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Intrapreneurial behavior and in-role job performance across organizational ecosystems in tourism and hospitality

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Abstract

Despite its potential, corporate entrepreneurship, and its related concept, intrapreneurial behavior (IB), is a relatively recent area of interest for researchers in tourism and hospitality. In addition, the attention given to the contribution of IB to individual-level performance is surprisingly scarce due to extant research focusing largely on firm-level performance. We address those gaps using a sample of 95 tourism and hospitality firms. Results suggest that in-role job performance is high when IB is also high. Theoretically, results highlight the role of internal agency. Practical implications give additional evidence for managers to consider the strategic role of IB.

KEYWORDS

corporate entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial proclivity, intrapreneurial behavior, intrapreneurship, job performance, tourism and hospitality

1 | INTRODUCTION

The entrepreneurial activities of established firms are usually called corporate entrepreneurship (CE), “a type of proactive behavior that can stimulate desired innovation” (Kuratko et al., 2005, p. 699), which may assume many forms. Our research focuses on the form of CE (at the individual level), hereafter referred to as intrapreneurial behavior (IB). IB is a discretionary individual extra-role behavior that intends to benefit the organization. It is related to extra-role behavior, which differs from in-role performance, related to an employee's expected job duties. Therefore, intrapreneurs are “employees who proactively engage in actions outside their usual job description with the intention to innovate” (Calisto & Sarkar, 2017b, p. 46). Intrapreneurs could be the CEO, top management team, middle managers, or even operational employees (Ma et al., 2016). IB is not exclusive to “champion intrapreneurs”; it may translate into a generalized behavior across all levels of the organization, a form of “collective entrepreneurship” (Ribeiro-Soriano & Urbano, 2009).

The contribution of intrapreneurs to innovation and a wider scope of a firm's business portfolio (Burgelman, 1983) has been recognized early in the CE literature. Since then, many scholars have established that for organizations to adapt successfully and proactively act upon environmental opportunities, the entrepreneurial activities of intrapreneurs are important (e.g., Miles et al., 2010). However, despite its potential for tourism and hospitality (T&H), especially considering the role of innovation for T&H firms (Mattsson & Orfila-Sintes, 2014), CE (and IB as one of its forms) has surprisingly provoked little interest from T&H researchers. Furthermore, the lack of theoretical underpinnings in CE agency in T&H has been a matter of concern. In their literature review, Fu et al. (2019, p. 2) suggest that T&H “entrepreneurship is currently rich in practice but poor in theoretical development” and call for future research to be focused on subfields of entrepreneurship literature applied to T&H.

Along similar lines, in a previous review of the literature on entrepreneurship in T&H, Solvoll et al. (2015) explicitly propose CE in T&H firms as an area for future research. Similarly, Calisto and Sarkar

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(2017a) suggest that the relationship between IB and innovation is stronger in the service sectors than in other sectors. However, to the best of our knowledge, since the seminal research on CE in T&H published in 2004 (see Altinay, 2004; Altinay & Altinay, 2004), less than 20 studies available at WoS have explicitly addressed the topic of CE in T&H, at least in medium/high-impact journals. Of these, only 13 papers focus on intrapreneurs. Considering that intrapreneurs are a powerful source of innovation, as increasingly recognized by researchers, it is surprising that in the T&H, which is relatively labor-intensive (OECD, 2008), research on the topic is still scarce. Despite that slow start, its importance is becoming more evident, with a significant increase in publications since 2015.

Most studies of intrapreneurial agency address its positive impact at the organizational level. Those studies stress the contribution of intrapreneurs to innovativeness (Bierwerth et al., 2015), firm growth (Antoncic, 2007), and firm overall performance (Belousova & Gailly, 2013; Bierwerth et al., 2015). However, far less attention has been given in the literature to the contribution of intrapreneurs to individual-level performance, namely in what concerns in-role job performance (JP; Blanka, 2019). Therefore, individual-level performance studies have been deemed necessary to advance the field (Belousova & Gailly, 2013). Additionally, since IB is an extra-role behavior, it might negatively affect in-role performance (Elert & Stenkula, 2020). Intrapreneurial initiatives have been found to have both a beneficial and a disadvantageous relationship to JP. According to Gawke et al. (2018), it depends on employees' reward and punishment sensitivity. Other scholars have found that an internal ecosystem conducive to the workforce behaving intrapreneurially will lead to higher JP through higher IB (Ahmad et al., 2012). These results highlight the relevance of the interaction between the organizational ecosystem and individual traits.

In fact, IB is more dependent on organizational resources and influences than other forms of work behavior. These include access to funding and decision authority (Hornsby et al., 2009) and the explicit expectations of the management (Hornsby et al., 2013). These characteristics have led to further calls for studies addressing the interrelatedness of IB with organizational characteristics (Gawke et al., 2017).

Subsequent to these concerns, in our study, we strive to advance knowledge on entrepreneurship in T&H, addressing the two gaps in the literature discussed above: (1) studying the relationship between IB and in-role JP; and (2) doing so across different types of organizational ecosystems. The following question guides our research—*how do employees' in-role JP differ across organizational types of entrepreneurial ecosystems?* Based on a sample of 95 T&H firms, using cluster analysis, we started by studying whether the three main organizational archetypes of entrepreneurial ecosystems, following Calisto and Sarkar (2017b), applied to T&H firms. Following its confirmation, which in itself is a relevant contribution of our work, we then study the differences between those archetypes concerning employees' in-role JP. We conclude that in-role JP is higher in T&H organizational ecosystems where there is a high level of IB across the workforce and even higher when matched with high levels of the entrepreneurial proclivity of the firm.

Our study makes several contributions. First, we provide a contextualized approach (in this case, in T&H) to CE, as called for by leading authors in the field (Zahra, 2007). Second, our results support the existence of three organizational archetypes of entrepreneurial activity in T&H and of differences between those archetypes in what concerns the role of individuals within the organizational context, thus answering the call for clarifying the “internal processes of how CE evolves, is adopted, and is successful” (Corbett et al., 2013, p. 816). Third, we contribute to entrepreneurship studies in T&H, spotlighting the role of internal agency and suggesting differences in terms of the interaction between EP and IB in the case of T&H. Finally, our results suggest that in T&H, the intrapreneurial activities of T&H employees do not conflict with their in-role tasks, quite the opposite.

