l'intérêt de l'élite globale, incluant des idées managériales dont l'éthique peut être questionnée. L'éducation au management sert la plupart du temps à légitimer les croyances, les valeurs et les pratiques dominantes plutôt que celles vues comme problématiques. L'autonomie limitée du champ de l'éducation au management le mène à suivre le développement de la société. Les institutions d'enseignement tendent ainsi à se focaliser sur l'obtention d'un prestige et d'un statut et mettent moins l'accent sur l'apprentissage ou la pensée critique. Les universités et les écoles de commerce tendent à se positionner au centre du champ, ce qui mène à une standardisation à l'échelle globale. Cette convergence est de plus renforcée par les accréditations et les classements. A cause de ces pressions, les pratiques pédagogiques des universités et des écoles de commerce n'ont pas tendance à innover. En d'autres termes, ils tendent à renforcer les dispositions cognitives, linguistiques et comportementales. L'inculcation est souvent volontaire car les étudiants s'attendent à acquérir du capital symbolique et à devenir comme l'élite globale.

La prochaine sous-section s'intéresse à l'œuvre de Michel Foucault. Dans la dernière sous-section, nous ferons une synthèse des apports de ces deux auteurs pour notre problématique de thèse.

2. 3. 2. L'archéologie du savoir *de Foucault*

Alors que *Les mots et Les choses* (Foucault, 1966) avait comme objectif de s'intéresser à la distribution des énoncés et de montrer comment ce processus menait au pouvoir (Callon & Latour, 1991), dans l*'Archéologie du Savoir* (Foucault, 1969), Michel Foucault explique la démarche menée dans cet ouvrage mais également dans *Histoire de la Folie à l'Âge Classique*. Il y intègre de manière plus marginale des idées de *Qu'est-ce qu'un auteur ?* Pour cela, il élabore un cadre conceptuel afin d'aller au-delà des exemples de ses précédents ouvrages.

Remettant en cause à la fois la vision figée de l'histoire des idées et la focalisation portée sur l'étude d'une œuvre pour comprendre une discipline, Foucault (1969) met en avant le besoin de faire ressortir le discours afin de comprendre les mises en relation caractérisant une pratique discursive. Le discours va en effet au-delà de la mise en relation de mots et de choses, d'une réalité et d'une langue, et de l'intrication d'un lexique et d'une expérience. Les discours ne sont pas des ensembles de signes, mais des pratiques qui forment systématiquement les objets dont ils parlent. Les discours utilisent les signes pour désigner des choses. Pour Foucault, l'histoire des disciplines n'est pas, pierre à pierre, la construction d'un édifice. Une discipline c'est un ensemble de règles qui mettent en série des énoncés, un ensemble de schémas obligatoires de dépendances, d'ordre et de successions où se distribuent les éléments récurrents qui peuvent valoir comme concepts.

Il faut donc comprendre selon quels schèmes les énoncés peuvent être liés les uns aux autres dans un type de discours ; repérer comment les éléments récurrents des énoncés peuvent réapparaître, se dissocier, se recomposer, gagner en extension ou en détermination, être repris à l'intérieur de nouvelles structures logiques, acquérir de nouveaux contenus sémantiques, constituer entre eux des organisations partielles ; et ce à travers les textes, livres et œuvres. Foucault effectue ainsi un certain nombre de propositions pour comprendre comment se

forment les discours. Il s'agit de (1) déterminer les points de diffraction possibles du discours, qu'il s'agisse d'incompatibilité, d'équivalence ou de points d'accrochage d'une systématisation. Il s'agit également de (2) décrire des instances spécifiques de décision. Il propose pour cela d'étudier l'économie de la constellation discursive à laquelle le discours appartient pour comprendre le rôle qu'il joue par rapport à ceux qui lui sont contemporains ou l'avoisinent. Enfin, il s'agit de (3) déterminer la fonction que doit exercer le discours étudié dans un champ de pratiques non discursives.

Foucault met en avant l'importance d'analyser les rapports entre l'énoncé et les espaces de différenciation. Il ne faut donc pas concevoir le sujet de l'énoncé comme identique à l'auteur de la formulation. Un énoncé doit avoir une existence matérielle ; un énoncé peut être approprié. En d'autres termes, il circule.

En proposant la notion d'archéologie du savoir, il propose en premier lieu à l'historien des idées de se focaliser sur l'histoire des à-côtés et des marges : l'histoire des connaissances imparfaites, mal fondées, qui n'ont jamais pu atteindre tout au long d'une vie obstinée la forme de la scientificité. Il s'agit d'analyser des opinions plus que des savoirs, des erreurs plus que de la vérité. En deuxième lieu, il propose de traiter et de réinterpréter les disciplines existantes en cherchant à décrire les connaissances qui ont servi de fond empirique et de suivre la genèse qui, à partir des représentations reçues ou acquises, vont donner naissance à des systèmes et à des œuvres. En troisième lieu, il propose de s'intéresser à comment le savoir scientifique se diffuse et donne lieu à des concepts philosophiques et des disciplines. Cette approche peut ainsi être mobilisée pour comprendre comment la connaissance managériale est produite. En liant les discours aux pratiques, l'approche proposée par Foucault permet de comprendre la construction de cette connaissance dans son lien avec les pratiques.

Dans une des conférences qu'il a donnée à l'université de Buffalo ainsi qu'au centre universitaire expérimental de Vincennes, Foucault (1969)[25] cherche à comprendre qui se cache

[25] Les 2 conférences étant quasiment identiques, nous conservons cette seule référence.

derrière l'œuvre en développant la notion d'auteur. Il s'agit ainsi de comprendre qui sont les acteurs qui créent la connaissance.

Pour Foucault, il est difficile à la fois de définir une œuvre sans son auteur et de délimiter l'œuvre de l'auteur. Il estime cependant qu'il existe un lien étroit entre l'auteur et son œuvre. L'auteur exerce un certain rôle par rapport aux discours en assurant une fonction « classificatoire ». Le nom d'auteur permet en effet de délimiter des discours et d'opposer des discours les uns aux autres, ce qui amène Foucault à analyser la fonction d'auteur d'une œuvre. Tout d'abord, l'auteur est inscrit dans un système juridique et institutionnel qui articule l'univers des discours. Ensuite, il rappelle que le sens et le statut qu'on accord à un texte est lié à son auteur. Par ailleurs, La vision de l'auteur est contextuelle, celle-ci évolue suivant les époques et les formes de civilisation. La fonction auteur n'est pas définie par l'attribution spontanée d'un discours à son producteur, mais par une série d'opérations spécifiques et complexes. Par ailleurs, la fonction auteur ne renvoie pas purement et simplement à un individu réel, elle peut donner lieu simultanément à plusieurs égos, à plusieurs positions-sujets que des classes différentes d'individus peuvent venir occuper. Les auteurs permettent d'ouvrir l'espace à des différences : ils ouvrent l'espace à d'autres choses que leurs œuvres (car elles se créent en réaction à la leur) et qui pourtant appartient à ce qu'ils ont fondé. Enfin, en prenant l'exemple de Bourbaki, un collectif d'auteur en mathématiques qui signe de ce pseudonyme, montre que pour qu'il y ait auteur, il y a besoin d'une intériorité, ici représenté par les âpres discussions préalables à toute publication du collectif. Ce développement nous permet de comprendre la complexité qui réside derrière la notion de connaissances. Tout comme le montre l'approche de Callon et Latour, celle-ci est l'objet de négociations, afin d'arriver à la constitution d'une œuvre. Ces éléments sont intéressants pour éclairer le phénomène de production des connaissances managériales. Nous en faisons la synthèse dans la sous-section suivante.

2. 3. 3. Synthèse des apports des travaux de Bourdieu et de Foucault

Nous avons vu dans cette section deux alternatives à celle des STS et plus précisément de la sociologie de la traduction de Michel Callon et Bruno Latour afin d'étudier la production des connaissances managériales. Ces positions ont été choisies afin de montrer qu'en termes

de production de connaissances scientifiques, d'autres conceptualisations sont possibles. Bourdieu conceptualise la sociologie des sciences comme une lutte de pouvoir au sein du champ scientifique où les scientifiques recherchent un capital scientifique. En se penchant sur la motivation des chercheurs, il capture la dynamique du champ scientifique. A l'inverse des travaux de Callon et Latour, le déterminisme de cette approche semble cependant limiter l'explication anthropologique du développement d'une science.

Les travaux de Foucault mettent l'accent à la fois sur l'œuvre et sur l'auteur dans le développement des savoirs. Pour ce faire il propose un certain nombre de propositions visant à déconstruire les discours pour mieux comprendre la formation du savoir. Notamment, en dissociant le discours de l'œuvre et de l'auteur, il offre une richesse permettant de faire une analyse fine du développement des savoirs. L'ambiguïté des travaux de Foucault réside cependant dans le statut particulier qu'il donne à la science (Foucault, 1969, Foucault, 1969). En effet, dans *L'Archéologie du Savoir*, Foucault (1969) reconnaît la possibilité d'étudier une histoire des sciences, qu'il nomme l'histoire de l'epistémé et qui n'emprunte pas son principe méthodologique. Il montre par ailleurs que le rapport entre l'auteur diffère suivant si l'on se situe en sciences sociales ou en sciences dures : la remise en cause de l'auteur d'une œuvre en sciences dure n'a pas d'incidence sur la vérité scientifique alors qu'elle en a en sciences humaines car elle risque de déplacer le centre de gravité du champ théorique car les champs théoriques sont rattachés à des auteurs (Foucault, 1969). La distinction qu'il fait entre l'archéologie du savoir et l'histoire de l'epistémé, ainsi qu'entre sciences dures et science humaines et sociales, serait sujette à de plus amples investigations.

Nous appuyant sur les travaux des STS et plus spécifiquement sur la sociologie de la traduction, nous proposons dans la section suivante de montrer la posture poursuivie dans cette thèse.

3. Posture du chercheur et articulation des travaux

3. 1. Une posture de recherche au plus proche des principes méthodologiques de la sociologie de la traduction

Dans cette section, nous allons montrer comment nous avons appliqué une démarche STS en sciences de gestion, visant à étudier la production des connaissances managériales en nous concentrant sur le lien recherche – pratique. Nous allons donc montrer la démarche que nous avons entreprise. Dans la mesure où nous détaillons dans chacun des chapitres la méthodologie spécifiquement développée, nous allons nous concentrer ici sur la posture de chercheur en science de gestion que nous avons adoptée. Nous allons ensuite la discuter au regard des (1) controverses scientifiques, (2) du développement d'études de cas, (3) de la prolongation du programme de Bloor, (4) de l'ethnométhodologie et (5) de la réflexivité et du relativisme.

3. 1. 1. Une posture de chercheur située entre recherche et pratique

Durant notre recherche doctorale, nous avons été immergé à la fois dans le monde de la recherche et dans celui de la pratique. En effet, d'une part, nous avons été engagé au sein d'un cabinet de conseil en management, Izsak Grapin & Associés[26], de janvier 2011 à août 2014 par le biais d'une convention CIFRE pour y travailler à contractuellement à hauteur de 60% de notre temps de travail ; et d'autre part, nous avons suivi une formation doctorale sur les années universitaires allant de 2011/2012 à 2015/2016, au sein du centre de recherche Dauphine Recherche en Management dans l'équipe Management & Organisation à l'Université Paris-Dauphine. Lorsque nous avions deux activités, celle de recherche représentait contractuellement 40% de notre temps de travail. Si l'on reprend la métaphore des mondes de Niklas Luhmann (Nicolai & Seidl, 2010), durant 3 ans, nous avons été socialisé dans deux

[26] La société était un cabinet de conseil en stratégie fondée en 1994, en liquidation judiciaire depuis le 21/05/2015.

mondes, celui de la recherche et celui de la pratique, en étant à la fois praticien de la recherche en train de théoriser (Weick, 1995) et praticien réflexif sur sa pratique (Schön, 1983).

Ce choix a été effectué de façon volontaire. Il nous paraissait important de « garder un pied dans chaque monde ». Si le thème de recherche a toujours porté sur la diffusion des connaissances en sciences de gestion, le sujet de thèse s'est précisé au cours des trois années pour analyser la production des connaissances managériales et leur diffusion dans les organisations. Alors que notre focalisation portait à l'origine sur les cabinets de conseil en management, nous avons élargi notre angle de recherche. Nous n'avons ainsi pas eu une posture d'anthropologue au sein du cabinet de conseil pour lequel nous travaillions (e.g. Bourgoin, 2013). Ces évolutions n'ont pas amoindri les apports des travaux de recherche pour l'entreprise dans la mesure où les modélisations réalisées au cours de la recherche ont permis à l'entreprise de mieux comprendre les parties prenantes du marché de la connaissance managériale, ses évolutions et ainsi d'affiner ses discours[27].

Nous n'avons pas non plus, ou à la marge, adopté la posture du chercheur-praticien, telle que développée dans le chapitre 4 de la thèse (voir p. 190), car nous n'avons effectué que marginalement le pont entre nos deux activités[28]. Quand nous l'avons fait, cela n'a pas fait l'objet d'une théorisation académique. Nous pensons malgré tout que cette posture a impacté l'épistémologie poursuivi par le chercheur dans cette thèse. Elle a en tous cas permis de *suivre* les personnes humaines et non-humaines participant à la production des connaissances managériales. Nous allons ainsi dans un premier temps décrire plus en détails la posture que nous avons adoptée afin d'en déduire les apports pour cette thèse.

Le choix d'intégrer le cabinet de conseil Izsak Grapin & Associés en tant que consultant analyste n'était pas innocent. Ce cabinet de conseil en management a historiquement tissé des liens avec le monde académique. Le cabinet peut en ce sens être considéré comme une organisation frontière (Guston, 2001). En effet, un de ses fondateurs et plusieurs des

[27] Nous faisons ici référence aux rapports d'activités réalisés en fin de première et de deuxième année pour l'ANRT dans le cadre de la thèse réalisée sous convention CIFRE.

[28] Nous développons notre posture de chercheur-praticien en épilogue du chapitre 4 (p. 215).

consultants qui y ont travaillé ont effectué une partie de leur carrière au sein du Mac Group, société de conseil créée en 1964 à Boston pour accompagner les professeurs de la Harvard Business School, puis d'universités américaines et européennes à vendre leurs prestations de conseil. Ainsi, un certain nombre de personnes ayant travaillé dans le cabinet – avant que nous l'intégrions nous-même – ont par exemple collaboré à l'élaboration de la Stratégie Océan Bleu (Kim & Mauborgne, 2005) (voir chapitre 3, p. 153). De 2011 à 2014, ce cabinet était donc dirigé par une personne intéressée par les idées – notamment issues du monde académique. Durant cette période, nous avons eu une activité d'analyste – premier grade dans ce cabinet de conseil – à savoir la participation à des activités de conseil en management allant de la gestion de projet à la stratégie effectuées dans différentes industries, la rédaction de propositions commerciales et le développement de recherche interne, ainsi que des échanges formels ou informels avec différents consultants issus du cabinet, anciens du cabinet, ou issus d'autres cabinets de conseil en management

En parallèle de cette activité de conseil, nous avons été socialisé au sein d'un laboratoire de recherche en sciences de gestion au sein de l'Université Paris-Dauphine. Nous avons ainsi eu l'opportunité de participer aux activités de recherche d'un jeune chercheur : travail de lecture et de rédaction, entretiens de recherche, retranscriptions, analyse de données, réunion mensuelle de l'équipe de recherche, socialisation auprès des doctorants et des enseignants-chercheurs, rendez-vous réguliers avec son directeur de thèse…

En ayant communiqué nos travaux de recherche dès notre première année de thèse, nous avons pu suivre des acteurs allant au-delà du périmètre de l'université Paris-Dauphine en participant à un certain nombre de conférences francophones et internationales dans les domaines de la théorie des organisations (AOM, EURAM, EGOS), de la stratégie (AIMS, SMS) ou de l'éducation supérieure et de la recherche en gestion (EFMD Higher Education and Research Conference). Nous avons notamment pu assister à certains débats de l'*Academy of Management* interrogeant la pertinence de la recherche en gestion. Depuis septembre 2012, nous participons également aux débats de la Société Française de Management (SFM) visant à mieux comprendre les problématiques contemporaines des sciences de gestion en France et

influencer son évolution. Par ailleurs, par notre enseignement ou par nos encadrements de mémoire à l'université Paris-Dauphine ou dans d'autres institutions, ainsi que par de nombreuses discussions formelles ou informelles avec des représentants du « monde » de la recherche ainsi que par des lectures, nous avons pu mieux connaître ses acteurs.

En plus de chercher à comprendre les deux « mondes » de la recherche et de la pratique, nous nous sommes également intéressé à la production des connaissances dans son rapport à la pratique. Nous avons pour cela effectué un certain nombre d'interventions et d'observations entre les champs de la recherche et de la pratique, qui ont permis d'affiner la problématique de notre thèse. Prenons deux exemples. Nous nous sommes penché sur la diffusion des connaissances managériales provenant du monde académique. Nous avons observé différentes pratiques développées en France ou à l'étranger visant à « populariser » (cf. chapitre 2, p. 118) la connaissance académique. En termes de média, nous avons cherché à comprendre les différents moyens mis en place pour diffuser la connaissance académique (e.g. Paris Tech Review, Otherwise, The Conversation). Nous avons aussi créé un média à titre expérimental en prenant un rôle éditorial en travaillant avec des étudiants de master 2 de l'université Paris-Dauphine pour diffuser leur mémoire de recherche, afin de mieux comprendre, nous-même, comment fonctionne ce processus[29]. En termes d'acteurs intervenant dans la production des connaissances managériales, nous nous sommes intéressé au consultant, dont le rôle peut parfois être perçu comme intermédiaire entre chercheurs et praticiens (Engwall, 2012, Engwall, Furusten & Wallerstedt, 2002, Ramanantsoa, 1993, Werr & Greiner, 2008). Nous avons ainsi cherché nous-même à comprendre le rôle que nous pouvions avoir au sein du cabinet de conseil pour lequel nous travaillions et avons élargi cet éventail en interviewant plusieurs responsables de la recherche au sein de cabinets de conseil en management en France et à l'étranger sur la thématique du lien qu'ils développent avec la recherche[30]. A notre sens, ces deux exemples nous ont permis de mieux contextualiser notre problématique de recherche.

[29] http://master101.dauphine.fr/fr/association-dso.html

[30] Ce travail est la prolongation d'un travail de mémoire de master 2 réalisé sous la direction du Professeur Stéphanie Dameron. En effet, en plus des entretiens réalisés à différents niveaux hiérarchiques au sein de différents cabinets de conseil dans le cadre de ce mémoire, des entretiens supplémentaires ont été

En effet, l'ensemble des données collectées et des pratiques développées en vue de mieux appréhender le rapport à la pratique dans la production de connaissances managériales (e.g. observation et intervention dans des médias visant à diffuser la connaissance académique, entretiens avec des consultants visant à comprendre les liens tissés avec la recherche) ne constituent pas nécessairement des données directement exploitées dans le cadre des quatre chapitres constitutifs de cette thèse. Les données collectées et analysées dans le cadre du premier chapitre sont des écrits relatifs au débat entre rigueur et pertinence publiés dans des revues anglo-saxonnes ; pour le deuxième, ce sont des entretiens ou des données secondaires relatives au développement de quatorze innovations managériales ; dans le troisième, il s'agit de données relatives aux actants qui ont participé à la performativité de la Stratégie Océan Bleu ; et dans le quatrième chapitre, il s'agit d'entretiens approfondis réalisés avec des chercheurs-praticiens. Ces données ne forment que la partie émergée de l'iceberg. La posture que nous avons adoptée a permis de mieux comprendre le contexte nécessaire à l'ethnographie telle que poursuivie dans les STS, comme nous le montrons ci-après.

3. 1. 2. Apports pour les STS

Cette thèse mobilise la grille d'analyse des STS pour étudier le rapport à la pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales. Nous montrons dans cette sous-section comment notre posture de chercheur situé entre la recherche et la pratique nous a permis d'appliquer les principes des STS. Elle permet une meilleure compréhension de controverse scientifique et le développement d'études de cas, elle offre la possibilité de prolonger le programme de Bloor ainsi que d'adopter l'ethnométhodologie et une réflexivité nécessaires à la mobilisation d'une grille d'analyse provenant de la sociologie des sciences.

Dans cette thèse, nous nous intéressons au rapport à la pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales. Nous avons pu voir que cet objet de recherche était sujet à discussions et débats qui mènent à des controverses. En ayant été en immersion à la fois dans

réalisés auprès de responsables de la recherche de McKinsey, de Monitor, de PwC et d'un membre du BCG qui développe une activité de recherche. Ce travail pourrait faire l'objet d'une publication future.

un cabinet de conseil en management et dans une équipe de recherche dans une université, nous avons été des deux côtés de cette controverse en collectant des témoignages en provenance d'acteurs issus à la fois de la recherche et de la pratique.

Cette proximité avec les mondes pratiques et académiques nous a permis le développement d'études de cas. En effet, notre activité de conseil nous a fait prendre conscience de concepts – ou innovations managériales – créés ou en partie créés par des académiques qui ont un intérêt pratique pour les praticiens, dans la mesure où nous avons eu la possibilité de les mobiliser dans notre activité de conseil. En discutant de notre recherche aussi bien dans le milieu académique que pratique, nous avons eu des propositions de mise en relation qui nous ont permis d'approcher ces cas par le biais d'entretiens avec des personnes qui ont participé à leur élaboration[31]. En plus de ces relations tissées avec des humains, nous avons pris conscience d'un certain nombre d'acteurs non-humains qui participent à la production des connaissances managériales. Notre participation à l'écriture de courriers à destination de dirigeants ou de propositions commerciales en réponse à des appels d'offres nous a par exemple montré l'importance de représentations graphiques qui aient un impact pour le lecteur.

Durant notre recherche doctorale, nous n'avons jamais pris publiquement parti sur le débat entre rigueur et pertinence. Il est en d'une part assez difficile à la fois d'observer ce que les acteurs pensent et de prendre parti[32] et d'autre part, cela met en avant nos propres arguments plutôt que d'essayer de comprendre une situation en traitant dans les mêmes termes la position des praticiens et la position des chercheurs. Ainsi, lors d'interactions avec des chercheurs ou des praticiens surs des thèmes relatifs à la production des connaissances, nous avons écouté les arguments, nous avons cherché à les comprendre et nous les avons respectés[33]. Nous n'avons

[31] Nous en profitons de nouveau pour remercier ces différents collègues qui nous ont grandement aidé dans cette recherche doctorale.

[32] A une conférence récente à laquelle nous avons participé (Strategic Management Society à Denver (USA), en octobre 2015), à l'issue d'une discussion visant à mieux comprendre comment les chercheurs pouvaient travailler avec les praticiens en organisant des workshops avec eux, un praticien et une chercheur m'ont demandé pourquoi je n'étais pas intervenu pour exprimer mon avis sur le sujet.

[33] Les débats de la Société Française de Management ont à cet égard été particulièrement instructifs.

jamais cru que les académiques étaient au-dessus des praticiens et inversement, n'avons jamais pensé que les académiques étaient dans leur « Tour d'Ivoire ». Notre position de doctorant nous a permis d'avoir auprès de nos interviewés ce regard naïf (au sens positif du terme) visant tout simplement à comprendre un phénomène en le regardant à la fois du côté de la pratique et du côté académique. Adopter la posture qu'a prise Bruno Latour lors de l'ethnographie de laboratoire qu'il a menée en Californie (Latour & Woolgar, 1979) nous semble dans notre cas difficile. Ayant conduit sa recherche dans un pays étranger dont il ne maîtrise pas la langue, ne connaissant pas la science et étant quelques mois auparavant en Afrique en train d'étudier une culture locale, Latour argumente que cela lui permet d'avoir une posture d'ethnologue et d'être agnostique. Nous avons construit notre posture de façon différente. A l'inverse de Latour, nous avons cherché à en savoir le plus possible et à être le plus possible socialisé auprès des populations étudiées. Dans le milieu dans lequel nous étions inséré (conseil en management et universités et écoles de commerce), où la réputation joue un rôle qui nous paraît important, il nous paraissait plus opportun de chercher à en adopter les codes plutôt que de conserver une posture totalement extérieure.

Pour cela, nous avons vécu – toutes choses égales par ailleurs – à la fois un métier de chercheur et un métier de consultant. Nous avons participé au jeu de la publication académique et commençons à comprendre la signification que peut prendre le mot *rigueur*. En parallèle, nous avons vécu la fin de vie d'un cabinet de conseil et comprenons certains des enjeux économiques et psychologiques de la vie des entreprises[34]. Nous comprenons, au moins dans une certaine mesure les codes d'une profession – celle du conseil en management, celle de professeur des universités et des professions proches, en France et à l'international – nous pouvons adopter le langage de ces différents milieux et adopter une certaine empathie avec nos interviewés. Cela permet certainement d'avoir des entretiens « plus vrais » et de comprendre les relations de pouvoir qui se dessinent derrière le discours de l'interviewé. Un chercheur-consultant[35] nous racontait l'anecdote suivante. Alors qu'il interviewait un dirigeant en

[34] Nous reviendrons sur cette partie en épilogue du chapitre 4, p. 215.
[35] Voir chapitre 4 pour la définition du terme (p. 181).

compagnie d'un collègue chercheur, le dirigeant racontait un fait qui s'était produit dans son organisation. Le chercheur-praticien l'interrompit en lui expliquant qu'il n'était pas d'accord avec sa version des faits. Il avait en effet eu accès aux faits de première main et en avait une toute autre version. Sachant qu'il s'adressait à un praticien, qui de plus connaissait la « réalité », et non plus à un académique, le dirigeant a changé son discours durant le reste de l'interview en relatant les faits en étant plus proche de la réalité. Sans aller dans cette situation extrême, nous pensons qu'à la fois le langage et les codes que nous adoptons peuvent permettre de créer une certaine proximité avec nos interviewés et de collecter des faits plus « vrais ».

Enfin, en ayant entendu et discuté de différents discours sur la pertinence de la recherche, nous adoptons une vision relativiste sur la science et la société. Difficile d'interviewer des chercheurs, souvent seniors et reconnus pour leur travail, sans qu'ils nous demandent sur quoi porte notre thèse et nous conseillent sur la marche à suivre. Bien que plaisant et parfois fort utile[36], nous devions rester agnostiques à ces conseils ou plus généralement à une vision de ce que dit les sciences sociales pour nous pencher sur ce que disent les acteurs. En reprenant la métaphore du discours de Foucault (1969), il nous fallait aller au-delà du discours ou au-delà de l'œuvre pour comprendre les énoncés et comment ils sont liés entre eux. Nous avons par ailleurs acquis une réflexivité sur l'objet de notre thèse. Au début de notre thèse, alors que nous pensions que le cabinet de conseil pour lequel nous travaillions fournirait du matériau qui nous serait plus directement exploitable, nous rédigions un carnet de bord et prenions des notes sur notre pratique de conseil (voir par exemple Empson, 2012 sur une réflexivité entreprise à travers le "Rigor/Relevance Divide"). A l'issue de la première année de thèse, nous avons abandonné cette pratique dans la mesure où elle ne correspondait pas à notre design de recherche, et n'avons pas cherché à exploiter ce matériau (e.g. Laszczuk & Garreau, 2015). Malgré tout, cet exemple montre une volonté de réflexivité que nous avons prise, sans pour autant adopter une rigueur méthodologique permettant de

[36] Nous sommes extrêmement reconnaissant aux interviewés qui lors des entretiens nous ont conseillé différentes lectures qui nous ont été fort utiles (e.g. Starbuck, 2006, Gleick, 1988, Maister, 1997)

l'exploiter. En épilogue de la thèse (p. 228), nous présentons quelques éléments de réflexivité suite à notre période passée en tant que chercheur-consultant.

3. 2. Articulation des travaux de la thèse

Afin d'étudier la production des connaissances en sciences de gestion, nous avons choisi d'étudier cet objet de recherche sous différents angles, qui ne correspondent pas à des niveaux d'analyse différents sur cette problématique (cf. Callon & Latour, 2006). Suivant la tradition des STS, nous avons plutôt *suivi* les actants humains ou non humains, intervenant dans la production des connaissances managériales. Nous adopté différents points de vue développés dans quatre chapitres indépendant mais cependant positionnés suivant un ordre logique. Les quatre chapitres constitutifs de cette thèse ont à ce titre fait l'objet de publications dans des conférences internationales et certains sont en cours de publication dans des revues anglo-saxonnes. La conclusion permet cependant de faire converger les analyses.

Dans le premier chapitre de cette thèse, nous nous centrons sur le débat académique portant sur ce que nous appelons le « rigor/relevance gap ». En nous intéressant à la controverse sur laquelle porte notre thèse, nous souhaitons en faire une synthèse en cherchant à comprendre les différentes parties prenantes au débat et les différentes perspectives avancées par les chercheurs qui y participent. Pour cela, nous avons effectué une étude de contenu de 253 articles académiques publiés entre 1994 et 2013 dans 11 revues académiques et proposons quatre positions suivant lesquelles les académiques perçoivent la notion de pertinence de la recherche.

Le deuxième chapitre de cette thèse s'intéresse à l'analyse des modes d'interactions entre chercheurs et praticiens permettant la production de connaissances managériales largement répandues, perçues ainsi par les actants comme pertinentes. Pour cela, nous mobilisons le concept d'innovation managériale dont nous modélisons la génération et diffusion entre chercheurs et praticiens. Nous appliquons ce cadre conceptuel à quatorze innovations managériales développées par des chercheurs et des praticiens pour lesquels nous avons collecté des données visant à comprendre leurs processus développementaux. Par une

comparaison de ces quatorze cas, nous généralisons le processus de développement d'innovations managériales développées entre recherche et pratique.

Dans le troisième chapitre de cette thèse, nous appliquons le principe méthodologique de l'étude de cas situé au cœur des STS et de la sociologie de la traduction pour nous pencher sur le cas d'un concept – ou d'une innovation managériale, pour reprendre la terminologie développée dans le chapitre précédent – celui de la Stratégie Océan Bleu, concept situé dans le champ de la stratégie développée par les professeurs W. Chan Kim et Renée Mauborgne de l'INSEAD. Nous analysons ce cas sous l'angle de la performativité en cherchant à comprendre comment les *innovateurs* du concept l'ont développé afin de le rendre performatif – donc qu'il ait un effet sur la réalité, au-delà de simplement décrire la réalité. Pour cela, nous avons interviewé des acteurs ayant participé au développement de la Stratégie Océan Bleu ainsi que des acteurs l'ayant mobilisé au sein d'organisations ; et avons également étudié les objets ayant permis la performativité du concept.

Après nous être penché sur la compréhension de la controverse, après avoir étudié différents cas de production de connaissance managériale mobilisant chercheurs et praticiens, et après avoir exploré la performativité d'un concept en particulier, dans ce quatrième chapitre, nous nous penchons sur les individus à la frontière – les organisations frontières – de la science et de la non science, les chercheurs praticiens. Ce sont des acteurs qui ont à la fois une activité située dans le « monde » de la pratique et dans celui de la pratique et qui ont un impact sur ces deux « mondes »[37]. En nous intéressant au rôle de seize chercheurs-praticiens situés entre la recherche et la pratique, nous cherchons à comprendre les mécanismes qu'ils mettent en place pour équilibrer leurs différents rôles et éviter les confits de rôle.

Nous proposons un épilogue à cette thèse basé sur l'expérience des rôles que nous avons endossés en étant situé entre la recherche et la pratique durant sa réalisation. Enfin, dans un chapitre conclusif, nous proposons une synthèse de chaque chapitre de la thèse afin de pouvoir engager une discussion entre eux. Nous organisons cette discussion autour de la relation entre

[37] Le chapitre de Favre (2015), extrait de sa thèse de DBA en est le parfait exemple.

recherche et pratique, du rôle des académiques dans la production des connaissances managériales, de l'utilisation de la recherche en science de gestion par les praticiens et la mobilisation de l'enseignement dans la production des connaissances managériales. Nous proposerons ensuite des pistes de recherches futures, notamment relatives au lien entre production des connaissances managériales et compétitivité, à l'étude de la dynamique de la controverse liée à la pertinence de la recherche en sciences de gestion et à la spécificité nationale de la production des connaissances managériales. Enfin, nous développons des implications managériales propres à cette recherche.

Chapitre 1. How to be Relevant: a Systematic Analysis of the Rigor/Relevance Debate[38]

Propos liminaire

*Dans l'introduction de cette thèse, nous avons proposé une lecture historique de la naissance d'un débat, aussi bien en France qu'aux Etats-*Unis, *autour de la notion de pertinence de la recherche. Nous avons expliqué que ce débat était l'héritage d'une volonté aux Etats-Unis de transformer les institutions de gestion en institutions académiques. Pour cela, les standards de recherche des sciences dites dures ont été adoptés, au détriment, selon certains, de la pertinence des travaux de recherche en sciences de gestion pour la pratique.*

*Ce débat, appelé en anglais le « rigor/relevance debate » se manifeste notamment dans des discussions publiées dans les revues académiques. En 1993, Donald Hambrick, alors président de l'*Academy of Management *questionne l'Académie sur sa pertinence. Cela a eu pour conséquence d'alimenter les discussions et donc les positions sur ce que doit être la pertinence de la recherche et comment rendre la recherche en sciences de gestion pertinence. En 2000, Bartunek & Rynes (2014) constatent de nouveau une multiplication des contributions au débat.*

Dans une tradition des Science, Technology and Society *(STS) et prenant ainsi ce débat comme une controverse scientifique, ce premier chapitre a pour volonté de chercher à comprendre quels en sont les tenants et les aboutissants. Pour cela, nous en faisons une analyse de son contenu entre 1994 et 2013 en analysant l'ensemble des publications issues de ce débat publiées dans 11 revues anglo-saxonnes. L'objectif est de comprendre les différentes*

[38] Ce chapitre est co-écrit avec Philippe Mouricou (ESSCA). Il a été soumis à Academy of Management Learning & Education dont il a été rejeté après révision. Auparavant, il a notamment été présenté en 2014 à l'EFMD Higher Education and Research Conference ainsi qu'à la conférence annuelle de l'AIMS.

perceptions de la notion de pertinence ainsi que de comprendre les solutions proposées par les participants au débat.

1. Introduction

The relationship between research&is the subject of a recurring debate in the field of management (Davis, 2015, Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, Beyer & Trice, 1982, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010, Pearce & Huang, 2012, Romme, Avenier, Denyer, Hodgkinson, Pandza, Starkey & Worren, 2015). Within this debate, it has been argued that the rigorous knowledge produced by management scholars holds little relevance for practitioners, that there is a significant gap between the worlds of research and practice, and that management research should ultimately seek to be more impactful for practice. Contributors to this debate have accordingly proposed an array of solutions for making management research more relevant for practitioners. Such efforts have come to constitute the "programmatic relevance" literature (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015). This literature largely consists of publications that are non-empirical in nature, and which consider that it is both possible and advisable to make management research more relevant (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014). In spite of this apparent consensus, this literature cannot be said to not represent a finely structured discourse (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Romme, Avenier, Denyer, Hodgkinson, Pandza, Starkey & Worren, 2015), as beyond these solutions (which are often presented as being in conflict with one another), the concept of relevance remains vague and is often not defined at all (Nicolai & Seidl, 2010).

The fragmented nature of this programmatic literature has led to the development of integrative studies that often consist of systematic analyses of both empirical and non-empirical contributions (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, Beyer & Trice, 1982, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010, Corley & Gioia, 2011). These studies have sought to identify groups of articles with a shared approach to the rigor/relevance debate in hopes of promoting a specific solution (Nicolai & Seidl, 2010, Corley & Gioia, 2011) and/or of developing more general research goals related to the production of knowledge (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014). Surprisingly, integrative relevance research has yet to fully analyze the complementarity between the solutions put forward in the programmatic literature, and

moreover, does not recognize the significant evolutions that have taken place within the rigor/relevance debate.

This paper addresses this research gap by means of a systematic analysis of 253 articles, viewpoints, editorial statements, speeches and interviews, all published between 1994 and 2013 and all explicitly dealing with the practical relevance of management scholarship. Through this analysis, we identify four typical strategies used to bridge the rigor/relevance gap: (1) the gatekeepers' orthodoxy, (2) collaboration with practitioners, (3) paradigmatic shift and (4) refocusing on common good. Our taxonomy reveals that these four typical strategies are based on different assumptions about the nature of management research and the origin of the rigor/relevance gap. Consequently, the solutions that each strategy proposes differ, as do their implications for the practice of management research and for management education. However, as the articles that we consider are often located at the crossroads of two or more of these typical strategies, the solutions that they promote do not appear to be mutually exclusive. As such, we develop a framework that integrates the solutions that have been promoted by the various subgroups within the programmatic literature whose aim has been to enhance the relevance of management research.

Through this taxonomy, we contribute to the rigor/relevance debate in three ways. First, we improve the understanding of the relationship between rigor and relevance by showing how it is shaped by scholars' representations, which are contingent on the respective strategy (or strategies) that they promote. Second, we build on previous efforts by providing an integrative programmatic framework that places emphasis on the solutions for resolving the rigor/relevance debate. Lastly, we show how management education can be used to both reframe the rigor/relevance debate and to initiate action aimed at making management research more relevant for practitioners.

We begin this paper with an overview of the context in which the rigor/relevance debate first took shape. We then detail our sampling, collection and analysis procedures. Following this, we present our taxonomy along with a detailed analysis of each typical strategy used to bridge the rigor/relevance gap. After discussing the complementarities between these

strategies, we explicate the implications of these findings for the future of the rigor/relevance debate.

2. Background and Context

The contemporary business school model emerged in the late 19th century at the crossroads of three institutions: science, professions and university (Khurana, 2010). During this period, American vocational schools were repurposed as business schools, which progressively evolved into academic institutions. Later, during the first part of the 20th century, these institutions began to diffuse the MBA model: 110 MBAs were granted in 1919, versus a staggering 3,897 in 1949 (Khurana, 2010). However, under the influence of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), the national proliferation of MBA curricula led in turn to growing concerns about the quality and standardization of such programs. Critics emphasized the fact that business-school students obtained poor results on standardized tests when compared with students from other disciplines, and consequently, faculty members' qualifications and proficiencies in basic research methods were called into question. Among these critics, the Ford and Carnegie Foundations vigorously voiced their concerns about the negative consequences that the poor quality of many these business schools might have on American companies, the economy and democracy as a whole. Through the Gordon-Howell and Pierson reports, both published in 1959, the Ford and Carnegie Foundations contributed to the standardization of MBA: they not only initiated a movement toward more rigorous management research, but also stressed the need for research relevant to business practice and practitioners (Khurana, 2010, Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015).

The consequences of these foundations' work for US business schools were threefold. Firstly, they changed hiring and promotion policies of research faculty so as to conform to the standards of major university-based disciplines (Khurana, 2010, Zell, 2001). Secondly, they developed theory-driven research, which led to more sophisticated quantitative data collection and analysis procedures, as well as to the inclusion of theory-driven materials in management education (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002, Juusola, Kettunen & Alajoutsijärvi, 2015, Augier, March &

Ni Sullivan, 2005). Thirdly, they contributed to the development of the business school's own body of knowledge and associated scientific conferences and journals (Khurana, 2010, Augier, March & Ni Sullivan, 2005).

It was not long before the MBA was in turn exported internationally. In the late 1960s, the Ford Foundation and several public US agencies began granting scholarships to hundreds of young European scholars for their doctoral studies at American universities (Thietart, 2009). During the same period, similar agencies also stimulated the creation of a European academic network by creating professional associations and encouraging knowledge transfer from US business schools to their European counterparts. Finally, newly created European institutions such as INSEAD developed a new orthodoxy, which in turn was incrementally adopted by other existing institutions (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002, Collet & Vives, 2012). In competing for international recognition, many European business schools accelerated the process of academic Americanization during the 1990s (Thietart, 2009, Durand & McGuire, 2005), a dynamic that was fostered by institutional factors such as international comparison through rankings and the proliferation of international accreditations (Thietart, 2009, Collet & Vives, 2012, Durand & McGuire, 2005). In the late 1990s, Chinese, Japanese and Indian business schools also switched to the MBA model (Collet & Vives, 2012).

Even before it had become the global standard, critics accused the MBA model of overemphasizing scientific rigor at the expense of practical relevance (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005). Quickly after the publication of the Gordon-Howell and Pierson reports, Simon (1967) insisted on the difficulty in finding a balance between knowledge inherited from both science and the professional realm. Later, Beyer's comments claiming that administrative science had *"little effect on life in organizations"* (Beyer, 1982, p. 588) initiated a long series of special journal issues dedicated to the rigor/relevance problem. Over time, debate continued to intensify and would find a powerful echo chamber in the 1993 Academy of Management presidential address, in which Hambrick denounced the incestuous closed loop of the academy and called for solutions for reconciling rigor and relevance (Hambrick, 1994). Since then, the

number of articles, opinion pieces and editorial statements dealing with the rigor/relevance problem have multiplied exponentially (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014).

The literature in question highlights several institutional factors that have contributed to the relevance problem. Among these factors, one can cite business schools' staffing policies, tenure and incentive systems and, at the industry-level, the ranking system that rewards business schools that focus on academic research at the expense of other activities (e.g. Pfeffer, 2007, Bennis & O'Toole, 2005, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, Druskat, 2005, McGrath, 2007, Podolny, Kester, Kerr, Sutton, Kaplan, Martin, McCabe, Wademan Dowling, M, Donovan, Breyfogle, James, Albion, Badaracco, Likierman, Korten, Cabrera & Murthy, 2009). Beyond analyzing business schools' failure to be relevant for practice and practitioners, scholars participating in the debate have also suggested solutions for making management research more relevant. Together, these contributions constitute the programmatic relevance literature (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015); however; over the years, various scholars have suggested that it has become trapped in deliberation and fails to suggest practical suggestions for implementation (Bartunek, 2011). Moreover, this literature is voluminous (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014) and fragmented (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015), which explains why its recommendations have yet to be implemented on a large-scale basis, making integrative systematic journal-content analysis necessary (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, Beyer & Trice, 1982, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010). As shown in Table 1, previous systematic analyses have explored the limitations of the programmatic relevance literature, and have accordingly made recommendations concerning rigor and relevance and developed research agendas aimed at understanding how academic knowledge is produced, disseminated and consumed.

Table 1: Synthesis of previous systematic journal-content analyses

Study Sample	Findings	Programmatic implications	Implications for research on knowledge utilization/consumption
Beyer & Trice (1982) 27 empirical studies concerned with the utilization of research	Limited utilization of organizational research. Both direct and indirect ways of knowledge processing. Risks of conflicts of interest involved with collaboration on dissemination. Differences in evaluation criteria between academia and practice.	Series of recommendations for making management research more relevant (e.g. developing dissemination strategies, not favoring the interest of specific stakeholders at the expense of others)	Improvement of research on knowledge utilization through both the study of obvious as well as subtle cases of uses and analyses of their consequences.
Nicolai & Seidl (2010) 133 articles, book chapters and books dealing on relevance. 450 research articles published in 3 leading journals.	Three forms of relevance (instrumental, conceptual, symbolic). Over-emphasis on the immediate and instrumental use of knowledge at the expense of conceptual relevance.	Management research should aim to enrich the practitioner's understanding of the decision situation (conceptual relevance).	Development of a research agenda dedicated to the topic of relevance.
Bartunek et Rynes (2014) 25 impactful books and articles on relevance	5 tensions within rigor/relevance debate (differing logics, time dimensions, communication practices, rigor and relevance, interests and incentives).	Instead of trying to (unsuccessfully) solve the research-practice gap, management scholars should reflect on the tensions they are experiencing.	Research agenda on the applicability of the 5 types of tensions identified, as well as on dialectics and paradox.

	Political forces, journals' special issues and ranking systems foster these tensions, thus creating paradoxes.		Reorientation of the rigor/relevance debate to study true academic-practitioner paradoxes by attending to the experiences of practitioners.
Kieser et al. (2015) Sample and sampling procedures not detailed; 288 references (books, book chapters, reports and articles from various outlets)	11 streams of thoughts within the rigor/relevance debate, which are described as ideological, uncritical and unscientific. 7 streams of research on the description of the rigor/relevance debate.	n/a	Shift in focus of the rigor/relevance debate from developing immediate solutions to a rigorous research program on how the results of scientific knowledge are utilized in management practice.

Little attention has been paid to the complementarity between these various solutions within the programmatic relevance literature. This said, the recognition and integration of these convergences is necessary if the rigor/relevance debate is to move from a series of individual commentaries towards a set of collective actions for making management research more relevant. In what follows, we will create such an integrative perspective by inductively categorizing the programmatic relevance literature into four typical strategies and by underlining areas of convergence.

3. Methods

This study complements previous systematic journal content analysis of the rigor/relevance debate. Our methodology consists of a systematic analysis of 253 articles, viewpoints, editorial statements, transcriptions and interviews, all published between 1994 and 2013, and all explicitly dealing with the practical relevance of management research. The following subsections detail our sampling and analytical procedures.

3. 1. Sampling Procedures

In his 1993 AOM presidential address (published in Academy of Management Review the following year), Hambrick (1994) emphasizes the need for management scholars to develop impactful contributions and proposes several changes for making the "academy matter." As this reflection ultimately paved the way to numerous contributions concerning the relevance of management research, we chose to set 1994 as the starting point for our journal content analysis.

We adopted a purposeful sampling procedure in selecting a limited set of outlets that appeared particularly interesting for analyzing the practical relevance debate. Subsequently, the list of outlets that we take into account was established gradually and includes 11 journals.

We first draw from journals that have received a "4" ranking from the Association of Business Schools[39] in both their General Management and Strategy categories, including the Academy of Management Journal, the Academy of Management Review, Administrative Science Quarterly, the British Journal of Management, the Harvard Business Review, the Journal of Management, the Journal of Management Studies and the Strategic Management Journal. When we first began to identify the journals in which the practical relevance debate was particularly intense, we made the decision to extend our list to include additional publications. This selection procedure led to the inclusion of Organization Studies, which dedicated a special issue on the topic in 2010 (vol. 31, n°9-10), as well as the Academy of Management Learning and Education, whose special issue from 2012 dealing with the relevance of management research proved especially pertinent (vol. 11, n°2).[40]

Finally, we decided to explore two additional outlets that touch both academics and practitioners: the MIT Sloan Management Review and the California Management Review. Nevertheless, only the California Management Review appeared to contain contributions related to the relevance of management research.

3. 2. Data Collection

We performed an initial data collection using the SCOPUS database. In doing so, we used descriptors related to the rigor/relevance debate when scanning the titles and abstracts.[41] After

[39] We initiated the Data Collection in 2013 and used the 2010 ABS Journal Quality Guide (version 4). Since then, ABS has released a new version of its Journal Quality Guide in which the General Management category also covers Ethics and Social Responsibility.

