Coopetition and the marketing/ entrepreneurship interface in an international arena

Coopetition in an international arena

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Abstract

Purpose – Guided by resource-based theory, this study unpacks the relationship between an export entrepreneurial marketing orientation (EMO) and export performance. This is undertaken by investigating quadratic effects and the moderating role of export coopetition (cooperation amongst competitors in an international arena).

Design/methodology/approach – Survey responses were collected from a sample of 282 smaller-sized wine producers in Italy. This empirical context was ideal, as it hosted varying degrees of the constructs within the conceptual model. Put another way, it was suitable to test the underlying issues for theorising purposes. The hypotheses and control paths were tested through a three-step hierarchical regression analysis.

Findings – An export EMO had a non-linear (inverted U-shaped) association with export performance. Furthermore, this link was positively moderated by export coopetition. With too little of an export EMO, small enterprises might struggle to create value for their overseas customers. With too much of an export EMO, owner-managers could experience harmful performance outcomes. By cooperating with appropriate industry rivals, small companies can acquire new resources, capabilities and opportunities to help them to boost their export performance. That is, export coopetition can stabilise some of the potential dangers of employing an export EMO.

Originality/value — The empirical findings signified that an export EMO has potential dark-sides if these firmwide behaviours are not implemented effectively. Nevertheless, cooperating with competitors in export markets can alleviate some of these concerns. Collectively, unique insights have emerged, whereby entrepreneurs are advantaged by being strategically flexible and collaborating with appropriate key stakeholders to enhance their export performance.

Keywords Export entrepreneurial marketing orientation, Export performance, Export coopetition, Resource-based theory, Marketing/entrepreneurship interface, Italian wine industry **Paper type** Research paper

Introduction

Various studies have examined practices surrounding the marketing/entrepreneurship interface, sometimes called entrepreneurial marketing (Miles and Arnold, 1991; Kocak and Abimbola, 2009; Hills and Hultman, 2011; Hansen *et al.*, 2020; Hamzah *et al.*, 2022; Sun and Lee, 2022). This body of literature has been defined as "an agile mind-set that pragmatically leverages resources, employs networks and takes acceptable risks to proactively exploit opportunities for innovation, co-creation and delivery of value to stakeholders, including customers, employees and platform allies" (Alqahtani and Uslay, 2020, p. 64). Since entrepreneurial marketing behaviours encapsulate the intended merits of a market orientation and an entrepreneurial orientation (implementing strategies that exploit opportunities and create superior value for customers), it follows that existing research has uncovered that these firm-wide actions are likely to enhance company performance (see, for example, Sadiku-Dushi *et al.*, 2019; Eggers *et al.*, 2020; Alqahtani *et al.*, 2022).



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That said, however, while the marketing/entrepreneurship interface is an established cross-disciplinary domain, most work has examined entrepreneurial marketing behaviours in domestic arenas – with there being far less research pertaining to these organisation-wide activities in (and amongst) internationalised companies [1] (Appendix). This is rather surprising, since various growth-oriented owner-managers of small companies often need to internationalise to facilitate scalability, coupled with challenges of operating across foreign markets (Bell, 1995; Bell *et al.*, 2003, 2004; Fillis, 2004; Efrat *et al.*, 2017; Etemad, 2019; Kahiya, 2020). In fact, international forms of entrepreneurial marketing behaviours may have different outcomes to equivalent strategies in domestic settings. Consequently, it is important to investigate (and unpack) the complexities of the connection between an export entrepreneurial marketing orientation (EMO) and export performance, such as the likelihood that this association is complex (like being quadratic and influenced by moderating effects) (extending Cadogan *et al.*, 2009; Kreiser *et al.*, 2013).

