

AUTHOR QUERY FORM

 ELSEVIER	Journal: POETIC	Please e-mail or fax your responses and any corrections to:
	Article Number: 1061	E-mail: corrections.esch@elsevier.thomsondigital.com
		Fax: +353 6170 9272

Dear Author,

Please check your proof carefully and mark all corrections at the appropriate place in the proof (e.g., by using on-screen annotation in the PDF file) or compile them in a separate list. To ensure fast publication of your paper please return your corrections within 48 hours.

For correction or revision of any artwork, please consult <http://www.elsevier.com/artworkinstructions>.

Any queries or remarks that have arisen during the processing of your manuscript are listed below and highlighted by flags in the proof. Click on the 'Q' link to go to the location in the proof.

Location in article	Query / Remark: click on the Q link to go Please insert your reply or correction at the corresponding line in the proof
	Reference(s) given here were noted in the reference list but are missing from the text – please position each reference in the text or delete it from the list.
Q1	The reference given here is cited in the text but is missing from the reference list – please make the list complete or remove the reference from the text: Uzzi (1996), DiMaggio (1997), Lena and Peterson (2008), Allen and Lincoln (1994), Anand and Peterson (2004), Bielby and Bielby (1999).
Q2	Reference Bielby and Bielby (1999) is cited in the text but not provided in the reference list. Please provide it in the reference list or delete this citation from the text.
Q3	Reference Anand and Peterson (2004) is cited in the text but not provided in the reference list. Please provide it in the reference list or delete this citation from the text.
Q4	Reference Allen and Lincoln (1994) is cited in the text but not provided in the reference list. Please provide it in the reference list or delete this citation from the text.
Q5	The citation “Bryson, 1996” has been changed to match the author name/date in the reference list. Please check here and in subsequent occurrences, and correct if necessary.
Q6	Reference Lena and Peterson (2008) is cited in the text but not provided in the reference list. Please provide it in the reference list or delete this citation from the text.
Q7	Reference DiMaggio (1997) is cited in the text but not provided in the reference list. Please provide it in the reference list or delete this citation from the text.
Q8	Reference Uzzi (1996) is cited in the text but not provided in the reference list. Please provide it in the reference list or delete this citation from the text.
	Uncited references: This section comprises references that occur in the reference list but not in the body of the text. Please position each reference in the text or, alternatively, delete it. Any reference not dealt with will be retained in this section.

Thank you for your assistance.



ELSEVIER

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com



Poetics xxx (2011) xxx–xxx

POETICS

www.elsevier.com/locate/poetic

1
2

Highlights

Gatekeeper search and selection strategies: Relational and network governance in a cultural market

Poetics xxx (2011) xxx

P. Foster*

Department of Management, University of Massachusetts, Boston, 100 Morrissey Boulevard, McCormack Building, 5th Floor, Boston, MA 02125-3393, United States

► Gatekeeper search and selection strategies vary according to market niches defined by the novelty of the creative products being presented to audiences. ► In innovative niches presenting new songs played by emerging bands, gatekeepers have close ties to their competitors and arm's length relations with artists. ► In mass market niches presenting familiar songs played by cover bands, gatekeepers have arm's length relations with their competitors and close ties with a small number of artists. ► Network governance theory explains these findings by showing how ties among competitors serve both governance and cultural functions in markets presenting innovative new artists that have yet to demonstrate mass market appeal.

UNCORRECTED PROOF



ELSEVIER

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

ScienceDirect

Poetics xxx (2011) xxx–xxx

POETICS

www.elsevier.com/locate/poetic

Gatekeeper search and selection strategies: Relational and network governance in a cultural market

P. Foster^{a,*}, S.P. Borgatti^b, C. Jones^c

^a *Department of Management, University of Massachusetts, Boston, 100 Morrissey Boulevard,
McCormack Building, 5th Floor, Boston, MA 02125-3393, United States*

^b *Department of Management, Gatton College of Business & Economics, University of Kentucky,
Lexington, KY 40506, United States*

^c *Organization Studies Department, Carroll School of Management, Boston College,
Fulton Hall 435, 140 Commonwealth Avenue, Chestnut Hill, MA 02467, United States*

Abstract

Gatekeepers play a critical role in determining what creative products eventually reach audiences. Although they have been discussed in the literature on cultural production, they have rarely been studied systematically. In particular, we know little about how gatekeepers use their social networks to manage search and selection processes in markets characterized by excess supply, demand uncertainty, and shifting and socially defined evaluation criteria. In this article, we present the results of a study of nightclub talent buyers in Boston, MA who act as gatekeepers by selecting bands to perform at their clubs. Using social network and cultural domain analysis, we show that search strategies and social networks vary across culturally defined market niches for local rock bands. In a market niche featuring bands playing original music, gatekeepers maintain arm's length relations with many bands but are embedded in dense information sharing networks with each other. In contrast, in a market niche containing bands playing familiar popular tunes ("covers"), gatekeepers maintain close ties with a small number of bands but have arm's length relations with each other. We explain these findings using theories of relational and network governance.
© 2011 Published by Elsevier B.V.

1. Introduction: gatekeepers in cultural industries

In recent years, there has been growing scholarly interest in industries that produce cultural products like movies (Zuckerman et al., 2003), Broadway musicals (Uzzi and Spiro, 2005), television programs (Starkey et al., 2000), music (Anand and Peterson, 2000; Dowd, 2004;

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: pacey.foster@umb.edu, paceyfooster@gmail.com (P. Foster), sborgatti@uky.edu (S.P. Borgatti), jonescq@bc.edu (C. Jones).

34
35 Peterson, 1997), and other forms of entertainment. When examining cultural markets and products,
36 previous scholarship has emphasized the organizational and market forces leading to product
37 diversity (i.e., new performers and firms) (Dowd, 2004; Lopes, 1992; Peterson and Berger, 1975).
38 Work in this area commonly references gatekeepers who manage the interface at which artistic
39 creations are transformed into marketable products and who play a critical role in determining what
40 products eventually reach audiences (Hirsch, 1972; Peterson, 1997) or it references critics’
41 evaluation strategies for products (e.g., Cheyne and Binder, 2010; Glynn and Lounsbury, 2005;
42 Janssen, 1997). However, these gatekeepers are rarely studied systematically. Indeed, the
43 gatekeeper function is missing from Griswold’s (2004) cultural diamond of creators, context,
44 audience and cultural product. As a result, we know relatively little about how gatekeepers use their
45 social networks to solve complex search and selection problems in markets characterized by excess
46 supply, demand uncertainty, and socially defined evaluation criteria (Bielby and Bielby, 1999;
47 Q1 Peterson and Berger, 1971). Thus, the research questions guiding our study are as follows: (1) how
48 do social networks operate in gatekeeper’s search and selection strategies?; and (2) do these
49 strategies vary across market niches defined by the novelty of the products being presented?

50 Gatekeepers are brokers who mediate between artists and audiences; however, cultural
51 production research contains at least three different definitions of the gatekeeper role: as co-
52 producer, as tastemaker, and as selector. Perhaps because the production of culture perspective has
53 Q2 dominated creative industries research in recent years (Anand and Peterson, 2004; Ryan, 2000), the
54 field focuses more on the co-production and tastemaking process than on the search and selection
55 methods used to identify emerging talent. Gatekeepers as co-producers shepherd artists and
56 products through the production process, operating almost as artists themselves by shaping the
57 content of cultural product (Peterson and Berger, 1971). For example, Peterson (1997) shows how
58 country music producers help artists strike the right balance between novelty and familiarity in their
59 songs, thereby helping them connect with current trends while creating a distinctive sound. He does
60 not assess how producers identify these artists in the first place or the social aspects of these
61 selection processes. Lingo and O’Mahony (2010) extend this work by examining how independent
62 music producers use their positions as brokers to manage ambiguity in artistic production. Again,
63 this research does not address how these brokers first selected their artists, nor does it assess how
64 producers use their networks to manage ambiguity in selection process.