Concerning practical implications, our work suggests that T&H managers who face highly competitive environments should consider the strategic role of IB, namely its positive effects on product innovation and customer satisfaction, without concerns about significant negative impacts on in-role JP.

Our paper is organized as follows. The next section addresses organizational archetypes concerning entrepreneurial activity, following Calisto and Sarkar's (2017b) empirical testing of Burgelman's (1983) propositions. In that section, we also address its relevance to T&H and its relation to in-role JP, deriving three propositions to be tested. The method and findings sections follow. The paper concludes with a discussion of results, presenting theoretical and practical implications and suggestions for future research.

2 | JP ACROSS ORGANIZATIONAL ARCHETYPES OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITY

2.1 | Entrepreneurial activity within organizations: The roles of top-down and bottom-up influences

The role of top management in CE is well documented in the literature (Boone et al., 2019; Heavey & Simsek, 2013), as well as the importance of the link between a firm's entrepreneurial orientation or proclivity (Dess & Lumpkin, 2005; Montoya et al., 2017), and organizational performance (Dess & Lumpkin, 2005; Wang & Yen, 2012). Although some contradictory empirical results exist, a meta-analysis by Rauch et al. (2009) confirms a positive relationship.

Firms' entrepreneurial orientation, or proclivity, has been described as the primary driver of CE. It can play along three dimensions: innovativeness, risk-taking, and proactiveness. Innovativeness means the firm is focused on discovering new opportunities and solutions that could lead to new products/services or processes (Dess & Lumpkin, 2005). Risk-taking relates to the firm's readiness to participate in risky ventures and commit an essential proportion of resources to projects with uncertain results and/or borrowing heavily. Proactiveness is an opportunity-seeking, forward-looking perspective where the firm acts ahead of the competition by introducing new products or services and anticipating future demand (Lumpkin & Dess, 2001).

Extant research on CE in T&H is still scarce. With a few exceptions, it is primarily developed in the hospitality sector, focusing on the firm's entrepreneurial orientation. Similarly to the general literature, in the hospitality context entrepreneurial orientation is positively associated with firm performance, namely sales per room, total sales, the profit margin on sales, occupancy rate (Carvalho et al., 2016), profit, sales, and market share (Tajeddini, 2010, 2015), as well as to profitability, return-on-investment, return-on-sales, and return-on-assets (Tajeddini, 2010, 2015). Additionally, in hospitality, the entrepreneurial orientation of the firm positively impacts innovativeness (Tajeddini, 2010), and CE and innovation have been shown to predict customer value (Nasution & Mavondo, 2008) and to enhance the positive relationship between social capital and financial performance (Dai et al., 2015). The effect of the entrepreneurial orientation of hotel firms on performance is even higher in quality-certified hotels (Hernández-Perlines, 2016).

Entrepreneurial proclivity affects managers and lower-level employees differently, requiring senior management to provide the right environment and leadership to support entrepreneurial activities at the operational level. This role of senior managers usually translates into empowerment and sponsorship (Kelley & Lee, 2010).

Despite the recent attention in CE scholarship on the role of employee-level agency implying bottom-up influences (Neessen et al., 2019), their importance in the CE process was identified by seminal authors a few decades ago. According to Burgelman (1984), “autonomous strategic initiatives” exist when “entrepreneurial participants, at the product/market level, conceive new business opportunities, engage in project championing efforts to mobilize corporate resources for these new opportunities and perform strategic forcing efforts to create momentum for their further development” (p. 156). Later, Kuratko et al. (2005) describe IB as actions by an organization's members relating to discovering, evaluating, and exploiting entrepreneurial opportunities.

In his study of the internationalization process of hotel chains, Altinay (2004) argues that intrapreneurs face the dilemma of working hard towards organizational growth by exploiting their entrepreneurial skills. He also found that “top management might need to demonstrate the willingness to suffer some loss of control, give more ownership to their representatives in different country markets.” (p. 441). These results suggest that in T&H, there is also a two-way process, as found in the general CE literature. Heinonen and Toivonen (2007) later confirmed this possibility, proposing that CE includes top-down and bottom-up influences. Recently, Do and Luu (2020) concluded that in T&H, entrepreneurial orientation (top-down) and intrapreneurial agency (bottom-up) are significantly correlated.

2.2 | Archetypes of entrepreneurial activity

In his seminal work, Burgelman (1983) proposed the possibility of the existence of paradoxical situations where “entrepreneurial initiatives emerge but top management has no interest in them”; or “top management's interest is not matched by a significant number of

entrepreneurial initiatives” (p. 1356). Despite the strong impact of Burgelman's pioneering work, it was not until recently that researchers empirically addressed this possibility put forward by Burgelman (1983). In their empirical inquiry, Calisto and Sarkar (2017b) found the existence of firms where at least one of the paradoxes advanced by Burgelman (1983) exists. The authors use the entrepreneurial orientation/proclivity (EP) of the firm as the measure of “top management's interest” (Burgelman, 1983, p. 1356) and IB as a measure of “entrepreneurial initiatives at the operational level” (Burgelman, 1983, p. 1349).

Theoretically, when considering the levels of top-down (i.e., EP) and bottom-up influences (i.e., IB) in established firms, one might arrive at four conceptual possibilities, as illustrated in Figure 1. These are: high EP + low IB; high EP + high IB; low EP + low IB; low EP + high IB.

Calisto and Sarkar (2017b) proposed metaphors for communication purposes when referring to these four conceptual types of firms. Their metaphors relate firms (i.e., a community of employees living in a specific organizational climate) with biomes found in the natural environment (i.e., a community of fauna and flora in specific environmental conditions). Following Calisto and Sarkar (2017b), (1) “prairie” is a metaphor for firms where EP is high but IB is low—i.e., a favorable climate for entrepreneurial activity but still a small intrapreneurial community; (2) “chaparral” is a metaphor for firms here EP is low but IB is high—i.e., unfavorable climate for entrepreneurial activity but still with a relevant intrapreneurial community; (3) “tropical rainforest” is a metaphor for firms where both EP and IB are high—i.e., firms with a favorable climate for entrepreneurial activity and a rich community of intrapreneurs; and, (4) “tundra” is a metaphor for firms where both EP and IP are low—i.e., firms with unfavorable climate for entrepreneurial activity and an inexistent, or small, intrapreneurial community.