Moreover, many owner-managers choose to work with key stakeholders to overcome their limited resources and capabilities (Thomas *et al.*, 2013; Whalen *et al.*, 2016; Ryan *et al.*, 2019; Crick and Crick, 2022). This includes coopetition, namely, cooperation amongst competitors as a performance-enhancing strategy (Ritala, 2012; Kraus *et al.*, 2019; Bouncken *et al.*, 2020). Formally speaking, coopetition is "a paradoxical relationship between two or more actors, regardless of whether they are involved in horizontal or vertical relationships, simultaneously in cooperative and competitive interactions" (Bengtsson and Kock, 2014, p. 180). Although an export EMO might impact export performance (potentially in a quadratic manner), certain smaller-sized enterprises might not be able to effectively achieve these outcomes due to possessing limited assets. Accordingly, export coopetition could amplify the performance consequences (and lessen the potential dark-sides) of an export EMO (building upon Crick *et al.*, 2021).

Therefore, guided by resource-based theory, the objective of this investigation is to unpack the association between an export EMO and export performance by considering the possibility for quadratic effects and the moderating role of export coopetition. This research objective is supplemented by the subsequent two research questions:

- RQ1. Is there a non-linear (inverted U-shaped) association between an export EMO and export performance?
- RQ2. Does export coopetition positively moderate the potentially quadratic link between an export EMO and export performance?

By addressing the research objective (and answering the two research questions), the following five contributions are made to enhance the existing literature, alongside the associated implications for practitioners:

- (1) New insights arise surrounding how internationalised businesses (that are engaged in network relationships) can manage the complexities of an export EMO (building on Coviello and Munro, 1995; Boso et al., 2013; Andersson et al., 2018; Hagen et al., 2019; Crick et al., 2020a). This is important, so that researchers can delve deeper into how these firm-wide activities are implemented differently in international arenas, rather than the earlier focus on domestic settings.
- (2) Stronger evidence emerges on the ways to effectively measure an export EMO to capture the nomological properties of this latent variable (extending McAuley, 2010; Mort et al., 2012; Yang and Gabrielsson, 2018; Buccieri et al., 2022; Alqahtani et al., 2022). That is, coupled with having clear conceptualisations, it is important to operationalise this construct, so that it can be robustly tested in future empirical studies. This also assists scholars to monitor the variance of an export EMO to determine how this latent variable operates in magnitude.

(3) Export coopetition is examined as a strategy that might assist owner-managers to alleviate the problems pertaining to implementing an export EMO (linking with Bernal et al., 2002; Chetty and Wilson, 2003; Freeman et al., 2006; Shu et al., 2017). This highlights whether cooperating with rivals can assist smaller-sized enterprises to prosper within their export markets by overcoming the challenges related to operating with restricted resources and capabilities. Indeed, limited work surrounds export coopetition, vis-à-vis, these networks in domestic settings, meaning that this moderating factor develops existing work pertaining to coopetition activities.

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- (4) The potential dark-sides of export-level entrepreneurial marketing behaviours are evaluated (extending Cadogan et al., 2009; Kreiser et al., 2013; Morgan et al., 2015; Hamzah et al., 2022). This signifies the circumstances where these firm-wide activities are troublesome for decision-makers in small firms to manage in their export markets encapsulating how they might have harmful performance outcomes (if they are poorly-managed).
- (5) The wider themes of resource-based theory are explored, regarding how owner-managers of smaller-sized businesses need to be strategically flexible and manage high-quality networks with certain stakeholders (here, rivals through export coopetition) to enhance their export performance (building upon Priem and Butler, 2001; Lavie, 2006; Barney, 2018). This symbolises how leveraging organisational assets may need to be orchestrated in tandem with fostering complementary partnerships with rivals.

To make these five contributions to knowledge, the remaining sections are divided as follows. First, the underpinning theory is used to develop the elements of the conceptual model. Second, the chosen methodology is described. Third, the statistical results are outlined, together with a discussion on how they relate to the extant literature (theoretical implications) and some practical implications. Fourth, several limitations and avenues for future research are presented. Fifth, the study is concluded.

