PALGRAVE STUDIES IN GLOBAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP
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Heritage Entrepreneurship

Cultural and Creative Pursuits in Business Management

Edited by Vanessa Ratten

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Vanessa Ratten
Editor

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Palgrave Studies in Global Entrepreneurship
ISBN 978-981-19-5148-0 ISBN 978-981-19-5149-7 (eBook)
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-5149-7

Cover credit: CSA Images/GettyImages

This Palgrave Macmillan imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd.
The registered company address is: 152 Beach Road, #21-01/04 Gateway East, Singapore 189721, Singapore

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would like to thank Vishal Daryanomel for his help and advice with this book. It is much appreciated and made editing this book a pleasure. Thank you. I dedicate this book to my mum Kaye Ratten. I have fond memories of our time in Denmark where we travelled around the country via train around Christmas time in 2003. During this time, I was lucky to experience a snowy Christmas which for us was unusual having come from Australia where beachy summers are the norm. During our time in Denmark, we travelled from Copenhagen to Odense, Aalborg and Aarhus. I have nice memories of New Year's eve there as well. Another holiday trip I remember well was in the European summer of 2004 when we travelled to the Netherlands. We travelled to Amsterdam and visited the Van Gogh Museum as well as the art gallery in the Hague and saw painting like the girl with the pearl earring. I hope in the future to have similar kind of holidays. I also thank my dad David Ratten, brothers Stuart and Hamish and niece Sakura for their advice and help.

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Towards a Theory of Heritage Entrepreneurship

Vanessa Ratten

Introduction

Researchers in the entrepreneurship field can sometimes be frustrated by using the same theories in all their work instead of building new and distinctive theories (Ratten, 2020). By developing a new theory, it can have a specific epistemological stance that better suits the research. This chapter examines the need for a new theory of heritage entrepreneurship that combines elements of existing theory but proposes new directions. Whilst cultural and tourism theory can assist in developing theory regarding heritage entrepreneurship, a new theory is required. I elaborate on the concept of heritage entrepreneurship more fully later in this chapter.

Heritage entrepreneurship is the result of a process in which heritage is the main driver and motivator for entrepreneurship (Ratten & Ferreira, 2017). Heritage businesses are managed in a way that emphasises the heritage role in developing their business products (Apostolakis, 2003). This means that heritage entrepreneurship is a promising way to

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V. Ratten (ed.), *Heritage Entrepreneurship*, Palgrave Studies in Global Entrepreneurship, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-5149-7_1

encourage thinking about the past in current business activities. The past has typically been discounted in the literature on entrepreneurship due to a tendency to focus on new technology innovations (Ratten, Jones, Braga & Marques, 2019). However, an emerging point of view is to treat the heritage of a product as being an important point of competitive difference. The conceptualisation of heritage entrepreneurship goes a step further than social or community forms of entrepreneurship by treating historical events as important motivators of business growth. This means that a heritage enterprise is simultaneously maintaining a connection to the past and developing new business pursuits (Rössler, 2006).

There is little published research on heritage entrepreneurship. Pfeilstetter (2015, p. 215) states that the concept of heritage entrepreneurship "can accurately address the competitive, conflictive and agency-driven character of cultural heritage". Heritage is a commodity in that it can be bought and sold (Macdonald, 2006). This means incorporating heritage elements into a product or service can lead to economic value being obtained. The field at the present time does not really exist as a separate area of inquiry within the broader entrepreneurship literature. This is unusual as heritage does affect entrepreneurship in many ways. Most importantly, it influences the way a business develops and its role in society. Businesses with a distinct heritage such as those in specific industries like the car, tourism or transportation industry are likely to use heritage in their marketing campaigns. This means heritage in the form of culture and history plays an important role in the businesses image in the marketplace (Lowenthal, 2005). Heritage normally has a positive connotation although it can also be associated with sad events that result in a negative image (Chen & Chen, 2010).

The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the differences between heritage and non-heritage entrepreneurship. This means that the chapter aims to correct the void in the literature regarding the link between heritage and entrepreneurship. To do this, an examination of the intrinsic and extrinsic reasons for implementing a heritage perspective within entrepreneurship studies is conducted. Thus, this chapter seeks to contribute to the further development of research on heritage entrepreneurship.

Historical Context of Heritage

In order to understand entrepreneurship, it is important to consider a region's or industries' historical context. This means thinking about how things happened in the past and how this might influence current business activities. Decker et al. (2020) discussed how history influences entrepreneurial growth aspirations. History in terms of political conditions or institutional factors are ways that entrepreneurs learn and grow. Some contexts have had a negative effect on people's quality of life in terms of the type of activities they engage in. This includes wars, famines and other crisis events. However, sometimes the event can have a positive effect in terms of encouraging entrepreneurship. This might be the need to create societal relevant products based on new needs (Wadhwani, 2016).

The Notion of Heritage

Heritage is considered a cultural element that can be integrated into a product or service (Powell et al., 2011). There is a general consensus that people will pay more for heritage products. This is because of the stereotype that people who purchase heritage products are highly educated with a high level of disposable income (Chhabra et al., 2003). There is a belief that people interested in heritage have sophisticated tastes and a strong interest in quality products (Park, 2010). This is not necessarily true but is a general reflection of heritage consumers. There are many types of entrepreneurship including social and community entrepreneurship that are linked to heritage entrepreneurship. Thus, there is some similarity between heritage entrepreneurship and existing forms of entrepreneurship but heritage entrepreneurship assumes some kind of social or community linkage between a business and a society. Thus, this chapter defines heritage entrepreneurship and provides an insight into the contemporary business environment in which heritage entrepreneurship operates.

A cultural paradigm of heritage entrepreneurship is useful in order to explore the role of experience and social conditions on entrepreneurship. This will provide a foundation for future research on heritage entrepreneurship. The decision to target heritage aspects in entrepreneurship is justified in several ways. Most importantly given that there is a high level of competition in the business world for new products, incorporating a

heritage element can be a competitive advantage. A secondary consideration is how the history of a business venture can be embedded within its management structure.

There is a diversity of elements of heritage that make it hard to form a unifying definition. Richards (2018, p. 14) states that heritage is "a broad range of resources including built patrimony, living lifestyles, ancient artefacts and modern art and culture". This definition highlights that there is some convergence in the central elements of heritage in terms of it relating to quality or value aspects of the past. Heritage as a concept has different meanings and relevance. Jewell and Crotts (2002, p. 15) state that "heritage provides us with a sense of place, a connectedness to that place, to land, traditions, customers and family". This means that the connection with the past is important in current and future business activities. Boyd (2002, p. 212) conceptualises heritage as "taking on the identity of an interest in the past, an interest in cultures, buildings, artefacts and landscapes of both the past and present". This means that the association with any form of culture is an important differentiator of a heritage business. Thus, it is important for businesses to integrate heritage elements in their business strategy.

Macdonald (2006, p. 11) defines heritage as a "discourse and set of practices concerned with the continuity, persistence and substantiality of collective identity". This means the continuation of practices from the past provides a way to connect the previous conditions with current business activities. Park (2010, p. 116) states that "heritage is not just a tangible asset of the past represented as artifacts and sites. Intangible heritage manifests diverse symbolic meanings and spiritual embodiments, often grounded in the material and tangible remnants of the past". This means heritage is a way people can experience the past, which can involve visiting certain places or experiencing the past through stories (Ferreira & Ratten, 2017). Thus, the symbolic nature of heritage is critical in establishing its worthiness in society.

Heritage can include a range of things from art, literature and music (Bowitz & Ibenholt, 2009). It can involve styles of architecture as well as living conditions. This means that contemporary heritage tourism relates to a way of life that is currently not in existence. Thus, researchers need to match their heritage entrepreneurship definition with how they measure the concept. Heritage is normally expressed in the rarity of a place. This means it has some kind of informational value for society. Chen et al. (2021, p. 182) state that "cultural heritage development

is also seen to bring employment opportunities, revitalise rural development, enhance community culture identity, and strengthen social capital". Cultural heritage provides a modern way to experience aspects of the past. It is a form of symbolic capital as it involves traditions and folklore and can provide a form of resilience. Holtorf (2018, p. 639) defines cultural resilience as "the capability of a cultural system (consisting of cultural processes in relevant communities) to absorb adversity, deal with change and continue to develop". Heritage is a source of scientific information that can inform current practices (Porter & Salazar, 2005). It helps to build a collective identity regarding things from the past. This is important in inspiring social cohesion and informing cultural policies.

Most research on heritage takes a snapshot view rather than considering heritage development over time (Garrod & Fyall, 2000). This means that the study of heritage has provided an interesting journey for entrepreneurship scholars wanting to know how history and culture influence business decisions. Heritage is a concept that exists in the research but is rarely explicitly examined in entrepreneurship scholarship. It is mostly popular in tourism studies due to the interest in cultural tourism. Thus, empirical research on heritage entrepreneurship has lagged behind other entrepreneurship topics. This means there is no commonly used definition nor conceptualisation of heritage entrepreneurship.

Heritage when used in an entrepreneurial way can be considered in a number of different forms. This includes knowledge-based heritage that involves information about previous conditions. Relational heritage derives from repeated interactions over time regarding historical events (Gonzalez, 2008). This means information is acquired from a relationship that then forms the basis of heritage entrepreneurship. There is an expectation in the relationships that relevant information will be shared in a timely basis. This means some form of emotional attachment will develop from the giver and receiver of the information.

Identification-based heritage involves specific features from history being evident in current activities. This means acknowledging that certain artwork or buildings are associated with a period of time. Heritage and tourism have been inextricably linked due to people's interest in experiencing things related to the past (Kerstetter et al., 2001). Heritage often comes in the form of cultural attractions that are marketed as tourism sites. The next section will link the concepts of cultural tourism, heritage and entrepreneurship together in a way that has not been done before.

Heritage Entrepreneurial Ecosystems

There is no doubt that entrepreneurial ecosystems and business model innovation are fashionable topics. In entrepreneurship studies, entrepreneurial ecosystems have predominately been examined and theorised with regard to regional locations and global competitiveness (Alvedalen & Boschma, 2017). This means studies have tended to focus on single locations and examine them in terms of their entrepreneurial culture. Business model innovation has mostly been studied in strategic management outlets due to its influence on firm performance. Arguably, this narrow conceptualisation of business model innovation has diminished its applicability to other fields of study. Business model innovation is much more than a strategy as it affects societal development.

Entrepreneurial behaviour can generate a range of benefits that are both positive and negative. This includes its role in local well-being and place attachment that is important in developing an entrepreneurial ecosystem. The negative effects include the use of limited resources and resulting need for economic management. It is for these reasons that the concept of an entrepreneurial ecosystem is an interesting and useful lens for understanding business model innovation. For this precise reason, it makes an interesting topic to combine with business model innovation. The use of an interdisciplinary framework to understand both entrepreneurial ecosystems and business model innovation is useful. This enables fresh insights to be derived from the study of both topics.

By using an ecosystem approach to unpack business model innovation, I have shifted its conceptualisation to a more entrepreneurship approach. This means our understanding of business model innovation in a heritage entrepreneurial context can (1) expand the conceptualisations of both topics to include diverse forms of cultural, social and economic value, (2) our ideas about whether an entrepreneurial ecosystem leads to business model innovation or vice versa can be debated and (3) questions need to be raised about how and why entrepreneurs collaborate.

Cultural Tourism, Heritage and Entrepreneurship

Cultural tourism is one of the most popular forms of tourism. Richards (2018, p. 13) define cultural tourism as “a type of tourism activity in which the visitor’s essential motivation is to learn, discover, experience

and consumer the tangible and intangible cultural attractions/products in a tourism destination". It enables a person to consume either or both the tangible and intangible forms of culture within a place. There is intense competition amongst tourism places to attract tourists. This makes the use of branding such as being a World Heritage Site (WHS) useful. Heritage tourism is an explicit type of tourism as it links heritage places to tourism. There has been a surge in interest in heritage tourism as people want to experience things from the past.

People travel to places to learn about sites of historical significance. This means they want to experience first-hand what a site looks like by visiting the place as a form of cultural exchange. Jovicic (2016, p. 605) states that "cultural tourism implies tourism movement of people for solely cultural reasons". People travel to places outside of their place of residence in order to experience new things. The reasons for tourism can include acquiring knowledge about cultural attractions. Some tourists deliberately travel in order to come into contact with new cultures whilst others by accident experience new things (Poria et al., 2003). This means cultural tourism can be a planned or adjacent activity depending on the interests of the tourist.

Loulanski and Loulanski (2011) suggest that there are a number of factors that are relevant in integrating cultural heritage with tourism practices. The first factor is local involvement in terms of outlining values about the place. This involves empowering locals to express their knowledge in the development of the place. By doing so, there can be more collaboration between community members and the local government. This will help encourage entrepreneurial involvement with the place and encourage sustainable development. The second factor is education and training. This is important in making others aware of the heritage and how it links in with the local culture. To do this, education regarding the past usages of the place that include ethics training is required. The third factor is to balance authenticity with interpretation of the place. This means considering its history and why the place should be preserved for future generations. The fourth factor is the shift towards a sustainability focused strategy. This means trying to keep the place intact and in a similar condition as to when it was first established (Tavares et al., 2021). Thus, it is important to consider the economic, environmental and social impact of the place. The fifth factor involves integrating planning and management about the place. To do this, a proactive approach is required.

People have an interest in the past and understanding past experiences (Jones & Ratten, 2020). Many people visit world heritage sites as a way to experience past conditions. This means an area's historical value is associated with its meaning in society. People visit places that have a cultural component to how they existed in the past. Heritage tourism is a popular form of tourism. The heritage appeal of a place will be based on its role in history (Holtorf, 2011). Many people associate heritage with buildings such as churches and houses. Heritage is evident in physical buildings but also the attitude of the past. This can be experienced in the songs or stories that illustrate previous conditions.

The business of heritage tourism involves highlighting places where people can experience the past (Aplin, 2007). This is due to each heritage site having a certain historical significance that can vary in importance (Gfeller, 2013). This means whilst all aspects of our past can be considered as heritage, the way they are used in entrepreneurship can differ. For example, dark tourism such as visiting battlefields can be a valued form of heritage for military historians, or alternatively, art museums containing important pieces of art that are of special interest to art enthusiasts. Sport fields or stadiums can have special meanings to those who follow a specific team or athlete. Therefore, when discussing the role of heritage in entrepreneurship, care needs to be taken in terms of respecting different points of view as to the importance of specific forms of heritage (Bonn et al., 2007).

People have sentimental attachments to a place because of their history. This might relate to their cultural or social value. There are five main types of heritage tourists. These tourists can be differentiated in terms of their motivation and reason for visiting a heritage site. The most common type of heritage tourist is the leisure heritage tourist who enjoys visiting cultural places. They normally do this in their recreation time as a form of enjoyment. They often try to mix visits to heritage sites with side visits to geographically close places. The second type is the purposeful heritage tourist who deliberately seeks out heritage places to visit. This type of tourist is likely wanting to know more about a specific place or event. This means they will spend some time in the area exploring the heritage of the place. The third type of tourist is the educational heritage tourist who visits places to learn about the past. They are likely to previously have read about the place and be following up their interest by directly viewing the place. The fourth type of tourist is the work heritage tourist who because of work reasons visits a place. This means they

might be part of scientific institute or other type of organisation that is doing research on the place. The fifth type of heritage tourist is the family history heritage tourist who has a family connection to the place. This means their ethnicity or family relations have prompted a visit to the place. In order to analyse the role of culture in heritage tourism, it helps to discuss the places that cultural tourists are attracted to visit. One of the most well-known places for cultural tourism is WHS, which are analysed in the next section.

World Heritage Sites

The main reason for a place being on the WHS is in terms of branding and conservation regarding cultural landscapes. Porter (2020, p. 1292) defines cultural landscapes as "tangible spatial entities (topography, location, extent) and an intangible set of ideas (identities, values) whose meaning emerges within and across different professional discourses including planning and branding". However, there is some debate as to the impact of increased tourism numbers on the site. Frey and Steiner (2011) suggest that WHS designation is only beneficial when the resources for their conservation is inadequate and there is no political control over further development of the area. To be listed as a WHS, they need to be authentic, but this can be hard to do with some settings as it is a subjective concept. Porter (2020, p. 1291) states that "when a landscape receives national park of UNESCO's World Heritage Site (WHS) status, this brings strict planning controls designed to conserve its special qualities". It can be difficult to juggle protecting a site but also facilitating economic development.

The world heritage list was established as a way to globally recognise significant cultural places. It emphasises that the global community has the responsibility to protect these sites. In order to obtain a place on this list, the site should have outstanding universal values which are defined as "cultural and/or natural significance which is so exceptional as to transcend national boundaries and to be of common importance for present and future generations of all humanity" (UNESCO, 2019, p. 19). WHS is a lure for tourists as it provides a sense of authenticity regarding the site. This means following a WHS listing a place can become a magnet for tourists. Evans (2001) suggests that a WHS listing is similar to a five-star rating in the Michelin Guide. This means tourists assess a place based on their inclusion on the list. Poria et al. (2011,

p. 482) state that "when in 1973, the designation World Heritage Site (WHS) was created, the aim was immediate to sustain and save two sites, Abu Simbel Temple in Egypt and the city of Venice, both of which were facing the threat of flooding". This means there are a number of places around the world that have earned the designation of being a world heritage site. These places utilise the WHS branding as part of their marketing to differentiate themselves from other places. Having the WHS designation means the place is acknowledged as being culturally and historically important.

Many people look for places with the WHS logo so it can add significant prestige to a place. Moreover, it shows that the place has undergone some kind of vetting in terms of being approved to be on the list. There are more sites added to the WHS list every year but the list is still relatively short. The main reason for being on the list is to attract tourists but other reasons can include preserving a site. This means that the WHS designation can be used to authenticate places and to conserve them for future generations.

There are numerous advantages and disadvantages of being on the WHS list. The advantages are in terms of global recognition but the disadvantages stem from an increase in tourism numbers and an outside body regulating the management of the site. This has led to some places not wanting to be on the list due to the increased attention placed on the site. Some stakeholders involved with heritage sites prefer to self-manage them rather than being governed by an external authority. A place on the WHS list needs to comply with guidelines regarding its usage. This means there are regulations regarding the continual conservation and usage of the site.

People associated with a place that achieves the WHS designation feel a sense of pride. This encourages more interest in the place in terms of why it is included on the list. After a place has been assigned the WHS branding, there is typically more government and non-government funding aid. There can also be an increase in the number of tourists visiting the place due to increased media attention. The types of tourists visiting the place can change due to more wealthier and affluent visitors. This can lead to more interest in add on services such as hotel stays. A WHS designation can be a catalyst for more interest in a region that then results in increased investment levels. The branding of a WHS site is linked to its image and position in the marketplace. Volunteers are also likely to support more the place that leads to a reduction in management costs.

Heritage Entrepreneurship

There has been a rise in alternative forms of entrepreneurship including 'social entrepreneurship' and 'cultural entrepreneurship' and other specific forms of entrepreneurship (Ratten et al., 2021). Heritage entrepreneurship can also be referred to as a form of cultural or arts entrepreneurship, but it focuses more on the use of history in business activities. This means the word 'heritage' is significant in encapsulating business activity that is motivated by a desire to start heritage-related projects. Heritage entrepreneurship is distinguished from other entrepreneurship and management sciences due to its emphasis on history in current business activities. Pfeilstetter (2015, p. 219) suggests that there are three main reasons for utilising an entrepreneurship perspective within heritage studies: "(1) agency instead of 'anonymous forces', (2) on the legal institutionalism and (3) on the market like competition for economical, political and symbolic resources". Heritage entrepreneurship can claim to be a new research field. This is due to heritage entrepreneurship being amongst the youngest fields of entrepreneurship research although the topic has been discussed for a long time. The basic assumptions of mainstream theories of entrepreneurship do not apply in the new business environment characterised by emerging technologies (Ratten & Jones, 2021). This means whilst concepts like heritage have been around for a long time, a new way of thinking about the concept in light of new technology existing needs to be considered. Heritage is often based on cultural ties and not necessarily market linkages. In contrast to regular forms of entrepreneurship such as business venturing, heritage entrepreneurship displays elements of history, communal activity and sharing (Ratten, 2019). There is no extant concept of heritage entrepreneurship in the scholarly literature of entrepreneurship and related disciplines. Therefore, this chapter is pioneering a theory of heritage entrepreneurship.

Heritage is a buzz word used to denote quality cultural places. In the future heritage, entrepreneurship will be one of the most fastest and significant components of entrepreneurship. Heritage needs to be marketed differently as it refers to a cultural attribute as compared to a business attitude. This means the emergence of heritage entrepreneurship can be traced back to the need for tourism and cultural providers to provide additional products or services. Tourism is a large industry and has grown during the past decade due to people having more time and

money for leisure activities. Heritage products are a powerful and profitable market segment. It is a rapidly growing sector as more people seek products with a cultural and historical significance.

Heritage entrepreneurship typically falls under the purview of cultural entrepreneurship. It is one of the oldest forms of entrepreneurship. In ancient times, heritage components were incorporated into products and services that were sold by entrepreneurs. There are various descriptions and interpretations of heritage in society. This is mostly due to new technology emerging and societal change resulting in new definitions of heritage. Broadly speaking, heritage involves "the present day use of the past" (Timothy & Boyd, 2006). This definition is broad so it can include new ideas and thoughts about heritage. Heritage can be a complex phenomenon due to the varied meanings of the term. Some people disagree about what heritage is so its usage can be a political issue. In some cultures, heritage mostly refers to buildings, parks and monuments but in other cultures, it can be associated with general feelings about the past.

The knowledge economy and increased levels of digitalisation have influenced the changing nature of entrepreneurship in society. The entrepreneurship research field is in an agreement, to a lesser or greater extent, that culture and history play an important role in entrepreneurship. Heritage entrepreneurship is a form of entrepreneurship that has as its objective to incorporate heritage aspects within entrepreneurial business ventures. The reality in the business world is that entrepreneurship incorporates in either an obvious or non-obvious way heritage elements.

Heritage entrepreneurship involves innovative uses of heritage within a business setting. There are a number of different types of heritage entrepreneurs. The first type are highly motivated heritage entrepreneurs who want to incorporate heritage elements within their business activity. They deliberately incorporate heritage in the products they sell but also in how they market their products. The second type are infrequent heritage entrepreneurs who sometimes incorporate heritage elements only if they see a reason for this inclusion. This means there needs to be some form of value associated with emphasising the heritage aspect within their business activities. The third type is the casual heritage entrepreneur. These types of entrepreneurs view heritage as a part of entrepreneurship only when it is associated within a product or service. This typically applies to heritage entrepreneurs who work in the tourism industry. The usage of the words 'heritage' and 'entrepreneurship' imply a cultural and historical connection to the business process. Heritage

entrepreneurs are individuals who utilise some form of heritage in their business projects. This implies some form of innovation or proactivity is implied within the management of the business (Mota et al., 2019).

Overview of Chapters

This first chapter of the book titled "Towards a Theory of Heritage Entrepreneurship" by Vanessa Ratten has focused on the need to develop new theory on entrepreneurship that takes a different perspective. This means incorporating new contexts in order to better frame how entrepreneurship occurs in society. The second chapter titled "Government Initiatives and Social Entrepreneurship in Thailand: Exploring the Role of Pracharath Rak Samakee Social Enterprise Scheme (ประชารัฐรักสามัคคี) and the Way Forward" by Ari Margiono and Feranita Feranita highlights the way culture is evident in heritage entrepreneurial ventures. This means language and religion need to be considered as part of heritage entrepreneurship pursuits. The third chapter titled "Social-Driven Innovation in Tourism: A Perspective on Soft Attributes of an Entrepreneurial Ecosystem" by Paolo Bernardi and Raffaele Cecere analyses how social considerations need to be incorporated into entrepreneurial pursuits. This means stressing the need for innovation within entrepreneurial ecosystems that can encourage heritage issues to be pursued. The fourth chapter titled "Strategies for Innovation Among Indonesian Family Firms" by Gabriella Hanny Kusuma, Nurul Indarti and Hardo Firmana Given Grace Manik analyses the way heritage in the form of family connections influence innovation. As innovation is required for entrepreneurial businesses to develop, it provides a way to understand the connection between heritage and creativity. The fifth chapter titled "Exploring the Relationship Between Informality and Entrepreneurial Ecosystem: A Bibliometric Analysis" by Adriana AnaMaria Davidescu and Eduard Mihai Manta provides an analysis of the current research related to heritage, informal ventures and entrepreneurship. This is needed as it helps to analyse the past in order to predict the future. The sixth chapter titled "The Impact of the SARS-CoV-2 Pandemic on Tourism in Alpine Areas of Switzerland" by Norbert Hörburger and Thorsten Merkle focuses on the role of crises in terms of historical contexts in business ventures. This enables a way to understand the influence of tourism and crises on heritage forms of entrepreneurship. The seventh chapter titled "World Heritage Sites in Italy" by Vanessa Ratten examines tourism forms of heritage entrepreneurship. The eighth

chapter titled "World Heritage Sites in the United States" by Vanessa Ratten focuses on the United States heritage context of tourism entrepreneurship. The ninth chapter titled "Heritage Entrepreneurship: Future Trends" by Vanessa Ratten provides an overview of the current research on heritage entrepreneurship and where it is heading in the future.

Conclusion

Further attention to the development of heritage entrepreneurship is needed in order to make it a recognised sub-field of entrepreneurship studies. It is not possible in this brief chapter to do justice to the importance of heritage entrepreneurship, but it is hoped that the main reason for this unique field of entrepreneurship has been identified. As heritage shapes the behaviour of communities and individuals, the bulk of research on heritage entrepreneurship will evolve to describe and predict different ways heritage can be used in business practices. There are external forces shaping heritage such as advances in technology and the increased interest in culture. Thus, there needs to be more comprehensive research on heritage entrepreneurship. The understanding and solving of social issues in society requires integrating heritage perspectives. Heritage entrepreneurship scholars can build on the work of others in different fields to integrate the way heritage shapes, and is shaped by, entrepreneurship.

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Government Initiatives and Social Entrepreneurship in Thailand: Exploring the Role of *Pracharath Rak Samakee* Social Enterprise Scheme (ประชารัฐรักสามัคคี) and the Way Forward

Ari Margiono and Feranita Feranita

Introduction

Social entrepreneurship scholars have been highlighting the role of social enterprises as the entities that aim for social impact and use business means to achieve their objectives (Becchetti & Borzaga, 2010; Borzaga & Defourny, 2001). Building on such a role, many scholars have argued

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V. Ratten (ed.), *Heritage Entrepreneurship*, Palgrave Studies in Global Entrepreneurship, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-5149-7_2

that social enterprises might be an appropriate solution for the communities where the state and the market failed to address the social needs in the community (Santos, 2012). Many communities in need have been neglected by the government and the private sectors lack interest or incentive in offering value to them. As a result, social enterprises tend to be organic and based on community-driven activities.

In contrast, some governments play an active role in the social entrepreneurship sector (Shockley & Frank, 2011). For example, the Thai government that has played an active and important role in the establishment of a social enterprise ecosystem in addressing the social needs across Thailand. The Thai government played various roles as both the supporter and the actor in the social entrepreneurship ecosystem. In 2015, the Thai government introduced the Pracharath Rak Samakee (ประชารัฐรักสามัคคี) social enterprises scheme (PRS scheme), a scheme of running social enterprises at national and provincial levels, providing an ecosystem across the country. Unlike the community-driven social enterprises, the PRS scheme is a government-initiated social enterprise ecosystem that involves different parties in society, including the academia, private sectors, as well as communities. Through civil servants, the government played an active role as one of the board members in the PRS scheme.

The arrangement of a social enterprise ecosystem that was initiated by the government, where the government actively participated in various roles at different levels is interesting to be investigated for two main reasons. First, the presence of the government in the social entrepreneurship sphere may exacerbate the tensions that many social enterprises have in reconciling the public and private interests. Second, this affects the tension management style and the business model strategy that social enterprises need to adopt. Moreover, the failure to manage the tensions appropriately would risk the failure of the social enterprise. Previous research has indicated that the challenges faced by many social entrepreneurs in managing the organisation is nested in the social versus business tensions that persist in the organisation (e.g. Renko, 2013).

This chapter examines the characteristics and the organisational implications of the PRS scheme in Thailand. Using the publicness theory point of view as a framework (Bozeman, 1987, 2013), this chapter unpacks the characteristics of PRS scheme and argues that there is a need to manage the tensions emerging from the involvement of the government appropriately. This chapter argues that one of the ways that PRS

scheme can manage the tension faced by the social enterprises is that it should follow a reconciliation strategy that focuses on the implementation of inclusive impact measurement.

Heritage Connection

Despite recent popularity, social entrepreneurship in Southeast Asia, including in Thailand, has been practiced since many times ago. Many social and cultural activities in this region were funded by trading activities and its organisation followed the social entrepreneurship model. Moreover, social entrepreneurship in Thailand has also become a vehicle for the preservation of heritage culture, as a few social enterprises in this country have missions to protect cultural heritage, such as protecting disappearing local and traditional cultures due to the impact of modernisation.

In the next section, this chapter first outlines the landscape of the social entrepreneurship in Thailand before discussing the characteristics of the PRS scheme. This chapter will then proceed with a discussion of how the tensions can be better managed through impact measurement.

The Landscape of Social Entrepreneurship in Thailand

Albeit the rising attention and popularity on social enterprises only started in the recent years, social entrepreneurship activities in Thailand, similar to its neighbouring south-east Asian countries, have existed for many years. However, different from many other countries, such as Indonesia (Idris & Hijrah Hati, 2013; Margiono & Feranita, 2021), the Thai government (or the State, as this also includes the Monarchy and the Royal families) has been playing an important role in the social entrepreneurship sector in Thailand. We illustrate the development of the social entrepreneurship sector in three broad but distinct periods that reflect different types of government engagement in Thailand in Table 1.