[40] The list of journals that have dedicated special issues dedicated to the rigor/relevance problem has extended significantly since 2000 (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014) making it impossible to include all possible outlets in a sample for a systematic analysis based on a full coding of papers. Consequently, forums and special issues published by the European Management Journal (2002), Human Resource Management (2004), Journal of Management Inquiry (2009), Journal of Applied Behavioral Science (2011), Journal of Business and Psychology (2011), Academy of Management Perspectives (2012), Management Learning (2012), and the Journal of Business Economics (2014) are not included in this analysis which in itself is a limitation of this study.

[41] TITLE-ABS (academic-practitioner OR (academic W/5 manager) OR (academic W/5 practitioner) OR "actionable research" OR "collaborative research projects" OR "evidence-based" OR "evidence-informed" OR (evidence W/2 based) OR "gap between theory and practice" OR "impact of management research" OR "mode 2" OR "practical knowledge" OR "practical relevance" OR "relevance bridge" OR "relevance debate" OR "relevance gap" OR "relevant to management" OR "relevant to management practice" OR "relevant to

having removed unrelated contributions from the sample, we were left with a selection of 89 articles.

Several factors left this initial data collection process incomplete. First, most of editorial statements, responses and viewpoints did not include abstracts. Second, as the terms used to frame the rigor/relevance debate are far from homogeneous, it is difficult to include each and every descriptor. Finally, journal issues that were published prior to 2006 are not systematically included in the SCOPUS database. Consequently, we performed a second-round of data collection to strengthen our data set. In doing so, the lead author systematically reviewed the titles and abstracts of all papers published in the sampled journal issues, paying specific attention to papers published in rigor/relevance special journal issues, editorial statements and responses to previously sampled articles. When an abstract was not available or entirely clear, he consulted and assessed the full article. During the analysis of the material, reference checks were systematically made in order to ensure that no major contribution was overlooked. This second round of data collection led to the inclusion of 164 additional articles.

Our final sample consists entirely of papers that deal explicitly with the topics of relevance of management research. This selection includes editorial statements, essays and theoretical papers, empirical papers and feedback (i.e. studies that report on the empirical findings of the rigor/relevance problem or that provide qualitative feedback for research projects aimed at solving it), literature meta-analysis, speeches and interviews, as well as viewpoints and commentaries. These selection criteria led to a sample consisting of a total of 253 contributions. Table 2 provides an overview of this sample (the extensive list of the sampled papers can be found in in Appendix 1).

practitioners" OR (relevance W/5 education) OR (relevance W/5 rigor) OR "research-practice gap" OR "rigor-relevance" OR "social usefulness" OR theory-application OR "translation problem" OR "useful to practice" OR "usefulness to practice" OR "useful research") AND ISSN (0001-4273 OR 1537-260x OR 0363-7425 OR 0001-8392 OR 1045-3172 OR 0008-1256 OR 0017-8012 OR 1467-6486 OR 1557-1211 OR 1741-3044 OR 1097-0266)

Table 2: Sample overview

	Editorial statements *e.g. Clark & Wright* (2009)	**Empirical papers and feedbacks** *e.g. Tushman et al.* (2007)	**Essays and theoretical papers** *e.g. Avenier* (2010)	**Literature meta-analysis** *e.g. Bartunek and Rynes* (2010)	**Speeches and interviews** *e.g. Tsui* (2013)	**Viewpoints and commentaries** *e.g. Hodgkinson and Rousseau* (2008)	**Total**
Academy of Management Journal (AMJ)	17	5	0	0	0	32	**54**
Academy of Management Learning and Education (AMLE)	3	8	10	3	3	16	**43**
Academy of management Review (AMR)	9	0	3	1	15	7	**35**
Administrative Science Quarterly (ASQ)	2	0	0	0	0	5	**7**
British Journal of Management (BJM)	6	10	12	0	0	22	**50**
California Management Review (CMR)	0	0	3	0	0	0	**3**
Harvard Business Review (HBR)	1	0	3	0	0	2	**6**
Journal of Management Studies (JMS)	5	2	5	0	0	17	**29**
Journal of Management (JOM)	3	2	0	0	0	0	**5**
Organization Studies (OS)	3	3	8	1	0	2	**17**
Strategic Management Journal (SMJ)	3	0	0	0	0	1	**4**
Total *Total expressed in percentages*	**52** *20,6%*	**30** *11,9%*	**44** *17,4%*	**5** *2%*	**18** *7,1%*	**104** *41,1%*	**253** *100%*

Our sample principally includes papers published in academic journals, a consequence of both the journal-selection procedure that we adopted (9 journals out of 11 are aimed at academics) and the tendency of the rigor/relevance debate to be led by academics rather than by practitioners. That said, however, a handful of the sampled articles are authored or co-authored by practitioners (Starkey & Madan, 2001, Podolny, Kester, Kerr, Sutton, Kaplan, Martin, McCabe, Wademan Dowling, M, Donovan, Breyfogle, James, Albion, Badaracco, Likierman, Korten, Cabrera & Murthy, 2009, Amabile, Patterson, Mueller, Wojcik, Odomirok, Marsh & Kramer, 2001, Cohen, 2007, Ouchi, Riordan, Lingle & Porter, 2005, Saari, 2007, Tushman, apos & Reilly, 2007). Moreover, viewpoints and commentaries (41,1%), editorial statements (20,6%) and essays/theoretical papers (17,4%) appear to be the most prominent categories in our sample. This reflects the tendency of the rigor/relevance debate to be dominated by non-empirical contributions (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, Beyer & Trice, 1982). Our sample is also consistent with Bartunek and Rynes' observation that the *"number of articles that address a gap of some type between management academia and practice [have] considerably [increased] since 2000"* (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, p. 1183).

3. 3. Data Analysis

Following this data collection, we inductively analyzed our sample. This analysis was jointly performed by the two co-authors using the computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software, NVivo 10. Based on Richard's (2009) recommendations, our data analysis consisted of a 3-step process with the goal of moving from a descriptive coding scheme to a more analytical one.

Table 3: Data analysis overview

Stages	Analytical goals	Analytical outcomes
Descriptive coding	Indexing information about the documents we analyzed (type, journal, year, etc.) Indexing information about the authors of the papers (name, gender, last-known affiliation, etc.)	Collection of information for cross-comparison and quantification.

Topic coding	Emerging coding used in order to organize and decipher the material (Richards, 2009; Saldana, 2012). Topic coding also enabled comparisons between articles and thus, progressive conceptualization. Memo-writing to summarize each article.	Identification of 11 recurring issues: - Relevance (definition) - Rigor (definition) - What management is - Targets of management research - Scholars' mission(s) - Types of contributions - Origins of the rigor/relevance problem - Solutions - Papers' implications for practice sections - Ontology and epistemology - Management education and teaching
Analytical coding	Progressive conceptualization. Construction of a taxonomy of 4 unique types of responses to the rigor/relevance problem. Identification of properties for each type.	Final coding scheme.
Stages	**Analytical goals**	**Analytical outcomes**
Descriptive coding	Indexing information about the documents we analyzed (type, journal, year, etc.) Indexing information about the authors of the papers (name, gender, last know affiliation, etc.)	Collection of information for cross-comparison and quantification.
Topic coding	Emerging coding used in order to organize and decipher the material (Richards, 2009; Saldana, 2012). Topic coding also enabled comparisons between articles and thus, progressive conceptualization. Memo-writing to summarize each article.	Identification of 11 recurring issues: - Relevance (definition) - Rigor (definition) - What management is - Targets of management research - Scholars' mission(s) - Types of contributions - Origins of the rigor/relevance problem - Solutions - Papers' implications for practice sections - Ontology and epistemology - Management education and teaching
Analytical coding	Progressive conceptualization. Construction of a taxonomy of 4 unique types of responses to the rigor/relevance problem. Identification of properties for each type.	Final coding scheme.

We began our data analysis with a descriptive coding, which typically involves collecting and organizing *"information about the cases being studied"* (Richards, 2009: 95). This procedure is not a matter of interpreting specific segments of data, but rather is concerned with connecting information to entire cases or documents. During this initial stage, we added to the information provided by bibliographic databases by defining a "type" for each paper (see Table 1 for an overview of the resulting categories) and journal and by establishing a distinction between European and US journals.

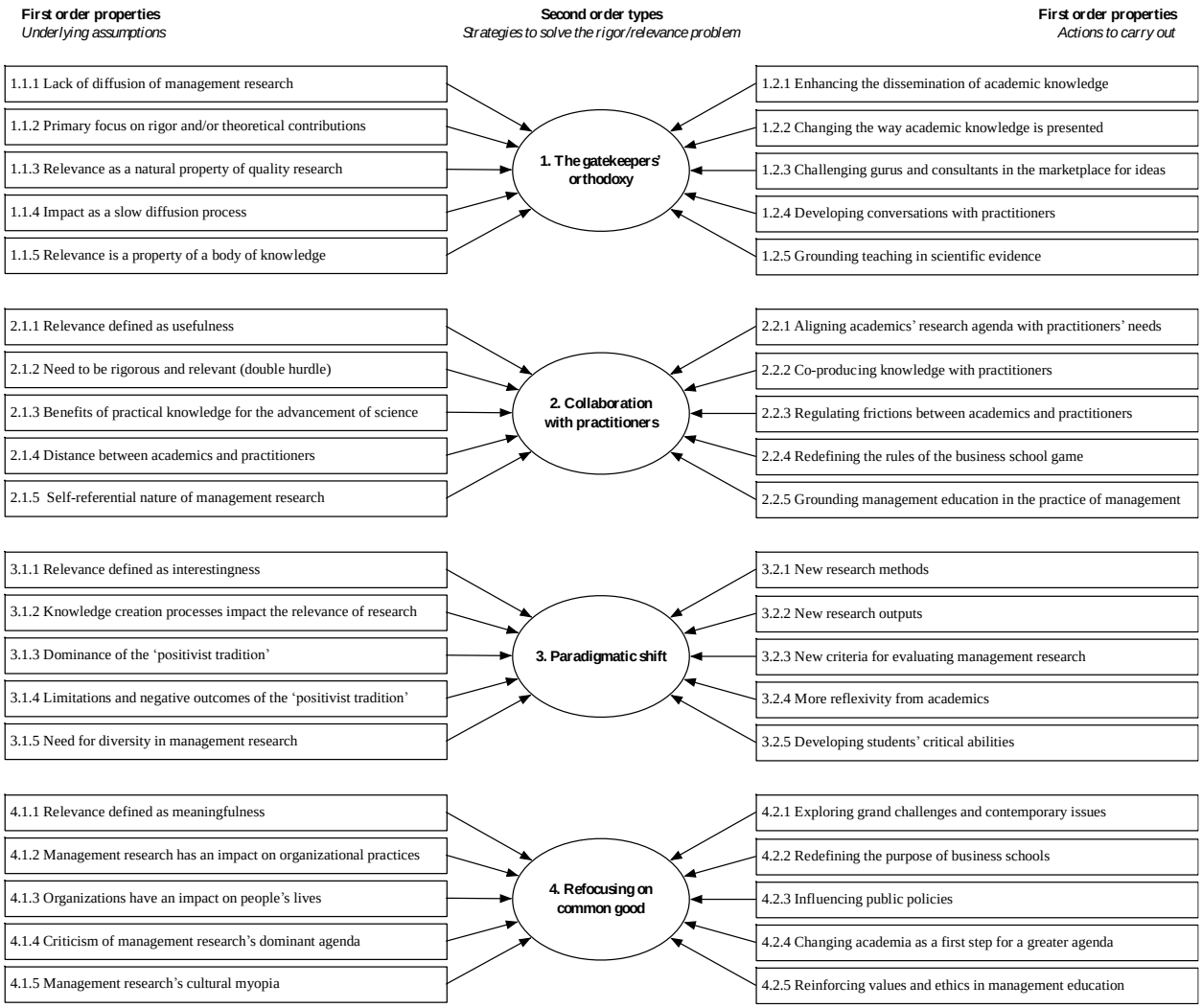
We then inductively and collaboratively performed topic coding. The goal of this procedure was to identify the themes of the sample's papers. Generally, this step *"usually involves little interpretation*" (Richards, 2009, p. 100), but instead enables a progressive understanding and deciphering of the data (Saldaña, 2012). At the beginning of this analysis, we first established an initial list of categories. We then independently coded 10 different papers and enriched this initial list by adding additional categories. Ultimately, we agreed on a stabilized topic-coding scheme comprised of 11 main categories (see Table 2 for the final list of topic codes). These categories were used to summarize all of the papers in the sample by means of a collaborative memo and also provided us with a starting point for further analysis and interpretation.

In moving from a rather descriptive approach of coding to a more analytical one, we used analytical coding as a tool for viewing data from a higher level of abstraction and for developing a more interpretive approach to the coding process.

We subsequently re-labeled and re-organized certain topic sub-categories, which in turn became first-order properties of our emerging taxonomy. This taxonomy is thus the collaborative product of the two authors' recursive analytic process. Moreover, the coding process was largely inspired by the "Gioia method" (Gioia, Corley & Hamilton, 2013, Langley & Abdallah, 2011). Marginally, it involved a number of grounded-theory analytical techniques such as *constant comparison* and *in vivo* coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), the latter consisting of the creation of codes using the language that appears in the data. As this process was a purely interpretive approach, we did not seek inter-coder agreement, but instead discussed our differences of opinion in order to reach an agreement. The final coding scheme (Figure 1) is

comprised of four second-order types that represent different strategies for dealing with the rigor/relevant problem.

Figure 1: Final coding scheme

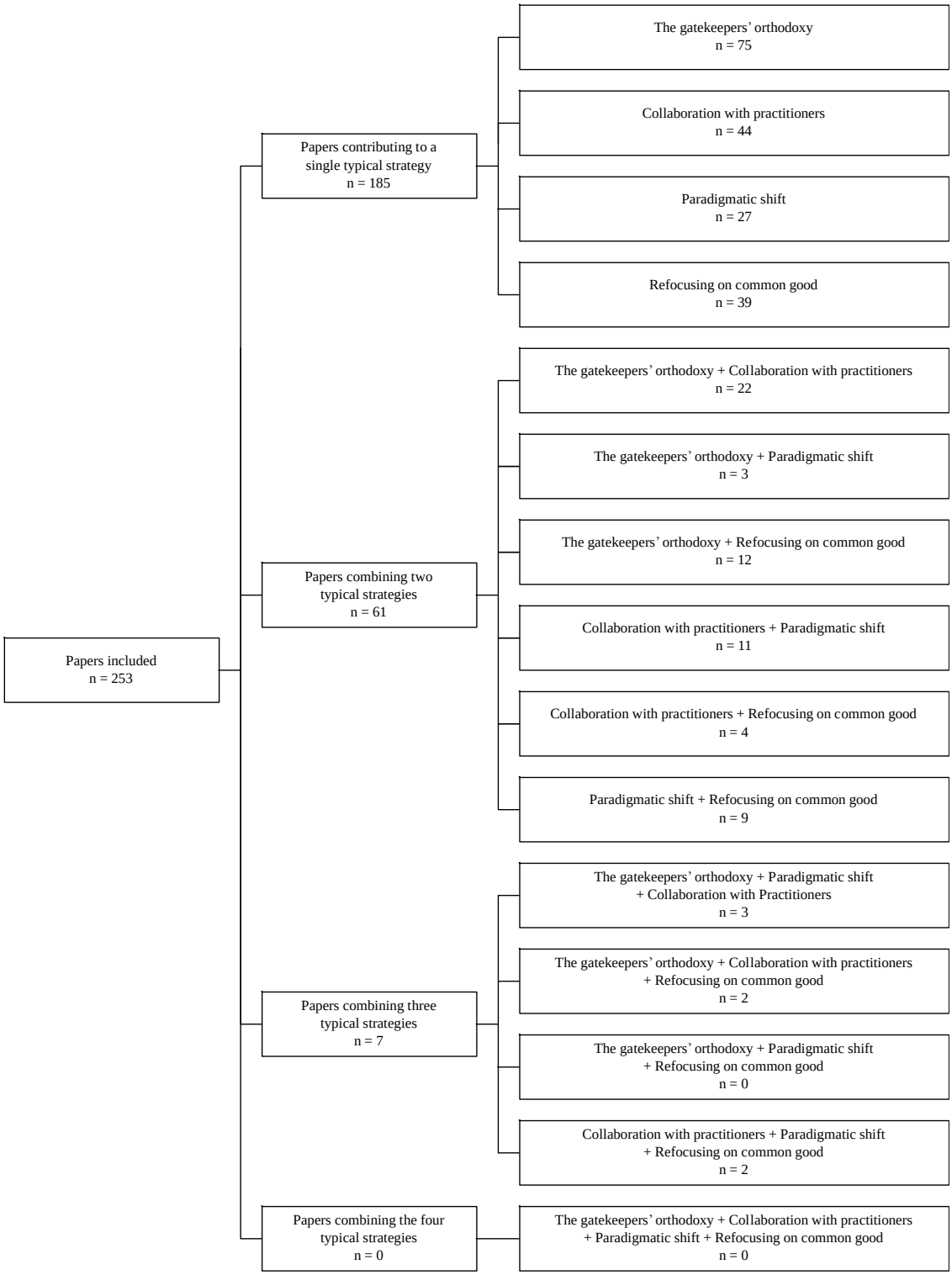


4. Four Typical Strategies for Making Management Research more Relevant

Our analysis allowed us to identify four typical strategies for solving the rigor/relevance problem: (1) the gatekeepers' orthodoxy, (2) collaboration with practitioners, (3) paradigmatic shift and (4) refocusing on common good. These results are summarized in Figure 2. As these strategies are ideal types, they do not cover all of the properties and singularities of each and every individual contribution. Instead, they provide a framework geared towards overcoming the fragmented nature of the rigor/relevance debate by stressing the core characteristics of each strategy. In the sections that follow, we present each type along with a set of illustrative excerpts from our sample (additional illustrative quotations are presented in Appendix 2). We

then analyze the evolution of the rigor/relevance debate, thus highlighting the complementarity between the four typical strategies and developing an integrative programmatic framework for making management research more relevant.

Figure 2: Number of articles per typical strategies



4. 1. The Gatekeepers' Orthodoxy

The most influential strategy used in solving the rigor/relevance problem involves the editors of top-tier journals and the scholars who frequently publish through these outlets. Drawing on Smith (2008), we label this conventional approach to management research as the "gatekeepers' orthodoxy".

In its attempt to solve the rigor/relevance problem, the gatekeepers' orthodoxy underlines the need to disseminate academic knowledge to audiences outside of academia. As former Journal of Management editors Tim Clark, Steven Floyd and Mike Wright state, *"the body of recent management research that speaks to relevant managerial problems has had little impact on practice, tending to be ignored in the media"* (Clark, Floyd & Wright, 2013, p. 1369). A few years earlier, Sarah Rynes, Tamara Giluk and Kenneth Brown made the same diagnosis at an AMJ Special Forum: *"It is hardly news that many organizations do not implement practices that research has shown to be positively associated with employee productivity and firm financial performance"* (Rynes, Giluk & Brown, 2007, p. 987). However, the analysis of the editorial statements published in top-tier journals highlights the strong belief among editors that this limited dissemination is not a direct result of the content of management research, which they feel should remain conceptual in nature. Even when the mission statements formulated by top-tiers outlets frequently mention the need to inform – and sometimes improve – the practice of management, their editors and contributors continue to focus on contributions to management theory. For example, in an editorial statement published in 2005, former ASQ editor Stephen R. Barley called for fresh theoretical insights in the following terms: *"ASQ welcomes and will publish papers whose contribution is primarily or wholly theoretical. We encourage members of the organizational studies community to view ASQ as an outlet for their theoretical work"* (Barley, 1995, p. 330). Even if the practical implications of research are cited as something that should be present in papers, these implications ultimately play a secondary role and do not always appear to be mandatory for publication. As former BJM editor Rolph Van Dick explained, *"we* [BJM editorial team] *are looking for papers advancing theory! This means that although papers should – wherever possible – also provide implications for practice, we are clearly not an outlet aimed at practitioners"* (Van Dick, 2008, p. 2).

These statements should not be interpreted to represent a lack of interest in the practice of management. As such statements frequently draw on Kurt Lewin's famous dictum, *"There is nothing more practical than a good theory,"* scholars who embrace the gatekeepers' orthodoxy do not position science in opposition to practice; instead, they insist on the need for conducting rigorous, theory-oriented research as a precursor for laying claim to any sort of practical implications. As Markides (2007, p. 765) asks: *"How many popular beliefs or ideas have gained managerial attention in the last 20 years, only to be debunked as half-truths or even total errors [...]?"* In this same vein, SMJ founder and former editor-in-chief Dan Schendel has vehemently defended the idea that practical relevance can only emerge from rigorously conducted research, stating that *"research in this field should not be speculation, opinion, or clever journalism; it should be about producing replicable work from which conclusions can be drawn independently of whoever does the work or applies the work result*." Furthermore, "*if researchers can accomplish their work in this way, practitioners will find these pages, and all of our research, more useful to know"* (Schendel, 1995, p. 2). In fact, scholars who promote the gatekeepers' orthodoxy often consider quality research to be synonymous with relevance.

Building on this line of argumentation, some editors maintain that the most efficient way to improve the relevance of management research is to make sure that quality research is produced and published, for example, by giving authors developmental feedback during the review process (e.g. Clark, Floyd & Wright, 2013, Brief & Bazerman, 2003, Schendel, 2002). However, strong theoretical contributions are often described as necessary but not sufficient. In fact, as a paper's practical impact relies on practitioners' adoption of its suggestions, the process of the dissemination of research practice is likely to be a slow one (e.g. Bartunek & Rynes, 2010, Lee, 2009). Additionally, it would be extremely difficult to measure the practical impact of each and every individual contribution. As such, relevance is often the result of the accumulation of evidence within bodies of knowledge that are relevant for practitioners in the long run (e.g. Markides, 2007, Beech, MacIntosh & MacLean, 2010). Whether reached by individual studies or through entire scientific fields, relevance can only be detected ex post. Much as Greve maintains, *"an article does not have to be actionable immediately – or ever – in order to be valuable. Research expands the frontiers of our knowledge but [...] we cannot know the value of knowledge we do not have yet"* (Greve, 2012, p. 272).

For those that promote the gatekeepers' orthodoxy, embracing a traditional approach to management research does not necessitate a denial of the lack of the diffusion of academic knowledge. In fact, such individuals recognize that management research has failed to reach non-academics, despite it being interesting and/or rigorously conducted. For example, Gopinath and Hoffman have noted that *"CEOs simply do not read publications containing strategic management research with sufficient regularity to obtain a good sampling of the current research available"* (Gopinath & Hoffman, 1995, p. 588). The causes for such unfortunate circumstances can be found principally outside of academia; mainstream media and news magazines are often accused of not paying enough attention to management research (e.g. Clark, Floyd & Wright, 2013, Guest, 2007), and practitioners often have limited access to academic outlets, and as such, they rarely explore the academic literature for valuable knowledge (e.g. Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007). These external causes are further complicated by two factors on which academics can directly work: the presentation of academic knowledge (e.g. Boland Jr, Singh, Salipante, Aram, Fay & Kanawattanachai, 2001) and the use of academic jargon (e.g. Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007, DeNisi, 1994). In order to chase the *"relevance ghost [that] continues to haunt [academics] from one conference to another"* (Cummings, 2007, p. 356), scholars who promote the gatekeepers' orthodoxy advocate three main paths.

First, they urge academics to more efficiently promote the outcomes of their studies outside of academia. In fact, there seems to be a general consensus on the idea that *"academics do not 'blow their own trumpet' loudly enough"* (Hughes, Bence, Grisoni, apos, Regan & Wornham, 2011, p. 40). In order to do so, academics are encouraged to explore new dissemination platforms (such as general/business magazines and dissemination journals), and to develop more efficient public relations strategies. Additionally, promoters of the gatekeepers' orthodoxy often underline the need for academics to be more present outside of academia (Hambrick, 2005). To do so, they are encouraged to participate in (or even host) radio, TV and online TV shows (e.g. Cummings, 2007, Hitt, 1998), to launch new research initiatives (e.g. Guest, 2007), and to write online summaries of their research findings (e.g. Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007, Rousseau, 2007) and/or extensive reviews that synthesize and articulate their research evidence (e.g. Tranfield, Denyer & Smart, 2003). Nevertheless, such initiatives could only be effective if they make the current presentation of academic knowledge

more "practitioner-friendly". As DeNisi (1994, p. 465) points out, *"maybe one of the things we can do is to write more clearly and more simply."* This would imply giving up the use of passive voice, using more concrete examples, telling stories and anecdotes, and introducing more metaphors (e.g. Aldag, 2012). Unfortunately, as Saari (2007) notices, such advise is rarely given to PhD students during their training.

Second, academics are invited to compete more aggressively with management gurus, journalists and consultants in the marketplace. The poor diffusion of management research has left an empty space for what promoters of the gatekeepers' orthodoxy describe as false theories, anecdotal evidence and quick fixes. Nevertheless, such competition cannot come at the expense of scientific rigor, which is sometimes described as academia's competitive advantage against consulting firms (e.g. Cummings, 2007). Therefore, academics are urged not to mimic consulting firms, but rather, to move closer to the field and to communicate with its practitioners. As Hambrick (1994, p. 14) suggests, *"our professional divisions should be encouraged, possibly with seed money, to conduct joint conferences with practitioners organizations in their respective domains."* It must be noted that these initiatives do not rely on the co-production of knowledge with practitioners. Instead, the process that is described here remains largely top-down: the role of academics is to inform practitioners by translating scientific evidence into a more accessible language and by diffusing it through more convenient and understandable channels. However, these strategies might also see academics addressing practitioners' issues before embarking on research projects in order to understand if their findings will resonate with these individuals (e.g. Vermeulen, 2007).

Third, contributions supporting the gatekeepers' orthodoxy lean on management education for the diffusion of academic knowledge. As Rousseau (2012, p. 612) pleads, *"if we fail to help students unlearn false beliefs, their capacity to acquire valid knowledge is diminished"* Unlike corporate training facilities such as the McDonalds' "Hamburger University", which is exclusively concerned with practical managerial instruction (Kilduff & Kelemen, 2001), academic business schools should deliver a management education that is anchored in rigorous, up-to-date research rather than in folk wisdom or outdated frameworks. As Pearce's 2003 Academy of Management presidential address notes, some academics experience a sense of frustration about the nature of their teaching: *"In the classroom, I fear I rarely have been completely open and honest about what I am doing—recycling and*

recombining the experiences, hunches, and anecdotes of others" she regrets (Pearce, 2004, p. 177). Accordingly, there is a need to redefine the content of management education. This idea resonates with the concepts of Evidence-based management and Evidence-based teaching, which both claim to *"[refocus] management education on evidence [and promise] improved managerial decision making and better organizational outcomes"* (Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007, p. 84). By adopting this perspective, management educators would no longer be forced to endorse the role of in-class management gurus, but would instead act as curators and facilitate access to rigorous academic knowledge (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2007). Such a transition would not be easy to accomplish. In addition to labeling academic concepts in a way that catches students' attention, Evidence-based management involves educating management trainers using the most recently available evidence. As shown by the 2007 AMLE debate around Pfeffer and Sutton's Evidence-based management essay (Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007, Pfeffer & Sutton, 2007, Ashkanasy, 2007) and by other commentary (e.g. Rousseau, 2006; Starkey & Madan, 2001), such integration of academic knowledge is made difficult by the continuous accumulation of academic knowledge, by the sometimes conflicting findings academics produce and by the fragmentation of their research.

The purpose of the gatekeepers' orthodoxy is to develop solutions for making academic knowledge more accessible to practitioners, and accordingly, it relies on actions associated with translation and dissemination. That said, our analysis also revealed three other typical strategies aimed at enhancing the relevance of management research; however, it should be noted that these three strategies all share a common characteristic regarding how they frame the rigor/relevance problem. None of the three consider that management research's lack of relevance is due to its being *"lost in translation"*. Rather, these strategies highlight *"lost before translation"* issues (Shapiro, Kirkman & Courtney, 2007). By questioning both the content and production processes of management research, they provide alternative courses of action for making management research more relevant.

4. 2. Collaboration with Practitioners

The second strategy is founded on the idea that scholars should not only diffuse their ideas to practitioners, but that they should also collaborate more closely with these individuals

through research projects. This strategy includes (but is not limited to) approaches such as engaged scholarship, Mode 2, action research and intervention research.

Instead of considering practical and academic knowledge to be antagonistic, those advocating for increased collaboration between scholar and practitioners aim to move beyond what they consider to be a false dichotomy. Consequently, they encourage management scholars to simultaneously be rigorous and relevant[42] and not to allow one of these standards to eclipse the other. *"The solution* [to the rigor/relevance problem]*,"* Gulati suggests, *"is to accept that rigor and relevance are not opposites after all"* (Gulati, 2007, p. 780). Van de Ven and Johnson (2006: 803) add that *"to say that the knowledge of theory and practice are different is not to say that they stand in opposition or they substitute for each other; rather, they complement one another."* Even though there are instances in which contributors and editors of top-tier academic journals have encouraged academic-practitioner collaboration (e.g. Brown, 2011, Rynes, 2005, Rynes, 2007), this approach is most overtly present in the Harvard Business Review. As explained by its former editor Nan Stone, *"HBR applies two standards that have served readers well for many years: intellectual integrity and managerial relevance"* (Stone, 1994, p. 16).

The scholars that insist on the need for academics to collaborate with practitioners often agree with the diagnosis made by the gatekeepers' orthodoxy concerning the lack of dissemination of academic knowledge among practitioners; however, they describe this poor understanding as unilateral rather than as reciprocal. As Pearce (2004) laments, academics fail to appreciate practitioners' tacit knowledge. Before envisioning how one might be able to better communicate and translate their findings, it is necessary for management scholars to first recognize that management practice is an equally valuable source of knowledge. *"Managers' and other practitioners' knowledge may often precede academics' knowledge,"* Bartunek (2007, p. 1328) explains. In this same vein, Balogun, Huff and Johnson (2003, p. 201) claim that *"knowledge is produced in organizations, not just in universities."*

[42] Pettigrew introduced the concept of "double hurdles" in 1995 during his Distinguished Scholar Address to the Organization and Management Theory Division of the Academy of Management. The address was later reproduced (Pettigrew, 1997).

This mutual misunderstanding creates a situation in which *"theory-driven generation and testing of knowledge and management practice have canonically been seen as separate endeavours"* (Jarzabkowski, Mohrman & Scherer, 2010, p. 1189). This state of affairs is not specific to management research; in fact, the field of economics is also isolated from the real world (Coase, 2012). Similarly, scholars who promote academic-practitioner collaboration have questioned the causes of the unsatisfying articulation between research and practice. Beyond the institutional and historical contexts already discussed in this paper, these scholars identify limiting factors such as the lack of spaces dedicated to socialization and events, the lack of *"positive emotional connections"* between people from different institutional communities (Bartunek, 2007, p. 1327), the at times radically differing mindsets of managers and academics (e.g. Cascio, 2007, Mohrman, Gibson & Jr, 2001), and the diametrically opposed expectations of the two target audiences (e.g. Cohen, 2007, Hughes, Bence, Grisoni, apos, Regan & Wornham, 2011, Thorpe, Eden, Bessant & Ellwood, 2011). This said, however, a more direct explanation can be found when one considers academics' research agendas. For Balogun, Huff & Johnson (2003), scholars from the field of strategy tend to focus on macro-level and formal processes, whereas real-life strategizing relies on micro-practices and processes. Podolny (2009, p. 63) expresses the same idea more vigorously: *"I'm angry that many academics aren't curious about what really goes on inside companies."* In fact, academics seem more prone to be guided by *"knowledge for the sake of knowledge"* (Druskat, 2005, p. 952) than by an intrinsic motivation to understand practice and to produce relevant (or useful) knowledge. As Latham remarks, *"the fault is not in the stars, but in ourselves"* (Latham, 2007, p. 1031). This tendency is also encouraged by structural and administrative elements, such as academics' incentive and tenure systems, as well as other issues concerning career advancement (e.g. Clark & Wright, 2009, Lambrechts, Bouwen, Grieten, Huybrechts & Schein, 2011, Tatli, 2012). Accordingly, significant adjustments need to be made to the ways by which research is conducted as well as to the conditions in which it is produced.

On a more immediate level, those who embrace this collaborative agenda have in turn suggested two complementary solutions for overcoming the rigor/relevance gap. First, they assert that academic research topics grapple with the issues that practitioners regularly encounter. Among the scholars who speak in favor of a more practitioner-based research agenda, one can cite Gulati, who suggests that *"by probing more deeply into the problems and*

other issues that managers care about, we can naturally align our interests with more practice-relevant research, without sacrificing rigor." In the same vein, Balogun, Huff and Johnson (2003, p. 201) uphold the idea that *"an agenda that is set with and by managers is more likely to be relevant to the organization"*. A number of scholars that promote collaboration with practitioners have suggested lists of topics that are of practical-interest (e.g. Bell, Den Ouden & Ziggers, 2006 on alliances and cooperation); however, the vast majority of these scholars agree on the need for co-constructing research agendas with practitioners so as to ensure the research's relevance. From a collaborative perspective, the co-production of knowledge (between academics and practitioners) appears to be the main solution for enhancing the practical relevance of management research, Much as Schoemaker (2008, p. 135) voices, *"Strategic alliances beyond academia constitute [a] promising avenue."* This claim echoes Van de Ven and Johnson's (2006) concept of engaged scholarship, in which researchers and practitioners work jointly and more generally with the Mode 2 approach, enabling them to challenge the classical approach to diffusing academic knowledge among practitioners (e.g. Tranfield & Starkey, 1998, Bartunek, 2011, MacLean, MacIntosh & Grant, 2002).

As promising as the co-production of knowledge might be, it remains a difficult task to accomplish. Academics and practitioners come from different worlds, making collaborative research projects the breeding ground for misunderstanding and conflict. As Mohrman, Gibson and Mohrman explain (2001, pp. 370-371), *"creating a social system that fosters and houses collaboration between the two different thought worlds violates the norms of both communities."* As such, detailed accounts of Mode 2 and action research projects appear to be a valuable source of information (Amabile, Patterson, Mueller, Wojcik, Odomirok, Marsh & Kramer, 2001, Mohrman, Gibson & Jr, 2001, Mitev & Venters, 2009, Swan, Bresnen, Robertson, Newell & Dopson, 2010). Beyond other context-specific conclusions, these contributions not only insist on the need for both communities to remain open-minded, but also encourage the creation of procedures intended to regulate the friction between academics and practitioners.

Even the most well intentioned individuals may face institutional constraints that hamper cooperation. For example, Tushman and his colleagues maintain *"that [a] form of engaged scholarship, where faculty and thoughtful practitioners coproduce knowledge and practice is both undervalued and underleveraged within business schools and in the larger*

academy" (Tushman, Fenollosa, McGrath, O'Reilly & Kleinbaum, 2007, p. 357). Similarly, many scholars consider that the evolution of the rules of the business-school game is the prerequisite for the wider adoption of collaborative research designs. Three levels of action coexist within this viewpoint. The first of these has been the call to improve the ranking and accreditation systems (e.g. Podolny, 2009); however, the fact that *"it is scarcely in the interests of the schools winning the competitive war for status to change the rules"* has led Pfeffer and Fong (2002, p. 91) to question the possibility of such an evolution. Second, the faculty-management policies adopted by business schools appear to overemphasize the importance of orthodox and abstract academic research at the expense of equally rigorous collaborative research, teaching and other activities, such as consulting. As Lawler (2007, p. 1037) laments, *"every assistant professor at a major university knows that achieving tenure depends on having the right number of papers published in 'A' journals, [and] not on doing research that influences practice."* As a result, there is a need to reform the tenure system and faculty incentives so as to enhance the relevance of management research and to develop faculty members' managerial experience (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005, Wren, Buckley & Michaelsen, 1994). Finally, scholars' mindsets and the ways in which they define their own scholarship must evolve. As Van de Ven and Johnson explain, Engaged scholarship and other collaborative efforts imply *"a fundamental shift in how scholars define their relationships with the communities which they are located, including (...) practitioners in relevant professional domains"* (Van De Ven & Johnson, 2006, p. 809).

As with the strategy based on the diffusion of academic knowledge, collaboration with practitioners also has consequences for management education. A starting point for this context could be to revise the content taught by management educators so that it better corresponds with the expectations of practitioners and students alike (e.g. Rubin & Dierdorff, 2009). Consequently, one could expect that reorienting management research to concentrate on issues that matter to practitioners would have a positive impact on management education. *"If too little of our research is relevant for practicing managers,"* Pearce and Huang argue (2012, p. 300), "*it will not be of use in our teaching."* Nevertheless, the collaborative strategy also enables one to consider an iterative process in which relevant knowledge would not only be diffused to students, but that would also be improved by their feedback, especially in the

context of executive education (Pearce & Huang, 2012, Tushman, Fenollosa, McGrath, O'Reilly & Kleinbaum, 2007).

The promoters of the collaborative strategy also plead for a greater balance between theory and its application in management education. Much in the same way that *"expecting students to learn to apply concepts by listening to someone else's examples would be like expecting them to be able to ski after having watched the Winter Olympics on television"* (Wren, Buckley & Michaelsen, 1994, p. 152), the application of research should not be limited to anecdotes and case studies. Part of these applications can be outsourced through internships, which offer practical experience and *"are often a route to employment"* (A. S. Huff, 2000: 291). On the other hand, a better balance between theory and practice might also come as the result of a general revising of the interactions between educators and students so as to enable students to practically apply and experiment theories through real-life management situations (Wren, Buckley & Michaelsen, 1994, Knights, 2008, Wren, Halbesleben & Buckley, 2007). Business games (Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007), problem-centered teaching approaches (Schoemaker, 2008), action-oriented executive education programs (Tushman, Fenollosa, McGrath, O'Reilly & Kleinbaum, 2007) and service-learning projects that combine academic knowledge with students' practical experimentation with business mentors (Van de Ven & Zlotkowski, 2005) are four examples of such initiatives that help to reinforce practice in the context of management education.

To implement such solutions, business schools are encouraged to invite *"speakers from the industry and government to add richness and context"* (Schoemaker, 2008, p. 127). More importantly, they might also aim to balance departments with both academic faculty members and executive professors (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002, Schoemaker, 2008, Clinebell & Clinebell, 2008). This would not only have an impact on management education, but would also enable further collaboration between academics and practitioners, ultimately making management research more relevant.

4. 3. Paradigmatic Shift

The third strategy revealed by our systematic analysis relates to a paradigmatic shift. Championed predominantly by European scholars, this approach not only insists on the need to include multiple actors in the research production process, but also questions the nature of

management research by revealing its (sometimes tacit) assumptions. As Avenier (2010, p. 1230) claims, *"the widespread, implicit belief among scholars* [is] *that science has to be founded on positivist or realist epistemologies."* Similarly, Tranfield and Starkey reflect that *"management research has too often been viewed as research in the physical sciences*," explaining that such a paradigm is *"guided by a belief in the existence of universal laws"* (Tranfield & Starkey, 1998, p. 353). Those who call for a paradigmatic shift link management research's lack of relevance to the processes that guide its production. The rigor/relevance problem is thus presented as a negative – but nevertheless predictable – consequence of the positivist tradition within academia. *"In contrast to the conventional emphasis on knowledge diffusion,"* Knights and Scarbrough explain, "*our focus here is on developing better theory on the production of relevant knowledge, recognizing that the conditions under which knowledge is produced are central to its exploitation within the domain of practice"* (Knights & Scarbrough, 2010, p. 1287). In so far as it makes relevant research interesting for both academics and practitioners alike, the paradigmatic shift strategy consists of four building blocks: (1) a deconstruction of the model inherited from the physical sciences; (2) a claim for increased diversity in management research; (3) the introduction of a new paradigm; (4) a series of actions necessary for enabling this new paradigm to thrive.

Several issues are frequently mentioned in attempts to "debunk" the model presented by the physical sciences, and while such critics are far from being unified in their vision, a number of convergences can be cited. Scholars promoting a paradigmatic shift collectively oppose favoring management research and its scientific rationality over practical knowledge (e.g. Chia & Holt, 2008, Sandberg & Tsoukas, 2011, Starbuck, 2007). As a consequence, management scholars typically pay little attention to the many ways practitioners adapt and put knowledge into practice. Instead, they consider their theories to be final, immutable products (Gabriel, 2002). Accordingly, former Organization Studies editors Tsoukas, Garud and Hardy claim that scholars are *"much more aware now of the profoundly social, historically shaped, and context-dependent nature of organizations, and the processes through which organization emerges"* (Tsoukas, Garud & Hardy, 2003, p. 1007). In line with this statement, the physical-science model has been accused of perpetuating an outdated conception of rationality that pays little attention to historical and contextual factors (e.g. Tsoukas, Garud & Hardy, 2003, Newton, 2010). Finally, the dominant paradigm is blamed for its tendency to favor description

over prescription (e.g. Starkey, Hatchuel & Tempest, 2009, Van Aken, 2004, Van Aken, 2005), which is sometimes related to scholars' lack of engagement with the field (e.g. Zundel & Kokkalis, 2010). These limitations lead the promoters of a paradigmatic shift to discredit the dominant approach through a questioning of its predisposition to quantitative methods. For example, Starbuck notes that *"the rituals of academic research, including statistical significance tests and editorial decision making, are smothering potentially useful research"* (Starbuck, 2007, p. 1246). More fundamentally, these limitations also call the nature of both management practice and management research into question. Starkey and Tempest for example have encouraged academics to *"remake the case that management is as much an art as a science and to look to the arts and humanities for lessons to guide us through our current difficult times"* (Starkey, Hatchuel & Tempest, 2009, p. 576).

In order to offset the overwhelming influence of the positivist tradition, academics advocating for a paradigmatic shift have underlined the need for a broader conception of management research. Starkey, Hatchuel and Tempest (2009, p. 548) lament that *"management research lacks pluralism and diversity because it is obsessively self-centered."* In this regard, the paradigmatic shift strategy contradicts Pfeffer's (1993) call for consensus and cumulative knowledge: *"This view has been contested, even in the USA where, to the non-American, journals do seem to be characterized by a dominant orthodoxy based upon positivism and functionalism,"* Tranfield and Starkey (1998, p. 343) explain. Several editorial statements from top-tier American journals also support this assertion. For example, former Administrative Science Quarterly editor Donald Palmer (2006, p. 552) maintains that *"diverse ways of apprehending behavior in and of organizations will expand the range and depth of our understanding of organizational behavior."*

This claim for pluralism among management research has led to the development of alternative research paradigms. In order to create tipping points, scholars have forged a number of different paths, such as design science (e.g. Starkey, Hatchuel & Tempest, 2009, Van Aken, 2004, Van Aken, 2005, Hodgkinson & Healey, 2008, Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2012, Starbuck, 2004), critical realism (e.g. Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2012), critical management studies (e.g. Sandberg & Tsoukas, 2011), knowledge by exemplification (e.g. Chia & Holt, 2008), and theorizing as engaged practice (e.g. Zundel & Kokkalis, 2010). While these options differ in numerous ways, they share a common characteristic in that they all attempt to redefine the

notion of science in the field of management studies either by outlining the assumptions of the orthodoxy in question, clarifying a specific epistemological paradigm, or by developing a disruptive approach to management research. Furthermore, some contributors insist on the need to combine different epistemologies so as to produce research that is more relevant (Aram & Salipante, 2003). Related suggestions may accordingly consist of a combination of two well-established traditions, such as constructivism and design science (Avenier, 2010) or design science and critical realism (Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2012).

If a paradigmatic shift is to be possible, several changes must first occur. First, new research methods must be introduced and legitimized. Even though qualitative methods have long since been legitimized by the editors of top-tier journals (e.g. Rynes, 2005, p. 13), contributors to the paradigmatic shift strategy insist on the necessity of recognizing other methods such as action research, intervention research and grounded theory as being fruitful areas for future relevant research (e.g. Hatchuel, 2001, Avenier, 2010, Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2011). That said, one consequence of this call for diversity of research methods has been the general acceptance of an even more diverse range of research outputs. In fact, the paradigmatic shift can only occur if artefacts, organizational design rules, facts and highly contextualized descriptions are perceived as potential research outcomes by the academic community and its gatekeepers (e.g. Avenier, 2010, Rynes, 2005, Hambrick, 2007). More generally, the set of criteria currently used to evaluate management research must be revisited and improved. For example, Hambrick suggests replacing the requirement for a "contribution to theory" by a simple test to measure one's paper importance: *"Does the paper have a high likelihood of stimulating future research that will substantially alter managerial theory and/or practice?"* (Hambrick, 2007, p. 1350).

Since the paradigmatic shift approach does not aim at converting the positivist tradition into another orthodoxy, the preceding points should not be considered as normative guidelines, but rather, as open-ended suggestions for heightening the relevance of management research. Thus, it is essential that academics engage in continuous and reflexive thinking about their scholarship. *"By promoting reflexivity*," Learmonth, Locket and Dowd explain, "*we want to stimulate academics to think through their motivations and interests in"* (Learmonth, Lockett & Dowd, 2012, p. 42). It must also be noted that these proposed changes encompass the stakes associated with research and science in that they also promote the development or management

education programs geared towards developing students' critical and reflexive abilities. For Vince (2010), critical management education "*challenges what and how individuals and groups expect to learn, and consequently it is likely to challenge assumptions that reflect the purpose of learning within business schools and within organizations"* (Vince, 2010, p. S38). In this way, rather than simply presenting success stories, Tourish, Craig & Amernic (2010) press for a more critical, relational and reflective approach to leadership teaching. These scholars not only question the content delivered by traditional management, but also encourage their fellow academics to adopt a more distanced and balanced teaching philosophy. Similarly, Antonacopoulou (2010) advocates for a move from a purely transmissive approach to a "guide on the side" pedagogy based on phronesis and reflexive critique. Consequently, the MBA curriculum she presents is centered on a method aimed at fostering students' critical skills rather than on delivering specific content.

4. 4. Refocusing on Common Good

The fourth typical strategy for making management research more relevant addresses the growing concern about the societal impact of management and organizations and in turn advocates that management refocus its research on common good. From this perspective, if management research is to become more relevant, it first needs to become more meaningful.