Theory, research hypotheses and control variables

The seminal aspects of resource-based theory

Resource-based theory examines how owner-managers can leverage their assets (resources and capabilities) to yield higher-levels of company performance (Wernerfelt, 1984; Barney, 1991; Dobbs and Hamilton, 2007; Kellermanns *et al.*, 2016). Resources are tangible assets, such as hardware and finance, whereas, capabilities are intangible assets, like education and experience (Morgan *et al.*, 2009). The seminal roots of this theoretical lens were underpinned by an inside-the-firm perspective, which suggests that if businesses can effectively manage their resources and capabilities, they can boost their performance (Barney, 1991; Barney and Wright, 1998; Barney and Clark, 2007; Zahra, 2021). Such considerations are underpinned by the value, rarity, inimitability and non-substitutability (VRIN) framework that has been supplemented with the value, rarity, inimitability and organisational (VRIO) framework. In the VRIO framework, the key difference is the management/organisation of resources and capabilities that are owned and controlled by the decision-makers. This is important, since certain assets are limited and/or not well managed, and some resources and capabilities may need to be sourced via external stakeholders [2].

Value refers to assets that can assist entrepreneurs to distinguish themselves from their competitors, such as being able to deliver value to customers in exciting ways (Johnson *et al.*, 2011). Rarity involves resources and capabilities that are difficult to obtain – and are operated by one (or few) competitors within a given industry (Lockett *et al.*, 2009).

Inimitability surrounds resources and capabilities that competitors struggle to copy or obtain, like a specialist piece of machinery and/or technology (Gibbert, 2006). Non-substitutability pertains to the risk that a bundle of resources and capabilities will be substituted, whereby, if such assets cannot easily be swapped, they can help organisations to yield superior performance over their industry rivals (Nason and Wiklund, 2018). Importantly, business performance can be evaluated in different respects, as owner-managers have varied objectives, like survival, growth and so on (see, for example, Glancey, 1998; Kotey, 2005; Tregear, 2005; Cadogan *et al.*, 2009; Cadogan, 2012; Chung *et al.*, 2019). Indeed, performance measures can be objective or subjective (Spence and Crick, 2006; Wheeler *et al.*, 2008). In this investigation, export performance featured as the outcome variable. This was used to examine the performance outcomes of the complex interaction between an export EMO and export coopetition.

Under resource-based theory, resources and capabilities serve different purposes, but when combined, they should assist entrepreneurs to yield higher levels of company performance – regardless of the metrics employed (in line with Hunt and Morgan, 1995; Barney et al., 2011; Nason and Wiklund, 2018). When used in tandem, some authors have focussed on the notion of competencies to denote how resources and capabilities should operate in a harmonious manner to boost organisational performance. As an illustration, an owner-manager might possess a vehicle that can be utilised to fulfil commercial tasks. Yet, this resource serves a very limited purpose if it is does not have a driver – with appropriate skills and experience (a capability) (Johnson et al., 2011). Thus, resources and capabilities are vital assets that can be orchestrated in different capacities. In this study, the assets used in fostering an export EMO and export coopetition were examined under integral aspects of resource-based theory.

Extensions made to resource-based theory

A considerable body of research has expanded upon the seminal inside-the-firm elements of resource-based theory by accounting for factors outside of firm-level boundaries, like how entrepreneurs need to be strategically flexible to withstand certain market-level forces (Barney, 2001; Priem and Butler, 2001). For instance, the performance outcomes of a market orientation, an entrepreneurial orientation and coopetition (in domestic and international settings) are likely to be impacted by industry-level forces (Cadogan *et al.*, 2002; Wiklund and Shepherd, 2005; Galbreath *et al.*, 2020). These forms of volatility can help (or hinder) ownermanagers' performance when leveraging their assets. By way of illustration, it is unclear whether the link between a market orientation and company performance (encapsulating domestic and international actions) is positively or negatively influenced by certain environmental factors, with there being mixed evidence on this topic (Slater and Narver, 1994; Cadogan *et al.*, 2009; Ozturan *et al.*, 2014).