The Historical Period is marked by the emergence of businesses that were established to support social events. During this period, the government played a role in the backdrop as a supporter, where many of these businesses were initiated by the society. Therefore, most of them do not adopt the profit-maximisation principles typically embraced by businesses in the private sector. Many of these organisations used business as a vehicle to finance their social activities.

Table 1 Periodisation of the government's engagement in the social entrepreneurship sector in Thailand (Authors' own interpretation)

	The Historical Period (1970s–1990s)	*The Foundational Period (2000s–2010s)*	*The Cross Road Moments (2010s–now)*
Characteristics	The existence of business activities that were conducted to support social impacts (e.g. มูลนิธิแม่ฟ้าหลวง—Mae Fah Luang Foundation) reflecting the "self-sufficiency economy philosophy"	During this period, the foundational building block of social entrepreneurship ecosystem was established (e.g. the establishment of Thai Social Enterprise Office)	The establishment of PRS in 76 provinces and 1 national level PRS highlights the active participation of the government in the social enterprise sector alongside the "original" social enterprise actors (e.g. those in the Social Enterprise Thailand association)
Leading sector(s)	Civil society, supported by the government, drove the majority of the social entrepreneurship activities	Government played a leading role in the establishment of the ecosystem	Government initiated the formation of PRS that included the civil servants (government), private sectors, academics and community representatives Social Enterprise Thailand Association, representing the civil society, continued to play an important role in the broader social enterprise ecosystem in Thailand
Government engagement model in the social entrepreneurship sector	Government as supporter	Government as facilitator/enabler	Government as actor

Doherty and Kittipanya-Ngam (2021) highlighted the emergence of three different types of business activities that were established during this period to serve social mission. First, the royal project, Mae Fah Luang foundation (มูลนิธิแม่ฟ้าหลวง), was established in the 1970s to help provide jobs and to conduct capacity development for ethnic

groups and communities. As a royal project, the foundation aimed to provide support to those in needs of education. Second, this period also saw the establishment of the popular "Cabbage and Condoms" restaurant in Bangkok that was founded by the Population and Community Development Association (PDA) in the 1970s. "Cabbage and Condoms" restaurant channelled the restaurant's revenue to finance sexual health education activities and education for the marginalised societies. Third, the emergence of cooperative social enterprises, such as Lemon Farm organic that work with smallholder organic cooperatives. Lemon Farm was a sprung out from an agriculture movement that promoted the use of organic products (Doherty & Kittipanya-Ngam, 2021).

The Foundational Period is signified by the establishment of the institutional and legal infrastructure within the social entrepreneurship ecosystem. The government played an important role as the facilitator and enabler for the social entrepreneurship sector. During this period, National Social Enterprise Committee was established, and the five-year National Social Enterprise Master plan (2010–2014) was developed. Thai Social Enterprise Office (TSEO) was subsequently established in 2010.

Doherty and Kittipanya-Ngam (2021) attributed the government initiatives to the role of Prime Minister (PM) Abhisit Vejjajiva and the Democratic government in facilitating the rapid institutionalisation of social entrepreneurship sector in Thailand. PM Abhisit is very much under British influence as he was born and raised in Newcastle, UK. Thus, the role of British Council in fostering the social entrepreneurship sector in Thailand was instrumental. Government officials were invited to the UK to learn from the design and the implementation of government initiatives in the social entrepreneurship sector in Britain (Doherty & Kittipanya-Ngam, 2021).

The Cross Road Moment is the period that is marked by the establishment of the PRS scheme. In this period, the government played a salient role as an actor in the social entrepreneurship sector. The PRS scheme was established in 77 provinces across Thailand to help rural development through the involvement of civil servants (government), companies (private sector), universities (academia) and the local communities.

The establishment of PRS scheme had raised controversies and many critics argued that the scheme was set up as a populist policy of the incumbent (Kongkirati & Kanchoochat, 2018). The public further criticised that the increased interest from the market and the state in the

social entrepreneurship sphere was due to the fact that PRS scheme was announced as a collaboration between public and private sectors. In attempt to address the criticisms, the government argued that PRS scheme was established to address inequality and improve rural economy (Doherty & Kittipanya-Ngam, 2021).

Nevertheless, the civil society and mission-led social enterprises felt marginalised with the increasing role of the market and the state through the establishment of TSEO and PRS scheme, especially because these government led initiatives were perceived as pro-big businesses (Doherty & Kittipanya-Ngam, 2021). Big businesses have also been criticised for dominating the economy and entrepreneurship sector in Thailand (Kanchoochat et al., 2021), thus marginalising the voices of small businesses and communities. Therefore, during this period, the "original" social enterprises that flourished during the Historical Period established an independent association, the Social Enterprise Thailand Association (Doherty & Kittipanya-Ngam, 2021).

Making Sense of the Pracharath Rak Samakee Social Enterprise Business Model

The Thai government established PRS scheme in 2015. The PRS scheme was initiated as the implementation part of the Pracharath economic development policy—an economic development programme that was launched by General Prayuth Chan-o-Cha's military regime following the 2014 coup (Kongkirati & Kanchoochat, 2018). The Pracharath economic development policy aimed to generate community income to increase citizens' happiness and focused on three priority sectors (agriculture, value-added production process and community-based tourism) (PRS Thailand, 2016). The policy enable access to capital, capacity building, marketing skills, as well as awareness programmes, and to ensure sustainability (PRS Thailand, 2016). Figure 1 illustrates the configuration and roles of PRS social enterprises scheme.

PRS scheme was established as a collaboration among five sectors in Thai society (PRS Thailand, 2016): (1) the public sector to provide public policies, infrastructure and financial assistance through public sector financing; (2) the private sector to provide business management advice, linkages to market, as well as funding; (3) the academia to provide research and development, and agriculture technology and production;

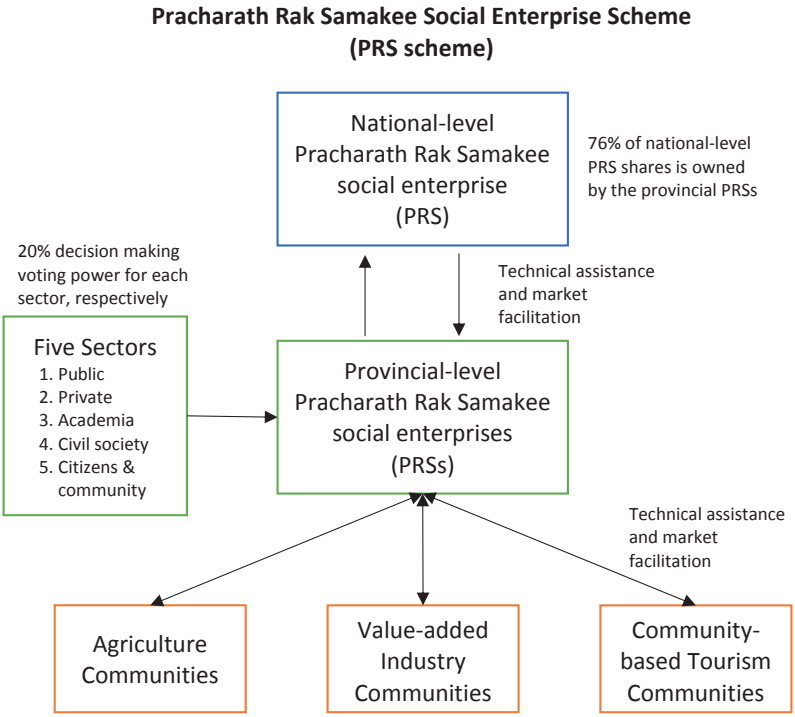

Fig. 1 Configuration of Pracharath Rak Samakee scheme (Author's own interpretation)

(4) the civil society sector to build awareness and linking among communities; and (5) citizens and community businesses to learn new ways of doing business. Under the configuration, all sectors have equal standing.

A national level PRS social enterprise and two provincial level PRS social enterprises (PRSs) pilots—in Phuket and Chiang Mai—were established in 2015. In the following years, 76 provincial PRSs were established in all the provinces in Thailand.

The national level PRS is majority-owned by the provincial PRSs (76%) alongside other minority shareholders from businesses at the national level (24%) (PRS Thailand, 2016). The role of the national level PRS is mainly to support the provincial PRSs in providing (1) knowledge management and communications; (2) network of experts; (3) linkages

to nationwide markets; (4) services around product standards, and product and brand development; (5) intellectual property management; and (6) capacity building training (PRS Thailand, 2016).

The provincial level PRSs were to be established as individual social enterprises. As a social enterprise, PRS in each province has to adhere to the following requirements (PRS Thailand, 2016): (1) the enterprise should be focused on the society, not for profit maximisation; (2) the majority of the enterprise's revenue should come from doing consulting activities to the community, and not from donation or government funds; (3) implementing good governance; and (4) registered as a business entity.

The provincial level PRS has unique decision-making process. Each of the five participating sectors (the public sector, private sector, academia, civil society and the citizens and community businesses) has 20% voting rights. Such structure gives the PRS social enterprise a board spectrum of stakeholders where decision should be made collectively (PRS Thailand, 2016).

The establishment of PRS scheme is unique and intriguing from the social entrepreneurship scholars' perspective due to several reasons. First, many scholars in the social entrepreneurship sector argue that the unique role of social entrepreneurship in the economy is to fill the void left by the government and the market (Santos, 2012). For example, the history of social enterprises in Indonesia shows that many communities used social entrepreneurship approach to provide public services that were absent due to oppressive colonial government policies (Idris & Hijrah Hati, 2013). Nevertheless, PRS scheme was established by the Prayuth's military government and developed as an important element of the government economic development programme. Thus, the role of government in establishing PRS scheme signifies heavy involvement of the government in the social entrepreneurship sector as an actor. Therefore, it is not surprising that many criticised Prayuth administration's move to establish PRS scheme due to suspicions that the social enterprise scheme was established in effort to counter the former PM Thaksin Shinawatra's influence and popularity in the past.

Second, despite the critics, PRS scheme is a good example of nationwide public, private and community partnership. Among the many challenges that the social enterprises face is the fact that their impact tends to be micro and isolated. Embracing a bottom-up process, social enterprises often focused on the issues that are local and community-specific.

To tackle this issue, many scholars argue that social enterprises need to work together with other organisations to create more impact. Thus, a call to embrace cross-sector social entrepreneurial partnership has been made. In line with the call, PRS scheme is a social enterprises scheme that embraces collaborations among public, private and community sectors. Therefore, observing PRS scheme is deem essential in providing more insights in the field of social entrepreneurship field.

This chapter builds on the publicness theory approach (Bozeman, 1987, 2013) to make sense of the characteristics of PRS scheme as a social enterprise scheme that is government-driven and to explore the implications. Publicness theory has highlighted that scholars an make sense of different types of organisations, including hybrids like social enterprises, from the ways their ownership structures are arranged, the types of funding that they receive and use, and the extent to which external stakeholders control the organisation (Bozeman, 1987). Based on these three characteristics, organisations can take form as public, private or even hybrid organisation.

Research in the publicness and social entrepreneurship fields has highlighted the subsequent business models that follow certain configurations of publicness characteristics. Margiono et al. (2018) argue that, based on the dimensions of the publicness theory (ownership, funding and control), social enterprises may have three subsequent business model configurations. First, a lock-in business model configuration emerges from social enterprise that has public funding and greater external control. Due to high dependency to the external funding as the main revenue, a social enterprise needs to ensure that its business models lock the stakeholders in the ecosystem. Second, a novelty business model configuration emerges from social enterprise that operates from private funding (i.e. main source of funding is from trading activities) and moderately controlled by the stakeholders. Social enterprises with these particular characteristics may foster innovative and novelty business model due more autonomy in the ways they arrange their organisations. Third, an efficiency business model configuration is reflected in a social enterprise that has private funding and less external control. Since the social enterprise has larger degree of autonomy due to less external control, it may pursue operational efficiency to reserve some space for profit.

All of these configurations reflect various degrees of tensions that may affect the performance of the social enterprise. For example, the lock-in business model requires appropriate management of public

and private tensions due to a constant need to balance autonomy and demands from the public. The lock-in business model is similar to many non-profit models since the social enterprise is highly dependent on the support from external funders, such as donor organisations or public agenda. Therefore, this may restrict or limit their independence in decision-making processes. This is also true for the novelty business model, where it needs to properly manage the tensions that arise from high public expectations, such as trust, and from the private's interest of profit appropriation.

Taking cue from this, PRS scheme's government-driven arrangement may exert higher tensions due to higher organisational publicness. The appropriateness of the business model adopted by PRS scheme in managing the tensions becomes essential. Table 2 highlights the publicness dimensions, and the implication of the PRS scheme arrangement.

The majority shareholders of the national PRS are the provincial PRSs, thus the whole PRS scheme has higher degree of public ownership. This implies that none of their founders at the provincial level PRSs (the government, the private sector, the academics and the community at the provincial levels) will be able to exert their individual private interest, for example, making profit. The collective ownership of PRS scheme positions the scheme as a social enterprise scheme that are configured similar to many non-profit organisations (Margiono et al., 2018).

As indicated in the principles of PRS scheme, the revenue of each individual PRS social enterprise, whether national or provincial level, should be derived primarily from consulting activities—such as giving support to the business sector, including the community businesses. Such funding arrangement positions each PRS social enterprise as a full market enterprise since their main revenue is from trading activities. In addition, as trading enterprises, PRSs have the freedom to use any profit that they have appropriated from the business activities that they do. Although, in general, social enterprise with private funding may have the autonomy in using the revenue and sales profit according to their own arrangement, this is not the case for social enterprises that receive public funding from government or donation. In many cases, the public funding can impose restrictions to the social enterprise, in the sense that the social enterprise would not have the freedom to utilise the money according to their own arrangement.

However, despite the supposed freedom that PRSs have as their main income is through private funding, PRSs have high external and political

Table 2 Publicness and the Pracharath Rak Samakee scheme business model

Publicness dimensions	*Definition*	*PRS's arrangement*	*Implications of the business model arrangement*
Ownership	Identifies whether an organisation is owned by private entities (individuals) or whether it is a public institution	Provincial PRSs' shareholders consist of the government, the private sector, the academia and the community 76% of the national PRS is own by provincial PRSs	High public ownership of the PRS scheme discourages profit distribution. This reduces perceived value of the social enterprises by profit-oriented shareholders (value appropriation)
Funding	Identifies whether an organisation receives funding from public sources or trading sources	PRSs received funding mainly from consulting activities (trading). PRSs are discouraged to receive public funding (from the government and donation)	PRSs have private funding. This allows them to utilise the sales profit according to their own arrangement
Control	Identifies whether an organisation is exposed to higher or lower external and political control	PRSs have governance arrangement that exert external control. Each of the participating sector has 20% vote. PRSs emerged from Pracharath Policy and this implies relatively higher external and political control than other similar organisations	High public control increases tensions in the value creation processes (e.g. business vs. social operational processes)

control due to the characteristics and the ways in which the government play an important founding role. The arrangement of the provincial PRSs also implies that the decision-making of the social enterprises is locked in the equal voting power of the participating five sectors. As the participant stakeholders are a mix of public and private institutions, this particular arrangement may create tensions due to the conflicting interests among the public and private institutions.

These peculiar publicness arrangements of PRSs (high external control and private funding) may often correspond to the application of novelty business model configuration (Margiono et al., 2018). Existing research has found that many social enterprises with novelty business models

often offer themselves as a platform or a double-sided model that link different segments in the market (Osterwalder & Pigneur, 2010).

In this case, PRSs also play a role as intermediaries that link communities to the market. For example, the role of the board of directors in each of the PRSs is tasked to link and find potential markets for the community (PRS Thailand, 2016). This is also evident in the tasks that are assigned to national level PRSs that is to provide support to provincial PRSs in finding markets at the national level (PRS Thailand, 2016).

Managing and Measuring Impact as Tension Management

Thailand's PRS scheme is unique since the government (through civil servant representative in provincial PRS) play an important role as an actor in the social enterprise sector. This is unlike any other social enterprise arrangement in democracies where it is often seen as a solution to fill the void stemming from the "failure" of the state and the market in addressing the social needs (Santos, 2012). Furthermore, PRS scheme is unique because of the political context that strengthens the role of government as an actor in this sector. Thus, PRSs have a high level of publicness and the organisations have to deal with opposing tensions arising from both public and private demand.

A novelty business model, such as a platform model, is adopted by social enterprises to ensure that they can survive and create impact. As previous research has indicated, social enterprises need to have clear mission statement and impact management, as well as measurement mechanisms to ensure accountability and transparency to the participating stakeholders in novelty business model. Maintaining trusts of the participants to the platform is essential. In order to do so, the social enterprise needs to focus on the impact that they have created. However, many social enterprises, including PRSs, have yet to appropriately manage and measure their impact. This may pose challenges to the sustainability of the social enterprises primarily due to the mismanaged ongoing tensions between public expectations, such as trust to the platform model and the private interest of the organisation.

In fact, focusing on impact also serves as a way to solve the paradox of balancing between publicness and privateness in many social enterprises. Existing literature on the paradox and tensions have highlighted various ways that tensions can be managed in organisations. For example, focusing on the temporal aspects of the tensions allows social enterprises

to phase conflicting aspects and to treat the source of the tensions as an *either-or* opposite. A few social enterprises are known to phase their social-business conflict in a temporal manner. This allows them to manage the continuous tensions that arise from the conflicting needs in the organisations.

Other paradox that scholars have also highlighted is the ways in which organisations approach the tensions as *more-than*. A more-than approach to tensions establishes new relationship through the connection, establishment of the third space and dialogue strategy (Putnam et al., 2016). In this case, the connection refers to the practices to engage the tensions via a dynamic interplay. Instead of taking the opposites as independent sides and irreconcilable polar, the connection allows social entrepreneurs to embrace the tensions as a dynamic interplay. The third space is a site where all the activities take place to disrupt, invent and enunciate, allowing everyone in the organisations to live in paradox. It is also a sanctuary for dialogue or communicative practices. Previous research has shown that social entrepreneurs are often engaged in these practices. For example, social enterprises tend to "zig-zag" between business demands and social demands in reconciling the tensions (Rangan & Gregg, 2019; Smith & Besharov, 2019).

Impact measurement, in a way, is the connection, the third space, and the dialogue between public and private spaces. Impact measurement activities embrace the tensions like dynamic interplays, as it must accommodate the public and private interests (social and business objectives). As a third space, it ideally becomes a sanctuary for dialogue between the participating sectors to decide on what should be achieved, how, and who should benefit from these processes. It is a place where discussions and negotiations of different interests take place. Community meetings, discussions and bottom-up workshops to discuss expectations, outputs and outcomes of the activities are examples of the third space. However, as a third space, impact measurement will become a political activity and it is not reducible to mere technicalities of developing the measurement indicators and formula. The real challenge to having an appropriate impact management is on how the whole process of impact assessment is inclusive and involving all relevant stakeholders. Thus, in developing inclusive impact measurement processes, there is a number of just measurement approaches that social enterprises, including PRSs, need to appreciate (Margiono et al., 2022). First is the right to objective measurement. This refers to the need to ensure that the development of

measurement indicators and criteria is just and fair. In doing so, social enterprises need to ensure that they develop and define the measurement criteria appropriately. Second is the right to be objectively measured. This highlights the need to ensure that everyone is involved in the measurement processes, and to ensure that measurement processes are participatory and are not marginalising. Table 3 highlights the issues and the recommendations on the inclusive impact measurement strategy that social enterprises, including PRSs, can embrace.

Conclusion

Social entrepreneurship has often been seen as an initiative that is driven by the presence of gap between what government should deliver and what the market should solve. Nonetheless, the example of PRS scheme in Thailand has shown that the government has been playing an important role in the establishment of the social enterprise ecosystem. The establishment of the PRS scheme exemplifies the active involvement of the Thai government as an important actor in the ecosystem. PRSs have high publicness, and the consequences of this is that these social enterprises need to manage public and private tensions appropriately. In

Table 3 Inclusive impact measurement, relevance to social enterprises and recommendations for PRS

Inclusive impact measurement aspects	*Relevance to social enterprises*	*Recommendations for PRS*
The right to objective measurement	Social enterprises are able to ensure that their social missions are achieved in an appropriate manner. Thus, solving the social versus business tensions in the organisation	Develop "theory of change" and measurement criteria that are fair and inclusive
The right to be objectively measured	Social enterprises are inclusive and are able to accommodate interests from different stakeholders. Thus, solving the tensions arising from the participation of conflicting stakeholders	Develop a mechanism that allows participation of those who are willing and interested to take part in the development of the "theory of change" and the measurement process

managing the tensions, social enterprises need to approach the opposites in a "more-than" approach—via impact measurement. Therefore, connecting, a third space, and dialogue should become the strategy in managing these tensions. As the establishment of the third space is a political endeavour, a just measurement practice is imperative. Both PRSs and similar social enterprises in Thailand need to embrace the practice of just measurement that embodies the rights of the stakeholders to objective measurement and the rights of stakeholders to be objectively measured.

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Social-Driven Innovation in Tourism: A Perspective on Soft Attributes of an Entrepreneurial Ecosystem

Paolo Bernardi and Raffaele Cecere

Introduction

In the recent years, the phenomenon of innovation in tourism has drawn the attention of many scholars: innovation is a key factor for firms, organizations, and tourist destinations in terms of both their competitiveness and sustainability (Bagiran Ozseker, 2019; Gomezelj, 2016; Hjalager, 2010, 2015). For this reason, understanding what are the drivers that trigger innovative processes and new entrepreneurial initiatives is a challenging question for scholars, managers, and policy makers (Trunfio & Campana, 2019). Furthermore, actors involved are influenced by political, economic, and social factors related to the local area and destination itself as well as the regional and national context (Racherla et al., 2008). From this perspective, innovation is a contextual

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V. Ratten (ed.), *Heritage Entrepreneurship*, Palgrave Studies in Global Entrepreneurship, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-5149-7_3

process rooted in a specific geographical area (Krugman, 1991) and consequently the task of the entrepreneurs is to discover the connections between technological and social changes underlying the innovative processes and uncover opportunities for new entrepreneurial initiatives.

Social Innovation is a concept widely used but there is still no unique definition (Chiappero-Martinetti et al., 2017). Basically, it is a newer and/or better way of "doing things" but with a social core, in terms of sources, needs, and outcomes. It consists of innovative activities in order to tackle a social need for the benefit of the broader community rather than specific individuals (Mulgan et al., 2007). According to Ayob et al. (2016), Social Innovation could be understood through the lens of social values' production and new social relations. The former emphasizes the process to seek more effective, efficient and sustainable solutions to a social problem, creating value that accrues primarily to society as a whole (Phills et al., 2008). Otherwise, the relational perspective consists of new answers to prevalent social issues by delivering new products and building new relationships or collaboration that improve the quality of life of individuals and communities and their capabilities (Murray et al., 2010).

Essentially, social innovation is linked to the efforts of an entire community instead of those of a single individual and for these reasons it is also defined as social-driven innovation (Trunfio & Campana, 2020). It is a type of innovation linked to the social awareness of local actors who, by proactively participating in community issues, not only increase the shared value of the territory and the collective well-being of society (Nespolo et al., 2018; Sanzo-Perez et al., 2015), but also trigger entrepreneurial processes (Trunfio & Campana, 2019).

In this way, social innovation, being linked to the culture and traditions of the people and territories in which it develops, is rooted in the interactions that occur between different factors, not only human-driven, in a local context. These interactions are included in the set of intangible elements that in turn constitute the cultural heritage of a specific community (Garofano et al., 2020; Loulanski, 2006; Riviezzo et al., 2017).

For the purpose of this chapter, Social Innovation is a *«new solution* (products, services, models, markets, processes, etc.) *that simultaneously meet a social need and lead to new or improved capabilities and relationships and better use of assets and resources* […] *both good for society and enhance society's capacity to act»* (Caulier-Grice et al., 2012). In this vein, we argue that social innovation is a complex construct that includes

multiple social actors working together for the social good to provide solutions for social issues. This, in turn, helps to build the social capital in the local context, facilitating new entrepreneurial initiatives and transformative changes.

The aim of this chapter is to understand the antecedents of social-driven innovations through the analysis of attributes of local context that help to make social capital, impacting positively on new entrepreneurial initiatives in tourism. In the seminal work of Ghoshal and Bartlett (1994), the organizational context is defined on the basis of four attributes, namely discipline, stretch, support and trust. Discipline induces members of an organization or community to voluntarily strive to meet the expectations generated by their implicit and explicit commitments, while stretch prompts to pursue more ambitious goals. Trust is the attribute that induces the members of a given context to mutually trust in the commitment and work of each other (Al-Tabbaa et al., 2021; Bryson et al., 2006; Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1994; Mayer et al., 1995). Support is related to the supportive dimension of a context in which each person lends assistance, help and support to each other (Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1994; Marcoulides & Heck, 1993; Walton, 1985). Each attribute could be created or strengthened by specific mechanisms and practices, like the implementation of a feedback system, the development of a collective identity, or the participation in a shared governance. In summary, a community needs to foster discipline and stretch in order to push individuals to achieve increasingly significant goals and, at the same time, support and trust for setting up a cooperative, participatory, and supportive environment. The context, in other words, does not dictate what to do but creates the conditions for a favorable environment that inspires individual and collective actions toward a goal. Furthermore, the context plays a central role to promote and conciliate conflictual behaviors between exploitation and exploration activities (March, 1991) in order to get an ambidextrous orientation (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004, Simsek, 2009) that favors innovative processes.

From this framework, we argue that soft attributes of a context, namely trust and support, are pivotal factors in order to develop cooperation and collaboration between actors and stakeholder in a community, posing favorable conditions for social innovation:it promotes the cognitive dimension of social capital (i.e., values, attitudes, norms, and beliefs) that by meeting the organizational and relational one (Liu et al., 2014), it helps to create interpersonal and interorganizational interactions that

facilitate coordination between actors within a specific entrepreneurial ecosystem.

On the basis of what has been argued so far, this work is based on the following research question: *Can the soft attributes, namely trust and support, of an entrepreneurial ecosystem affect social-driven innovation in tourism?*

This chapter is structured as follows. In the next paragraph, we focus on the local context and its role in tourism as an entrepreneurial ecosystem. Next, we discuss how the soft attributes, trust and support, affect the capabilities of a local context to generate social innovation. Then, we close our work with conclusions, insights for further research, practical implications and limitations.

The Local Context as Entrepreneurial Ecosystem

The local context is able to overcome institutional shortcomings (e.g., slow or lacking bureaucracy) and provide the resources, both material and non-material, to develop innovative ideas and enhance potential business opportunities related to the local area (Trunfio & Campana, 2020). For this reason, local community involvement is considered one of the prerequisites for local tourism regeneration and development (Getz & Jamal, 1994).

In this way, social capital (i.e., the set of beliefs, trust, forms of interaction, norms and values) takes on a fundamental role. It helps the sharing of tacit and explicit knowledge and facilitates collective actions (Putnam, 1993) through which innovative processes within destinations are nurtured, fostering the collaboration of various stakeholders and the co-creation of value (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Macbeth et al., 2004). In addition, social capital plays a very important role since it fosters the participation of the local community, creates synergies among different stakeholders, and enables the orchestration of existing resources, with positive spillover effects on tourism activities (Beritelli et al., 2016; Franch, 2010). The active involvement of local residents becomes a key resource for the tourism destination (Cole, 2006; Dogra & Gupta, 2012) with positive outcomes also on the social and environmental sustainability of the place (Fan et al., 2020; Hardy et al., 2002; Salazar, 2012).

For the purpose of this chapter, the local context is a territory delimited by geographic, cultural, and economic characteristics that make it

at the same time sufficiently homogeneous within itself and heterogeneous externally to other geographic areas. Similar characteristics are typical of small ecosystems such as municipalities, rural villages, and natural reserves. These places, being sufficiently restricted and cohesive, even from a spatial point of view, represent the organizational context within which they move, interact, and relate to the various actors who can contribute to the success and development of a social-driven innovation.

In this vein, the local context is a socio-economic community of actors, individuals, and institutions located in a given geographic area within which innovations and entrepreneurial initiatives take place (Freeman & Audia, 2006; Isenberg, 2010; Kuratko et al., 2017; Malecki, 2011). Moreover, local context is also defined as a system with geographically bounded mutually dependent components (Auerswald, 2015; Napier & Hansen, 2011). This definition is consistent with the one of the entrepreneurial ecosystems considered in this *work: «[…] a set of interdependent actors and factors coordinated in such a way that they enable productive entrepreneurship within a particular territory»* (Stam, 2015). Some authors have considered the territorial dimension as specific to an entrepreneurial ecosystem (Cavallo et al., 2019; Colombelli et al., 2019), combining individual and contextual factors (Stam, 2015; Sussan & Acs, 2017) in a perspective that frames entrepreneurship as a process rooted in a specific local context, in social and economic terms (Steyaert & Katz, 2004) rather than the individual action of the entrepreneur. Therefore, territory can have a significant influence on entrepreneurial processes (Johannisson, 2011), especially in light of emerging research on entrepreneurial ecosystems that emphasizes the interactive and non-linear nature of the process (Cooke, 2016).