65 The gatekeeper term has also been used to describe a tastemaking function that operates at the
66 end of production processes—evaluating the output of creative industries and promoting specific
67 products to audiences (Hirsch, 1972; Hsu, 2006). Scholars have examined how the critical
68 discourse of tastemakers shapes important outcomes such as audience attendance at festivals
69 Q3 (Shrum, 1991), who receives Academy awards in film (Allen and Lincoln, 1994), or how
70 producers manage uncertainty in critics’ reception of their new TV programs by linking new
71 programs to established genres and successful creators and producers (Bielby and Bielby, 1994).

72 We use the term gatekeeper to refer to the search and selection functions described above and in
73 theories of network brokerage. According to Gould and Fernandez (1989, p. 92), “gatekeeping
74 occurs when an actor selectively grants outsiders access to members of his or her own group.” This
75 is distinct from the coordination and representation roles that capture the co-production and
76 tastemaker functions highlighted by cultural industry scholars. Unlike co-producers or tastemakers,
77 gatekeepers “solve some job-matching problem—allocating vaudeville acts among theaters, big
78 bands among ballrooms, classical pianists among concert series, actors among movie projects”
79 (Caves, 2000, p. 67). Elsbach and Kramer (2003) examine the decision making criteria in
80 Hollywood pitch meetings for first time entrants, but not how these aspirants were selected to pitch
81 in the first place and the how social networks influenced both the opportunity to pitch (i.e., propose)

81 and to make a movie. When the social networks of gatekeepers are addressed in creative industries,
82 they tend to appear as anecdotal accounts and focus on referral and support networks among artists
83 (Faulkner, 1983; Ridgeway, 1989) or the selection strategies of gatekeeper  avant-garde fine art
84 markets (Bystryn, 1989). Although Bystryn's (1989) comparison of two *avant-garde* New York art
85 galleries identifies differences in the promotion and co-production strategies of the curators, she
86 does not explore their search processes or social networks. Similarly, Crossley (2009) uses network
87 methods to document the rise of the Manchester rock scene, but does not examine how gatekeepers
88 use their social networks to manage the complex search and selection problems that characterize
89 creative industries.

90 Our research seeks to understand the search and selection strategies used by gatekeepers (e.g.,
91 nightclub talent buyers) in a market for local rock bands. Because these talent buyers sit at the
92 input boundaries of nightclubs, they operate as brokers who connect artistic creators (e.g., bands)
93 with audiences. We begin by providing a brief review of three streams in cultural industry
94 scholarship that pertain to the study of gatekeeping processes: (1) the cultural categories that
95 talent buyers use to classify nightclubs that aid their search and selection; (2) the role of social
96 networks in searching for and selecting talent (the bands or artistic creators); and (3) the ways that
97 market structures affect product diversity at the industry level. Next, we introduce the context of
98 our empirical study—talent buyers at local rock nightclubs. We use cultural domain analysis,¹
99 social network analysis, and data on more than 10,000 performances by thousands of bands over
100 18 months to reveal the search and selection strategies used by gatekeepers in a market for local
101 rock bands in Boston, MA. We find that talent buyers in markets for novel products maintain
102 arm's length relations with many bands and are embedded in dense communication networks
103 with each other. In contrast, buyers in markets for familiar products maintain close relations with
104 bands and arm's length relations with each other. We explain these results using network
105 governance theory (Jones et al., 1997), which predicts that social ties among buyers can be used
106 to govern markets characterized by uncertainty and risk.
107

2. Cultural categories, social networks and market structure in cultural industries

108 Gatekeeper search and selection strategies do not reside solely within an individual; they are
109 influenced by the social context in which a gatekeeper resides. For instance, research on the
110 production of culture has explained how cultural categories like preexisting genres shape
111 production and consumption practices (Bryson, 1992; Hsu, 2006; Hsu and Hannan, 2005),
112 Q4 how art is collectively produced through networks of cooperating and competing individuals and
113 organizations (Becker, 1982; Peterson, 1997); and how market structure and production logics
114 influence product diversity at the industry level (Dowd, 2004; Lopes, 1992; Peterson and Berger,
115 1975). There has been much less work on how these factors function in gatekeeping processes.
116 We briefly review each of these research streams and suggest how each might impact gatekeeper
117 search and selection processes.

118 Cultural categories (e.g., genres) offer a framework within which artists and their products are
119 conceived and interpreted and can thereby influence both the production and consumption of
120 artwork (DiMaggio, 1987; Lena and Peterson, 2008). Indeed, one legacy of Peterson's work has
121 Q5 been the “demystifying of cultural forms as the boundaries between high and low culture”
122 (Ryan, 2000, p. 94). Emergent and shifting cultural categories create boundaries that are
123

¹ Cultural domain analysis is a formal ethnographic method for exploring the relationships among items in a shared cognitive/cultural space. In this case, we use the method to assess the perceived similarities among nightclubs.

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

themselves enacted through processes of inclusion and exclusion (Bryson, 1992). Peterson and DiMaggio have problematized the ongoing construction of such categories as high culture versus popular culture. However, many often take those categories as given. In such research, cultural categories are typically defined *a priori* by scholars and then applied to art products and producers to assess how this influences their reception by audiences. For instance, Hsu (2006) finds that movies combining genre categories are less successful than more focused genres. Hence, films that combine multiple genres face more of a challenge in securing audiences than films in a single genre. Others have explored how claims to authenticity are negotiated (and contested) within pre-established genres (e.g., Grazian, 2003; Peterson, 1997). Established genres are treated as shared schemas by which cultural products are evaluated by critics and audiences. However, critics and audiences lag and follow gatekeepers' and artists' criteria—as shown by Jones et al. (2011) in the rise of modern architecture, whereby architects theorized and created the new category “modern architecture” decades before critics. Thus, established genres may not be the same categories that gatekeepers use to organize their search and selection process for new acts. Because social networks play an important role in diffusing cultural innovations (Davis, 1991; DiMaggio, 1997; Strang and Meyer, 1993), they may also help gatekeepers become aware of emerging artists and new genres.

Social networks also play an important role in cultural production because they reduce uncertainty in the selection of partners (Faulkner, 1983) and help coordinate work in project based economies like film and television production (Starkey et al., 2000; Uzzi, 1996). The concept of embeddedness (e.g., strong or repetitive ties) has been used to explain how social relationships are used to coordinate exchanges in fashion and Broadway musicals (Uzzi, 1996; Uzzi and Spiro, 2005) and to provide trusted sources of information for large and uncertain purchases (DiMaggio and Louch, 1998). Some studies find that a balance of new and familiar ties enhances firm performance—such as when clothing manufacturers with close ties find it easier to coordinate with their vendors (Uzzi, 1997, 1999). However, other work finds that optimal levels of embeddedness may vary across organizational contexts, such as the difference between the steel and semiconductor industry identified by Rowley et al. (2000). Although most of the research on embeddedness has examined networks among buyers and sellers, a few scholars have found that ties among competitors increased firm performance and were also more likely to be friendship ties (Ingram and Roberts, 2000). Strangely, with the exception of work on artist referral and support (e.g., Faulkner, 1983), network theoretic concepts have not been used to explain how gatekeepers manage search and selection processes in creative industries.

The effect of market concentration on product diversity is another important stream in the scholarship on cultural production (Dowd, 2004; Peterson and Berger, 1975) that has implications for gatekeeper search and selection. Implicit in this work is the idea that organizations segregate gatekeeping functions in order to manage the difficult task of innovation under conditions of uncertainty and turbulence (Peterson and Berger, 1971). However, there is no work exploring how factors like the novelty or familiarity of a cultural product or category interact with the information and exchange networks of gatekeepers. Thus, we extend this literature on product diversity by asking whether the novelty or familiarity of musical products themselves plays a role in gatekeeper decision making processes and how these processes in turn effect product sharing among nightclubs. In this sense, we resurrect an early interest in explaining innovation in creative industries by focusing on the organizational entrepreneurs who buffer organizations from the turbulence of creative markets (Peterson and Berger, 1971).

Reviewing these research streams, it seems that networks among gatekeepers in creative industries serve complex governance functions (Jones et al., 1997) by diffusing emerging cultural

170
171 categories, by spreading performance information about potential exchange partners, and by
172 identifying new or familiar products. In addition to understanding the relational factors (Uzzi,
173 1997) that may help to coordinate exchanges in cultural industries, it is important to examine how
174 information sharing networks among gatekeepers affect exchange networks among between
175 gatekeepers and the artists they select. By exploring how cultural categories, exchange and
176 information networks help gatekeepers manage search and selection processes, we provide a
177 micro-translation (Collins, 1981) of the gatekeeping functions that play an important and little
178 understood role in structuring cultural industries.