As Badaracco explains *"management, in all its forms, is a critical activity of modern societies, deeply and inevitably shaping the livelihoods and lives of most people on earth"* (Badaracco in Podolny, Kester, Kerr, Sutton, Kaplan, Martin, McCabe, Wademan Dowling, M, Donovan, Breyfogle, James, Albion, Badaracco, Likierman, Korten, Cabrera & Murthy, 2009, p. 108). Indeed, management and multinational corporations shape society by influencing their business environment (Breyfogle in Podolny, Kester, Kerr, Sutton, Kaplan, Martin, McCabe, Wademan Dowling, M, Donovan, Breyfogle, James, Albion, Badaracco, Likierman, Korten, Cabrera & Murthy, 2009). According to Bartunek, the year 2002 exemplifies the impact that organizations have on society: *"[2002] has been a tumultuous, scandalous year for business organizations, especially in North America. These actions have had multiple societal effects. [They] have been global, even though many of the organizations concerned are headquartered in the United States"* (Bartunek, 2002, p. 422). In a similar vein, Tsui (2013, p. 167) notes a correlation between management practices and the 2008 financial

crisis, which effaced millions of job, drove up homelessness and decimated the retirement savings of millions of Americans. These two management crises both demonstrate how harmful management can be to society. Ghoshal has similarly examined the examples of agency theory, transaction-cost economics and "five forces" analysis, arguing that business schools and management scholars have propagated *"ideologically inspired amoral theories"* and have *"actively freed their students from any sense of moral responsibility"* (Ghoshal, 2005, p. 76). If we assume that academic theories can indeed impact management practice, management scholars must question the nature of their footprint (e.g. Schendel, 2002, Ghoshal, 2005, Hodgkinson, Herriot & Anderson, 2001).

Scholars that urge this refocusing of management research on the common good highlight two key reasons for why societal considerations have disappeared from management research. First, according to Courpasson (2013), management research pays little attention to "people"; instead, scholars continue to explore disembodied topics that have been investigated for decades (such as firm performance). Management research dominant agenda also reveals an underlying ideology rooted in economics (e.g. Ghoshal, 2005, Pfeffer, 2005), managerialism and finance (March, 2007), and functionalism and productivity (Courpasson, 2013). Second, management research promotes a tradition that facilitates the development of homogeneous, ahistorical and a-contextual knowledge. In order to access top-tier American academic journals, scholars from other countries tend to conform to the well-established traditions and do not develop new forms of knowledge (Tsui, 2013, Ozbilgin, 2009). As Ozbilgin points out, "*the current hegemonic order in journal publishing encourages cloning and inbreeding*" (Ozbilgin, 2009, p. 116).

Instead of reinforcing what Ozbilgin describes as a hegemonic order, several voices have called for the redefinition of the purpose of management research. As Barnett and Starbuck state, "*we should be protesting the bad things in our world and should be striving to create a better world*" (Barnett & Starbuck, 2007, p. 126). If scholars are to accomplish such an feat, they must develop themes with long-term resonance and appeal (Ferlie, McGivern & De Moraes, 2010). This might include connecting business with global issues such as climate change and poverty, studying how current trends such as technology can impact business, or considering the implications that management research might have on public policy, especially in regards to public services reform or public education (Ouchi, Riordan, Lingle & Porter,

2005, Schoemaker, 2008, Ferlie, McGivern & De Moraes, 2010, Adler & Jermier, 2005, Clegg, 2002, Pearce, 2005, Walsh, Weber & Margolis, 2003, Willmott, 2012). When they assess that "*we can redesign and redefine corporations to make them much more useful in helping us to address the world's problems,*" Barnett & Starbuck (2007) acknowledge that refocusing management research on the common good does not necessarily imply changing the means by which research is conducted. However, journal editors and academic associations may have a role to play in encouraging researchers to address such issues. The editors of Organization Studies have accordingly argued that A-journals *"can contribute to this [re]investigation and reengagement with big questions through leading an 'academic movement' striving to bring society back to center stage, enriching our conceptions of politics and societal struggles"* (Courpasson, Arellano-Gault, Brown & Lounsbury, 2008). Academic associations and business schools pursue this same goal by generating inspired conference themes or by developing research programs focused on societal issues (Ferlie, McGivern & De Moraes, 2010, Moosmayer, 2012).

Such a reorientation has the potential to in turn redefine the purpose of business schools by enhancing academics' participation in public policy and by encouraging them to rethink their teaching strategies. But even if individual academics have a role to play, *"they also need support from a foundation that establishes students' value-oriented development as a goal of colleges, business schools, academies, and the students themselves—as well as by the corporate world*" (Moosmayer, 2012, p. 168). A number of academics have also voiced frustration in their limited ability to influence public policy, which is largely linked to management research's current focus on the private sector (March, 2007, Adler & Jermier, 2005, Barney, 2005). As Dutton (2005, p. 956) writes, "*I believe that organizational-management researchers have much to say about public policy questions, but I also believe that we are not at the table and are not having influence.*" Such voices have pushed for a radical transformation of academic routines and procedures so as to allow academics to speak to wider reaching policy issues. Similarly, beyond business schools' missions – which must be revisited (Willmott, 2012, Worrell, 2009) – their codes of conduct should also be modified (Podolny, 2009) and academics should be encouraged to engage their local communities and the public sphere at large (von Glinow, 2005). This transformation would also imply an ambitious reform of management education, which could in turn make a more positive contribution to society by

educating new generations of virtuous leaders who will in turn have a positive impact on the business world. To do so, management education should also refocus on the common good by drawing more heavily on the humanities, ethics and values (Podolny, 2009, Moosmayer, 2012). For example, Bennis and O'Toole suggest that "*the entire MBA curriculum must be infused with multidisciplinary, practical, and ethical questions and analyses reflecting the complex challenges business leaders face*" (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005, p. 105). Similarly, Pfeffer encourage academics to be "*more explicit and more thoughtful about the values* [that they] *are imparting by what* [they] *teach and how* [they] *teach it*" (Pfeffer, 2005, p. 99).

When we consider the magnitude of the task at hand, it is clear this refocusing on common good will require academics' collective empowerment: "*while no individual scholar can change the overall system, each of us can make a contribution,*" Adler and Harzing (2009, p. 92) explain. Indeed, if reorientation is ultimately supported by all of academia, business schools will follow suit (Worrell, 2009). As Tsui concludes in her 2012 presidential address, "*together, we can make a huge difference in changing the state of our profession for the better.*" (Tsui, 2013, p. 177).

5. Towards an Integrative Framework for Solving the Rigor/Relevance Problem

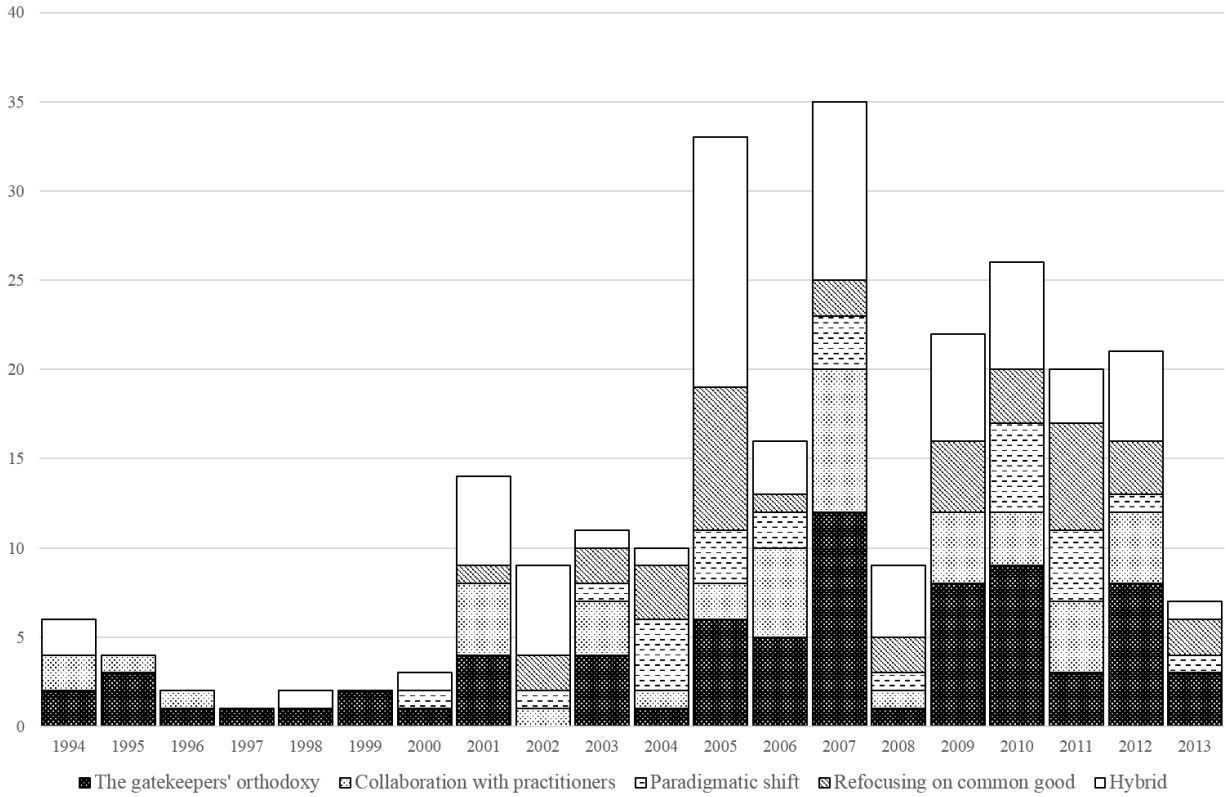
In the previous subsections, we have described four typical strategies for making management research more relevant. Each of these strategies embraces its own definition of relevance. From the gatekeepers' orthodoxy perspective, relevance is synonymous with quality research, whereas from the perspectives of paradigmatic shift, collaboration with practitioners and refocusing on common good, relevance correlates with interest, usefulness and meaning. Therefore, each typical strategy is based on a coherent set of assumptions and understanding of the origin of the rigor/relevance problem and its potential solutions.

5. 1. Research vs. Practice: an Outdated Dichotomy

As Figure 3 indicates, the rigor/relevance debate has historically been considered as being situated between two typical strategies: the gatekeepers' orthodoxy and collaboration with practitioners. When taken together, these two categories represented 67.6% of the sampled

papers published between 1994 and 2001. The remaining articles published at this time mostly sought to combine the features of these two strategies.

Figure 3: Evolution of the rigor/relevance debate



"Rigor versus relevance", "Mode 1 vs. Mode 2", "research-practice gap", "knowing-doing gap" and "academics practitioners divide" are only five of the labels that academics use to dialectically frame the debate. All of these labels illustrate the extent to which the strategies of the gatekeepers' orthodoxy and collaboration with practitioners have dominated the programmatic relevance literature. However, this literature has become increasingly diversified and nuanced over time. Within the gatekeepers' orthodoxy, new approaches such as Evidence-based management have led to new initiatives concerning the diffusion of academic knowledge. Similarly, the collaboration with practitioners strategy has moved away from a Mode 2 centric perspective and now covers a wider range of procedures that all facilitate knowledge co-production between academics and practitioners. Furthermore, the 2001 attack on the World Trade Centers together with the Enron scandal led to the renewal of a long-standing questioning about the role and nature of management research (e.g. Clegg, 2002, Hinings & Greenwood, 2002, Huff & Huff, 2001), which in turn strongly influenced the evolution of the rigor/relevance debate and led to the emergence of two additional strategies

for making management research more relevant (paradigmatic shift and refocusing on common good). Even though the programmatic relevance literature is still frequently labeled in a dialectical manner, its contributions to the rigor/relevance debate have largely moved beyond the two original – and somehow conventional – antagonistic views.

5. 2. From Antagonism to Complementarity

While scholars have not directly questioned academics' concern for the impact of management research, several have argued that the rigor/relevance debate has fostered various institutional pressures. First, they claim that leading journals such as AMJ frequently mention relevance as a requirement for manuscript publication (Bartunek & Rynes, 2010, Learmonth, Lockett & Dowd, 2012). Second, funding bodies have perpetuated the concern for relevance by including "impact on practice" as a criterion by which they assess research outputs (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, Learmonth, Lockett & Dowd, 2012). Third, the lack of engagement between academics and government bodies implies that business schools are relying on tuition and private donations for funding, and are accordingly obligated to stay relevant in the eyes of students and firms, who together represent their key financial supporters (Zell, 2001, Clark, Floyd & Wright, 2013, Gabriel, 2002). Finally, the estimated cost of producing a rigorous "A-journal" article is on the order of US$500K (Martin, 2012), which makes quality research simply unaffordable for many academic institutions. In addition to these pressures associated with relevance, anterior institutional constraints such as accreditation and ranking systems are also present, which together create paradoxical injunctions for management scholars (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014). By raising the stakes associated with the relevance of management research, these institutional pressures have encouraged the expression of passionate opinions that contest the concept of relevance (e.g. Learmonth, Lockett & Dowd, 2012) and/or cast doubts on its plausibility within management research (e.g. Kieser & Leiner, 2009). These contributions create the false impression that the rigor/relevance debate is conflict-heavy and fail to shed light on how it has evolved.

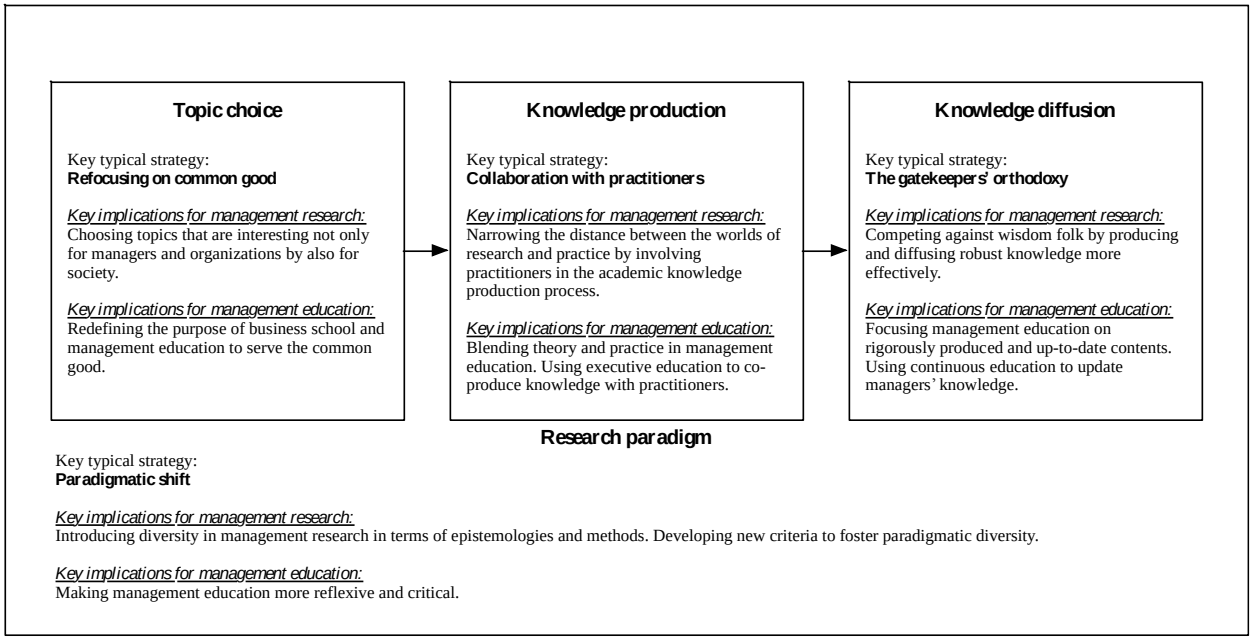
Even though the programmatic relevance literature remains far from being a unified stream of thought, its recent evolutions have revealed previously overlooked synergies. Our analysis reveals that 26.9% of the sampled contributions to the debate published between 2002

and 2013 consist of hybrid contributions combining features from two or more typical strategies (Appendix 3).

For example, Lawler (2007) combines insights from the gatekeepers' orthodoxy and collaboration with practitioners. He expresses regret in how academic findings have been under- and/or poorly utilized by organizations and accordingly advocates for action/evaluation research projects conducted with practitioners. Another example comes to us from Barney (2005), who draws on two typical strategies (the gatekeepers' orthodoxy and refocusing on common good) in order to discuss the contribution of strategic management research to the public sector. Barney acknowledges that the findings from strategic management research could provide solutions for accounting scandals, but also suggests that future research should pay more attention to topics related to social policy. Paradigmatic shift and collaboration with practitioners open a third space for similar cross-fertilization. This position is exemplified by contributions related to design science, which is based on partnerships between academics and practitioners, and implies a renewal of the management research paradigm (Hatchuel, 2001, Starkey, Hatchuel & Tempest, 2009).

These hybrid viewpoints reveal that the four typical strategies do not emphasize the same aspects of the process of research development. Whereas the gatekeepers' orthodoxy insists on the diffusion of academic knowledge among practitioners, collaboration with practitioners, paradigmatic shift and refocusing on common good all respectively focus on knowledge production procedures, research paradigms and topic choice. In Figure 4, we present a simplistic view of the research development process. Based on this representation, it is clear that each typical strategy affects the management research development process in a different way. Therefore, these four strategies are not mutually exclusive, but instead appear to complement one another.

Figure 4: An integrative programmatic framework



5. 3. Management Education as a Consensual Means of Bridging the Rigor/Relevance Gap

Numerous contributors have criticized the disconnect between management education and management research (Burke & Rau, 2010, Mowday, 1997). For example, Bennis and O'Toole (2005, p. 101) take aim at the *"tenured professors of management who have never set a foot inside a business, except as customers."* Reciprocally, textbooks tend to ignore the evidence produced by management research (Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007, Rousseau, 2006) and teachers tend to separate their research and teaching activities (Pearce, 2004). These contributions echo a long-standing questioning on the nature of scholarship (McGrath, 2007, Hodgkinson & Rousseau, 2008, Bartunek, 2007, Mowday, 1997). Drawing on Boyer's four roles of scholarship (discovery, application, integration and teaching), these critiques all argue for a more inclusive conception of scholars' missions and challenge the idea that research and teaching are two contradictory activities. Our analysis reveals that the integrative conception of scholarship is widely accepted among scholars who participate in the rigor/relevance debate. Rather than creating an opposition between teaching and research, they describe management education as a means of bridging the gap between rigor and relevance. As Burke and Rau (2010,

p. 141) argue, *"by strengthening the research–teaching nexus, we believe it is possible to subsequently narrow the research–practice divide."* The consensus about the role of management education should not mask heterogeneous opinions about creating synergies between teaching and research. Scholars who embrace the gatekeepers' orthodoxy emphasize the possibility of nurturing teaching by research evidences. Those who argue for collaboration with practitioners insist on the need to blend theory and practice in management education and see executive education as being an opportunity for knowledge co-creation. The necessity of making management research more reflexive – which is an essential aspect of the paradigmatic shift strategy – also has strong implications for management education, as it would imply making the MBA model more "critical". Finally, the existential questioning that has led certain academics to argue that management research should refocus on the common good involves the creation of a more meaningful learning environment through the redefinition of the content and purpose of management education and the training more virtuous leaders. As these strategies for making management research more relevant are complementary (Figure 4), they should no longer be seen as being in direct conflict with one another.

6. Concluding Remarks

Previous studies have called for the development of a research agenda that explores the relevance issue as a research object (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, Beyer & Trice, 1982, Jarzabkowski, Mohrman & Scherer, 2010, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010). In analyzing how management scholars typically understand relevance in regards to practice, we have contributed to the existing literature by identifying four typical strategies that bridge the so-called rigor/relevance gap: the gatekeepers' orthodoxy, paradigmatic shift, collaboration with practitioners, and refocusing on common good. We have also described each strategy, highlighted their underlying assumptions and analyzed the actions that they recommend, both in terms of management research and management education. Our findings suggest that the "rigor vs. relevance" dichotomy is outdated. Additionally, the four aforementioned strategies should be viewed as complementary rather than incompatible with one another. Based on these findings, we have developed an integrative framework that takes into account both suggestions found in management research and management education for solving the rigor/relevance problem. Moreover, we can mention three main contributions as having emerged from these findings. First, we argue that these four typical strategies enrich our understanding of the

relationship between rigor and relevance. Second, our integrated framework emphasizes the solutions for bridging the gap between rigor and relevance. Third, we argue that management education is a consensual solution for overcoming the relevance crisis in management research.

6. 1. Understanding the Relationship between Rigor and Relevance

Previous studies have argued that the concept of relevance is ambiguous and hardly measurable (Nicolai & Seidl, 2010, Augier & March, 2007), and scholars have described the lack of a consensual and shared definition as a barrier to relevance and as a reason for which the rigor/relevance debate remains stuck in endless ideological discussions (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015). Our study suggests that scholars who participate in the relevance debate have a clear understanding of the concept relevance, even if the definitions that they draw on remain largely implicit. However, the meaning of relevance appears to vary significantly among the various categories of our analysis. More precisely, scholars who adopt the gatekeepers' orthodoxy typically endorse a diffusionist perspective and understand relevance as the extent to which a concept, theory or article is adopted by practitioners. According to the gatekeepers' orthodoxy, scholars often overlook the idea that the findings produced by academic research should consist of "hard facts" (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006) and rely principally on conceptual knowledge. As for scholars who argue for collaboration with practitioners, they correlate relevance with research's usefulness for practitioners. Scholars who recommend a paradigmatic shift often object to the lack of diversity in management research, which they claim leads its findings to be abstract, disembodied and uninteresting. Such scholars thus understand relevant research to be research that is refreshing for academics and practitioners alike. Finally, as they are critical of management research's lack of concern for society, scholars promoting a refocusing on common good consider that relevant research means research with meaning.

As our findings show that none of these typical strategies create an opposition between rigor and relevance, they in turn support the broad consensus that rigor and relevance are not mutually exclusive, but rather complementary (e.g. Gulati, 2007, Corley & Gioia, 2011, Druskat, 2005, Tushman, apos & Reilly, 2007, Clark, Floyd & Wright, 2013, Hitt, 1998, Rynes, 2005, Bartunek, 2007, Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2011, Jackson, 1994, Pettigrew, 2005, Suddaby, 2010). In fact, none of the four strategies describe the lack of relevance in management research

as a consequence of scholars' attempts to produce rigorous knowledge. Instead, they insist on factors such as the *recipients' attention* (gatekeepers' orthodoxy), the *actors involved* in the research production process and their relationships (collaboration with practitioners), management research's *underlying assumptions* (paradigmatic shift) and *purpose* (refocusing on common good). Consequently, our findings indicate that there is no need to sacrifice rigor for relevance, but instead, these findings shed light on four dimensions of the knowledge-production process that can be improved without giving up rigor. Nevertheless, our findings are at odds with Lewin's famous dictum (which is frequently quoted by contributors to the rigor/relevance debate) by showing that rigor is not a sufficient means of making management research relevant. Therefore, our study establishes a better understanding of the relationship between rigor and relevance.

6. 2. Understanding the Complementarities within the Rigor/Relevance Debate

In spite of a considerable number of contributions to the rigor/relevance debate, previous journal-content analyses have raised concerns about the lack of progress being made in overcoming the relevance crisis (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010). This problem is frequently described as being twofold. First, the programmatic relevance literature is seen as fragmented (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015), which reflects a more general and well-documented tendency of tribalism within management studies (Gulati, 2007, Suddaby, 2010). Second, the contributions to the programmatic literature are largely in essay form (Bartunek, 2003) and have been accused of being neither rigorous nor relevant for the practice of management research (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010). Instead of providing practical solutions for making management research more relevant, contributors to the rigor/relevance debate have been accused to using false dichotomies in order to oppose *research as it is* with *research as it should be*.

Building on a recurrent call for more studies on research utilization and practical relevance (Beyer & Trice, 1982), Kieser and colleagues (2015) have described the programmatic relevance literature as a dead end and have proposed new research agendas for analyzing and conceptualizing the relation between academic knowledge and the world of practice. In a similar vein, Bartunek and Rynes (2014) have recently called for empirical work that explores the tensions and paradoxes between research and practice. There is no question

that these new areas for research could be fruitful; however, we consider that the solutions suggested by the programmatic relevance literature principally lack large-scale implementation (Bartunek, 2011). We believe that such implementation would be easier through a clear framework illustrating the rigor/relevance debate, which we have constructed via the four typical strategies detailed above. Additionally, by showing how these typical strategies can be combined and articulated, our study highlights the richness of the programmatic literature and allows one to consider the possibility of management scholars providing a collective solution to the rigor/relevance problem.

6. 3. Understanding the Role of Management Education in Making Management Research more Relevant

The evolution of business schools within the US educational system has been frequently mentioned as the principal cause for the rigor/relevance gap (e.g. Pfeffer & Fong, 2004, Bennis & O'Toole, 2005, Zell, 2001). This line of argumentation, which often overshadows the diversity of business schools and academic institutions, assumes that management education and management research are two separate realms that remain loosely coupled at best. Instead of explicating the specificities of management research and management education, this approach frequently argues that scholars should reorient their goals to focus on education.

Our findings reveal that the programmatic relevance literature has for many years been exploring the interactions between management research and education. The most prolific stream of thought undeniably comes from the Evidence-based management community, which has suggested ways of leveraging research findings for management education (Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007, Rousseau, 2007, Rousseau, 2006). However, just as the programmatic relevance literature has also suggested ways of using management education to enrich the knowledge-production process, our findings reveal that the interaction between research and education is not a one-sided relationship. By revealing the consensual nature of management education as a means of solving the rigor/relevance problem, our study demonstrates academics' shared appetite for an integrative and balanced conception of scholarship.

6. 4. Limitations and Implications for Further Research

This paper complements an emergent set of research that analyzes the rigor/relevance debate as an explicit object of research (e.g. Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014, Jarzabkowski, Mohrman & Scherer, 2010). The purpose of this study was to provide a detailed account of the programmatic relevance literature. In doing so, we have focused on scholars' perception of the rigor/relevance problem. As the programmatic relevance literature is almost exclusively composed of contributions written by academics, our findings do not reflect practitioners' solutions for closing the gap between research and practice. As Rousseau and McCarthy (2007) explain, practitioners tend to largely ignore the findings that are produced by management research. Therefore, the rigor/relevance problem remains largely an academic issue and not a practitioners' one. Nevertheless, impactful concepts and frameworks such as Blue Ocean Strategy (Kim & Mauborgne, 2005) or Business Model Canvas (Osterwalder & Pigneur, 2010) have emerged from individuals whose work is located at the crossroads of research and practice. Accordingly, future research on the rigor/relevance problem should pay a closer attention to people who define themselves as "academic-practitioners" in an effort to enrich the solutions produced by the programmatic relevance literature and make management research more relevant.

A second limitation of this study comes from the nature of the data that we analyzed. While the articles, editorial statements, essays and opinions that we considered certainly provide fascinating suggestions for making management research more relevant, it must be noted that they are the most easily accessible part of the rigor/relevance problem and do not necessarily provide a detailed account of scholars' motivations for participating in the debate. The continued existence of this debate could be explained by scholars' competition for scarce resources such as funding, reputation or space in top-tier scientific outlets. Further research could thus move beyond the tip of the rigor/relevance iceberg so as to explore the antecedents of the rigor/relevance debate.

The third implication that we would like to underline is methodological. In this paper, we highlighted a pattern of cross-fertilization by demonstrating that a growing number of contributions to the rigor/relevance debate consist of attempts to combine two or more typical strategies. If confirmed, this tendency could indicate a promising development for the

relevance debate, reorienting it towards more integrative solutions for making management research more relevant. Our analysis of citations patterns through bibliometric analysis could also help to further explore this phenomenon and ultimately, to enrich the programmatic framework developed in this paper.

Chapitre 2. The Development of Management Innovation through Interactions between Research and Practice[43]

Propos liminaire

Nous avons montré en introduction de cette thèse les injonctions institutionnelles qui ont façonné les champs des sciences de gestion français et américain, notamment les rapports Gordon-Howell et Pierson qui ont eu un fort impact aux Etats-Unis en rendant plus scientifique à la fois la recherche et l'enseignement de la gestion ; et en France par un mouvement d'importation du modèle américain et donc des critères de rigueur scientifique hérités de ces mêmes rapports. Cela a engendré un important débat dans les sciences de gestion quant à la pertinence de la recherche en gestion. Nous avons donc cherché, dans ce premier chapitre, à mieux comprendre ce débat qui agite la communauté académique en sciences de gestion. Par une analyse du contenu de 253 articles publiés dans un échantillon de 11 revues scientifiques entre 1994 et 2013, nous avons construit une taxonomie de quatre représentations que les chercheurs se font de la notion de pertinence. Nous avons montré que celles-ci sont complémentaires. D'une part, nous soulignons que les chercheurs peuvent adopter plusieurs positions de façon simultanée. D'autre part, les solutions proposées par les chercheurs visant à être plus pertinent agissent à différents stades de la production des connaissances managériales, aussi bien en termes d'enseignement que de recherche.

En déconstruisant la façon dont ils se représentent la construction de la connaissance managériale, cette analyse discursive ne permet pas pour autant de montrer comment se produit le savoir. Il semble donc intéressant d'adopter une approche de sociologie des sciences afin d'aller au-delà de l'étude de cette controverse pour comprendre comment se traduisent les connaissances managériales, en suivant les acteurs qui ont participé à sa production. En d'autres termes il s'agit de comprendre les processus et les mécanismes mis à l'œuvre dans la production des connaissances.

[43] Ce chapitre a été co-écrit avec Stéphanie Dameron (Université Paris-Dauphine). Il a été présenté en 2015 à une conférence spéciale de l'EURAM dédiée à l'Innovation Managériale ainsi qu'à la Strategic Management Society.

Pour ce faire, nous mobilisons le concept d'innovation managériale, qui adopte une perspective inter-organisationnelle pour étudier « l'invention et la mise en œuvre d'une pratique, d'un processus, d'une structure ou d'une technique de management nouveaux par rapport à ce qui est connu dans l'objectif de mieux atteindre les buts de l'organisation. » (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, p.825, Le Roy, Robert & Giuliani, 2013). Nous étudions dans le chapitre 2 comment les chercheurs et les praticiens interagissent pour construire des innovations managériales.

Nous mobilisons ensuite le concept de performativité qui s'intéresse au rôle des chercheurs, non pas dans l'observation d'un phénomène pas dans la construction d'un phénomène (Callon, 1998: 2). Pour cela, dans la tradition des STS (Law, 2008), nous étudions la performativité du concept stratégique de « Stratégie Océan Bleu ».

Enfin, nous nous intéressons aux organisations frontières qui permettent de traduire les supports dans la perspective des différents actants (Guston, 2001). Pour cela, nous étudions comment les chercheurs-praticiens, acteurs situés entre la recherche et la pratique, gèrent leurs rôles rattachés à ces deux milieux.

Le prochain chapitre s'intéresse donc au développement d'innovations managériales entre recherche et pratique.

1. Introduction

The concept of management innovation has been (re)introduced by the seminal article of Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol (2008) to understand the development of "management practice, process, structure, or technique that is new to the state of the art and is intended to further organizational goals" (p.825). Investigating the state of the field, Volberda, Van Den Bosch & Mihalache (2014) acknowledge the development of an *institutional* perspective that focuses mainly on the diffusion and variation of management innovations using a strong neo-institutional (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, Meyer & Rowan, 1977) and fashion theory (Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson, 1991, Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999) perspectives, and a *theory development* perspective that stresses the difficulties management scholars meet while contributing to the development of management innovations (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, Abrahamson & Eisenman, 2001).

Several studies developed at the crossroad of these two perspectives to understand how academics and practitioners develop management innovations. Firstly, Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol (2008) put forward the involvement of external change agents to the management innovation process in "creating interest in, influencing the development of, and legitimizing the effectiveness and retention of new management practices" (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008p. 832). In another study, Mol & Birkinshaw (2014) compare the role of external change agents with the role of external sources and external experiences in the level of novelty of management innovations. Despite attempts to conceptualize the external involvement in management innovation, these studies fell short of differentiating the specific roles of academics from involvements of consultants or gurus.

Secondly, the management fashion literature focuses on the actors who take part in the creation of management innovation (Abrahamson, 1996). *Management gurus* translate abstract theoretical concepts and convert them to a generic form to address them to managers (Clark & Salaman, 1998, Jackson, 2002, Clark & Greatbatch, 2002); *mass media organizations* popularize ideas from other management-fashion setters and also produce and disseminate their own management discourses (Mazza & Alvarez, 2000, Schulz & Nicolai, 2015, Nørreklit, 2003); *consulting firms* commodify management knowledge to managers and organizations (Abrahamson, 1996) and colonize it to new countries and new disciplines (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2001, Crucini & Kipping, 2001); and finally, *business schools* ought to ensure

quality control, knowledge creation and knowledge diffusion (Abrahamson, 1996, Suddaby & Greenwood, 2001), but Abrahamson and co-author highlight their low involvement in management fashions (Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson & Eisenman, 2001).

Thirdly, a specific strand of literature focuses on the role of academics in the development of management knowledge. David & Hatchuel (2008) and David (2013) infer from historical accounts how they participate in the invention of management innovations where they build their universality (e.g. scientific management); how they theorize and label management innovations created by practitioners (e.g. M-Form); how they discover or invent management models that are later validated in practice by practitioners (e.g. operations research); or how they add value to an already invented model through clarification, refinement and questioning (e.g. majority of scientific publications). Some researchers such as Werr & Greiner (2008) argue that academics, consultants and practitioners may combine their different expertise and create collaborative research despite their institutional differences. However, others remain skeptical over the possibility for academics to participate in knowledge creation without sacrificing scientific rigor (e.g. Yorks & Whitsett, 1985).

Fourthly and lastly, to overcome critics related to the low involvement of academics in management knowledge (e.g. Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, Pfeffer, 2007, Beyer & Trice, 1982, Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson & Eisenman, 2001, Beyer, 1997), academics have suggested alternative research designs. Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott & Trow (1994) recommend academics to engage with practitioners in transdisciplinary settings (Mode 2 research), Van de Ven (2007) suggests to engage with practitioners throughout the development of the research (engaged scholarship), the Evidence-based management movement aims at translating principles based on the best evidence into organizational settings (Rousseau, 2006, AMLE, 2014), Avenier & Cajaiba (2012) suggest to develop academic knowledge for and from practice dialogic model), Kaplan (1998) suggest to conduct innovation action research, and Christensen & Carlile (2009) focus on using case method to build management theory. However, even if some of these propositions have been highly communicated within academia, their applications remain scarce in practice (e.g. Bartunek, 2011). Furthermore, these models are predictive rather than descriptive.

Together, these different approaches give some insights on how academics and practitioners develop management innovations between research and practice. However, they

do not constitute a coherent framework. To better understand how management innovation is shaped between academic and business settings, we propose to focus on how the *scholar-practitioner interactions* nurture the process of institutionalization of management innovation.

To address this gap, we study the development of management innovations and propose to focus on the practices through which academics and practitioners interact in the generation and diffusion of management innovations. Through this framework, we analyze 14 management innovations created throughout the 20th and 21st centuries that originate from different sub-disciplines of management and from different countries. We found recurring practices and common patterns of how scholar-practitioner interactions lead to the institutionalization of management innovations. Our contributions to the theory development perspective on management innovation, then, are threefold. First, we propose a framework analyzing how knowledge develops between research and practice. Second, we specify the academics' intervention in management innovations. Third, we develop the use of academics' knowledge by practitioners.

We present our study in four sections. The first section reviews the literature on the development of management innovations and establishes a framework of cooperative relationships between academics and practitioners. We then describe our research procedures during the second section. A third section presents the developmental process of 14 management innovations built through the interaction of academics and practitioners. After summarizing these findings, our concluding section discusses them regarding the literature investigated, suggests implications for practice and points to further research.

2. The Institutionalization Process of Management Innovations

To understand how management innovations develop between academics and practitioners, we rely on an institutional perspective (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, Meyer & Rowan, 1977) to propose a 4-phase process model of management innovation development. How management innovations generate has largely been overlooked in the management innovation literature (e.g. Kimberly, 1981, Damanpour & Evan, 1984, Damanpour, 1987, Damanpour, 1991, Damanpour, Szabat & Evan, 1989) until the work of Birkinshaw and co-authors (i.e. Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, Mol & Birkinshaw, 2008). They explain that management innovations *locally develop* within an innovating company relying on the actions

of both internal and external change agents. Once the conditions of success to experiment an innovation are created (motivation phase) they try out hypothetical new practices in an experimental way (invention phase). Their goal is to technically render the innovation fully operational (implementation phase) before adding an important rhetorical component to legitimate the innovation (theorization and labeling phase) (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008). This last step allows to *broaden the dissemination* of the management innovation at an inter-organizational level (Volberda, Van Den Bosch & Mihalache, 2014). Rather than being linear, the sequences that constitute this first stage might be recursive (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008).

Management concepts then disseminate and become management fashions if they are taken up by a significant number of managers who "jump on the bandwagon" (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008). For instance, discourses promoting quality circles led to the adoption of the technique across disparate organizations (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999). The management fashion literature explains how management fashion setters - consultants, business schools, the business press and gurus – build a legitimating discourse towards managers to help them cope with external pressures, maintain their reputation and avoid uncertainty (Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson, 1991). For the case of Total Quality Management (TQM), isomorphic pressures increased its legitimacy among managers (Westphal, Gulati & Shortell, 1997). They led to an increase in corporate reputation of the adopting firms, even if it was not necessarily followed by a gain in their performance (Staw & Epstein, 2000).

As management fashions are transitory (Abrahamson, 1996), the boom in the dissemination of management practices might be followed by a bust (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999) or by variations in the practice (Scarbrough, Robertson & Swan, 2015). During that phase, management innovations *improve*. After its collapse, TQM re-legitimated as a "hard" technique by moving toward its roots in quality control, rather than in behavioral techniques. It was illustrated by continuing technical discussions within practitioner and academic communities (David & Strang, 2006). Resource Planning evolved through successive failures of adoption by organizations (Scarbrough, Robertson & Swan, 2015). In fact, the continuous shaping and reshaping of management concepts are essential to their survival (Heusinkveld, Benders & Hillebrand, 2013). New ideas and practices need to evolve and improve throughout the developmental process in order to fit with local contexts (Ansari, Fiss & Zajac, 2010).

In fact, the majority of fashions will fade as the gaps between their promises and the reality of implementation become increasingly apparent (Abrahamson, 1991). However, practices do not necessarily disappear and few management fashions would ultimately survive and *get institutionalized* (Perkmann & Spicer, 2008). This phenomenon has been observed in the case of knowledge management (Scarbrough, 2002), matrix management programs (Burns & Wholey, 1993), core competencies (Nicolai, Schulz & Thomas, 2010), small group activities (Cole, 1985) and TQM (Douglas & Judge, 2001).

3. Management Innovations Developed Through Interactions Between Academics and Practitioners

The institutional perspective on management innovation focuses on "the preconditions in which an innovation first emerges and then the factors that enable industries to adopt such innovations" (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008p. 828). To uncover the process through which management innovations institutionalize, we suggest to follow the conscious and deliberate as well as the unintended actions of key individuals who participate in the management innovation (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, Lawrence, Suddaby & Leca, 2009). It implies examining the actions of "institutional entrepreneurs" who collectively produce management knowledge as well as the role of "field configuring events" (Scarbrough, Robertson & Swan, 2015, Perkmann & Spicer, 2008). Indeed, Perkmann & Spicer (2008) show that the institutionalization process is accompanied by efforts from actors to generate organizational practices and Scarbrough, Robertson & Swan (2015) demonstrate that they continuously reframe the innovation. In the research/practice context, we concentrate on scholar-practitioner interactions to develop management innovations.

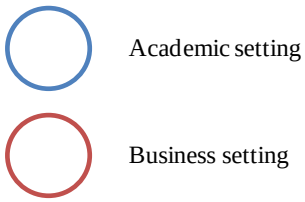
We lean on an analytical distinction between generation and diffusion of management knowledge (Volberda, Van Den Bosch & Mihalache, 2014) to build a four-type framework. It is based on two dimensions: the way of interacting and temporality. The way of interacting relates to how scholars and practitioners exchange knowledge to develop management innovations. The literature distinguishes transfers from co-construction. Knowledge transfers of practices connote the replication of practices from one place to another (Szulanski, 1996). More specifically, they are dyadic exchanges of knowledge involving specific people to share distinct experiences. They affect the experience of the recipient by changing its knowledge or its performance (Argote & Ingram, 2000). Carlile (2004) differentiates between different

degrees of transfers. Simple *transfers* happen when information needs to be processed from the sender to the receiver. However, when there is no common lexicon, interpretive differences appear. As there is not enough shared meanings, the sender needs to "externalize" (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995) knowledge through *translation*. Finally, when creating common meaning is not possible, the sender needs to *transform* knowledge to effectively share and assess knowledge at the boundary. On the opposite, the importance of co-construction has been highlighted in scholar-practitioner interaction settings (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, David & Hatchuel, 2008, Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott & Trow, 1994, Abrahamson, 1996, Van de Ven, 2007, Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Scholars and practitioners bring each other knowledge through a dialogue that would create new knowledge through iterative exchanges between its proponents (Tsoukas, 2009). From this dialogue, models, concepts and tools progressively take shape. As the dialogue takes different forms, it implies a common recognition of practitioners and scholars as producers of knowledge useful for the managerial action.

The other dimension is temporality. It relates to whether knowledge generation and diffusion occur at the same time or not. Building on Jung's (1972) work, we suggest that the interaction can be synchronic or a-synchronic. Synchronicity is defined as the experience of two or more events that are apparently causally unrelated or unlikely to occur together by chance, yet are experienced as occurring together in a meaningful manner. Generation and diffusion thus occur at the same time in synchronic interactions. On the other hand, generation and diffusion can also be a-synchronic. It does not necessarily involve a simple sequential process between generation and diffusion of knowledge, but it can also develop through a complex, recursive and cyclic process (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008). When knowledge is generated and diffused during the synchronic interaction, we expect it to rely more on tacit knowledge ; and during a-synchronic interactions, to rely more on explicit knowledge (Polanyi, 1966). Based on these two dimensions, Figure 1 offers a typology of four modes of scholar-practitioner interactions that take place while nurturing the generation and diffusion of management knowledge. We develop each mode of interaction hereafter.

Figure 1: Generation and diffusion of management knowledge through interactions between academics and practitioners

Ways of interacting Temporality	CO-CONSTRUCTION	TRANSFER
SYNCHRONIC	Partnership	Ambidexterity
A-SYNCHRONIC	Mediation	Popularization



3. 1. Interaction through Popularization

Popularization is traditionally understood as the "transmission of scientific knowledge from scientists to the lay public for purposes of edification, legitimating and training" (Whitley, 1985, p. 3 in Schulz & Nicolai, 2015). Popular writing entails translation of knowledge to make it accessible to practitioners through a change in language (Schulz & Nicolai, 2015).

Popularization is effective among managers, because the message subtly mixes a convincing and a persuasive rhetoric that make managers receptive to it (Clark & Salaman, 1998, Furusten, 1999). As it is contextualized and also open to interpretation (Nørreklit, 2003), it fills practitioners' needs and leads them to appropriate it in their own context (Groß, Heusinkveld & Clark, 2015, Sturdy, 2004). Finally, it has a social legitimacy gained from conformity, endorsement by large firms, and legends of successful implementations (Furusten, 1999, Groß, Heusinkveld & Clark, 2015).

Popularization also offers a revised view where relevant feedback effects from popularization media to scholarly journals are possible (Mazza & Alvarez, 2000, Schulz &

Nicolai, 2015). They can influence the degree of scholarly attention certain topics receive as well as influence the content of research. Spell (2001) shows that some management fashions appear in the broader business press before academic journals. As ideas take time to diffuse through academic media, they may first be diffused in broader business press and legitimate social usefulness within academia.

In a nutshell, popularization implies a one-way exchange of knowledge between academics and practitioners from research to practice or from practice to research, where generation of knowledge is a-synchronic with its diffusion. Popularization may occur through a legitimacy process based on testimonies of large companies, gurus' speeches, certification processes, as well as through its adoption by consultants (e.g. Abrahamson, 1996, Jackson, 2002, Clark & Greatbatch, 2002, Nørreklit, 2003, Groß, Heusinkveld & Clark, 2015, Sturdy, 2004, Clark & Greatbatch, 2002).

3. 2. Interaction through Mediation

Mediation happens when co-construction of knowledge is permitted due to a media that enable dialogue and exchanges of knowledge between academics and practitioners. The word "media" refers to its older usage. It does not only encompass information but also its associated technology and social institutions (Brown & Duguid, 2002).

Within this mode of interaction, knowledge construction is viewed as a never-ending process; knowledge may be refined and improved continuously. For Antonacopoulou, Dehlin & Zundel (2011), practitioners and academics may benefit from their mutual connections. It gives them the possibility to building a common understanding of management issues as well as developing and refining management knowledge. They are keen of finding mediation places where to exchange. Romme, Avenier, Denyer, Hodgkinson, Pandza, Starkey & Worren (2015) call this mediation place a "trading zone", a place where "communities with disparate meanings and logics collaborate despite global differences" (Galison, 1997 in Romme, Avenier, Denyer, Hodgkinson, Pandza, Starkey & Worren, 2015p. 5). To be successful, such mediation places must be explicitly action and goal oriented. The structure must be durable and should enable authentic action (Romme, Avenier, Denyer, Hodgkinson, Pandza, Starkey & Worren, 2015).

In the scholar-practitioner interaction, mediation places are numerous: conferences (Hatcher, Aalsburg Wiessner, Storberg-Walker & Chapman, 2006), executive education

(Christensen & Carlile, 2009, Tushman, Fenollosa, McGrath, O'Reilly & Kleinbaum, 2007), Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) programs (Romme, Avenier, Denyer, Hodgkinson, Pandza, Starkey & Worren, 2015), bridge journals such as the Harvard Business Review, California Management Review or MIT Sloan Review (Clark & Greatbatch, 2002), management labs (Romme, Avenier, Denyer, Hodgkinson, Pandza, Starkey & Worren, 2015), and non-for profit organizations (Starbuck, 2006pp. 138-141, Bansal, Bertels, Ewart, MacConnachie & O'Brien, 2012, McKenzie, van Winkelen & Bartunek, 2014).

3. 3. Interaction through Partnership

Partnerships are based on direct collaborations between academics and practitioners to produce shared knowledge. Because of their differences, tensions will develop. They have to be apprehended as energizing creativity solved by acknowledging differences and demonstrating interests in each perspective (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014).

Dialogues enable long-term collaborations between academics and practitioners (Tsoukas, 2009). Defined as joint interactions in which a turn-taking sequence of verbal messages is exchanged to reach a common goal, dialogues aim at removing some kind of unsettledness experienced by the parties involved, through their reasoning together (Tsoukas, 2009). If the dialogue is productive, each interlocutor potentially makes the other realize the limitations of his focal awareness and stimulates a search for an ever broader focal awareness. The quality of the dialogue depends on the involvement between the interlocutors: instrumental collaborative exchanges might help import a "fix" for a problem, while curiosity-driven dialogues lead to reframing and reinterpretation (Hibbert, Siedlok & Beech, in press).