In support of this approach, Cecere and colleagues (2021) discuss the importance of spatial development and local tourism through a network composed by local actors, who contributed to the creation of a cycling tourism destination in Italy. In their study, they refer to the testimony of an experienced tour guide who voluntarily contributed to the creation of bicycle tourism routes through his physical work and know-how. In this case, they highlight the importance of the initiatives of individual actors and their ability to bind themselves into a network in which entrepreneurial ideas can come to life that transform a territory into a tourist destination based on the creation of an entrepreneurial ecosystem. A similar case is argued in the study by Taylor and colleagues (2019) who show that tourism business initiatives can often involve not only entrepreneurs

and policy makers, but also residents who are also users. In fact, in their case we can see how the efforts of a local cyclist in manually mapping out the first trail within the Whakarewarewa Forest was the spark that led to the creation of a network of trails and turning Rotorua (in New Zealand), into a destination for mountain bikers.

In sum, we can argue that context plays a critical role in directing and guiding the behaviors of stakeholders (Burgelman, 1983a; Denison, 1990; Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1994). Furthermore, it is a combination of structural context, culture, and organizational climate. Specifically, structural context is the set of tangible mechanisms, such as the system of incentives, rewards, and explicit norms, that drive behavior in a particular direction (Bower, 1970; Bower & Doz, 1979; Burgelman, 1983a, 1983b). Culture, on the other hand, includes beliefs, values, and principles that are placed at the foundation of behavior (Denison, 1990; Ouchi, 1981; Schein, 1985). Finally, climate is the set of stimuli from the organization and/or environment that have an influence on individual behaviors and attitudes (Lewin et al., 1939).

The Trust Attribute of a Local Context

Mayer et al., (1995, p. 712) define trust in an organizational context as the willingness of an individual to accept the actions of another individual based on the expectation that the latter will perform a particular important action, regardless of the ability to either control the one performing the action. Trust is a key element in initiating relationships between actors engaged in a social system (Bryson et al., 2006) and is a factor to consider when implementing collaborative projects (Al-Tabbaa et al., 2021). Furthermore, trust is not only an important element that triggers new relationships with new actors (Den Hond et al., 2015), but also causes an individual or organization to safeguard against opportunistic behavior (Wang & Rajagopalan, 2015). On these definitions several studies have arisen, which have used the concept of trust to explain certain collaborative behaviors in different sectors and different organizational settings. Trust measures the relational dimension in social capital and is an essential element of the relationship (Chen et al., 2016).

Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) define the relational dimension as the set of personal relationships that people have developed with each other through a history of interactions (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 1035). Therefore, relational capital measures the level of trust between users

within the community (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). In addition, Ghoshal and Bartlett (1994) define trust as one of the dimensions of quality of management which in turn consists of three elements: equity, involvement, and competence. Moreover, in a more recent study, it emerges that trust represents a component of social capital capable of triggering social innovation processes (Nazir et al., 2018).

According to this perspective, Sanzo and colleagues (2015) argue that cross-sector partnerships represent a new form of collaboration that encourages the development of social innovation practices. The authors, investigating a sample of 325 Spanish nonprofit foundations, have found that close relationships based on trust and commitment encourage the development of nonprofit innovations. In addition, results in the same area belong to a study by Ljung and Bengtson (2012), who, analyzing innovation processes and relationships between two commercial firms and an NGO in an Amazon region of Brazil, has shown that trust assumes a fundamental role in innovation processes in emerging economies. In addition, Hatak and colleagues (2016) state that trust assumes a fundamental role in the growth of social capital among the various actors in a cooperative. Furthermore, another study shows that in order to increase social innovation in the city of Sabae (Japan), it was important that entrepreneurs, innovative enterprises, and all regional community stakeholders were open and generous with each other, assuming a relationship of mutual collaboration and trust (Hirano et al., 2016). This means that in resource-poor regions, mutual collaboration and networking among regional SMEs based on social capital is an effective way to trigger innovative growth processes (Hirano et al., 2016).

As a matter of fact, the elements that characterize social capital are trust, solidarity, mutual respect, and strong ties. In this way, we can say that networks that strengthen the bonds of trust between people are regarded as a major factor in building social capital (Harrisson, 2012). Moreover, in another study by Laplante and Harrisson (2008), it is inferred that trust acts as a facilitator and plays an important role in social relations within organizations undergoing change and those that depend more on cooperation. In addition, Milner (2019), through a study investigating innovation processes related to the Southern African Social Innovation Camp (the Camp), asserts that trust is one of the main factors affecting the development of relationships between people in the camp. In particular, it emerges that trust triggers innovation processes. Alegre and Berbegal-Mirabent (2016), with a sample of two social

enterprises in the hospitality and tourism sector, have revealed that social needs' pressures and managerial trust on employees are additional factors that drive social business model innovation. Also in tourism, Zach and Hill (2017), using four rural, regional, small business-dominated tourism destinations in the United States as a sample, have shown that trust is associated with the innovative behavior that a firm engages in with partner firms in relation to innovative development within a tourism destination's network.

Finally, Carson and Carson (2018), in a study conducted in a sparsely populated area in northern Sweden, have investigated how the immigrant population residing in that specific area has contributed to the formation of local capital by triggering innovative processes through their entrepreneurial activities in the tourism sector. Specifically, through an in-depth analysis of social networks, the authors identified that limited levels of trust and reciprocity between immigrants and local actors were some of the causes of the limited contributions of immigrants, negatively impacting mutual learning outcomes and innovative development in the area (Carson & Carson, 2018). Here, the importance of trust in social innovation processes has been considered by analyzing an unfortunate case where it is not present, highlighting its importance in social relations.

The Support Attribute of a Local Context

Support is the attribute of a context that pushes its members to provide assistance (Walton, 1985): organization theory emphasizes the access to resources, autonomy, guidance, and help as central themes (Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1994). This represents a paradigm shift from merely controlling people and resources to one based on helping, advising, and mentoring (Marcoulides & Heck, 1993), this setting acts as a counterbalance to managing resources in autonomy. It concerns decentralization processes and consequent empowerment of lower levels (Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Deci et al., 1989; Denison, 1990) while the access to resources refers to the way of accessing, obtaining, and exploiting financial, material, information, and relational resources coming from different parts of the organization at various levels (Kanter, 1988). Each element contributes to enhancing the level of support of a given organizational context and developing a feeling of empowerment and commitment (Walton, 1985). Furthermore, it's important to highlight how these outcomes play a key

role also in promoting innovative processes, including social ones, since they are able to mobilize and address people and resources toward a common goal, building social capital (Ansari et al., 2012).

From this point of view, we argue that these concepts are still valid also in a broader context, such as small communities and/or local contexts as we described above. Places like that have tourist attractions (such as monuments and natural attractions), cultural and relational capital (such as schools, cultural nonprofit, and local residents), that provides suitable resources to foster social-driven innovation: resources would be exploited by all actors, for instance, using digital platforms or specialized information systems (Casais et al., 2020; Vilarinho et al., 2018) or else exploiting strategies and dynamics related to open innovation paradigm (Chesbrough & Minin, 2014; Della Corte et al., 2019; Pikkemaat & Peters, 2016), also leveraging big data in order to enhance the exchange of knowledge and information (Del Vecchio et al., 2014). Similar approaches leverage the transparency and visibility of the resources available in a particular area, creating the circumstances—an ecosystem—under which potential entrepreneurial opportunities can be identified (Arenas et al., 2019; Gretzel et al., 2015). Autonomy related to a local context is about the capability of a territory to stimulate new initiatives and ventures: it is influenced by multiple factors (i.e., economic, social, and cultural) and by the legal framework, like the principle of subsidiarity, a pillar of European Union, and also present in Italian constitution and American one (Lodigiani & Pesenti, 2014; Maltoni, 2002); although often these factors are beyond the control of a local context, it is possible to mitigate or amplify impacts by adopting incentive systems and/or governance instruments that can connect all the actors existing in a territory (Baker & Mehmood, 2015).

The process of making autonomy effective requires guidance, help, and assistance: it is possible to assign this role to the public and private institutions in a local context, such as existing firms, nonprofit, voluntary associations, and educational institutions. Universities and schools play a critical role in supporting innovative processes (Benneworth & Cunha, 2015; Petersen & Kruss, 2021) as well as voluntary activities and associations (Ayob et al., 2016; Shaw & Carter, 2007) since they are privileged keepers of best practices and initiatives in the social sphere; from a human capital perspective, the relevance of training courses to educate to entrepreneurship and innovation should not be underestimated (Martin et al., 2013).

As we argued so far, the characteristics that make a given local context supportive for social-driven innovations are the result of a complex set of behaviors and mutual interactions (Malek & Costa, 2015) with a nonlinear approach (Cooke, 2016). However, they develop a fertile ground in promoting cooperative behaviors and new ventures when they are governed with appropriate mechanisms. For instance, Basile and colleagues (2021) show that local residents of a small community changed their social and economic practices thanks to a series of context-based stimuli: they made social innovations by offering new services, improving tourists' experience and the local context itself.

In summary, the support is needed to trigger co-creation-oriented processes, aiming at facilitating and stimulating an active role of all the actors in the local context to share and/or exchange knowledge, information, and resources (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Barlatier & Dupouët, 2015; Tosun, 2006). This is crucial for developing initiatives in the tourism sector (Palladino, 2020; Pizzichini et al., 2020) and in rural or underdeveloped contexts (Basile et al., 2021).

Discussion and Conclusions

In this chapter, we analyzed how some attributes of a local context can have an important role in developing and promoting social innovations: specifically, we traced the ways and mechanisms with which trust and support contribute to help and favor stakeholders' actions in a local context.

Trust is important in orienting the behaviors of local actors (Carson & Carson, 2018; Milner, 2019) since it induces the members of a given context to mutually trust in the commitment and work of each other (Reid et al., 2000). At the same time, when a local context is supportive it is possible to mobilize existing resources, thus playing an empowerment role (Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1994, 1995; Tosun, 2006). Trust and support are two sides of the same coin: each is necessary for the other. Trust enables resources to be connected and exploited in a relationship of mutual confidence. Likewise, Trust is not a sufficient condition if the local context is not receptive enough to actively supporting innovation initiatives.

In this vein, the argumentation proposed in this chapter offers important steps forward for understanding the drivers that trigger innovative processes in tourism destinations by analyzing the role of the local

context (Getz & Jamal, 1994; Trunfio & Campana, 2019, 2020), which is linked to culture, traditions, people, territories, and the set of intangible values that make up the cultural heritage (Garofano et al., 2020; Loulanski, 2006; Riviezzo et al., 2017). In this way, heritage represents the connection between the soul of a community/local context and the main social stakeholders, it favors the creation of a context of active and collaborative participation, generating new forms of innovation and co-production of value (Poulios, 2014).

However, it must also consider limitations of this work: the main one is the lack of empirical analysis. Future research could consider the results of this study and formulate testable hypotheses: it may be that the relationship between trust and support is not directly linked to the social-driven innovation, but other latent variables could mediate that relationship. For instance, trust and support could be the antecedents for the formation of social capital and that this in turn positively affects the innovative orientations of a given local context. Particularly, it could test whether the results of this can be validated and generalized across a sample of heterogeneous tourist destinations (such as seaside or mountain towns and art cities), this could also offer the opportunity of creating a measurement scale with which assess and measures the attributes of the local context in order to help policy makers and investment decisions. Moreover, further research could identify and investigate key dimensions and constructs of trust and support in the local context to also promote issues related to sustainability, such as environmental protection, improved quality of life, and territorial regeneration.

Important implications for practice can also be drawn from this chapter. The remarks that emerged can help combine the actions of scholars and managers to develop best practices for actors, both public and private, who play a key role in managing tourism destinations and are in a privileged position for innovating the offer in the area.

In particular, the focus of this chapter is on the one hand on the policy maker and local entrepreneurs, and on the other hand on the community: the policy maker should be able to trigger social innovation processes within the entrepreneurial ecosystem thanks to its role in managing the place, but the lack of resources could hinder that. In this case, the local community could compensate for these shortcomings and promote innovation and growth, based on the concepts of trust and support (Stone & Stone, 2011).

Finally, these processes can in turn positively impact local entrepreneurship and generate positive consequences on the entrepreneurial ecosystem and the entire local territory.

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Strategies for Innovation Among Indonesian Family Firms

Gabriella Hanny Kusuma, Nurul Indarti and Hardo Firmana Given Grace Manik

Introduction

Many studies have attempted to investigate the role of family firms within a country, such as to economic development of a nation (Indarti & Langenberg, 2004; Taneja et al., 2016) or to a global economy (Cabrera-Suarez et al., 2001; Llach & Nordqvist, 2010). In addition

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V. Ratten (ed.), *Heritage Entrepreneurship*, Palgrave Studies in Global Entrepreneurship, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-5149-7_4

to that, the issue of sustainability within family firms remains important to study as the nature of the family firms have strong desire to keep their business on going from one generation to the next generations (Kellermanns et al., 2012). In doing so, family firms need to conduct and maintain innovation in order to compete and to survive in the long term (Brines et al., 2013; Taneja et al., 2016).

Family firms are governed by a unique set of norms, cultures, and processes that are not found in non-family firms (Kellermanns et al., 2012). The entrepreneurs of family firms build a business as well as their family institution (Chrisman et al., 2003). With this nature, family firms have advantages compared to non-family ones with respect to discovering new opportunities and launching new products/services/processes through the support of combination of some common family business characteristics, such as long-term orientation, low staff turnover, long leader tenure, and family ties (Ramadani et al., 2020). Despite those advantages, some literatures also identify that family firms tend to be risk-averse because the changes or innovations will certainly disrupt knowledge or family culture that has been maintained for a long time (Casprini et al., 2017; De Massis et al., 2015; Llach & Nordqvist, 2010; Nieto et al., 2015; Taneja et al., 2016; Werner et al., 2017). Especially for small- and medium-sized family firms, the resource scarcity to develop new products, services, or processes is also a problem because innovation requires sufficient resource allocation (De Massis et al., 2018).

Based on the above consideration, the study of innovation in family firms becomes essential as family business is not just a job but also a way of life and emotional bond identity for its family members (Kusuma & Indarti, 2017), the predecessor of the family firm will not let the regeneration of leadership stall. While the predecessor should be committed to preparing his successor, the successor must also be proactive in learning to master the knowledge and connect to the social network of the predecessor in order to have credibility and gain legitimacy by the firm's main stakeholders (Lee et al., 2003). The successor of family firms should also be more aware and recognize the company's internal capabilities in formulating innovation strategies so the dreams of change that they want to realize are carried out realistically considering actual problems being faced, such as the family conflicts that may occur and relationships with non-family employees (Röd, 2016). Although the succession process has been widely explored (e.g., Marler et al., 2017), how an innovation is

managed during this process and the dynamics of intergenerational knowledge transfer behind the process (Calabrò et al., 2018; Kusuma & Indarti, 2017; Röd, 2016) still relevant to be investigated. Therefore, the current study is expected to provide a better understanding of how innovation is managed within family firms and what may interact in the process.

This study conducted in Indonesia where the vast majority of firms owned by family (Indarti, 2010). Business decisions made by family firms in Indonesia, including the ones related to the management of innovation and leadership succession, determine the livelihood or welfare level of the majority of Indonesians who work there (Anggadwita et al., 2020; Kusuma & Indarti, 2017). In addition, Indonesia has rich heritage and cultural values which are owned by more than 600 kinship-based families spread across the archipelago (Manik et al., 2021). The two majority are the Javanese culture which emphasizes on social hierarchy and harmony relationship or identity-based network and the Minang people with their wandering tradition or calculative-based network (Efferin & Hartono, 2015; Manik et al., 2021). Hence, using the knowledge-based theory of the firm, the study is intended to answer the following question: What are the innovation strategies of family firms during the succession process?

This paper is structured as follows. The first section describes the background and the need of the study followed by the literature review in the second section. The third section elaborates research design used in this study. Findings, discussions, and conclusions are then explained in the fourth and fifth sections.

Literature Review

Knowledge-Based Theory of the Firm

The knowledge-based theory argues that knowledge is the most fundamental asset of a firm (Grant, 1996). As a fuel for the creation of a firm's value, knowledge is defined as the integration of information, ideas, experience, intuition, skills, and lessons-learned (Dana et al., 2005). From the literature on knowledge management, there are two forms of knowledge, namely tacit and explicit knowledge (see Jassimuddin et al., 2005; Polanyi, 1969; Takeuchi, 2001). Explicit knowledge is formally and systematically expressed in symbols, words, can be easily communicated or shared in discussion forums and information systems.

In contrast, tacit knowledge is very personal and difficult to formalize because it consists of personal knowledge or beliefs, values, spirituality, and intuitions. Specific in family firms, tacit knowledge is formed from idiosyncratic past knowledge of the founder's vision, tradition, and socio-emotional wealth (De Massis et al., 2016).

The leader of a family firm acts as an integrator of the knowledge each family member (Grant, 1996). In addition, family firm leaders also pay attention to succession issues because they determine the continuity of knowledge from predecessors or founders to heirs so that innovation continues (Chrisman et al., 2016; Suddaby & Jaskiewicz, 2020). The dynamics of the interaction between predecessors and successors then become crucial in this knowledge transfer process for conducting innovation within family firms.

Innovation and Knowledge Transfer Within Family Firm

Innovation is a firm's capability to integrate, build, and reconfigure internal and external competences for addressing rapidly changing competitive environments and finally introduce new products or new processes (Saunila & Ukko, 2014). The literature on innovation classified an innovation into its stage, namely initiative of innovation and its implementation (see Weber & Heidenreich, 2018). The initiative of innovation is viewed as an orientation to innovate which can be formed by several dimensions, namely creativity, risk taking, future orientation, openness to change, and proactiveness. Creativity is a tendency to always imagine new ways or ideas in solving problems (Zainal, 2020). Risk taking is a commitment to allocate resources for risky decisions (Norris & Ciesielska, 2019). Future orientation is a tendency to always be futuristic or predict changes to adapt (Zainal, 2020). Openness to change is a willingness to carry out a continuous cycle of unlearning, learning, and relearning (De Holan & Phillips, 2004). Proactiveness is a proclivity to bring up various initiatives to anticipate change and take advantage of opportunities aggressively (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011).

The orientation of an innovation within family firms can be considered as a dynamic mechanism which interplays between predecessors and successors to initiate innovation. This mechanism may lead to the willingness-ability paradox (Rondi et al., 2019). By possessing rich tacit knowledge, long-term orientation, and a long tenure of leadership, family firms have strong innovation capabilities and are difficult to imitate by competitors. However, on the other hand, the willingness of family firms

to innovate may be low due to reluctance to undermine the socio-emotional richness of family ties between predecessors and heirs due to tensions of disagreement in adopting new ways or keeping old ones. Thus, strategies to resolve this willingness-ability paradox are also key to the survival of the family firm (Rondi et al., 2019).

Furthermore, to innovate, family firms need tacit and explicit knowledge obtained from internal companies (e.g., founding fathers, company documents, etc.) and from external sources (e.g., other firms, successor's educational institutions, etc.) (Ramadani et al., 2020; Röd, 2016). Within family firms, the process of knowledge transfer from one generation to the next requires congruence of individual goals or visions between the predecessors and successors to ensure that the succession process runs smoothly (Chrisman et al., 2016; Kotlar & De Massis, 2013; Kusuma & Indarti, 2017). As the knowledge transfer process progresses, the predecessor's and successor's roles gradually change. The successor's roles and responsibilities increase with the decrease of the predecessor's role (Varamaki et al., 2003; Kusuma & Indarti, 2017).

Research Methods

As the study focuses on how family firms conduct innovation from one generation to the next one, we used a qualitative case study in order to gain in-depth understanding of the process (De Massis & Kotlar, 2014; Yin, 2009). Data were collected by means of face-to-face interview involving 28 informants—both predecessors and successors—from 18 family firms (see Table 1). The informants of the study were selected using theoretical and purposive sampling technique by considering the diversity in terms of: gender, number of successors, age of the company, ethnicity, and the successor already involved in the firms' daily operations. The interviewing process took around 90 minutes in two phases: in September–November 2014 and September 2019–February 2020. These stages were carefully managed to ensure the quality of the data by incorporating triangulation technique and member checking (Creswell, 2010; Yin, 2009). The triangulation method included source (predecessors and successors; primary and secondary data) and time triangulation. The member checking was done by sending back interview transcripts to the participants to ensure data congruity with the participants' perspectives. This process was intended to resolve potential misunderstanding and divergent views (Creswell, 2010; Yin, 2009). The data collection completed when the data is saturated as indicated by

Table 1 Profile of the informants

No	*Firm*	*Year of establishment*	*Sectors*	*Generation*
1	KFS	1981	Photography	2
2	BRJ	1981	Food production	3
3	ECH	2000	Architecture & construction	2
4	CVA	2000	Construction	2
5	CVM	1978	Offset	2
6	KBI	1978	Tailoring	2
7	AMN	1990	Hotel	3
8	CRF	1990	Offset	2
9	TGC	1985	Catering	2
10	ADM	1985	Restaurant, music store	3
11	PLJ	1997	Interior design	2
12	BPP	2004	Food production	2
13	PAR	1980	Fashion	2
14	NMK	1990	Fashion	2
15	TBD	1965	Grocery	2
16	LSS	1974	Offset	2
17	RPA	2000	Hospital	2
18	SDB	1993	Art gallery	2

information replication or repetition and no new information from different participants (Creswell, 2010; Kusuma & Indarti, 2017).

The collected data were transcribed and analyzed using inductive approach with content analysis following the step by Miles and Huberman (1994): data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing. Data reduction referred to simplifying and transforming the data into transcript. Data display assisted the authors to develop an organized information and make category of the information. The final step is conclusion drawing based on the data display. In this step, we analyzed the data by iterative process, moving from data to theory and vice-versa (Strauss and Corbin, 1998 cited in De Massis et al., 2018) that enabled us to refine the model, better clarify its theoretical foundations, and illustrate how theoretical concepts work in practice (De Massis et al., 2018).

Findings

Family firms in our study used various strategies of innovation from one generation to another. The strategies of innovation can be formulated from two aspects, namely a firm's orientation for innovation and speed

to goal congruence. Each of them is classified into high level—where both predecessor and successor have high degree of orientation and goal congruence, and low degree is the vice-versa. Orientation of innovation refers to the tendency to think about and initiate something new for the firm with respect to learning new knowledge, creating new branch, making new products, or applying new ways of managing the firm. This orientation is viewed from the perspective of two central actors in family firms, namely predecessors and successors. The more innovation was initiated in the firm, the higher the degree is.

Speed to goal congruence represents to the willingness and ability of family firms (i.e., the predecessor) to make a long-term planning that incorporated with the willingness and ability of the successor to continue the business. The degree of congruence occurs when the predecessor decides to do succession and the successor is willing to become the new leader of the firm. The low speed to goal congruence occurs when the predecessor and successor experience various conflicts that take a relatively long time to achieve the congruence (normally took more than one year). Meanwhile, when both predecessor and successor have a high level of understanding about the goal of the firm, almost no conflict or very less conflict between the two actors that lead to achieve goal congruence less than one year is considered as a high degree of the goal congruence.

Based on the interaction of two aspects, four innovation strategies were identified as depicted in Fig. 1, from 'low-low' to 'high-high',

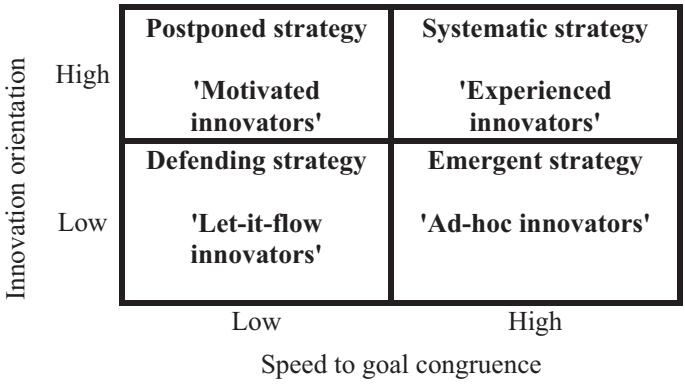

Fig. 1 Strategies for innovation among family firms

namely (1) *Defending strategy*, that has 'let-it-flow' innovators with low innovation orientation and low speed to goal congruence; (2) *Postponed strategy* leads to 'motivated innovators' which has a high innovation orientation and a low speed to congruence; (3) *Emergent strategy* with low innovation orientation and high speed to goal congruence that classified as 'ad-hoc innovators'; and (4) *Systematic strategy* which represents to a high orientation of innovation and a high speed to goal congruence leads to 'experienced innovators'.

a. *Defending strategy [low-low]*

This strategy represents to a low degree of innovation orientation and a low speed to goal congruence both from the perspective of predecessor and successor. The story behind this survival strategy is the successor has low orientation as the position of successor is only a follower of the predecessor that makes her/him less aggressive in thinking about and developing innovation. On the other hand, the predecessor shows the unwillingness to prepare his/her successor (e.g., son or daughter) from an early age, as the predecessor usually has thoughts that being an entrepreneur is not a promising career path and not an indicator of success in a life. They want a better life for their successors such as working or becoming executives at big companies or becoming a civil servant. This circumstance leads to a low speed to goal congruence from both sides. This is supported by the KBI predecessor who said:

> I don't have plan to pass this business to my children. I want a better life for them. To be an entrepreneur is a hard and difficult way of living. It would be better if they become an employee in the company or to be a civil servant.

Furthermore, in this strategy, the predecessors do not have a strategic development plan to whom the firm will be inherited. In many cases, after the successors propose themselves, the predecessors would teach the successors about the business and introduce to their networks. The predecessors' decision to inherit the business to the successors is mainly encouraged by the successors' desire to continue the business. One successor of CVA firm asserted this point, 'I volunteered to be involved in the firm'. Other successors from TBD and KBI firms also explained the same situation. The KBI successor told that: 'I asked my father to let me

join the business. My father actually rejected my proposal in the beginning. He allowed me to join the firm after I asked him several times'. Such involvement from the successors is an emergence, unplanned, and unexpected response by the predecessor. This condition may affect to the development of successor capabilities in terms of succession duration and process also education alignment. In this case, the successor was not well-prepared. The successors do not have a clear path to understand and develop their internal capabilities. They often response spontaneously and must learn many things in a short time. This process affected their innovation capability. The successor of CVA explains this,

> I don't have education background and any experience related to this business. I also only have a short time to understand how this business run. Hence, I just follow what my father had done.

In this strategy, the predecessors transfer their knowledge unsystematically. The predecessors do not set the learning objective and the specific target for the successors deliberately. The successors learn from daily practices by observation and experience in the firm. The predecessors also do not integrate successor's formal education with the needs of the organization. The predecessors do not have a specific method to transfer their knowledge. It is more likely to teach technical things or 'rule of thumbs' thought rather than strategic and conceptual aspects. The survival strategy is taken for the sake of survivability, and the sustainability of the business is very dependent on the predecessor. On the other side, the situation of the firm becomes vulnerable because the future of the business will be handed by the successor. In this survival strategy, both predecessor and successor act as 'let-it-flow innovators' for their business.

b. *Postponed strategy [high-low]*

The second strategy is called a postponed strategy which reflects to a high degree of innovation orientation but the speed to goal congruence is low due to tension of conflicts between the predecessors and the successors. The conflict may arise as the successors of the family firms have a high orientation to innovate by initiating new products or targeting new segments, on the other hand, the predecessors have no interest to do so. Both actors of the family firms have difficulty in setting, and achieving

the goals that makes family firms unable to immediately make changes or adaptations in responding market demands.

This phenomenon is closely related to the concept of tradition that certain family firms want to maintain family values and iconic products for strengthening their identity. The successors of the family firms become not free to come up with and work on new ideas. Predecessors do not immediately approve because they still insist on maintaining the old ways that already became family traditions. The case of BRJ, CVM, and ECH are examples of firms that have difficulty in managing the tension between tradition and innovation, resulting in hard-to-resolve conflict. Those firms face the paradoxical concept of 'tradition vs. innovation'. The impact is that the family firms have serious difficulty in responding to the market and various external business environment issues. The predecessors and successors of those family firms can be classified as 'motivated innovators'. The following is the statements from the successors of the family firms who face this situation.

> My mother really strict on the way we make products. Even the method to use the knife to cut the meat. That is why we have problem to propose new idea in developing new products. She sticks on the way my grandmother trained her in the past.—BRJ Successor

> I argued with my father to change the old print method to digital printing. He thought it was a waste. I need more than two years to persuade him.—CVM Successor

> My father and I have different perspective on design the building. My designs do not fit in his style. We often involved in conflict because of this.—ECH Successor

c. *Emergent strategy [low–high]*

This strategy is the opposite of the postponed one. In this strategy, both predecessors and successors are solid in initiating and achieving innovation plan that make the speed to goal congruence fast, while the orientation to innovation is considered low. The predecessors set a long-term goal for the firms by preparing prospective successors, and the successors show their interests, willingness, and passionate to manage the firm. The AMN successor claims that,

> My father told me that he would give the business to me. [He made a kind of plan]. I became his assistant. I learned from him by observing what he did. We often conduct daily meeting.

In this strategy, the orientation to innovation is low due to two aspects. *First*, the predecessors are trapped on their daily routines. They are busy with administrative and technical matters that limit them to think about innovation or even ignore the importance of innovation. This phenomenon occurs in the NMK, TGC, SDB, and PLJ firms. One predecessor of NMK firm states that 'I never think about innovation. I am already busy with the customer orders and administrative things in the firm'. The successor of TGC also explains the same issue. She stated: 'My mother rarely developed new menu for the catering. She used the same menu list for more than a decade'.

This condition can be solved by the involvement of the successor who gives new insight to the business. Innovation arises from successor idea and predecessor facilitated the successor to implement their idea, as explained by the NMK predecessor.