Calisto and Sarkar's (2017b) study is relevant because it solves the paradoxes Burgelman (1983) proposed. It also uncovers empirical evidence of three conceptual types of their four initially proposed—validating the evidence of “rainforests,” “tundras,” and “chaparrals.” Although the theoretical situation where high EP would be matched

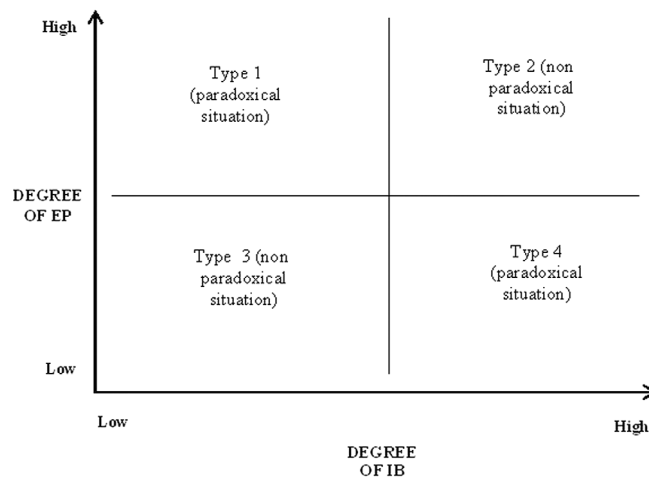


FIGURE 1 Types of organizational ecosystems (theoretically)

with low IB (“prairies”) was not confirmed in that study, its absence has relevant theoretical and practical implications, emphasizing the relevance of top-down influences. Although not a necessary condition (as the existence of “chaparral” firms suggests), “EP is a sufficient condition, meaning that as long as managers communicate an entrepreneurial strategic orientation, IB will follow” (Calisto & Sarkar, 2017b, p. 53).

2.3 | Relevance of the archetypes of entrepreneurial activity for T&H and its relation to employee in-role JP

2.3.1 | Tundra and Tropical Rainforest archetypes in T&H

With regards to the top-down influences, Dai et al. (2015), Do and Luu (2020), and Tajeddini (2015), have all argued for the need for hotel managers to foster an entrepreneurial culture/innovation climate and to enhance the firm's entrepreneurial orientation. Nasution et al. (2011) found that a hotel's entrepreneurial orientation positively impacts innovation and customer value. Similarly, in their study of nature-based tourism micro-enterprises, Nybakk and Hansen (2008) also found that firms that were more risk-seeking and with a positive opportunity recognition orientation were more likely to innovate, enhancing performance.

Nasution and Mavondo (2008) address the entrepreneurial activity of a firm as an organizational form characterized by freedom and autonomy and by a managerial strategy that stimulates IB. In line with this idea, Nasution et al. (2011) found that the entrepreneurial agency contributes more toward innovation in hotel firms with good human resource practices. Burgess (2013) also explains how organizational structure and systems, leadership, and communication, may facilitate the intrapreneurial process in the hospitality sector. In their study of the relationship between CE and strategic management, Li et al. (2009) argued that environmental scanning, flexible planning, and broad locus of planning would encourage CE, while strategic control does not. It might be the case that fewer strategic controls in the hotel sector may generate more room for bottom-up influences. Similarly, Do and Luu (2020) argue that bottom-up influences depend on the employee's perception of the firm's entrepreneurial orientation.

These empirical results in the recently growing literature on CE in T&H suggest that firms in these sectors vary in terms of top-down and bottom-up influences on CE, impacting both innovation and performance. While some T&H firms have a higher level of EP, others will have a lower level. Even more importantly, T&H firms with a higher level of EP tend to show higher IB, and T&H firms with lower EP tend to show lower IB. As argued by Nasution et al. (2011, p. 343), the “way employees are treated and empowered is strongly related to how they are willing to (...) engage with innovative approaches to serving the customer”. This idea resonates strongly with the archetypes discussed above, following Burgelman's (1983) seminal work, which Calisto and Sarkar (2017b) named “tropical rainforest” and “tundra” firms.

2.3.2 | Chaparral archetype

There are a few reasons to expect that chaparral firms may likely exist in T&H. First, because of the strategic role of frontline employees in T&H. In general, the strategic role of employees in service-sector firms has been well established in the services literature, primarily based on the “service-profit chain” model proposed in the 1990s (see Heskett et al., 2008). The literature on CE in T&H suggests extending the strategic role of employees to the CE process. The study by Li et al. (2009) demonstrates that within hotel firms, employees are essential to the entrepreneurial process, with Altinay and Altinay (2004) arguing that “the entrepreneurial spirit in organizations involves a great deal of human dynamics” (p. 342). Nasution and Mavondo (2008) found that if hotel employees are more proactive concerning customer needs and willing to embrace risks (i.e., higher IB), they deliver more value to customers. The closer the “interaction between the hotel staff and their customers, the greater the opportunity to enhance value to customers' experiences.” (Nasution et al., 2011, p. 341).

Second, the T&H literature also suggests that there are antecedents of IB that pertain to individuals (intrapreneurs) and not the organization. For Altinay (2004), country-based intrapreneurs play a critical role because of their local knowledge and responsiveness due to their entrepreneurial skills. For instance, in their study of Chinese women intrapreneurs, Zhang et al. (2020) found that personal context-specific networks facilitate IB. Demographic variables and employees' behavioral factors (subjective norms, attitude towards intrapreneurship, and perceived behavioral control) have also been found relevant to explain IB (Do & Luu, 2020). Therefore, IB may vary, independent of organizational conditions, because of the intrinsic characteristics of employees. The possibility of existing intrapreneurial initiatives in T&H, even if there is no appropriate support from top management, has been suggested in the T&H literature. According to Altinay and Altinay (2004), in some firms, intrapreneurs exist, but they face a centralized decision-making structure that limits new ways of thinking. Similarly, Burgess (2013, p. 193) argues that centralization makes it difficult for intrapreneurs to communicate “issues and ideas to senior management, affecting their ability to be innovative and to take risks on behalf of the hotel.”