3. Data and methods

179
180 Consistent with historical approaches to studying gatekeeper roles in creative industries, we
181 took an inductive case-based approach (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007) and used multiple
182 sources of data to explore our research questions. Our primary unit of analysis was the
183 gatekeeper—the talent buyers who sit at the input boundaries of local rock nightclubs scanning
184 the market to select some small subset of bands to present to audiences. Over a period of two
185 years, we engaged in two rounds of interview-based data collection with talent buyers, and we
186 also captured secondary data for the same period involving actual bookings of bands at clubs.

187 For our first step, we compared all the sources of local nightclub listings in Boston to identify
188 the most inclusive source. We found that *The Boston Phoenix*, a free weekly entertainment paper,
189 contained the most complete set of band listings and therefore used that publication as our
190 sampling frame. At that time, *The Boston Phoenix* listed 36 nightclubs that offered live rock
191 music at least once a week. Each of these clubs employed one or more talent buyers whose job
192 was to book bands for their clubs. Boston was an appropriate city in which to conduct our study
193 for two reasons. First, one of the authors had extensive contacts in the nightclub industry, which
194 helped provide access to clubs and interviewees. In addition, Boston is city with a longstanding
195 and vibrant rock music scene that has produced both alternative acts – like the Pixies, the Mighty
196 Mighty Bosstones, Morphine, The Lemonheads and the Del Fuegos – as well as more well-
197 known acts like the Cars, The J. Geils Band, Boston, and Aerosmith.

198 We conducted two rounds of interviews with talent buyers and other members of the local
199 music industry. Our interviews employed traditional ethnographic methods (e.g., Glaser and
200 Strauss, 1967; Spradley, 1979) to capture rich qualitative descriptions, as well as more recent
201 cognitive and structural approaches to the measurement of cultural meanings (Mohr, 1998;
202 Strauss and Quinn, 1997; Weller and Romney, 1988), which provide more formal results like
203 perceived similarity matrices. As suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and others (Eisenhardt
204 and Graebner, 2007), we tried to maximize diversity among respondents to ensure that we
205 obtained the broadest view of the market possible. Thus we included musicians and nightclub
206 patrons in our first round of interviews. In particular, we tried to ensure that talent buyers worked
207 at clubs of varying sizes, locations and programming. Our interviews ranged in length from
208 15 min to over 2 h with an average length of just over an hour.

209 In the first round, we conducted a total of 34 semi-structured interviews with 22 talent buyers,
210 8 musicians and 4 nightclub patrons. The 22 talent buyers represented 29 of the nightclubs
211 presenting live rock bands in Boston at that time, entailing 80% of the population of nightclubs
212 presenting live music at least once a week.

213 As part of the first round of interviews, we asked interviewees to perform a free pile-sorting task
214 (Weller and Romney, 1988) to measure perceived similarities among clubs and elicit the criteria
215 gatekeepers used to understand the club domain. Informants were given a set of 36 cards

6
215
216 representing local clubs and asked to “Sort them into piles according to how similar they are. You
217 can make as many or as few piles as you like.” These were analyzed using the Anthropac program
218 (Borgatti, 1992), creating a club-by-club perceived similarity matrix that was then visualized using
219 non-metric multidimensional scaling (MDS) (Kruskal, 1964) to create a perceptual map of
220 cognitive domain.

221 MDS maps are analyzed by subjectively looking for categories and dimensions that appear to
222 explain the distribution of items in the map space. For example, in an MDS of perceived
223 similarities among kinds of animals, we might note that there are clusters corresponding to land,
224 air and water animals—and within land animals there might be a spatial gradient corresponding
225 to a continuum from more familiar to more exotic animals (Kruskal, 1964).

226 We then collected additional data to test these subjective hypotheses about the similarities
227 among clubs. Specifically, we collected a six week sample of entertainment listings from *The*
228 *Boston Phoenix* representing 2073 performances by 1232 different bands. We coded the data to
229 generate measures for each club that related to the categories and dimensions we thought might
230 explain the spatial pattern observed in the MDS map. These were: (1) nightclub capacity (labeled
231 SIZE in Fig. 1); (2) the percentage of acts that were scheduled only once during the period (labeled
232 ONE-OFF); (3) the average number of acts per night at each club (labeled PERNIGHT); and (4) the
233 proportion of booked acts that played their own music rather than covering other artists’ work
234 (labeled ORIGINAL). With these measures, we used ANTHROPAC (Borgatti, 1992) to perform a
235 PROFIT analysis. This type of analysis is a method for verifying the dimensions along which items
236 in a cognitive domain vary (Kruskal and Wish, 1978). The PROFIT analysis uses OLS regression to
237 predict each club’s MDS coordinate using values on each of the four measures above.
238

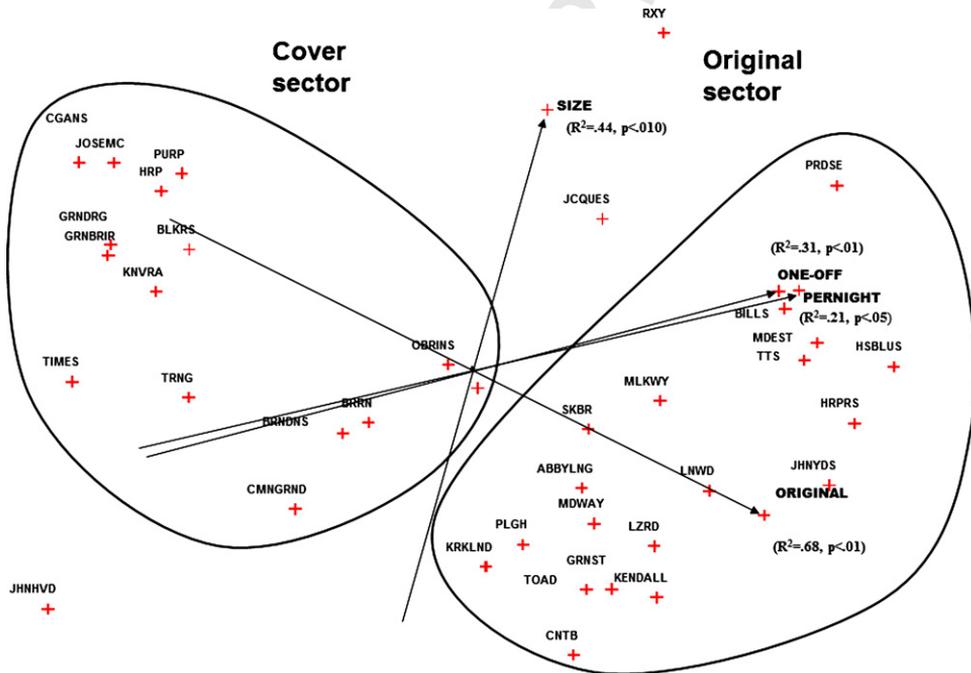


Fig. 1. MDS map of clubs.

237
238 After digesting the data and analyses from this initial round of data collection, we used the
239 results to develop a new interview protocol that guided a second round of interviews with 20
240 additional talent buyers. Combining both rounds of interviews yielded a final sample of 42 talent
241 buyer interviews (including three talent buyers who were interviewed in both rounds).

242 In both rounds of data collection, we asked informants a set of network questions to elicit the set
243 of people they discussed bands and booking issues with. This enabled us to calculate the number of
244 people in general they sought information from (degree centrality) and, also more specifically, the
245 number of other talent buyers they interacted with. We focus on brokers' centrality rather than
246 betweenness or closeness for two reasons: (1) our theoretical interest is in gatekeepers' information
247 embeddedness, which is measured by degree centrality in the agent communication network; and,
248 (2) our focus was on comparing the levels of gatekeeper embeddedness in two niches, rather than
249 identifying the brokerage ability of specific agents within a niche.