The interactions between Chris Argyris who was successively professor at Yale School of Management and Harvard Business School and Donald Schön who spent most of his career as a consultant working at Arthur D. Little before having a position offered at the MIT are typical examples of the partnership mode of interaction. Through their model of action science, they created a theory of knowledge for action where knowledge is validated following both the norms of science and the experience of practitioners, learning giving the possibility to act efficiently (Argyris & Schön, 1974, Argyris & Schön, 1996).

3. 4. Interaction through Ambidexterity

Finally, academics and practitioners can generate and diffuse management knowledge through ambidexterity. We refer to the term coined by Markides (2007), for whom it is the fact of "doing contrary things at the same time" (p. 764), producing rigorous research and relevant practice. Within this mode of interaction, individuals may be reflexive enough to act both as practitioners and as researchers. Acting as boundary spanners between research and practice, they transfer practical knowledge to researchers and theoretical knowledge to practitioners.

Scholars may engage in practice through experiments in real-life organizations. To understand organizational systems, researchers may try to develop and change them. This echoes with Lewin (1951)'s famous dictum that one cannot really understand a system until he or she tries to change it. For instance, Schein (1987) argues that without a clinical approach, backstage realities that should inform scholars are not brought into the academic debate. Conversely, Schön (1983) acknowledges that practitioners' knowing can be generalized even though it is ordinarily tacit and situated in the action of practitioners. From their reflection, practitioners can find theories-in-action, which are deliberate, idiosyncratic constructions that can be put to experimental test. By recognizing an epistemology of practice which places technical problem solving within a broader context of reflective inquiry, Schön (1983) shows how reflection-in-action may be rigorous in its own right, and links the art of practice in uncertainty and uniqueness to the scientist's art of research. Either individuals (e.g. Donald Schön), or organizations (e.g. SIAR in Lind & Rhenman, 1989p. 167) can adopt an ambidextrous posture.

The specificity of each mode of academic-practitioner interactions to generate and diffuse management innovation is summarized in Table 1 hereafter. This framework gives the possibility to analyze management innovations developed between academics and practitioners.

Table 1: Mechanisms underlying the four scholar-practitioner interactions

Type of interactions	Ambidexterity	Partnership	Mediation	Popularization
Role of media	Very low	Low	Very high	High
Involvement with the other	Very high	High	Low	Very low

Core mechanism	Involvement with the field	Common respect	Shared understanding	Persuasion

4. Methodology

This study mobilizes an historical perspective as this technique "offers insights into the complex relationship or organizational actions across time" (Wadhwani & Bucheli, 2013p. 15). We draw on serial history by collecting multiple cases of management innovations that successfully developed and institutionalized throughout the 20th and 21st centuries that we compared (Rowlinson, Hassard & Decker, 2014). First, we chose this period of time because of the lack of record of the innovations developed earlier (Greif, 1996 in Mol & Birkinshaw, 2014p. 1296). Hence, as management as a science emerged during the early 1960s (Khurana, 2010), management innovations that developed before that period (e.g. scientific management) do not belong to a sub-discipline of management while those that emerged later (e.g. Activity-Based Costing, Blue Ocean Strategy, Open Innovation) originate from different sub-disciplines (respectively accounting, strategy, innovation). Second, by focusing on successfully-developed innovations, we face a pro-innovation bias towards success (Kimberly, 1981) that nevertheless allows comparisons between management innovations on their full developmental processes. Third, we use qualitative procedures as they are well suited to examining developmental processes (Langley, 1999). Multiple case studies are likely to yield more generalizable, robust and parsimonious theory than single cases (Eisenhardt, 1989), here in terms of management sub-disciplines, time periods, and countries.

4. 1. Data Selection

According to Mol & Birkinshaw (2014), it seems that no research before theirs has attempted to create a comprehensive list of key historical management innovations. Out of the 50 management innovations that the authors listed in their earlier work (Mol & Birkinshaw, 2008), we selected a comprehensive list of 13 of them where a clear participation of both academics and practitioners is identified within the 2 to 3-page summary of each management innovation.

To integrate management innovations spanning both the 20th and 21st centuries, we decided to extend our first selection to more recent management innovations, namely Blue Ocean Strategy, Business Model Canvas, Disruptive Innovation and Open Innovation. All of them are best-sellers that have been awarded by the business press (e.g. Business Week, Fast

Company, Forbes, Amazon.com). Furthermore, as the lead author was working in a management consulting firm during the data selection stage, he could validate the use in practice of these 4 management innovations by acknowledging that management consultants know them and mobilize them in consulting assignments. Finally, as the majority of the management innovations in our study were developed in the United States, we included a non-US management innovation, the KCP method, inherited from the CK theory (Agogué, Hatchuel, Weil, Amar & Trémoureux, 2014), that was developed in France. As its international notoriety is currently lower than the 4 other management innovations, the KCP method could not be assessed with the same procedure regarding its use in practice.

4. 2. Data Collection

Consistently with our focus on academic-practitioner interactions, we collected data at a practice level of analysis. In other words, we tried to understand how scholars and practitioners interacted to actually develop management innovations. We relied on two distinct procedures. We collected data through historical accounts of management innovations and through interviews with people who took part in the development of the management innovation.

For the management innovations extracted from Mol & Birkinshaw (2008), we followed the authors' advice (p. xi) and contacted the first author to have the complete list of references used in their book to describe each management innovation. We read references we could have access to and discarded the ones that did not give any information on their development. For instance, books or Harvard Business Review articles written by the actors of the innovation were discarded when they did not give enough account of its development. We completed that first list with complementary researches conducted on data bases (Business Source Complete, ABI/Inform) without restricting ourselves to the English language and included few references written in French. We also included book chapters as business history is often developed in those outlets (Kipping & Üsdiken, 2014). Finally, we marginally found other references through forward and backward snowballing techniques.

When we could not assess the whole developmental process of a management innovation, we had to remove them from our selection. It includes 360-Degree Feedback, Communities of Practice and Customer Relationship Management. We also discarded Total Quality Management as it was difficult to delimit the actors of the academic-practitioner

interactions. At the end of the process, 9 management innovations left out from the 13 we selected from Mol & Birkinshaw (2008). We have an average of 3.3 sources for each, constituted of peer-reviewed articles and book chapters (see Table 2). This figure hides a wide variety of situations, depending on how well the history of the innovation has been studied in the management literature. For instance, as Activity-Based Costing has been well studied within the literature, 2 sources were enough to assess its whole developmental process. At the opposite, we relied on 7 different articles and book chapters to give its full chronology of Discounted Cash Flow.

For the 5 management innovations whose data were not collected using Mol & Birkinshaw (2008), we interviewed the actors who took part in the management innovation and asked them to recall the development of the management innovation and their involvement in it. We conducted 22 interviews between July 2013 and August 2014. As one of the interviewee also had a stake in the development of the Balanced Scorecard, we asked him the same questions regarding this innovation. Interviews were carried out either face-to-face or by telephone and lasted on average 79 minutes. They were recorded and transcribed when approved. As we could not secure an interview with Clayton Christensen, the main actor who took part in Disruptive Innovation, we relied on a conference he gave at Oxford University in June 2013 that was broadcasted on Youtbe that we transcribed. To diminish the inherent biases linked to retrospective sensemaking (Weick, 1995), we also relied on secondary data. They include academic articles, blog entries, press articles, conference proceedings, practitioner-oriented articles, and consulting project materials. Table 2 details the data collection for the sampled management innovations.

Table 2: Data collection

Management Innovations	Definition	Data main sources[1]		
		I[2]	A[3]	Others
Activity-Based Costing (ABC) (e.g. Cooper, 1992)	A new practice and technique for assigning costs aimed at providing more realistic cost assessments	-	4	-
Balanced Scorecard (BSC) (e.g. Kaplan & Norton, 1996)	A new technique and practice for integrating various types of information with the aim of making more informed decisions	1	3	Schneiderman's website
Blue Ocean Strategy (BOS) (e.g. Kim & Mauborgne, 2005)	A new practice or technique for reconstructing market boundaries and industry structure with the aim of creating innovative value to unlock new demand	13	2	Powerpoint slides, INSEAD brochures, Blue Ocean Strategy website
Business Model Canvas (BMC) (e.g. Osterwalder & Pigneur, 2010)	A new practice or technique for documenting existing business models with the aim of aligning activities by illustrating potential trade-offs	4	-	Blog entries
Business Process Reengineering (BPR) (e.g. Hammer & Champy, 1993)	A new process or technique for analyzing and designing workflows and business processes with the aim of helping organizations rethink how they do their work	-	3	Sloan Management Review
KCP Method (CK) (e.g. Agogué, Hatchuel, Weil, Amar & Trémoureux, 2014)	A new practice or technique for collective creative design with the aim of creating innovative ideas	4	2	Conference proceeding
Discounted Cash Flow (DCF) (e.g. Dean, 1954)	A new technique intended to improve investment and budgeting decisions by adding a temporal dimension	-	7	-
Disruptive Innovation (DI) (Christensen, 1997)	A new practice or technique for creating new markets with the aim of applying a different set of values, which ultimately overtakes an existing market	-	2	YouTube video, Business press articles (Bloomberg, New Yorker, Wired)
Economic Value Added (EVA) (e.g. Stern, Shiely & Ross, 2003)	A new technique intended to estimate a firm's economic profit	-	2	-
Knowledge Management (KM) (Davenport & Prusak, 1998)	A new set of practices and processes with the goal of capturing, developing, sharing, and effectively using organizational knowledge	-	4	-

Management by Objectives (MBO) (e.g. Drucker, 1954)	A new process and technique for defining goals within an organization with the aim of aligning management and employee	-	3	-
Open Innovation (OI) (e.g. Chesbrough, 2003)	A new practice and process for using both inflows and outflows of knowledge with the aim of improving internal innovation and expanding the markets for external exploitation of innovation	1	-	Business press articles (Research-Technology Management, Deloitte Review)
Scientific Management (SMT) (e.g. Taylor, 1911)	A new practice and technique for analyzing and synthesizing workflows with the aim of improving economic efficiency	-	4	-
T-Groups (e.g. Bradford, Gibb & Benne, 1964)	A new technique for training participants to learn about themselves through their interactions with each other	-	5	-

[1] Details are available upon request.
[2] I = Interviews. Composed of interviews conducted with academics, practitioners and publishers
[3] A = Academic sources. Composed of articles, thesis, conference proceedings and book chapters, see appendix 4.

4. 3. Data Analysis

We analyzed the data following four steps. First, we established a descriptive coding aimed at describing each management innovation in terms of time frame, discipline and countries (see Table 3). Due to our data collection procedure, the management innovations we studied mainly come from the USA. They span different sub-disciplines of management and different time periods from 1890 (Scientific Management) to 2015 (e.g. Disruptive Innovation, Business Model Canvas).

Table 3: Characteristics of the sampled management innovations

Management Innovation	**Discipline**					**Time period**			**Country**		
	GM	A	I	S	O	1890-50	1950-80	1980-15	Fr	Sw	USA
ABC		X						X			X
BMC				X				X		X	
BOS				X				X	X		X
BPR				X				X			X
BSC				X				X			X
CK			X					X	X		
DCF		X				X	X				X
DI			X					X			X
EVA		X					X	X			X
KM					X			X			X
MBO	X						X				X
OI			X					X			X
SMT	X					X					X
T-G					X	X	X				X

Disciplines: GM – General Management; A – Accounting; I – Innovation; S – Strategy; O – Others
Countries: Fr – France; Sw – Switzerland; USA – United States

Second, from the collected data, we took notes on the developmental process of each management innovation. They last from 3 to 12 pages. From these notes, we built a chronology of the successive events through which each management innovation develops. It took the shape of short descriptive sentences. This process included from time to time to go back to the data sources to triangulate the selected information to assess their consistency. It also included looking for other minor data sources to assess some facts (e.g. checking books' and articles' publication dates). For each event, we identified the corresponding academic-practitioner interaction. It sometimes involved splitting an event into different sub-events or gathering events. We ended up with an average of 9.6 development steps per innovation. To allow subsequent comparisons between management innovations, we kept the chronologies at the same level of details, despite the eclectic nature of the data collected (interview transcripts, academic articles, book chapters). Table 4 gives the example of the chronology of Business Model Canvas.

Table 4: Developmental process of business model canvas

Context: *Yves Pigneur works on processes and interfaces at HEC Lausanne. Entrepreneurs come to him for questions on business planning and ask the same questions again and again. He launches a research project on emerging business model and then on what is a business model and hires Alexander Osterwalder as a PhD student.*

Period	Description	Interaction	Phase
2000-04	Business modeling with entrepreneurs at HEC Lausanne.	Mediation	1
2004	Defense of Alex Osterwalder thesis, which is a theoretical building of a conceptual model of business model with guidelines on how to implement a tool. The thesis will be put on a website and downloaded many times.	Ambidexterity	1
2004-…	Blogging on Business Model by Alex Osterwalder who gives many content for free (presentations…).	Popularization	2
2004-08	While working in an NGO and in a small consultancy, Alex Osterwalder has the opportunity to confront the model with practice. In the meantime, Yves Pigneur tests the model with students from HEC Lausanne… It leads to its simplification.	Ambidexterity	2
2008-10	Co-construction of the "Business Model Generation" book with 470 other people in an "open innovation" format.	Mediation	2
2008-10	Workshop to build the concept with participants following a "trial and error" format.	Mediation	2

2010	"Business Model Generation" book publication.	Popularization	2
2010-…	Workshops (3 different formats) to diffuse the concept; organisation in April 2013 of Business Design Summit with invitation of prominent scholars.	Popularization	2
2010-…	Consulting activity on Business Model led by Business Model Inc directed by Patrick Van der Pijl, producer of the book) with regular exchanges between the consultancy, Alex Osterwalder and Yves Pigneur.	Partnership	3
2011	"Business Model You" publication, with as main author Tim Clark, one of the 470 co-authors, that uses the framwork to apply it in another setting.	Popularization	3
2012	iPad and sofwares developed to be sold to firms.	Popularization	4
2012-14	Co-construction of "Value Proposition Design" during workshop and with students.	Mediation	4
2013	"Train the trainer" certification process launched.	Popularization	4
2014	"Value Proposition Design" publication.	Popularization	4

In the third step, we compared the different management innovations. We identified recurring practices among the different academic-practitioner interactions. For instance, we found that some innovations relied on the creation of an academic journal. As this practice was recurrent for T-groups, Economic Value Added, Knowledge Management and Management by Objectives, we gathered them within a category. We also found innovations where a book targeted to the academic community was developed, as is the case for Open Innovation for instance. We understood that this practice had the same objective than creating an academic journal. We gathered all them under the label “scientific legitimacy building”. Repeating that same process for each event, we inductively gathered and built categories until we obtained a limited number of practices. As this step is a purely interpretive approach, the two authors built and labeled the different practices by discussing differences of opinion in order to reach an agreement. Table 5 reviews the different practices and develops their role in the generation and diffusion of the management innovation. It also indicates the innovations for which they were the most critical and illustrates the practices with an example from the sample.

Table 5: Practices of interactions between research and practice in the development of management innovations

Table 5.1: Popularization

Practices	Role in the development	Management Innovation	Example	Phase
Diffusion within popular and specialized press	Diffusion to the general public	EVA, DCF, SMT, T-groups (and many others)	An article from Business Week advertised T-groups in 1956 and had a huge impact on its success. (T-Group)	1, 2, 3 & 4
Use of social media (blog, Twitter…)	Diffusion among selective channels	BMC	Alexander Osterwalder got known thanks to his blog and thanks to his activity on Twitter he launched once he defended his PhD dissertation. (BMC)	2
Diffusion through practitioner-oriented conferences	Diffusion within practice	BMC, BPR, DCF, KM (and many others)	"Hammer Forums" conferences engaged many followers to the topic of Business Process Reengineering. (BPR)	2, 3 & 4
Publication of an essay	High diffusion within practice	All of them (excepted T-groups)	Clayton Christensen published in 1997 The "Innovator's Dilemma", which received the Global Business Book Award as the best business book of year 1997 and was named in 2011 by the Economist as one of the six most important books about business ever written. (DI)	2, 3 & 4
Diffusion of explanatory video	Diffusion within firms	ABC, CK (and many others)	Diffusion of an explanatory video on how to implement Activity-Based Costing methods. (ABC)	2 & 3
Teaching through textbooks	Diffusion among universities	DCF, KM (and all the others)	Blue Ocean Strategy is taught in 2015 in more than 1,764 universities. (BOS)	2, 3 & 4
Production of cases and teaching material	Controlled diffusion among universities	BOS (and many others)	Blue Ocean Strategy cases were awarded by Case Centre "All-Time Top 40 Bestselling Cases" in 2014, "Best Overall Case" in 2009 across all disciplines and "Best Case in Strategy" in 2008. (BOS)	2, 3 & 4

Creation of a professional certification	Controlled diffusion within business settings	BOS, BMC, CK	In 2013, certifications were launched to give the possibility to become a Certified Trainer of Business Model Canvas. (BMC)	3 & 4
Adoption by consultants	Diffusion within business settings	BOS, DCF, EVA, SMT, T-groups (and many others)	Once diffused, competition copies the EVA: BCG creates "TSR"; Arthur Andersen creates "Shareholder Value Added"; PwC creates "ValueBuilder 1TM". (EVA)	2, 3 & 4
Implementation through tools	Diffusion within firms	ABC, BMC, BPR, BOS, BSC	ABC was diffused within firms through ERP. (ABC)	3 & 4
Adoption by authority figures	Getting credentials to create a norm	ABC, BOS, BPR, CK, DCF, DI, EVA, KM	Discounted Cash Flow is used in the UK by 1963 through the Finance Act. (DCF)	1, 2 & 4

Table 5.2: Mediation

Practices	Role in the development	Management Innovation	Example	Phase
Professional / internal publications	Informal exchange of knowledge (trial and error)	MBO, SMT	F. Taylor got ideas from the American Society of Mechinal Engineering where he published paper in "The Transactions". (SMT)	1
Publication within a bridge journal	Ideas testing within practice	ABC, BOS, BSC, BPR, EVA, KM (and others)	Joël Stern tests his ideas in several working papers published in 1972 in the Wall Street Journal and in 1974 in the Financial Analyst Journal. (EVA)	1 & 2
Teaching / training	Getting new ideas and new application settings, clarifying (especially executive education)	BMC, BSC, CK, DI, OI, T-groups (and others)	By giving assignments to his students, Henry Chesbrough was able to question Open Innovation and generalize it to new settings. (OI)	1, 2, 3 & 4
Conduct of research within a consortium of firms	Formal exchange of knowledge between academics and practitioners, observation of new practices, funding for research	ABC, BOS, BPR, BSC, CK, KM, OI	The Ecole des Mines created a chair gathering a consortium of firms to do fundamental research on CK theory and improve the KCP method. (CK)	1, 2 & 3
Creation of a co-construction platform	Exchange of knowledge between academics and practitioners, funding	BMC, DI	The Business Model Generation book was co-created with 470 people. (BMC)	2 & 3
Creation of a think tank dedicated to the innovation	Improving the innovation and perpetuation of its legacy	BOS, CK, DI, EVA, KM, MBO, SMT, T-groups	Creation in 1997 of Journal of Knowledge Management and of the European Knowledge Management Association. (KM)	3 & 4

Table 5.3: Partnership

Practices	Role in the development	Management Innovation	Example	Phase
Elective affinity between an academic and a practitioner	Exchange of specific knowledge between academics and practitioners	BMC, BSC, CK, MBO	Peter Drucker developed within GE the concept of MBO with Harold Smiddy, an ex-consultant he had already worked with. Drucker brought the "auto-control" idea while Smiddy brought the "manager letter" idea. (MBO)	1
Case development with practitioners	Better understanding of a firm setting	ABC, BSC	Kaplan, Cooper and Johnson conducted cases on 3 firms they wrote with practitioners who helped them better understand the company. (ABC)	1

Table 5.4: Ambidexterity

Practices	Role in the development	Management Innovation	Example	Phase
Experimentations within a firm by a practitioner	Local experiments to discover / generate management knowledge	EVA, MBO, SMT	When entering GE, Harold Smiddy introduces the "monthly letter" to 2 operating divisions. (MBO)	1
Consulting activity by an academic	Refinement of the concept, gathering of new case studies, diffusion within firms	ABC, BMC, BOS, BSC, DCF, DI, OI, T-groups	Because of his notoriety, Kaplan is called to implement ABC within firms. It will lead to the discovery of the BSC later. (ABC)	1, 2 & 3
Creation of a consulting firm (or equivalent) by an academic	Refinement of the concept, gathering of new case studies, diffusion within firms	BSC, DI	After the publication of the Balanced Scorecard book, Kaplan co-founded a consultancy with Norton. (BSC)	
Scientific legitimacy building	Diffusion in academic settings (scientific publications)	BMC, BSC, CK, DI, EVA, KM, OI, SMT, T-groups	Publication of a theoretical book by F. Taylor (Shop Management) in 1903. He will later popularize it in 1911 in “Principles of Scientific Management”. (SMT)	1, 2, 3 & 4

Fourth and last, we indicated for each event its corresponding developmental phase in the institutionalization process (local development, broad dissemination, improvement, and institutionalization). It gave the possibility to indicate in Table 5 the phases where the practices were found and to build Table 6 which summarizes the development of each management innovation by developmental phase. We found common patterns among the different management innovations. Different practices were systematically taking place at the same stages of the developmental process of each management innovation. We detail the results in the following section.

Table 6: Developmental process of sampled management innovations

	Phase 1: Local Development	Phase 2: Broad Dissemination	Phase 3: Improvement	Phase 4: Institutionalization
ABC	Development of cases of implementation of ABC that will be taught. (Partnership) Conduct of a research program on ABC. (Mediation) Publication of the results in HBR. (Mediation)	Publication of "Relevance Lost" and of several papers. (Popularization, Mediation) Sponsored conferences on ABC. (Mediation)	Diffusion of the concept through different means. (Popularization) Consulting activities by the academics. (Ambidexterity) Development of other concepts (A-BM vs. ABC). (Popularization)	Implementation of ABC through ERP. (Popularization) Adoption of ABC by different States and large firms. (Popularization)
BMC	Informal training sessions on Business Model. (Mediation) Thesis defense on an ontology of business model. (Ambidexterity)	Blogging and consulting activities. (Popularization) Workshops on Business Model; co-construction and publication of "Business Model Generation". (Mediation, Popularization) Workshops to diffuse the concept. (Popularization)	Consulting activity by the producer of the book that improves the concept. (partnership) Publication of "Business Model You". (Popularization)	Development of software and development of certification. (Popularization) Co-construction and publication of "Value Proposition Design". (Mediation, Popularization)
BOS	Consulting project led by academics where the Value Innovation concept emerges. (Ambidexterity) Publication of a HBR article on Value Innovation. (Mediation)	Test of the idea within a consortium of consultancies and academic consultancy. (Mediation, Ambidexterity) Development of the idea in HBR articles and in teaching cases. (Mediation)	Publication of "Blue Ocean Strategy". (Popularization) Application by many consultancies. (Popularization) Creation of the Blue Ocean Strategy Institute to improve the concept. (Mediation)	Creation of implementation tools, certification process, teaching materials development. (Popularization) Application of the concept to governmental agencies. (Popularization) Development of the concept in other settings; publication of an expanded version of the book. (Popularization)

BPR	Research collaboration program between academics and practitioners within a consortium of 19 firms. (Mediation) Attempts to publish a HBR article on the findings. (Mediation)	Publication of articles on Business Process Reengineering. (Mediation) "Hammer Forums" to discuss reengineering. (Popularization)	Publication of books on reengineering. (Popularization)	Creation of software and adoption of reengineering by consultancies. (Popularization) Use of the concept by government agencies and large firms that require its adoption by suppliers. (Popularization)
BSC	Discovery through the development of a teaching case that will be taught at Harvard. (Partnership, Mediation) Application within a consortium of firms where academic-practitioner partnerships develop. (Mediation, Partnership) Publication in practitioner-journals. (Mediation)	Consulting activities by both academics and practitioners. (Ambidexterity) Publication of "The Balanced Scorecard". (Popularization)	Creation by an academic of a consultancy dedicated to the concept. (Ambidexterity)	Implementation of the concept through ERP. (Popularization) Publication of books and articles on Balanced Scorecard. (Popularization) Publication of a book chapter to legitimize the conceptual foundation of the Balanced Scorecard. (Ambidexterity)
CK	Creation of CK theory within a course. (Mediation) Development of the KCP method as a practical methodology through a partnership between Ecole des Mines and RATP. (Partnership) Development of a research chair to develop the concept further. (Mediation)	Publication of articles and of a book; diffusion of a video. (Popularization) Diffusion in different universities. (Popularization)	Improvement of the methodology. (Mediation) Willingness to certify the methodology. (Popularization)	N/A
DCF	Application by different scholars of discounted cash flow techniques to firms. (Ambidexterity)	Publication of principles of discounted cash flows. (Popularization) Adoption of the concept by several firms. (Popularization)	Development of a consultancy by an academic that diffuses the method. (Ambidexterity) Publication of a HBR article. (Popularization)	Adoption by consultancies and by public companies and government agencies. (Popularization) Teaching of the concept that allows its use within firms. (Popularization)

DI	Doctoral thesis where the concept of Disruptive Innovation emerges. (Ambidexterity) Concept highly advertised by Intel. (Popularization) Academic consultancy. (Ambidexterity)	Publication of the "Innovator's Dilemma". (Popularization)	Improvement of the concept through cases studies from MBA students. (Mediation) Creation of Innosight to consult on Disruptive Innovation. (Ambidexterity) Publication of other books and articles. (Popularization)	Creation of an investment company and of a think tank to apply the concept to healthcare and education. (Ambidexterity, Mediation)
EVA	Application of economic theories to business by publication of working papers. (Mediation) Experimentation of Economic Value Added within a consultancy. (Ambidexterity) Publication by a professor of "Creating Shareholder Value" that puts the idea in the air. (Mediation)	Creation of a quasi-academic review, the Journal of Applied Corporate Finance. (Ambidexterity) Promotion through interviews, participation to think tanks and use of the caution of prominent economists. (Popularization) Publication of "The Quest for Value". (Popularization)	Adoption by large firms. (Popularization) Diffusion through newspapers. (Popularization)	Adoption by consultancies. (Popularization) Creation of EVA Institute. (Mediation)
KM	Scattered experiences conducted within firms before the development of an initiative within a consortium of firms led by Ernst & Young. (Mediation) Publication of case studies. (Mediation)	Conferences gathering guest speakers. (Popularization) Publication of several books and articles. (Popularization) Creation of dedicated courses. (Popularization)	Research program led by the American Productivity and Quality Center. (Mediation)	Creation of academic journals. (Ambidexterity) Publication in practitioner-oriented media. (Popularization) Creation of the European Knowledge Management Association. (Mediation)
MBO	Experimentation of the monthly letter within General Electric. (Ambidexterity) Development of the concept within General Electric through an academic-practitioner partnership	Publication of a chapter dedicated to Management by Objective in "Practice of Management". (Popularization)	Diverse publications in academic and business settings. (Popularization)	Creation of the Management by Objective Society in the UK and of an academic journal. (Mediation)

	and internal publications. (Partnership, Mediation)			
OI	Study of firms during a PhD doctorate and as an assistant professor with subsequent publications. (Ambidexterity)	Publication of "Open Innovation" and in practitioner-oriented articles. (Popularization)	Consulting activities dedicated to the concept, MBA and doctoral classes. (Ambidexterity, Mediation) Publication of a handbook dedicated to academics. (Ambidexterity) Creation of a consortium of firms. (Mediation)	Publication of other books and handbook. (Popularization, Ambidexterity)
SMT	Experimentations at Bethlehem Steel Company. (Ambidexterity) Exchanges at the American Society of Mechanical Engineering in "The Transactions". (Mediation) Lectures and publication of a scientific book, "Shop Management". (Ambidexterity)	Publication of "The Principles of Scientific Management" which popularizes "Shop Management". (Popularization)	Diffusion of reports and testimonies on Scientific Management. (Popularization)	Adoption by consultants and publications. (Popularization) Foundation of Taylor Society. (Mediation)
T-G	Creation of T-Groups during a feedback session at an intergroup relation workshop. (Mediation) Creation of NTL to better understand the concept. (Mediation) Development of training sessions by academics. (Ambidexterity)	Article on Business Week that advertises the concept. (Popularization)	Adoption by consultants and development of tools. (Popularization) Application in firm settings through sensitivity training. (Ambidexterity)	Development of best practices at NTL. (Mediation) Creation of Journal of Applied Behavioral Science targeted to academia. (Ambidexterity)

Note: A more developed account of each management innovation (cf. Table IV) is available upon request.

5. A Developmental Process Model of Management Innovations Built Between Research And Practice

Our study describes the different modes of interaction that occur throughout the 4 phases of development of management innovations. When a management innovation locally develops between academics and practitioners, ambidexterity, partnership and mediation interactions take place. They lead to the production of a first artifact. During the second phase, the artifact improves and takes the shape of an essay. Its diffusion will be accompanied by popularization and mediation interactions. Then, the management innovation evolves by relying on ambidexterity and mediation interactions. Popularization will continue to disseminate the concept. It leads to an institutionalization phase where the majority of interactions rely on popularization while mediation and ambidexterity interactions anchor the innovation in the academic community and ensure its sustainability. In the following sub-section, we describe and illustrate each phase.

5. 1. First Phase of Local Development

During the inception of the management innovation, academics and practitioners take part in the generation of knowledge through ambidexterity, mediation and partnership interactions. Popularization is only marginally mobilized.

With ambidexterity interactions, practitioners may develop an innovation through scientific observations of a phenomenon or through scientific experimentations. To develop Open Innovation and Disruptive Innovation, Both Henry Chesbrough and Clayton Christensen undertook doctoral studies in the 1990s after several years spent working respectively in the disk drive and in the consulting industries. They conducted scientific observations and analyses of archival data, and defended a dissertation based on that material. It contributed to building an academic legitimacy. Similarly, Harold Smiddy entered in 1948 his new position as the Vice President of General Electric's Management Consultation Services. He launched experiments by introducing a monthly letter to two of its operating divisions. It is that letter that will lead to the manager's letter, the cornerstone of Management by Objective.

The other way round, academics also develop innovations by confronting themselves with the business reality. For instance, in the case of Discounted Cash Flow, its application in

business settings was made by the project of Irvin Fisher from Yale University between 1905 and 1909 at Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railway; the work of Eugene L Grant as a graduate student at Columbia University in the 1920s at AT&T, and the consulting assignment led by Robert Anthony from Harvard University in the 1950s for the National Shoe Manufacturers Association. In the case of Blue Ocean Strategy, W. Chan Kim began developing the concept at the beginning of the 1990s by taking part in a consulting project led by his colleague CK Prahalad where he was able to make experiments by intervening within the firm.

Management innovations can also seed from mediation interactions. A consortium gathering academics and practitioners might be a first means. For instance, Knowledge Management developed in 1992 within the Center for Business Innovation, a consortium of firms led by Ernst & Young that launched a program called "Mastering the Information Environment". It helped understanding the ongoing practice of Knowledge Management by publishing cases on the lived experience of the participating firms. Mediation may also occur through publication of articles. Bridge journals and specialized publications allow idea development as Taylor did at the end of the 19th century while publishing in the Transaction, the journal of the American Society of Mechanical Engineering. Finally, practices such as teaching also allow academics to apply and test their ideas with students. Armand Hatchuel, professor at the French engineering school Ecole des Mines developed the CK theory, the grounding of KCP method, notably through a course launched in 1996 aimed at understanding the conception activity of a firm. Theory building benefited from interactions between the professor and his students.

Lastly, management innovations may emerge from partnerships developed between academics and practitioners. The case of the KCP method is again exemplary. After its first conceptualization through mediation interactions that led to the CK theory, it gained its first practical development through the affinity between Armand Hatchuel from Ecole des Mines and Georges Amar from RATP, the Parisian state-owned public transport operator. Together, and through a trial and error process, they developed the KCP method they applied to the firm and turned the theory into a process to make it usable in practice. Partnerships might also occur by developing teaching cases. For instance, Balanced Scorecard's inception in the academic arena is due the conduct of a case by Robert Kaplan on Analog Devices, the firm that was applying the first Balanced Scorecard. It was later diffused as a teaching material at the Harvard

Business School. It led to subsequent discussions and improvements with students and faculty members.

These different ways of coming up with an idea and developing it lead to the production of a first artifact that synthesizes the research that is conducted during that period. The examples of Business Model Canvas, Business Process Reengineering, Scientific Management and Blue Ocean Strategy are here particularly relevant. The depository on the Internet of Alexander Osterwalder's thesis allowed people to get to know his work, the rejection by the editors of the Harvard Business Review (HBR) article of a first manuscript on Business Process Reengineering in 1988 before the acceptation of two publications in HBR and in Sloan Management Review 2 years later show the difficulty to come up with a clear-cut idea, the relative neglecting of Frederick Taylor's Shop Management published in 1903 that nonetheless built the grounding of Principles of Management also illustrates the difficulty to come up with an appealing idea, and finally, the sequel of 9 HBR articles published by W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne before the publication of the Blue Ocean Strategy book in 2005 illustrates the time it can take to develop a management innovation. The innovation proceeds to its next stage when it finds its first accomplished form.

5. 2. Second Phase of Broad Dissemination

In fact, the artifact created during the first phase of development gives voice to discussion among academics and practitioners. As the innovation is being taught and presented to several practitioner-oriented conferences, critics emerge and allow improvements. It leads to the craft of an essay addressed to practitioners. It grants the recognition of the management innovation. Its internal consistency is stronger than the artifact's. Several stakeholders may take part in it. Beyond editors' help in translating academics' research into a form that managers can use, practitioners may also give their practical feedbacks to authors. An extreme case of such involvement is the co-creation of Business Model Generation, the book on Business Model Canvas that benefited from the expertise and funding of 470 people.

However, among the 14 management innovations investigated, two did not benefit from the publication of an essay at this stage of development. In the case of Blue Ocean Strategy, the innovation was already broadly disseminated under the Value Innovation concept, through numerous HBR articles and the Value Innovation Network, a consultancy network, even before

the book was published. However, the book boosted its diffusion through the "Blue Ocean Strategy" concept as attests the 3.5 million copies of the book that have been sold since 2005. In the case of T-groups, the innovation has not immediately been the subject of an essay. After Bradford, Benne and Lippitt developed the concept of training-group during a seminar in 1946, the management innovation got its traction 10 years later through a Business Week article.

The publication of an essay is accompanied by mediation activities aimed at engaging innovators with their public. Business press articles usually promote the innovations as was the case for T-groups. In the US, a HBR article usually accompanies publications from prominent professors. In the case of Open Innovation, Henry Chesbrough even published 3 articles not only in HBR but also in MIT Sloan Review and California Management Review. The innovation also benefited from the US National Public Radio as it awarded Open Innovation the best book on innovation of year 2003. The case of Business Model Canvas is also interesting to this regard. The innovators put for free on the Internet 72 pages of their book as well as a 1-page sheet of their framework. The later will be downloaded several millions times.

At that stage of development, the innovation gets some attraction from the public at large and innovators benefit from popularization interactions. They are usually invited to talk shows but also organize their own conferences as Michael Hammer did by promoting Business Process Reengineering through what he called the "Hammer Forums". Authority figures can also be mobilized to help the innovation get some credentials. To promote Economic Value Added, Bennett Stewart used the caution of economists and intellectuals such as Abby Cohen, chief strategist of Goldman Sachs, Peter Drucker or Merton Miller. Other popularization practices occur that are not directly related to the promotion of the essay. The innovation has to be disseminated within university's and firms' settings through teaching and consulting activities. Teaching activities include the development of cases and of teaching materials. By facilitating the teaching of the innovation, the authors guarantee its understanding both by professors and students. On the other hand, consulting activities are the way through which the innovation is applied within firms. To apply the principles of T-groups within firms, Robert R. Blake and Jane Mouton developed the "managerial grid", a tool that allows managers to know their leadership style.

The innovation will eventually become a fashion. During the next phase, it will be the subject of improvements.

5. 3. Third Phase of Improvement

As authors popularize their innovation, they face a high level of demand from people willing to benefit from its outcomes. Some of them accept not only to promote their innovation to corporations but also to help managers apply the innovation within their specific context. Such an ambidextrous position gives them the possibility to discover and observe new application settings or to conduct new experiments that may eventually improve the innovation. In the case of Open Innovation, Henry Chesbrough kept tight relationships with the firms he built cases on during his PhD at Berkeley and his stay at Harvard Business School. He got knowledge from the firms and could give them recommendations before setting up the Center for Open Innovation at Berkeley and formalize those knowledge exchanges through mediation interactions. Other academics have created consultancies to improve their knowledge on the innovation and to monetize it. For instance, Robert Kaplan created Balanced Scorecard Collaborative later renamed Palladium and Clayton Christensen launched Innosight.

Innovation improvements also come from mediation interactions. In parallel to the relationships nurtured with firms, Henry Chesbrough was teaching Open Innovation to MBA and doctoral students. By requesting his MBA students to find their own examples of Open Innovation and to write a paper on it, Henry Chesbrough was able to discover many other situations where the innovation was applicable. On the other hand, the doctoral students theoretically grounded the Open Innovation concept by connecting it to other academic concepts. In the case of Knowledge Management, the American Productivity and Quality Center (APQC), a professional association dedicated to helping organizations improve their productivity and quality, found an interest in Knowledge Management and organized in 1995 a Knowledge Management best practices consortium. It launched a multi-companies research project that produced actionable best practices in designing and implementing Knowledge Management strategies, and measuring the impact of Knowledge Management.

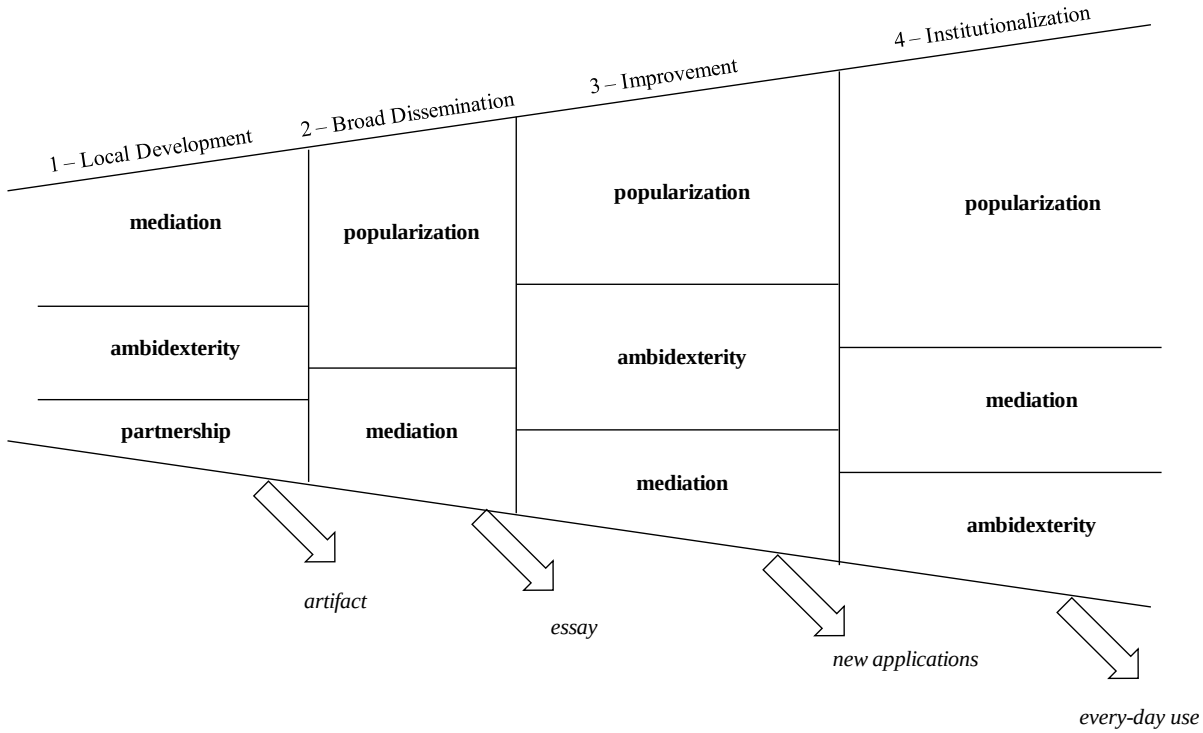
These new applications and refinements are popularized through essays that might become sequels of the first one. Some of the authors who published their book with Harvard Business School Press even become “franchisee authors”. It is the case of Robert Kaplan and David Norton who have published 5 books and 9 HBR articles on Balanced Scorecard since 1992, but also of authors such as Clayton Christensen and Henry Chesbrough. The innovation improvements may lead to its adoption by a larger population and grant its institutionalization.

5. 4. Fourth Phase of Institutionalization

During that phase, we observe popularization practices close to those developed during the 2nd phase. However, as the innovation has already been disseminated, consultants and managers are able to apply it to their own setting without the help of the innovators, which may lead to misuses of the concept. Furthermore, managers may not be willing to adopt the innovation without proofs of its impact. In the case of Blue Ocean Strategy, the innovation was diffused through the Blue Ocean Strategy Network that replaced the Value Innovation Network. It gathers a global community of practitioners consulting on Blue Ocean Strategy projects. As the practitioners involved in the network had a stake in the development of the management innovation, they would not misuse the concept. The innovators even created a certification process to ensure the quality of the consulting activities conducted on Blue Ocean Strategy. Finally, the innovators proved to the public at large the impact of the concept by advertising its use with authority figures. W. Chan Kim worked with the prime minister of Malaysia to launch a National Blue Ocean Strategy in 2012 and Renée Mauborgne is a board member since 2012 of the White House Initiative on Historically Black Colleges and Universities.

Despite their practical impact, management innovations also need to gain a scientific legitimacy. For instance, the Taylor Society was created after the publication of Frederick W. Taylor's 1911 book to extend legacy. Similarly, the NTL Institute which is at the root of the creation of T-groups sponsored the publication of Journal of Applied Behavioral Science in 1965 to diffuse small group research within academia. In the case of Open Innovation, despite its recognition in practice, the concept needed a scientific legitimacy. It relied on the set-up of a Professional Development Workshop at the Academy of Management in 2004 and on the publication of 2 academic handbooks that were published respectively in 2006 and 2014. The publication by Laursen & Salter (2006) in the Strategic Management Journal also contributed to its scientific legitimacy by validating the outside-in part of the Open Innovation model. Figure 2 describes the 4 phases of development of management innovations between research and practice we have described in that section. We discuss these findings in the next section.

Figure 2: The 4 phases of development of management innovations between research and practice



6. Discussion and Conclusion

In analyzing four different ways through which practitioners and academics interact to develop management innovations, we complemented existing research from the (re)emerging field of research on management innovation by building a developmental framework of management innovations nurtured between research and practice. We described and illustrated each of the four phases of the process by relying on practices of academics-practitioners interactions developed among 14 management innovations created during the 20th and 21st century. This all said, three main contributions to the theory development perspective on management innovation have emerged from our empirical findings (Volberda, Van Den Bosch & Mihalache, 2014) as well as implications for practice and avenues for further research.

6. 1. Understanding the Relationship between Research and Practice

We first contribute to better understanding the relationship between research and practice. We have highlighted the absence of coherent frameworks conceptualizing the development of management knowledge between research and practice: it is not the focal point

of studies aimed at understanding how management knowledge develops (e.g. Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008), there are disagreements on how academic-practitioner interactions should occur (e.g. Yorks & Whitsett, 1985), and the other studies related to scholar-practitioner interactions focus on prescribing research designs that include practitioners rather than conceptualizing the interaction (e.g. Van de Ven, 2007). Our observations are consistent with Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl (2015)'s of the absence in the "relevance debate" of frameworks related to the relationship between research and practice. They argue that such framework should specify that knowledge cannot be considered independently of its context and that science has to be clearly conceptualized. The first point implies that simple transfers between research and practice cannot occur without knowledge transformation knowledge while the second point aims at delimitating the framework to relevant interactions. The framework should also take into account that social and political contexts shape exchanges of knowledge and that practitioners do not only use management research in utilitarian and direct ways (p. 215).

Following Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl (2015)'s advices, our study conceptualizes a framework of knowledge exchanges between research and practice. It focuses on the practices of interaction that take place between academics and practitioners. It typifies 4 modes of interaction, namely popularization, mediation, partnership and ambidexterity. Applying this framework to 14 management innovations developed in different contexts, we show how academic-practitioner interactions shape knowledge throughout their development.

The scholar-practitioner-interactions typology gives the possibility to understand the linkage between research and practice (Doty & Glick, 1994). By comparing historical accounts of management innovations (Rowlinson, Hassard & Decker, 2014), we specified the typology by identifying recurring practices that take place between research and practice. This said, our framework allows two things. First, it generalizes prescriptive research designs. For instance, Christensen & Carlile (2009) emphasize the necessity to continuously "test" the theory with new data for improvement by finding "anomalies". One of their suggestions is to look for the same phenomenon in another industry. Similarly, Kaplan (1998) recommends that once a new practice has been initially implemented within a firm, it should follow additional improvement cycles. Our study reveals that when the management innovation improves (3rd phase), mediation and ambidexterity interactions aim at achieving such a goal. The underlying practices are teaching and training, research conducted within a consortium of firms, knowledge created

through a co-construction platform or through a think tank dedicated to the innovation and also consulting activities and scientific legitimacy building (cf. Table 5). Similarly, several authors have suggested to co-construct management knowledge between academics and practitioners throughout the development of the research project (e.g. Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott & Trow, 1994, Van de Ven, 2007, Avenier & Cajaiba, 2012). Our findings prove that those interactions take place throughout the development of the management knowledge, either through partnership or through mediation interactions.

Second, our framework considers both academics and practitioners as innovators in management. By describing how past management innovations have developed through scholar-practitioners interactions, we did not pre-suppose the superiority of academia in comparison to practice or the other way round (cf. Nicolai, 2004, Pfeffer, 2007, Pfeffer & Fong, 2002). For instance, experimentations within a firm by a practitioner and a research conducted through a consulting activity by an academic are two practices developed through ambidexterity interactions that have contributed to the institutionalization of management innovations such as Management by Objectives and Balanced Scorecard. In other words, our framework recognizes the academic as a practitioner who is theorizing (Weick, 1995) and the practitioner as reflexive who develops reflection-in-action (Schön, 1983).

6. 2. Comprehending how Academics Intervene in Management Innovations

We then attempt to better comprehend how academics intervene in management innovations. In fact, scholars have decried the low involvement of academics in the development of management innovation (e.g. Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, Pfeffer, 2007, Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson & Eisenman, 2001). For instance, Pfeffer (2007) remarks that "in *none* of the 50 instances [from Mol & Birkinshaw (2008)] did the idea or innovation originate with an academic or in academic research, at least according to their brief descriptions of the innovations and how they evolved." (emphasis in original, p. 1336).