From the arguments above, we propose the following:

Proposition 1. In T&H, Tundra, Tropical Rainforest, and Chaparral archetypes of entrepreneurial activity exist.

2.3.3 | JP across archetypes

As we had discussed earlier, IB among employees has been mostly associated with positive results. At the organizational level, the positive results are usually objective profitability and better firm performance (e.g., Zahra & Garvis, 2000). At the level of the individual, the outcome is often related to higher job satisfaction and greater commitment to the workplace (Holt et al., 2007). Although there is less empirical evidence on the consequences of IB on in-role performance,

job satisfaction and affective commitment might mediate the relationship. Both satisfaction and commitment represent a pleasurable or favorable emotional state derived from an evaluation of one's job or job experiences and an employee's emotional attachment to his or her organization and have been related to higher motivation levels (Meyer et al., 2004), which leads to higher JP among the employees (Steers et al., 2004). Similar results have also been found in hospitality (Luo et al., 2021).

Additionally, intrapreneurial activities can result in new knowledge, experience, and self-insights. As pointed out by Calisto (2018), intrapreneurs learn by doing. They can increase both the task variety and skill variety of work (Clegg & Spencer, 2007)—factors known to foster work engagement (Bakker, 2011) and, therefore, JP.

However, assuming that the archetypes of entrepreneurial activity vary in the resources they make available to intrapreneurial activities, one would expect that in Tropical Rainforest firms, employees would reveal higher levels of JP. The reason is that in such an ecosystem, employees have sufficient resources available at work, including resources for in- and extra-role activities. Therefore, they would experience higher levels of work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Previous research has confirmed a positive relationship between work engagement, in-role performance, and innovativeness (e.g., Christian et al., 2011). More recently, Gawke et al. (2017) have shown that high levels of work engagement will lead to higher levels of intrapreneurial activity and JP. From this, we propose the following:

Proposition 2. In organizational ecosystems that foster entrepreneurial activity (Tropical Rainforest), employee in-role JP will be higher than in ecosystems that do not (Tundra and Chaparral).

Various studies engaging in proactive work behavior have shown results that may suggest possible negative implications on in-role JP. For instance, Bolino and Turnley (2005) found that employee initiative is positively associated with employee role overload, job stress, and work–family conflict. Bolino et al. (2015) found that engaging in organizational citizenship behavior is related to higher fatigue levels over time. Similarly, Antoncic and Hisrich (2003) found that IB might imply extra working hours and responsibilities that do not always contribute to achieving formal work goals. Additionally, when intrapreneurial projects fail, that might evoke negative reactions in employees (Shepherd et al., 2011). Considering these results suggested by extant literature, we argue that if there are situations where IB might harm JP, that will be more so if employees do not have the support of the organization. Notwithstanding, in the face of the low EP of the firm and the balance between the positive and the negative impacts of IB on JP, firms with higher IB will tend to show higher overall JP than firms with low IB. From these, we derive the following proposition:

Proposition 3. In organizational ecosystems that do not foster entrepreneurial activity but where IB is still high (Chaparral), employee in-role JP will be higher than in an ecosystem characterized by low levels of IB (Tundra).

3 | METHOD

3.1 | Sample

We chose to study T&H firms in Portugal to accomplish our research goal. Collecting data from one country minimizes the possibility of differences between firms resulting from the national macro context. This choice is important because there is a consensus that a firm's proclivity towards entrepreneurial activity tends to manifest differently as a function of the contextual environment (Wales et al., 2019).

Our choice of Portugal was also influenced due to its increasing relevance as a prime tourism destination, not just at the European level. Portugal ranked 16th globally in the Travel & Tourism Development Index (World Economic Forum, 2022) in 2021; it was voted the Leading Destination in Europe for four consecutive years (2017–2020) and again in 2022 at World Travel Awards.¹ Additionally, since 2014 Portugal's GDP growth has shown an upwards trend, such that from 2017 to 2019, the country had GDP growth rates above the EU average (Eurostat, 2022). In 2020 and 2021, the pandemic significantly affected the Portuguese economy due to the weight of Tourism in the country's GDP. However, forecasts for 2022 put Portugal again well above the average growth rate of the EU.

To induce our sample, we used the Portuguese Tourism National Registry (PTNR)¹, which includes different T&H sectors. A first email inviting to participate in the study was sent on July 2021, and then a reminder on September 2021. A total of 379 firms accepted participating in the study. We excluded firms with less than 10 employees from this initial sample because entrepreneurs from microenterprises in T&H are usually motivated by lifestyle and not growth (Lunnan et al., 2006). Furthermore, innovation in these firms happens mainly by adopting known products and processes (Nybakk & Hansen, 2008). This choice also follows the practice of community innovation surveys (CIS) in Europe. The final sample of 95 tourism firms is characterized in Table 1.

Concerning the T&H sectors represented in the sample, most firms belong to accommodation, but all sectors available from the

TABLE 1 Sample characterization: NACE code and firm size

	Frequency	Percent
<i>NACE code</i>		
49—Land transport ^a	4	4.2
55—Accommodation	59	62.1
79—Travel agency, tour operator	6	6.3
93—Amusement and recreation activities	9	9.5
Missing	17	17.9
<i>Firm size</i>		
Small (10–49 employees)	69	72.6
Medium-sized (50–249 employees)	20	21.1
Large (250 employees or more)	6	6.3

^aAlthough transportation is the main activity of these firms, they have secondary tourism-related activities, namely with NACE codes 79 or 93.

PTNR are represented. While the modal size is small, medium and large-sized firms are also represented. Both results are consistent with the demography of tourism firms in Portugal, where most (excluding microenterprises) are from the accommodation sector and are small in size.² The mean age of firms is 31 years (S.D. = 31.99), ranging from 1 year to 186 years.³ The characteristics of firms in the sample can potentially increase the robustness and generalizability of the findings.

We chose to rely on single key informants for our data collection. Respondents are CEO's/owners (14%), other managers/c-level executives (83%), middle-managers (3%). We targeted senior managers since they are considered the most knowledgeable regarding the firm's strategies, including its entrepreneurial proclivity (Covin & Wales, 2019) and the overall JP of the workforce. This is a common practice in the field (e.g., García-Morales et al., 2014; Kreiser et al., 2021). In order to maximize data accuracy and reliability, we followed Huber and Power's (1985) guidelines for obtaining quality data from single informants.