250 In addition to the interviews, we also collected a census of entertainment listings from *The*
251 *Boston Phoenix*. These data represented more than 10,000 transactions between bands and
252 nightclubs over 18 months. These data allowed us to calculate the degree to which clubs were
253 concentrating their bookings in just a few acts (booked repeatedly) or spreading them out across a
254 great many acts (booked rarely). To measure this we used the well-known Blau-Herfindahl
255 heterogeneity measure H_j^2 , where p_j refers to the proportion of all the clubs bookings that
256 went to band j . This measure ranges from zero to one with a lower score meaning that clubs use
257 many different acts rather than concentrating their exchanges among a small number of acts. In
258 other words, a club that only used one band over the course of the 18 months would have a score
259 of one on this measure. In the embeddedness research program (Uzzi, 1997), concentrated
260 exchange networks are used as proxies for close dyadic ties whereas diffuse exchange networks
261 reflect arm's length ties. In addition to allowing us to construct measures of embeddedness
262 between clubs and bands, these data also allowed us to determine how often each pair of clubs
263 booked the same acts, yielding a club-by-club similarity or competition matrix.

264 Table 1 summarizes all of the data sources, sample sizes and collection methods that were
265 used in the study.

266 4. Analysis and results

267 In this section, we present the results of our analyses with respect to three basic research
268 questions and levels of analysis. First, we identify the cultural categories that gatekeepers use to
269 classify nightclubs based on the kinds of bands they schedule. Next, we use social network and
270 interview data to explore gatekeeper search and selection strategies and the concentration of
271 exchanges with bands. Finally, we show that these information networks, in turn, have an impact
272 on product sharing at the market level and that these outcomes vary across niches defined by the
273 novelty of the bands being scheduled.

274 4.1. Cultural categories and market segments

275 Our first goal was to understand how industry participants classify the clubs that present rock
276 bands in Boston. We approached this several different ways. The first approach was simply
277 asking informants to talk about the Boston club scene. Several informants made a fundamental
278 distinction between "original clubs" and "cover clubs." As explained by informants, original
279 clubs present live rock bands that perform their own songs. Depending on the size of the club,
280 these bands might be local, regional or national in scope. Original clubs typically present several

Table 1
Data collection over two time periods.

Data type (n=)	Comments
<i>Round 1 data collection</i>	
Interviews (n = 34) Talent Buyers (n = 22) Musicians (n = 8) Patrons (n = 4)	Semi-structured ethnographic interviews and 34 total respondents were used to collect similarity and survey data on search, selection and social networks among buyers
Nightclub similarity data (n = 29) Talent buyers (n = 17) Musicians (n = 8) Nightclub patrons (n = 4)	These data were collected during interviews with 29 of the 34 respondents above using the pile sort method (Weller and Romney, 1988) to measure perceived similarities among nightclubs
Market exchange data (n = 2073)	Entertainment listings of bands at nightclubs in Boston over a two-month period capturing 2073 performances by 1232 different acts. These data were used to validate the map generated from perceived nightclub similarity data above
<i>Round 2 data collection</i>	
Interviews (n = 20)	Semi-structured interviews and survey administration with talent buyers to expand measures of search, selection and social networks among buyers
Market exchange data (n > 10,000)	18 months of entertainment listings of bands at nightclubs in Boston over 18 months representing more than 10,000 dyadic exchanges with several thousand different bands

280 acts on any given night, and they are heavily dependent on bands to bring their fans in to the club
281 to eat, drink and buy tickets. In contrast, cover clubs present bands that play popular songs (e.g.,
282 those that were hits on the *Billboard* popularity charts) in a small number of well-known genres
283 like ‘70s rock, alternative rock, R&B, etc. Unlike original clubs, cover clubs more often have
284 large built-in audiences and use the same bands repeatedly over time.

285 The second approach was a perceptual mapping of the club domain based on pile sort data,
286 as described in the methods section. The result of this analysis was a MDS map of clubs, as
287 shown in Fig. 1. The map seems to show two basic clusters that appear to correspond to the
288 original versus cover distinction that informants told us about. In the map, the original clubs
289 are located in the lower right quadrant, while most of the cover clubs are clustered together in
290 the top left quadrant. To test whether map locations indeed corresponded to this distinction,
291 we ran the PROFIT analysis discussed earlier. As can be seen in the figure, all four club
292 attributes are significantly related to club position in the map. The vector for club capacity
293 (labeled SIZE) points upward and to the right—indicating that, on average, clubs increase in
294 size as one goes from the bottom left of the map to the top right. In contrast, the vector for
295 percentage of original-type bands booked (ORIGINAL) is almost perfectly orthogonal to size
296 and has a top left to bottom right orientation. The vector for proportion of one-off acts (ONE-
297 OFF) points to the right; this indicates that, as you move from left to right, clubs have a greater
298 proportion of acts that are “one-offs” – only booked once. The vector for average number of
299 different acts in a night (PERNIGHT) was virtually identical to that of proportion of one-off
300 acts. Both of these are oriented to the original/cover vector – indicating that the clubs
301 specializing in original music also tend to have more acts in a given night and avoid booking
302 the same bands repeatedly.
303

303
304 A factor analysis of the four club attributes showed a clear 2-factor structure that can be
305 described as size (e.g., measured as capacity) and diversity (a composite of ONE-OFF,
306 PERNIGHT, and ORIGINAL), reflecting the fundamental niches in the market place.

307 This analysis is corroborated by the qualitative interviews with original and cover club buyers.
308 As one talent buyer for an original club said “If we repeated the same bands over and over and
309 over again, no one would want to come to [the club], it would just be boring.” Another original
310 talent buyer with more than 20 years of experience in town said:

311 A place like this, you want to constantly be on the cutting edge. . .and you know, you
312 always find out who’s happening in town. You read the newspapers. I mean, I’m really bad
313 now. I don’t really listen to college radio as much as I used to, but you find out who’s
314 happening. Who’s hip. I’m a word of mouth kind of person. Even though I’ve been doing
315 this for 20 years, I have always kept abreast of a generation or two younger than me and
316 them and what their friends are doing. I kind of stay current that way.

317
318
319 In contrast, when asked what kinds of acts he books, a talent buyer for a cover club responded,
320 “Mostly cover bands. . .because that’s what we found our clientele wants. I personally would like
321 to do more original acts, but we’re kind of constrained. And when we do have original acts, we’ve
322 had people say ‘What the hell is that?’ They want to hear. . .what they’re used to. Friday and
323 Saturday nights we have four or five sixties bands, and the alternative bands.” A buyer for a large,
324 downtown cover nightclub clarified that his booking choices were similarly limited to bands
325 playing traditional Irish music (4 nights a week) and alternative rock bands on Friday and
326 Saturday. When asked about how much diversity there was in his bookings, he replied “You’re
327 talking about diverse music means different styles of music? No, we’re pretty much consistent
328 with the style of that we have here.”

329 Unlike agents at original clubs – who schedule more emerging artists and more diverse genres
330 of music – buyers at cover clubs schedule bands that play popular songs in a small number of
331 well-known genres and that have already established themselves as professional and competent.
332 At original clubs, there is both more diversity among the kinds of genres presented in a given
333 week as well as diversity across the bands in a given night. At cover clubs, diversity appears as
334 limited variation within a relatively narrow range of previously popularized songs played by a
335 single band over the course of a night. One cover buyer summarized the difference between
336 original and cover clubs in terms of the larger range of musical styles offered in original clubs and
337 the fact that this variation (both across bands and musical styles) is a key to their strategies.

338
339 *Interviewer:* What’s the difference [between cover and original clubs]?

340
341 *Buyer:* TT’s [original club] it’s more of an age range of 18 to 24 years old, local kids who,
342 half of it is, “My friend’s band is playing here tonight. They get 20 minutes at TT’s let’s go
343 hear them.”

344
345
346
347 *Interviewer:* So people are coming to see the specific band?

348
349 *Buyer:* Right. The other half of that might be just people are into the kind of music is
350 going to be at TT’s one night. If they’re going to have Ska one night, or if they’re going to
351 have a punk night there, if people are into that, they might just go there and hang out for the
352 night.

353
354
355 *Interviewer:* So that is not going on as much here?