Additionally, the relational aspects of this theoretical perspective emphasise that decision-makers should foster high-quality networks with their key stakeholders (like competitors) to survive and grow within their industries (Lavie, 2006; Barney, 2018). Interestingly, networking has been at the heart of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface, with various authors arguing that decision-makers usually need to establish formal and/or informal partnerships to improve their performance (Thomas *et al.*, 2013; Andersson *et al.*, 2018; Alqahtani and Uslay, 2020). Importantly, the marketing/entrepreneurship interface is not a theoretical lens, but rather, a domain of cross-disciplinary knowledge (Miles and Arnold, 1991; Morris *et al.*, 2002; Hills *et al.*, 2008; Miles *et al.*, 2015; Peterson and Crittenden, 2020). In this study, a stakeholder perspective of resource-based theory was utilised to underpin the issues under investigation (Barney, 2018; Crick and Crick, 2020, 2021a). This theoretical lens advanced the core contributions to the entrepreneurial marketing literature (as per Crick *et al.*, 2021; Hamzah *et al.*, 2022).

Conceptual model

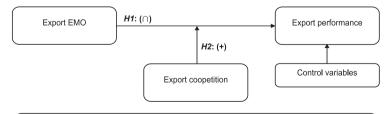
The conceptual model contained two research hypotheses and several control paths (Figure 1). First, it was expected that an export EMO has a non-linear (inverted U-shaped) relationship with export performance (following Cadogan *et al.*, 2009; Kreiser *et al.*, 2013; Morgan *et al.*, 2015). Second, this quadratic link was anticipated to be positively moderated by export coopetition (Chetty and Wilson, 2003; Freeman *et al.*, 2006; Ryan *et al.*, 2019). Third, the outcome variable (export performance) was controlled for various factors that had the potential to explain its variance, coupled with certain procedural controls that were required to evaluate the complex associations under investigation (Cadogan *et al.*, 2002; Crick and Crick, 2021a, b). The main control variables were firm size, firm age, business experience, industry experience, export intensity, an export geographical scope, export experience, an export market orientation, an export entrepreneurial orientation and family business status.

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The quadratic link between an export EMO and export performance

The marketing/entrepreneurship interface involves owner-managers (typically in domestic settings) striving to create value for their customers via executing opportunity-driven behaviours (Hills and LaForge, 1992; Miles and Darroch, 2006; Hansen and Eggers, 2010; Kraus *et al.*, 2010; Sun and Lee, 2022). The seven dimensions of entrepreneurial marketing behaviours are – proactiveness, risk-taking, innovativeness, opportunity focus, resource-leveraging, customer intensity and value creation activities (Morris *et al.*, 2002). More broadly, the marketing/entrepreneurship interface can be viewed as a Venn Diagram – with two overlapping circles (one representing entrepreneurship and the other capturing marketing) and the intersection covering the EMO construct (Jones and Rowley, 2011; Hansen *et al.*, 2020). Under this school-of-thought, the marketing/entrepreneurship interface covers the interplay between (and intended merits of) a market orientation and an entrepreneurial orientation (Crick *et al.*, 2021).

Alternatively, this cross-disciplinary perspective can be presented as a normal distribution curve to show the tails of the model as being extreme entrepreneurship vs. extreme marketing – and the core region between the tails denoting entrepreneurial marketing behaviours (as noted by Hamzah *et al.*, 2022). Consequently, there is not a single-agreed mechanism to conceptualise (and explore) the marketing/entrepreneurship interface (including insights associated with resource-based theory). In an international capacity, an export EMO involves the extent to which owner-managers implement innovative, proactive, risk-taking, autonomous and competitively aggressive behaviours that are used to create value for end-users in their export markets (in line with Mort *et al.*, 2012; Boso *et al.*, 2013; Hallback and Gabrielsson, 2013; Yang and Gabrielsson, 2017). In other words, this notion



The main control variables were firm size, firm age, business experience, industry experience, export intensity, an export geographical scope, export experience, an export market orientation, an export entrepreneurial orientation, and family business status. Plus, various procedural control paths were added to the conceptual model to test the complex effects.