3.2 | Variables

In the first part of the study (i.e., confirming the three archetypes in T&H), the two main variables are EP and IB, which we employed to perform a cluster analysis. We follow Calisto and Sarkar's (2017b) choices for comparability reasons. Thus EP was measured using Matsuno et al.'s (2002) scale. Respondents rated their firm's EP using a 5-point Likert-type scale. In our sample, the items "We value the orderly and risk-reducing management process much more highly than leadership initiatives for change," "Top managers in this firm like to 'play it safe'," and "Top managers around here like to implement plans only if they are very certain that they will work" had to be removed from the EP scale since the factor loadings were not significant. After the removal of those items the confirmatory factor analysis presented the adjustment indexes within the critical values, standardized root mean square residuals below 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999)—SRMR = 0.036, comparative fit index (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and Tucker–Lewis index (Bentler & Bonett, 1980) above 0.9—CFI = 0.985 and TLI = 0.954. For the cluster analysis, a firm's EP score was calculated as the sum of all items retained. This is a common practice in the field (George, 2011).

Concerning IB, we used the Pearce II et al. (1997) scale, adapted by Calisto and Sarkar (2017b), to reflect how each behavior applies to the whole workforce as perceived by the manager. Respondents were asked to choose a Likert-type 5-point scale. A firm's score was calculated as the sum of all items. The confirmatory factor analysis presented SRMR = 0.053 and CFI = 0.905 within the critical values and TLI = 0.881, which is within a close margin to be considered acceptable.

Additionally, we included five variables to study the differentiation between clusters: firm size, firm age, innovation outcomes, and non-financial market performance. These variables will allow further comparison of the archetypes in T&H with those from Calisto and

Sarkar's (2017b) study. Firm size was measured in three ranks: 1—Small (from 10 to 49 employees); 2—Medium-sized (50–249 employees); 3—Large (250 employees or more). In the CE literature, there has been a call for integrating size-based differences in research designs since most studies focus on larger corporations (Nason et al., 2015). Firm age corresponds to the difference between 2021 and the year of the firm's foundation. In this case, the natural logarithm transformation was taken. In the literature, firm age has been negatively associated with intrapreneurship (Antoncic et al., 2001), but other studies have been inconclusive (Dunlap-Hinkler et al., 2011). Innovation outcomes were measured using subjective measures of product (which in these firms might translate into new services, new facilities, new travel packages, and similar) and process innovation (meaning new forms of developing operational activities). Many studies in the field have recognized the link between CE and innovation (Corbett et al., 2013; Kuratko et al., 2015). Finally, although Calisto and Sarkar (2017b) used financial performance measures, we opted to use non-financial market performance measures because, at the time of data collection, the financial performance of T&H firms was severely affected by exogenous variables, a consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic. Additionally, for T&H firms, there is evidence of the positive impact of CE on non-financial measures (Nasution et al., 2011; Nasution & Mavondo, 2008). One of the non-financial performance measures is the "customer satisfaction" component of Reid's (2005) brand-related performance variable. Reid's "customer satisfaction" variable includes one item that captures customer satisfaction (*how satisfied do you think your customers are with your brand compared to your closest competitor's customers?*) and another that captures customer loyalty (*how loyal do you think your customers are to your brand compared to your closest competitor's customers?*). In our sample, this scale showed high composite reliability (0.829).

In what relates to JP, we use Williams and Anderson's (1991) performance scale that measures in-role behavior to reflect how each behavior applies to the whole workforce as perceived by the manager. This in-role JP scale is one of the most used in organizational behavior literature, in studies where it is compared with extra-role behaviors. Respondents were asked to choose a Likert-type 5-point scale. In our sample, the item "Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform" had to be removed from the scale since the factor loading was too low, thus improving the adjustment indexes. After this, the confirmatory factor analysis presented the adjustment indexes within the critical values, SRMR = 0.029, CFI = 0.985, and TLI = 0.975.

Thus, regarding statistical analysis, we first conducted a cluster analysis to test our first proposition, considering two variables (EP and IB). Then we performed a MANOVA analysis to determine which variables are relevant for cluster differentiation and test the second and third propositions.

4 | FINDINGS

Three different clusters emerged according to different combinations of EP and IB. The confirmed clusters correspond to the archetypes

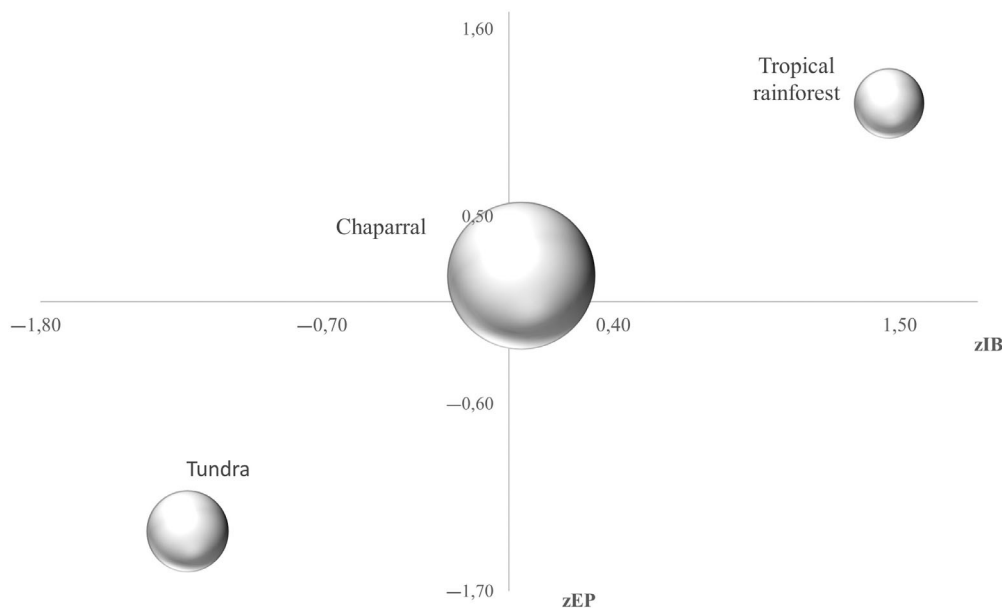


FIGURE 2 Types of organizational ecosystems in T&H (confirmed)