355
358 *Buyer:* No because all the cover bands that I have here, it's based on somewhat top-40,
359 1970s type music. They go with the crowd songs.

360
362  Bands in cover clubs face narrowly defined artistic parameters that are governed by mass
363 market tastes and commercial considerations.

364 The results of these various analyses suggest that talent buyers at cover and original clubs have
365 different selection strategies that respond to different customer demands and the market niche
366 (original vs. cover) within which a club resides. Moreover, the market niche is defined by the
367 categories of original versus cover music. Original clubs select emerging bands in a wide variety of
368 genres that play their own original songs, while cover clubs select bands that play familiar popular
369 tunes in a narrow set of well-known genres. This distinction, in turn, drives differences in talent
370 buyer search strategies and social networks. A talent buyer for a cover club put this very clearly.
371 Responding to the question “What is the difference between original and cover clubs?”—he said
372 “Different crowd, different people. . . You're talking about a younger, hipper crowd for original
373 bands. They are into their music, they know their music and they are into new bands. They're
374 usually college kids. . . Cover band then would be the young professional, sing along, recognize that
375 music. They are too busy with their lives to sit down and listen. They just have to recognize
376 something.”

377 4.2. Search strategies and social networks among talent buyers

378 Based on the observed differences between original and cover clubs, it seems reasonable that the
379 search behaviors of the talent buyers in these market niches should differ. Because original clubs
380 have more diverse programming needs and are interested in identifying artistic innovations and
381 tracking emerging genres, we expect talent buyers for original clubs to engage in wider searches
382 than talent buyers for cover clubs. Moreover – as product qualities should vary more in markets for
383 unique, innovative products – products will not only differ, but they will do so in unpredictable
384 ways. In these kinds of settings, a talent buyer should engage in wider search behaviors and more
385 exploration to identify suitable bands. Therefore, we expect talent buyers for original clubs to
386 gather more information through social networks to identify new bands and make sense of markets
387 characterized by consumer demands for novelty and uniqueness. In contrast, we expect that talent
388 buyers for cover clubs to seek bands that produce recognizable music and have more stable,
389 predictable client demands in their market niches—reducing the need for extensive searches for
390 innovative bands and sense-making of these new bands for audience preferences.

391 Interviews show that talent buyers for original clubs tap into both larger and more diverse
392 social networks to seek out new bands than talent buyers for cover clubs. Talent buyers for
393 original clubs use *other* talent buyers to keep abreast of what bands are “happening and hip”—in
394 other words, bands that their customers are likely to come to see. In the face of uncertainty about
395 demand due to shifting cultural trends and emerging artists, communication among talent buyers
396 for original clubs is an important source of information about how specific bands are likely to
397 perform in their club. For example, a talent buyer for an original club said:

398 If you call me up and say, “Oh, we're playing all of these places.” Well good..but until
399 someone I know tells me how good you are, it might not really kind of take it into that next
400 step. Yes, I've heard your tape. I know you're playing out. But if you want to call me up and
401 tell me you did 200 people at Club X, I'm going to pick up the phone and go, “R [another
402 agent], this band did 200 people for you?” “No. It was the whole package.” All right, we
403 do communicate. We need to.

For this talent buyer, booking bands is a process that includes evaluating the band and confirming that evaluation with other talent buyers who play an important role in providing nuanced cultural and economic information that directly influences a talent buyer's decision making. A visualization of the information sharing networks among gatekeepers makes it clear that the networks are very different in the original and cover niches.

Using the NETDRAW program, we visualize the ego-network data collected from talent buyers listing the other talent buyers they talk to regularly about what bands to book. Although ego network data are typically too sparse to use for full network analyses, because this is a relatively small social world, these ego networks are actually quite densely connected in the original sector. Fig. 2 shows that agents at original clubs (white nodes) are densely embedded in information sharing networks with other buyers in their niche while cover clubs (black nodes) are not. There is a limited amount of communication across niches as evidenced by ties across node type, but almost all of the isolates are cover clubs (black nodes). In fact, the most significant example of information sharing among cover clubs (The Harp, The Green Briar, Kinvara) is explained by the fact that they are owned by one management company. This diagram also shows that the diversity of bands offered at a club (node size) is highest among the original clubs in the center of the agent communication network. There seems to be a relationship between the task complexity faced by original booking agents and their need for social searches including other buyers in their niche.

These distinct strategies are confirmed in *t*-tests on the differences in search depth and type by market niche, which are summarized in Table 2. In markets for original bands, talent buyers read more publications ($t = -3.1, p < .01$) and talk to more people ($t = -2.33, p < .05$) about what bands to book. While talent buyers in both market niches go out about as often to hear bands

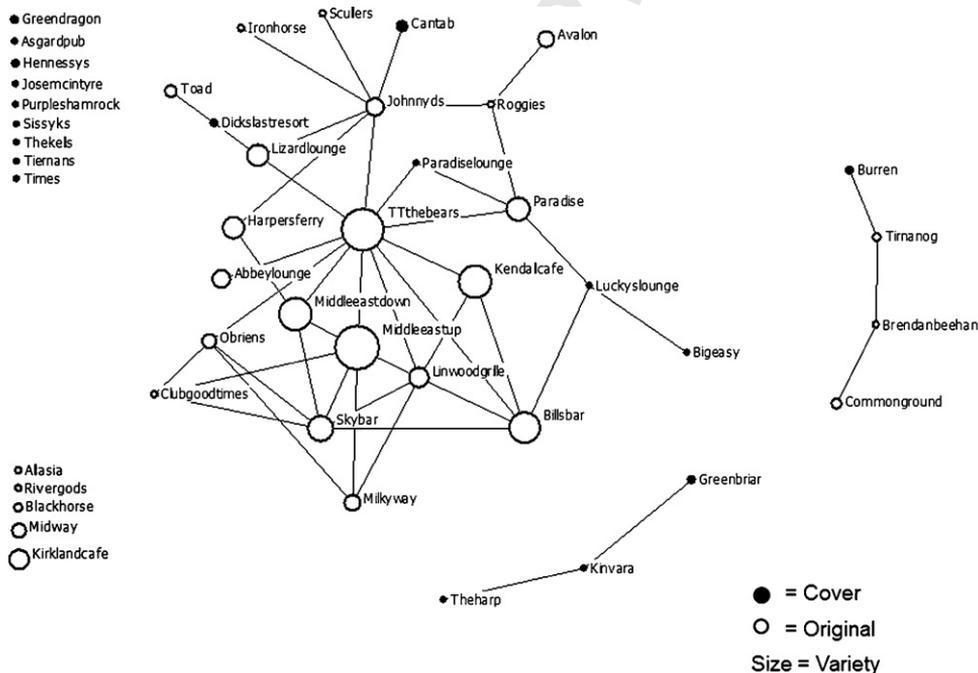


Fig. 2. Ego-network data for talent buyers.

Table 2
Talent agents' search strategies and social networks.

	Original club mean	Cover club mean	<i>t</i>
Publications read (<i>n</i> = 26)	5.38	2.85	<i>t</i> = -3.1**
Egonetwork size (<i>n</i> = 28)	12.61	3.42	<i>t</i> = -2.33*
Times out/month (<i>n</i> = 27)	6.18	3.88	<i>t</i> = -.94 ns
Degree centrality (<i>n</i> = 38)	7.14	2.49	<i>t</i> = -3.2***
Exchange concentration between club and bands (<i>n</i> = 89)	.05	.25	<i>t</i> = 4.34***

* *p* < .05.
** *p* < .01.
*** *p* < .001.



Table 3
Summarizing the differences between the two niches.

<i>Cultural categories</i>		
Market niches	Original clubs: bands that write original music and have following, showcase a variety of bands	Cover clubs: bands that play familiar music; predictable music for established audiences
Organizational strategy	Innovation	Commercialization
<i>Social networks</i>		
Gatekeeper search and selection	Wide social searches containing other gatekeepers; diffuse networks with many bands	Narrow a-social searches containing no other gatekeepers; concentrated networks with few bands
Governance mechanisms	Network Governance: relations among competitors and suppliers	Relational Governance: Strong ties with suppliers; few relations with competitors
<i>Market structure</i>		
Product sharing	High levels among clubs	Low levels among clubs

(*t* = -.94, *p* = ns), the searches of talent buyers at original clubs are broader and more social than those of talent buyers at cover clubs. Critically, talent buyers in the market niche of original clubs are also more socially embedded with their competitors than talent buyers in the market niche for cover clubs, as measured by the differences in agent degree centralities in the two niches (7.14, 2.49 *t* = -3.2, *p* < .01).² In other words, talent buyers in the market niche for original bands conduct deeper and more social searches that rely on close contact with competitors as well as other members of the local market.