Figure 1. Conceptual model

encapsulates the interplay (and complex interaction) between an export entrepreneurial orientation and an export market orientation (similar to Boso et al., 2012).

Linking with resource-based theory, if decision-makers can coordinate their resources and capabilities into these firm-wide activities, they are likely to enhance their export performance (Yang and Gabrielsson, 2018; Buccieri *et al.*, 2022). For example, export market-oriented behaviours can assist entrepreneurs to access information about their customers and competitors, which in turn, provides them with first-mover advantages in foreign countries (Murray *et al.*, 2007; Cadogan *et al.*, 2009). Additionally, an export entrepreneurial orientation is beneficial, as it allows decision-makers to discover and exploit new opportunities, like untapped customer segments (Kuivalainen *et al.*, 2007; Kropp *et al.*, 2008; Covin and Miller, 2014). Consequently, it stands to reason that if owner-managers of small companies can leverage their assets in ways that facilitate an export EMO, they can experience higher degrees of export performance (Boso *et al.*, 2012; Buccieri and Park, 2022).

Yet, there are certain potential dark-sides of a market orientation, an entrepreneurial orientation, as well as an EMO (Eggers *et al.*, 2013; Kreiser *et al.*, 2013; Shepherd, 2019). In fact, due to risks and uncertainties when internationalising (like the costs of exporting and the liabilities associated with foreignness), such probable dark-sides may become more evident when operating in foreign institutional environments (Calof and Beamish, 1995; Liesch *et al.*, 2011; Magnani and Zucchella, 2019). Consequently, various environmental factors can affect owner-managers' market entry and exit decisions, alongside their assistance requirements from stakeholders (Yayla *et al.*, 2018; Crick *et al.*, 2020a). Therefore, it is likely that international classifications of these organisation-level activities are unlikely to have a linear (positive) link with export performance (due to there being opposing forces at play). With this in mind, an export EMO is proposed to have a non-linear (inverted U-shaped) connection with export performance (extending Boso *et al.*, 2012; Hamzah *et al.*, 2022). In turn, under resource-based theory, diminishing-returns could be a function of entrepreneurs mismanaging these firm-wide actions in their export markets (alongside the presence of other key problems).

With too little of an export EMO, owner-managers may find it hard to survive within their export markets due to possessing a limited volume of assets (Cadogan *et al.*, 2001; Wiklund and Shepherd, 2003; Rauch *et al.*, 2009). As a key point, it is often time-consuming and costly to manage these firm-wide actions (Slater and Narver, 1994; Wiklund and Shepherd, 2011; Adomako *et al.*, 2016). Indeed, small enterprises are typically under-resourced (Ebben and Johnson, 2006). Hence, decision-makers may not be able to invest large volumes of assets into employing an export EMO. This means that they might not create a sufficient degree of value for their end-users or exploit opportunities in their international markets (building upon Hamzah *et al.*, 2022). Additionally, entrepreneurs may not generate a sufficient volume of sales (and other financial metrics) because they have engaged in minimal export EMO activities (relative to their industry rivals).

With too much of an export EMO, owner-managers might experience various harmful outcomes. These could be driven through the sheer costs linked to internationalising their business models (Cadogan *et al.*, 2002; Andersson, 2004; Knight and Cavusgil, 2004). These large-scale expenses could prevent them from making viable investments in other ventures (Morgan *et al.*, 2015). In addition, entrepreneurs could over-invest their assets in unprofitable product-markets, innovate in the wrong areas, and take poorly-calculated risks (Wales *et al.*, 2013; Story *et al.*, 2015; Crick, 2019). Collectively, although there are potential performance-enhancing outcomes of employing an export EMO, there might be a diminishing-returns effect at play (Cadogan *et al.*, 2009; Boso *et al.*, 2012; Kreiser *et al.*, 2013). Put another way, smaller-sized organisations are seemingly better-served if they can implement an export EMO, but not to the extent that they experience the above-mentioned harmful consequences that affect their export performance (in line with Boso *et al.*, 2012; Hamzah *et al.*, 2022). Accordingly, it is expected that:

H1. An export EMO has a non-linear (inverted U-shaped) relationship with export performance.