TABLE 2 Differences across archetypes

Variables	Means			Dunnnett T3 test
	T. Rainforest (TR)	Tundra (T)	Chaparral (C) ^a	
<i>Clustering variables^b</i>				
Entrepreneurial proclivity	1.163	-1.349	0.155	TR > C, C > T, TR > T
Intrapreneurial behavior	1.470	-1.235	0.040	TR > C, C > T, TR > T
<i>Innovation variable^b</i>				
Product innovation	0.091	-0.513	0.158	TR ≈ C, C > T, TR ≈ T
<i>Performance variable^b</i>				
Customer satisfaction + customer loyalty	0.539	-0.945	0.144	TR ≈ C, C > T, TR > T
In-role job performance	0.735	-1.140	0.288	TR > C ^c , C > T, TR > T

^a*n* = 58 because of missing values in some variables.

^bStandardized.

^cSignificantly different at 0.1 level.

“tropical rainforest” (14 firms), “tundra” (19), and “chaparral” (62) (Figure 2); therefore, similar to Calisto and Sarkar’s (2017b) results and supporting P1.

When investigating which variables distinguish between the different types of firms, we found that these included the two clustering variables—entrepreneurial proclivity (sig. = 0.000) and IB (sig. = 0.000) and also product innovation (sig. = 0.033), customer satisfaction and loyalty (sig. = 0.000), and in-role JP (sig. = 0.000). Firm size (sig. = 0.708), firm age (sig. = 0.767) and process innovation (sig. = 0.343), are not significantly different between archetypes. Table 2 displays the results of the post hoc Dunnnett T3 test.

To facilitate the interpretation of the MANOVA results, Figure 3 compares clusters in what refers to entrepreneurial proclivity and IB, and Figure 4 compares clusters in terms of innovation and performance variables.

In our sample of T&H firms, Tropical Rainforest firms have the highest levels of EP and IB, significantly different from the other two

archetypes. They also show the second-highest level of product innovation, although not significantly different from the other archetypes. Additionally, “tropical rainforests” in T&H have the highest customer satisfaction and loyalty levels, significantly higher than “tundra” firms.

“Chaparrals” in T&H have moderate levels of EP and IB, significantly lower than “tropical rainforests” and significantly higher than “tundras.” The product innovation outcome of this archetype is the highest across the three archetypes, although only significantly higher than that of “tundras.” Regarding customer satisfaction and loyalty, “chaparral” firms have lower performance than “tropical rainforests” (but not statistically significant) and higher than “tundras.”

“Tundras” are the T&H firms with the lowest levels of total EP and IB, significantly lower than in the case of the other archetypes. “Tundras” in T&H have the lowest levels of product innovation, significantly lower than the “chaparral” firms. Regarding customer satisfaction and loyalty, firms in this archetype have the lowest performance

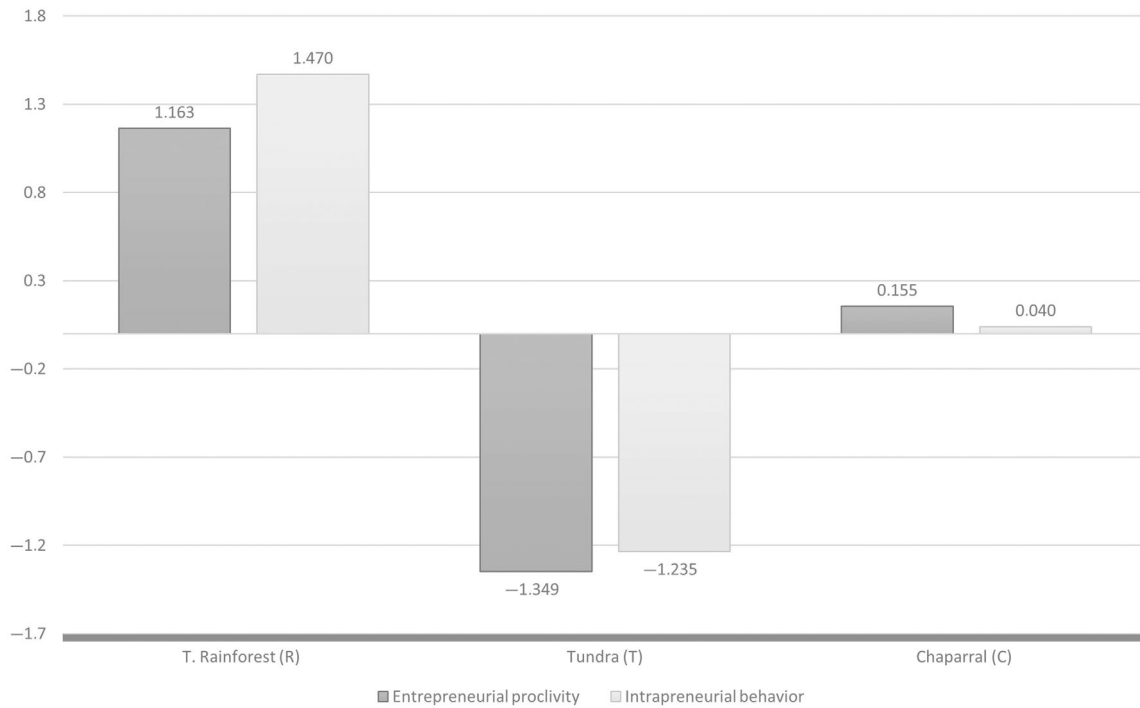


FIGURE 3 Entrepreneurial proclivity and intrapreneurial behavior (standardized)—differences between clusters