Because social network studies (Uzzi, 1996, 1999) and research in cultural industries (Peterson and Berger, 1971; Uzzi, 1996; Uzzi and Spiro, 2005) both suggest that intermediate levels of diversity of social ties are optimal for firm performance, we explore whether structural embeddedness with suppliers varies between the two types of nightclubs identified in the cultural domain analysis. As described above, our measure for a nightclub's embeddedness with suppliers is the exchange concentration between nightclubs and bands—such that a club that only scheduled one band will have a perfectly embedded relationship with that band. A *t*-test of the difference in nightclubs' embeddedness with suppliers shows that exchange concentration is higher in the market niche for cover bands (0.25) than in the market niche for original bands (.05) and that this difference is significant (*t* = 4.34, *p* < .001). Therefore, while talent buyers for

² We also ran *t*-tests on betweenness centrality and ego-network density but found no significant differences between cover and original agents.

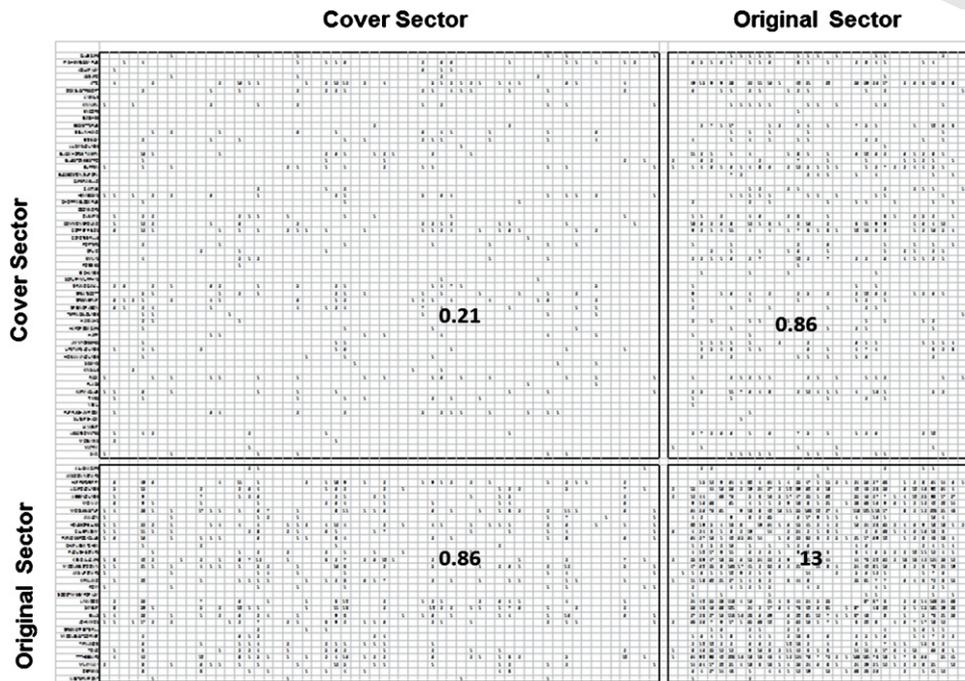


Fig. 3. Blockmodel of band sharing within and between niches.

445
 446
 447
 448
 449
 450
 451

original clubs are embedded in dense information networks comprised of both competitors and suppliers, their exchanges with bands are less concentrated and more diffuse than those of buyers at cover clubs who concentrate exchanges among a small subset of potential bands but have no ties to their competitors. In the language of embeddedness research (Uzzi, 1997), cover clubs maintain close relations with bands while original clubs maintain arm’s length relations with bands.

4.3. Market structure: sharing bands within market niches

452
 453
 454
 455
 456
 457
 458
 459
 460
 461
 462
 463
 464
 465
 466

Despite the fact that they are technically competitors, talent buyers at original clubs cooperate and share information widely. Compared to talent buyers at cover clubs who have no relationships with other talent buyers and concentrate their exchanges with a few bands, talent buyers at original clubs are embedded in dense social information networks containing both competitors and suppliers. If social ties among talent buyers are used to manage the uncertainty associated with innovation in creative industries (e.g., Becker, 1982; Caves, 2000), we should see more similarities in the choices made by original talent buyers than cover buyers.

To explore this question, we use 18 months of entertainment listings to measure how many bands are shared by nightclubs in each sector. Using the nightclub type variable collected during interviews, we partition the market into two niches (original clubs and cover clubs) and compare the extent of band sharing both within and between niches. Fig. 3 presents a blockmodel of band sharing within and between niches which confirms our expectation that information sharing leads to increased overlap in choices among original clubs. In the cover market niche, clubs share an average of 0.21 bands—whereas in the market niche for original clubs, the clubs share an average

of 13.0 bands. Perhaps more importantly, the average amount of band sharing between niches is only 0.86 suggesting that there is relatively little overlap between the cover and original markets.

In summary, we find that talent buyers for local rock bands in Boston define market niches in terms of whether clubs offer bands that create novel versus familiar music for audiences. These market niches contain very different gatekeeper search and selection strategies. Table 3 summarizes the differences between these two market niches. In the cover niche, nightclubs use a strategy of repetition with bands that present familiar music. As a result, gatekeepers conduct narrow, relatively a-social searches and maintain close ties with a small number of bands. In contrast, the clubs in the original niche use a strategy of innovation by selecting bands that produce original music and book a greater variety of bands. Therefore, gatekeepers in this niche maintain diffuse networks with many different bands and embed themselves in dense information sharing networks containing other gatekeepers.

5. Discussion

Gatekeepers have long been described in research on art worlds (Becker, 1982) and on creative and cultural industries (Bystryn, 1989; Caves, 2000; Hirsch, 1972, 2000). These studies have examined how gatekeepers co-produce artists' personae (Peterson, 1997), manage ambiguity in the creative co-production process (e.g., Lingo and O'Mahony, 2010), use their roles in referral and support networks among artists themselves (Faulkner, 1983; Ridgeway, 1989)—as well as promote some cultural products and producers to manage uncertainty (Bielby and Bielby, 1994), attract attention (Shrum, 1991) or garner awards (Allen and Lincoln, 2004). Our study extends this work by revealing how gatekeepers during search and selection use categories, rely on social networks and influence product diversity within a market.

Our study reveals the importance of the emic categories of cover and original music in helping gatekeepers classify clubs, assign bands to clubs and thus shape who is given what opportunities where. Similar to Bystryn's (1989) study on New York art galleries, which focused on an original art niche, we find a high degree of sharing (both information and bands) within the original niche. Art worlds, whether they are comprised of art galleries or music clubs, apparently can be classified into niches representing novelty and variety, on the one hand, and repetition and predictability, on the other. In contrast to Bystryn's (1989) study, we find that there are different dynamics between artists and gatekeepers within cover and original niches and that these niches form distinct art worlds with little overlap in terms of their artists. An important future direction is where and how these distinct art worlds interpenetrate, as some new categories and emerging artists move from original niches to formally recognized genre categories and mass market niche over time.

Our study also highlights the role that social networks play in the search and selection strategies of gatekeepers in cultural industries. Although gatekeepers serve a critical function in these settings by connecting artistic creators with audiences, and social networks are believed to be an important part of this process, we are not aware of any systematic studies on how networks function in gatekeeper search and selection processes. In contrast to research on embeddedness, which looks at the concentration of exchanges among buyers and sellers, we look simultaneously at ties among gatekeepers and bands, as well as at the information networks among gatekeepers themselves. When we compare ties *between* gatekeepers and bands and *among* gatekeepers themselves in the two market niches of cover and original bands, these network structures are reversed. Gatekeepers in the novel market – bands producing original music – are embedded in dense information and band sharing networks with their competitors but maintain arm's length exchanges with many different bands. In contrast, gatekeepers in the market for substitutable

511 products – bands producing familiar music – have arm’s length relations with their competitors
512 and close relations with their bands.