> My firm produces Batik [Javanese traditional clothes] based on traditional motif, but my daughter [successor] chooses to produce Batik with modern style. We then manage the business separately. I allow my daughter to make innovation on her own firms, even in the future she will manage these two firms.—NMK Predecessor

Second, the low orientation of innovation is due to the past experience faced by the firms (i.e., the predecessors) that some innovations they initiated such as restructuring workload, modifying existing products, etc., were failed to be implemented. This bad experience causes 'trauma' so that the predecessors are reluctant to rise from failure or try to redesign innovations together with their successors. In other terms, a low innovation orientation equals a low level of innovator resilience potential (IRP) (Moenkemeyer et al., 2012). Furthermore, they argue that there are at least six components of potential innovator resilience that firm owners need to have, namely self-efficacy, outcome expectancy, optimism, self-esteem, hope, and risk prospects. The IRP determines goal setting, commitment, and creativity.

> My mother never approved my idea to expand the business. She had bad experience on expanding the business. My father failed when he built

> another firm and the failure hit this firm financially. We spent more than 10 years to recover from the debt.—LSS successor

Within a situation of low innovation orientation or resilience potential of the innovator, the initiative to innovate becomes only dependent on the successor without the legitimacy and strong support from the predecessor. The resulting innovation is incremental and may not be designed for long-term goals of the family firm. In other words, the predecessors and successors of the family firms are acting as 'ad-hoc innovators'.

d. *Systematic strategy [high-high]*

The systematic strategy is an ideal strategy for developing innovation within family firms. In this situation, both predecessor and successor of the firms have strong desire and willingness to innovate, by a formulating long-term strategic planning and high involvement of successor in the business. The involvement of the successors is deliberately designed by the predecessors because the predecessors have strong intention to inherit the business to the successors. Therefore, the successors were asked to be actively involved in the business and the predecessors give them clear responsibilities since they were in the young age. The successors always be involved in the strategic planning of the family firms. The predecessors share their development plan and when the successors are ready, the predecessors involve them in the decision-making process. This condition will support fast speed to goal congruence. The successor of PAR shared her experience, 'My mother always told me about her activities and future plan for the business. I was also involved in the decision-making process'.

Family firms with this strategy have clear and well-defined goals for education plan, future leader, activities, and time schedule of the business. In term of the formal education plan, the predecessors set a formal education plan of the successors that align with the needs of the business and the firms' long-term strategy. In more specific, the predecessors will direct the successors to choose a specific major at university that fits with the development plan of firm. The following quotations from the predecessors and successors of family firms substantiate the arguments.

> I chose the major at university [for my successor]. I developed steps with a clear time schedule to integrate the new system in my company and prepared my successor to use that new system. [predecessor of KFS]

> My parents sent me to study abroad and chose my major in the college. [successor of KFS]

> My father asked me to take the business management as my major in university since I was in junior high school. [successor of RPA]

Not only for the education plan, in this situation, family firms have a clear and systematic plan to prepare the future leader of the firm. The predecessors usually know how to and when to start the succession process for their successors. The predecessors let the successors to learn about business risk as well as decision-making process. The BPP and ADM firms pointed this issue. The successor of ADM explained this,

> My father has a clear track for me. He developed a systematic scheme so I could get the capabilities to manage this firm. My parents give me resources to build my own business. They asked me to report about the performance of the business every month. They give me freedom to manage my own firm without any intervention.

The family firms can maintain harmonious relations and goals congruence between the predecessor and successor by discussing all the company's innovation agendas together. They also jointly explore other business opportunities to expand the business. In this stage, both actors of the firms adopt the ambidexterity strategy by exploiting the existing resources and exploring external resources to support innovation. Both predecessors and successors of this firm have adequate knowledge and experience in managing innovation, as called 'experienced innovators'.

Discussion

The current study was intended to explore and understand how innovation is managed within family business. The underlying notion of knowledge-based theory postulates that knowledge becomes the main important resources for initiating and conducting innovation within firms (Grant, 1996). As the nature of family firms differs compared to non-family firms in terms of—for instance—norms, cultures, business process, mind-set orientation, management styles, and how knowledge is organized (see Kusuma & Indarti, 2017), strategies for innovation in this nature of business may also be unique and context dependent.

In the context of family firms, the predecessors or founding fathers are usually characterized as the one who has rich tacit knowledge due to the

accumulation of knowledge and experience (Chirico, 2008; Higginson, 2009). This characteristic makes them have a strong desire to transfer their knowledge to their successors for the sake of business sustainability (Trevinyo-Rodriguez & Tapies, 2006). However, the successful of this succession process will be also dependent on the willingness, orientation, and relationship of the successors. Such interaction between the predecessors and the successors of the family firms as the main actors in the business plays role on how innovation is initiated and conducted in the organization. The interaction is considered as a dynamic mechanism which based on the level of orientation to innovation and speed to goal congruence as perceived by the predecessor and successor.

This study has identified four strategies of family firms to innovate during succession process, namely defending strategy, postpone strategy, ad-hoc strategy, and systematic strategy. Innovation orientation and speed to goal congruence between predecessors and successors interact dynamically. The transfer of knowledge from one generation to the next requires congruence of individual goals or visions between predecessors and successors to ensure that the succession process runs smoothly (Chrisman et al., 2016; Kotlar & De Massis, 2013; Kusuma & Indarti, 2017).

This dynamic of the goal congruence is affected by conflict tension in the family firms. This phenomenon can be explained in terms of the paradoxical concept of tradition vs. innovation. The firms that have difficulty in managing the tension between tradition and innovation, resulting in hard-to-resolve conflict. Research participants who solved this tension explained that they implement segregation strategy (Erdogan et al., 2019) and/or reinterpretation and recombination (Suddaby & Jaskiewicz, 2020). In the segregation strategy, the predecessors allow the successors to create a new product separately from the old one to fulfill the aspirations of successors regarding the company's adaptation to market trends. The reinterpretation and recombination strategy provide opportunity for successors to reinterpret their family traditions adapted to the contemporary contexts and add modern touches to their traditional products. The different types of innovation strategy contribute to various type of innovators, namely 'let-it-flow' innovators, 'motivated innovators', 'ad-hoc innovators', and 'experienced innovators'.

Conclusion, Limitation, and Future Research

After investigating 18 family firms in Indonesia using a qualitative approach, four innovation strategies with innovation orientation and goal congruence as pillars of the analysis were then formulated, namely motivated innovators with a postponed strategy, let-it-flow innovators with a survival strategy, ad-hoc innovators with an emergent strategy, and experienced innovators with a systematic strategy. The findings may provide deeper and concrete framework on innovation strategies with special reference to family business. In addition, the proposed strategy may be relevant for business owners or policymakers in initiating and developing innovation when the nature of the business is unique and context dependent.

As the limitation, the current study does not differentiate specific sectors of family firms (e.g., service firms versus manufacturing firms; knowledge-intensive firms (KIFs) versus non-KIFs; project-based organizations versus non-project-based organizations and, etc.). These specific natures of firms may provide different findings. Taking such considerations into account for future studies using more detailed approach is welcome to add literatures on family business and innovation.

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Shedding Light on the Main Implications Between Informal Entrepreneurship, Heritage Entrepreneurship, and Entrepreneurial Ecosystem Based on Bibliometric and Content Analyses

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Introduction

The informal sector of an economy is a route through which unregulated but well-organized commercial ventures take place among many stakeholders, notably those at the bottom of the pyramid in a poor and unequal setting. The majority of the sector's commercial operations are

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V. Ratten (ed.), *Heritage Entrepreneurship*, Palgrave Studies in Global Entrepreneurship, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-5149-7_5

conducted outside of official restrictions, but firmly within the boundaries of informal structures defined by culture, norms, conventions, and rules (Webb et al., 2014).

Informal entrepreneurship is a nebulous notion with many different interpretations in the literature. While some academics perceive informality in the sense of legality, in which informal companies are forced to exist as a result of stringent and severe rules, others see it through the lens of structuralists, as a 'safe haven' for individuals who have been unable to find work in the formal economy.

Informality is also seen by voluntarists as a 'necessity-driven' channel for finding entrepreneurial possibilities when the official sector has failed to provide them. Whatever perspective we take on the informality phenomena, there is evidence that it adds to the economy's development and prosperity, even if it does dilute it in some circumstances (La Porta and Shleifer, 2014; Meagher, 2016).

Informal entrepreneurship is a type of entrepreneurship that exists all over the world and is distinguished by the fact that it operates outside of the law. Because legality varies greatly between nations, studies of entrepreneurship that do not include informal activity cannot be regarded as incomplete. Furthermore, the boundary between formal and informal might be argued to be shades of gray rather than black and white.

The study aims to investigate the research field of the entrepreneurial ecosystem, heritage entrepreneurship, and informal entrepreneurship, highlighting the dynamics of the literature and potential future research directions through science mapping that enables the investigation of scientific knowledge. To elaborate the temporal development of the field in terms of publications, we have extracted publications from Web of Science, from the period 1991–2021, investigating more than 400 documents, focusing on author, keyword, paper, journal, and topic analysis as well as highlighting the significant themes of interest through content analysis.

The paper aims to respond to the following research questions: RQ1. Who are the top researchers, and what are the leading journals, institutions, and countries investigating gender diversity and business performance? RQ2. Is there an existence of geographical concentration, and how is the interconnectedness of research? RQ3. What are the top keywords and the related prominent research clusters? RQ4. What is the progression of research in the field of gender diversity and its implications to business performance? RQ5. What is the intellectual, social, and

conceptual structure of the main publications in the research field? RQ6. What are the most correlated pair of words in scientific publications on heritage entrepreneurship and informal entrepreneurship? RQ7. What are the most important topics in the scientific publications on heritage entrepreneurship and informal entrepreneurship?

This paper is organized into seven sections. The introductory section is dedicated to briefly presenting the relevance of the topic. The next three sections have been dedicated to theoretical considerations, revealing also the most relevant studies in the field and highlighting the main implications between informal entrepreneurship, heritage entrepreneurship, and the entrepreneurial ecosystem. The fifth section is dedicated to the presentation of data and working methodology, while the following section shows the empirical results of bibliometric analysis. The seventh section is dedicated to the content analysis of the papers treating heritage entrepreneurship and informal entrepreneurship. The paper ends with the main conclusions.

Exploring the Relationships Between Informal Entrepreneurship and Heritage Entrepreneurship in the Literature

Cultural heritage has a critical part in the development of regional and international cooperation among countries, and it is a component in closing the financial, social, technological, and environmental inequalities among developed and emerging nations. Knowledge and entrepreneurship in cultural heritage assets necessitate an in-depth investigation of its ontology, quantity, framework, and development, as well as effective methods of quality management strategies, including the regulatory and administrative framework at the national and international levels, along with classic systems and performance analysis procedures.

Informal heritages are increasingly being acknowledged as one of the multiple existent heritages. Informal heritages would be those that have not been defined, delimited, or legitimized by an institutional process, as are many local customs, routines, and know-how produced by certain enterprises and sectors. Today, heritage evaluations and strategies cannot be limited to official, formal, and well-defined heritages.

This has long been maintained that history counts in business. Baumol (1990), for example, proposed that the atmosphere for entrepreneurship might 'vary substantially from one period and location to another'. Welter

(2011) recently emphasized the relevance of circumstances for entrepreneurship, including historical and social situations. Given the broad ambitions of socialism and communist ideology to transform society and public institutions, a socialist history background provides an essential historical framework in and of itself. Smallbone and Welter (2001) utilize data from interviews to showcase the uniqueness of entrepreneurship in Europe's former socialist states, demonstrating that the social and historical contexts inherited appear to influence both the behavior patterns of entrepreneurs and society's attitude toward entrepreneurship.

According to the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), one of the most important indicators of entrepreneurial intention and action is one's attitude toward entrepreneurship: Busenitz and Lau (1996), for example, demonstrate how attitudes are developed and how they influence entrepreneurial goals. Furthermore, Krueger et al. (2000) contend that conduct is driven by intention, which is influenced by attitude. Any planned action, including entrepreneurship, is best predicted by intentions. Kim and Hunter (1993) and, more recently, Kautonen et al. (2013) report similar findings, demonstrating empirical support for a positive relationship between entrepreneurial goals and entrepreneurial action. In summary, a more favorable attitude toward entrepreneurship leads to greater goals and, as a result, increased entrepreneurial activity (Bagozzi et al., 1989).

Informal entrepreneurship for ethnic communities can benefit society, but it is influenced by political conditions, management abilities, and financing issues (Dana, 1999). Furthermore, ethnic entrepreneurs in the informal sector frequently rely on cash-based transactions that are neither taxed nor regulated by the government and take place in developing countries (Ramadani et al., 2019). Given the importance of informal entrepreneurship in society, it is critical to understand why ethnic entrepreneurs create these businesses.

Exploring the Relationship Between Informal Entrepreneurship and Entrepreneurial Ecosystem in the Literature

Despite its significance, size, and dynamism, the informal sector is regarded as a relic of a bygone economic order that must be gradually decreased and finally eliminated. Only in the last few decades has a

potential line of research evolved to investigate the significant variation among entrepreneurs along the formal–informal continuum, as well as the existence of ambitious entrepreneurs devoted to business success. Entrepreneurs mix their objectives with their society's ubiquitous informality; they conduct both informal transactions and register their businesses.

Informal economies account for a sizable portion of global commercial activity. According to estimates from 1999 to 2007, the informal economy accounts for 13.4% of GDP in OECD nations, 37.6% in transition countries, and roughly 27% in the Middle East and North Africa area (Schneider et al., 2010). In terms of employment, the informal sector employs two-thirds of the world's workforce (1.8 billion people) (Jütting & Laiglesia, 2009). Despite the importance of the informal economy, particularly in developing countries (ILO, 2014), little is known about commercial operations in the informal sector (Webb et al., 2014).

There are several examples of informal business activity in the literature, including violations of registration rules, tax evasion, violations of labor and environmental restrictions, and the creation and sale of counterfeit goods (Schneider, 2002; Webb et al., 2013).

The expanding literature on the shadow sector has attempted to identify and distinguish unofficial economic activity from official economic activities (Webb et al., 2009; Williams & Schneider, 2016). According to researchers, informal entrepreneurship encompasses 'all remunerated activities that are not disclosed to the authorities for tax, social security, and/or labor law purposes when they should be declared' (Williams & Schneider, 2016). In this sense, the behaviors of hidden entrepreneurs may be regarded as a kind of informal entrepreneurship since they violate not only ownership requirements, but also labor laws as foreign entrepreneurs use their work permits to become hidden entrepreneurs in the local economy (Al-Mataani et al., 2017).

Entrepreneurship is viewed as a means of driving not just economic progress but also social transformation (Ratten & Dana, 2019). Frugal innovation, it may be said, has evolved as a fresh strategy to improve the economic inclusion of the poor and excluded people (Meagher, 2016). Since its inception, the application of frugal innovation as a research method has spread throughout the social sciences and several academic sectors such as business, healthcare sciences, and technology.

According to the literature assessment, frugal innovation involves both official and informal players. These ardent claims of a connection between

formal and informal innovators, according to Meagher (2016), are followed by a continuous inclination to disregard the realities of informal economies as structured systems with different economic interests and accumulation patterns. These contributions highlight the scope of the "informal economy" and the importance of better understanding it (Ram et al., 2017). Furthermore, this is critical in closing the gap between sustainable theory and sustainable business operations (Issa et al., 2010).

Existing comparative entrepreneurial ecosystems research has looked at a wide range of economic and institutional structures that influence entrepreneurial entrance. Labor market flexibility (Kanniainen & Vesala, 2005), entry rules (Djankov et al., 2002), revenue (Gentry & Hubbard, 2000), private property regime (Autio & Acs, 2010; Estrin et al., 2013), and bankruptcy law are other examples (Lee et al., 2011). Research has also looked at the impact of a country's degree of corruption and rule of law, which measures how well rules are executed (Levie & Autio, 2011).

Creating an ecosystem environment favorable to entrepreneurship is at the heart of the international business. This entails encouraging activities and behaviors that result in a systemic interaction with various entities (Ratten, 2020).

Although earlier research has looked at the impact of institutions on different types of entrepreneurial action, such as 'strategic' vs. 'non-strategic' entrepreneurial action (e.g., Levie & Autio, 2011), there have been few studies on informal entrepreneurial entry (de Soto, 1989; Frederico et al., 2007; Hiemstra et al., 2006; Portes et al., 1989).

An informal entrepreneur ecosystem, according to Autio E (2015), is a group actively participating in managing a new business that delivers genuine goods and services but is not registered with official authorities. Formal entrepreneurial ecosystems are platforms for launching a government-registered new venture (Webb et al., 2015). To distinguish between formal and informal entrepreneurship, the new firm's registration or incorporation status is used.

An Overview of the Most Relevant Studies in the Research Field

In recent decades, researchers studying entrepreneurial ecosystems have been more interested in the link between entrepreneurship and the informal sector. This study examines a developing subfield of entrepreneurship studies that acknowledges how entrepreneurs do not always follow

the rules in their commercial dealings. It examines the findings on the prevalence of entrepreneurs engaged in the informal economy, the nature of such informal entrepreneurship, the characteristics of informal entrepreneurs, and the motivations underlying such participation, as well as competing theories that have attempted to explain such engagement. The preliminary conclusion is that the incidence and kind of informal entrepreneurship, as well as the characteristics of informal entrepreneurs and their motives, varied significantly across socio-economic groups.

In this context, the paper aims to explore this research field of the potential association of entrepreneurial ecosystems with informal economy, highlighting the dynamics of the literature and potential future research directions through a science mapping that enables investigating scientific knowledge (Table 1).

Data and Methodology

The research methodology is mainly oriented on bibliometric analysis as well as content analysis using ISI Web of Science as the main database of research publications.

To explore the phenomenon of the entrepreneurial ecosystem and informal entrepreneurship, the research applies a bibliometric analysis using the range of terms devoted to the informal economy in the literature such as 'shadow economy'/ 'informal economy'/ 'informal sector'/ 'informal employment'/ 'informality', and 'entrepreneurial ecosystem' or 'entrepreneurship'. The search language was English and the analyzed period covered 1991–2021.

Bibliometrics-based publications have grown over time, which may be attributed to the development of scientific research, but also to the introduction of scientific databases such as Scopus and Web of Science facilitating access to large volumes of bibliometric data relatively easy, as well as to the development of bibliometric software such as Gephi, Leximancer, and VOS viewer allows for very practical analysis of such data, resulting in a recent surge in scholarly interest in bibliometric analysis.

As consequence, bibliometric techniques have found their utility in research areas such as business (Kumar et al., 2021), e-commerce (Kumar et al., 2021), finance (Yu et al., 2019),management (Zupic & Čater, 2015), marketing (Donthu et al., 2021), and human resources (Andersen, 2019). The studies on bibliometric analysis span from

Table 1 Presents an overview of the most relevant studies approaching the relationship between entrepreneurial ecosystems and informality

Authors	*Method*	*Results*
Gomez et al. (2020)	An analytical framework that takes into account the different types of entrepreneurs	-At the meso-level, informality is ingrained in entrepreneurial ecosystems -an analytical framework that takes into account the diversity of entrepreneurs as they deal with, and sustain, varying levels of formality and informality in endless combinations that are compatible and favorable to business success
Agulgwe and Ochinanwata (2021)	Examine the substantial disparities between the official and informal sectors, as well as inexpensive innovations and the supportive ecosystem resilience that generates unrivaled excitement	As entrepreneurial education and abilities improve, more formal ventures and growth-oriented micro, small, and medium firms are likely to emerge (MSMEs)
Sandhu et al. (2016)	A qualitative method was used, with in-depth face-to-face interviews based on a semi-structured questionnaire conducted among 185 rural microenterprise households and 10 informal lenders situated in five districts	Investigate the involvement of women in informal entrepreneurial finance in rural India and the influence on future microenterprise growth. The research contributes significantly to the literature on the role of female entrepreneurs and informal financing in a fresh emerging economic scenario
Al-Mataani et al. (2017)	In-depth interviews with entrepreneurs and stakeholders	Hidden practices occur as a result of loopholes, defective institutional arrangements, and dominant sociocultural influences

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Authors	*Method*	*Results*
Brooks et al. (2019)	-Investigate the influence of government policy on the development of entrepreneurial ecosystems in Poland -three Polish voivodeships (regions)—Malopolska, Mazowieckie, and Pomorskie—held a series of focus groups involving regional and national policymakers, businesses, and intermediaries	The findings call into question the notion that the framework of the entrepreneurial ecosystem is a simple and easy-to-implement public policy approach for promoting entrepreneurship and growth. Although by their nature, these are largely city-focused, the insights are gathered from three areas, showing the restricted geography of entrepreneurial ecosystems
Swamy and Singh (2018)	This paper will describe what NASVI has done to foster entrepreneurship and the outcomes of its programs thus far	NAVSI aided in the development of a more favorable entrepreneurial environment for street sellers, improving their quality of life. This paper will outline what NASVI has done to create an entrepreneurial ecosystem and the results of its efforts thus far
Honjo and Nakamura (2020)	This research investigates the relationship between entrepreneurship and informal investment. It was investigated what sorts of people invest in new enterprises using data from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor	In Japan, the percentage of people who establish firms or invest in the informal economy is smaller than in other nations The existence of small-world phenomena in entrepreneurship in Japan is suggested by the link between entrepreneurial aptitude and informal investment

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Authors	*Method*	*Results*
Welter et al. (2015)	The current discussion over the informal sector and informal entrepreneurship are examined in this study	Much of the home-based economic activities, such as cleaning, painting and decorating, and other services, are often provided in the informal sector, at least to some extent. As a result, it is difficult to argue against incorporating informal activity in the study of entrepreneurship, particularly when evaluating an economy's entrepreneurial potential
Petrova (2016)	The impact of entrepreneurship on the prevalence of informal employment is based on economic models that investigate the drivers of the informal economy by examining the function of institutions and policies and their impact on the informal sector. A panel data technique is used in the empirical study	The informal sector is an 'unregulated micro-entrepreneurial sector' -Variations in the degree of entrepreneurial activity among developing nations are related to differences in the prevalence of informal employment, and entrepreneurship has a beneficial influence on the informal sector -The incidence of informal employment is influenced by public perceptions of government performance, role, responsibility, and effectiveness, as well as labor market and company restrictions
Igwe et al.(2020)	We study the importance of institutional contexts, how entrepreneurs function and overcome hurdles to entrepreneurship using a qualitative method that included interviews with 20 business owners in Nigeria and two focus groups with 5 and 7 business association executives, respectively	Formal/informal regulations, market access, and family as crucial aspects that operate as a route to successful information transfers, networking, money, and resource sharing

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Authors	*Method*	*Results*
Omotosho (2021)	The fundamental concerns concerning informal sector entrepreneurship are explored, along with the possible repercussions on informal entrepreneurship, as well as rising financial technology (FINTECH) and new outlets for funding current and new company initiatives, innovative goods, and technology	Unquestionably, the informal entrepreneurship sector is relevant to the opportunity finding and innovativeness elements of entrepreneurial orientation, resulting in beneficial benefits to the economy in terms of large-scale job development
Akbal(2021)	Using cross-country data and the most widely used indicator of entrepreneurial activity, the Global Entrepreneurship Index, studies the empirical link between entrepreneurship and the extent of the shadow economy (GEI)	Between the variables, there exist substantial relationships

studying publications to collecting trends and investigating the conceptual, intellectual, or social structure of the research subject.

Within the analysis, the full records for each publication found during the search have been converted and concatenated as plain text files before being loaded into Bibliometrix and Biblioshiny. Bibliometrix enables comprehensive scientific publication analysis and data processing. Biblioshiny is an online data analysis tool that has the Bibliometrix algorithm at its core (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). Biblioshiny is a web-based program that allows users to do bibliometric and visual analysis on relevant documents.

The research technique is divided into three major parts: study design and data collecting, data processing and visualization, and interpretation. It displays bibliometric indicators about the entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality using the Bibliometrix and Biblioshiny packages. The technique focuses on a descriptive bibliometric examination of the field's growth, the most prolific sources, the most cited documents, the

most productive nations, author impact, the link between keywords-authors-journals, and trend themes.

Following that, the study investigates the conceptual, intellectual, and social structure of the entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality research area using network and cluster analysis. The conceptual framework comprises network analysis based on keyword co-occurrence and multiple correspondence analysis, both of which are used to demonstrate the principal study issues. The co-citation network (authors, papers, and journals) is included in the intellectual structure, whereas the social structure investigates the collaboration network among writers, institutions, and nations. World clouds for abstracts, authors, and articles are clustered by coupling in cluster analysis. Citation analysis may be performed by obtaining descriptive and network data. The traditional approaches for citation analysis include bibliographic coupling, co-citation, and co-word. We can state there is bibliographic coupling (Kessler, 1963) between two papers if two records quote the same article, whereas co-citation (Small, 1973) gauges the most citing reports. Co-word (Callon et al., 1983) analysis maps the cognitive structure of the network through time based on the co-occurrence of terms in the abstract, title, or keywords in the publications. Co-word citation promotes temporal growth in a scientific subject where conceptual frameworks are established through textual conversation. In addition to descriptive analysis, the study employs bibliometric coupling analysis to assess the subject organization of the journal. Texts that quote the same third document, according to Kessler (1963), create a bibliographic pair that investigates connected intellectual themes (Martyn, 1964).

To explore the relationship between heritage entrepreneurship and informal entrepreneurship based on content analysis, the research applies used the following terms ‘heritage’ ‘ethnic’ ‘cultural’ entrepreneurship, and informal entrepreneurship. The search language was English and the analyzed period covered 1991–2021. In terms of study technique, five methods for preparing texts for analysis must be performed in the section on data preparation. The first phase, importing text, includes utilities for reading texts into a raw text corpus in R from several file formats (txt, CSV, pdf). Preprocessing and string operations are processes that cover how to transform raw texts into tokens (words or word stems). The tokens are then used to construct the document-term matrix (DTM), a popular approach for encoding a bag-of-words corpus supported by several R content analysis methods. In addition to the bag-of-words

structure, other non-bag-of-words forms, such as the token list, are briefly discussed in the complex topics section. Finally, filtering and weighting the words in the DTM is a frequent step.

The first step in this essay is data preparation. The five key processes we differentiate here are text import, string operations, preprocessing, building a document-term matrix (DTM), and filtering and weighting the DTM. In this case, text files are utilized to store textual data.

The second step involves the elimination of removing 'stopwords': words that have been pre-determined to be irrelevant and are removed before analysis. When regarded as a whole, these preliminary operations are sometimes referred to as 'preprocessing'.

The act of translating words into a more consistent form is referred to as 'normalization'. Making all text lower case is a critical but straightforward normalization strategy. In a bag-of-words approach, the document-term matrix (DTM) is a popular way to describe a text corpus (a collection of texts). A DTM is a matrix with rows representing documents, columns representing terms, and cells expressing the frequency with which each term appears in each document. This method has the advantage of allowing data to be studied using vector and matrix algebra, effectively turning English into numbers.

Rather than eliminating less informative sentences, assigning them different weights is possible. The term frequency-inverse document frequency (tf-idf) is a prominent weighting strategy that down-weights appear in numerous corpus documents. Word clouds show the most prominent or frequently occurring words in a body of text while omitting stop words such as prepositions and conjunctions. A bigram is a pair of consecutive tokens from a string of letters, syllables, or words. A bigram is an n-gram with $n=2$. The frequency distribution of each bigram in a string is extensively utilized in a range of applications, including computational linguistics, cryptography, and speech recognition, enabling easy statistical analysis of the text.

The correlation network displays which words appear the most frequently, whereas the word network exposes which word pairs frequently co-occur.

Text analysis may provide crucial information on the relationships between words by examining whether keywords tend to follow others fast or co-occur within the same publications, which has been explored at the scientific content level. We also utilized the correlation network to look at the relationships between words in scientific literature. While

analyzing the network of co-occurrences on the publications, co-occurrences with a frequency of at least 200 times and a correlation degree of more than 0.5 were considered.

Text analysis relies heavily on collections of documents obtained from scientific publications to break them down into natural categories that can be comprehended individually. Topic modeling, similar to numeric data clustering, is an unsupervised classification strategy for such texts that detects natural groups of elements. A typical approach for fitting a topic model is latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA). Each document is thought of as a collection of subjects, and each topic is thought of as a collection of words. LDA is a mathematical approach for estimating two themes at the same time: the combination of words associated with each subject and the combination of topics that describe each text (Frankish et al., 2014; Blei et al., 2003). This allows articles to 'overlap' in terms of content rather than being divided into separate sections, simulating natural language usage.

Descriptive Analysis and Results

According to Table 2, the research has used a sample of documents comprising a total of 411 documents exploring the relationship between 'entrepreneurial ecosystem' and 'informality'. The time span of the documents was between 1991 and 2021. The set of documents was found across six different publication categories and was grouped as follows: articles (315); book chapter (17); articles, early access (22); reviews (3); proceedings papers (51), and editorial materials (3).

A total of 20,363 references were used by our authors which were published in 265 sources and using 1,239 different keywords. Table 2 pointed out the existence of a strong collaboration between authors, 730 authors shared the documents published. An amount of 856 authors have been identified in the data set, the documents having 2.08 authors per document. A collaboration index of 2.6 was found across the data set.