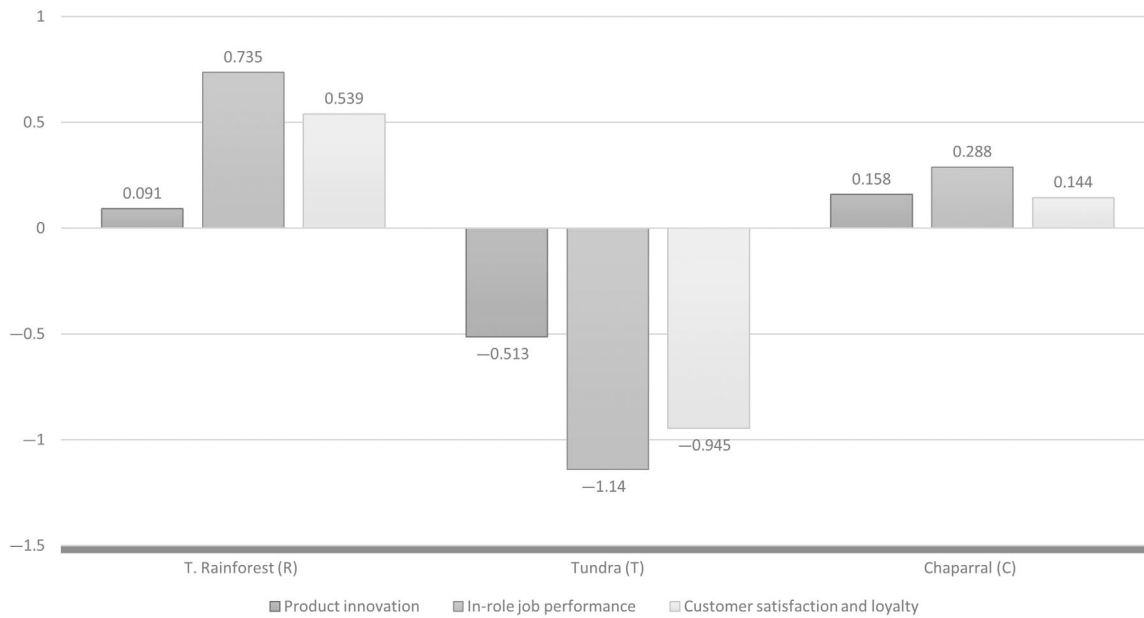


FIGURE 4 Innovation and performance variables (standardized)—differences between clusters

across all archetypes, significantly lower than that of “tropical rainforest” and “chaparral” firms.

Regarding in-role JP, employees in T&H “tropical rainforest” firms have higher in-role JP than employees in “tundra” and “chaparral” (in this case, at 0.1 significance level) firms. This result gives support to P2. Employees at “tundra” firms have the lowest levels of JP, significantly lower than in the case of employees from both “tropical rainforest” and “chaparral” firms, giving support to P3.

5 | DISCUSSION

5.1 | Archetypes of entrepreneurial activity in T&H

Based on the seminal work of Burgelman (1983), who proposed the possibility of existing organizations where discrepancies might exist between top management interest in entrepreneurial activities and the bottom-up initiatives—sometimes leading to paradoxical

situations, Calisto and Sarkar (2017b) found evidence of three organizational archetypes (biomes). Their work can serve as a practical analytical framework for understanding differences between firms regarding the levels of EP and IB. In this study, we confirmed the same archetypes in T&H. Low levels of EP and low levels of IB characterize T&H “tundra” firms, and high levels of EP and IB characterize T&H “tropical rainforest” firms.

Intrapreneurs in T&H are sometimes pointed out as “key individuals” (e.g., Altinay, 2004). However, our research shows that IB might be found across the firm, among most employees, in the “tropical rainforest” and “chaparral” archetypes. Confirming the “chaparral” archetype in T&H suggests that despite the absence of a strong entrepreneurial strategic vision and the subsequent pro-entrepreneurship organizational architecture (Ireland et al., 2009), IB may still emerge. There might be many reasons for this; we put three forward for consideration.

One reason might be the identification of employees with their organization—in terms of affective and normative commitment—as Farrukh et al. (2017) suggested. Affective commitment is an emotional link between the employee and the organization. Jafri (2010) found organizational commitment to be associated with the innovativeness of employees. Chughtai (2013) proposes that commitment to the supervisor also has that effect, while Liu et al. (2011) found that the interaction among employees may also increase commitment and, consequently, innovativeness. Normative commitment is based on the sense of obligation towards the organization. Employees stay committed to an organization because they feel it is the “right” and “moral” thing to do (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Hakimian et al. (2016) found a positive association between employee innovative behavior and normative commitment. Additionally, employees with higher levels of commitment tend to work harder and show higher efforts to attain organizational goals (Farrukh et al., 2017).

Another possibility is job satisfaction. Antoncic and Antoncic (2011) found a positive association between the entrepreneurial activity of the firm and employee satisfaction. Niu (2014) found a positive association between job satisfaction and innovative work behavior, while De Clercq et al. (2011) showed that satisfaction could increase entrepreneurial selling initiatives. Furthermore, job satisfaction has been found to predict entrepreneurial behavior within organizations (Mustafa et al., 2016).

A third possibility in explaining the existence of “chaparrals” may be the identification of employees with their organizations. Organizational identification is the “perception of oneness with or belongingness to the organization” (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 34). It can lead employees to adopt the interests and goals of the organization as their own. As a result, it increases work motivation and extra-role behaviors, leading these employees to participate in intrapreneurial activities (Moriano et al., 2014).

In our T&H sample, however, “chaparral” firms have average levels of EP and IB, which is somewhat different from the results found in Calisto and Sarkar's (2017b) sample, where “chaparral” firms revealed low EP and high IB. It seems that in the case of T&H, the EP of the firm may have a stronger effect than found by Calisto and

Sarkar (2017b). When comparing this result to the relative levels of product innovation of these firms to the other archetypes, our results confirm the relevance of EP and IB for product innovation but also suggest there might be a diminishing impact on innovation after a threshold level of EP and IB. On the other hand, the scale of EP in our sample was adapted, and items related to risk-taking were withdrawn. Not all dimensions of the entrepreneurial proclivity of a firm are critical for performance based on the contextual specificities (Vora et al., 2012), and the entrepreneurial proclivity of T&H firms may unfold in different manners as those of other industries, as suggested by Peters and Kallmuenzer (2018). They found the competitive aggressiveness of hospitality firms linked to regionalism, communication, cooperation, and competition in a non-aggressive manner.

5.2 | In-role JP across archetypes

We found that the higher the levels of EP and IB, the higher the level of in-role JP. Therefore, contrarily to what happened with product innovation, where it seems that in T&H above a certain threshold, there might be no additional impact on product innovation outcomes, in what concerns in-role JP, the higher (EP and IB), the better. Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014) might shed some light on how that comes to be.