This study contributes to understanding how actors produce particular management innovations that gain influence on a large-scale (Vaara & Whittington, 2012). We described the evolving roles of the scholar-practitioner interactions through which 14 management innovations have developed between research and practice (cf. Scarbrough, Robertson & Swan, 2015, Perkmann & Spicer, 2008, Lawrence, Suddaby & Leca, 2009). We proved that in at least

9 of the 50 management innovations investigated by Mol & Birkinshaw (2008) and in 5 other management innovations, academics have participated to their development.

In fact, scholars participate in giving rise to management innovations by exchanging knowledge with practitioners using media. They also can have a more intimate involvement by cooperating with practitioners through case writing for instance or by being involved with a firm with the goal of producing academic knowledge. However, their role does not stop short after the generation of management innovation and its theorizing and labeling (cf. Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008). Afterwards, they contribute to disseminating the innovation using their speech and writing skills. As the innovation will then evolve, they participate to its improvement by spending time within firms and exchanging knowledge with practitioners. Finally, they contribute to establishing the innovation by anchoring its academic legitimacy.

By highlighting the cross-fertilization of ideas that take place between academics and practitioners, we go beyond the study of the involvement of academics in management innovations and highlight the role of a community constituted of both academics and practitioners with different roles and skills (Perkmann & Spicer, 2008). This community takes different shapes. Scarbrough, Robertson & Swan (2015) mention “field configuring events” that mobilize commitment. In the research/practice context, we show that these mediation interactions can launch research projects that lead to management innovations and also contribute to their evolution. However management innovation can also develop through other kinds of communities such as classrooms, elective affinities between a researcher and a practitioner, gurus’ audiences (cf. Groß, Heusinkveld & Clark, 2015) or consulting projects, among other examples (cf. Table 5). This said, our findings recognize, name and locate practices of scholar-practitioner interactions throughout the developmental stage of management innovations.

6. 3. Specifying the Use of Academic Research by Practitioners

Finally, we specify how practitioners use academic research. Studies on the relationship between research and practice have mainly focused on instrumental and direct uses of academic research by practitioners (Beyer & Trice, 1982, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010). However, academic knowledge can also be used less directly through conceptual use for general enlightenment and through symbolic use to legitimate and sustain predetermined positions. For the latter,

credentializing provides management practice with a non-arbitrary measuring tool for assessing competence and *rhetoric devices* serve to legitimate a choice that is already made to third parties (Beyer & Trice, 1982, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010). In the case of the development of management innovations, Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol (2008) acknowledge the legitimacy role of external change agents throughout the management innovation process development. However, even if legitimate utilization of research may be prevalent within organization, it is methodologically difficult to assess (Beyer & Trice, 1982, Nicolai & Seidl, 2010).

By developing practices of interactions between research and practice, we found different ways through which academic knowledge is used by practitioners throughout the development of management innovations. Through popularization interactions, academic knowledge is mainly conceptually used through essays and other related practices but more instrumentally when it comes to consulting practices. Then, practitioners have a conceptual use of mediation interactions they develop for the creation or for the improvement of the management innovation. Furthermore, partnership interactions allow both instrumental and conceptual usages of academic knowledge; and finally, ambidexterity interactions mainly focus on instrumental use through consulting activities but also on symbolic use when it comes to use the scientific legitimacy. Scientific legitimacy takes the form of pursuing a doctoral degree during the local dissemination of the innovation; developing an academic journal to get recognition during broader dissemination; developing the concept in academic circles while it is improved; and creating and publishing in academic outlets to institutionalize the innovation. Beyond knowledge generation and knowledge diffusion, these practices aim at gaining academic credentials.

6. 4. Implication for Practice

By developing practices aimed at improving the relationship between academics and practitioners, the 14 investigated cases show that the two most developed interactions are a-synchronic, namely popularization and mediation. However, synchronic interactions remain scarce, especially partnerships that developed in limited cases. For Werr & Greiner (2008), the decrease in the academic-practice synergy is due to the scientification of management that prevents academics from being close to practice. It separates knowledge from action and makes a division between means and ends and consequently keeps academia away from practice (Schön, 1983). In fact, evaluations of academics are based on this model and do not take into

account scholar-practitioner interactions. Ambidexterity may be seen as risky and are given a low status (Beyer & Trice, 1982, Markides, 2007); partnerships are perceived as less useful for a scholar to pursue an academic career (Werr & Greiner, 2008); popularization is not valued by institutions which rather encourage scholars publishing articles targeted to the academic community (Durand & Dameron, 2011, Adler & Harzing, 2009); and mediation tackle the same issues. We are thus faced with a paradox. How can management scholars "intervene strategically in the management knowledge market" (Abrahamson & Eisenman, 2001) if scholar-practitioners interactions are not taken into account into scholars' evaluation? Our observations lead us to argue that the difficulty of the academic engagement in practice rests mainly on the institutions such as business schools, universities, accreditation systems and scientific communities that do not favor scholar-practitioner interactions.

6. 5. Avenues for Further Research

Finally, this multiple case study brings avenues for further research. First, one could wonder if there are typical strategies that would guarantee the success of a management innovation. For instance, does theorizing a management innovation guarantee its institutionalization? As this study takes a pro-innovation bias by solely focusing on successful management innovations, our research does not give a clear-cut answer. As a comparison between successful cases and failure cases seems to be methodologically difficult to execute, we would suggest contribute to that answer by comparing the performance of the four scholar-practitioner interactions and their underlying practices by focusing on their use (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Nicolai & Seidl, 2010) and their impact (Aguinis et al., 2014).

Second, this research took neither an institutional perspective, nor a micro perspective (Lawrence, Suddaby & Leca, 2009). On the one hand, we did not take into account the role of the environment in shaping innovations. For instance, the reason why the Discounted Cash Flows technique emerged at the beginning of the 20th century despite its knowledge since 1800 or 1600 BC in Mesopotamia can only be explained through an institutional lens. It is due to investments that became more important during that period and highlighted the limits of the Return On Investment technique. On the other hand, our perspective does not give a detailed account of the development of management innovations (cf. Scarbrough, Robertson & Swan, 2015 for resource planning). To overcome those limits, further research should focus on longitudinal cases of management innovations developed between research and practice.

Chapitre 3. A Blue Ocean Strategy for "Blue Ocean Strategy": on Performativity of Strategic Management[44]

Propos liminaire

Le chapitre 2 de cette thèse s'est intéressé à l'analyse de 14 cas de développement d'innovations managériales où nous avons montré comment chercheurs et praticiens participaient à leur génération et à leur diffusion. Nous avons montré les pratiques d'interaction développées entre chercheurs et praticiens et avons proposé un processus de développement des innovations managériales issues de ce contexte. En nous focalisant sur les pratiques d'interaction entre chercheurs et praticiens, nous avons été contraintes d'adopter un niveau d'analyse inter-organisationnel.

Au lieu de nous focaliser sur un niveau d'analyse spécifique, nous proposons dans le chapitre 3 de suivre les acteurs qui développent des théories (Callon & Latour, 2006). Pour cela, nous proposons de développer une étude de cas (Law, 2008), celle de la « Stratégie Océan Bleu ». Pour cela, nous mobilisons le concept de performativité (Callon, 1998) afin de comprendre comment les innovateurs du concept de « Stratégie Océan Bleu », W. Chan Kim et Renée Mauborgne, ont performé leur concept.

[44] Ce chapitre est actuellement en cours de révision pour publication dans Long Range Planning. Une version précédente a été présentée notamment été présentée à l'AIMS en 2015 ainsi qu'à EGOS en 2014.

1. Introduction

> *"With the computer up and running, Von Neumann imagined that scientists would calculate the equations of fluid motion for the next few days. Then a central committee of meteorologists would send up airplanes to lay down smoke screens or seed clouds to push the weather into the desired mode." (Gleick, 1988, p. 19)*

Rather than describing reality, this excerpt from the best-seller *Chaos: Making a New Science* illustrates how meteorologists in the 50s and 60s sought to create reality. Even if they have not accomplished it yet, such a phenomenon may actually take place in social sciences. It has been encapsulated in the concept of *performativity*. Michel Callon reinterprets Austin (1962)'s performative utterances "in which to *say* something is to *do* something; or in which *by* saying something, we are doing something" (Austin, 1962, p. 12, italics in original). He applies it to scientific statements. Accordingly, scientific statements do not describe an external reality but contribute to constitute this reality (Callon, 1998). Taking the example of economics, performativity means that "economics, in the broad sense of the term, performs, shapes and formats the economy, rather than observing how it functions" (Callon, 1998: 2) [45].

By adopting Callon (1998)'s as well as Mackenzie (2007)'s conceptualizations of performativity, the field of Science, Technology and Society (STS) took a performativity turn (Gond, Cabantous, Harding & Learmonth, 2015). It focused on three strands of research: the study of market devices (e.g. Callon, 1998, MacKenzie, Muniesa & Siu, 2007), the way through which theories perform society (Cabantous & Gond, 2011, Mackenzie, 2007, D'Adderio & Pollock, 2014) and the role of material artifacts (MacKenzie, Muniesa & Siu, 2007, Muniesa, 2014). However, it overlooked how agents perform theories (cf. Faulhaber & Baumol, 1988, Pickering, 1995).

As the field of strategy has oscillated between description and prescription over time (Nicolai, 2004, Zell, 2001, Hoskisson, Wan, Yiu & Hitt, 1999), the performativity issue has been highly discussed within strategy research without labeling it as such (e.g. Beyer & Trice, 1982, Beyer, 1997, Ferraro, Pfeffer & Sutton, 2005). For instance, Beyer & Trice (1982) encourage researchers not only to observe reality but also to disseminate their knowledge

[45] This said, I dismiss other conceptualizations of *performativity* made in organization studies (e.g. in philosophy, gender studies, communication studies or literary criticism Gond & Cabantous (Forthcoming)).

through consulting and executive trainings, which contributes to constituting the reality. Furthermore, the role of the researcher in the management knowledge market has been highlighted in the fields of management fashion and management innovation (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson & Eisenman, 2001, Clark & Salaman, 1998, Huczynski, 1993). For instance, Abrahamson (1996) encourages scholars to improve management practice by influencing management fashions. These two arguments motivate the application of the concept of performativity in the field of strategy to answer to the following research question: *How do researchers create a strategic concept that will be performed within society?*

For that purpose, this study retraces the development of "Blue Ocean Strategy", a strategy concept created by W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne from INSEAD. The case builds on interviews with 19 informants who took part in the development of the concept of "Blue Ocean Strategy" and contributed to its performativity. The interviews are complemented by secondary data. After assessing the performativity of the concept of "Blue Ocean Strategy", the analysis retraces the role played by the two professors in its performation.

This study aims to contribute to the field of performativity in three ways. First, by refocusing on the agency, it highlights the role of innovators that researchers may take on to perform a concept (Faulhaber & Baumol, 1988). For that purpose, it borrows from the strategy literature the concept of "strategic intent" (Hamel & Prahalad, 1989). Second, similarly to Gond, Cabantous, Harding & Learmonth (2015) who genuinely wonder whether their own speech act would influence the literature on performativity, it builds on Mackenzie (2007)'s depictions of performativity to uncover a novel form of performativity: performing a concept following the principles that underpin the concept itself. Third, following Gond, Cabantous, Harding & Learmonth (2015)'s suggestion to expand the territory of the use of the performativity concept, this study applies the concept of performativity in the strategy field. Furthermore, its epistemological anchoring suggests another viewpoint than the one suggested in the strategy literature regarding the role of academics in management knowledge (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Abrahamson, 1996).

This research is organized as follows. The first section reviews the concept of performativity as defined by Michel Callon and its principal development within the field. It then suggests developing the "dance of agency" that leads to performation. The second section

develops the methodology applied for the case study of "Blue Ocean Strategy". It is mainly based on a qualitative analysis of interviews with proponents of its development and diffusion. After framing the case within the field of strategy, the third section describes how "Blue Ocean Strategy" was performed by studying the intertwined mechanisms leading to its performativity as well as the role of innovator the authors took on since the inception of the concept. The last section discusses these findings on performativity in the field before concluding.

2. Theoretical framework

2. 1. The performativity of strategy

The field of Science, Technology and Society (STS) took a performativity turn (Gond, Cabantous, Harding & Learmonth, 2015). It adopted Callon (1998)'s as well as Mackenzie (2007)'s conceptualization of performativity. Callon (1998)'s use of performativity stems from his reading of Austin (1962) and from his work on social history of science (e.g. Callon, 1986). Applying the Actor-Network methodological principles to markets, *Law of the Market* (1998) aims to build an anthropology of markets, to better comprehend the *homo economicus*. To that end, Callon (1998) advances the "performativity of economics thesis" according to which "economics, broadly defined, performs, shapes and formats the economy, rather than observing how it functions" (p. 2). A discourse is then seen as performative if "it contributes to the construction of the reality that it describes" (Callon, 2007, p. 316).

Callon's conceptualization of performativity stems from Austin (1962) for whom performativity does not happen in a vacuum. Two conditions of felicity must be met: the context must be felicitous and the speaker's intention must be sincere. Applied in management studies, Ferraro, Pfeffer & Sutton (2005) suggest culture and accountability as two felicity conditions under which performativity operates. Cultural differences are expected to affect the diffusion of economics language and assumptions and to influence the pace of adoption and their transformation into behavioral norms. On the other hand, accountability is "the expectation that one may be called on to justify one's beliefs, feelings, and actions to others" (Ferraro, Pfeffer & Sutton, 2005, p.17). As pressure for accountability increases, it creates pressure on decision makers to adopt legitimate behaviors.

The STS field of research on performativity developed following three strands of research (Gond, Cabantous, Harding & Learmonth, 2015, Gond & Cabantous, Forthcoming). First, it aims to understand the relationship between economics and economy. As Callon (1998)'s seminal work grounded the concept of performativity in the discipline of economics, it led to the development of studies of economic markets. To this regard, MacKenzie (2008)'s case study is worth special attention. The author is interested in modern financial economics and develops how financial models shape markets. For that purpose, he focuses on the development of option pricing theory and on its effects on markets as it started to be performed in markets. Performativity has also been used to study other markets such as retail markets (Cochoy, 1998) or carbon trading (Callon, 2009).

Second, performativity studies focused on developing how theories perform society. Mackenzie (2006) differentiates four increasingly specific forms of performativity. Generic performativity indicates that an aspect of economics is used by participants in economic processes, regulators, etc. It is usually exemplified by marketing discourses. Effective performativity indicates that the practical use of an aspect of economics has an effect on economic processes. It is demonstrated in the option theory by the use by traders of Fisher Black's sheets to get an estimate of the actions' prices. Barnesian performativity indicates that an effect of the use in practice of an aspect of economics is to make economic processes more like their depiction by economics. In the case of option theory, as the discrepancies between model and market seem to have diminished rapidly in the years after the model's publication in 1973, Barnesian performativity may have occurred. Finally, counter performativity indicates how practical use of an aspect of economics makes economic processes less like their depiction by economics. For instance, MacKenzie (2004) describes how portfolio insurance in 1987 exacerbated the market crash in the US stock market.

Furthermore, Cabantous & Gond (2011) propose the notion of "performative praxis" to describe how "actors' daily activities […] turn theory into social reality." (p.578). Using the case of rational decision theory, they show that to be performed, theoretical assumptions must be embedded into procedures, devices and actors' beliefs through three interrelated mechanisms that reinforce each other. They name them conventionalizing, engineering, and commodifying. When concepts are conventionalized, they are turned into a convention. Performativity also needs to be engineered in the sense that it requires a sociotechnical assemblage of human and

nonhuman factors because managers need to rely on heuristics to make decisions. Finally, commodifying implies that different actors participate in turning theories into a commodity by selling them to managers and organizations. Cabantous & Gond (2011) argue that these three mechanisms reinforce each other's to enhance performativity.

Finally, a recent study by D'Adderio & Pollock (2014) takes the case of an organization where the concept of "modularity" has been performed. The authors show how far modularity is enacted and shapes the organization, and how it may be shaped in turn. The study emphasizes the performative struggles among competing and complementary theories and shows how these struggles contribute to modifying both the theory and the organization. This said, it emphasizes the difficulties in performing a concept because of competition between multiple theories and the emergence of unexpected consequences or "errors".

Third, performativity also focused on the role of material artifacts in performativity (MacKenzie, Muniesa & Siu, 2007, Muniesa, 2014). For instance Muniesa (2014) develops how management knowledge helps "provoking" the creation of economic realities by organizing "simulacrum" which can take different forms such as focus groups aiming at evaluating consumers' tastes, or case study teaching (Muniesa, 2014 in Gond & Cabantous, Forthcoming).

By developing these three strands of research, the field of performativity overlooked how agents perform theories which is the object of the next section.

2. 2. The Researcher as an Innovator

Actor-Network Theory studies (Callon, 1986) and laboratory studies (Latour & Woolgar, 1979, Knorr-Cetina, 1981) highlight the importance of the human and the social in the day-to-day doing of science and in its transformation of the material and social dimension. The story of Thomas Edison is to that regard worth studying (Hughes, 1983 in Akrich, Callon, Latour & Monaghan, 2002). Edison begins building his invention with a stubborn determination: replacing gas by electricity for domestic lightning. For that purpose, he begins by advocating the benefits of electricity. Once his invention widely advertised, but not even turned into a material artefact, he builds his laboratory, which he establishes at Menlo Park far away from the city. He gathers people, tools and a library who all work to achieve the same ambition.

First, the inspiring story of Thomas Edison illustrates the role of the researcher as an innovator. The study led by Faulhaber & Baumol (1988) in economics to understand the status of the researcher questions whether they are describers or innovators. For that purpose, they study the developmental process of 9 innovations in economics and question the action of the market forces on the innovations. For Callon (2007), there is no doubt that economists may be innovators. He argues that the authors did not state their preferences for innovators but rather put the emphasis on the forces of the market, because of the counter dominating position within economics which states that agency is not of interest in economists' work.

Second, the story of the invention of the electric bulb shows that it is not Thomas Edison *per se* who invented the electric light. He was helped by a small group of people and also machines and artifacts that he had hired and who worked with him. Edison is here seen as a collective noun (Hargadon & Douglas, 2001, note 1, p. 477). Rather than representing science as representational items (facts and observations) that seek to represent nature that corresponds to how the world really works, Pickering (1995) represents the world as being filled with agency, continually doing things. The conference given by Foucault (1969) gives another interesting viewpoint regarding the nature of the "author". An author's name is not simply an element in a discourse, it performs a certain role with regard to narrative discourse, assuring a classificatory function. The author's name serves to characterize a certain mode of being of discourse. The example of Bourbaki, which is a collective pseudonym taken by a group of mathematician shows the necessity of an interiority within an author: to publish, the people who gather under the "Bourbaki" name discuss and struggle.

Third, as Thomas Edison built the electricity with an object in mind, his intention was to replace gas by electricity. To uncover scientific practice, Pickering (1995) focuses in intentionality. Scientific practice is organized around specific plans and goals: "scientifics do not simply fix their goals once and for all and stick to them, come what may. In the struggles with material agency […], plans and goals too are at stake and liable to revision" (Pickering, 1995, p. 20). Scientists are seen as human agents in a field of material agency, which they struggle to capture in machines. The intentional structure of human agency differs from the one from non-human agency in its temporal structure.

In fact, when then construct new machines aimed at studying science; scientists are active and intentional beings. Once done, they adopt a passive role while monitoring the

performance of the machine. Symmetrically, during that period, material agency actively manifests itself. Thus, the "dance of agency", seen asymmetrically from the human end, takes the form of a dialectic of resistance and accommodation, where resistance denotes the failure to achieve an intended capture of agency in practice, and accommodation an active human strategy of response to resistance. This practical, goal-oriented and goal-revising dialectic of resistance and accommodation is for Pickering (1995) a general feature of scientific practice. Tuning in goal-oriented practices takes the form of a dance of agency, or the mangle of practice, defined as "as an evolving field of human and material agencies reciprocally engaged in the play of resistance and accommodation" (Pickering, 1993, p. 567).

In terms of scientific goal setting, goals are constructed in science through a process of modeling. Models are constitutive of scientific practice. Modeling is an open-ended process with no determinate destination. In fact, a given model does not prescribe the form of its own extension. For Pickering (1993), goals are formulated through the engagement with the material agency. It seems to be interesting here to make the parallel with the concept of "strategic intent" that has been develop in the strategic management literature (Hamel & Prahalad, 1989). For the authors, "companies that have risen to global leadership over the past 20 years invariably began with ambitions that were out of all proportion to their resources and capabilities. But they created an obsession with winning at all levels of the organization and then sustained that obsession over the 10- to 20-year quest for global leadership. We term this obsession '*strategic intent*'." (Hamel & Prahalad, 1989, p.64, emphasis added). By substituting "companies" with "scientists" or "innovators" in this citation, one can wonder whether such a strategic intent exists among the dance of agency. To better uncover the role of agency in the performativity of strategy concepts, the next section develops the case of "Blue Ocean Strategy".

3. Methods

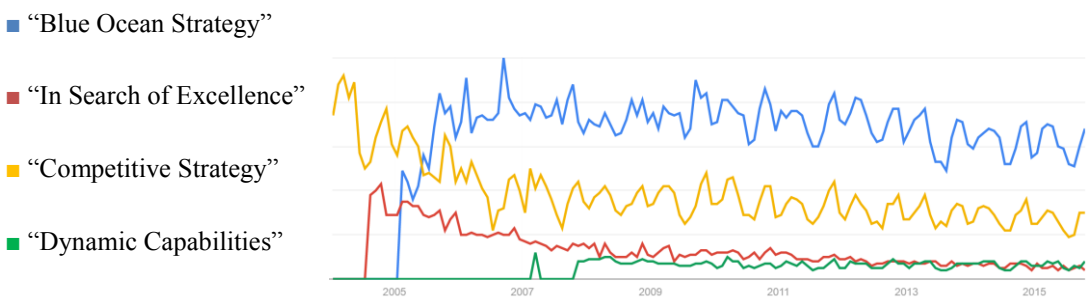
3. 1. Case Presentation

"Blue Ocean Strategy" is a corporate strategy based on the view that market boundaries and industry structures are not given and can be reconstructed by the actions and beliefs of industry players. Instead of focusing on the competition within a market, Blue Ocean strategies aim at the creation of innovative value to unlock new demand. It is achieved via the simultaneous pursuit of differentiation and low-cost (Kim & Mauborgne, 2005). The concept

of "Blue Ocean Strategy" may be anchored in the field of strategic innovation (Fréry, 2014). Accordingly, it builds on the work of authors such as Ohmae, Hamel and Prahalad, Baden-Fullet and Stopford, D'Aveni and Markides, even if W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne do not identify themselves with these authors and this stream of research.

The concept achieved a high impact within practice. The concept is taught in over 1,800 universities in 100 countries[46]. The book is also a best-seller appearing on the shelves of every specialized library, sold at more than 3.5 million copies and translated in 43 languages[47]. Thanks to their notoriety, the authors were recognized by many institutions such as the World Economic Forum or the Association of Management Consulting Firms. They are ranked since 2003 in the Thinkers 50 listing of the World's Top Management Gurus and reached second position in 2012 and 2014. Figure 1 below illustrate the number of times the keyword "Blue Ocean Strategy" has been searched on Google.com[48] in comparison with "In Search of Excellence", "Competitive Strategy" and "Dynamic Capabilities", three concepts developed at the same period of time, respectively by the consultants Peters & Waterman (1982), the professor Porter (1980) and the academics Teece, Pisano & Shuen (1997).

Figure 1: Impact of "Blue Ocean Strategy" in Google Trends



[46] According to the "Blue Ocean Strategy" website, as of October 2015.

[47] According to the "Blue Ocean Strategy" website, as of October 2015.

[48] We relied on Google Trends that represents the volume of search. Volumes are relative: a volume of 100 represents the highest volume in the graph. Data from Google Trends are available since 2004. We used Google Trends rather than NGram Viewer that does similar comparisons by looking into books scanned by Google rather than Google Search (i.e. Gond, Cabantous, Harding & Learmonth, 2015), as NGram Viewer's database stops in 2008 and thus does not give relevant information with the concept of "Blue Ocean Strategy" that came up in 2005.

3. 2. Data Collection

Following the tradition of sociology of science studies (Law, 2008), I developed a case study based on "Blue Ocean Strategy". In order to understand the role of the researcher in the performation of "Blue Ocean Strategy" I interviewed people who participated in its performation and collected data. Thus, the main source of data was 19 interviews conducted with faculty members, consultants as well as the editor from Harvard Business Publishing who edited the *Blue Ocean Strategy* book. First, I collected data on performation of "Blue Ocean Strategy". As I was unable to secure interviews with W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne, I compensated by conducting 13 interviews with key informants of its development. The interviews were semi-structured and centered on their personal involvement in its development as well as on the knowledge they have of it (cf. MacKenzie & Millo, 2003, p.111, note 7). I emphasized the three dimensions of the performative praxis (commodifying, engineering and conventionalizing) and the role that W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne played in it. As I interviewed people on a concept originating back to the 1990s, the interviewees were inevitably doing retrospective sensemaking (Weick, 1995). I consequently took the risk that the actual conduct of the interviews were "idealized" (MacKenzie & Millo, 2003). By multiplying viewpoints and by triangulating interviews with secondary data, I expect to reduce that bias as much as possible. However, retrospective interviews may also have some benefits. As the development of the concept took place at the fringe between a marketplace for ideas and a consultancy market, there were competition, confidentiality and economic issues. The lapse of time between the sequence of events and the interviews avoids some of these drawbacks. An informant gave an example that illustrates the confidentiality issue: *"at that time, as the book was published, this particular example, it was under the confidentiality agreement so the name was not disclosed. But now it's already expired."* Furthermore, the informants' hindsight with "Blue Ocean Strategy" may also allow them some reflexivity (Schön, 1983).

Second, I collected data to assess to what extent "Blue Ocean Strategy" is performative. If the 13 interviewees who participated in the development of "Blue Ocean Strategy" had conducted projects within firms mobilizing the concept, I asked them to describe its implementation as well as its different effects on the firms. In addition, I interviewed 5 experts of "Blue Ocean Strategy" who conduct consulting projects mobilizing a methodology inherited from the concept and 1 manager who applied the "Blue Ocean Strategy" concept in his firm. I

centered the interviews on the same question. The interviewees described more than 10 consulting projects that took place between 2001 and 2014 in different industries (see table 1).

Table 1: Blue Ocean Strategy Projects[49]

#	Industry	Year	Informants	Project Achievement
A	Pharmaceutical industry	2001	1 faculty member	Launch to the market of a discarded initiative
B	Public sector	2005	3 consultants	Country strategic positioning
C	Fast food industry	2006	1 consultant	Blue Ocean Strategy training
D	Distilled beverage distribution	2006	1 consultant	Subsidiaries strategic plan definition
E	Home appliances	2008	1 consultant	Launch to the market of a discarded initiative
F	Drinking water system	2009	1 consultant	Innovative strategic initiatives developed
G	Hospitality industry	2009	2 consultants	12 innovative strategic initiatives developed
H	Industrial maintenance	2011	2 consultants	4 innovative strategic initiatives launched
I	Higher education	2012	1 faculty member	Innovative strategic initiative developed
J	Medical devices	2014	1 consultant, 1 client	7 innovative strategic initiatives developed

Ultimately, the interviews took place between fall 2013 and spring 2015. They were recorded and transcribed excepted one interview for which I relied on notes. On average, they lasted 78 minutes. As the location and native languages of the interviewees sometimes differed from mine, 8 out of 19 interviews were conducted over the telephone or Skype; and 9 were conducted in French while the other 10 were in English. Table 2 summarizes the primary data collection in relation to the three phases of the "Blue Ocean Strategy" development I inductively constructed: (1) the academic life of W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne at Ann Arbor; (2) their search of an impact on practice; and (3) their search of an impact on the world.

[49] An interviewee may give information on more than one project.

In addition to transcripts and notes taken from key informants, this research relies on secondary data. They are used for triangulation purposes to be more accurate on historical facts as well as to complete parts of the chronology of events the informants were not aware of. First, I used academic publications for an unexpected purpose. Instead of relying on their scientific content, I was more interested in dates or biographical data to acknowledge with accuracy academic events such as co-authoring, status, or changes of institutions. Two academic articles were also used to get details on the Centurion Project in which W. Chan Kim took part (Freedman, 1996, Karsten, Keulen, Kroeze & Peters, 2009), as well as a newspaper article to assess when W. Chan Kim became chaired professor at INSEAD (Mara, 1995). Second, I used materials from INSEAD: advertising booklets promoting the different programs either offered by the business school or by the Blue Ocean Strategy Institute; a special edition on "Blue Ocean Strategy" of the INSEAD Alumni magazine (Salamander, 2015); syllabi of "Blue Ocean Strategy" courses offered on the website; and material explaining "Blue Ocean Strategy" initiatives (e.g. NBOS, 2013). Third, I relied on materials given by management consultants who undertook "Blue Ocean Strategy" initiatives, such as PowerPoint presentations or booklets they give to projects' participants. I also consulted materials they advertise on their website. They enrich the 10 consulting projects based on "Blue Ocean Strategy" (cf. table 1). Fourth, and finally, as there are several people I could not interview, I relied on information they gave me by e-mail. Table 2 summarizes the material I collected according to the development of "Blue Ocean Strategy".

Table 2: Data Collection[50]

Primary Data	**Secondary Data**
1 – The academic life at Ann Arbor	
Interview with 1 consultant	Academic articles published by W. Chan Kim & Renée Mauborgne Press article
2 – Gaining a practical impact	
Interviews with 7 consultants, 5 faculty members, and 1 publisher	Academic articles on the Centurion Project "Blue Ocean Strategy" book and articles

[50] The total number of interviews in the table exceeds the number of interviewees as interviewees may have given information on more than one period of time.

	e-mails Initial consulting projects' documents
3 – Impacting the world	
Interviews with 10 consultants, 5 faculty members, and 1 manager e-mail exchanges with consultants and faculty members	INSEAD and INSEAD Alumni booklets "Blue Ocean Strategy" articles Consulting projects documents Syllabus and press releases on "Blue Ocean Strategy" website Consultancies websites

3. 3. Data Analysis

To analyze the data, I proceeded with a qualitative analysis of the primary data related to the "Blue Ocean Strategy" development and to prove its performativity, moving from a descriptive coding to a more analytical one (Richards, 2009). I conducted the analysis using the qualitative data analysis software NVivo 10. Secondary data was not coded but rather used to complement arguments drawn from primary data. I followed a five-stage data analysis process. Data analysis started with descriptive coding which typically involves collecting and organizing "information about the cases being studied" (Richards, 2009, p. 95). During this initial stage, I differentiated data related to the development of "Blue Ocean Strategy" from data detailing its performativity and the different periods they inform. The second stage followed an historical approach, using a "narrative" strategy (Langley, 1999) to reconstruct a comprehensive story of "Blue Ocean Strategy". I built a chronology of the case which is summarized in table 3.

Table 3: The "Blue Ocean Strategy" Chronology

Dates	**Main Facts**
Phase 1: The Academic Life at Ann Arbor	
1984	Dissertation defense of W. Chan Kim at the University of Michigan Ross School of Business at Ann Arbor (USA), under the supervision of Vern Terspstra. Appointment of W. Chan Kim as an associate professor at Ann Arbor.
1984	Meeting of W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne, one of his students.
- …	Publications of over 18 academic articles by W. Chan Kim (not co-authored, co-authored with Renée Mauborgne or co-authored with other scholars) on international management, Asian management and procedural justice; co-editing of *The Pacific Challenge in International Business* (1987).

Phase 2: Gaining a Practical Impact	
1990 - 1996	"Centurion" project at Philips led by CK Prahalad where W. Chan Kim was responsible for two divisions of the firm. He worked with consultants and developed ideas on Value Innovation.
1992	Move of W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne to INSEAD (France). Publication of "Parables of Leadership" in HBR.
1995	W. Chan Kim becomes the Boston Consulting Group Bruce D. Henderson Chair Professor of International Management at INSEAD (France).
1997	Publication of the "Value Innovation" article in the HBR. Creation of the Value Innovation Network, a consultancy network.
1998	Last academic article by W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne in the Strategic Management Journal.
1999 - 2001	Consulting activities by Renée Mauborgne. Publication of "Creating New Market Space" in HBR. Publication of "Knowing a Winning Business Idea When You See One" in HBR. Hiring of 2 research assistants to write cases and analyze 150 strategic moves.
2002	Development of a research nucleus in London to conduct applied research on Value Innovation. Publication of "Charting Your Company's Future" in HBR and of a book review in Administrative Science Quarterly. Participation of W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne to the Strategic Management Society (Paris) as guest speakers where the "Blue Ocean Strategy" name is first heard.
2003	Publication of "Fair Process" and "Tipping Point Leadership" in HBR.
Phase 3: Impacting the World	
2004	Publication of "Blue Ocean Strategy" in HBR, revealing the name to public at large of the forthcoming book.
2005	Application of the concept to the Value Innovation Action Tank in Singapore. Publication of the "Blue Ocean Strategy" book (translated in 2015 in 42 languages and sold at more than 3.5 million copies). Application of the concept by many consultancies all around the world.
2007	Creation of the Blue Ocean Strategy Institute in Fontainebleau and setting up of Centers all around the world. Launching of the certification process; development of teaching material; creation of a simulation game and of an iPad application.
2009	Publication of "How Strategy Shapes Structure" in HBR. Development of the National Blue Ocean Strategy Initiative in Malaysia.

2012	Application of "Blue Ocean Strategy" to President Obama's White House Initiative on Historically Black Colleges and Universities.
2014	Publication of "Blue Ocean Leadership" in HBR using the Blue Ocean Strategy framework for leadership.
2015	Publication of the 10th anniversary expanded edition of "Blue Ocean Strategy".

Third, I used the three mechanisms of performative praxis to understand how the "Blue Ocean Strategy" developed throughout time. I operationalized the mechanisms by inductively labeling the recurrent practices. I found an evolution in the practices mobilized before and after the publication of the *Blue Ocean Strategy* book. They evolved from an emphasis on the development of the concept (circa 1990-2005) to an emphasis on its diffusion (circa 2005-now). Fourth, as informants were describing how W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne have "pushed" their theory since its inception, I understood that it was their involvement in the development of the concept that was responsible for the appearance of the gap. As I was trying to describe it, I found similarities between their strategy to develop "Blue Ocean Strategy" and the Blue Ocean strategy itself. Consequently, I inductively re-analyzed the data to develop the key success factors of the concept (see Figure 2). Fifth, and finally, using data from 10 consulting projects, I assessed the generic and effective performativity of "Blue Ocean Strategy" by identifying effects of the concept on the projects. However, using the semi-structured interview method did not make it possible to assess a possible Barnesian performativity.

The next section details the results of the study, beginning with framing the case within the field of strategy. Then, it chronologically develops how the concept performed before demonstrating it is actually performative. It ends by explaining how W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne modeled the concept.

4. "Blue Ocean Strategy" Performativity

4. 1. Towards a Renewal of the Field of Strategic Management

It is generally admitted that research in the field of strategic management was initiated in the USA beginning the 1960s with the seminal works of Alfred Chandler (1962), Igor Ansoff (1970) and Kenneth Andrews (1971) (Hoskisson, Wan, Yiu & Hitt, 1999, Pettigrew, Thomas

& Whittington, 2001, Hambrick & Chen, 2008). The first two authors rooted business policy in the comparative historical method while the third one adopted a rationalistic and planning oriented view of strategy. These grounding pillars were complemented by a strong practice element focused around a group of initially US-based strategy consultancy practices that came to Europe in the post-war era (Djelic, 2001).

At the beginning of the 1970s, Dan Schendel and Kenneth Hatten coined the term "strategic management" to refer to a more analytical and economics-based view of the field of strategy. It led to the publication in 1980 of the first volume of the *Strategic Management Journal* and to the creation of the *Strategic Management Society* in 1981. It launched an academic field based on scholarly, analytical, positivistic and quantitative research, in opposition to the historical conduct of strategy research.

In 1980, Michael Porter brought his economics training to the field of strategy (Porter, 1981). From industrial organization economics, he built frameworks, such as the 5-Forces framework, which are based on the assumption that market structures have a direct influence on the firm's strategy which in turn affects its market performance. He developed prescriptions for firms and largely impacted both academia and practice (Nicolai, 2004).

Breaking with Michael Porter's logic, Kim & Mauborgne (1997) reject what they call the "structuralist" approach by suggesting that companies can reconstruct their industries and reverse the structure-strategy sequence (Kim & Mauborgne, 2005, pp. 209-212, appendix B). Rather than staying ahead of the competition, Kim & Mauborgne (1997) suggest that companies may try to find ways to make their competitors irrelevant. This new paradigm is anchored in the emerging school of economics called endogenous growth (Romer, 1994, in Kim & Mauborgne, 2009, p. 80, note 3) where ideas and actions of individual players can shape the economic and industrial landscape (Kim & Mauborgne, 1997, Kim & Mauborgne, 2009). By studying 150 strategic moves – the set of managerial actions and decisions involved in making a major market-creating business offering – that took place in 30 industries between 1880 and 2000, Kim & Mauborgne (2005) identify characteristics of what they call Blue Oceans, the new market spaces where competition is irrelevant. In that sense, they went back to a comparative historical method, divergent from the one taking place in the academic field shaped by Dan Schendel. Throughout their work, the authors guide managers to develop their own Blue Oceans. The next sub-sections retrace the development "Blue Ocean Strategy". It begins with

the academic life of W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne at Ann Arbor, the place where they met.

4. 2. An Academic Background at Ann Arbor

After an education in South Korea, W. Chan Kim went to the USA to do a PhD in Strategy and International Management at the University of Michigan Ross School of Business at Ann Arbor under the supervision of professor Vern Terspstra. The Ross School of Business is the place where CK Prahalad was professor since 1977 and where Gary Hamel earned his PhD in 1990. W. Chan Kim defended his dissertation in 1984 and became associate professor shortly after. His expertise focused on international management, Asian management and procedural justice. It is in the classroom that he met Renée Mauborgne. She was one of his students. They had a common willingness to impact society. She became his research assistant and co-authored about half of his articles since 1987. In fact, between 1984 and 1998, W. Chan Kim published more than 18 academic articles in outlets such as the *Strategic Management Journal*, *Management Science*, and the *Academy of Management Journal*. He also co-edited a book in 1987 and wrote a book review in *Administrative Science Quarterly* in 2002. However, even before 1998, W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne were already interested in addressing managers and consequently performing strategy research. They progressively left academia in the 1990s to focus on performing the concepts of "Value Innovation".

4. 3. Performing "Blue Ocean Strategy" – gaining a practical impact

In 1990, W. Chan Kim got involved in a consulting project led by his colleague CK Prahalad who was asked by Jan Timmer, the new president of the Dutch company Philips, to conduct a transformation project called "Operation Centurion" in reference to the centenary the firm would celebrate the following year. It lasted throughout the directorship of Jan Timmer until 1996. During the project, W. Chan Kim was at the head of 2 divisions of the firm in partnership with a consultant. *"While [Renée Mauborgne and him] were doing the consultancy, certain things surfaced and one was this whole idea of when do companies take a different direction"* explains a faculty member. They began developing the concept of "Value Innovation". *"Academics are very good abstracting. Consultants, they are much more into practice, into solutions. They might have had powerful ideas but didn't see them. And [W. Chan Kim] saw that in them. And he was able to extract that"* reports a consultant. To create a concept

that would last, W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne understood they had to engineer it with consulting tools. As an informant said, "*different tools were already out there so [their upcoming concept] is a recombination of things […], used and kind of 'cut and paste' in a way which makes sense."* Through their interactions with consultants and thanks to their immersion in the field, they developed tools. *"I think that's the power of Blue Ocean Strategy, it proposes tools"* adds a faculty member.

At that time, the popular management media was rife with studies of successful companies such as *In Search of Excellence* (1982) and *Built to Last* (1994). In parallel to their consulting project, W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne began analyzing why certain firms were outperforming within their industry by examining about 30 different firms in 30 different industries. With these ideas in mind, they began working on a practitioner-oriented article to conventionalize the concept. They shared their ideas with consultants who took part in the Centurion project to get some practitioner feedbacks. As a consultant explains, *"[W. Chan Kim] tells me 'you tear down [the draft of the Harvard Business Review (HBR) article] sentence by sentence, word by word, axis by axis'."* In fact, apart from a 1992 HBR article based on the Oriental philosophy of leadership (1992), W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne did not have any experience in writing for practitioners.

By 1992, W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne had moved to INSEAD in Fontainebleau (France) where W. Chan Kim became professor shortly after and was given by the Boston Consulting Group the Bruce Henderson Chair of Professor of International Management at INSEAD in 1995. In 1997, they published the result of their research in a HBR article. It introduces the concept of "Value Innovation" through the use of two tools: the "Value Curve" and the "Pioneers – Migrators – Settlers" map (Kim & Mauborgne, 1997).

At that point, their article began impacting practice. People who attended their classes or who had listened to their talks solicited them to intervene within firms. It led the authors to gather a group of consultants from all around the world within what they called the "Value Innovation Network". *"I think the loops have been very positive. The first set of loops was handling the enormous number of client inquiry that came in. We needed to be able to hand them out, get people who were able to deliver and respond."* told a consultant who was member of that network. It financed part of their research and also improved the concept. For instance, a consultant explains the following, *"I progressively discovered that some of the tools we had*

developed, we could use them in a richer manner than the reason why they had been developed. So, from time to time, we were meeting during a half day to debrief." It led to building more tools and frameworks. Describing that period of time, a faculty member summarizes it by saying *"It's kind of very systematic implementation and then feedback of the results."* Renée Mauborgne was involved for about a year in these consulting activities. It helped the authors better apprehend "Value Innovation" in practice. Indeed, *"over 10 years […], a lot of time was put in developing case studies, examples where these tools were applied, companies worked through them and came up with innovative strategies."* In 2005, the concept was applied for the first time to a country, through the constitution of the Value Innovation Action Tank in Singapore.

In parallel, and with the help of INSEAD faculty members, W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne developed "Value Innovation" as an action learning methodology in the executive education and undergraduate environments. Interactions with students helped faculty members develop their concept and their capability to explain it. *"And this is how we actually started learning about the realities of Blue Ocean Strategy, how we started calibrating the tools for the practice, because in such an environment you have 30-40 participants, you have 5-6 people per group and per project. And so over a timeframe of 3-4 years, we basically gathered the experience of let's see 20-30 projects where we could see how participants learnt to deal with it"* explains a faculty member. The authors also hired two research assistants to help them developing and improving the concept. They were in charge of testing the theory both in the field and in the classroom, gathering cases that would illustrate the concept of "Value Innovation", and analyzing the growing data accumulated on the strategic moves that took place in 30 industries between 1880 and 2000.

W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne published their findings in several HBR[51] articles between 1999 and 2003. In 1999, they reversed from vertical to horizontal the "Value Curve" and introduced the "Eliminate Reduce Raise Create" framework (Kim & Mauborgne, 1999). The year after, they introduced the "Buyer Utility Map" and the "Price Corridor" (Kim & Mauborgne, 2000). As attested by a faculty member, these different tools are seen as

[51] I do not include other publication outlets such as California Management Review or MIT Sloan Management Review as they do not provide new ideas in comparison with the Harvard Business Review publications.

complementary: *"and this is essentially the tools, how they fit together in practice. Why it works so well is that it really forces a person who may not be creative but it's like doing yoga. You learn how to do each stage. It's quite painful and it's quite difficult but it forces you to be athletic, it forces you to be creative… and yeah, so that works really well."* Furthermore, referring to W. Chan Kim, a consultant explains that *"he is able to converse his vision into tools and toolkit, whereas many other gurus cannot do that actually."*

Beginning in 2002, the authors went beyond tools to show the importance of strategy visualization (Kim & Mauborgne, 2002) and the importance of leadership in strategy (Kim & Mauborgne, 2003). In 2003, they popularized part of their previous academic work, by publishing on fair process (Kim & Mauborgne, 2003). As academics usually publish a book after two subsequent articles published in Harvard Business Review (e.g. Bartlett, Ghoshal, Prahalad, Hamel), the authors have been solicited since 1999 by Harvard Business School Publishing to publish a book on "Value Innovation". They declined the offer throughout this period of time to fully develop their concept.

They finally accepted to publish a book they called *Blue Ocean Strategy* (2005). As an informant remembers the Strategy Management Society conference held in Paris in 2002 where the name "Blue Ocean Strategy" first popped out: "*the authors were speaking and they were presenting on this and… the word 'Blue Ocean Strategy' came out of their mouth… and that's the first time anyone heard 'Blue Ocean Strategy'. And the minute they said that, all the lights went on in my head. I said 'that is the title of the book, all the concepts are going to get rolled up underneath this big umbrella of 'Blue Ocean Strategy', not 'Value innovation' but Blue Ocean Strategy'."* Indeed, commenting the choice of the name "Blue Ocean Strategy", a faculty member explains: "*I think this is a very wise chosen name because it's kind of visual impact, visual effect, it creates a kind of visual effect, and I think it's very important"*. During the writing of the book, a lot of time was spent on each and every word: *"we wrote parts of the book with parts of examples through small parts that were assembled"* explains a consultant who participated in the writing of the book. Indeed, the strength of the book is that it is an easy read. *"For the first time, you have a strategy book that looks a little bit like a paperback"* asserts a consultant. It is also well illustrated with appealing cases selected for their relevance and originality. *"Which case do you use to open the book? They should have some sex appeal as well"* explains a faculty member. Harvard Business School Publishing as well as the network

of researchers and practitioners the authors had gathered helped in different facets of the work, from its writing, its translation in up to 43 languages and its promotion. A representative from Harvard Business School Publishing explains the latter as follows: *"this was brilliant, because most authors write the manuscript, send the manuscript to the publisher, the publisher publishes, and then the authors go home. They don't do anything to get out there and really promote and market the book. And Chan and Renée, they had this incredible infrastructure. It took them years to do it, but they did it and it was a critical factor for the sale of the book."* As suggests a faculty member, the success of the book can be summarized as follows: *"it proposes a very simple language that people already knew, were already feeling there, but they didn't know how to talk about it, so I think the power of Blue Ocean Strategy lies in the language that it proposes."*

In fact, during that first phase of performative praxis that took place during the 1990s and first half of the 2000s, "Blue Ocean Strategy" developed through the intertwining between the three mechanisms of performative praxis. Table 4 gives more data supporting practices developed to perform "Blue Ocean Strategy".