Growth of Publications

Analyzing the dynamics of the set of documents in terms of publications growth, the number of publications related to the entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality started to increase since 2015, from an

Table 2 Main information of documents

Description	*Results*
Timespan	**1991–2021**
Sources (Journals, Books, etc.)	**265**
Documents	**411**
Average vears from publication	**5.12**
Average citations per documents	**16.42**
Average citations per vear per doc	**2.353**
References	**20,363**
Article	**315**
Article, Book chapter	**17**
Article, Early access	**22**
Editorial material	**3**
Proceeding's paper	**51**
Review	**3**
Keywords Plus (ID)	**809**
Author's Keywords (DE)	**1239**
Authors	**856**
Author Appearances	**952**
Authors of single-authored documents	**126**
Authors of multi-authored documents	**730**
Single-authored documents	**130**
Documents per Author	**0.48**
Authors per Document	**2.08**
Co-Authors per Documents	**2.32**
Collaboration Index	**2.6**

average number of 16 publications to 58 publications in 2020. The annual growth rate is 14.53%. The enlarged pool of researchers at the international level, as well as the extension of the WoS database in 2015, have had a beneficial influence on the increasing number of publications (Merigó et al., 2015) (Fig. 1).

The relationship between entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality has started to increase in terms of average article citations per year starting with 2001 with 18 citations being the peak of the whole citation spectrum in the data set (Fig. 2).

Most Productive Sources

The most relevant journals which publish articles at the border between both topics have been analyzed. Figure 3. explores the ranking of twenty most productive sources, in the area of entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality indexed in the core collection of the Web of

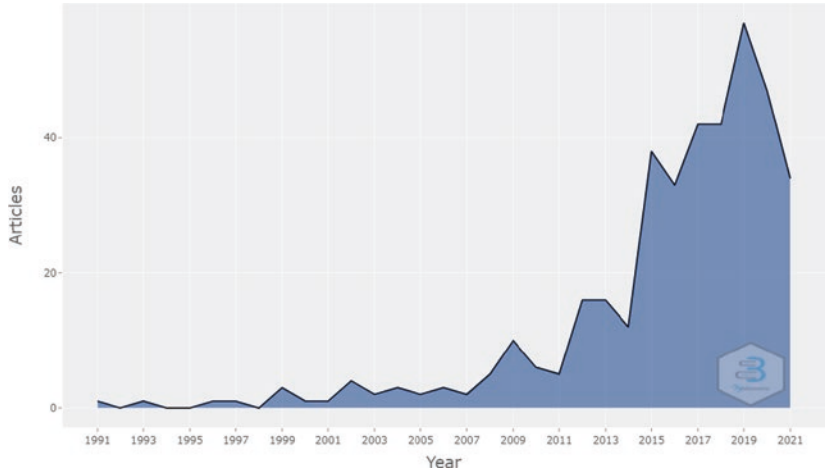

Fig. 1 Annual scientific production

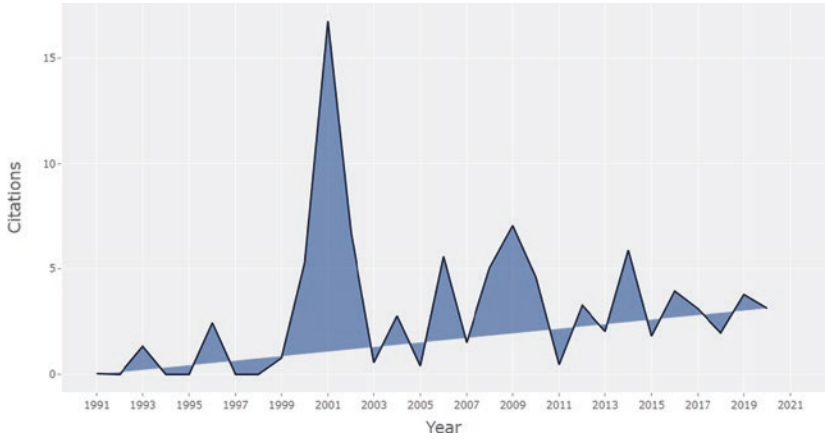

Fig. 2 Average article citation per year

Science database, highlighting the fact that *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship* is in the first place followed closely by *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development* and *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy* (Fig. 4).

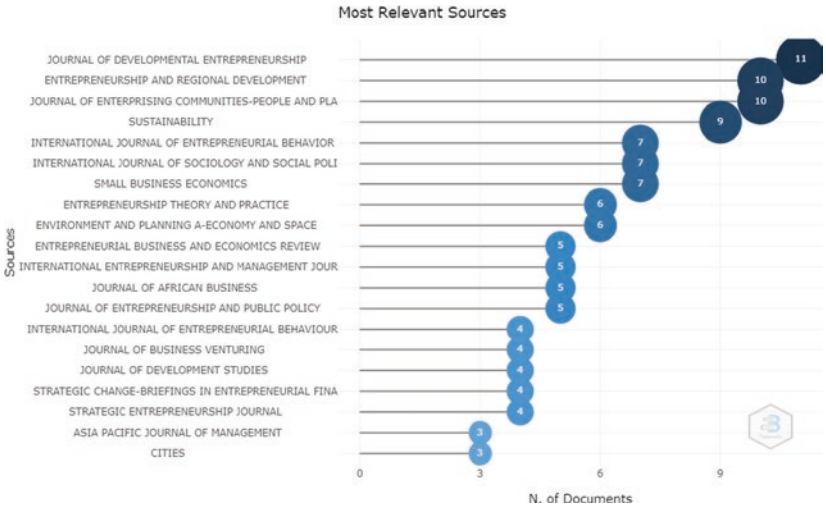

Fig. 3 Twenty most productive sources

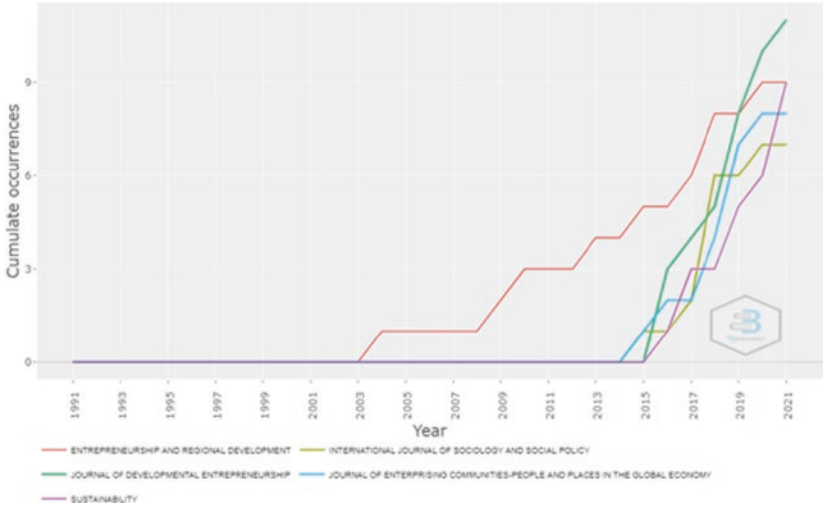

Fig. 4 Source growth over time

Moving on to the analysis of the development of journals as sources of research for the entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality phenomenon, we can point out the significant increase of *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurship, and Regional Development and Sustainability*.

Table 3 presents a list of the most notable sources, ordered in decreasing h-index order and with a value of h-index > 3. Entrepreneurship and Regional Development has the highest h-index of 7 in the category of entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality, followed by Small Business Economics with an h-index of 6. The importance of the g-index, considered as an extension of the h-index and a significant instrument for assessing worldwide citation success, was highlighted by Egghe (2006). *Journals like Entrepreneurship and Regional Development* (9), *Small Business Economics* (7), *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research* (7), and *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy* (7) have the highest g-index scores (7). *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* receives far more citations than *Small Business Economics* (594), according to the overall amount of citations (543).

Most Cited Documents

Figure 5 addresses the most relevant documents, based on the total number of citations. In the field of entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality, the most cited paper is the study of Webb J. W. et al. (2009) published in the *Academy of Management Review* with a total amount of 501 citations. The following most cited papers are McMillan J. et al. (2002) published in *Journal of Economic Perspectives* with 362 global citations and Smallbone and Welter (2001) found in *Small Business Economics* with an overall of 335 citations.

Most Productive Countries

Table 4 exhibits the countries that contributed most to the domain. Thus, in the field of informality and entrepreneurial ecosystem, the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Germany, and Russia are the most productive countries.

Table 3 Most important sources

Source	*H index*	*G index*	*M index*	*TC*	*XP*	*PX^Jart*
Entrepreneurship and Regional Development	7	9	0.388888889	3 52	9	2004
Small Business Economics	6	7	0.388888889	543	7	2003
Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	5	6	0.714285714	594	6	2014
International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research	5	7	0.714285714	102	7	2017
International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy	5	7	0.714285714	79	7	2015
International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research	4	4	0.307692308	79	4	2009
Journal of Business Venturing	4	4	0.137931034	285	4	1993
Journal of Enterprising Communities-People and Places in the Global Economy	4	5		39	9	
Journal of Entrepreneurship And public policy	4	5	0.571428571	38	5	2015
Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal	4	4	0.444444444	96	4	2013
Sustainability	4	5	0.666666667	39	5	2016

Author Impact

Lotka's law is an approximate inverse-square rule that explains the frequency of publication by writers in any particular subject. It is a fixed ratio between the number of authors publishing a specified number of articles and the number of authors publishing a single article. According to Lotka (1926), as the number of articles published grows, authors who produce that many articles become less frequent.

Figure 6 presents the frequency distribution of scientific productivity in which the dotted line represents the theoretical distribution. In terms

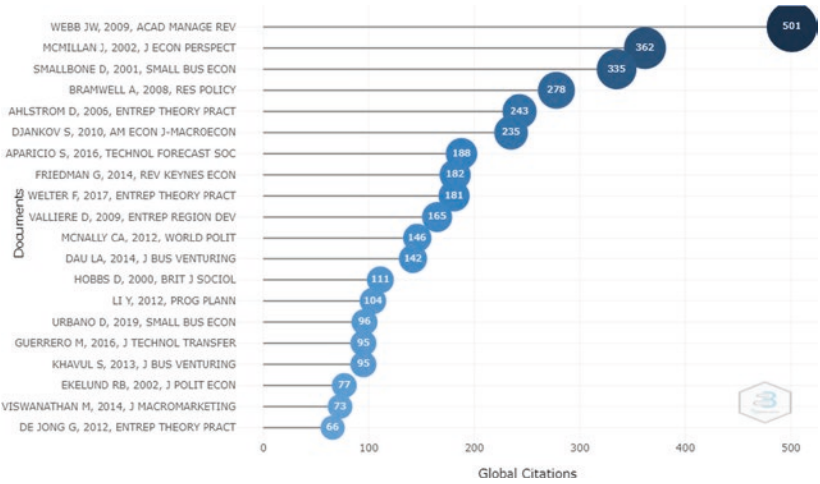

Fig. 5 Most global cited documents

Table 4 Most productive countries

Country	*Frequency of production*
UK	134
USA	134
Germany	46
Russia	45
Spain	41
China	37
Australia	32
South africa	30
Ukraine	18
India	17
Netherlands	17

of 'occasional' authors, 93.3% of authors have written just one document, while 'core' authors that have published in this case at least documents represent the rest of 6.7% summing up a count of 57 authors.

From the perspective of the highest number of citations, in the field of entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality, we can mention Welter, F., Webb, J. W., Ireland, R. D., Sirmon, D. G., and Tihanyi, L. as the

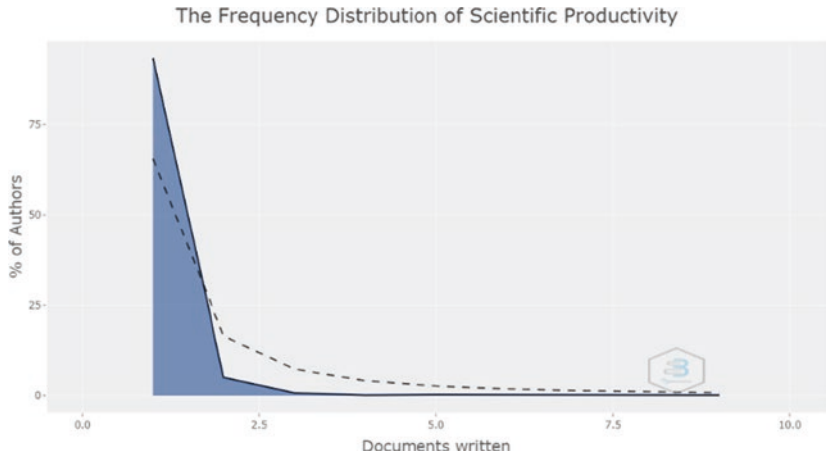

Fig. 6 Lotka's Law

authors with the highest visibility (Fig. 7). From the point of view of the authors' affiliations, Universitat Autonoma de Barcelona, University of Sheffield, and the University of Ghana have the highest number of publications.

In terms of production over time, we can mention Urbano, D., Welter, F., and Williams, C. as reference authors for this cross-cutting topic. The most persistent authors in terms of time are Welter, F. with publication time range constituting period between 2001 and 2018, Williams, C. in times between 2005 and 2019, and Smallbone, D. in the range between 2001 and 2021 (Fig. 8).

Three Plots Field and Trend Topics

The Sankey diagram (Fig. 9) put together the correspondence line between sources, keywords, and authors, with the height of the rectangles providing information about the relationships emerging between parts. Thus, five authors (Aparicio, S., Urbano, D., Welter, F., Eijdenberg, E. L., and Williams, C. C.) and five sources (*International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research, Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, Small*

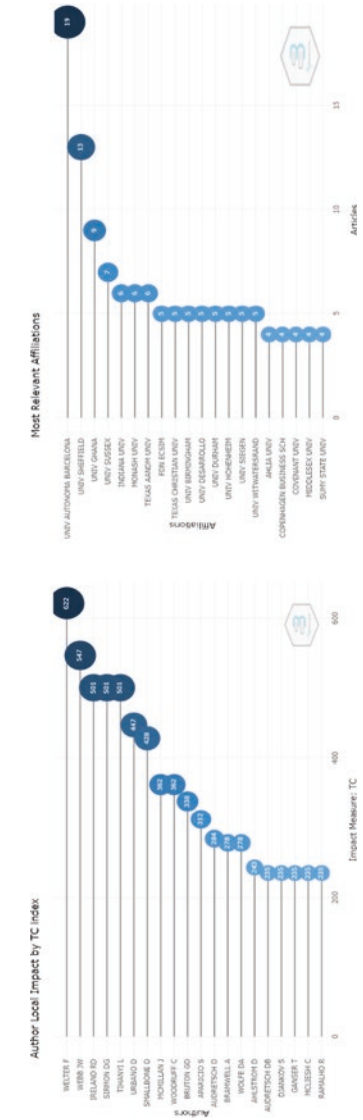

Fig. 7 Author impact evaluation and affiliations

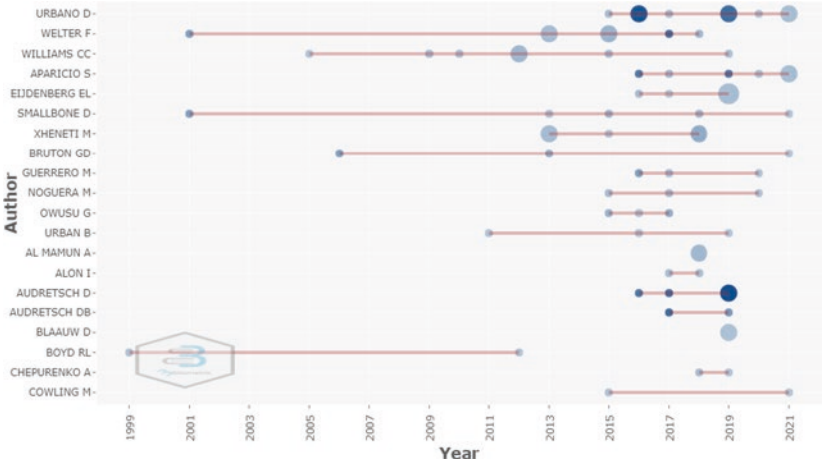

Fig. 8 Top authors' production over time

Business Economics, and Sustainability) were linked to the main research topics of entrepreneurship, informal economy, informal institutions, informal sector, and corruption.

Topic trends diagram offers an image about the dynamics of the main topics and some insights into recent topics (Fig. 10). The emergence of topics is also adjusted to the frequency of the number of words appearing in the research on entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality. Thus, the more the word is used and the higher it is placed in the right part of the graphic, the more recent its usage. Therefore, informal economy, entrepreneurship, institutions, and economic development have been used since 2015 while innovation and emerging economies have been topics of interest in 2021 (Fig. 10).

Cluster Analysis of Publications

Abstracts' World Cloud and Tree Map Analysis

Abstracts' world cloud analysis explores the valuable information from publications' abstracts providing insight into the main topics and research trends. Figure 11 displays the top 50 of the most frequent words revealing words such as 'informal', 'entrepreneurship', 'economy', 'entrepreneurs', and 'development'.

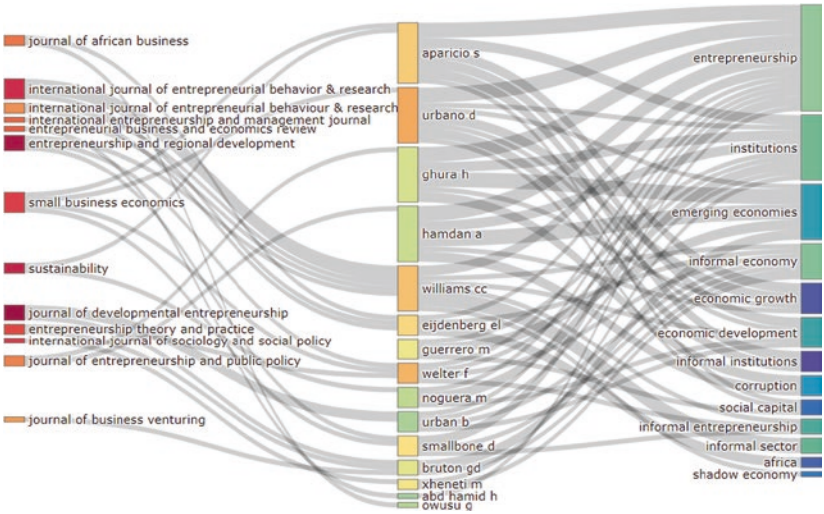

Fig. 9 Three field plots

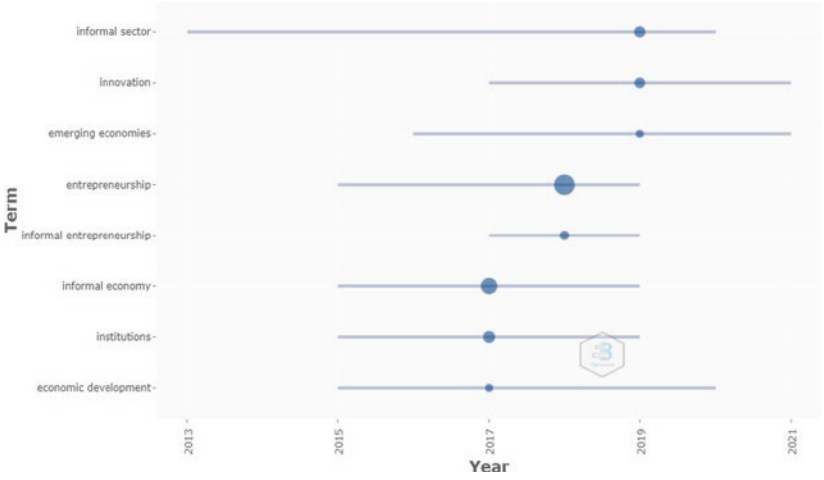

Fig. 10 Trend topics

Fig. 11 Most frequent keywords in abstracts of publications

Figure 12 displays the top 50 of the most frequent bigrams, revealing the most frequent combinations of words such as 'informal sector' (7%), 'informal economy' (7%), 'entrepreneurial activity' (6%), 'entrepreneurial activities' (6%), and 'informal institutions' (5%).

Authors and Documents Clustering by Coupling

The results of bibliographic coupling presented in Fig. 13 revealed the existence of five main clusters of authors coupling: authors like Urbano, D., Audretsch, D., Aparicio, S., Guerrero, M., and Ekanem, I. form together with the blue cluster, which has primary interest topics like 'performance', 'growth', and 'impact'. Authors like Williams, C., Urban, B., Welter, F., Webb, J. W., and Owusu, G. are in the purple cluster, with key interest subjects including 'economy', 'informal economy', and 'employment'. Ghura, H., Harraf, A., Li, X. Q., and Hamdan, A. are the major authors of the red cluster, which is defined by concepts such as 'opportunity', 'culture', and 'development'. The green cluster included two writers, Jimenez A and Alon I, who focused on topics like 'firm', 'economic development', and 'economic growth', while the yellow cluster included authors like Al Mamun, A. and Zainol, N. R. who focused on 'determinants', 'entrepreneurship', and 'innovation'.

Fig. 12 Tree map of most frequent pair of words in abstracts of publications

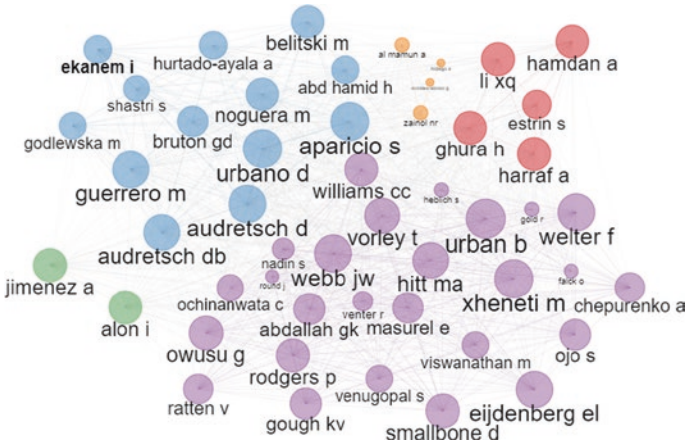

Fig. 13 Authors clustering by coupling

Coupling map by papers reveals four clusters: the green cluster focuses on papers dealing with 'innovation, self-employment, and impact', the red cluster focuses on papers dealing with 'employment, developing economies, and growth', while the blue cluster focuses on

'business, performance, and SME growth'. Finally, the purple cluster's major motifs are 'firm', 'economic progress', and 'economic growth' (Fig. 14). Twenty-five years of study on institutions, entrepreneurship, and economic growth: What have we learned? is the green cluster's reference document published in Small Business Economics by Urbano D. et al. in 2019. The Influence of Formal and Informal Institutional Voids on Entrepreneurship by Webb J. W. et al., published in 2020 in Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, is the reference study for the blue cluster, while Afreh B. et al.'s work Varieties of context and informal entrepreneurship: Entrepreneurial activities of migrant youths in rural Ghana is the reference study in the red cluster.

Two major source clusters have been discovered. Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, and *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research* are part of the red cluster, which has the major subjects of 'economy' and 'entrepreneurship', while the blue cluster's major subjects are 'innovation' and 'growth', with *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *Journal of Business Venturing*, and *Sustainability* as important sources (Fig. 15).

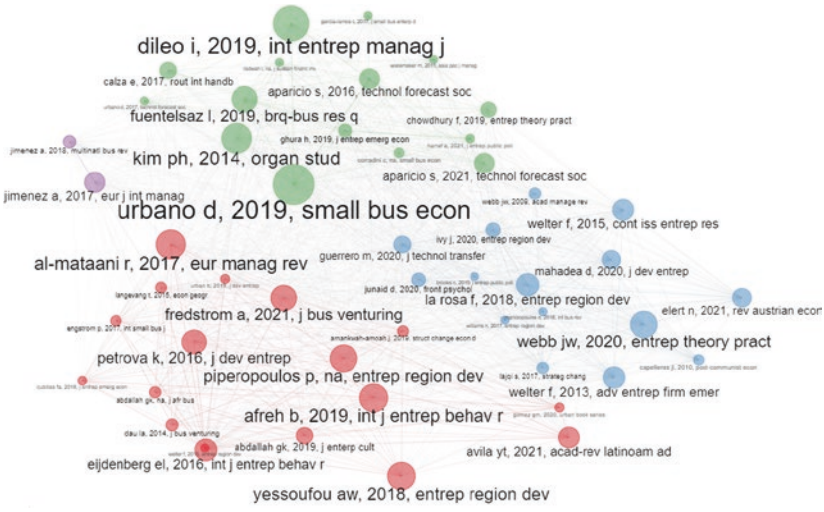

Fig. 14 Papers clustering by coupling

Fig. 15 Sources clustering by coupling

Conceptual Structure

Network analysis based on keyword co-occurrence and multiple correspondence analysis is used to demonstrate the important research themes in the conceptual framework.

The Conceptual Structure Map of Major Themes Using MCA

The entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality key theme's conceptual structure map, which differentiates the most prevalent words by mapping the relationship between one word and another through area mapping, has also provided useful information. To build a mapping between words with comparable values, each word is placed depending on the values of Dim 1 and Dim 2. Variable categories with similar profiles are grouped in MCA, whereas negatively related variables are organized on opposite quadrants of the plot origin. The distance between category points and the origin on the factor map determines the variable quality.

There are *three main clusters*: the red cluster, which includes various elements of informality and entrepreneurial ecosystems such as gender equality, entrepreneurial intention, culture, resilience, social capital, entrepreneurial universities, social entrepreneurship, emerging economies, small firms. The green cluster is more related to formal and

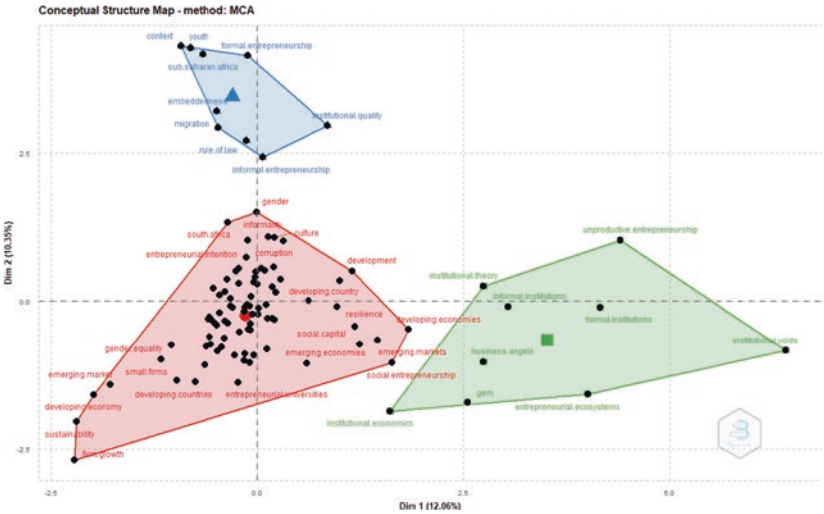

Fig. 16 Conceptual Structure Map of entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality

informal institutions, entrepreneurial ecosystems, institutional theory, unproductive entrepreneurship, while the blue one is formed by elements related to formal and informal entrepreneurship, youth, migration, institutional credibility (Fig. 16).

Analysis of Keyword Co-Occurrence

The evolution of the main term occurrences revealed that the terms with the highest increase in occurrences have been 'entrepreneurship' and 'informal economy' (Fig. 17).

The box dimension of the keyword co-occurrence network is displayed in Fig. 18 highlights the number of occurrences of the keywords, while the distance between the components of each pairing represents subject similarity. Five different box colors have been emphasized in the study of the entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality, signaling five separate clusters, with entrepreneurship and informal economy serving as the network's main points.

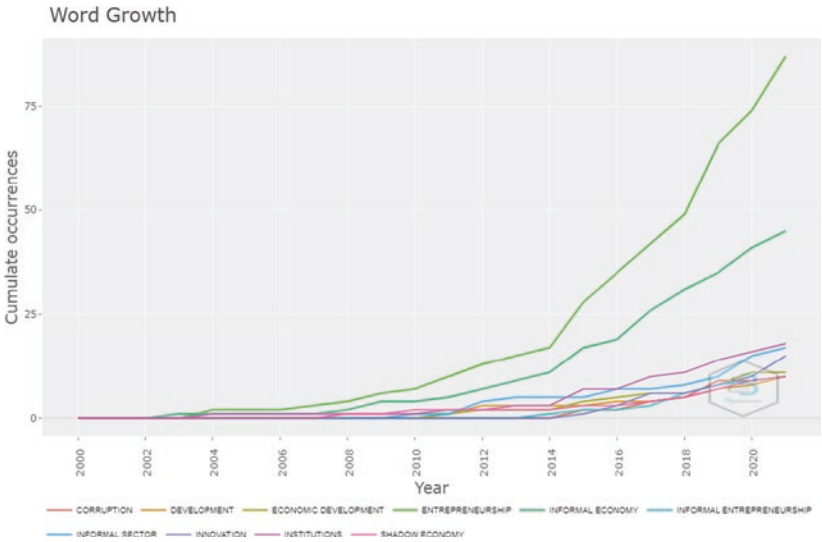

Fig. 17 Main co-occurrence terms per year

Intellectual Structure Based on Co-Citation Analysis

Figures 19–21 depict the co-citation analysis, with each box representing an author, article, or journal in the field of the entrepreneurial ecosystem, as seen from various angles, with the size of the box revealing the volume of the citation (the larger the box, the more authors' documents are cited), and the proximity of the boxes indicating a close relationship between the co-cited documents.

Co-Citation Analysis on Authors

The co-citation analysis among authors for the body of literature investigating the combinations of words 'entrepreneurial ecosystem' and 'informality' reveals two main clusters with four main authors in each cluster. Williams C.C., Webb J.W., Welter F., and World Bank share their linkages with the group of authors from their sub-network in case of the red cluster, while in the case of the blue cluster North D., Burton G.D, Aidis R., and Baumol W.J. are the nodes to be followed (Fig. 19).