The moderating role of export coopetition in the quadratic link between an export EMO and export performance

Coopetition pertains to entrepreneurs cooperating with their industry rivals for mutually-beneficial outcomes (Bouncken *et al.*, 2015; Gnyawali and Ryan-Charleton, 2018; Kraus *et al.*, 2019). For instance, underpinned by resource-based theory and using secondary data, Crick and Crick (2020) discovered that various firms collaborated with competing enterprises during the COVID-19 pandemic. This included retailers sharing equipment, knowledge and coordinating their opening hours to cope during these unprecedented times, technological giants working together to reduce cyber-attacks and under-resourced charities joining forces to fulfil their societal causes. Crick and Crick (2020) identified that working with competitors can be a performance-enhancing activity, since it assists decision-makers to learn new ways to succeed within turbulent conditions. Even so, coopetition can be implemented in relatively stable competitive environments, as opposed to only being used to solve grand challenges (Bouncken and Kraus, 2013; Bengtsson and Johansson, 2014; Bouncken *et al.*, 2020).

As an illustration, various studies have examined coopetition in regional clusters, whereby, smaller-sized enterprises gain mutually-beneficial outcomes if they share assets with their competitors [3] (Felzensztein *et al.*, 2014; Geldes *et al.*, 2017). If it is managed effectively, coopetition can be a performance-enhancing strategy (Ritala, 2012; Bouncken *et al.*, 2018; Riquelme-Medina *et al.*, 2022). That is, many entrepreneurs struggle to survive (and grow) within their sectors due to facing challenges associated with possessing limited assets (Bernal *et al.*, 2002; Ebben and Johnson, 2006). Linking with the networking themes of resource-based theory, coopetition (including such firm-wide activities in an international arena) can assist firms to overcome their resource-disadvantages by acquiring new resources, capabilities, and opportunities that would not exist if they were to operate without managing these potentially paradoxical activities (following Wright and Dana, 2003; Kock *et al.*, 2010; Crick and Crick, 2021a).

Nonetheless, irrespective of the extent of cooperation, there will always be some forms of rivalry at play (Brandenburger and Nalebuff, 1996; Bengtsson and Kock, 2000; Fredrich et al., 2019). This has implications for the magnitude of such partnerships, since coopetition arrangements (not least of which in export markets) vary, with there being different degrees of risks associated with managing cooperativeness and competitiveness between various rivals (Chiambaretto et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2020). In fact, "coopetition is linked with the entrepreneurial marketing literature, as it involves companies taking bold steps (proactive), creative activities (innovative), and making potentially risky decisions (risk-taking), involving the interplay between cooperation and competition, which could yield improvements in organisational performance, such as sales" (Crick and Crick, 2019, p. 668). Hence, the same considerations could apply, with respect to the interaction between an export EMO and export coopetition on export performance [4]. Here, export coopetition connects with the internationalisation of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface.

Turning to the potential moderating effect and grounded in the wider themes of resource-based theory, export coopetition could assist certain owner-managers to acquire new assets (and lower entry costs) to allow them to pursue performance-enhancing outcomes in their foreign product-markets (Chetty and Wilson, 2003). That is, smaller-sized firms may be under-resourced and/or inexperienced in internationalisation activities, in which they could be unprepared for the large-scale time and financial costs that are related to breaking into new markets, together with needing to become familiar with any key institutional differences with their home countries like political, economic and cultural factors (Calof and Beamish, 1995; McAuley, 1999; Westhead *et al.*, 2001; Knight and Cavusgil, 2004; Ibeh *et al.*, 2019).

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By working with key stakeholders in particular network relationships (such as competitors), some of these challenges could be reduced (see Dana, 2001; Freeman *et al.*, 2006; Ryan *et al.*, 2019; Obadia and Robson, 2021).