Table 4: Data Supporting the Performation of "Blue Ocean Strategy" between 1990 and 2005

Practice	Representative Quotes
Commodifying Mechanism	
Abstracting consultants' ideas	"It came from practice, not from theory, it came from observation of consultants and managers and what are some of the things they talk about, you know, kind of resonate for them and all that." (faculty member) "It was more like an academic who came, who looked at what consultants were doing and he kind of created an elegant structure to talk about it, to explain it." (faculty member)
Getting feedback from the field	"So what I mean, because I am a consultant, I know how to make the tools work."(consultant) "Kim and Mauborgne, I don't think their purpose was to do the consulting because their purpose was to get exactly the feeback on the theory." (faculty member)
Spending time in the field to understand practice	"I don't want to say that it was by accident but I think it was mostly through the consulting practice of Chan that the idea came" (faculty member) "And they had practical experience themselves with multinational companies […], you know, that's what I heard. And also there have always been practitioners who have been following them, who have been working together with them to implement their concepts and ideas." (faculty member)
Testing the concept in the field	"But there is a lot of working in companies, just testing strategy is something you do, not something you say. Just making sure the theory behind it works, even not perfectly yet but it works quite well." (faculty member)
Distributing consulting leads	"In reality, Kim, he was never involved in… When he was doing consulting, Kim he was usually the seller" (consultant) "Exactly, exactly. That's one of the ideas, because I mean on most projects they come from the initiative center, the Blue Ocean Strategy Initiative Center just based in London and they offer together team of people."(faculty member)
Conventionalizing Mechanism	
Focusing on the beauty and simplicity of the concept	"The book is written to read. A lot of work to write the book to make it so easy to read…" (faculty member) "The authors made it work I think at the end of the day, having examples that were perceived as fresh and different was actually a good thing." (publisher) "When you read Cirque du Soleil, Yellow Tail [cases] and all that, you become very enthusiastic and you say 'Waoo, so I can do this to in my own business' and then the book stops, the curtains goes down." (faculty member)
Making sense for practitioners	"We just gave basics, tried and true ideas that work" (publisher) "[…] and they are organized around the steps, it can be learnt, that's the beauty of Blue Ocean Strategy and like Mike Porter and his work 30 years ago people learn Porterian strategy to the point where now it is absolutely dominant mindset for businesses." (consultant) "I can tell you, at INSEAD when I discovered Value Innovation I ran around the campus saying this is really good stuff. I was told that it's not academic enough, there were no boundary conditions, it was not a testable proposition (laugh) but I said, 'hey you know, if I

	get 20 executives and I work them to the exercise, they are very happy with the results'." (faculty member)
Marketing involvement	"It's the advertising, I mean one thing… it was more Renée than Chan, it's that they went on a speech tour, she went on a speech tour once the book was out. So it's all about you see this now in a lot of fields, you see this promotion activity." (faculty member)
Engineering Mechanism	
Theorizing practical tools	"But the tools work and the logic has only gotten stronger." (consultant) "I think behind this criticism is a misunderstanding about the foundation, the underlying theoretical foundation of this theory, because they don't understand it that way, that's why they see it's similar even to competitive strategy in many ways."(faculty member)
Ease-of-use of the tools	"People, in the industry, in general, what they look for while reading the book is tools that help me do better compared to what I do today. And excepted that, there are not many other tools." (consultant) "So the tools are key part of making any concept durable. Blue Ocean Strategy has at least a dozen tools in its toolkit: pioneer migrator settler map, the strategy canvas, the buyer utility map, the 6 path framework… The list goes on and on and on… Eliminate/Reduce/Raise/Create… You know, it is rich with tools. And to make it even more compelling, similar to Porter work, you can visualize these tools. They are not hugely quantitative and requiring lots of spreadsheets and numbers to be discussed, which is what happens now when people start doing piece of business strategy, they start with numbers, not with ideas, not with opportunities." (consultant)
Enabling role of tools in structuring thinking	"Each of those steps requires that you apply some of the tools and each of those tools comes back in an iterative process as your strategy takes shape. So you begin to develop a skill on understanding tools: the value curve, the buyer utility map and you go back to those tools as you shape your strategy and they become a baseline and a reference to you to think about what you're doing, very tangible, very practical use of tools." (consultant)

4. 4. An Evolution in "Blue Ocean Strategy" Performation – Impacting the world

"I haven't heard of any business where successes do not correspond to 15 or 30 years of sustained effort. I don't know any" relates an informant in reference to the involvement of W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne in "Blue Ocean Strategy". "Kim, what he wants, it's that his name continues to be among the elite professors of strategy, what I think he has actually obtained" adds a consultant. To reach this goal, W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne organized their activities and network. "It's always difficult when you are a star; it's a bit like being a high-level athlete. How much time do you spend training? Being invited in TV shows? Doing advertising for Adidas? I think they are confronted with this issue for a long time, and it's not an easy one" relates a consultant.

As the attention towards "Blue Ocean Strategy" increased, the authors became highly solicited to deliver speeches throughout the world. They took the following action in response to the increasing pressure. First, they built in 2005 the Blue Ocean Strategy Institute in Fontainebleau, and developed centers all around the world (South America, North America, Australia, Asia). They published teaching materials and teaching notes for educators, as well as new cases. *"There has been some effort to try to make the Blue Ocean Strategy discipline achievable in a simulation or in a e-learning and you can look at the Blue Ocean Strategy simulation […] and there is some apps that have been made"* adds a consultant. As an informant analyzes, *"what W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne wanted is that it is now part of the curriculum in strategy and it naturally survives without necessarily having successors. I think that part of the race for training tool is linked to that issue. If it exists, a base of training will remain and Blue Ocean Strategy will be perennial."* Second, around the years 2007-2008, the authors gradually restricted the number of consultants belonging to what they had renamed the "Blue Ocean Strategy Network". An informant explains the situation as follows. *"If I were to describe it, the metaphor I would use is the difference between the Apple close platform and the IBM open platform, and I think that they went more for a close platform. They kept control so only a few people could actually use it."* Their network gathered what several informants referred as their *"family"*.

During that period, they continued publishing in HBR and applied the "Blue Ocean Strategy" framework to a country with the case of the city of Dubai (Kim & Mauborgne, 2009). Five years later, they applied it to the field of leadership through the publication of an article entitled "Blue Ocean Leadership" written with the help of a consultant from their "family" (Kim & Mauborgne, 2014). Finally, they published in January 2015 the 10th anniversary expanded version of their 2005 book that includes 2 new chapters.

In the meantime, they took advisory positions with governments. They advised the prime minister of Malaysia who developed the National Blue Ocean Strategy (NBOS, 2013) and, since 2012, they have been advising the Obama's administration on higher education. To diffuse their work to practitioners without neglecting quality, they launched a certification process. Indeed, as one consultant who attended such a session explains, *"I think it was interesting to have this certification in order to create a differentiating edge, compared to*

people who would improvise themselves experts, given the fact that nothing in the system prevents you from being a 'wrong user' of Blue Ocean Strategy."

Despite those successes, as this second phase focused on the diffusion of the concept, it was made at the expense of its development. First, as a consultant explains, *"Blue Ocean Strategy has never had any industrialization behind, it misses a lot for Chan and Renée as it hindered the Blue Ocean Strategy development. The thing is that there is no… they have never opened the conceptual development to consulting."* It entailed several consequences in terms of the robustness of the concept. A consultant relates a project he was involved in: *"[W. Chan Kim] tried to scale up too fast, because the [client], they wanted to use it across many different agencies at the same time, and the tools were really not robust enough yet at that time. So the popularity and the ease of understanding took over the tools development and the capability development."* Second, because of the decoupling between the "theory" and the "practice" that resulted from the disinterest of W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne in the commodifying of "Blue Ocean Strategy", the concept is seen by some of its proponents as lagging behind practice: *"I haven't looked at the book for a long time, but there are a lot of things I just don't use. I can be wrong about that, but in practice it works quite differently."* Another consultant explains the following: *"my usage of the tools in my way is probably at least two levels higher that it is in the book."* Different tools have also been developed by many consultants and have not been incorporated in the "Blue Ocean Strategy" book and articles. *"We have all the Blue Ocean Strategy tools and we even invented some"* adds a consultant. Table 5 gives more data illustrating the performative praxis mechanisms that took place during that second phase. As the table illustrates, the authors put the emphasis on the conventionalizing mechanism while the other two were exerted by consultants independently from the authors. The next sub-section develops the performativity of the concept.

Table 5: Data Supporting the Peformation of "Blue Ocean Strategy" since 2005

Practice	Representative Quotes
Commodifying mechanism	
Independent consulting	"In fact, it's like a foot in the door this book in terms of consulting." (consultant) "It fits quite well with consulting practice, very easy."(consultant)
No feedback on theory testing in the field	"I wish a lot of the names would be changed, to start with… And, but… There has been some struggle for a while and I tried to talk to the professors with… The buying utility map: utility levers, should they always be the same? And I struggle that one for years and I really understand. Then they said 'no, it can't be changed'. And I understand in some ways why that is." (faculty member) "And this is also another tool… I use it in practice very differently and the professors didn't accepted that because they say that works better this way but I think in the book it is one of those tools which is 'it comes out nice' because it's like trying to look for news base. But that's… that's just brainstorming and brainstorming bullshit. I just don't agree with that at all." (faculty member) "Later, that group [of consultants working with the professors at the beginning] became fragmented and there were not a very strong sharing of know-how. So I think individual consultants develop their own versions of the tools, more advanced tools, version 2, version 3… but not in integrated way because there was not basically not integrated network." (consultant)
Advisory work	"Professor Kim is doing some advisor work for the government, national government and professor Mauborgne as well." (faculty member) "They have so many requests around the world." (faculty member)
Conventionalizing Mechanism	
Focusing on other management areas	"For example the reason to publish a different article, Blue Ocean Leadership which is not part of Blue Ocean Strategy but applied Blue Ocean Strategy to the leadership area. And the entire process was conducted by the expert in the Blue Ocean Strategy network." (faculty member)
Consultants' training	"Next step was really trying to create a stable network of practitioners and that required creating a set of guidelines in terms of what was required as a practitioner and setting up a course to certify people who had been able, who could attend the training program. So we were starting developing more capability and more resources." (consultant)
Conferences	"I give talks. Twice a month I'm invited to company or something like that and I give talks. […] So I'm giving these kinds of speeches but they give the big ones of course and especially when they won an award they're going to that." (faculty member)
Developing teaching material	"For each material we provide a teaching note, but maybe professors will not read through the teaching note… so we write some kind of outlines, very detailed outlines in fact about what is to be told about a particular session and what the flow, the conceptual flow is, and what's the key point, teaching point in this session and how is it linked to the other concepts and what are the pitfalls to avoid, etc… and also we create, of course those are created by

	our fellows here and also by me and you know, even presentation slides…" (faculty member) "There are still early versions of what we are trying to get at which is trying to make the practice almost like a handbook. You still need a coach but you don't need them physically, you can probably get them on a webinar or on a telephone call or a Skype call because we've mastered this enough so we can really describe in some details the kind of work we need to do." (consultant)
Engineering Mechanism	
Autonomous adjustment and development of the tools	"We learn how to adjust some of these tools when you're dealing in a bulk commodity market rather than a FMCG[1] market." (consultant) "I think many of the comments, many of the ideas they received during the time from our side, from colleagues' side or from consultants' side flew in on one way or another." (faculty member) "We have all the Blue Ocean Strategy tools and we even invented some." (consultant)

[1]Fast-Moving Consumer Goods

4. 5. How Performative is "Blue Ocean Strategy"?

As the book was well received by the public, it impacted the management world and rapidly achieved a "generic" performativity. As a faculty member explained, *"now it's part of the common language, it's part of the language. People you know just want to say let's think about a new idea. They say let's do Blue Ocean Strategy. They don't understand what it means. It's not like people on the street will use one day Blue Ocean Strategy, but… That's why I think it will survive for a long time because it will become one of those words that we have there in the language."* "Blue Ocean Startegy" also reached an effective performativity. As testified by a faculty member while talking about "Blue Ocean Strategy", *"again it's not perfect but you know there is something here that really works better than anything else that I've worked with…"* As it creates value for the firm through the launch of new products or services by spotting Blue Oceans, it has an effect on the strategy of the firm. As a consultant explains, *"[…] what the Blue Ocean Strategy or the Value Innovation tools allow you to do is to almost legitimize some of your thoughts"*. In other words, it gives credibility to breakthrough ideas. It also has an effect on the organization of the firm as the ideas imply changes within the organization. A faculty member captures the idea as follows: *"You know, Blue Ocean Strategy somehow implies that the organization is going to change and that doesn't always happen."* Finally, it has an effect on the people who took part in the "Blue Ocean Strategy" initiative. As a manager who undertook a "Blue Ocean Strategy" initiative in the medical devices industry

explains, *"it changed me for sure. It's been just an extraordinary wonderful opportunity to speed the entrepreneurial spirit and try to do things differently and disruptively. It has certainly changed the people on the team that we put together to implement."* Table 6 gives additional for representative quotes supporting the effective performativity. The next sub-section describes the role of the authors in the achievement of the performativity of the concept.

Table 6: Data Supporting the Effective Performativity

Effect	Representative Quotes of Selected Projects
Value creation for the firm	"[The product] was then rolled out and became a major success. [The firm] at that point was sold to [firm A] and in fact I have a reference somewhere where, you know, the head of [firm A] actually said that he added a billion dollar to the buy because of this one product." (faculty member, pharmaceutical industry)
Effect on the firm's strategy	"The output of the Blue Ocean Strategy project wasn't the idea of the common retail organization, but a reform of the strategic vision of the subsidiaries." (consultant, distilled beverage distribution)
Effect on the organization	"Because there was no marketing [in the firm], it was created after our project." (consultant, industrial maintenance)
	"[…] spend 12 weeks to grow a project that would take 2 or 3 years to grow at its own speed in these organizations. Hence there is a kind of time accelerator which is a real benefit in Blue Ocean Strategy […]." (consultant)
Effect on people	"Doing Blue Ocean Strategy without taking into account a component of cultural change because you leave someone doing a Blue Ocean Strategy worthy of the name, it will necessarily contaminate the head of the people who work with you." (consultant)
	"In the worst case, people come and tell you 'I'm fed up with my job'." (consultant)

4. 6. The Role of the Innovator in the Performativity of "Blue Ocean Strategy"

To achieve their goal of impacting the world and reach an effective performativity, W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne purposefully developed their own market space. In other words, they applied a Blue Ocean strategy to their own concept. I argue that their strategy relies on 5 key success factors. First, even if they are academics, "Value Innovation" and "Blue Ocean Strategy" are not academic theories *per se*. *"It's not a theory because it's not predicting anything, it's not telling people anything what to do"*, explains a faculty member. As they had a good knowledge on strategy thinking, an informant relates the following: *"what they brilliantly did Chan and Renée was they positioned their idea against Michael Porter but without even naming him. You know, they never detract from his greatness."* In a nutshell, they

reduced the academic grounding of their concept to concentrate on other key success factors. Second, and consequently, they *created* a practical appeal for their concept – specific language, metaphor, tools… - and took time to gather a network of practitioners who helped them develop and spread the concept globally. Third, they *reduced* their offering by proposing high value at low cost, which is the "value innovation" offering. As an interviewee explains, a "Blue Ocean Strategy" project, *"it's not a half a million dollar McKinsey project but it's a third of that for brand new businesses and companies".* Fourth, the authors benefited from the image of INSEAD, one of the best business schools in the world. They also relied upon their prestigious past academic career. Fifth, the book is positioned in a specific market they *created*: *"Yes! In fact I think they are looking for even non customers of the book itself"* relates a faculty member. In a nutshell, this strategy led in positioning the "Blue Ocean Strategy" concept *"in a sort of limbo area between consulting and practice"* summarizes an interviewee. Figure 2 contrasts the value curve of "Blue Ocean Strategy" with competing books and concepts such as *In Search of Excellence* (1982), *Built to Last* (1994), *Competitive Strategy* (1980) and the academic strategic management body of knowledge led by Schendel & Hatten (1972). Table 7 also provides more data illustrating the strategy developed by W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne.

Figure 2: "Blue Ocean Strategy" Value Curve[52]

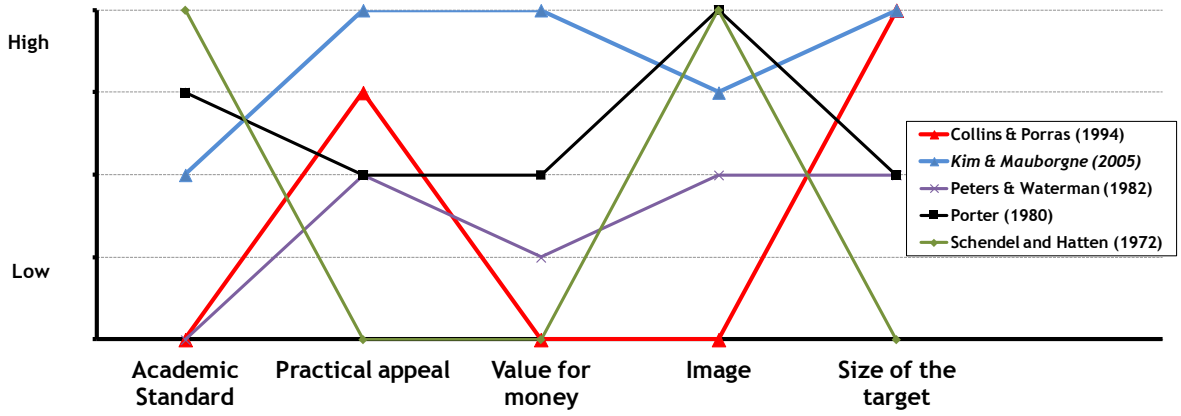


Table 7: Data Supporting the Blue Ocean Strategy of "Blue Ocean Strategy"

Key Success Factors	Representative Quotes
Academic Standard	"Do a Google Scholar search on Blue Ocean Strategy in the academic journal, in the AMJ, SMJ, ASQ, AMR…" (faculty member) "It's interesting to see whether after 5-10 years, we're almost 10 years after Blue Ocean Strategy, how many PhD students did he develop? Do you understand what I'm saying? […] Michael Porter had an army of PhD students and how many dissertations were written on you know market structure and all that." (faculty member) "I mean if you look at whatever the data that is referred in the book, there is no scientific data. Usually you know… if you look at Clay Christensen, you can see all the data, you can actually go back to the data. Same thing with Chesbrough. But in the case of Blue Ocean Strategy, one is that there is no scientific data. It says there are 150 strategic moves, we don't know which moves these are, it's like, even among ourselves when we ask 'where are the data?' Scientists you should be able to produce the data." (faculty member) "But for the Wii, did people use the methodology to create it? And my answer is that the question is not relevant because Blue Ocean Strategy is not a theory. It's not a theory, it's a phenomenological model, a model like the ones we have in physics." (consultant)

[52] The value curve is a graphic depiction of the way a company or an industry configures its offering to customer. It is drawn by plotting the performance of the offering relative to other alternatives along the key success factors that define competition in the industry or category (see Kim & Mauborgne, 2005, chapter 2).

Practical Appeal	"There is not more to do, there is not less to do. It's got a beginning, a middle and an end." (consultant)
	"You know, it's almost Tipping Point by Malcolm Galdwell, and Blink and all those things. But Malcolm Galdwell doesn't pretend to be an academic. So in that sense Blue Ocean Strategy is very strong like that, which is a strength." (consultant)
	"And this work, it's not a silver bullet but it is quite… again I've never seen anything that can create both radical ideas but also very sensible ideas that can executed but the fact that we do in a way which is where we build the execution into the strategy work in very diverse team so that the team within the company own that develops and executes it…" (faculty member)
Value for money	"And many of the consultants don't actually get. They bring… There are a number of issues. Consultants work on billable days. The process doesn't require too many billable days. The work is done by the people. So consultants have to kind of make work to justify their doing, which then ruins then…" (faculty member)
	"And so at that time, within 2 weeks we have already done as much as a traditional consulting practice would do in 6 months. And it gets right to the hard of the matter." (faculty member)
	"My argument was the following: why should we have a classical consulting business model? Since we are doing Blue Ocean Strategy, we need to do Blue Ocean Strategy for everything. Then, the model we built was at the opposite of the model with juniors, seniors, project managers, VP and so on… It didn't work like that. In fact, what I had always suggested significantly differed from the classical consulting model." (consultant)
Image	"And it is thanks to Porterian strategy that we ended up with Blue Ocean Strategy, because Blue Ocean Strategy is the bit that Porter never covered in his world." (consultant)
	"And I say 4 million books later, it's hard to be overtly critical of it, you can micro criticize some of the areas that can be improved and where it could go further and so forth…But as a kind of breakthrough piece of thinking I think it's pretty compelling." (consultant)
	"Even though it's a new idea relatively speaking, the authors came with a lot of credibility because they had published all the HBR articles." (publisher)
Size of the target	"I think it's really is in that space between marketing, OD and strategy and I think it's a space that nobody… Consultants wander around that space, no academics get there because academics are not equipped, academic research is not equipped to go across fields." (faculty member)
	"The other particularity is that because of their geographical origin, due to the firms they have met, they swept across the world." (consultant)
	"I mean, it's definitely more successful globally than most ideas. There is a translation in China, certainly a translation in Korea… Everyone in the US knows about it, so… and I imagine they are pretty popular in Europe…" (publisher)

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study investigates the case of "Blue Ocean Strategy". This construct was developed by two INSEAD professors who created a space for it within the management knowledge market. They were assisted by a network of consultants and professors, and developed it through consulting assignments, publications of HBR articles as well as a book, teaching, along with the development of practical tools. It contributes to the literature on performativity in three ways: by putting forward the agency in performativity, by developing a novel form and performativity, and by applying performativity to the field of strategy. The chapter ends with implications for practices.

5. 1. Centering Performativity on the Agency

First, it shows how the "dance of agency" takes place within performativity. The field of STS studied how science is developed in action. Focusing on how humans and non-humans participate in developing science, it recognizes the researcher as an innovator rather than a describer (Faulhaber & Baumol, 1988), it acknowledges the participation of a dance of agency to the development of science (Pickering, 1995), and recognizes the intentionality both of humans and non-humans participating to science may be compared with the "strategic intent" developed in the field of strategy (Hamel & Prahalad, 1989).

In this study, the case of "Blue Ocean Strategy" shows how W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne have pushed their concept for more than 20 years until it reached an effective performativity. It shows the strategic intent they have developed since the idea of Value Innovation has emerged. For that purpose, they authors enrolled different people coming from academia or from practice, either humans or non-humans, to perform the "Blue Ocean Strategy" concept.

Despite the strategic intent they have developed, the case shows the struggle that takes place during the dance of agency. It complements studies on performativity that focus on how theories are performed within organizations (e.g. MacKenzie, Muniesa & Siu, 2007, D'Adderio & Pollock, 2014) and consequently overlook the performation process (Callon, 2007). Differences between performing a concept in reality and performing an existing concept to organizations is an interesting path for further research.

5. 2. Developing a Novel Form of Performativity

Second, this study develops a specific form of performativity where the concept is performed by applying its own characteristics. Mackenzie (2007) developed four degrees of performativity ranging from generic, effective and Barnesian performativity. He also indicates that a theory may be counter-performative. This conceptualization has been then discussed and enriched (Cabantous & Gond, 2011, D'Adderio & Pollock, 2014). This study shows the case of a concept performed following the principles that underpin the concept itself. W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne had the intent to develop a concept as a blue ocean strategy in the management knowledge market. Such a behavior does not seem completely awkward. The concept of conventionalizing (Cabantous & Gond, 2011) shows that in order to perform a theory, it has to be taught and learnt. In other words, cognitively, people have to think as the concept tells them how to think. Hence, a similar phenomenon applies to the innovators who follow the principle of the concept they wish to perform.

However, in the case of "Blue Ocean Strategy", we observe that during a period, the concept "obeys" to its innovators. Human and non-humans participate in performing the concept. Then, it develops "a life of its own" and subdues its own creators[53]. A struggle takes place which is similar to the one met while performing modularity (D'Adderio & Pollock, 2014) or while enrolling scallops in the Saint Brieuc bay (Callon, 1986). The metaphor of the dance of agency well expresses how wild and fast-paced the dance can be. Regardless of the level of strategic intent innovators may have to perform a theory, resistance and accommodation occur. Even if felicity conditions are met, the agency itself is a "barrier" to performativity.

5. 3. Applying Performativity in the Field of Strategy to Revigorate the Debate on the Relevance of Academic Knowledge

Third, this study develops in the field of strategic management, which is a fertile ground for applying the performativity concept as the field has evolved between description and prescription over time. A literature on management fashion anchored in an neo-institutional perspective (Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999), as well as a literature on management innovation anchored in an inter-organizational perspective (Birkinshaw, Hamel &

[53] I would like to thank an anonymous reviewer for suggesting this idea.

Mol, 2008) have developed to better understand how management ideas develop. However, Abrahamson (1996) acknowledges the low involvement of academics in the production of management knowledge. This role has been overtaken by gurus (see Clark & Salaman, 1998, Huczynski, 1993).

Gond, Cabantous, Harding & Learmonth (2015) suggest that Callon's theory has the potential to reinvigorate long standing debates on the relevance of management research and to challenge representational theories of knowledge. Indeed, that study uses the concept of performativity to understand better the performativity of "Blue Ocean Strategy". It consequently analyzes the production of knowledge as a set of socio-material practices and develops the translations that W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne accomplish to perform their concept. It shows the gathering of consultants and academics, the use of material agencies and the evolution of this mangle of practice. Briefly, the methodology at use allows a rich understanding of the way through which the concept of "Blue Ocean Strategy" has been performed. In that sense, this case study shows how this approach is complementary to the approaches developed in the strategic field of research. It actually answers to Abrahamson (1996)'s call for understanding how academics actually participate in the management knowledge market. Generalizations of this case study would benefit more broadly to better grasp the issue related to the lack of relevance for practice of management research (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015).

5. 4. Implications for Practice

I may conclude that study by recalling the fact that the concept of performativity has intrigued scholars from different fields of research. In fact, at the beginning of this study, I developed the example of meteorologists who actually wondered, in the 50s and 60s whether their science could have an effect on practice. As the field of strategy is anchored in social sciences and furthermore, as it has oscillated over time between description and prescription, it has been a fertile ground to let W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne perform the concept of "Blue Ocean Strategy". As this study shows, the concept of "Blue Ocean Strategy" has highly impacted practice, the concept being taught in business schools, sold in libraries and implemented by consultants. Even if this study does not detail the grounding of "Blue Ocean Strategy" in management theory, the story that has been told shows the difficulties it takes for two high-level academics to come up with a concept and make it what the actually want it to

be. This long story that takes about 15 years may act as a warning for managers who may blindly apply fashions coming from nowhere or developing themselves concepts without even testing them in practice.

Chapitre 4. Bridging the Rigor/Relevance Gap: a Study of Scholar-Practitioners' Roles[54]

Propos liminaire

Dans le chapitre 3, en mobilisant le concept de performativité, nous avons étudié la performativité de la « Stratégie Océan Bleu », un concept de stratégie développé par W. Chan Kim et Renée Mauborgne, tous deux professeurs à l'INSEAD. Nous nous sommes intéressé à la façon dont les acteurs ont performé leur concept, de telle manière qu'ils adoptent les caractéristiques de ce concept.

Le chapitre 4 continue à s'intéresser aux actants qui participent à la production des connaissances managériales. Nous avons remarqué un certain nombre d'acteurs qui lors du développement des innovations managériales développées dans le chapitre 2 avaient une posture ambidextre (Markides, 2007), tout comme les différents acteurs qui ont participé à la performation du la « Stratégie Océan Bleu ». Ainsi, l'objectif du chapitre 4 est de suivre ces acteurs afin de comprendre comment, à un niveau individuel, ils vivent la tension de rôle inhérente à leur appartenance à la fois au monde de la recherche et à celui de la pratique.

[54] Ce chapitre a été présenté en juin 2015 à la Higher Education and Research Conference organisée par l'EFMD ainsi que dans une version préliminaire à EGOS en 2012.

1. Introduction

Herbert Simon argued in his 1967 seminal article that business schools, like other professional schools – medicine, law, and engineering – face a constant dilemma: mastering knowledge coming from the world of academia (i.e. mainly teaching and research) and coming from professional practice (Simon, 1967). This issue was central in the reports on business schools published in North America at the end of the 1950s (Gordon & Howell, 1959, Pierson, 1959). By way of recommendations, Simon (1967) suggests hiring faculty members with business experience. When inexperienced, faculty members may have a consulting activity as a way to access to practice. In fact, Quittmeyer (1960) reports that in 1959, faculty members were "keenly interested in, and highly motivated toward part-time consulting work" (Quittmeyer, 1960, p.50). 60 % of administrators of universities encouraged faculty members to practice consulting. As research outputs were not considered in faculty promotion and tenure decisions, faculty members could devote their surplus time to consulting (e.g. Khurana & Spender, 2012).

However, over time, the professionalization of the academic field of management left the intimacy the field had nurtured with practice (Khurana, 2010). It emphasized a scholarship based on rigorous research despite attempts to swing the pendulum back to relevance (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002, Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bennis & O'Toole, 2005, Zell, 2001). Largely, Herbert Simon's recommendations were not followed and the relation with practice has oscillated from enriching to conflicting relationships. Two studies may illustrate this point. First, Empson (2012) experienced a work identity conflict while moving from practice to academia. The conflict was so strong that she compares it to having an affair: having a foot in both practice and academia means being unfaithful. Second, Butler, Delaney & Spoelstra (2015) interviewed leadership scholars who engage with practitioners. Despite their differing personal motivations to engage with practice, the authors show that they all face conflicts with academic norms that imply a series of trade-offs and comprises.

In fact, scholars face a paradox. They have to be both rigorous and relevant. It leads to role conflicts. In other words, they struggle with their role identities. This study attempts to solve this paradox by asking the following question: *what are the strategies to be developed to engage with different scholarship roles?*

To this end, I study the extreme case of people who successfully deal with their different scholarship role identities. I undertook 16 in-depth interviews with scholar-practitioners, individuals who "have one foot each in the worlds of academia and practice and are pointedly interested in advancing the causes of both theory and practice" (Tenkasi & Hay, 2008, p.50). Contributions are twofold. First, this study aims to contribute to the role literature by applying in the academic context a theory mainly developed in the work/family context. It gives the possibility to comprehend overlooked issues such as strategies developed to overcome role conflicts by balancing role activities. Second, it aims to understand how to bridge the rigor/relevance gap by uncovering the mechanisms through which it can be achieved.

This study develops in five sections. After dedicating a first section on the definitions of role conflicts and role balance and applying them in the academic settings, the second section develops a framework on the strategies to be developed to overcome role conflicts. The third section is dedicated to the methodology of this study based on 16 in-depth interviews conducted with scholar-practitioners as they overcome role conflicts between research and practice. Their analysis developed in the fourth section gives the possibility to understand how they face conflicts; how they balance their roles and the strategies they mobilize. A last section discusses these findings with the literature on role theory and on the rigor/relevance debate before highlighting paths for further research.

2. Role Conflicts and Role Balance in the Academic Setting

In this section, I first define the concept of role that gives the possibility to differentiate between four different roles that scholars adopt in academia (Boyer, 1990). This said, I develop the role conflict and the role balance perspectives that have mainly been developed in the work/family literature (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000).

Role theory defines role behaviors as "the recurring actions of an individual, appropriately interrelated with the repetitive activities of others so as to yield a predictable outcome" (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p.189). They are based on actors' expectations for their own and others' behavior (Katz & Kahn). As people engage in a role, they both give attention to it and are absorbed by it. Attention refers here to the cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role while absorption refers to the intensity of one's focus on a role (Kahn, 1990 in Rothbard, 2001). Individuals can engage in different roles. Each role has its

own specific identity that contrasts with other role identities (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000).

In the academic setting, Boyer (1990) reflects on the variety of occupational roles or role identities that scholars are expected to perform. He differentiates between (1) discovery, (2) integration, (3) application, and (4) teaching. Discovery involves the scholarship of creating new knowledge; integration involves interdisciplinary scholarship that provides connections across disciplinary boundaries by interpreting one's own research and that of others within a broader intellectual domain; application uses knowledge to solve relevant problems; and teaching communicates knowledge so that it can be understood by students and other interested parties. These scholarship roles are inseparably tied to each other and dynamically interact. Furthermore, there is no proper order or sequence of how knowledge flows between these four scholarship roles.

2. 1. Role Conflicts

Academics perceive a tension between their different roles. For instance, Fox (1992) shows the conflict that occur among scholars between research and teaching: those who highly invest in research do not highly invest in teaching. For Markides (2011), the same phenomenon takes place between academic and practical roles: cannibalization may occur between the academic and the practical set of skills and mind-sets. In fact, these two studies illustrate role conflicts, defined as the "simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other." (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964, p.19)

Among the different conflicts an individual may face, inter-role conflicts are the extent to which a person experiences pressures within one role that are incompatible with the pressures that arise within another role (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964, Van Sell, Brief & Schuler, 1981, Katz & Kahn, 1966, Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly, 1983, Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Conflicts are bi-directional in the sense that a conflict arising from domain A to domain B may be different from another arising from domain B to domain A (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Conflicts can come from incompatible sets of role pressures, or from the perception of environmental pressures (Kahn et al., 1964). Accordingly, Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) suggest to differentiate between (1) time-based, (2) strain-based and (3) behavioral-based role conflicts. First, multiple roles may compete for a person's time. Time spent on activities within one role generally cannot be devoted to activities within another role. On the one hand, time pressure associated with membership in one role makes it physically impossible to comply with expectations arising from another role. On the other hand, pressures produce a preoccupation with one role even when a person is physically attempting to meet the demands of another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Role overloads lead to role conflict only when the demands of one of the multiple roles make it difficult to fulfill the demands of another role (Coverman, 1989). Second, engagement in different roles leads to increased stress and strain associated with a role (Rothbard, 2001). Strain-based conflicts exist when strain in one role affects one's performance in another role. The roles are incompatible in the sense that the strain created by one role makes it difficult to comply with the demands of another one (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work stressors can produce strain symptoms such as tension, anxiety, fatigue, depression, apathy, and irritability. Third, specific patterns of in-role behavior may be incompatible with expectations regarding behavior in another role. If a person is unable to adjust behavior to comply with the expectations of different roles, he or she is likely to experience conflict between roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

2. 2. Role Balance

In opposition to the role conflict perspective, the role balance perspective puts forward the possibility that several roles may contribute to the improvement of the organizational effectiveness. In the academic context, Markides (2011) recognizes that some outlier scholars might be able to succeed in "managing *different and conflicting* mind-sets, attitudes, and values" (emphasis in original, Markides, 2011, p.131). After defining the role balance perspective, I will develop its antecedents.

The balance perspective is seen as the opposite end of a continuum where conflict would be at the beginning. It encompasses different terms such as *role accommodation*, *role compensation*, *resource drain*, *role segmentation*, *role spillover*, *role enrichment*, and *role integration* (Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw, 2003, Ramarajan, 2014). The concept of role balance

is based on Marks (1977)'s proposition that attention and energy can expand: energy in one role may enhance experiences in other roles. Human resources of energy and time can be apprehended as flexible, with a possibility of expansion and contraction. Similarly, Sieber (1974) emphasizes the possibility of incentives and rewards of role accumulation in terms of privileges gained, status security, status enhancement, and enrichment of the personality.

As definitions of role balance highly differ within the management literature, we rely on Kalliath & Brough (2008)'s understanding of the work/life balance construct. Generalizing it to broader settings, role balance may be defined as the individual perception that different activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual's current life priorities. Balance reflects a condition of "positive" where individuals are engaged in their different roles rather than being disengaged (Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw, 2003, Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Consequently, a greater number of role commitments is seen as providing benefits to individuals rather than draining them (Rothbard, 2001).

Balancing roles takes place through (1) additive effects, (2) compensation effects and (3) positive spillovers (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). First, accumulating roles can have beneficial effects on physical and psychological well-being, especially when the roles are of high quality. Individuals who participate in different role experiences may experience greater well-being that those who participate in only one of the roles or who are dissatisfied with one or more of their roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Second, individuals can benefit from compensation effects. Participating in several roles can buffer individuals from distress in one of the roles (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). A diverse portfolio of social roles may buffer an individual from distress stemming from one particular role. To illustrate that point, Sieber (1974) takes the metaphor of a diverse financial portfolio that protects an individual's financial well-being from declining performance in one segment of the economy. Individuals who accumulate roles may compensate for failure in one role by falling back on gratification in another role. Third, positive spillover best captures the enrichment that may occur by balancing roles. Accordingly, an experience in one role can produce positive experiences and outcomes in the other role. This mechanism differs from the two previous mechanisms because it represents a transfer of positive experiences from one role to the other role. The spillover is consequently bi-directional. Participation in some roles creates energy than can be used to enhance experiences in other roles (Marks, 1977). Resources acquired in one role as a by-

product of social relationships (e.g. recommendations to third parties, connections, inside tips) may be reinvested in other roles. Individuals' personalities may be enhanced as they learn to be tolerant of discrepant views and flexible in adjusting to the demands of diverse role senders. They may then benefit from their expanded personalities in all roles (Sieber, 1974).

Greenhaus & Powell (2006) suggest in the work/family context that role enrichment may be either instrumental or affective. The first dimension suggests that different types of resources are directly transferred between roles, improving performance in the latter role, while the second dimension indicates that when individuals receive extensive resources from a role, their positive affect in that role is increased, which, in turn, facilitates their functioning in the other role. This distinction is in line with the different levels of utilization of management knowledge suggested by Pelz (1978) (in Beyer & Trice, 1982, p.598) in the literature related to the relevance of management research. The author differentiates different degrees of transfers between research and practice. An instrumental use of management research to practice involves acting on research results in specific, direct ways; a conceptual use involves using research results for general enlightenments; and symbolic use involves using research results to legitimate and sustain predetermined positions. In other words, the symbolic use implies that academic knowledge may be used for credentializing or as rhetoric devices.

3. Strategies Deployed to Deal with Role Conflicts by Balancing Scholarship Roles

As the previous section has developed the constructs of role conflict and role balance, this section aims at developing the strategies through which individuals deal with their different role identities. There are different practical solutions to balance one's different roles (Ramarajan & Reid, 2013, Rothbard, Phillips & Dumas, 2005). Three can be extracted from the role literature: (1) keeping boundaries clear, (2) integrating roles and (3) developing a hierarchy between roles (citations). I will develop each strategy that I will illustrate with examples from the literature on scholarship roles. Table 1 summarizes the three strategies.

The first strategy consists of keeping boundaries clear by transiting between roles (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000). When roles are highly segmented, boundary management develops through personal and collective rites of passage that take place between roles. They signal to the individual and members of their role domain the change in both roles and attendant

identities. In an interview she took with Professor Tom Lee on the different scholarship roles he embodies, Kovoor-Misra (2012) notices that the professor puts in place a strategy consisting of "switching" in and out of roles between roles. It takes the form of transition rituals that allow him to change his mind-set and juggle multiple roles. Boundary management also develops with border-keepers and other domain members who help transiting between roles by being supportive (Clark, 2000). Kovoor-Misra (2012) highlights how the research team helps him accomplish these transitions while Balkin & Mello (2012) emphasize the position of the administrator who acts as a coach, mentor, scheduler and performance manager to help scholars dealing with their different role activities (see also Burke & Rau, 2010). Finally, Clark (2000) puts forward the organizational design that makes the flexibility and similarities between domains possible. Indeed, Boyer (1990) argues that the repartition between scholarship roles might depend on the institutions scholars belong to. For instance, role conflicts between research and teaching are more likely to occur in undergraduate schools whereas the balance will be easier to deal with in graduate schools.

Second, Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate (2000) argue that the boundary between role identities may be permeable and flexible: roles are blurred and consequently more integrated (see also Rothbard, Phillips & Dumas, 2005). Such an integration can be attained when individuals focus on having a central participation in each of their domains to attain better balance (Clark, 2000). For instance, Friedman (2006) develops the concept of "total leadership" as a way to find synergies among different life domains. He argues that people pursing such an endeavor are able to clarify what is important to them. They are thus able to concentrate on the most important things in every role identity they have.

In the academic setting, as teaching and research may influence each other (Fox, 1992), several have developed how these two scholarship roles are mutually beneficial (e.g. Burke & Rau, 2010, Becker & Kennedy, 2005, Lewicki & Bailey, 2009). For instance, Professor Lee explains that finding ways to manage his academic and personal roles are key (Kovoor-Misra, 2012). Being the associate dean of faculty research implies an administrative duty but also allows him to maintain a research mind-set; serving on editorial boards and reviewing articles helps him contribute to the profession and also keep him up to date on current research; and combining his teaching and supervision of doctoral students with his research team allows him

to mentor them but also to produce a consistent stream of high-level research (Kovoor-Misra, 2012).

Scholars developed specific methodologies to maximize the synergies between role identities. For instance, what Loyd, Kern & Thompson (2005) call "classroom research", a "research that is conducted within the classroom, linked to the course content, and embedded in the classroom culture" (p. 9) is an example of initiatives dedicated to maximize synergies between research and teaching (see other examples in Christensen & Carlile, 2009, Tushman, Fenollosa, McGrath, O'Reilly & Kleinbaum, 2007, Jarzabkowski & Whittington, 2008).

Finally, to integrate practice and academic roles, academics may engage with practitioners (Butler, Delaney & Spoelstra, 2015). Practicing academic consulting allows them to conduct research close to the field (Tenkasi & Hay, 2008, Lallé, 2003, Ormerod, 1996). It also brings students practical problems in the classroom and potential access to job offers (Engwall, 2012, Quittmeyer, 1960). Finally it facilitates the transfer of academic knowledge to practice, which may be valued by practitioners (Hughes, Bence, Grisoni, apos, Regan & Wornham, 2011, Boyer & Lewis, 1984, Pollitt, 2006, Docherty & Smith, 2007).

Third, Marks & MacDermid (1996) suggest developing a hierarchy between roles. It entails juggling with multiple roles identities by favoring some at the expense of others. It corresponds to Ramarajan & Reid (2013)'s misalignment strategy between work identities. Accordingly, role ease and role strain would appear to be more a function of how people organize their lives than of what they do. By decoupling roles, individuals would not face role conflict anymore. In the research/practice boundary setting, this observation was taken into account, as several propositions were developed to break down the activity of producing research for the research community from the diffusion of research to practitioners.

For instance, Van Aken (2005) differentiates Management Theory from Organizational Theory. These two different paradigms of research respectively aim to generate and diffuse management knowledge. On their part, Clinebell & Clinebell (2008) suggest maximizing the use of executive professors to teaching activities while faculty members who possess a doctorate degree focus on research (see also Fox, 1992). Without decoupling roles, Boyer (1990) suggests shifts and alterations throughout a lifetime to create flexible and varied career paths for professors throughout all four scholarly roles while executed at a high level of

expertise (see also Ireland, 2015). Markides (2007) recommends scholars to address practitioners before tenure by practicing teaching while keeping practitioner-oriented writing for after tenure. Lewicki & Bailey (2009) suggest a solution in-between that comprises what they call the portfolio model that would create a balance between research and teaching at the faculty level. However, they highlight the risk of the constitution of a "caste" system that would not enable transfers between role domains but rather perceive faculty as superior as others.

Table 1 summarizes the three different strategies scholars develop to balance their role identities. These three perspectives unravel strategies that scholar-practitioners develop to bridge academia and practice, as will be developed in the next section.

Table 1: Strategies developed to balance roles

Strategies to balance roles	**Arguments from the role literature**	**Application to the academic setting**
Keeping boundaries clear (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000)	Rite of passage (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000)	"Switching in/out" (Kovoor-Misra, 2012)
	Border-keeper (Clark, 2000)	Role of the administrator (Burke & Rau, 2010, Balkin & Mello, 2012) Role of the research team (Kovoor-Misra, 2012)
	Organizational design (Clark, 2000)	Undergraduate vs. graduate school (Boyer, 1990) Organizational design (Simon, 1967)
Integrating roles (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000)	Boundary blurring (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000, Rothbard, Phillips & Dumas, 2005)	"Flows" between roles (Kovoor-Misra, 2012)
	Central participation in each role (Clark, 2000)	"Classroom research" (Loyd, Kern & Thompson, 2005) Executive education (Tushman, Fenollosa, McGrath, O'Reilly & Kleinbaum, 2007) Strategy-as-practice (Jarzabkowski & Whittington, 2008) Case method teaching (Christensen & Carlile, 2009) Academic consulting (e.g. Tenkasi & Hay, 2008, Lallé, 2003, Ormerod, 1996) Engagement with practitioners (Butler, Delaney & Spoelstra, 2015)

		Case reports of field interventions (Yorks & Whitsett, 1985)
Developing a hierarchy between roles (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, Ramarajan & Reid, 2013)	Favoring roles (Marks & MacDermid, 1996)	Evolution throughout the career (Boyer, 1990, Ireland, 2015) Evolution before and after tenure (Markides, 2007) "Portfolio model" (Lewicki & Bailey, 2009)
	Decoupling roles (Friedman & Podolny, 1992)	Differentiating management theories (Van Aken, 2005) Differentiating research from teaching (Fox, 1992) Executive professors for teaching (Clinebell & Clinebell, 2008)

4. Methodology

This study aims to understand the strategies individuals developed to engage with their different scholarship roles. For that purpose, it relies on the study of scholar-practitioners. They are individuals who "have one foot each in the worlds of academia and practice and are pointedly interested in advancing the causes of both theory and practice" (Tenkasi & Hay, 2008, p.50). They are seen as one of the routes to improve the academic-practitioner engagement (Starkey & Madan, 2001, Hatchuel, 2001, Werr & Greiner, 2008, Markides, 2007, Hughes, Bence, Grisoni, apos, Regan & Wornham, 2011, Latham, 2007, Markides, 2011, Wasserman & Kram, 2009, Kram, Wasserman & Yip, 2012). They abstract out new knowledge from their experiences accumulated in organizations and generate new knowledge that is both useful to practitioners and conductive to change in organizations (Tenkasi & Hay, 2008). They rely on experiences, reflectivity, and pragmatism (Wasserman & Kram, 2009, Davenport, Prusak & Wilson, 2003). For this purpose, they have been highlighted in different outlets, such as academic journals and handbooks (Werr & Greiner, 2008, pp.108-109, e.g. Bartunek, 2007, p.1329), as well as in newspapers and in academic circles such as the Academy of Management and the Strategic Management Society who dedicate them an annual award.

Their "home base" is either academic, practice, or hybrid organizations (Kram, Wasserman & Yip, 2012). Sometimes named *idea practitioners* (Davenport, Prusak & Wilson, 2003) or *knowledge entrepreneurs* (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999), they evolve within a

continuum that encompasses independent consultants, academics, gurus and proactive employees of an innovative company (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, Kram, Wasserman & Yip, 2012).