Fig. 18 Co-occurrence network analysis on authors' keywords

Co-Citation on Papers

The co-citation analysis among papers for the body of literature researching the words 'entrepreneurial ecosystem' and 'informality' has identified three main clusters with three primary papers, North (1990), Webb (2009), and Wennekers (2005), and their linkages with a set of papers from their sub-network. The nodes with the highest betweenness are North (1990), Baumol (1990), and Webb (2009), indicating how important these papers are in terms of the average pathway between other pairs of paper. The same three papers have had the greatest values for proximity, centrality measure, and eigenvector centrality.

By clusters, the most relevant papers in the blue cluster are North (1990), Baumol (1990), and Estrim (2013), in the red cluster, Webb (2009), Welter (2011), and Williams (2010), and in the green cluster, Wennekers (1999), Arenius (2005), and Reynolds (2005) are the reference document.

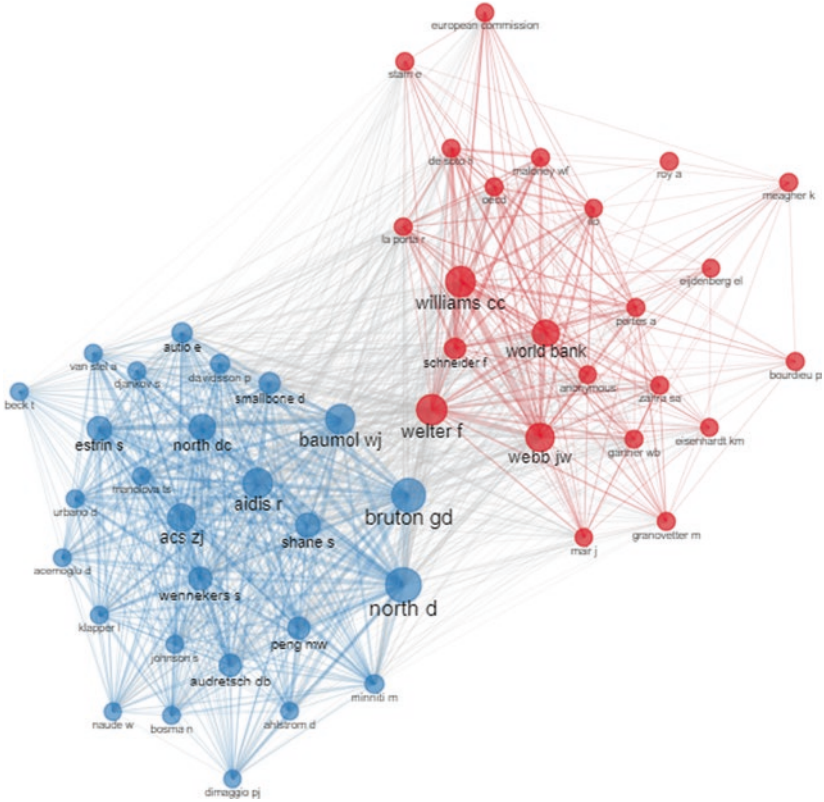

Fig. 19 Authors' co-citation analysis

Co-Citation on Journals

The co-citation analysis of journals in the range of the literature on the terms 'entrepreneurial ecosystem' and 'informality' has identified three main clusters, with eight primary journals in the blue cluster, including *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *Journal of Business Venturing*, *Small Business Economics*, and *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, and journals in the blue cluster including *Academy of Management Review*, *Academy of Management Journal*, and *The Quarterly Journal of Administration*. The journals indicated above are the most important in terms of the average route between other pairs of journals and have the highest values from proximity.

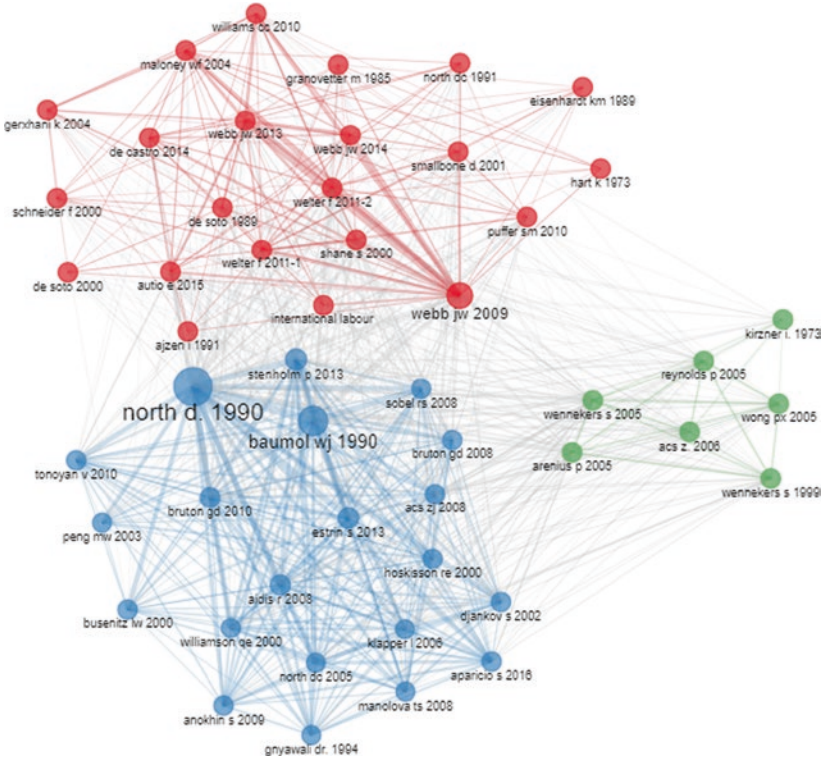

Fig. 20 Papers' co-citation analysis

Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, *Journal of Business Venturing*, and *Small Business Economics* are the nodes with the highest betweenness in terms of the average road between other pairs of journals, indicating how important these journals are in terms of the average road between other pairs of journals.

Social Structure Through Collaboration Network Analysis of Authors and Institutions and Countries

Figure 21 depicts a nation cooperation map, illustrating the links between the United States, the United Kingdom, China, Spain, Germany, and Colombia when it comes to the entrepreneurial environment and informality. The thickness of the line represents the scale of collaboration (Mougenot & Doussoulin, 2021).

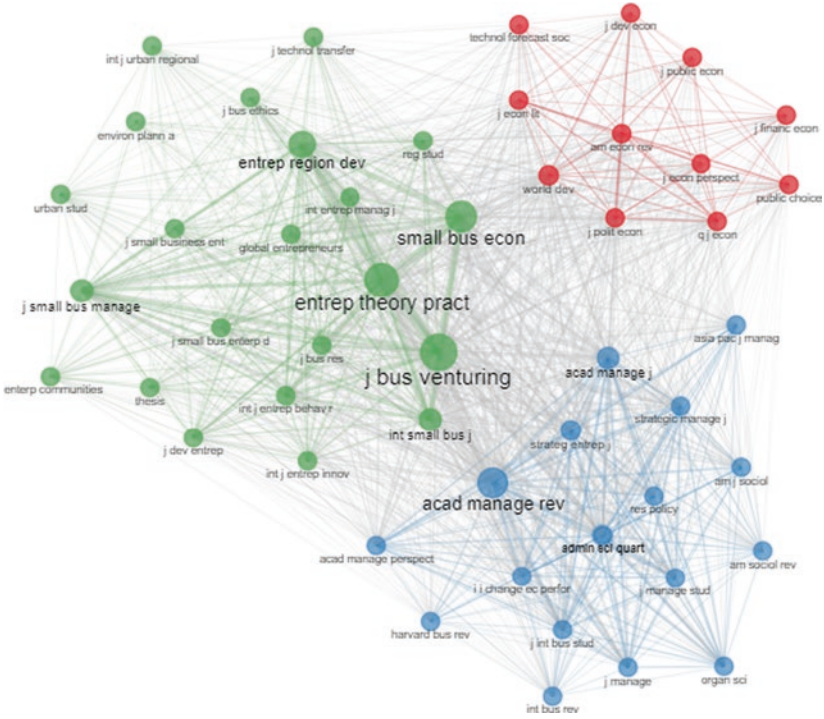

Fig. 21 Journals co-citation analysis

In terms of collaboration between authors, the highlights in the network are Urbano with Aparicio, Guerrero, Audretsch, and Noguera being part of the red cluster. The blue cluster composed by Welter, Smallbone, and Xheneti and the turquoise cluster composed by Williams, Rodgers, and Nadin are the other main sub-graphs of the whole network (Fig. 22).

The most important collaborations between institutions are found in the red cluster being composed by (Figs. 23 and 24).

A Content Analysis of Heritage and Informal Entrepreneurship Research Publications

Figure 25 highlights the most frequent words in the body of the scientific publications that issued the heritage entrepreneurship and informal entrepreneurship. Words with the highest visibility are 'entrepreneurs'

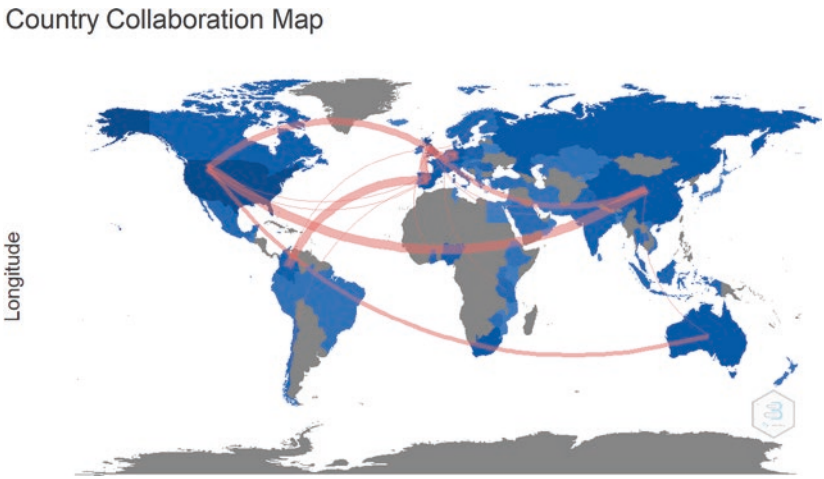

Fig. 22 A collaborative network of countries

with an occurrence of 1053, 'businesses' with 802 appearances, followed by 'research' with 623 incidences. Other important words worth mentioning are 'entrepreneurship', 'ethnic', 'informal', 'enterprises', 'south', 'Asian', and 'social'.

The empirical results for the word network indicated a co-occurrence rate of at least 10 times as frequent. The nodes with highest degree of centrality (the number of links incidents upon a node) are 'economic', 'social', 'activity', 'business', 'impact', 'cultural', 'conditions', 'market', and 'time'. Thus, we can mention the pairs such as age-entrepreneurship-family-employed-women-economic-market-international-education-countries-nature-impact-economy-business-world-social-people (Fig. 26).

Examining now the most correlated words within the scientific content of the articles and considering as threshold the value of 0.6 (Fig. 27), the empirical results emphasize the following combinations of words being the most encountered: heritage-model-relationships-entrepreneurship-entrepreneurial-entrepreneurs-family-employment-ethnic-income-safety-activities-discussed-health-Asian-enterprise-capital-illegal-process.

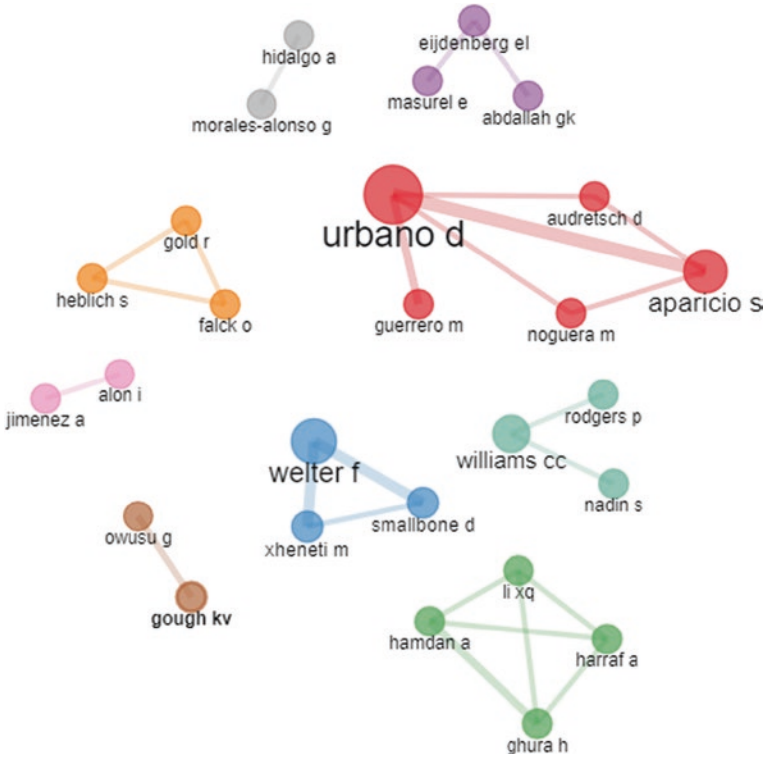

Fig. 23 Authors' collaboration network analysis

The existence of four separate subjects was considered throughout the process of examining the primary issues met in the scientific literature. The empirical results of topic modeling highlighted the following combinations of words in these different subjects (Fig. 28):

- Topic 1—'ethnic', 'Greek', 'employment', 'migrants', and 'informal' giving the idea of treating the ethnic diversity in terms of migration taking part of informality.
- Topic 2—'ethnic', 'heritages', 'market', 'relationship', and 'percent' are focusing on the topic of ethnic heritages and their relationships in the market.

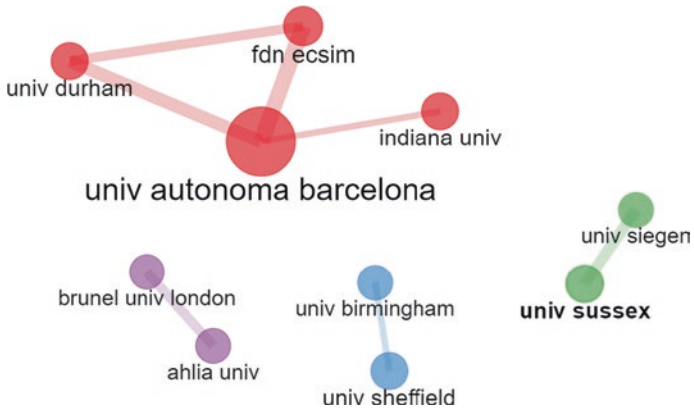

Fig. 24 Institution's collaboration network analysis

Fig. 25 Most frequent keywords in the body of papers treating heritage entrepreneurship and informal entrepreneurship

- Topic 3—'entrepreneurs', 'research', 'enterprises', 'south', 'Asian' offer the idea of entrepreneurship in South-Asian countries which are developed in different manners than Western markets.
- Topic 4—'entrepreneurs', 'social', 'socialist', 'education', 'capital' suggest the topic of entrepreneurs in the socialist time and the implementation from two standpoints (social and educational).

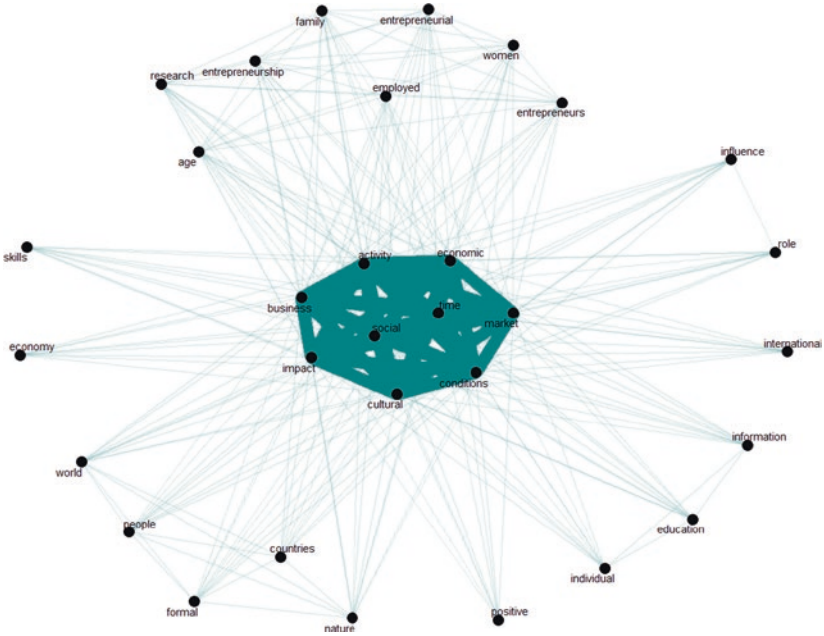

Fig. 26 Word network in scientific publications' content

Fig. 27 Correlation network in scientific publications' content

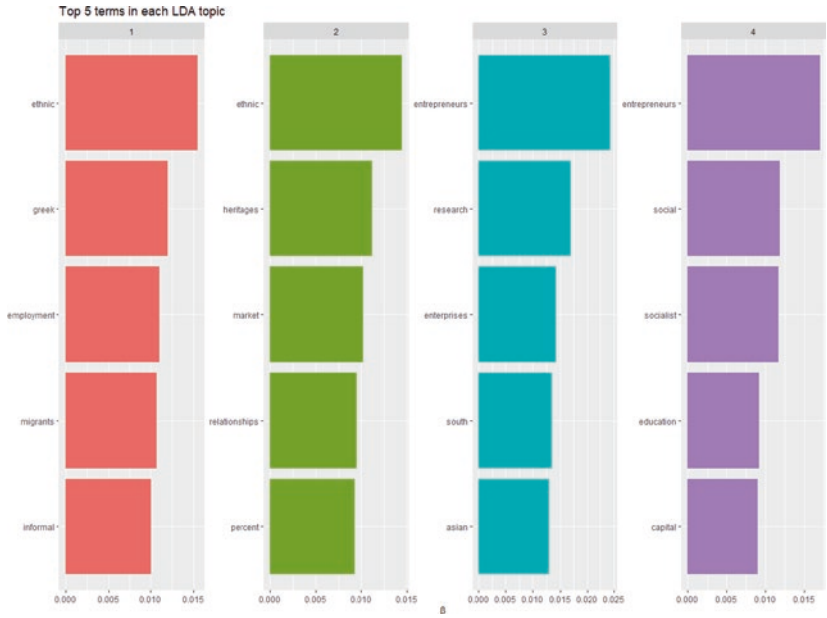

Fig. 28 Top keywords in topic modeling of scientific articles' content

Conclusions

The study's goal has been to investigate the main implications between heritage entrepreneurship, informal entrepreneurship, and the entrepreneurial ecosystem, emphasizing the dynamics of the literature and possible future research directions, examining more than 400 documents extracted from the Web of Science database between 1991 and 2021.

This study area's dynamics began in 2015, with an annual growth rate of around 15% year after year. *The Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurship, and Regional Development*, and *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy* have been highlighted as the most representative journals in this topic.

With 501 citations, the research by Webb J.W. et al. (2009) published in the Academy of Management Review is the most referenced work, followed by McMillan J. et al. (2002), published in *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, and Smallbone and Welter (2001), published in Small Business Economics.

Welter, F., Webb, J. W., Ireland, R. D., Sirmon, D. G., and Tihanyi, L. are the writers with the highest visibility in the subject of entrepreneurial ecosystem and informality, as measured by the number of citations (Fig. 7). In terms of author connections, the Universitat Autonoma de Barcelona, the University of Sheffield, and the University of Ghana have the most publications.

Analyzing sources, keywords, and authors, the main research topics of entrepreneurship, informal economy, informal institutions, informal sector, and corruption were linked to authors such as S. Aparicio, D. Urbano, F. Welter, E. L. Eijdenberg, and C. C. Williams, as well as journals such as *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, *Small Business Economics, and Sustainability*.

The following five major clusters of author coupling have been identified: the blue cluster, which includes writers like Urbano, D., Audretsch, D., Aparicio, S., Guerrero, M., and Ekanem, I., has primary interest subjects including 'performance', 'growth', and 'impact'. The purple cluster includes authors such as Williams, C., Urban, B., Welter, F., Webb, J. W., and Owusu, G., with main interest themes such as 'economy', 'informal economy', and 'employment'. The red cluster, which is described by notions such as 'opportunity', 'culture', and 'development', is authored by Ghura, H., Harraf, A., Li, X. Q., and Hamdan, A. Two authors, Jimenez, A. and Alon, I., were in the green cluster, focusing on subjects like 'firm', 'economic development', and 'economic growth', while Al Mamun, A. and Zainol, N. R. were in the yellow cluster, focusing on 'determinants', 'entrepreneurship', and 'innovation'.

The coupling map by papers reveals four clusters: the green cluster focuses on papers dealing with 'innovation, self-employment, and impact', the blue cluster focuses on papers dealing with 'innovation, self-employment, and impact', the purple cluster focuses on papers dealing with 'innovation, self-employment', the articles in the red cluster are about 'employment, developing economies, and growth', while the papers in the blue cluster are about 'business, performance, and SME growth'. What have we learned after twenty-five years of research on institutions, entrepreneurship, and economic growth? is a reference document for the green cluster that was published in Small Business Economics by Urbano D. et al. in 2019. Webb J.W. et al.'s The Influence of Formal and Informal Institutional Voids on

Entrepreneurship, published in 2020 in Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, is the blue cluster's reference study, while Afreh et al.' Varieties of context and informal entrepreneurship: Entrepreneurial activities of migrant youths in rural Ghana is the red cluster's reference study.

Analyzing the main topics identified in the body of the literature exploring the relationship between informal entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial ecosystem, *three main clusters* have been highlighted—the red cluster, which includes various elements of informality and entrepreneurial ecosystems such as gender equality, entrepreneurial intention, culture, resilience, social capital, entrepreneurial universities, social entrepreneurship, emerging economies, small firms; the green one more related to formal and informal institutions, entrepreneurial ecosystems, institutional theory, unproductive entrepreneurship, while the blue one formed by elements related to formal and informal entrepreneurship, youth, migration, institutional credibility.

In terms of co-citations, Williams C. C., Webb J. W., Welter F., World Bank North D., Burton G. D, Aidis R., and Baumol W. J. are the most prolific authors, while Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, Journal of Business Venturing, and Small Business Economics are the most representative journals in the field.

The most successful collaborations have been identified to be Urbano with Aparicio, Guerrero, Audretsch, Noguera, Welter, Smallbone, and Xheneti as well as Williams, Rodgers, and Nadin. In terms of institutional collaborations, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Indiana University, Euro Exim Foundation, University of Durham, University of Sussex, University of Siegen, University of Birmingham, and the University of Sheffield represent the most prolific collaboration.

The empirical results of the content analysis revealed that the words with the highest visibility are 'entrepreneurs', 'research' as well as 'entrepreneurship', 'ethnic', 'informal', 'enterprises', 'south', 'Asian', and 'social'. Among the most relevant topic linking informal-heritage entrepreneurship as well as entrepreneurial ecosystem, we can mention: 'ethnic', 'Greek', 'employment', 'migrants'' and 'informal' giving the idea of treating the ethnic diversity in terms of migration taking part of informality; 'ethnic', 'heritages', 'market', 'relationship', and 'percent' focusing on the topic of ethnic heritages and its relationships in the market; 'entrepreneurs', 'research', 'enterprises', 'south', 'Asian' offering the idea of entrepreneurship in South-Asian countries which are developed in different manners than Western markets; 'entrepreneurs', 'social',

'socialist', 'education', 'capital' suggesting the topic of entrepreneurs in the socialist time and the implementation from two standpoints (social and educational).

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The Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Tourism in Alpine Areas of Switzerland

Norbert Hörburger and Thorsten Merkle

Introduction

The tourism industry has been affected by the COVID-19 pandemic like almost no other. Tourism products, like all services, are perishable due to their inherent lack of storability. The effects of the pandemic thus lead to considerable economic losses that can no longer be regained.

The COVID-19 pandemic has struck the Swiss tourism industry completely unexpected. Although stakeholders within the Swiss government as well as in the tourism industry were swift to respond to the new reality, the levels of impact have been and still are unexpected. Formerly a relatively stable market, long-standing structures, and processes immediately became inappropriate for the new reality. The impact of this development has been unexpectedly strong, as can now be seen in changes even at cultural patterns in this long-standing industry.

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V. Ratten (ed.), *Heritage Entrepreneurship*, Palgrave Studies in Global Entrepreneurship, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-5149-7_6

Even before the COVID-19 pandemic, tourism in the alpine regions was facing major challenges. Besides changes in travel behavior (shorter stays and more spontaneous travel), effects of global warming increased uncertainty and made planning more difficult for winter destinations.

In the Swiss context, the pandemic has led to a significant decrease in international arrivals and a subsequent increase in domestic travel. Guests book more spontaneously and tend to demand increasingly flexible cancelation conditions. In addition, day tourism is gaining in importance with tourist hotspots being avoided. The search for unspoiled and often peripheral retreats is becoming a focal point for tourists in order to avoid infectious environments as much as possible. As booking figures show, mainly vacation apartments, campsites, and farm vacations benefit from these developments. The use of public transport is avoided with individual mobility (car or camper vans) increasing.

In that light, multi-local living concepts gain increasing importance. More flexible work conditions such as working from home or alternating office occupancies allow employees an increased geographic flexibility. Living close to the office is losing relevance and new opportunities for living and working in distant places (e.g., in the mountains) arise. Certain aspects of these new work forms will continue to play a role post-pandemically.

With regional and small-scale travel being the first sector to grow post-pandemically, smaller destinations and service providers will need to be prepared in order to professionally cope with increasing tourist arrivals. This will not only lead to an increased need for investments in hardware, but also calls for more professional management in smaller tourism businesses. The ability to innovate will become a core requirement for managers in small-scale tourism businesses as well.

This chapter sheds light on current developments on multi-local living concepts in the Swiss context. Furthermore, the long-term effects of the new work possibilities on the second-home market as well as on increasing hotel overcapacities are discussed before shortcomings in tourism service innovation (the Service Innovation Gap) are contextualized.

Overview of Impact Levels of the Pandemic

As the experience with the COVID-19 pandemic has shown, alpine tourism in Switzerland is affected in many ways by restrictions on use due to the protective measures and changed guest behavior. While tourism

overall has suffered from decreasing mobility, certain providers benefitted from novel behavioral patterns.

On the supplier side, considerable efforts have been made by all types of tourism service providers to develop protection concepts and to improve hygiene standards. This has often been the case in connection with marketing activities in order to signal safety to potential guests (Wirtz, 2012). Due to constantly changing travel restrictions and related uncertainties caused by a diffuse infection situation, tourism demand has changed, partly even in favor of the Swiss mountain regions. These implications are described in Sect. 2.

Changes however also have occurred on the demand side. With an increasing trend to work from home, new opportunities are opening up for the Swiss alpine regions. In order to assess the durability of this trend, intrapersonal considerations have to be considered; these are discussed in Sect. 3. In order to benefit positively from the changes brought about by the pandemic in the long term, the tourism industry has to make improvements both at the regulatory level and at the operational level. These are outlined in Sects. 4 and 5.

Market Shift Within in the Lodging Sector

The Swiss lodging industry is characterized by different developments. While urban regions have seen a continuous pre-pandemic increase in overnight stays (Strauss et al., 2020) and an impressive increase in room capacity (Hörburger & Deuber, 2017), overnight stays in the Alpine regions have been declining for a long time (Strauss et al., 2020). This decline was primarily due to the loss of European guests as a result of the rise in the value of the Swiss franc. Although more guest arrivals were recorded from distant markets (mainly Asia, USA, and the Middle East), these arrivals could not compensate for the losses and are generally concentrated in tourist hotspots. Only from 2017 onwards has there been a slight increase in overnight stays from the traditional European markets like Germany, however the Swiss Alpine region still lacks an impressive 43% of hotel overnight stays from Europe compared to 2008 (Schweiz Tourismus, 2018).

Due to this decline in guest arrivals, the investment backlog of many hotels in the Swiss Alpine region has increased considerably since the 2010s. Solving the problem for the industry appears to be difficult, as it is very small-structured, has little innovative power and since capital

resources are generally very limited. In addition, in many places the cross-financing of hotels through the construction and sale of second homes is no longer possible due to legislation.

This development is inevitably accompanied by a structural change within the Swiss Alpine hotel industry. Overcapacities are reduced by the market exit of weaker establishments and only larger, more efficient hotels will remain (Müller-Jentsch, 2017).

Although there are ideas for solutions with the formation of larger, more efficient operating structures through cooperation or sharpening of the product profile, these cannot be implemented in all resort destinations, so that tourism as a key industry in the mountain region continues to be under enormous pressure. Thus, even before the COVID-19 pandemic, the hotel industry in the Swiss Alpine region was facing major challenges.

As expected, international business travel largely came to a standstill during phases in the course of the pandemic, and overnight stays in city hotels dropped extremely (BfS, 2021). However, places such as Interlaken or Lucerne, which are strongly focused on international tourist traffic, were also affected by the sudden drop in demand. The numerous sharing offers (e.g., AirBnB apartments), which live primarily from city tourism, also recorded a major downturn. Subsequently, several residential units were transferred from the transient market into the resident market in order to be able to continue generating income despite the pandemic situation (Laesser & Bieger, 2020). Unlike in the neighboring countries, a lockdown of Hotels was never ordered in Switzerland. Consequently, the drop in overnight stays in leisure hotels outside urban areas was comparatively small, also due to the significant increase in domestic demand.