According to the JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014), employees thrive in organizational contexts characterized by high job demands (i.e., challenges) and high job or personal resources. It might be that in T&H, the higher the level of EP, the higher the resources available, and the intrapreneurial challenges given to employees. When employees have sufficient resources available at work, they can cope well with the challenges they encounter, thus reaching personal and organizational goals and fostering work engagement and increased performance. On the contrary, challenges without the needed resources will lead employees to experience exhaustion, which hampers well-being and performance (Bakker et al., 2014).

Additionally, the JD-R theory postulates that a reinforcing cycle of motivation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014) happens when employees develop work behaviors that mobilize the resources made available by the organization and their own and develop those resources, thus forming a resources' gain cycle. Engaging in IB leads to employees' personal growth in self-efficacy, optimism, and resilience (Gawke et al., 2017), which will lead to higher IB.

When an employee engages in IB and successfully implements an innovative idea, improving efficiency, he or she will feel more efficacious and expect similar IB results in the future (Marvel et al., 2007). To deal with the difficulties and challenges of IB, employees will seek help from internal and external sources (Anderson & Jack, 2002), thus acquiring new knowledge, experiences, and self-insights and building individual resiliency (Masten, 2001). Additionally, IB is positively related to commitment to the workplace (Holt et al., 2007) which promotes motivation and JP (Ahmad et al., 2012).

6 | CONCLUSION

Our study was motivated by the calls in the literature for context-sensitive analyses, deeper probes into CE in T&H, and how intrapreneurial activity impacts in-role JP. We answered these calls by empirically testing the existence of Calisto and Sarkar's (2017b) archetypes in T&H and then using the resulting clusters to explore the differences between IB and JP across each archetype. Using data from 95 T&H firms, we found evidence of three expected organizational archetypes, with significant differences in in-role JP across the three archetypes. Our work holds important theoretical and practical implications that we now outline below.

6.1 | Theoretical implications

Our work adds to the CE literature in several ways. First, our study answers the call for contextualized approaches to CE (Zahra, 2007), in our case, by studying entrepreneurial activity in T&H firms.

Second, following Calisto and Sarkar's (2017b) study, this paper supports the existence of three organizational archetypes of entrepreneurial activity according to the levels of EP and IB. This result is theoretically relevant because, in many cases, researchers do not clearly distinguish top-down influences from bottom-up influences when measuring CE, which may lead to mixed results. Our results also suggest differences between those archetypes concerning IB and the benefits of IB at the individual-level performance.

Third, we add to the scarce literature on CE agency in T&H by answering the calls for such studies (e.g., Fu et al., 2019; Solvoll et al., 2015). We engage T&H in the mainstream entrepreneurship debate and bring to the forefront how essential employees in these firms are to innovation outcomes and market performance. Our work also suggests differences in terms of the interaction between EP and IB in T&H firms compared to Calisto and Sarkar's (2017b) results with a multiple-industry sample. These results highlight similarities and differences between T&H and other industries and spur the need for different measures to assess the strategic orientation of T&H firms towards entrepreneurial activities.

Fourth and finally, our results reveal that the intrapreneurial activities of T&H employees do not conflict with their in-role tasks, quite the opposite. Previous studies suggest that intrapreneurship can have a beneficial (through positive affect and motivation) and a detrimental (through increased exhaustion) relationship with employees' JP (Gawke et al., 2018). However, our results suggest that in T&H, the positive impact prevails.

6.2 | Practical implications

In the highly competitive environment of T&H, managers should consider the role of CE in fostering innovation and market performance. Our results establish how firms with low levels of entrepreneurial proclivity and, simultaneously, low levels of IB show the lowest product

innovation outcomes and have lower market performance levels. Managers seeking product innovation and good customer satisfaction levels should start by raising the level EP of the firm by establishing a strategic vision, developing the firm's strategic orientation towards entrepreneurship, and fostering an entrepreneurial culture.

Additionally, managers must accept that their role extends to supporting intrapreneurs and accepting failure. Management support may include (1) mechanisms that facilitate the generation and development of innovative ideas, (2) allocation of free time, (3) appropriate organizational structures concerning, in particular, decentralization and decision-making autonomy, (4) appropriate use of incentives and rewards, and (5) tolerance in case of failure (Hornsby et al. 2002; Kuratko et al., 2005).

Furthermore, managers must recognize that intrapreneurs are good job performers who can adequately balance extra-role and in-role tasks. In fact, the higher the level of IB, the higher the in-role JP they may expect from employees. Fostering IB will lead to a reinforcing cycle of motivation and developing both job and personal resources. Additionally, IB fosters employees' commitment, promoting motivation and JP.

6.3 | Limitations and future research

This study has some limitations that need to be considered; the first is related to the sample, namely its size and being a convenience sample. Future studies should replicate our findings in larger samples. The second limitation relates to our single source within the surveyed firms. Despite our caution when gathering data from a single informant, future studies could consider addressing this issue and gathering information from employees and managers. Third, data were collected during the COVID-19 pandemic, which may have impacted employees' behavior. However, despite the eventual influence of an external variable, such as the pandemic, many employees have revealed the potential to be intrapreneurial while still performing in-role duties. Whether employees' behavior will change after the pandemic remains to be seen, but it is still a relevant future research opportunity.

The possibility that thresholds of EP and IB exist in T&H firms towards product innovation outcomes, but not towards JP, should be further investigated in future studies. Future research should also take a longitudinal design. It can be argued that the high levels of IB might be a step that precedes organizational-level CE. Other scholars have argued this possibility (Fellnhöfer et al., 2016). A longitudinal study could clarify how the process develops over time—is IB the egg or the chicken?

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ENDNOTES

ⁱ Available at <https://registos.turismodeportugal.pt/>

¹ <https://www.worldtravelawards.com/award-europes-leading-destination-2022>

² Source: Banco de Portugal (central bank of Portugal)—Available at <https://www.bportugal.pt/QS/qswb/Dashboards>.

³ There are several firms in our sample established in the 19th century or in the early 20th century. Most of them were established, initially, in other business activities (other than tourism) and during their growth process, at some point, diversified into tourism.

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