This study focuses on the strategies scholar-practitioners develop to balance their different scholarship roles. For that purpose, I interviewed two types of scholar-practitioners. I relied on in-depth interviews conducted with junior scholar-practitioners who are developing strategies to balance their roles as well as with senior or experienced scholar-practitioners who have successfully developed throughout their career their different role identities. The next sub-section details the data collection.

4. 1. Data Collection

As this study aims at understanding how scholar-practitioners deal with their different role identities, the first step was to identify them. I identified senior scholar-practitioners (1) in the academic literature, (2) among conference price recipients, (3) among management thinkers' rankings such as Thinkers50.com, (4) and in the management press. I relied on personal ties to identify junior scholar-practitioners. The final sample consists 16 scholar-practitioners from which 3 are junior and 13 are senior.

The interviews were undertaken between spring 2012 and fall 2015. As some of the scholar-practitioners are highly involved in academic discussions related to the relevance of management research, secondary data were used as a preparatory material: books, articles, biographies, interviews… (e.g. Rynes, 2007, Mohrman & Lawler, 2011). After an introduction presenting the goal of this study, the interviews were organized following 4 steps: (1) a focus on the life career of the scholar-practitioner with an emphasis on its different role identities over time; (2) a focus on the benefits and difficulties of dealing with different role activities; (3) a reflection on their personal motives; (4) and an open-ending on the future possibilities of being a scholar-practitioner in the upcoming environment.

Face-to-face interviews were organized in 12 of the 16 interviews. Some of them took place during academic conferences such as the annual conference of the Academy of Management or of the Strategic Management Society. The others were conducted through Skype or over the phone. All the participants endorsed a practice role for over 10 years.

However, Table 2 differentiates interviews conducted with junior scholar-practitioners from interviews conducted with senior scholar-practitioners in terms of their experience (column 2). It also shows that 13 of them hold a PhD, DBA or equivalent while the other 3 have a MBA or a master degree (column 3). At the time of the interview, 4 of them had their home base in management consulting firms while the other 12 were firstly based in a university (column 4). The participants come either from Europe (10) or from North America (6) (column 5).

Interviews were recorded and transcribed when approved by the participant (column 6). They last between 36 minutes and more than 2 hour and a half, with an average time of 72 minutes per interview (column 7). For each participant, I collected data related to their plural impact (Aguinis, Shapiro, Antonacopoulou & Cummings, 2014). The first indicator (column 8) is the h-index that accounts for the scholarship impact of each scholar-practitioner. A scholar with an index of h has published h papers each of which has been cited in other papers at least h times[55]. I differentiated between those having a h-index under 10, between 10 and 20, and above 20[56]. The second indicators refers to the outlets where they publish either academic publications (A), books (B) or practitioner-oriented articles (C) (column 9). This data was gathered using the scholar-practitioners' curriculum vitae. To express the regularity of their publication habits, when they have only published a few outlets in one of these three categories a long time ago, I decided not to take them into account. Finally, column 10 indicates the number of hits appearing on the search engine Google when typing the name of the scholar-practitioner (I excluded *.edu websites, following the procedure from Aguinis, Suárez-González, Lannelongue & Joo, 2012). It gives the possibility to assess their impact in practice. They range from under 2,000 hits, between 2,000 and 10,000 hits, and above 10,000 hits[57]. As some scholar-practitioners have homonyms, I could not gather data for 4 of them.

Table 2: Profiles of the sampled scholar-practitioners

#	Practice*	PhD*	Main institution*	Country*	Data	Length	h-Index	Outlet	Google Search

[55] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/H-index

[56] For comparison purpose, if I take the h-index of some of the authors cited in the introduction of this study, as of October 2015, Rakesh Khurana (HBS) holds a h-index of 29, Alfred Kieser (Universität Mannheim) of 52 and Laura Empson (City University London) of 16.

[57] Similarly, Rakesh Khurana appears more than 50K times, Alfred Kieser more than 15K times and Laura Empson about 7K times in Google results.

1	10+	10+	Univ. Paris	France	Transcript	01:03	<10	BC	2-10K
2	15+	15+	HEC Genève	Switzerland	Transcript	00:55	10-20	ABC	2-10K
3	20+	20+	HEC Paris	France	Transcript	00:39	10-20	ABC	2-10K
4	20+	25+	Monitor	USA	Transcript	01:32	<10	C	2-10K
5	20+	30+	ESCP Europe	France	Notes	02:45	<10	AB	N/R
6	30+	N/A	Independent	France	Transcript	01:31	<10	BC	2-10K
7	30+	N/A	ESCP Europe	France	Transcript	01:39	<10	BC	2-10K
8	30+	30+	Univ. of Oxford	UK	Notes	00:36	10-20	ABC	N/R
9	30+	30+	CNAM	France	Notes	00:45	10-20	ABC	N/R
10	35+	25+	Harvard Uni.	USA	Transcript	00:40	>20	ABC	>10K
11	35+	35+	INSEAD	France	Transcript	01:02	>20	ABC	>10K
12	35+	N/A	BCG	Canada	Transcript	02:02	>20	BC	>10K
13	40+	25+	Independent	Switzerland	Transcript	00:46	10-20	BC	<2K
14	40+	40+	Uni. of Toronto	Canada	Notes	02:00	>20	ABC	>10K
15	40+	40+	Uni. of Michigan	USA	Transcript	00:37	>20	BC	>10K
16	50+	50+	Harvard Uni.	USA	Transcript	00:42	>20	BC	N/R

* At the time of the interview.
A = Academic articles, handbooks, B= Practitioner-oriented books, essays; C= bridge journals (e.g. HBR, CMR).

4. 2. Data Analysis

I performed data analysis using the computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software NVivo 10. I first coded the transcripts and notes related to topics identified in the literature review. It comprises the four scholarship role activities (discovery, integration, teaching, and practice), role conflicts, role balance, and the strategies they undertake.

Then, I moved to a more analytical coding. I identified the different forms of role conflict and role balance that scholar-practitioners experience. I developed the types of conflicts faced by scholar-practitioners and also focused on the way they balance their role. I then

identified the different strategies they develop. As it mainly relies on integration strategies, I performed a more fine-grained analysis of that strategy through a "matrix coding" with NVivo 10. I analyzed how scholarship role activities integrate with each other's in an instrumental, conceptual and symbolic way. Regarding the strategies they develop, I identified the one from the literature (i.e. keeping the boundaries clear; integrating roles; developing a hierarchy between roles) and inductively developed others. I differentiated the direction of the role (e.g. instrumental integration from role of discovery to role of application is different from instrumental integration from role of application to role of discovery). The results of this analysis is developed in the following section.

5. Scholar-Practitioners' Strategies Related to their Scholarship Roles

After depicting the role conflicts that scholar-practitioners experience, this study demonstrates that experienced scholar-practitioners balance their roles mainly by integrating them. Thus, I detail the different strategies they develop and focus on how they integrate their roles. For that purpose, I first show how their academic roles (scholarship, integration, and teaching) integrates with their application role, and then on the other way round. The next sub-section begins by detailing the conflicting roles scholar-practitioners experience.

5. 1. Facing Conflicting Roles

By having one foot in practice, and another one in academia, scholar-practitioners experience conflicting roles. As one participant explains, the first conflict they confront with is time-based:

> *"The risk is to do too much of one role and not enough in the other two, or too much of another one and not enough in the other two. You need to balance, not only do teaching. I could do 4 times the teaching I do, just by stopping saying 'no'!"*

The main reason why junior scholar-practitioners are confronted with time-based conflict is related to the fact that they have not mastered all their scholarship skills yet:

> *"But the problem I had, it was an issue related to time management, especially in terms of publications. I mean… I think I fell behind on publications and on learning how to publish."*

But scholar-practitioners also face another conflict which is behavioral-based. It is exemplified hereafter:

> *"I have to be a part of both worlds, and I have to be comfortable with spanning both worlds. It's much more comfortable to be one thing than to be two things."*

Behavioral-based conflicts occur in terms of contributing simultaneously to the world of research and to the world of practice, respectively rewarded for their rigor and for their relevance. They offer differing values and behaviors. The excerpt hereafter explores some of these differences in terms of behavior:

> *"It means we need to explain to the firm that the researcher has a research object, he'll have to ask 5 questions, he'll want to pass a questionnaire, he'll also want to meet several VPs after the assignment […]. In parallel, we're going to tell the researcher that he has a practical goal. He may have to downgrade the scientific rigor, he'll have to go faster, and he may have fewer people in his sample…"*

Finally, scholar-practitioners may face strain-based conflicts. The main issue participants reveal is related to managing a consulting company. A participant explained the strain involved by having to pay, every month salaries and rental, besides consulting and scholarship activities. Other strains were experienced from time to time, as Table 3 below illustrates.

Table 3: Representative quotes underlying "role conflicts"

Time-based	"For [this firm], it was up to 3 days a week [of consulting]. It gave me the possibility to learn the job. But at a time, it became complicated. It was always a bit complicated because I wasn't available 100%. We had a fight with my boss, because he didn't understand that when there were an issue at the business school, I had to answer the phone and I couldn't spend 100% of my time listening to him." "I had about half of my time for the consultancy. It wasn't perfect because I realize that if I had spent my whole time at the office, it would certainly have developed more."

Behavioral-based	"Being a scholar-consultant is difficult because of the way you need to embody two sides that are often split. Academics are great doing research but they don't care about anything practical and consultants with managers who are concerned about practice often don't care or don't have the tools to contribute to scholarship." "There are some inherent problems in that because the academic wants to publish stuff. That's their success, and the practitioner wants to keep it secret for the firm's benefit. And that's tricky." "So I think at the same time you're reinforcing the rigor of research, you need to be sure you have mechanisms that are reinforcing the relevance of questions being explored. And I think… I don't think it's a pendulum, I don't think it's one or the other; I think you need to think about mechanisms for both. Practitioners, the market place requires that they be relevance. It places no requirement on the rigor." "I spent my whole life at the crossroad between research and practice and that's true that usually, consultants are not really superb stage performers. They are quite good in terms of pedagogical assistance and even in terms of research […]. Scholars, they don't really listen, they aren't really mindful… They don't like reinventing their deck of slides for each presentation… Competencies don't really blend!"
Strain-based	"In fact, a kind of schizophrenia to see in one side something really rigorous, really scientific; and on the other side going crazy because there is no content." "And there, I understood that managing a firm of about 20 consultants was really annoying, because at a time, you become an administrator and if I decided to practice consulting, it was because I wanted to do things with people from the firm, for clients."

5. 2. Balancing Roles

Each and every scholar-practitioner faces role conflicts. However, their ability to balance them differ. Even if there are different ways to do it (compensation, additive or positive spillover effects), only the junior scholar-practitioners relied on compensation effects. It is illustrated with the following excerpt:

> *« I found it useful to have an experience, to work with a firm, because it was part of the things I was willing to experience. It was a way to find a balance of interest for the activity, an income and an experience."*

One may guess that balancing role through compensation effects involves time-based conflict. Consequently, it does not seem to be a sustainable way for senior scholar-practitioners to overcome those conflicts.

When it comes to additive effects, they were difficult to catch from participants. One example I was told from a participant is that when he publishes a HBR article, it entailed a positive effects in his work in terms of well-being. However, it also entails spillovers, which is why these two balancing effects are difficult to differentiate. In this case, the spillover effect occurs in terms of the data collected for that research project that come from a consulting assignment.

In fact, the main way to balance roles remains in the spillover strategy as the example hereafter illustrates:

> *"All the things I've learnt in journals are in my head. I'm using those things as they are appropriate. They are tools. So it's not mutually exclusive. It's a matter of integrating who I am as a researcher and as a change agent."*

The next sub-section consequently describes the strategies scholar-practitioners develop to balance their roles, which aims at favoring integration between roles.

5. 3. Strategies Developed to Balance Roles

To balance their roles, participants develop different strategies. I first review the strategies aimed at keeping boundaries clear and at developing a hierarchy between roles before developing their integration.

The first strategy scholar-practitioners undertake relies in keeping boundaries clear between their roles. For that purpose, they adopt different tactics. People or institutions participate in clarifying their role activities. For instance, a participant explains that he always asks his dean before practicing consulting to be sure there is no conflict of interest involved between his role as a scholar belonging to the university and his role as a practitioner. Scholar-practitioners also need to discipline themselves by clearly defining their roles and involvements. A participant explains that during his whole career, he has never had any issue with the business school because of his consulting activity. In fact, he never missed a class because of a consulting reason and more generally, his role as an academic has never suffered from it. Table 4 gives additional examples underlying the strategy of keeping boundaries clear.

The second strategy consists of developing a hierarchy between roles in a given point in time or throughout time. In a given point in time, scholar-practitioners make choices and emphasize their different scholarship roles. For instance, a participant chose never to hold a position at an editorial board, as he considers it as time taken from research. The scholarship role that is usually undervalued is teaching:

> *"I was teaching [at every business school]. At that time, I liked that and I had no other choice. Now I have almost no interest. In fact, financially, I have almost no incentive of doing a lot of classes […]. Getting up at 5 o'clock in the morning to teach, it's something you do as a PhD student, not as a professor, hopefully!"*

This quote shows an extreme case of a scholar-practitioner who undervalues his teaching activity but it also underlines the dynamics that roles take over time. Indeed, scholar-practitioners engage more or less in their different roles over time. A participants express it that way:

> *"At different times in my career, I've been more the academic and more the consulting. I like both"*

Table 4 gives additional quotes underlying the strategy aiming at developing a hierarchy between roles.

Finally, the last and also the main strategy that scholar-practitioners undertake consists of integrating their roles. It relies on different tactics. First, they restrict themselves to their core competencies. A participant explains it as follows:

> *"In fact, I consult using my skills, which means that I value my professor competencies by being in interaction with the firm. Then, if I'm writing a report, it's because I'm able to use tools from the strategy field, for instance to analyze a sector."*

Integrating roles implies withdrawing all the activities that are not directly useful for improving the core activities. For instance, one participant explained that he avoids administrative duties and does not participate in academic networking. Second, partnering with specialists – either academics or practitioners – is another tactics to integrate roles. The following extract explains how faculty members typically partner with consulting firms:

> *"The professors who are consulting… They can sell something to firms, they are rather going to sell their expertise and they outsource the study side to a consulting firm. In fact, they work in partnership with a consulting firm."*

Partnership can also take place at an individual level. A participant explains that he has developed over the years a partnership with one of his academic colleague who is more anchored than he is in management theory. A third tactics is for scholar-practitioners to benefit from the organization they belong to in order to foster the integration between their roles. Harvard Business School (HBS) might be one of the most compelling examples of an institution that helps getting close to the field:

> *"Well, you need to do either what I do, but what I'm arguing is really how HBS really manages to change the context from academia to the real world by asking our academics to go to the real world to write cases, to teach executives, to be able to talk their language. So that's one way to do this. There are many ways to do that. I tried to work in a company. I think that's the most powerful way, but we are doing it by asking our academics to go into companies and write cases."*

Fourth, scholar-practitioners success because they pursue what they want. Accordingly, their commitment improves their role integration. Table 4 gives additional quotes underlying strategies aiming at integrating roles.

Table 4: Representative quotes underlying strategies to balance roles

Keeping boundaries clear	
Role of gatekeepers (business school, administration, colleagues)	"Also Harvard Business School allows you to do a day a week outside, that's not if you don't do it Monday it's gone, it's like 52 days in the year and […] you're encouraged to do that, that's the main thing, because people think there is a synergy between research and practice."
Role of the self	"When I worked in business that was a problem… Of course I guess you learn something and I try to manage time in a way that I reserve time for writing, I take breaks, I practice a lot of sport… So I believe in that… You are physically and then you are also mentally…"
Developing a hierarchy between roles	
Making choices	"I could do 4 times the executive education I'm doing, simply by stopping saying 'no', but I don't want to do this. You need to be organized, I could do more consulting. I say 'no'. I could do more research. I say 'no'."

Evolving between roles	"And in professional side I probably do more speaking now that I did before when I did more consulting for a number of reasons but a functional thing of life cycle. And our involvement in the real world changes over time, from young people who are never involved or they may begin their career. But the kind of consulting I do may evolved over time and then because of various structures and the activity itself may change me end up as I have, end up speaking in companies more and consulting less than the last times. There are exceptions for that, but it's important to remember that dynamic respective as opposed to this one fixed view of these things."
Integrating roles	
Emphasis on the core competencies	"And again, if we win that business, I'm not consulting myself, I'm doing with partners who will do the work to help [clients] do changes but I'm part of that conversation to articulate what it is to really change. And when we sell that work, the case team will come back to me with what went well, what didn't go well, etc.… So, for me to be involved in bridging that gap, I can't seat at headquarter and make up things." "But there are many things I don't know about finance, accounting, balanced scorecard, and so on. I don't know anything about all of this. So yes, I focalize on the fields I know."
Partnering	"One way to solve that problem, even if you as an individual can't do both, is to create teams. Academics and practitioners, consultants and scholars who work together as a team in both formulating an intervention and then learning from that intervention." "I've got 3 different partners […] So they have client that they work with. And they are interested in developing these ideas. So what we're best: I sort of look upstream at the research and they are looking downstream at the client work, and we work together to crack this."
Role of the organization	"I think that if I left academia, I'd sort of lose that ability to cross all those things" "In [our organization], we value and reward people for working with ideas not just selling business. But you really need to make a big effort, not a lot of firms do… they always say that… but in practice, they don't really put the value on this. However they should if they want to be the leaders on ideas." "You know, our mission is to educate the leaders who make a difference to the world. So you know, everything we do is driven by, at Harvard, is driven by 'Does this make an impact to the real world?'"
Pursue what you want	"You have to know who you are, you have to pursue what your strengths make you fit do and what your joy is, new passion. Imagine put all those things together around your passion, your purpose; you start to have things to say and people listen to it. Now that doesn't mean everybody listens, that people aren't going to criticize your work. But if you quiet the criticism with failure, you've made a really big mistake because you're leaving in fear and you're not going to have a message for people."

	"There is no question. My whole career has been a boundary spanning role. Boundary spanners absorb a lot of uncertainty. They can be lonely in lot of ways but if I understand very quickly, boundary spanners have a lot more influence than people in the middle of the system."

5. 4. Integrating Scholarship Roles from Academia to Practice

Previous sub-sections developed the fact that the most successful ways to balance scholarship role activities relies on role spillovers and on the integration of the role activities. As people integrate roles they do not differentiate them. For instance, a participant explains that he behaves as does a professor working in a university hospital, working on a topic area by researching, teaching and intervening, all at once. However, for the sake of completeness, this sub-section makes a distinction between the recursive loops among the different role activities. It focuses on the integration between the scholarships roles activities most related to university and business schools (discovery, integration and teaching) and the scholarship role linked to practice (application). I will review how scholar-practitioners integrate their academic roles to their application roles before developing how they integrate in return their application role to their three other scholarship roles.

Experienced scholar-practitioners practice the full range of their scholarship role activities. As described in Table 5 and developed below, they are able to integrate their scholarship of discovery, integration and teaching into practice.

Table 5: Scholarship role integration: from discovery, integration and teaching to application

To Application	Instrumental	Conceptual	Symbolic
From Discovery	- Problem-oriented consulting - Research results - Expertise - Academic network	- Answer to the "so what?" question - Idea testing	- Brand of the business school - Scientific legitimacy
From Integration	- Evidence-based management	- Integration of broad management knowledge - Capacity of reframing - Scientific methodologies	- Notoriety through integrative work - Objectivity and trust

		- Insights and analogies	
From Teaching	- Access to clients through teaching or executive education - Consulting complementary to teaching - Recruitment	- Educational skills	- Trust before the engagement - Teaching in prestigious universities

This part is organized a follows. To review how scholar-practitioners integrate their academic roles (discovery, integration, teaching) to their application roles, I first focus on the discovery scholarship, then on the integration scholarship and finally on the teaching scholarship. For each role integration, I develop the instrumental, conceptual and symbolic integrations.

Academic research (or scholarship of discovery) is integrated to application in different ways. An instrumental integration of discovery into application takes place through problem-driven consulting. Following a scientific process, a participant explains that he develops surveys aimed at solving management issues that organizations face. Another participant apprehends management theories as frameworks for developing interventions to solve management problems. However, the example developed hereafter shows that such an integration is difficult to execute:

> *"My thesis or a quick literature review on a database on a specific subject, it usually does not happen!"*

The integration can also occur through the instrumental use of the scholar-practitioner's expertise, as illustrated hereafter:

> *"Top managers were coming back to us saying 'your thing is really interesting!'. […] It was kind of an experiment to put it into practice."*

From time to time, scholar-practitioners may also inform practice not using their own expertise but rather by relying on their academic network. A participant explains that beyond his own field of expertise, he is able to play a role of go-between to recommend one of his colleagues to help firms on specific issues.

The conceptual integration of research to practice is based on the capacity of scholar-practitioners to see things differently. Their academic background gives them a specific knowledge and a vantage point which they can use to improve practice. However, it does not involve giving esoteric advices but rather applying academic research to a specific problem. A scholar-practitioner explains that issue hereafter:

> *"That in-between role requires that the academics understand that their ideas actually are not complete enough to have impact, which much academics don't like. […] The phrase that comes by is "bilingual". I don't mean it literally, but they are comfortable reading an academic piece and are comfortable implementing a solution in a company. And there are very few people who are comfortable in both places."*

At last, applying academic knowledge to the real world gives the possibility to test ideas, refine them, communicate on them and get a feed-back from the field:

> *"It's not that you're sitting in an ivory tower trying to dream these things out and intellectually coming up with something that looks good but you know, it's in the interaction between the two [i.e. research and practice] that the benefit comes."*

Finally, scholarship of discovery is symbolically integrated to scholarship of application through legitimacy that comes either from the business school itself or from the academic world the scholar-practitioner belongs to. The notoriety of the institution plays a role in the integration of discovery to application as well as the status of the scholar-practitioner who have academic attributes (holding a PhD, having published in prestigious or notorious journals, giving speeches…). Table 5 provides additional quotes underlying the integration of discovery to application.

Second, integration scholarship is also integrated to application scholarship in instrumental, conceptual and symbolic ways. In terms of instrumental integration, it is well represented by the philosophy of "Evidence-based management" through which principles based on the best evidence are translated into organizational settings (Rousseau, 2006). It is illustrated by the following excerpt:

> *"All the things I've learnt in journals are in my head. I'm using those things as they are appropriate. They are tools."*

In terms of conceptual integration, it takes different forms. Scholar-practitioners are able to integrate broad management knowledge, gained from their academic background. A participant explains the following:

> *"I do, and I will read years and years on a topic. I'll be way back on the back issues and to pick a topic, I will be maybe reading some specific human management journal, I may be reading ASQ [Administrative Science Quarterly], I'll read a lot of economics, I'll read a lot of neuroscience and psychology in the last, a little bit. So, way back I read a lot of sociology, cultural transformation. So I do a lot of reading the academic literature. Sometimes I'd just reading and keeping up and reading for interesting things."*

As the excerpt shows, the capacity of understanding academic knowledge gives some scholar-practitioners the possibility to integrate academic literature from different academic fields. Their capacity of integrating knowledge also gives them the possibility of reframing, which is something executives are eager of. A participant illustrates that point:

> *"The executive board who takes decision, they don't really know how to tackle the issue. They want to have someone to help them structure their approach."*

What scholar-practitioners also integrate is a scientific method. Coupled with clients' knowledge, it is seen as something relevant to the organizations. Taking the example of the standard of proof, which is one aspect of the research methodology, a scholar-practitioner shows how that skill is useful for practice:

> *"But the standards of proof are different for what constitutes the proof. It's a weird thing with managers. A really good anecdote is all the proof many managers need. That's one of the reason these groups can go so far with a simple benchmarking. So we, as an organization, we actually have a higher standard of proof that our client's self. We have a lower standard of proof that some academics have. But mostly it's not lower and higher, it's different. And by that, I*

> *mean I can generate I can put together a proof I find more and more compelling than a particular statistical result."*

Scholar-practitioners are also able to bring insights and analogies that would not be able to bring other consultants whose knowledge comes from a different perspective than academia.

> *"[CEOs] want someone else they can bounce ideas off, someone they hopefully give new ways of looking at the world as well, someone they can trust, whose judgment they trust, who they think have expertise beyond the industry that they have, that can bring these analogies and other examples… You know, just in some extent, can bring theoretically grounded, to some extent can bring new ideas but more just… someone who they think is valuable to talk to difficult questions and issues that have no right answers."*

Finally, in terms of the academic knowledge that scholar-practitioners symbolically integrate to practice, it can take place in different forms. On the one hand, the integration takes place in terms of notoriety. A participant explains that during his career, he began writing on the subject of "public service" in different practitioner-oriented outlets. He also participated in conferences held by different associations in the human resources area. Because he was putting words on an issue that different people were facing, several people got interested in his work. On the other hand, it takes place in terms of the values that academia vehicles, such as objectivity and trust. A scholar-practitioner explains the following:

> *"CEOs, top managers are desperate to have a trusted discussion partner."*

Table 5 displays additional quotes related to the integration of integrative research into application.

Third, integration takes place from teaching to application, either in instrumental, conceptual or symbolic ways. Regarding the instrumental way through which the integration takes place, executive education is seen as a place where to get direct contacts with potential clients:

> *"That's really easy. There are students who asked me for consulting assignments."*

> *More broadly, being in contact with executives helps scholar-practitioners being hired as consultants:*
>
> *"In fact, I had contact through my executive workshops. And sometimes, someone in the firm asks me something, or alumni students I had at the business school who say 'I would like to have your advice on that issue'."*

Consulting might also be apprehended as a complement to a class as a participant explains:

> *"Firms began telling me: but what is before and after training? [...]I should at least link training and consulting."*

Finally, when scholar-practitioners are working within a consulting firm, teaching at a business school is a way through which they can get in contact with potential collaborators and hire them. Regarding the conceptual integration, teaching also offers an educational perspective that might be interesting for some consulting assignments. Both the pedagogical skills and the consciousness of teaching case studies might help developing consulting assignments. Finally, regarding the symbolic integration, teaching creates trust even before the consulting engagement is made, which made the assignment easier to develop. The following table gives additional quotes supporting how scholarships of teaching integrate into scholarships of application.

Table 6: Representative quotes underlying the integration of discovery, integration and teaching into application

Instrumental integration	
From Discovery to Application	*Problem-oriented consulting* – "Part of it [i.e. my research] is problem-driven, the set of problems facing management changes over time and so if you were back from doing research driven by problem, the set of problems management faces changes so the researches need to be done to address those." *Using research results* - "The funny thing is because academic publish, we can grab their ideas. The trick is that their ideas are always stopping short of that. It's that last part that we conduct research on." *Expertise* – "It was the same mechanism. I mean that someone knew me as a professor. He asked me to come to his board to help take decisions on my research area." *Using the academic network* – "I think one of the most important thing is networking, when you know people and use the network, and if

	course, for [my company], one competitive advantage is that I have contacts with relatively famous high-level people in academia."
From Integration to Application	*Evidence-based management* – "There is no ethical problem using knowledge widely available to help someone solving a problem."
From Teaching to Application	*Having access to clients through teaching or executive education* – "There are interesting cases. I have an executive MBA student who was the management director of an organization and he liked the course so he wanted to hire me as a consultant for the company. So now I have a discussion with another major multinational company, he is very senior and we are talking… So this is one way." "Yes, that's it! If they have participated in a seminar, they can become clients once they have really seen the value of the thing and they are really interested in it. It happens, but it's not systematic. Hopefully, because if it were, we would not know how to deal with it. It's pleasant when it happens but it should not happen too often otherwise there is a need to create a consulting firm and find ways to make it grow." *Consulting complements teaching* – "I understood that I was not interested in only doing training. Behind, there were consulting activities upstream or downstream because you know, once you've done training…" *Recruiting consultants* – The classroom is like an incubator
Conceptual integration	
From Discovery to Application	*Answering to the "so what?" question* – "And so we do have research with a lot of… let me think… We have a group called Monitor Network (GBN), I think it's called. That keeps in touch with a lot of good thinkers that we can talk to and talk with their ideas about… But as an organization, it's the ability for us to do the 'so what' question, that really needs to bring in home." *Idea testing* – "If you're consultant and advise in companies, then try to sell your ideas to them. You know, if they don't work, if they don't pick them up, then there is something wrong with your ideas. So, it's test whether your ideas really have any value in the real world. So that's useful."
From Integration to Application	*Integrating broad management knowledge* – "So you read all the academic things. You read all the things that happen in academia, so you might use it in a way… I don't know." "So when you are working with the client, you are bringing with you the knowledge that you have as a scholar about a number of thing." *Capacity of reframing* – "And so there are all aspects where the burden is on a new framing of the question, which is different than path breaking researches defined in the academic community. Often path breaking research in academic community calls for all new fields of research. A lot of the work we see that has been most influential in business community is where the new research question repurposes a body of research that has already been done. But the key is in framing the question differently, and framing the question for the general manager."

	Using scientific methodologies – "Our contribution, as management professors, it's that we have developed many methods to analyze sectors. […] For instance, a method of strategic analysis, we can apply it to every sector, of course, we need to apply it carefully but we can apply it." *Using insights and analogies* – "It's basically… I'm hopefully a trusted discussion pal. But I have insights, I have analogies, I have other experiences, I can say 'ho yes, this is what happens in the airline business'. Most people have only worked in a couple of businesses. They don't have that breadth of experience. So having seen other industries, you have all the stories, you have analogies… They like that because it's 'our industry isn't quite exceptional, I see, we can learn from them.' But it can't be, it's not a universal truth, it has to be relevant. But that's what I can do. And I bring some simple framework that help think about things in a different way or rearranges mental maps a little bit. That's all it is…"
From Teaching to Application	*Bringing educational skills* – "If you can bring in new ideas, if you can bring the educational perspective, you know, there is an element to teaching them here, showing them new things, convincing them…"
Symbolic integration	
From Discovery to Application	*Using the brand of the business school* – "Yeah, I mean you know, now I start to get referrals from referrals from people, so… For a while I did lot of work with company X. That came out from completely nowhere, like 10 years ago I had worked with [another company] and they recommended me, it's… but if I was honest, everything comes back to Harvard one way or another. One way they come through executive programs or you know the Harvard alumni and the first place they look is who a Harvard that do this stuff or they've read my HBR articles… I mean, I do no marketing or anything, no…" *Scientific legitimacy* – "The client enters that way. I mean, he wants to talk to a professor because his approach is more objective."
From Integration to Application	*Gaining notoriety through integrative work* – "What happens is that we become known on a theme, more or less. Not because of our research, but rather because we write a book or we do executive education with executive managers." *Building objectivity and trust* – "As an academic, if you're independent, objective, if you've got these experiences across different businesses, you know… and particularly for me, I'm not selling anything, which I think is refreshing to them."
From Teaching to Application	*Building trust before the engagement* – Teaching creates trust, credibility and affect because a lot of time is already spent with participants. The confidence is already created and people know the kind of work that will be exerted. *Teaching in prestigious universities* – "A lot of people continue to teach at [this university]. They don't care about it but it's good saying you teach there."

5. 5. Integrating Scholarship Roles from Practice to Academia

As developed in Table 7 hereafter, the other way round, scholarship of application is integrated to scholarship of discovery, integration and teaching at an instrumental, conceptual and symbolic levels. While it seemed quite easy to integrate scholarship roles into application, the other way seems to be less obvious. I will review the integration going from discovery, integration to teaching and for each type of integration, develop whether the integration is instrumental or conceptual. I will finally review the symbolic integration from practice to academic scholarship roles.

Table 7: Scholarship role integration: from application to discovery, integration and teaching

From Application	Instrumental	Conceptual	Symbolic
To Discovery	- Peer-review article and publications - Accessing research data	- Advancing knowledge - Developing a more realistic vision of research - Getting insights	- Building legitimacy and reputation
To Integration	N/A	- Reflexive essays - Experiential learning	
To Teaching	- Bringing examples to the classroom - Building a course on a research area - Educating doctoral students	- Knowing what you teach	

First, scholar-practitioners integrate their practice activity to their research activity. When it is instrumental, they publish academic research from their experiences accumulated within firms. A participant explains that he has always been able to convert his consulting projects into research. However he is rather seen as an exception rather than the rule. The following extract illustrates how another scholar-practitioner integrates with more difficulties those two role activities:

> *"Sometimes, it happens. But I don't do it a priori, I'm honest with the consulting activity. I do it a posteriori. I tell myself: 'look, there are some important elements, that's interesting, there is an interesting thing, we have developed an idea or a concept.' I learnt something on whatever… Maybe it's worth it to write on it, or at least, maybe it's not worth it being written by itself but it becomes a contribution to a research work among others, an element of a research work."*

Consulting might also be used as a means to access databases. A participant explains it:

> *"In fact, we wanted to access data for our research project. To get data, we accepted, to do pro bono consulting […]. In fact, it was an exchange. You give us access to data, we give you our results, but through a consulting angle, which means not only gross results."*

In a more conceptual fashion, consulting might be used to advance academic knowledge. As a participant explains:

> *"And some of my best work just comes from being in some organizational settings, trying to make sense of what was going on and then going back and looking out what journal articles and the books said, and saying 'you know what, they don't have a handle on this'. And then doing some kind of research project and publishing something that relates to that experience."*

Consulting assignments may also be used as inspiring materials. By being in the field, things are seen through another perspective. For instance, one of the participants who was immersed in the field for a long period of time and came back to academia noticed that in practice, problems are asked differently. It allowed him to see his subject of inquiry through another perspective and better grasp it. Finally, being immersed in the field helps giving a more realistic vision of research. Following that perspective, scholar-practitioners ground their research in fieldwork. Table 7 offers additional quotes regarding the integration of consulting to research.

Second, by practicing consulting, scholar-practitioners synthesize knowledge. Because of the nature of integrative knowledge, there is no real possibility to do it in an instrumental way. It rather takes a conceptual way. In fact, scholar-practitioners express the idea that through

their experience they have developed tacit knowledge, which is what they integrate. The following verbatim explains it:

> *"I came up with 3 books in 3 years […]. I haven't worked 3 years, it represents about 30 years of work!"*

As there is a full integration between their different role activities, they do not see another way to integrate their practical knowledge. The following verbatim is to that regard particularly appealing:

> *"I need lot of stimulations, I need the challenge of engagement, I'm an experiential learner. And from that, those experiences, come research questions, or book topics, or whatever happens to be."*
>
> *Table 7 offers additional quotes regarding the integration of the scholarship of application to scholarship of integration.*

Third, one of the most obvious overlap occurs between teaching and application scholarships, both instrumentally and conceptually. Instrumentally, intervention brings lived and real examples to the class, especially towards MBA students who are eager for practical knowledge. Some scholar-practitioners have also been able to develop courses based on their consulting assignments as the work they developed for a firm may be translated in the classroom and benefit other people. Finally, doctoral students may benefit from the overlap as their supervisor or colleague's involvement with a firm may help them develop their field study.

In a more conceptual way, scholar-practitioners think it is important to know in practice what they teach. The following example illustrates that point:

> *"Since I do a lot of things within firms and because students are eager for the practice side, they wonder: 'What does that guy tell us? Does he have things to tell?' And what I noticed, 'Is he coherent between what he says and what he writes?' For instance, if you talk about motivation or communication and you don't know how to communicate and motivate, they won't give up, they kill you! And I think they are right in a sense."*

Finally, consulting assignments may be also integrated to research, synthesis and teaching in a symbolic way. However, as the strategy developed by scholar-practitioners relies on integrating their different role activities, when it relates to building legitimacy and reputation, it is difficult to separate the different scholarships. Their capacity to talk with executives as well as of managing teams gives them a differentiation edge in their academic roles. They are thus usually the ones who are usually invited to represent the business school in executive boards or in research chairs. Table 7 gives additional quotes underlying the integration of application into discovery, integration and teaching in a symbolic way.

Table 8: Representative quotes underlying the integration of application into discovery, integration and teaching

Instrumental integration	
From Application to Discovery	*Peer-review article and publications* – "12 years ago when I was in the world of [practice], executive vice-president, I saw this organization from inside. It was successful from outside but very sick from inside and same with several other organizations I know, all these big committees… I wrote a chapter a couple of years ago…" *Accessing research data* – Exchanging data with consulting. I did it more than twice. There is a scientific method. In fact, we can show the results of our study. We carried out a study. We wrote an article; we had a statistical model. This, we can show results which are research results."
From Application to Integration	N/A
From Application to Teaching	*Bringing examples to the classroom* – "At that time, the connection was rather made with classes. It was having a more practical experience. It was enriching my classes, having a better knowledge of the firm with more lived experience and consequently being more relevant with what I could tell" *Building a course on a research area* – "I built a course on 'consulting methods and tools'. Everything I've learnt, I rather learnt it outside school. I provided it to the school by teaching in this area." *Educating doctoral students* – The synergies concern the identification of fields for PhD students.
Conceptual integration	
From Application to Discovery	*Advancing knowledge* – "But it also works the other way. That's the important part. That as a practitioner that also has a scholarship interest in objective and has the tools of scholarship: he knows how to write, to think about frames… then uses the experience of working with organizations in an action research way to generate knowledge, and I do it both way."

	"The action in the organization is the source for developing new knowledge about organizational change, about specific applications of this knowledge and when they work and when they don't; the conditions under which they work, or new inventions that come out of the work that we've done." *Developing a more realistic vision of research* – "It is rewarding. I mean, I think that it brings research questions more relevant in terms of practice." *Getting insights* – "And on the other way round, being out in the real world obviously gives you also ideas and data, and… identifies problems that managers are having. So it really is sort of synergistic. Being an academic and being out, trying to have your ideas implemented working with companies."
From Application to Integration	*Reflexive essays* – "I have many books, but I want to let things mature. I think normally it takes 4 to 5 years between books. I think the most sold book I have written […] that was based on a project I was living when I was in business, it was a four-year project and then I developed this concept and afterwards I developed a book." *Experiential learning* – "For some people, particularly inductive learners, I thing being involved in both research and practice is a very powerful thing, because when we cross these boundaries, we find new insights, new questions, that might not come from reading a journal article. There are additional area stimulations. So it's always a great emphasis to mine to integrate theory and practice."
From Application to Teaching	*Knowing what you teach* – "Every time you go on a class you have to be a practitioner, you cannot be just an academic. We have to work extremely hard to socialize young scholars that are coming to our school to learn to think both ways. We have to work very hard to do that. And one of the main way we do this is by sending them to the field to write cases, that's one way they change the context if you will, they have to talk to managers, they have to interview people, they have to understand problem, they have to write the case, they have to begin orient them to practical problems, and very few schools do that. Consequently, most schools don't have that, so they have a much harder time teaching executives, talking to executives because academics here don't have any exposure to the real world."
Symbolic integration	
From Application to Discovery	*Building legitimacy and reputation* – "When the university needs to have relationships with the real world, people credible to both worlds are much appreciated."
From Application to Integration	
From Application to Teaching	

6. Discussion and Conclusion

This study builds on 16 testimonies from scholar-practitioners to understand the strategies they deploy to engage with different scholarship roles. It presents typologies on role conflict, role balance and strategies aimed at balancing roles that it applies to the scholarship context. It then mobilizes the extreme case of scholar-practitioners, individuals who successfully bridge the worlds of research and practice. In-depth interviews reveal that all scholar-practitioners experiment role conflicts. Junior scholar-practitioners who favor role enrichment seem to be more subject to role conflicts than experienced scholar-practitioners are. Indeed, they are able to balance their roles by benefiting from positive spillovers through role integration. The institution they belong to as well as the experience they have accumulated are two key factors that influence their capability to balance their roles. The spillovers they develop between academia and practice occur mainly from academia to practice and the other way round even if it seems to be more difficult to develop. The integration strategy relies on different tactics aimed at finding spillovers between the role activities in direct and more subtle ways. Contributions from this paper are twofold. This study contributes to role theory and to the discussion on the relevance of management research. It also offers avenues for further research.

6. 1. Contributions to Role Theory

This field of research on role theory has two main characteristics. On the one hand, it has mainly developed following opposed perspectives: the role conflict and the role balance perspectives (Rothbard, 2001). On the other hand, this literature is mainly anchored in the work/family setting (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, 2000, Ramarajan, 2014). This study first offer a literature review of those two perspectives and adds a third one: the strategies developed to link those two opposed conceptualizations. Instead of taking a position in favor of one of those conceptualizations, it shows the complexity of reality. In fact, it applies the role perspective to the scholarship context. Illustrations from the scholarship literature show that the role perspective that has highly been developed in the work/family context can be applied to other settings.

By bringing the case of scholar-practitioners who are individuals who successfully develop strategies to overcome role conflicts by better balancing their roles, it gives the possibility to test the framework in another setting. The study shows that both the individuals'

experience and the institutions they belong to play a role in their capability to face role conflicts. It also highlights the methodological difficulties for differentiating compensation effects from spillover effects. In terms of the strategy individuals deploy, it demonstrates that integrating roles is not an easy task for individuals. In that particular setting, it is easier for scholar-practitioner to integrate their academic role activities to their practice role activities than the other way round. Finally, in accordance with the literature on the work/family boundary, integrating roles is not only instrumental (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Using Pelz (1978) distinction between instrumental, conceptual and symbolic use of management knowledge for practice, the study shows that the overlap is more subtle than a direct use of knowledge.

Concisely, the application to the role theory in the academic context by bringing in the extreme case of scholar-practitioners generalizes constructs developed in the work/family context, gives the possibility to explore strategies linking the role conflict and the role balance constructs, and develops the strategy of integration by showing its complexity in terms of level and reciprocity.

6. 2. Contributions to the Literature on the Relevance of Management Research

This study also contributes to the literature on the relevance of management research (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015). By developing ways to improve the academic-practitioner engagement (Starkey & Madan, 2001, Hatchuel, 2001, Werr & Greiner, 2008, Markides, 2007, Hughes, Bence, Grisoni, apos, Regan & Wornham, 2011, Latham, 2007, Markides, 2011, Wasserman & Kram, 2009, Kram, Wasserman & Yip, 2012), the literature has elicited the particular role of individuals capable of dialoging between academia and practice, namely scholar-practitioners. They are seen as belonging to both the world of academia and practice (Tenkasi & Hay, 2008). A strand of research tried to understand better who they are. They focused on the "what" question: what dilemma do they face? What are their motivations and drivers? (Wasserman & Kram, 2009). What role do they play between research and practice? (Kram, Wasserman & Yip, 2012). Such a focus overlooks the "how" question: how do they manage their different role activities?

To answer to that question, this study takes a role perspective. It aims at unraveling the underlying mechanism of research/practice balance and therefore complements the literature developed in this area. It shows that the individual's experience is a key driver to balancing

roles. It puts forward the role of the business schools to help scholar-practitioners bridge research and practice. Another contribution of this work is the fact that it puts forward the overlooked scholarship of integration as one of the possibility to integrate academic scholarship to and from practice. Finally, it shows that scholar-practitioners have less difficulties integrating knowledge from academia to practice than the other way round.

This study is important as it is anchored in a strand of research constituted of essays and opinions rather than of rigorously-led studies (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015). By developing a rigorous study anchored in role theory, this research attempts to give solutions to solve the issue related to the lack of relevance of academic management knowledge. Particularly, the tactics that scholar-practitioners develop are applicable ways to bridge the rigor/relevance gap. This research consequently can be seen as useful to several stakeholders such as scholars themselves, business schools, universities, accreditation systems, as well as policy-makers.

6. 3. Avenues for Further Research

This study suggests two avenues for further research. First, it would be interesting to better relate the scholar-practitioner to the organization he or she belongs to. Linking the individual to an institutional level would help better grasp the broader rigor/relevance issue (see Frost & Brockmann, 2014). For that purpose, constructs such as organizational identity (Pratt & Foreman, 2000, Gioia, Schultz & Corley, 2000) (Gioia, Schultz & Corley, 2000) or institutional entrepreneurship studied at an individual level (Battilana, 2006, Battilana & D'aunno, 2009) may be helpful. Second, this study differentiates between two groups of scholar-practitioners in terms of their experience. I acknowledged that junior scholar-practitioners face more easily role conflicts than the experienced one. However, underlying assumptions remain unclear. Does it relate to their status within their institution? Does it relate to the academic context that has evolved over time and inhibits plural activities between research and practice? Answering those questions may help bridging the rigor/relevance gap.

Epilogue

Tout comme le proposent Bartunek & Rynes (2014) dans leur article portant sur les paradoxes des relations entre chercheurs et praticiens, cet épilogue propose d'apporter une teinte plus personnelle à ce chapitre. En effet, nous expliquions en introduction de cette thèse la posture de chercheur-praticien que nous avons, dans une certaine mesure, adoptée. Dans l'optique d'une démarche propre aux Science, Technology and Society, pourquoi ne pas avoir une réflexivité sur cette pratique que nous avons en partie vécue ? Toutefois, nous n'avons adopté que partiellement la posture de chercheur-praticien. Nous avons bien entendu été intéressé pour avancer les causes de la théorie et de la pratique (Tenkasi & Hay, 2008), principalement par le développement de cette thèse, mais n'avons pas forcément réellement contribué à la mise en relation de la recherche à la pratique par le biais de notre propre expérience en CIFRE. Notre expérience de jeune chercheur-praticien permet cependant de développer un pan du chapitre 4 en cherchant à comprendre la difficulté qu'un jeune chercheur-praticien peut avoir à adopter cette posture. Cet épilogue constitue ainsi une réflexivité sur notre pratique (Latour, 2005, Schön, 1983), sans pour autant aller vers une réelle introspection de la période que nous avons vécue de septembre 2011 à août 2014, soit la période où nous occupions effectivement deux rôles, celui de consultant et celui de doctorant.

Cet épilogue est écrit en octobre 2015 avec un an de recul. Il propose de relater notre expérience de chercheur-consultant au travers de la grille construite dans ce chapitre. La méthodologie développée dans cet épilogue est moins rigoureuse que celle développée par d'autres travaux de ce type (e.g. Bourgoin, 2013, Empson, 2012, Laszczuk & Garreau, 2015). Nous faisons majoritairement appel à nos souvenirs ainsi qu'à un certain nombre de documents écrits dans le cadre du dispositif CIFRE (développement du sujet de thèse, rapports d'activité, etc.) où figurent des faits établis par l'ensemble des parties prenantes au projet de recherche. Nous mobilisons également des documents publics. Durant la période où nous avons été chercheur-consultant, nous pouvons retracer trois périodes ayant chacune à peu près duré une année. Durant la première période, nous avons cherché à intégrer nos rôles, durant la deuxième, nous les avons cloisonnés et dans une troisième, nous les avons hiérarchisés.