Before the crisis, the para-hotel sector (second homes, serviced apartments, youth hostels, group accommodation, campsites, etc.) had received little attention in comparison with the hotel industry, although the study “Design to cost in the Swiss vacation hotel industry” clearly showed that serviced apartments, for example, are more profitable in the high-cost location of Switzerland than all other types of accommodation (Deuber et al., 2014). In the para-hotel sector, especially vacation homes, second homes, and campsites are the sub-segments with a high demand in times of pandemic, as they allow for a low-contact vacation-making.

For those tourists that cannot afford their own second home, serviced apartments offer a chance to escape the infection risk of the metropolitan areas without having to sacrifice comfort. In view of the further pandemics (Hartwig, 2020), it can be concluded that second homes, apartments and campsites have a significantly better resilience than hotels or group accommodation.

This pandemic-related change in demand also has an impact on real estate markets. While the market for second homes is almost sold out in popular vacation resorts and prices are moving toward the level of big cities (Ritter, 2021), there is evidence for a great sell-out mood for vacation hotels and an unusually large number of properties are coming onto the market (Godglück, 2021).

Although state-granted COVID loans (or guarantees) and emergency aids (fixed-cost subsidies upon proof of a significant drop in sales) could prevent a major wave of bankruptcies among the hotels in the Swiss context, many properties will continue to be hampered in their ability to invest in the medium term. Assuming that after the pandemic, travel abroad will be unimpeded and the stabilizing effect of domestic demand will diminish again, the pandemic will act as a catalyst that will considerably accelerate the structural change.

It can be observed that with the pandemic, a certain shift in the lodging industry is taking place. Vacation homes and campsites will be in greater demand and the hotel supply will consolidate. Especially, camping in remote places in the great outdoors enjoys enormous popularity. However, this increasingly causes conflicts with governing authorities whose task it is to ensure compliance with land protection regulations by preventing "wild camping". New platforms such as Nomady.ch or Swissterroir.ch promise solutions by bringing landowners and campers together so that overnight stays can be made at agreed sites (Ringier Brand Studio, 2020). Besides "wild camping", traditional campsites have also seen a strong increase in visitors due to the pandemic (SDA, 2020), and among the visitors are many who have rediscovered camping as an alternative to staying in a hotel. Particularly in demand were offers of so-called glamping ("glamourous camping"), i.e., stationary overnight accommodation with more comfort and privacy. This is spurring the trend toward higher-quality offerings at campsites, which has been going on for some time already (Htr, n.d.).

Furthermore, due to Corona, the demand for second homes is on an upswing. This raises the question of how existing second homes can be

better utilized. It is known from various studies that the willingness of second-home owners to rent out is not very high (Bieger et al., 2005). One lever for increasing the willingness to rent out lies in the convenient handling of the rental and the offer of concierge or facility services (Rageth, 2021). This enables hotels, for example, to generate additional income and to tap into a new supply segment.

Most second homes in the Swiss alpine region were built between the 1970s and the end of the 1990s, which means that many of these properties are due for their first major renovation and for inheritance. In some properties, it can happen that the owners do not want to invest in the renovation and have lost interest in the property—this is mostly observed in multi-family houses in condominium ownership. At the same time, however, the owners do not want to sell because they want to keep the apartment for family reasons or because of a possible increase in value. For such cases, the RenoRent model was developed, which invests in the properties based on a time-limited usufruct and pays the owner a fixed share of the income from tourist rentals (Hörburger et al., 2019). Thus, different pathways exist to unlock the underutilized potential of "cold beds" for tourism and provide more people with a safe escape option from infectious events.

Blurring Boundaries Between Work and Leisure

In the pandemic situation, more and more people find refuge in third places, often in alpine areas where they can combine work and non-work-related activities at the same location. Avoiding hotspots and crowded areas, such third places can offer safety and security in pandemic times as well as infrastructure to enable both work and non-work activities to take place.

The possibility of moving to rural areas is supported by the relatively high proportion of second homes in Switzerland (Sonderegger, 2014). In the Swiss Alpine region, for example, there are between 350,000 and 400,000 s homes, depending on the geographical definition, which means that in many tourist communities the proportion of second homes is between 60 and 85% (Müller-Jentsch, 2017). Due to the pandemic and the home office obligation that was at times introduced in this context (Staatsekretariat für Wirtschaft [SECO], 2021), second homes are enjoying a much more intensive use than before. Depending on the industry, a very large proportion of employees can work from home.

According to a survey by the news agency AWP, for example, 85%-90% of employees at Credit Suisse currently work from home (Der Bund, 2021).

This section discusses sociological foundations for this movement to third places using boundary theory as a conceptual lens. Historically, people have differentiated in their daily lives between the work and the home-realm and have found different strategies and routines that help them to move from one to the other (Merkle et al., 2020). When putting the phenomena in a bigger theoretical context, the sociological concept of boundary theory offers itself as an aid to explain them (Fonner & Stache, 2012; Nippert-Eng, 2008). This theoretical framework focuses on individuals' transitions between social roles, such as between work and home roles as well as on rituals and strategies that facilitate such transitions. Following Myrie and Daly (2009), as well as Kreiner et al. (2009), people impose boundaries over the natural non-order of things in order to simplify and classify the world around them. Nippert-Eng (2008) coined the term boundary work to illustrate the strategies that people employ to differentiate, or to segment, between the work- and the home-realm. Boundary work then includes both the placement as well as the crossing of those boundaries and as such occurs both on a mental and on a physical level (Myrie & Daly, 2009). As Fonner and Stache (2012, p. 244) elaborate, "*boundary theory examines the choices individuals make regarding the creation and maintenance of the work-home boundary and their transitions between work and home roles*". In that sense, a commute becomes a journey between the home realm and the work realm during which people employ certain routines to facilitate the transition between those boundaries.

Where Nippert-Eng (2008) now claims that home-work transitions can be seen as mental bridges, this concept of transcending from one territory to another is no longer applicable in the pandemic home office situation, as home and work occur at the same location. Home itself then becomes a place where people have to transcend between realms. In that sense, home can be understood to be a liminoid place. Liminality, according to Turner (1967), is the ambiguity that occurs during rituals when participants are no longer in the pre-ritual state and are not yet in the state that follows once the ritual is complete (Bigger, 2009). In this vein, people can be understood to be "in between" both realms at home nowadays. As Bigger (2009) further elaborates, the liminal period itself is outside of the official social structure and may even acquire a

quasi-structural position of its own (Nippert-Eng, 2008). The concept of boundary work can thus help understand difficulties and struggles people have during the pandemic since they find themselves in the liminoid space, lacking their accustomed rites of passage between the work- and the home-realm. It is in this context, that third places, often in alpine regions, offer themselves as a location where such liminality can be experienced without constantly having to question the historic definition of home and work. This lack of rites of passage and the struggles differentiating between home and work realm now open an opportunity for third places.

The integration of the home and work realm at the third place can then furthermore be facilitated by offering services, analogue and digital. This is where service innovations come to play an important role, as will be discussed in the next section.

The Service Innovation Gap in Touristic SMEs

As the discussion in the previous section has shown, third places can play the role of a "safe heaven" where both work and home activities can take place and where liminality does not endanger our historic understanding of home nor work. Such third places however need to be equipped with certain infrastructure and services in order to allow (temporal) residents to conduct those activities. Role players in (alpine) tourism thus need to be innovative in offering services and infrastructures. While the call for service innovation has been omnipresent in (alpine) tourism, it is growing in the pandemic situation. Examples are, for instance, online table reservations at restaurants, the use of service robots in hotels or ski teachers that hunt for clients on the slopes (also referred to as "skeachers"), just to mention a few. It needs however to be noted that individual service providers in the tourism context often have difficulties in being innovative.

Various classifications and divisions of innovations are prevalent in the literature, such as the four dimensions *process innovation, position innovation, production innovation, and paradigm innovation* (Bessant & Tidd, 2015). De Massis et al. (2018) however argue that innovation capability is not dependent on resource availability. A strong expertise through niche focus, long-term mind-set thanks to family ownership, and continuous integration and cooperation with customers and employees facilitate innovation in SMEs, they claim.

Innovations in services include product and process innovations. Product innovations are the development of new services, the introduction of new core benefits or the improvement of existing products (Anning-Dorson, 2018). Thus, product innovations are either of incremental or radical nature. While incremental refers to developments and improvements of existing services, the introduction of new services is considered radical (Anning-Dorson, 2018; Brettel et al., 2011). Process innovations refer to advancements in the services system of a firm to increase value creation (Anning-Dorson, 2016). Innovation activities in services are sourced from within a firms inside operations, or the external environment and involve customers as resource and co-creators (Anning-Dorson, 2018; De Massis et al., 2018). External resources such as information, knowledge, and technology are key to innovation activities.

As pointed out previously, the pressure to innovate in the tourism industry is growing (Peters & Vellas, 2019). Besides the pandemic situation, increasing global competition, new challenges, and opportunities in the field of digitalization, and the dynamic development of society are challenging players in the tourism industry (Rachinger et al., 2019). While modern innovation methods are often professionally applied by larger entities (Knaus & Merkle, 2020; Merkle et al., 2019), the situation is particularly challenging for smaller service providers that develop new offers, open up new markets with entrepreneurial action, and innovative power. In the context of alpine tourism, small- and medium-sized role-players who are showing difficulties innovating are often involved. While service innovation has become a key success factor in contemporary tourism management, stakeholders in SME's are often uncertain of how this can be achieved. It is this inability not only to generate ideas but to turn them into products or services that can be found in SME's and can be called "Service Innovation Gap". In the context of tourism, enablers may be useful in order to facilitate innovations and to close the Service Innovation Gap, as will be elaborated in the next section.

The Role of Enablers to Manage Change

As has been pointed out in the previous section, small- and medium-sized tourism businesses often lack the knowledge to successfully develop innovations, which then leads to a high rate of failure (Ottenbacher et al., 2006). With the tourism industry being highly fragmented (Bieger et al., 2009), the result is in a higher risk attached

to innovation projects for smaller players, since these are more exposed to uncertainty and dynamics of their immediate economic environment (Pikkemaat, 2008). As Pikkemaat and Zehrer (2016) elaborate, employees in smaller enterprises in alpine tourism often hold knowledge required for innovation, but are unable to bring this into practice due to an autocratic leadership style. In addition, being innovative usually is not part of the job description in this context, also due to lack of knowledge on the management level. These are some of the factors that contribute to the Service Innovation Gap that was described in the previous section.

Service design here is referred to as an example for a modern methodology that can be applied in order to effectively address the Service Innovation Gap. It includes the planning and design of effective, efficient, and customer-centered service experiences and is understood as a holistic innovation process (Stickdorn & Schwarzenberger, 2016). The service design process includes aspects of planning and organizing people, infrastructure, communication, and the material components of a service (Anderegg & Merkle, 2020). Along this guided innovation process, methods, and tools are used that support the human-centered approach and are characterized by co-creative features. By means of service design, customer requirements can be connected to the objectives of the organization (Trischler et al., 2018).

In light of the current situation around innovation in alpine tourism, the COVID-19 pandemic can be considered to be a potential "innovation booster" that could advance innovation activities also in small- and medium-sized touristic enterprises. In order for this to happen however, we see the need for initiatives to be taken at a several levels:

On a governmental/political level, policymaking in tourism should focus on technology, infrastructure and a fair regulation system, in cooperation with service providers (Hjalager, 2002). Tourism policy should furthermore strengthen the importance of (continuous) education of individuals being employed in the sector (Sundbo, 2007). In the Swiss context, the importance of multilateral cooperation between stakeholders has been emphasized by Hänggi et al. (2020). Successful examples include the "Innocircle" in the canton of Grisons that is run by the tourism marketing organization and co-operates with both tourism service providers as well as stakeholders from academia (InnoCircle, 2020).

On a destination and regional level, initiatives such as the Mia Engiadina Foundation can help accelerate infrastructure development and also support the creation of an open culture for alpine destinations

to become third places. Mia Engiadina is an example from the Swiss context which is committed to the expansion of high-speed Internet in rural regions and brings the symbiosis of life and work into harmony with innovative projects such as the Inn Hub La Punt in the Engadine valley. The pandemic in particular adds significance to such projects, as an interview with renowned architect Sir Norman Foster illustrates (Inn Hub La Punt AG, 2020). In addition, the local University of Applied Sciences serves as an example offering highly affordable entry-level courses for innovation management and design thinking to tourism service providers (Service Design Academy, 2021).

On the level of the individual tourism service providers, it is up to management to open up, make use of and participate in training initiatives and allow for technological developments to be implemented (Sundbo, 2007). Especially in the tourism sector, cooperations have found to be promising in attaining innovations to be executed (Hänggi et al., 2020; Pikkemaat, 2008).

In order to integrate the different perspectives and in order to enable small- and medium-sized tourism enterprises to benefit from regulatory measures, the creation of enablers such as innovation hubs has proven to be useful. Such innovation hubs often are linked to universities (Haywood, 2020) or other public and private institutions with the mission to support business innovations (Gusakov et al., 2020). Often publicly funded, these enablers offer a broad range of supporting services such as:

- Offering consulting services (Bodolica & Spraggon, 2021).
- Enabling access to (professional) networks (Raisi et al., 2020).
- Providing analytical as well as strategy tools (Schuhbert et al., 2020).
- Offering training and events (Gusakov et al., 2020).
- Providing platforms for open innovation approaches and hackathons (Richards, 2020).

As Gusakov et al. (2020) further claim, there is a clear connection between the existence of innovation incubators and economic success for tourist destinations. Positive effects of furthermore include cooperation with external parties, as well as the adaption of external information (Tsinopoulos et al., 2018).

Multi-Locality with Service Convenience

In conclusion, the COVID-19 pandemic is changing tourism in the Swiss Alps in many ways. Some tourism operators may be longing for a recovery, but the trends that are currently emerging are more likely to be a "trans-covery". As Schad et al. (2014) showed, at that time already 28% of respondents between 15 and 74 years of age lived multi-local and almost half of the respondents had experience with multi-local lifestyles. This proportion is likely to have increased significantly by now with the development being fueled by the pandemic.

Multi-local lifestyles that people got to know and live during the pandemic will become visibly more entrenched and the boundaries between home and work realms will become more and more blurred. This will require different strategies from individuals in order to organize their private and work lives free of conflict, but will also enable higher degrees of job satisfaction for people from urban areas linked with the opportunity to enjoy the beautiful scenery that the Alps offer.

It is to be expected that the importance of multi-local lifestyles will continue to increase. Many employers already have announced to continue to enable employees to work remotely once the COVID-19 pandemic is over. Increasing temporal and geographical flexibility is based on technological advances and will enable people to continue to blur boundaries between home and work realms.

Regarding infrastructures, there will also be some changes. Elderly second homes will be renovated and used more frequently, which will certainly benefit the appearance of some villages and support the construction industry. Whether the demand for second homes will remain as high as it has been recently is difficult to estimate. Certainly, some people intend to acquire a second home from or to which they can commute within a few hours and escape another pandemic in case of emergency. On the other hand, the pandemic is causing the job market to move, and many people are experiencing an anxiety about their future careers, which may make them reluctant to commit to a real estate investment. Therefore, it is necessary to closely monitor the development of the second-home markets, especially in view of the upcoming revision of the Swiss second-home law (according to art. 19 ZWG).

For employees in the tourism industry, which is the main occupation in most of the alpine areas, there will be changes, too. In the hotel industry, the concentration process will gain momentum and entrepreneurial

opportunities will open up in the management of vacation and second homes. Whether the demand for second homes will continue to rise is difficult to assess at present.

Travelers to alpine areas, be it tourists or residents of second homes, however can be expected to raise increasing service demands. When boundaries between work and non-work realms blur, not only technological infrastructures but also services will need to keep up with requirements. The development and optimization of ancillary services in turn can create new economic opportunities in the alpine destinations. It is worth noting that new service development as an iterative process should follow a customer-centric logic, thus following Service design methodologies and putting the customers at the center of all activities.

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World Heritage Sites in Italy

Vanessa Ratten

Introduction

Tourism is an important economic driver as it brings financial gain to an area (Ratten, 2019). Increasingly tourists are focusing on cultural places that are important for historical reasons. This has led to the creation of the World Heritage Sites (WHS) that provide a certification process for tourism places. Tourists often visit WHS because of the assurance that the place is an authentic representation of previous cultural elements. This makes it an important marketing tool for tourism entities who want to compete effectively in the global business environment (Koronios et al., 2021).

There is much competition for tourism dollars because of the associated revenue they bring to a region (Duran-Sanchez et al., 2019). Whilst tourists spend money directly visiting WHS, they also spend on accommodation, food and souvenirs. This makes each WHS influence the economic and social activity of the surrounding area. Often WHS partner with other entities in order to make it easier for tourists. This enables a tourism ecosystem to develop that further fuels economic growth (Ratten, 2020). The advantage of having a WHS designation is that it

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brings prestige and global marketing. There are also disadvantages in terms of maintaining the site at certain standards (Ratten et al., 2019). This makes it important to carefully manage entrepreneurial endeavours (Ratten & Ferreira, 2017). Tourism entities can be entrepreneurial by focusing on the international marketplace (Ratten et al., 2020). This enables them to focus on new potential markets.

Italy is a country in south-central Europe. The north of the country has a number of mountains whilst the southern area is well-known for its beaches. The country shares a border with Switzerland, France, Austria and Slovenia. There are archaeological sites in the country that demonstrate a long history of human habitation The economy traditionally focused on agriculture but has since diversified to also include footwear, clothing and services. It has a strategic position in Italy due to its geographic borders with other countries and access to the sea.

World Heritage Sites in Italy

This section will highlight the main world heritage sites in Italy in terms of their cultural significance. Monte San Giorgio is a mountain in a pyramid shape. It is located in the north of Italy next to Lake Lugano. There are a number of fossils depicting marine life in the area. It is the best known record of marine life from the Triassic Period. Many of the fossils are well preserved and include fish and crustaceans.

The Isole Eolie (Aeolian Islands) are in the Mediterranean Sea off the south coast of Italy. They are volcanic islands so provide a good example of island landforms. The ancient and primeval beech forests of the Carpathians are located in Italy as well as other countries in Europe. The forest includes different climatic conditions within the wilderness. They provide an example of a relatively undisturbed forest of European beech trees. During the last ice age, the European beech trees survived despite the changed climatic conditions. The trees are amongst the oldest growth forest habitats in Europe.

Venice and its lagoon are located in northern Italy. Venice was founded in the fifth century and is spread over a large number of small islands. The city was founded by citizens seeking refuge from raids in other cities. The lagoon landscape of Venice is unique and showcases the interaction between people and the natural environment.

The Venetian works of defence between the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries: Stato de Terra-Western Stato da Mar is located in northern

Italy. It comprises a number of defence works that are in the Lombard region of Italy. The fortifications were designed to protect the city of Venice. In order to sustain the power in Venice, the Stato de Terra protected the city from the northwest and the Stato da Mar from the sea.

Val d'Orcia is in the province of Siena in the Tuscany region of Italy. The agricultural landscape of Siena has inspired artists to paint pictures of the area. Famous paintings of the rural landscape include a 1339 painting by Ambrogio Lorenzetti in the Siena town hall. The farmland includes towns and villages as well as productive farms. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries during the Renaissance time, the landscape was considered as a utopian ideal for its rural lifestyle. In the area, there are low hills that are surrounded by trees and woodlands. The routes are defined by avenues of cypress pine trees. The farms in the area produce a range of crops. Towns in the area include Castiglione d'Orcia and Montalcino.

The Sassi and the park of the Rupestrian churches of Matera are located in the south of Italy. They comprise a number of buildings built into the caves of the area. The caves were occupied during the Palaeolithic period and show the stages of human history in the region.

The historic centre of Urbino is in the Marche region in the north of Italy. It was a popular place for artists to visit in the fifteenth century. The city still has Renaissance buildings such as the Monastery of Santa Chiara. From 1444 to 1482, Federico da Montefeltro ruled the town and invited mathematicians and artists to the area.

The vineyard landscape of Piedmont Langhe-Roero and Monferrato is in the north of Italy. It covers five wine growing areas that have a unique cultural history. The region has been characterised by wine-making for a long time with wine pollen being found from the fifth century BC. The Piedmont region is considered as one of the best wine growing areas in Italy. The landscape of the area is characterised by vineyard cellars and storehouses. There are a number of towns in the area that include castles, churches and farms.

Syracuse and the rocky Necropolis of Pantalica is located in Sicily. The Necropolis of Pantalica includes a number of tombs that have been cut into the rock face. In the region is ancient Syracuse that was once considered one of the best Greek cities. The city has been uninhabited for more than 3000 years and was once a Greek colony. The Neapolis includes archaeological sites such as the Tom of Archimedes.

Villa Romana del Casale is in Sicily. The villa was part of a large estate with mosaics decorating most rooms. The Villa d'Este in Tivoli is a villa in Rome. It includes a sixteenth-century garden that is architecturally designed with fountains. After being named governor of Tivoli in 1550, Pirro Ligorio built the palace and gardens on behalf of Cardinal Ippolitoll d'Este of Ferrara. The complex is a good example of Renaissance culture. The water garden was innovative at the time when it was built. The gardens cover town steep slopes that descend from the palace. It is shaped as a chalice that has water flowing into a conch shell. In the seventeenth century, the Fontana del Bicchierone (fountain of the Great Glass) was added.

The Villa Adriana is located in the region of Latium in Rome. It was created in the second century and provides a good example of Roman, Egyptian and Greek architecture. It was built between 117 and 138 AD as a holiday retreat. The remains include buildings stretched over a large land area.

The Sacri Monti of Piedmont and Lombardy are in the northern part of Italy. They were built in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries and are integrated into the natural landscape of the area. There are nine complexes (Varallo, Crea, Orta, Varese, Oropa, Ossuccio, Ghiffa, Domodossola and Valperga) that form part of these sacred mountains that each has a number of religious buildings. The rationale for the Sacri Monti derived from a need for people to travel to closer places to pray. This was because the Holy Land was difficult to travel to due to the distance. Each sacred mountain has their own type of architecture and gardens. The Sacro Monte of the Blessed Virgin of Succour at Ossuccio is on the slope of the mountain and includes Baroque chapels.

The Amalfi coast is in the province of Salerno in the south of Italy. It has a long history of human habitation going back to the early Middle Ages. The hilly coastline has many towns with houses perched on the clifftop. Crespi d'Adda is a worker's village in Lombardy northern Italy. It was built in the nineteenth century as a way to meet workers' needs. It was founded by Cristoforo Benigno Crespi to house workers from his textile factory. His son Silvio Benigno Crespi designed the town based on cotton mills in other countries. The town remained under the ownership of one company until it was sold to private individuals. The town has multi-family residences with their own garden. There are community services as well as factory buildings. The town has a geometrical form

that distinguishes it from other towns. The amenities in the town include a theatre, hydroelectric power station and a sports centre.

The early Christian monuments of Ravenna are in the Emilia-Romagna region. The early Christian monuments were built in the fifth century. The monuments include the Mausoleum of Galla Placidia, the Neonian Baptistery, the Basilica of Sant Apollinare Nuovo, the Arian Baptistery, the Archiepiscopal chale, the Mausoleum of Theodonic, the Church of San Vitale and the Basilica of Sant'APollinare. Each of the monuments were decorated with marble and artwork. The mosaics in the buildings blend eastern and western techniques. They are a good example of the religious art made during the fifth and sixth centuries.

The Dolomites are a mountain range in northern Italy. They include 18 peaks that represent geomorphological diversity. There are fossils in the area. The peaks of the mountain are pale in colour and contain a wide variety of limestone formations. Some of the cliffs are amongst the highest limestone walls in the world.

Mount Etna is located off the coast of Sicily in southern Italy. It is one of the most active strato-volcanoes in the world and impacts the bioecosystem of the surrounding area. There is a long-documented history about volcanic activity from Mount Etna. The ecological processes around the volcano are unique as they include a number of natural features.

The Arab-Norman Palermo and the Cathedral churches of Cefalu and Monrede are located in the northern coast of Sicily. They contain a number of religious structures that were built in the twelfth century. They are located on the island of Sicily and combine Byzantine, Islamic and Christian cultures. The archaeological area of Agrigento is in the south of Italy and was originally founded as a Greek colony. The city includes many remains from buildings from the sixth century onwards.

The archaeological areas of Pompeii, Herculaneum and Torre Annunziata are in Naples. After the volcano Vesuvius erupted in AD79, it covered the towns of Pompeii and Herculaneum. These towns have been excavated and provide a good example of living conditions at the time when the volcano erupted. Pompeii was a Roman commercial town whilst Herculaneum was a Roman holiday resort town. In Pompeii, there are a number of buildings including temples, theatres and a Basilica. In Herculaneum, there are public baths and a theatre.

The cathedral, Torrecivica and Piazza Grande is in Modena. The cathedral was built in the twelfth century and includes a bell tower.

There is also a Piazza Grande and City Hall in the area. The building of the cathedral began in 1099 and holds the remains of Saint Geminiano who is the patron saint of Modena. The cathedral was built using ancient remains through a collaboration between the architect Lanfranco and the sculptor Wiligelmo. As a consequence, the cathedral provides a good example of Romanesque art and architecture.

The church and Dominican convent of Santa Maria delle Grazie is in the province of Milano. The refectory of the convent of Santa Maria delle Grazie contains a painting of the Last Supper by Leonardo da Vinci. The painting was completed in 1497 and represents the moment when Christ realises that someone has betrayed him and includes twelve apostles reacting in different ways. The church was built in 1463 by Guiniforte Solari.

The Cilento and Vallo di Diano National Park with the archaeological sites of Paestum and Veha and the Certosa di Padula is in Salerno. The Cilento area includes the remains of the cities Paestum and Vilia. The area has been occupied for a long time including by the Lucanians, Etruscans and Greek colonists. There are remains of Roman road networks in the area. The National Park includes part of the Sele and Tanagro rivers. The archaeological area of Velia contains the remains of the Elea city that was founded in the sixth century.

The Certosa di San Lorenzo is a monastic structure that started being built in 1306. It has since been converted into a museum. Castel del Monte is on a rocky hill in southern Italy. The castle was built by Emperor Frederick II in 1240. It has symbolic significance in terms of its layout and position. The castle was built in an octagonal shape that reflected astronomical beliefs. Inside the castle is a hydraulic system for bathing.

The botanical garden (Orto Botanico) in Padua is the world's first botanical garden. It was created in 1545 in the north of Italy. Most of its original layout such as the ring of water still exists. The garden was used for botanical science and for enjoyment. In 1704, the garden's entrances were re-designed. There are a number of rare plants grown in the garden and there is a library in the garden.

The archaeological area and the patriarchal basilica of Aquileia is in the province of Udine. Aquileia was once one of the wealthiest cities in the Roman Empire and the city is located on the Natiso river and was a trading centre. It was destroyed by the Huns in 452. The archaeological remains include residential complexes and baths. There are remains of warehouses at the port.

The residences of the royal house of Savoy are in the Piedmont region of Italy. The Duke of Savoy moved his capital to Turin and then built a number of residences. These buildings dated from 1562 showcase the wealth of the royals at the time. There are 22 places in the area with the buildings organised around a command area.

Assisi, the basilica of San Francesco and other Franciscan sites is the birthplace of Saint Francis. Assisi is a medieval city built around a hill in the central region of Italy. It was developed as a religious and spiritual place due to its association with the Franciscan order. On the hill is the fort of Rocca Maggiore. Major basilicas in the city are the San Francesco basilica and basilica Santa Chiara.

The eighteenth-century royal palace at Caserta with the park, the aqueduct of Vanvitelli and the San Leucio complex is in Campania, Italy. It was designed by the Bourbon king Charles III. It includes a palace, a garden and a hunting lodge. It was created to compete with the Royal Palace in Madrid and Versailles and has four courtyards and a number of atriums. It was built by the architect Luigi Vanvitelli to blend natural woodland with palace areas. In the region is the industrial complex of San Leucio that was built to produce silk. The silk mill was created on modern ideas of guaranteeing housing, education and medical care to workers. Originally, it was a hunting lodge but then converted by King Ferdinando IV of Bourbon into a mixed working and residential site. The aqueduct Carolino was built to supply water to the palace, garden, mill and other areas. The viaduct 'Ponti della Valle' was built in an innovative way for its time.

The city of Verona is in the Veneto region of Italy. It was founded in the first century but came into prominence in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The city is in the north of Italy on the river Adige. It is located at the base of the Lessini mountains. In 1797, it joined the Austrian empire then in 1866 became part of Italy.

Conclusion

This chapter has focused on Italy as a tourism destination. Italy as a country is associated with culture due to its rich heritage. This means WHS offers a way for tourists to explore cultural conditions in Italy. This chapter has highlighted some of the main WHS in Italy, thereby offering an overview of the importance of cultural tourism to the economic and social development of Italy.

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World Heritage Sites in the United States

Vanessa Ratten

Introduction

The United States is a geographically diverse country that has a large inland area and coastline. This makes it an interesting country to study in terms of tourism and entrepreneurship development (Rashid & Ratten, 2021). Tourism can include a number of different activities from direct engagement at cultural places to visiting historical sites. For this reason, it is important to take a holistic perspective to the study of tourism and in particularly historically significant places.

The aim of this chapter is to focus on world heritage sites in the United States of America. This provides a way to highlight the interesting cultural sites in the country and their associated history (Mendes et al., 2021). Some of these sites are national parks whilst others are more recently built buildings and other associated places. Thus, it is interesting to analyse which places have been characterised as WHS and the cultural reason for this.