513 The finding of arms’ length ties between gatekeepers and bands in the original market is
514 particularly surprising given prior research in economic sociology and transaction cost
515 economics, which argues that original bands should be associated with more uncertainty that
516 favors integration or management via close repetitive exchanges (Uzzi, 1996; Williamson,
517 1985). Here we find the opposite: Gatekeepers who book original bands – whose quality
518 should be harder to evaluate and many of whom have yet to demonstrate mass appeal – use
519 arm’s length ties between with the bands (between buyers and sellers), but close ties among
520 their competitors. From an informational standpoint, original talent buyers seem to adopt a
521 strategy of optimizing for saturation that “minimizes the risk of losing effective contact with
522 the cluster and reduces the risk of missing an important opportunity anywhere in the cluster”
523 (Burt, 1992, p. 25). These redundant networks also provide control benefits for original talent
524 buyers who share relatively detailed performance data about various bands. Multiple and
525 overlapping strong ties among buyers prevent sellers from playing one buyer off against
526 another. Perhaps most importantly, these cooperative information sharing networks help to
527 identify and diffuse emerging cultural trends—thereby simultaneously serving cognitive,
528 cultural and governance functions. Network governance theory (Jones et al., 1997) helps
529 explain this pattern because of its prediction that ties among buyers can reduce uncertainty by
530 spreading information about opportunistic actors and producer quality while also diffusing
531 cultural norms and practices.

532 By demonstrating how informational networks among buyers structure the Boston market
533 niche for original bands, we broaden the scope of the embeddedness paradigm that has typically
534 focused on close ties between buyers and sellers (Uzzi, 1997) and paid relatively less attention to
535 ties among buyers. Our findings suggests that ties between buyers may substitute for close ties
536 between buyers and sellers in that both can be used to reduce uncertainties associated with
537 markets and product uncertainties. This supports recent work arguing that the value of different
538 kinds of social ties may vary across industry types (Rowley et al., 2000) and that niche markets
539 favor high levels of embeddedness among potential competitors (Echols and Tsai, 2005). It also
540 suggests that future research cannot simply trace exchange networks, as these networks miss the
541 informal and informational ties that bind competitors together in a market and allow them to
542 manage uncertainty.

543 Our third contribution focuses on the amount of diversity in the market as a whole. Although
544 there have been a number of studies looking at how market factors like concentration impacts the
545 output diversity of creative industries (Dowd, 2004; Peterson and Berger, 1975), we explore how
546 meso-level information and exchange networks aggregate over time align with variations in
547 diversity across two market niches. Specifically, we show that niches containing more
548 information sharing among competitors also contain more product sharing. As a result, in the
549 market for novel and diverse products, there is much greater sharing of bands among different
550 clubs than there is in the market for familiar and predictable ones, which tend to have repeated
551 and exclusive exchanges with a small number of bands that play similar mass market music. At
552 first glance, this finding seems strange. In a market for novel products, we would expect higher
553 degrees of variation in the booking of bands across different organizations as each seeks to
554 distinguish itself from the others along some narrow set of dimensions. However, in this market,
555 consumer demands for diversity require that original clubs engage in a relatively high level of
556 variety in bands from night to night who play diverse music and which, over time, drive original
557 clubs to share these bands.
558

6. Conclusion

This is the first study we know of that looks directly at how gatekeepers in creative industries use their social networks to manage complex search and decision making processes. We demonstrate that gatekeepers manage this process through complex networks of information sharing and exchange. This article joins recent work arguing that the benefits of social networks are contingent on organizational and historical contexts (Mizruchi et al., 2006; Rowley et al., 2000). We extend this work by linking cultural, economic and cognitive perspectives on markets and comparing perceived similarities among nightclubs, the information sharing networks of talent buyers, and market level diversity and sharing of cultural producers resulting from their exchanges.

We also confirm a core prediction of network governance theory (Jones et al., 1997) by demonstrating that networks among buyers serve governance functions by disseminating tacit information about producers' performance and serve cultural functions by disseminating information about emerging artists, genres and trends. This has important implications for the embeddedness research program. Because this research typically looks at ties between buyers and sellers, it may overlook how information sharing among buyers can substitute for close ties between buyers and sellers in coordinating exchanges under conditions of uncertainty. It certainly suggests that future research should consider how information flows among members on the same side of a market (e.g., among buyers) can affect exchanges between buyers and sellers.

Moreover, we demonstrated that there is a high degree of correspondence among individual and intra-organizational networks in a market for local rock bands. Specifically, the cultural categories that are used to distinguish among clubs by individuals are both widely shared and also reflect meaningful differences among organizational strategies and social networks. By identifying how nightclub talent buyers use emergent cultural classification schemes and social networks to manage search and selection processes, we deepen our understanding of the organizational boundary spanners who scan help organizations manage innovation in markets characterized by turbulence, uncertainty and emergent cultural evaluation criteria (Bielby and Bielby, 1994; Peterson and Berger, 1971). By showing how gatekeeper social networks, search strategies and product sharing varies across market niches defined by the innovativeness of their products, we move towards a contingency theory of gatekeepers in creative industries.

Uncited references

Borgatti et al. (1999), Haunschild and Beckman (1998), Hsu and Podolny (2005), and Romney et al. (1986).

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Fulton 214 (Erica Foldy, Danna Greenberg, Tammy MacLean, Peter Rivard, Steve Taylor, and Jenny Rudolph) and the anonymous reviewers of earlier versions of this manuscript for their constructive and insightful suggestions.

References

Allen, M.P., Lincoln, A.E., 2004. Critical discourse and the cultural consecration of American films. *Social Forces* 82, 871–894.