Durant la première période, comme l'annonçait notre projet de thèse initial, nous avons débuté notre recherche en janvier 2011 avec une volonté de nous appuyer sur une méthodologie de type recherche intervention (David, 2008) pour comprendre comment les consultants mobilisaient la recherche académique. Pour cela, nous bénéficions du dispositif CIFRE comme garde-frontière (Clark, 2000). Ayant comme bagages professionnel et théorique quelques mois de stage en entreprise ainsi qu'un master recherche réalisé à l'Université Paris-Dauphine et sanctionné notamment par la réalisation d'un mémoire de recherche, nous pensions que d'une manière ou d'une autre cette intégration serait possible. Nous avons ainsi cherché à maximiser l'intégration entre nos activités liées à la pratique et celles liées à la recherche. De manière purement expérimentale, dans les différents projets ou propositions commerciales dans lesquels nous étions impliqué, nous essayions de mobiliser des concepts appris dans le cadre de nos études et cherchions à voir s'ils avaient un effet particulier dans notre pratique de conseil. Dans le cadre de recherches internes dédiées à la mobilisation des middle managers, nous avons mobilisé nos connaissances relatives à la littérature sur la strategy-as-practice[58]. *Autre exemple, dans le cadre d'une demande de Crédit Impôt Recherche au titre de la recherche et développement en management développée par le cabinet, nos compétences de recherche ont également été mobilisées pour aider à la rédaction des dossiers scientifiques. Enfin, participant à un projet qui avait été commercialisé à l'aide de l'ouvrage « L'effet Momentum » (Larréché, 2009), nous observions, ce que nous serions aujourd'hui capables de nommer, sa praxis performative (Cabantous & Gond, 2011). Mais différents facteurs rendaient cette recherche intervention, ou ces observations difficiles : manque d'expérience, faible exposition auprès des clients, faible développement à ce stade du projet de recherche qui rend l'observation difficile…*

Ainsi, durant la deuxième période, après plusieurs essais infructueux d'intégration de nos rôles, nous les avons peu à peu naturellement cloisonnés. Les difficultés auxquelles le cabinet faisait face impliquaient qu'il perdait progressivement de sa pertinence en termes de terrain d'observation. Ainsi, l'absence de projets auxquels participer ainsi que la difficulté à mettre en application notre projet de thèse initial nous ont forcé à abandonner la méthodologie de recherche-intervention ou d'observation des situations auxquelles nous participions. De facto, il n'y avait plus lieu d'intégrer nos rôles. Notre objet de recherche s'est élargi à la

[58] Nous faisons référence à un courant de recherche développé par l'article séminal de Whittington (1996) ayant pour objectif de comprendre la pratique de la stratégie, ou dit autrement, comment se fait la stratégie.

production des connaissances managériales. Nous avons donc développé des recherches en ce sens, collaboré avec des chercheurs extérieurs à l'entreprise (e.g. chapitre 1) et communiqué nos résultats dans différentes conférences académiques. Nous tirions un certain bénéfice personnel à alterner les activités de moins en moins liées, mobilisant des aptitudes et des facultés différentes ; nous aimions bien nous « faire déranger ». Mais rapidement, cela a engendré un conflit de rôle, au moins basé sur le temps : chaque tâche dédiée à une activité de conseil devenait une tâche non dédiée à l'activité de recherche qui était de plus en plus présente. La difficulté tenait peut-être aussi au fait qu'il ne devait pas être vraiment clair que la synergie n'était pas présente, ou que nous souhaitions malgré tout qu'elle le soit. A titre d'exemple, nous continuions à passer du temps sur notre lieu de conseil à effectuer certaines observations. Par exemple, nous avons suivi le début d'une collaboration dans l'écriture d'un ouvrage entre le dirigeant du cabinet de conseil et un chercheur, qui aurait pu être un bel exemple de collaboration entre chercheurs et praticiens (cf. chapitre 2), mais qui n'a pas abouti dans le délai imparti de la thèse. Mais dans la perspective d'un conflit de rôle dans lequel nous étions à ce stade, ces activités nous faisaient « perdre du temps ».

Enfin, dans une troisième période, l'activité économique de la société étant de plus en plus faible, nos interlocuteurs en entreprise n'ont plus été disponibles pour le développement du projet de thèse. Nous avons hiérarchisé nos rôles. Nous ne voyions plus aucune possibilité d'évolution de notre rôle au sein du cabinet de conseil et les échéances de fin de thèse approchant, la charge de travail (nous étions en période d'entretiens, retranscriptions et analyse) étant de plus en plus importante, nous avons priorisé notre travail de recherche. Cette expérience de chercheur-praticien s'est terminée en juin 2014 par une demande de notre employeur de lui restituer l'ensemble des retranscriptions de nos entretiens de recherche. Souhaitant respecter l'éthique de la recherche et ainsi, ne souhaitant pas que des entretiens conduits dans un but académique, avec parfois des concurrents du cabinet, puissent être utilisés pour d'autres usages que celui de la thèse. Après divers conseils juridiques et académiques, nous avons refusé de transmettre l'identité des personnes interviewées avec les enregistrements intégraux ainsi que les retranscriptions d'entretiens. Nous avons en revanche accepté le principe de transmettre les verbatims regroupés par codes, à condition de respecter l'anonymat des personnes interviewées. Après 3 mois d'échanges, le dirigeant n'a pas souhaité transigé, et cela s'est terminé par une rupture unilatérale de notre contrat de travail et de facto, de la

collaboration entre l'université Paris-Dauphine et la société Izsak Grapin & Associés sur le projet de recherche. La société est aujourd'hui en liquidation judiciaire après une cessation de paiement intervenue elle aussi en juin 2014.

La faute à qui ? Là n'est pas là question. Cet épilogue nous permet plutôt d'appuyer la difficulté d'une collaboration entre chercheurs et praticiens, due aux différentes tensions relatives à cette collaboration (Bartunek & Rynes, 2014). Il montre aussi l'importance de prendre en compte le contexte dans lequel se déroule la collaboration. D'un point de vue individuel, il semble difficile pour un jeune chercheur de trouver une stratégie viable d'intégration de ses différents rôles. Plusieurs facteurs semblent ici expliquer l'échec d'intégration : la faible activité économique de l'entreprise dans lequel nous étions intégré et plus généralement la faible maîtrise des environnements respectifs du chercheur et du praticien ; ainsi que le manque de connaissances des rôles à intégrer. Les leçons à tirer de cette expérience peuvent potentiellement fournir des pistes concrètes permettant d'améliorer l'intégration des jeunes chercheurs dans des dispositifs de type convention CIFRE.

Conclusion Générale

1. Synthèse de la thèse

Cette thèse porte sur le rapport à la pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales. Etant donné la difficulté des cadres théoriques en sciences de gestion à aborder cette problématique (Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol, 2008, Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson, 1991), nous avons mobilisé un care programmatique issu de la sociologie de la traduction (Callon, 1986). Il permet la prise en compte de la dimension institutionnelle de la production des connaissances managériales, comme on peut le voir au travers de sa mobilisation dans d'autres disciplines ou sous-disciplines du management (e.g. Cochoy, 2010, Aggeri, 2015, Aggeri & Hatchuel, 2003). Cette thèse a été développée en quatre études empiriques.

Dans la première étude, nous nous sommes intéressé à la complémentarité entre les différentes approches développées au sein de la controverse autour de la notion de pertinence de la recherche. Nous l'étudions par l'analyse du contenu de 253 articles académiques publiés dans onze revues anglo-saxonnes entre 1994 et 2013 sur le thème du « rigor/relevance debate ». Cette analyse nous permet de développer quatre approches par lesquelles les académiques appréhendent le rapport à la pratique. Nous en faisons un cadre intégrateur.

La deuxième porte sur la façon dont les innovations managériales sont construites entre le monde académique et celui des organisations. Pour cela, nous modélisons les modalités d'interactions entre chercheurs et praticiens. Afin de montrer comment celles-ci évoluent lors du développement d'innovations managériales, nous étudions quatorze innovations managériales créées par interactions entre des chercheurs et des praticiens. Cette analyse nous permet d'identifier un processus spécifique aux innovations managériales créées entre recherche et pratique.

Nous nous appuyons dans notre troisième étude sur le concept de performativité, issu de la sociologie des sciences. Il permet de comprendre comment les chercheurs en management créent un concept performatif. Pour cela, nous étudions le concept de « Stratégie Océan Bleu » issu de la discipline du management stratégique. Par des entretiens réalisés auprès de personnes ayant participé au développement du concept et l'ayant performé au sein de différentes

organisations, nous montrons comment les innovateurs ont performé leur concept suivant ses préceptes.

Enfin, la quatrième étude concerne les stratégies développées par les acteurs pour s'engager dans différents rôles situés entre recherche et pratique. Pour cela, nous nous focalisons sur le chercheur-praticien, un acteur situé à la fois dans le monde de la recherche et dans celui de la pratique, participant à la production de connaissances managériales. L'objectif de cette étude est de comprendre comment il équilibre ses différents rôles entre recherche et pratique. Pour cela, nous avons réalisé seize entretiens avec des chercheurs-praticiens de niveaux de séniorité différents. Ceci nous permet de mieux appréhender les conflits de rôle auxquels ils font face et d'analyser la façon dont ils équilibrent leurs rôles.

De ces quatre études, nous tirons un certain nombre de convergences à la fois en termes de contributions théoriques et de contributions managériales sur le rapport à la pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales. Elles nous permettent également d'esquisser des pistes de recherches futures. Nous les présentons dans la section suivante.

2. Contributions de la thèse

2. 1. Contributions théoriques de la thèse

En mobilisant l'approche des *Science, Technology and Society* pour étudier la production des connaissances managériales, cette thèse contribue à mieux comprendre la relation entre recherche et pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales et à développer le rôle adopté par les académiques dans la construction des connaissances managériales. Elle vise par ailleurs à évaluer la façon dont la recherche en management est mobilisée par les praticiens ainsi qu'à mettre en avant l'importance de l'enseignement dans la production des connaissances managériales.

2. 1. 1. La relation entre recherche et pratique dans la production des connaissances

La question du lien entre recherche et pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales a été abordée sous forme d'une discussion constituant un débat prolifique (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015). Ce débat s'est développé dès la naissance du champ des sciences de

gestion et ses contributions se sont accentuées dans les années 2000 (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015, Bartunek & Rynes, 2014). Elles vont continuer à abonder si l'on se réfère aux différents appels à communication lancés sur cette thématique. Par ailleurs, deux cadres théoriques ont été développés en sciences de gestion pour s'intéresser à la relation entre recherche pratique. D'une part, un cadre théorique des modes managériales, né de l'article séminal d'Abrahamson (1991), vise à comprendre la diffusion des connaissances managériales en faisant intervenir des acteurs issus de la recherche et de la pratique. D'autre part, un cadre théorique sur l'innovation managériale, né de l'article séminal de Birkinshaw, Hamel & Mol (2008) porte sur le développement des connaissances managériales par des acteurs internes et externes à des organisations innovantes. Par leur faible ancrage institutionnel, ces cadres d'analyse n'ont pas conceptualisé la relation entre recherche et pratique, ce que propose notre thèse.

En effet, cette thèse suggère différentes conceptualisations du lien entre recherche et pratique. Tout d'abord, nous proposons une taxonomie des différentes façons dont la notion de pertinence de la recherche, et donc du lien recherche-pratique, est définie (chapitre 1). La relation recherche-pratique est perçue par les académiques suivant quatre approches : une approche mettant en avant la diffusion des connaissances vers les praticiens, une approche encourageant la collaboration entre chercheurs et praticiens, une approche visant à questionner la nature du lien entre recherche et pratique, ainsi qu'une approche visant à questionner l'objet de la recherche en sciences de gestion vers des sujets plus proches de l'amélioration du bien commun.

Par ailleurs, en nous ancrant dans une vision collaborative de la production des connaissances managériales, nous conceptualisons un cadre d'analyse des échanges de connaissances entre recherche et pratique (chapitre 2). A cet effet, nous construisons une typologie de quatre types d'interactions entre les chercheurs et les praticiens. Celles-ci peuvent s'effectuer à travers la popularisation, la médiation, le partenariat et l'ambidextrie. Par l'application de cette typologie à quatorze innovations managériales, développées au cours des XXème et XXIème siècles, nous montrons que cette interaction entre recherche et pratique évolue durant le développement des innovations managériales.

L'étude d'un concept managérial développé par des académiques qui est devenu performatif nous permet par ailleurs de mieux appréhender la relation recherche-pratique lors

de son développement (chapitre 3). Il y est difficile de dissocier la recherche de la pratique, ainsi que les acteurs humains des acteurs non-humains. En effet, en développant une intention stratégique, les innovateurs se concentrent sur l'enrôlement des acteurs, qu'ils soient issus de la recherche ou de la pratique, afin de performer leur concept.

Enfin, à un niveau individuel, nous montrons comment recherche et pratique sont liées (chapitre 4). Chez les chercheurs-praticiens, des individus pris comme cas extrême d'acteurs capables d'interagir entre recherche et pratique, leur principale stratégie repose sur une intégration des rôles situés dans le monde de la recherche et de la pratique. Nous développons ainsi un certain nombre de tactiques permettant de valoriser cette interaction.

Ces contributions empiriques proposent dès lors de traiter la relation entre recherche et pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales sous des angles complémentaires qui permettent de répondre de façon empirique à une question que la littérature traite sous la forme d'une controverse. Le premier angle propose une approche par des définitions complémentaires de la pertinence, le deuxième angle par les pratiques d'interaction entre chercheurs et praticiens, le troisième angle en suivant les acteurs performant un concept managérial, et le quatrième angle, par les rôles que les individus prennent pour permettre la relation entre recherche et pratique. Dans une controverse majoritairement rhétorique, ces études permettent d'y apporter une réponse empirique.

2. 1. 2. Le rôle des académiques dans la construction des connaissances managériales

Les sciences de gestion ont décrié le manque d'investissement des chercheurs dans le développement de la connaissance managériale (Abrahamson, 1996, Abrahamson & Eisenman, 2001). Ils sont en effet perçus comme étant plutôt intéressés par la construction de connaissances académiques au détriment de connaissances pour les praticiens (Hambrick, 1994).

Notre travail d'analyse sur l'élaboration d'innovations managériales favorise la compréhension de la façon dont les académiques participent à leur construction (chapitre 2). Nous montrons que les académiques participent à la production des connaissances managériales

par des pratiques de popularisation, de médiation, de partenariat et d'ambidextrie. Leur participation évolue durant le développement d'innovations managériales.

L'étude d'un concept managérial, créé par des académiques, constitue le cas extrême d'un concept où des académiques ont été moteurs dans la construction de connaissances managériales (chapitre 3). Nous montrons que les académiques « innovateurs » ont eu une intention stratégique qui leur a permis d'intéresser et d'enrôler des humains et non-humains dans le développement du concept. La difficulté des académiques consiste dès lors à conserver leur contrôle sur le concept.

Alors que la littérature en sciences de gestion décrit la faible implication des académiques dans la construction de la connaissance managériale, nous mettons en évidence des cas où l'implication de chercheurs a eu lieu. Nous soulignons ainsi leurs apports et précisons les pratiques qu'ils mettent en place pour aider dans la construction de la connaissance ou de l'innovation managériale.

2. 1. 3. L'utilisation de la recherche par les praticiens

La méconnaissance de la recherche en gestion par les praticiens est avérée : « personne ne sera surpris d'apprendre que la plupart des managers interrogés [dans le cadre d'une étude de la FNEGE publiée en 2014] ont découvert l'existence d'une 'recherche en management' » (Lamarque, 2015, p. 146). Par ailleurs, la recherche portant sur l'utilisation de la recherche en management a tendance à se préoccuper d'une seule forme d'utilisation, à savoir l'utilisation de la recherche de façon instrumentale au détriment d'une utilisation conceptuelle et d'une utilisation symbolique (Nicolai & Seidl, 2010).

Notre recherche révèle que lors du développement d'innovations managériales, un certain nombre de pratiques d'interactions entre chercheurs et praticiens permettent une utilisation réciproque des connaissances détenues par l'autre partie (chapitre 2). Nous mettons ainsi en avant le fait que l'utilisation, en particulier par les praticiens de la connaissance en provenance des académiques, n'est pas uniquement instrumentale mais qu'elle peut être également conceptuelle et symbolique. Notamment, la recherche d'une légitimité académique (et également pratique) est un type d'utilisation mobilisé pour l'ensemble des innovations managériales étudiées.

L'étude du cas d'un concept créé par des académiques montre qu'il est effectivement utilisé par des praticiens (chapitre 3). Celle-ci est permise par l'intermédiaire d'un certain nombre d'actants humains et non-humains.

Enfin, nous mettons en avant les stratégies mises en place par les acteurs qui évoluent entre recherche et pratique (chapitre 4). Celles-ci reposent sur une intégration de leurs rôles dont nous différencions trois niveaux : le niveau instrumental, le niveau conceptuel et le niveau symbolique. Ainsi, au travers des tactiques développées par les chercheurs-praticiens pour intégrer leurs rôles liés à la sphère académique et ceux liés à la sphère pratique, nous montrons l'intérêt que peuvent avoir les praticiens à utiliser la connaissance académique provenant de ces individus.

Nous exposons ainsi trois regards différents à l'utilisation de la recherche académique par les praticiens : sous l'angle du développement d'innovations managériales, sous l'angle de la performativité et à sous l'angle individuel. Ils surlignent les moyens subtils d'utilisation des connaissances académiques par les praticiens, difficiles à tracer (Mesny & Mailhot, 2012).

2. 1. 4. L'importance de l'enseignement dans la production des connaissances managériales

Le « rigor/relevance debate » est centré sur l'amélioration de la pertinence de la recherche dans la production des connaissances managériales destinées à la pratique (Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015). L'importance de l'enseignement est quant à elle évacuée du débat (Rousseau & McCarthy, 2007). Cette situation paraît paradoxale dans la mesure où la recherche en management est née d'une volonté d'améliorer l'enseignement dispensé dans les institutions de gestion (Khurana, 2010).

L'ensemble des études développées dans cette thèse montre pourtant l'importance de l'enseignement comme clé de voûte de la production des connaissances managériales. Nous avons ainsi montré la complémentarité entre recherche et enseignement entre les différentes approches visant à améliorer la pertinence des institutions académiques (chapitre 1). Aux différentes étapes de la production des connaissances managériales – le choix du paradigme de recherche, le choix du sujet, la production des connaissances elle-même, la diffusion des connaissances – l'enseignement peut participer à augmenter la pertinence des acteurs

académiques au même titre que la recherche. Nous avons également mis en avant les interactions entre recherche et pratique lors de la production de connaissances managériales (chapitre 2). Un certain nombre d'interactions reposent sur l'enseignement. On peut par exemple penser à la formation continue qui joue un rôle clef en permettant à l'enseignant-chercheur de tester et clarifier ses idées auprès d'un public professionnel, de développer des nouveaux contextes d'utilisation de ses concepts, etc.

Lors de la performation d'une théorie, les innovateurs enrôlent des acteurs. Cela passe notamment par l'enseignement (chapitre 3). Ensuite, l'enseignement constitue l'un des trois mécanismes utilisés pour performer une théorie au sein d'une organisation (Cabantous & Gond, 2011). Enfin, nous avons montré, que la stratégie mobilisée à un niveau individuel par les chercheurs-praticiens, repose sur une intégration de leurs rôles situés entre recherche et pratique (chapitre 4). Pour cela, nous avons mis en exergue les tactiques mobilisées par les acteurs visant à intégrer les activités de recherche vers celles de la pratique, et vice-versa. Parmi ces quatre activités figure celle d'enseignement, qui permet de valoriser l'activité pratique d'un sens comme dans l'autre.

Le développement d'une « course aux étoiles » (Berry, 1991) a ainsi délaissé l'enseignement pour la recherche académique comme nous l'avons souligné. Paradoxalement, les quatre chapitres de cette thèse montrent que le fait de poursuivre une telle stratégie peut être néfaste à la production des connaissances managériales dans la mesure où l'activité d'enseignement est omniprésente dans la production de connaissance managériale. Cela est d'autant plus paradoxal que, si les rapports Gordon-Howell et Pierson ont académisé le champ de la gestion en 1959, c'était dans une optique d'améliorer l'enseignement de la gestion afin de contribuer à la compétitivité de la nation. Cette notion est d'ailleurs absente du débat sur la pertinence de la recherche comme nous allons l'évoquer dans nos pistes de recherches futures.

2. 2. Pistes de recherche

Cette thèse ouvre la voie à des pistes de recherches futures, destinées à mieux comprendre (1) l'apport de la production des connaissances académiques à la compétitivité nationale, (2) le développement de la controverse scientifique autour de la pertinence de la recherche académique pour la pratique, (3) la particularité du modèle français d'enseignement

et de recherche, ainsi que (4) l'institutionnalisation des connaissances managériales ou le développement des formes d'interactions entre recherche et pratique.

2. 2. 1. La production des connaissances managériales et la compétitivité nationale

En 1959, les rapports Gordon-Howell et Pierson sont développés dans une optique de compétitivité nationale. L'action développée par la FNEGE entre 1969 et 1973 visant à former des docteurs en sciences de gestion en Amérique du Nord l'est également. Récemment, en 2014, Hervé Baculard, président du Syntec Conseil en Management (renommé Consult'In depuis) publiait une tribune dans la Revue des Sciences de Gestion mettant en avant l'innovation managériale pour l'avenir de la compétitivité française[59]. Ainsi, bien que présent dans le débat professionnel, la notion de compétitivité est absente des débats académiques portant sur la pertinence de la recherche académique : pertinence pour quoi ? Il nous sembleraitintéressant de recentrer le débat sur cette problématique.

2. 2. 2. Dynamique de la controverse : d'une discussion à une controverse...

Le premier chapitre de cette thèse est l'une des premières tentatives de comprendre le vigoureux débat académique portant sur la pertinence de la recherche académique (voir aussi Kieser, Nicolai & Seidl, 2015). Nous avons développé une taxonomie qui permet de comprendre l'évolution des positions portant sur la pertinence de la recherche pour la pratique, dont nous avons suivi l'évolution à travers le temps. Ainsi, d'un débat entre deux positions, les années 2000 ont vu apparaître deux nouvelles positions. Nous évoquions en introduction que le débat pose en fait la question de l'identité de l'académie et des chercheurs qui y appartiennent. Il serait intéressant de l'étudier plus en profondeur pour comprendre sa dynamique et quels sont les acteurs qui y participent. En d'autres termes, il semblerait pertinent d'analyser cette controverse sans cesse alimentée afin qu'elle ne se transforme pas en « boîte noire ».

[59]http://www.larsg.fr/la-revue-des-sciences-de-gestion/pourlesynteclinnovationmanagerialeestlavenirdelacompetitivitefrancaise/

2. 2. 3. La production des connaissances, une spécificité nationale ?

En introduction de cette thèse, nous nous sommes penchés sur deux modèles d'institution de gestion : le modèle français et le modèle américain. Nous les avons contrastés, dans l'objectif de comprendre la construction du modèle français. Prendre ce modèle en considération nous a permis d'avoir une compréhension fine des subtilités relatives à la production des connaissances managériales. Toutefois, les chapitres suivants ne prennent pas en compte les spécificités nationales de la production des connaissances. Or, nous avons par exemple montré que l'adoption du théorie au sein d'une société savante pouvait avoir plus ou moins de succès suivant la culture nationale dans laquelle elle était importée (Carton & Gour, in press). De cette manière, une réflexion nationale, culturelle ou linguistique (Chanlat, 2014) de cette problématique fournirait des pistes de recherches intéressantes.

2. 2. 4. Autres pistes de recherche

Nous pouvons enfin évoquer d'autres pistes de recherches futures, plutôt inhérentes à chaque étude développée. La problématique de l'institutionnalisation des connaissances abordée dans les chapitres 2 et 3 mériterait d'être creusée. Par ailleurs, un approfondissement des modalités d'interaction peut être utile : en quoi les consultants en management sont-ils un vecteur potentiel dans la production des connaissances managériales ? (cf. Werr & Greiner, 2008). A l'ère digitale, quelles sont les pratiques de diffusion les plus efficaces ? Enfin, quels sont les espaces de médiation permettant la meilleure interaction entre recherche et pratique (cf. Romme, Avenier, Denyer, Hodgkinson, Pandza, Starkey & Worren, 2015) ?

2. 3. Contributions managériales de la thèse

Une thèse portant sur le rapport à la pratique de la production des connaissances managériales sans contributions managériales semblerait absurde… et pourtant… les choses ne sont pas si tranchées que cela comme le montre la position de Bartunek & Rynes (2010) à ce sujet. Pour ces chercheurs spécialisés dans la littérature programmatique sur la pertinence de la recherche, un article de recherche – ou une thèse – n'est pas forcément le meilleur média pour diffuser la recherche vers les praticiens[60]. En effet, Jean Bartunek et Sarah Rynes prennent

[60] Cette vision rentre strictement dans l'orthodoxie des gatekeepers (cf. chapitre 1).

l'exemple de la thèse de Charlotte Cloutier où Jean Bartunek faisait partie du jury, et évoquent cet exemple :

> *« A la fin de sa thèse soutenue en 2009 à HEC Montréal, Charlotte Cloutier inclut un article destiné aux praticiens. Elle l'a rédigé de façon plus vulgarisée dans un langage plus populaire. Il donne des exemples d'organisations réelles et est explicite à propos des types de problèmes rencontrés par les praticiens auxquels les résultats académiques doivent s'appliquer. L'approche qu'elle a entreprise sur cet article est basée sur son expérience passée dans une position managériale, qui en fait son objet d'étude et l'article est modelé sur la base d'articles publié dans deux revues destinées aux praticiens du champ. »*[61] *(Bartunek & Rynes, 2010, p. 113)*

De cette façon, au lieu de développer des implications pratiques rentrant dans l'exercice académique[62], nous proposons ici d'aborder les principaux points à paraître dans un ouvrage s'intéressant aux développements, à la complexité et aux opportunités de partenariats entre les chercheurs et les praticiens[63]. Il est destiné aux praticiens des institutions académiques. Il fait participer à la fois des académiques qui naviguent entre les paradoxes induits par une relation entre recherche et pratique, et des managers qui ont travaillé dans la co-création de connaissances avec le monde académique.

Cette thèse propose deux nouvelles façons de conceptualiser l'interaction entre chercheurs et praticiens. D'une part, elle offre une grille de lecture stimulante concernant la notion de pertinence de la recherche. Au lieu de voir la diffusion des connaissances académiques comme seul moyen d'augmenter sa pertinence, d'autres conceptualisations sont possibles : une collaboration avec les praticiens, un changement de paradigme, ainsi qu'une prise en compte du bien commun. Cette taxonomie peut être appliquée à différents niveaux, que

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[61] *"Cloutier (2009) included a practitioner-oriented article at the end of her dissertation that was written at a lower reading level and in a more colloquial tone, gave real-world organizational examples, and was explicit about the types of practitioner problems to which the academic findings might apply. Her approach to this article was based on her prior experience in the managerial position about whose concerns she studied in her dissertation, and was modeled on articles appearing in two well-respected practitioner journals in the field." (Bartunek & Rynes, 2010)*

[62] Bartunek & Rynes (2010) mettent en avant le développement d'implications pratiques identiques (augmenter l'attention, formation, apprentissage, changement de structure de l'organisation afin d'adhérer au modèle présenté et recrutement) qui sont sans effet sur la pratique managériale.

[63] (Carton & Dameron, en processus de révision)

ce soit au niveau individuel (évaluation individuelle de la recherche, cf. h-index, comptage de citations), au niveau des institutions d'enseignement (évaluation des organisations, cf. évaluation AERES/HCERES, dispositif *Business School Survey Impact* développé par la FNEGE et l'EFMD) ou au niveau des sociétés savantes et des organismes d'accréditation (cf. *Research Excellence Framework* en Grande-Bretagne).

D'autre part, elle propose une grille de lecture permettant de mieux comprendre comment les chercheurs et les praticiens interagissent dans la création de connaissances managériales, voire dans le développement d'innovations managériales. Cette interaction est souvent perçue par une simple diffusion (ou popularisation) qui se fait par l'écriture d'un ouvrage destiné aux praticiens, par l'écriture d'un blog, etc. Toutefois, d'autres interactions sont possibles. L'interaction la plus facilement mobilisable est le développement d'une place de médiation. D'autres exemples existent mais restent à pérenniser (e.g. revues permettant l'échange, lieux de rencontre à la fois destinés aux chercheurs et aux praticiens). Deux autres interactions peuvent être utilisées mais requièrent cette fois un mode d'interaction synchrone entre chercheurs et praticiens. D'un côté, le modèle du partenariat permet un échange entre un chercheur et un praticien, et d'un autre côté, l'ambidextrie est le fait pour un acteur à la fois de participer à améliorer à la fois la pratique et la théorie.

Par ailleurs, cette thèse permet d'évoquer un ensemble d'illustrations facilement appropriables par le praticien de la recherche ou par le praticien de la pratique. Dans le chapitre 2 de cette thèse, nous avons détaillé les pratiques par lesquelles les chercheurs et les praticiens interagissent. Elles permettent de se questionner sur la possibilité de mettre en place ou d'améliorer ces pratiques, au niveau individuel, organisationnel ou institutionnel. Les illustrations proposées dans le chapitre 3 peuvent faciliter la mise en place de ces pratiques. Elles peuvent notamment être utilisées comme exemples ou meilleures pratiques sur lesquelles s'appuyer en étant toutefois dans ce second cas vigilant à la transférabilité des pratiques.

Enfin, cette thèse met en garde les chercheurs ou les praticiens souhaitant pratiquer les deux activités de recherche et de pratique simultanément. Nous avons notamment mis en évidence que le manque d'expérience du chercheur-praticien ainsi que le manque de support de l'institution pouvaient être des freins à une telle pratique. Malgré tout, nous avons montré que cette pratique était mise en place par au moins treize personnes issues d'institutions différentes.

Aussi, nous avons exposé les tactiques qu'elles développent pour équilibrer leurs rôles situés entre recherche et pratique. Celles-ci peuvent être appropriables par des individus souhaitant adopter cette posture.

Par ces quelques recommandations managériales destinées aux chercheurs et aux managers, nous espérons participer à réduire le fossé entre recherche et pratique dans la production des connaissances managériales.

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Appendix 1: Data inventory (chapter 1)

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Appendix 2: Additional illustrative quotations underlying second-order types (chapter 1)

Typical strategy 1: The gatekeepers' orthodoxy

1.1.1 Lack of diffusion of management research	"My great disappointment, however, has been that research findings don't appear to have transferred well to the workplace." (Rousseau, 2006: 257)
1.1.2 Primary focus on rigor and/or theoretical contributions	"To be published in AMJ, a manuscript must make strong empirical and theoretical contributions and highlight the significance of those contributions to the management field. Thus, preference is given to sub- missions that test, extend, or build strong theoretical frameworks while empirically examining issues with high importance for management theory and practice." (Colquitt et al., 2012: 4)
1.1.3 Relevance as a natural property of quality research	"Since there is nothing more practical than a good theory, academics must have a solid theory of alliance performance to be helpful to managers." (Hennart, 2006: 1627)
1.1.4 Impact as a slow diffusion process	"The transfer of research findings to practice is very slow" (Bartunek & Rynes, 2010: 110).
1.1.5 Relevance is a property of a body of knowledge	"Not everybody can do everything, so different researchers should choose the type that serves them best. One type of managerially relevant research is the one intended to develop grand new theories without the necessary empirical evidence to support them. The idea is to develop these theories and then have future researchers empirically test them for accuracy and validity (think of Dar- win's theory of evolution)." (Markides, 2007: 766)
1.2.1 Enhancing the dissemination of academic knowledge	"We have much to learn about how to distribute knowledge in ways that make it useful, relevant, and timely for public policy makers." (Dutton, 2005: 956)
1.2.2 Changing the way academic knowledge is presented	"Our conclusions suggest that scholars might consider portraying abstract knowledge in figurative as well as literal forms in order to enhance the knowledge transfer process." (Boland et al., 2001: 409)
1.2.3 Challenging gurus and	"Let's face it: A lot of managers need a lot of help. Where are they going to get it? Airline magazines? Glib consultants? Other panacea providers? How about if they get their

consultants in the marketplace for ideas	insights from those of us who have thought intricately and comprehensively about management and business? After all, we are the ones who have studied voluminous data on what works, why, and when." (Hambrick, 2005: 961)
1.2.4 Developing conversations with practitioners	"The challenge here is to develop that interaction for the benefit of the advancement of knowledge in the field of organization studies, without at the same time being co-opted by the immediate needs of the practitioner." (Porter, 1996: 267)
1.2.5 Grounding teaching in scientific evidence	"The glaring omission from these discussions is the role that teaching and research together play in creating, and, we hope, ultimately narrowing the gap." (Burke & Rau, 2010: 132) (Burke & Rau, 2010: 132)
Typical strategy 2: Collaboration with practitioners	
2.1.1 Relevance defined as usefulness	"Just because there is robust knowledge of a subject does not mean that the subject itself is important to practitioners. For example, as an employer, the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) conducts personality testing with our director and above hires, and we use a validated predictive index for all other hiring. At the end of the day, however, hiring managers have to use their judgment as to which candidates make the cut for further predictive testing and must ultimately select individuals who will fit the organization as well as have the technical capability to do the job." (Cohen, 2007: 1014)
2.1.2 Benefits of practical knowledge for the advancement of management science	"Historically, we have viewed knowledge of science as the dominant form, and relegated practical knowledge as a pedestrian form of knowing. The divide between academia and practice is no accident. Many academics have been socialized in a trickle-down view of the knowledge supply chain, where researchers and academics create and test new scientific knowledge, which is taught to students by teachers, diffused by consultants, and practiced by (guess who?) practitioners. This view is vain and self-serving. Academic researchers do not have a monopoly on knowledge production." (Van de Ven & Zlotkowski, 2005: 357)
2.1.3 Need to be rigorous and relevant	"We suggest that operating in Pasteur's quadrant, where rigor and relevance are jointly valued, is the appropriate strategic position for business schools." (Tushman & O'Reilly, 2007: 772)
2.1.4 Distance between academics and practitioners (mindsets, language, goals and interests, temporality, areas of interests…)	"The generally poor level of engagement between academics and practitioners, highlighted in the literature, is therefore of concern because social interaction is so fundamental to knowledge creation. The absence of sufficient direct interaction between these communities means that there is a lack of the dialogue and debate that is essential for the effective development of the discipline." (Hughes et al., 2011: 42) "Management practice is characterized by a different logic from that of management science." (Nicolai & Seidl, 2010: 1262) "Too many management researchers are too content to write only for each other and are currently, in the UK at least, incentivized to do so!" (Starkey, 2001 p.S78)

2.1.5 Self-referential nature of management research	"We find gaps of some kind, convince others of their importance, and then attempt to fill them in our work. Although this works for academic scholarship, it is not all there is to having an impact, and it is not likely to appeal to practitioners who are not particularly interested in, or aided by, filling scholarly holes." (Bartunek, 2007: 1326)
2.2.1 Aligning academics' research agenda with practitioners' needs	"Management professors seem to have an almost morbid fear of being damned as popularizers. Do they believe that the regard of their peers is more important than studying what really matters to executives who can put their ideas into practice? Apparently so." (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005: 100) "To overcome the managerial gap academic research should be connected to managerial concerns (…). Research on the dynamics of cooperation will regain its managerial relevance if the topics examined coincide with the needs of managers." (Bell et al., 2006: 1616) "Perhaps we should also devote more energy to the issues managers are interested in." (R. G. McGrath, 2007: 1373)
2.2.2 Coproducing knowledge with practitioners	"We need new research strategies that break down the barriers between theory and practice, strategies based upon co-production" (Starkey, Hatchuel, & Tempest, 2004: 1524).
2.2.3 Regulating frictions between academics and practitioners to facilitate knowledge production	"Given the potential benefit of academic-practitioner collaborations as well as the potential difficulties involved in joint work between individuals who may have very different perspectives and priorities, it is important to understand such collaborations and the factors that influence their success" (Amabile et al., 2001: 418). "It will also take open-mindedness to think outside traditional constructs in both academia and practice." (Cohen, 2007: 1018)
2.2.4 Redefining the rules of the business school game	"Further, the academic reward system can be manipulated so that it encourages an awareness of the issues that face managers in the workplace; hence, an understanding of important application issues. For example, reward systems that emphasize practitioner-orientated journals (e.g., the Academy of Management Executive/ Perspectives) might encourage researchers to consider the importance of practical issues, fostering the translation of practical application to the classroom." (Wren et al., 2007: 490-491) "But in the end real change will only occur by scholars changing their scholarly routines." (Pettigrew, 2011: 352)
2.2.5 Grounding management education in the practice of management	"The solution is to blend theory and practice better in teaching, form more strategic alliances with the aforementioned competitors and design the curriculum around business challenges rather than academic disciplines. Also, schools should orchestrate for students the kind of learning environments that better reflect the world of managers, for example by having them co-create their own educational experience." (Schoemaker, 2008: 130) "Expecting our students to be able to apply theory without providing ample opportunities to apply theory would not be congruent with sound principles of learning." (Wren et al., 2007: 490)

Typical strategy 3: Paradigmatic shift

3.1.1 Relevance defined as interestingness	"Therefore, the most important issue for getting management studies back on track is to shift away from the current focus on paper production to the production of more innovative and influential ideas and theories that can make a significant difference to both theory and organizational practice." (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013: 130)
3.1.2 Knowledge creation processes impact the relevance of research	"As long ago as 1978, Susman and Evered remarked: '(…) our research methods and techniques have become more sophisticated, they have also become increasing less useful for solving the practical problems that members of organizations face'" (Van Aken, 2005: 20)
3.1.3 Dominance of the 'positivist tradition'	"The impression is sometimes created that the different theories of organization amount to a toolkit for practicing managers. Summed up in Lewin's famous epigram 'there is nothing so practical as a good theory'. This view is in line with the positivist tradition pioneered in the social sciences by Auguste Comte: 'Voir pour prévoir, prévoir pour prévenir'." (Gabriel, 2002: 134)
3.1.4 Limitations and negative outcomes of the 'positivist tradition'	"Insufficient historicism still represents something of a continuing 'tradition' within OS scholarship." (Newton, 2010: 1380)
3.1.5 Need for diversity in management research	"There are multiple ways for knowledge to advance." (Hambrick, 2007: 1348) "We submit that a theory that was designed to withstand paragrammatic consumption is more likely to be adopted successfully. In that sense, the components that comprise a theory ought to be defined a priori and should be designed like building blocks of Lego or Brio — they should be defined unequivocally and yet allow for an open-ended set of possible configurations." (Avital & Germonprez, 2004: 1046)
3.2.1 New research methods	"All the interactive methods such as action research […], intervention research […], collaborative research […], grounded theory method […], and engaged research […] are eligible for elaborating legitimized knowledge. These methods are increasingly advocated and practiced because, beyond their being particularly adapted to developing knowledge capable of being relevant for practice, they also enable the cross-fertilization of knowledge generation and use of that knowledge […]." (Avenier, 2010: 1246)
3.2.2 New research outputs	"We should relax our requirement that facts be reported only with theories." (Hambrick, 2007: 1349)
3.2.3 New criteria to evaluate management research	"Since, in the TCEP, it is admitted that knowledge elaborated during a research project depends on the process of knowledge construction, knowledge legitimization in the TCEP primarily relies on legitimizing the epistemic and empirical work performed during

	knowledge construction. Three basic principles have been advocated for structuring this work, namely *ethics*, *explicitness*, and *ostinato rigore* […].” (Avenier, 2010: 1242)
3.2.4 More reflexivity from academics	“It is, indeed, important to rethink our priorities and redesign our practices and their regulation – including journal rankings – in ways that prioritize relevance (broadly defined) and social usefulness, thus broadening both the scope and philosophy of business school research.”(Hodgkinson & Starkey, 2012: 607-608)
3.2.5 Developing students’ critical abilities	“We have participated in this attempt to make management education and research more critical, in the sense of designing a curriculum that encourages students to explore power, control and inequalities.” (Ford, Harding, & Learmonth, 2010 p.S71)

Typical strategy 4: Refocusing on common goods	
4.1.1 Relevance defined as meaningfulness	"We are not just scholars; we are also citizens. We are capable of many voices, and we are part of university institutions that are there not just to confirm and conform, but also to challenge." (Pettigrew, 2005: 977) "Management scholars had indeed been far too silent on things that matter, and that we have not explicitly addressed the public good." (Glinow, 2005: 983)
4.1.2 Management research has an impact on organizational practices	"The theories that come to be believed and accepted affect both public and organizational policies and practices." (Pfeffer, 2005: 96)
4.1.3 Organizations have an impact on people's lives	"Modern organizations may well be the greatest social innovation of the human race; they are the primary source of our wealth, well-being, and day- to-day experiences." (Glinow, 2005: 983)
4.1.4 Criticism of management research's dominant agenda	"At the same time, a particular ideology has increasingly penetrated most of the disciplines in which management theories are rooted." (Ghoshal, 2005: 77)
4.1.5 Management research's cultural myopia	"It appears that while authors from around the world can meet with success in getting their research published, this is only as long as they have been socialized into the North American "way of thinking and methodology." (Tung, 2005: 240)
4.2.1 Exploring grand challenges and contemporary issues	"The strategic issues of our time (think of the end of oil) have not commanded enough of the attention of either academics or managers." (McGahan, 2007: 752)
4.2.2 Redefining the purpose of business schools	"Our starting point is that we need to consider a broader definition of the role of the business school as a force for achieving the good of business and of society" (Starkey & Tempest, 2009: 577)
4.2.3 Influencing public policies	"In fact, there are many areas of management theory and research that could be used to enrich public policies and increase their ability to serve constituencies effectively […]." (Hitt, 2005: 963)
4.2.4 Changing academia as a first	"When recruiting, making promotions or preparing submissions to research evaluation exercises, for example, there is no compulsion to use a journals list as a proxy for evaluating the quality and/or contribution of research publications. Indeed, to do so is to

step for a greater agenda	perpetuate the narrow research agenda and associated empiricism that dominates ostensibly 'top' journals." (Willmott, 2012: 602) "Together, we can make a huge difference in changing the state of our profession for the better. I invite all to accept the compassion pledge by summoning the courage to conduct research that inspires managers to lead compassionately, to teach in ways that lead our students to act justly, to help our young colleagues make a difference, and to serve in ways that lead to a better Academy and a better world." (Tsui, 2013: 177)
4.2.5 Reinforcing values and ethics in management education	"A school becomes a professional school only when it infuses those ideals into its graduates. A business school does that effectively when it forces its students to ask, "How do I want to change the world for the better?" and provides them with the skills, tools, and values to bring that about in a responsible manner." (Podolny, 2009: 65) "Furthermore, I argue that management academics can contribute to the prevention of misbehavior by influencing the values of their students who are already managers or intend to become such." (Moosmayer, 2012: 156)

Appendix 3: Evolution of the rigor/relevance debate (chapter 1)

Periods	Years	The gatekeepers' orthodoxy	Coll. with practitioners	Paradigmatic shift	Refocusing on common good	Hybrid	Total
Period 1 1994-2001	**1994**	2	2	0	0	2	6
	1995	3	1	0	0	0	4
	1996	1	1	0	0	0	2
	1997	1	0	0	0	0	1
	1998	1	0	0	0	1	2
	1999	2	0	0	0	0	2
	2000	1	0	1	0	1	3
	2001	4	4	0	1	5	14
	Total P1	**15** *44,1%*	**8** *23,5%*	**1** *2,9%*	**1** *2,9%*	**9** *26,5%*	**34** *100%*
Period 2 2002-2013	**2002**	0	1	1	2	5	9
	2003	4	3	1	2	1	11
	2004	1	1	4	3	1	10
	2005	6	2	3	8	14	33
	2006	5	5	2	1	3	16
	2007	12	8	3	2	10	35
	2008	1	1	1	2	4	9
	2009	8	4	0	4	6	22
	2010	9	3	5	3	6	26
	2011	3	4	4	6	3	20
	2012	8	4	1	3	5	21
	2013	3	0	1	2	1	7
	Total P2	**60** *27,4%*	**36** *16,4%*	**26** *11,9%*	**38** *17,4%*	**59** *26,9%*	**219** *100%*
Period 1994-2013	**Total P1+P2**	**75** *32,2%*	**44** *18,9%*	**27** *11,6%*	**39** *16,7%*	**68** *29,2%*	**233** *100%*

Appendix 4 : Secondary Data Sources (chapter 2)

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Résumé

Depuis la naissance des sciences de gestion, les chercheurs questionnent la pertinence de leurs travaux pour la pratique des entreprises. Interroger le rapport de la recherche à la pratique, c'est s'intéresser à la façon dont sont produites les connaissances managériales. Nous nous focalisons tout d'abord sur la controverse développée autour du rapport de la recherche à la pratique en développant quatre approches complémentaires par lesquelles les académiques appréhendent le rapport à la pratique. Dans un deuxième temps, nous nous intéressons à la façon dont chercheurs et praticiens développent ensemble des innovations managériales et conceptualisons un processus de développement spécifique aux innovations managériales développées entre recherche et pratique. Dans un troisième temps, nous étudions le concept de Stratégie Océan Bleu et nous montrons comment ses innovateurs ont performé leur concept suivant ses préceptes. Enfin, nous nous intéressons au chercheur-praticien, un acteur qui d'une part se situe à la fois dans le monde de la recherche et dans celui de la pratique et qui d'autre part participe à la production des connaissances managériales. L'objectif est de mieux appréhender les conflits de rôle auxquels ils font face et la façon dont ils équilibrent leurs rôles. Ainsi, par ces quatre études, cette thèse éclaire la façon dont sont produites les connaissances managériales.

Mots clés : sociologie des sciences, connaissance managériale, controverse scientifique, innovation managériale, performativité, intégration de rôle, sciences de gestion, pratique managériale

Abstract

Since the early days of management research, its relevance to practice has been the subject of vigorous debate. Understanding the relationship between research and practice implies studying how management knowledge is produced. We first aim at understanding the controversy surrounding the relevance of management research. We develop four complementary approaches on how academics apprehend the relationship between research and practice. Then, we develop a framework that allows the identification of four modes of interactions between scholars and practitioners and discover a developmental process that is specific to the management innovations that are developed between research and practice. Then, we study how the strategic concept of “Blue Ocean Strategy” is performed. We show how its innovators have performed the concept by applying its own principles. Finally, we are interested in scholar-practitioners given they straddle the worlds of research and practice to produce management knowledge. We seek to understand how they overcome role conflicts related to their activities in both research and practice. These four studies shed light on how management knowledge is produced.

Keywords: sociology of science, management knowledge, scientific controversy, management knowledge, performativity, role integration, management research, management practice

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