The United States is a country located in North America that shares its border with Canada in the north and Mexico in the south. Its current population is approximately 335 million (Worldometers, 2022) and it is

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considered as one of the strongest countries in terms of economic productivity in the world. In 1565, the first European settlement in North America occurred. This was followed by the American Revolution in 1775 in which a war was fought against the British rule. In 1787, a constitution was drawn up in order to govern the independent United States of America that was ratified in 1788. Between 1861 and 1865, there was the American Civil War in which Union forces defeated the Confederate Army. From 1929 to 1933, the Great Depression triggered a decline in economic growth. In 1941, the United States entered World War II due to the bombing of ships at Pearl Harbour in Hawaii.

The United States is a federal republic that comprises 50 states. The country is a dominant exporter and importer of goods and services. In 1898, the Spanish-American war resulted in land being given by Spain to the United States. Spain ceded Puerto Rico and Guam to the United States. Spain sold the Philippines to the United States. Table 1 states each state, its capital and flower in the United States. When discussing the role of tourism and heritage to a country, it helps to understand what the state's capital is and other relevant cultural elements. In this table, the state flowers have also been included as a way of understanding more about how heritage in terms of plant life is reflected in cultural activities.

World Heritage Sites in the United States

There are twenty-four properties included on the world heritage site list for the United States of America. They include a range of cultural and natural places of importance. The most relevant sites are discussed in this section in order to provide a brief overview of their main characteristics. More specific information about each site can be found on this website: https://whc.unesco.org/en/statesparties/us. La Fortaleza and San Juan national historic site in Puerto Rico was created as a form of defensive structure. It is located in San Juan Bay in the United States protectorate of Puerto Rico. The San Juan city wall was built to protect the city from attack. La Fortaleza was once a fort but now serves as the residence for the Puerto Rico Governor.

The monumental earthworks of Poverty Point is located in the Mississippi valley in Louisiana. It was used by hunter gatherers in ancient times. It includes five mounds in the land with one being the large earth mound in North America. Papahanaumokuakea is a cluster of small islands in the Hawaiian archipelago. It includes many low-lying islands

Table 1 State capitals and flowers of individual states in the United States

State	*Capital*	*Flower*
Alabama	Montgomery	Camelia
Alaska	Juneau	Forget me not
Arizona	Pheoniz	Saguaro cactus blossom
Arkansas	Little rock	Apple blossom
California	Sacramento	California poppy
Colorado	Denver	Rocky mountain columbine
Connecticut	Hartford	Mountain laurel
Delaware	Dover	Peach blossom
Florida	Tallahassee	Orange blossom
Georgia	Atlanta	Cherokee rose
Hawaii	Honolulu	Hawaiin hibiscus
Idaho	Boise	Syringa
Illinois	Springfield	Violet
Indiana	Indianapolis	Peony
Iowa	Des Moines	Wild rose
Kansas	Topeka	Sunflower
Kentucky	Frankfort	Goldenrod
Louisiana	Baton Rouge	Magnolia
Maine	Augusta	White pine cone and tassel
Maryland	Annapolis	Black eyed Susan
Massachusetts	Boston	Mayflower
Michigan	Lansing	Appel blossom
Minnesota	Saint Paul	Pink and white lady's slipper
Mississippi	Jackson	Magnolia
Missouri	Jefferson City	Hawthorn
Montana	Helena	Bitterroot
Nebraska	Lincoln	Goldenrod
Nevada	Carson City	Sagebrush
New Hampshire	Concord	Purple lilac
New Jersey	Trenton	Violet
New Mexico	Santa Fe	Yucca flower
New York	Albany	Rose
North Carolina	Raleigh	Flowring dog wood
North Dakota	Bismarck	Wild prairie rose
Ohio	Columbus	Scarlet carnation
Oklahoma	Oklahoma City	Oklahoma rose
Oregon	Salem	Oregon grape
Pennsylvania	Harrisburg	Mountain laurel
Rhode Island	Providence	Violet
South Carolina	Columbia	Yellow jessamine
South Dakota	Pierre	Pasque flower
Tennessee	Nashville	Iris
Texas	Austin	Bluebennet

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

State	*Capital*	*Flower*
Utah	Salt lake city	Sego lily
Vermont	Montpelier	Red clover
Virigina	Richmond	American dogwood
Washington	Olympia	Coast rhododendron
West Virginia	Charleston	Rhododendron
Wisconsin	Madison	Wood violet
Wyoming	Cheyenne	Indian paintbrush

Source Author's own

and the ocean surrounding them. The site is the second largest place listed on the WHS list. The area has a special significance in Hawaiian culture as it is believed as being the place where life starts and where people return after death. This means native Hawaiian culture considers the area as being culturally special. Within the area, there are a number of deep water habitats as well as reefs. The place is located northwest of the main Hawaiian Islands in the Pacific Ocean. The area is one of the largest protected marine areas in the world. On some of the islands in the park, there are archaeological remains indicating a long history of human habitation.

Waterton Glacier International Peace Park is located in both the United States and Canada. It was created in 1932 by combining Waterton Lakes National Park in Alberta, Canada with Glacier National Park in Montana, the United States. In the park, there are glacial landforms as well as mountain scenery. The park was the first Peace Park.

Yellowstone National Park is a natural forest established in 1872. It is located mostly in Wyoming but also in Montana and Idaho. It has the highest concentration of geysers in the world. The park is notable for its geology and natural beauty. There are many fossil plants in the park. There are a large number of rare animals and plants in the park including grey wolves and grizzly bears. It was the world's first national park.

Yosemite National Park is in California. There are geological features in the park that are the result of previous glaciers. Most of the park is wilderness and it is surrounded by other national parks. Cahokia Mounds State historical site is located near St Louis, Missouri. It is the largest pre-Columbian settlement in the United States. Within the site, there are numerous mounds and village remains. The settlement was in existence

from 800–1400. It is a good example of Mississippian culture and contains important historical sites. The site includes public and private buildings that demonstrate an agricultural-based society.

Pueble people occupied a large proportion of land in New Mexico. Chaco canyon is a place that has a specifical significance in Pueblo culture. Within this region is the Chacol culture national historical park and Aztec ruins national monument. There are a number of archaeological sites that preserve elements of pre-Columbian Pueblo culture. The Chacoan society was at its peak from the ninth to thirteenth centuries. There are roads in the area that connect different sites.

Independence Hall is in Philadelphia and is where the Declaration of Independence (1776) and the constitution of the United States (1787) were signed. The documents are important historical records detailing independence of the United States and also how the county would be governed in the future. These documents contain information that details the expected living and societal conditions for people in the United States. They have an impact on law making and statutory conditions. The documents are commonly referred to as setting out the principles of democracy and freedom.

The material contained in the documents became models for other countries in terms of their constitution. The declaration of independence states the right to self-government free from interference of other governments. The property includes the city block called Independence Square. Independence Hall exists is mostly the same condition as of which it was built. However, there has been some additions to the property with the East and West Wing built to link them to the hall.

Mesa Verde National Park is in south-west Colorado. It contains Pueblo Indian dwellings built between the sixth and twelfth centuries. The buildings are in the cliff face and are built from stone. It includes cliff dwellings that were made by the Ancestral Puebloan culture. The most famous buildings are the Cliff Palace, but there are a large number of smaller cliff dwellings in the area. The area includes rock art as well as shrines and reservoirs.

The University of Virginia in Charlottesville was founded by Thomas Jefferson. He also designed Monticello which was his plantation home. He was the third President of the United States and authored the Declaration of Independence. He designed the university as an academic village that has a u-shaped plan that connects the buildings. The

university has lecture halls as well as student accommodation. His house Monticello has a dome derived from Roman architecture.

Taos Pueblo is a Pueblo Indian settlement in New Mexico. It was established in the valleys of the Rio Grande and includes dwellings built in the terraced tier of the land. Some of the houses are five storeys in height and are still lived in by Puerto Indians. There is a walled village and remains of a church in the area. The settlement is in the Taos Mountains, which is in the Sangre de Cristo range of the Rocky Mountains. There is a stream that flows through the settlement that comes from the Sacred Blue Lake, which is part of the Taos Pueblo Blue Lake Wilderness Area.

The twentieth-century architecture of Frank Lloyd Wright includes eight buildings that were designed by the architect Frank Lloyd Wright. His architecture was notable for the design of buildings within the natural landscape. This style of building is called organic architecture as it incorporates buildings in their natural setting. This involved using new materials and technology such as concrete.

The Everglade National Park is located on the southern part of Florida. It is the largest sub-tropical wilderness in North America. It includes a number of shallow bays and coastal waters that are inhabited by a range of wildlife. There is a complex biological ecosystem in the park including the most significant breeding place for wading birds in North America. Most of the area is flat and includes saltwater marshes. Animals in the park include the Florida panther and different types of crocodile.

The Grand Canyon national park is located in Arizona. It is a large gorge that was carved out by the Colorado river. It has deep gorges and high plateaus. The Great Smoky Mountains national park is located in Tennessee and North Carolina. It includes many endangered animals and plant species. It includes the largest block of virgin red spruce in the world. There are a number of streams that run through the park.

Hawaii Volcanoes National Park is located in Hawaii and includes two main volcanoes: Mauna Loa and Kilauea. The landscape is constantly changing in the park as the volcanoes are still active. Mauna Loa is one of the biggest volcanoes in the world. Kluane/Wrangell-St Elias/Glacier Bay/Tatshenshini-Alsek is a park on the border between the United States and Canada. The park includes the largest non-polar icefield in the world. It is in Alaska in the United States side of the park. It includes a number of glaciers and ice fields. Within the park are the Tatshenshini

and Alsek river valley enabling a linkage for animal migration. Some of the animals found in the park include caribou and grizzly bears. There are mountains as well as river canyons in the area.

The Mammoth Cave National Park is located in the state of Kentucky. It includes the world's longest network of underground caves. There is a large number of passages and shafts in the park. There is a large number of cave-dwelling wildlife in the park. The caves include a large number of stalagmites and stalactites.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the main WHS that exist in the United States. As demonstrated in the discussion, there are a range of historical and cultural sites that exist in the United States. This makes it a unique country in terms of its heritage. This chapter has examined the way WHS foster tourism development based on a person's interest in heritage.

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Heritage Entrepreneurship: Future Trends

Vanessa Ratten

Introduction

Heritage enterprises are a unique form of organisation that integrates heritage issues at the same time as business objectives. They identify opportunities in the marketplace that integrate innovative solutions to business problems. Although there are many definitions of entrepreneurship in the literature, for the purpose of this chapter that focuses on heritage entrepreneurship, the definition of entrepreneurship adopted is about creating value via innovative heritage opportunities. The responsibility of addressing heritage issues normally resides with government or non-profit entities. However, given the slowness and bureaucracy typically associated with some traditional organisations, heritage enterprises have come into being.

Heritage enterprises can move more quickly in terms of pursuing opportunities (Santa & Tiatco, 2019). They provide a way to address market failures by providing innovative services. By doing so, they have a different entrepreneurial approach to traditional enterprises as they recognise the importance of heritage. This means they originate within a heritage purpose in mind. I define a heritage enterprise as those

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V. Ratten (ed.), *Heritage Entrepreneurship*, Palgrave Studies in Global Entrepreneurship, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-5149-7_9

organisations that have their primary goal as addressing heritage needs through business engagement.

This chapter argues that entrepreneurship must be understood with reference to the context of heritage. This is because whilst entrepreneurship is focused on economic growth, there is normally some kind of history or reason behind the economic activity (Schneider & Spieth, 2013). Thus, it is necessary to revisit the basic definition of entrepreneurship. Most people refer to entrepreneurship as the building of business ventures or the use of innovation, risk-taking and competitiveness in a business context (Taran et al., 2015). A critical evaluation of this definition indicates a great deal of emphasis on economic results rather than preserving cultural requirements. This means there is an over emphasis on financial outcomes rather than considering social or cultural reasons (Yang et al., 2017). The word entrepreneurship implies some form of change normally in terms of financial benefit. However, there is much more to entrepreneurship than just monetary gain as it can indicate a change in attitude or mindset. This means that entrepreneurship can be considered in a holistic way about an alteration in current behaviour to incorporate new forms of expression (Santos et al., 2021).

In many parts of the world, entrepreneurship is a core policy objective of local, regional and national governments. The economic importance of entrepreneurship is notable in the number of start-ups in an economy and the resulting economic growth. The definition of heritage entrepreneurship espoused in this chapter means that a variety of disciplines can be used to continue the development of the topic. The approach in this chapter is to offer a subjective interpretation of the major trends that can help in our understanding of heritage entrepreneurship. By doing so, future research will be stimulated by exciting possibilities rather than constrained by limitations.

Further research on heritage entrepreneurship from an economic perspective will enable a more detailed analysis of the financial outcomes of incorporating heritage perspectives into innovative business activities. Shepherd and Patzelt (2011, p. 138) state that “an academic field represents a community of scholars with a common research interest defined by an accepted set of assumptions, such as, the aim, central focus, methods of research, and relevant literature streams”. The field of heritage is new and still emerging so there are still many unknown aspects. This means it is important to provide clarity about what heritage entrepreneurship is and what it is not. This will provide an important step in

acknowledging heritage entrepreneurship as a separate field of research worthy of more attention. This chapter seeks to promote scholarly diversity and innovation regarding heritage entrepreneurship.

Model of Heritage Entrepreneurship

The incorporation of a heritage perspective into entrepreneurship has the potential to provide a number of benefits to the field. This derives from a thinking of the past in current business activities. Rather than disregarding previous cultural aspects, it can help to incorporate them in business decisions. The profound changes that have taken place in the world due to the COVID-19 pandemic have resulted in changes to entrepreneurial behaviour (Alanzi et al., 2021). No longer is entrepreneurship considered a purely financial endeavour but as a way to encourage social and cultural change (Ratten, 2021). This change has not been rapid as it has taken time to alter the historical ways we look at entrepreneurship. Figure 1 below depicts a model of heritage entrepreneurship that is proposed in this chapter. In the model, there are factors that influence heritage entrepreneurship, which are impacted by challenges within the business environment. This then leads to the outcomes of heritage entrepreneurship felt by society.

In order to understand heritage entrepreneurship, it is helpful to focus on how entrepreneurship is defined in the current literature. In

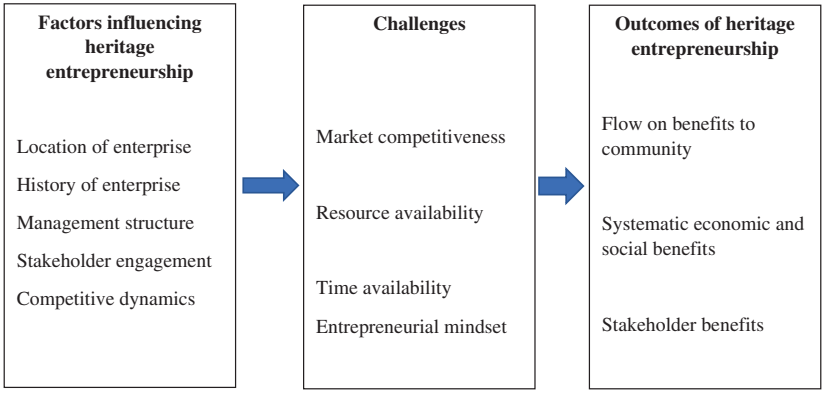

Fig. 1 Model of heritage entrepreneurship

entrepreneurship literature, the two main schools of thought are the emergence and opportunity perspective (Hindle & Moroz, 2010). The emergence perspective focuses on how entrepreneurship is based on environmental conditions that lead to new business ventures. The opportunity perspective focuses on how opportunities are discovered then exploited in the marketplace. Each of these schools of thought are useful to heritage entrepreneurship as it involves the use of emerging market needs as well as the discovery of opportunities. Heritage entrepreneurs need to consider both ways they can act entrepreneurially in the marketplace but also what kind of support they need.

In order to develop a heritage-related entrepreneurial business venture, support is needed from others in the community. Entrepreneurial support is defined as "the provision of valuable resources to entrepreneurs by individuals or organizations, which carry structured activities to facilitate the imminent establishment of a new independent firm, increase survival chances, or promote long-term growth" (Ratinho et al, 2020, p. 2). This support can come from a range of people but normally is derived from family, friends and acquaintances. The type of support can vary from financial in-kind investment to crowd-funding. This means there can be both financial and non-financial help that changes based on the stage of the heritage business venture.

There are various forms of support available to heritage entrepreneurs and this is derived from both public and private enterprises. Bergman and McMullen (2021, p. 3) define entrepreneurial support organisations as "an organization whose primary purpose is to support individuals and collectives, through (in)direct and (im)material assistance, as they seek to initiate and progress through the stages of the entrepreneurial process". This type of entrepreneurial support is necessary for heritage enterprises that might take time to establish. This means they are initially not profitable or may never be depending on their circumstances. Thus, they require support from other institutions and individuals in order to be successful in the marketplace. Bergman and McMullen (2021) suggest that the main entrepreneurial support organisations are accelerators, co-working spaces, incubators, maker spaces and science (research/technology) parks.

Entrepreneurship has long been interested in the relationship between business, culture and the environment both from a human physical sense. This means it is logical to include a heritage approach to entrepreneurship. With a few exceptions, there has not been much linkage with

heritage in the entrepreneurship scholarship. Some people suggest that a definition of heritage is not necessary as its meaning is clear. Therefore, it is more useful to define how and why the concept of heritage can be applied to other words. A great deal has been written about the topics of heritage and entrepreneurship. However, further examination of the literature suggests that rarely are both topics discussed in the same body of literature. They might be alluded to but not definitely discussing in an explicit way.

Some discussion of the topic of heritage and entrepreneurship is needed because there are so many definitions existing in the literature. In addition, there are so many interpretations of the terms that one needs to be careful as to how it is used. This chapter views heritage entrepreneurship as business activity that meets the needs of the present whilst incorporating cultural and social elements. This definition acknowledges the need for business to introduce new technologies and approaches but also the value that can be added by including a heritage element. This means heritage entrepreneurship meets the objectives of current business practices whilst protecting cultural elements of the past. This means it recognises the contribution of past cultures in terms of customers and lifestyles to today's society. It accepts that business activities need to recognise the past in a meaningful way.

Current State of Heritage Entrepreneurial Ecosystem Research

Entrepreneurial ecosystems have deeper roots in notions of collaboration and cooperation. Accordingly, entrepreneurial ecosystems can be understood as a form of interaction that has different meanings. An ecosystem captures the idea that value is produced by working together. This means as an ecosystem evolves, there are diverse ways of understanding the collaborative inputs that lead to change. Entrepreneurial ecosystem research is enriched with knowledge from a plethora of disciplines due to its multi-disciplinary nature, which makes it a useful area of practice. The emphasis in an entrepreneurial ecosystem is on co-creation that occurs through collaboration. This means acknowledging that not everything can be done by oneself but it often needs a team approach. Whilst collaborating with others is needed in business, this can also involve coopetition in terms of collaborating and competing with other businesses. To

be a part of an entrepreneurial ecosystem, there needs to be some kind of strategic planning about what kind of entrepreneurship is required. This involves focusing on communication in terms of what actions are required. To do this means being proactive in terms of engaging in problem-solving. This can mean focusing on open innovation, which is a process of sharing knowledge with others. Table 1 states the key terminologies in entrepreneurship ecosystem research.

Given that entrepreneurial ecosystems have emerged as the dominant topic in many research circles, entrepreneurship and business model innovation researchers have an obligation to focus on issues regarding this topic. In particular, the rapid development of digitalisation offers immense possibilities for research regarding heritage entrepreneurship. In addition, there is an opportunity for the heritage entrepreneurship research community to join the response to the COVID-19 pandemic by taking a business model innovation perspective within discussion.

Existing entrepreneurial ecosystem research can be organised broadly into two interrelated streams. The first stream of research focuses on investigating what an entrepreneurial ecosystem is and its main ingredients. This means aligning the role entrepreneurship plays in society with what occurs in practice. The second main stream of research focuses on how there are significant ways entrepreneurship can emerge directly or

Table 1 Key terminologies in entrepreneurial ecosystems

Terminologies	*Potential contribution in understanding entrepreneurial ecosystems*
Co-creation	Individual entrepreneurs, businesses, government, education providers and other entities participate in the entrepreneurship process
Collaboration	Joint efforts are required to communicate helpful knowledge to entrepreneurial endeavours
Coopetition	Entities collaborate but also compete in the global business environment
Strategic planning	Inclusion of participants is needed in goals
Communicative action	Need to nurture communication that can facilitate entrepreneurship
Proactivity	Individuals and businesses need to proactively engage in problem-solving
Open innovation	Internal and external resources need to be used for innovation purposes

indirectly in society (Cohen, 2006). For example, entrepreneurs can leverage technology to initiative new business ventures. For heritage entrepreneurs, both streams of research are relevant due to the linkage between culture and society within entrepreneurial business ventures.

Developing a New Theory on Heritage Entrepreneurship

It is time to embrace a new theory regarding the use of heritage entrepreneurship in business model innovation. We need to set course towards a future that combines entrepreneurial ecosystem and business model innovation thinking with heritage endeavours. By doing so, we can start to focus on something that explains better what actually happens in practice. Entrepreneurship research for some time has sought to include more focus on context (Cohen, 2006). The use of the term entrepreneurial ecosystem is part of how context can be used to understand heritage entrepreneurship.

Current entrepreneurial ecosystem thinking is shaping ideas about how innovation occurs and who is responsible for its creation (Malecki, 2018). This means entrepreneurial ecosystems encourage researchers and practitioners to think of innovation as a collective process rather than the work of just one entity (Bucherer et al., 2012). In the context of rising concerns about the need to think innovatively, business model innovation provides a useful framework (Foss & Saebi, 2017).

Collaboration is increasingly being viewed as necessary by businesses and governments to tackle complex projects (Audretsch & Belitski, 2017). This means there are often a number of public/private partnerships developed in order to progress ideas. Projects relating to health, education and tourism often require the input of a number of diverse stakeholders (Chesbrough, 2010). This means cross-sector collaboration is encouraged within heritage entrepreneurship. Bryson et al., (2006, p. 44) define cross-sector collaboration as "the linking or sharing of information, resources, activities and capabilities by organisations in two or more sectors to achieve jointly an outcome that could not be achieved by organisations in one sector separately". Organisations do not often have the capacity or capability to deliver outcomes on a project by themselves and require the help of others (Geissdoerfer et al., 2018). Cross-sector collaborations can occur in a number of different ways but most involve sustained interaction over a long time period (Autio et al., 2018). In

order to collaborate, organisations need to have common goals and project objectives (Ibarra et al., 2018).

Leadership is required to drive cross-sector collaboration. Leaders commit to solving problems by focusing on the end result. This means directing resources such as money and people to where it is needed. The extent to which business model innovation either facilitates or impedes an entrepreneurial ecosystem is, as of yet, unknown. This means there is a need for deeper exploration of the ways business model innovation can help develop an entrepreneurial ecosystem (Rashid & Ratten, 2021).

Discussion

The aim of this chapter was twofold. Firstly, to gather more information about the need for a heritage entrepreneurial ecosystem perspective within business model innovation literature (Santos et al., 2021). This enabled our current understanding of what business model innovation is to be extended in a new way (Ratten & Thaichon, 2021), thereby highlighting the commonalities but also differences between the two research strands. Secondly, the key concepts of entrepreneurial ecosystems and business model innovation were extended in order to identify future research paths. By doing so, the literature on these topics was extended in terms of linking them to new research fields (Santos et al., 2021). This means not just thinking about them in terms of entrepreneurship or innovation but also how they apply to other areas. By answering these two aims, the intention is to create more debate and discussion. This means acknowledging the past but moving forward in terms of strengthening the existing literature, thereby highlighting the interwoven historical roots of both topics. At the start of this chapter both terms were defined and in the resulting discussion, it is important to summarise some key points, thereby enabling insights into how heritage entrepreneurial ecosystems can be interpreted in the business model innovation literature. Therefore, it is useful to draw attention to a number of key features of these topics in order to help build future research.

1. Heritage entrepreneurial ecosystems involve value creation. The value might not immediately be known but it will occur at some time in the future. Value is hard to assess as it can be of a formal or informal nature. Formal forms of value refer to profit increases or new market entry whilst informal value refers to learning or

knowledge that is acquired. Moreover, value can be assessed through direct and indirect means. Thus, it can be helpful to take a stakeholder perspective with regard to evaluating value.

2. Heritage enterprises need to focus on their involvement in entrepreneurial ecosystems in order to acquire knowledge. This is important in highlighting how collaboration of some form is required in an entrepreneurial ecosystem.

Future Research Suggestions

Research has not paid sufficient attention to the role of heritage entrepreneurial ecosystems in business model innovation. Hence, I propose these key themes for future research: entrepreneurial ecosystems as a source of innovation, business model conscious entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial ecosystem solutions for business model innovation. Focusing on these themes will enable more fruitful research to emerge that combines both a strategic entrepreneurial ecosystem and business model innovation approach to studies.

Heritage enterprises need to have the capacity to anticipate change in the marketplace. This is important in forecasting change. A collaborative approach to change is required due to the need to consider the influence of stakeholders. Increasingly firms are using public/private partnerships as a way to respond to change. This means business model innovation is shaping firms' capacity for change. Business model innovation is a much needed perspective to unpack the benefits of being a participant in an entrepreneurial ecosystem. Heritage enterprises need to respond to change but also continuously adapt.

Many of the changes in the marketplace are inevitable due to emerging technology. For example, online payment systems have revolutionised the retail sector. This means business model innovation is continually needed in order to cope with the new technology uses. There are several important questions under the theme of resilience that the entrepreneurship community is well-positioned to address. First, entrepreneurial ecosystem research has a proud track record of producing impactful research. This means relevant and timely topics such as the COVID-19 pandemic and global warming are incorporated into research. I propose that it is time to now mobilise entrepreneurial ecosystem research to focus on business model innovation. Moving forward, entrepreneurial ecosystem research could address the capacities of different ecosystem

members to engage in business model innovation. In addition, there needs to be more focus on the linkage between Indigenous and heritage entrepreneurship. Indigenous entrepreneurship is a well-established research theme that has evolved quickly over the past decade. This means heritage entrepreneurship can learn from the path Indigenous entrepreneurship took in terms of researching new areas of inquiry (Table 2).

Summary of Future Research Tracks

I am firmly optimistic about the future for heritage entrepreneurship. The field is even more relevant in the global economy as more interest is placed on cultural endeavours. Heritage as a topic is highly complex due

Table 2 Future research themes and suggestion

Category	*Research themes*	*Major suggestions*
Entrepreneurial strategy and entrepreneurship orientation	Ad hoc approach to entrepreneurship Unplanned interest in entrepreneurship Juggling multiple objectives Innovative mindset of the managers	Implement a more planned approach Focus on strategic goals Entrepreneurship needs to be aligned with entities' goals Encourage social marketing and use of digital technology Encourage better overall management of entrepreneurial goals Engage in entrepreneurship
Entrepreneurship resources	Inadequate resources for entrepreneurship Allocate more financial and non-financial resources for entrepreneurial activities Focus on members dedicated to innovation	Operationalisation of entrepreneurial activities Awareness building around entrepreneurial behaviours
Entrepreneurial strategy	New product and service design	Integrate community-oriented communication strategies Address varied business expectations about entrepreneurship Use internet platforms to enable more consumer engagement
Indigenous entrepreneurship	New business ventures	Highlight the role of Indigenous culture in heritage businesses Focus on the linkage between Indigenous activity and entrepreneurship

to its multifaceted nature. Interest in heritage entrepreneurship will grow as more scholars and practitioners recognise the need to create heritage business. Moreover, government policymakers will focus more on incentives for entities to integrate a heritage perspective. I look forward to the next twenty years of research about heritage entrepreneurship. In conclusion, I summarise future research tracks by providing a research agenda drawn from the previous discussion. The following points should guide future bespoke endeavours:

1. Future research needs to consider the broader socio-cultural environment shaping business model innovation and the power of utilising an entrepreneurial ecosystem approach.
2. More research is needed on understanding the human and non-human components of a heritage entrepreneurial ecosystem.
3. Future research should consider entrepreneurial ecosystems from a geographical and digital perspective.
4. Any negativity associated with business model innovations should be considered and steps should be taken to minimise the effect.
5. The power differences in an ecosystem need to be examined in more depth and this includes focusing on different kind of economies.
6. We should consider how value co-creation helps or hinders a heritage entrepreneurial ecosystem.
7. More research is required on how innovative thinking can accelerate the progress of a heritage entrepreneurial ecosystem.
8. Research should focus on the cross-disciplinary nature of heritage entrepreneurial ecosystems and business model innovation.
9. The advantages and disadvantages of heritage entrepreneurship or innovation in a business model need to be examined.

The points above enable us to carefully consider and anticipate future research trends. This will enable an effective research approach to develop that combines entrepreneurial ecosystem and business model innovation literature. By doing so, it will enable an inclusive approach to the future research tackling these important research topics.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed heritage entrepreneurial ecosystems and business model innovation before proposing opportunities for future research. I hope that this chapter inspires the entrepreneurship community to create new knowledge from the business model innovation literature. I urge the entrepreneurship community to play an active role by investing more effort in linking research to business model innovation. The discussion in this chapter will provide more information about what constitutes the academic field of heritage entrepreneurship. The following definition is offered: heritage entrepreneurship is focused on preserving cultural and social elements of the past in current and future business activity. This means it brings into existence previous ways of life that can be utilised in current business activities. This chapter has provided a basis for exploring how and why future research can contribute to the development of the field. Heritage entrepreneurship was defined in a broad way in order to incorporate diverse perspectives. I hope that the potential research questions stated in this chapter will advance heritage entrepreneurship studies.

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