- 598 Anand, N., Peterson, R.A., 2000. When market information constitutes fields: sensemaking of markets in the commercial
599 music industry. *Organization Science* 11, 270–284.
- 600 Becker, H.S., 1982. *Art Worlds*. University of California Press, Berkeley, CA.
- 601 Bielby, W.T., Bielby, D.D., 1994. “All hits are flukes”: institutionalized decision-making and the rhetoric of network
602 prime-time program development. *American Journal of Sociology* 99, 1287–1313.
- 603 Borgatti, S.P., 1992. *Anthropac 4.0*. Analytic Technologies, Natick, MA.
- 604 Borgatti, S.P., Everett, M.G., Freeman, L.C., 1999. *UCINET: Software for Social Network Analysis*, vol. 5. Analytic
605 Technologies, Natick, MA.
- 606 Bryson, B., 1992. Anything but heavy metal: symbolic exclusion and musical dislikes. *American Sociological Review* 61,
607 884–899.
- 608 Burt, R., 1992. *Structural Holes: The Social Structure of Competition*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- 609 Bystryn, M., 1989. Art galleries as gatekeepers: the case of the abstract expressionists. In: Foster, A., Blau, J. (Eds.), *Art
610 and Society: Readings in the Sociology of the Arts*. State University of New York Press, Albany, NY, pp. 177–190.
- 611 Caves, R.E., 2000. *Creative Industries*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- 612 Cheyne, A., Binder, A., 2010. Cosmopolitan preferences: the constitutive role of place in American elite taste for hip-hop
613 music, 1991–2005. *Poetics* 38, 336–364.
- 614 Collins, R., 1981. On the microfoundations of macrosociology. *American Journal of Sociology* 86, 984–1014.
- 615 Crossley, N., 2009. The man whose web expanded: network dynamics in Manchester’s post/punk music scene 1976–1980.
616 *Poetics* 37, 24–49.
- 617 Davis, G., 1991. Agents without principles: the spread of the poison pill through the intercorporate network.
618 *Administrative Science Quarterly* 36, 583–613.
- 619 DiMaggio, P., 1987. Classification in art. *American Sociological Review* 52, 440–455.
- 620 DiMaggio, P., Louch, H., 1998. Socially embedded consumer transactions: for what kinds of purchases do people most
621 often use networks? *American Sociological Review* 63, 619–637.
- 622 Dowd, T.J., 2004. Concentration and diversity revisited: production logics and the U.S. mainstream recording market,
623 1940–1990. *Social Forces* 82, 1413–1455.
- 624 Echols, A., Tsai, W., 2005. Niche and performance: the moderating role of network embeddedness. *Strategic Management
625 Journal* 26, 219–238.
- 626 Eisenhardt, K.M., Graebner, M.E., 2007. Theory building from cases: opportunities and challenges. *Academy of
627 Management Journal* 50, 25–32.
- 628 Elsbach, K.D., Kramer, R.M., 2003. Assessing creativity in Hollywood pitch meetings: evidence for a dual process model
629 of creativity judgments. *Academy of Management Journal* 46, 283–301.
- 630 Faulkner, R.R., 1983. *Music on Demand: Composers and Careers in the Hollywood Film Industry*. Transaction Books,
631 New Brunswick, NJ.
- 632 Glaser, B., Strauss, A., 1967. *Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. Aldine de Gruyter, New
633 York.
- 634 Glynn, M.A., Lounsbury, M., 2005. From the critics’ corner: logic blending, discursive change and authenticity in a
635 cultural production system. *Journal of Management Studies* 42, 1031–1055.
- 636 Gould, R.V., Fernandez, R.M., 1989. Structures of mediation: a formal approach to brokerage in transaction networks.
637 *Sociological Methodology* 19, 89–126.
- 638 Griswold, W., 2004. *Cultures and Societies in a Changing World*. Pine Forge Press, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- 639 Grazian, D., 2003. *Blue Chicago: The Search for Authenticity in Urban Blues Clubs*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- 640 Haunschild, P.R., Beckman, C.M., 1998. When do interlocks matter? Alternate sources of information and interlock
641 influence. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 43, 815–844.
- 642 Hirsch, P., 1972. Processing fads and fashions: an organization-set analysis of cultural industry systems. *American Journal
643 of Sociology* 77, 639–659.
- 644 Hirsch, P., 2000. Cultural industries revisited. *Organization Science* 11, 356–361.
- 645 Hsu, G., 2006. Jacks of all trades and masters of none: audiences’ reactions to spanning genres in feature film production.
646 *Administrative Science Quarterly* 51, 420–450.
- 647 Hsu, G., Hannan, M.T., 2005. Identities, genres, and organizational forms. *Organization Science* 16, 474–490.
- 648 Hsu, G., Podolny, J., 2005. Critiquing the critics: an approach for the comparative evaluation of critical schemas. *Social
649 Science Research* 34, 189–214.
- 650 Ingram, P., Roberts, P., 2000. Friendships among competitors in the Sydney hotel industry. *American Journal of Sociology
651* 106, 387–423.
- 652 Janssen, S., 1997. Reviewing as social practice: institutional constraints on critics’ attention for contemporary fiction.
653 *Poetics* 24, 275–297.
- 654

654
655
656
657
658
659
660
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668
669
670
671
672
673
674
675
676
677
678
679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686
687
688
689
690
691
692
693
694
695
696
697
698
699
700
701
702
703
704
705
706
707
708
709
710

- Jones, C., Hesterly, W.S., Borgatti, S.P., 1997. A general theory of network governance: exchange conditions and social mechanisms. *Academy of Management Journal* 22, 911–945.
- Jones, C., Maoret, M., Massa, F.-G., Svejnova, S., 2011. Rebels with a cause: creation, contestation and expansion of the de novo category “Modern Architecture,” 1900–1975. Working Manuscript, Boston College.
- Kruskal, J.B., 1964. Multidimensional scaling by optimizing goodness of fit to a nonmetric hypothesis. *Psychometrika* 29, 1–27.
- Kruskal, J.B., Wish, M., 1978. *Multidimensional Scaling*. Sage, Newbury Park, CA.
- Lingo, E.L., O’Mahony, S., 2010. Nexus work: brokerage and creative projects. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 55, 47–81.
- Lopes, P.D., 1992. Innovation and diversity in the popular music industry, 1969 to 1990. *American Sociological Review* 57, 46–71.
- Mizruchi, M.S., Stearns, L.B., Marquis, C., 2006. The conditional nature of embeddedness: a study of borrowing by large U.S. firms, 1973–1994. *American Sociological Review* 71, 310–333.
- Mohr, J.W., 1998. Measuring meaning structures. *Annual Review of Sociology* 24, 345–370.
- Peterson, R.A., Berger, D.G., 1971. Entrepreneurship in organizations: evidence from the popular music industry. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 16, 97–107.
- Peterson, R.A., Berger, D.G., 1975. Cycles in symbol production: the case of popular music. *American Sociological Review* 40, 158–173.
- Peterson, R.A., 1997. *Creating Country Music: Fabricating Authenticity*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- Ridgeway, S., 1989. Artist groups: patrons and gate-keepers. In: Foster, A., Blau, J. (Eds.), *Art and Society: Readings in the Sociology of the Arts*. State University of New York Press, Albany, NY, pp. 205–220.
- Romney, K.A., Weller, S.C., Batchelder, W.H., 1986. Culture as consensus: theory of culture and informant accuracy. *American Anthropologist* 88, 313–338.
- Rowley, T., Behrens, D., Krackhardt, D., 2000. Redundant governance structures: an analysis of structural and relational embeddedness in the steel industry and semiconductors industries. *Strategic Management Journal* 21, 369–386.
- Ryan, J., 2000. The production and consumption of culture: essays on Richard A. Peterson’s contributions to cultural sociology. *Poetics* 28, 91–96.
- Shrum, W., 1991. Critics and publics: cultural mediation in highbrow and popular performing arts. *American Journal of Sociology* 97, 347–375.
- Spradley, J., 1979. *The Ethnographic Interview*. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, New York.
- Starkey, K., Barnatt, C., Tempest, S., 2000. Beyond networks and hierarchies: latent organizations in the U.K. television industry. *Organization Science* 11, 299–305.
- Strang, D., Meyer, J.W., 1993. Institutional conditions for diffusion. *Theory and Society* 22, 487–511.
- Strauss, C., Quinn, N., 1997. *A Cognitive Theory of Cultural Meaning*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Uzzi, B., 1997. Social structure and competition in interfirm networks: the paradox of embeddedness. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 42, 35–67.
- Uzzi, B., 1999. Embeddedness in the making of financial capital: how social relations and networks benefit firms seeking financing. *American Sociological Review* 64, 481–505.
- Uzzi, B., Spiro, J., 2005. Collaboration and creativity: the small world problem. *American Journal of Sociology* 111, 447–504.
- Weller, S.C., Romney, A.K., 1988. *Systematic Data Collection*. Sage, Newbury Park, CA.
- Williamson, O.E., 1985. *The Economic Institutions of Capitalism: Firms, Markets and Relational Contracting*. Free Press, New York.
- Zuckerman, E.W., Kim, T.-Y., Ukanwa, K., Rittmann, J.V., 2003. Robust identities or nonentities? Typecasting in the feature-film labor market. *American Journal of Sociology* 108, 1018–1074.

Pacey Foster is an assistant professor in the management department at the University of Massachusetts, Boston. His research interests include social networks, cultural intermediaries and creative industries. His most recent work focuses on regional competitive dynamics in the film, television and electronic games industries. He received his Ph.D. in organization studies from the Wallace E. Carroll School of Management at Boston College.

Stephen P. Borgatti is the Paul Chellgren Chair of management at the Gatton College of Business and Economics at the University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY. His research interests include social networks and knowledge management. His work has appeared in *Science*, *Social Networks* and a variety of management journals, including *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *Academy of Management Review* and *Organization Science*. He received his Ph.D. in Mathematical Social Science from the University of California, Irvine.

709
710
711
712
713
714
715
716

Candace Jones is an associate professor of management in the Organization Studies Department at Boston College. She received her Ph.D. from the University of Utah. Her current research focuses on institutional logics and the influence of semantic, social and symbolic networks on cultural understandings and institutional change in creative industries and creative professionals. She has published in *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Organization Science*, *Organization Studies*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior* and *Management Learning*, as well as numerous book chapters. She has co-edited special issues for *Journal of Management Studies*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior* and *Research in the Sociology of Organizations*.

UNCORRECTED PROOF