To reinforce this point, using empirical insights from the New Zealand wine sector (but grounded in conceptualisations from resource-based theory), Crick and Crick (2021a) found that coopetition can assist decision-makers to run value-adding events for their foreign customers (such as trade shows) that might attract more potential end-users than if they operated under an individualistic business model. Crick and Crick (2021a) added that coopetition activities must be carefully managed in export markets, as cooperating with untrustworthy rivals can yield counter-productive outcomes – not least of which, reduced performance in an international arena. Nonetheless, the wider cross-disciplinary literature suggests that cooperating with competitors (domestically and internationally) can typically be advantageous for under-resourced smaller-sized organisations (Ritala, 2012; Kraus et al., 2019; Crick et al., 2021). This is proposed to manifest through export coopetition serving as a potential mechanism to overcome the possible dark-sides of an export EMO. Therefore, it follows that:

H2. Export coopetition positively moderates the non-linear (inverted U-shaped) relationship between an export EMO and export performance.

Control variables

Guided by resource-based theory, the outcome variable (export performance) was controlled as follows. First, as enterprises expand their operations, decision-makers are likely to obtain new assets to yield higher-levels of sales in their domestic and international markets (Wolff and Pett, 2000). Consequently, firm size featured as a control variable. Second, small firms can enhance their export performance if they have accumulated heritage-based assets (Westhead et al., 2001). Hence, firm age was used as a control path. Third, export performance could be driven by entrepreneurs possessing insights into the attributes of their own organisations (Boso et al., 2013). Therefore, business experience was modelled as a control variable. Fourth, decision-makers can increase their export performance by using their sector-wide knowledge to create value for customers in foreign countries (Crick and Crick, 2021a). Accordingly, export performance was controlled for industry experience.

Fifth, owner-managers that are involved in exporting ventures can increase their performance because of the opportunities that might exist abroad, *vis-à-vis*, in domestic settings (Cadogan *et al.*, 2009). Thus, export intensity was included as a control path. Sixth, if entrepreneurs pursue more export markets, they can supply their offerings to new customers and access different supply chains to facilitate performance-driving outcomes (Tallman and Li, 1996). As such, an export geographical scope was run as a control variable. Seventh, experienced owner-managers can yield higher-levels of performance in their export markets by leveraging knowledge of their customers, competitors, and supply chain networks in such countries (Souchon *et al.*, 2016). Hence, export experience served as a control path. Eighth, due to their role in creating customer value overseas, export market-oriented behaviours should drive export performance (as per Cadogan *et al.*, 2002; Murray *et al.*, 2011). With this in mind, an export market orientation is featured as a control path.

Ninth, an export entrepreneurial orientation equips decision-makers with tools to exploit opportunities that can boost their performance in international settings (Kuivalainen *et al.*, 2007; Boso *et al.*, 2012). Consistent with this viewpoint, an export entrepreneurial orientation was utilised as a control variable. Tenth, family businesses have been noted to possess unique resources and capabilities and engage in strategies that can amplify key performance outcomes (Kotey, 2005; Reay *et al.*, 2015; Hadjielias *et al.*, 2022). This could apply to internationalised family-owned companies (Graves and Thomas, 2008; Reuber, 2016).

Therefore, family business status controlled export performance. Moreover, various procedural controls were run to test the complexities (and intricacies) that may impact the quadratic link between an export EMO and export performance under the moderating role of export coopetition (Cadogan *et al.*, 2002; Crick and Crick, 2021a, b). The adopted methodology is described in the next section.

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Methodology

Population of interest

It was important to utilise a setting that is notable for implementing export entrepreneurial marketing behaviours and export coopetition. Coopetition activities are best-studied in empirical contexts that host high-levels of cooperativeness and competitiveness (Crick and Crick, 2021a). Wine producers (from various countries) have been active in coopetition via behaving in a cooperative and competitive manner across their product-market strategies (Brown and Butler, 1995; Dana et al., 2013; Granata et al., 2018; Felzensztein et al., 2019). Likewise, vineyards and wineries are frequently engaged in entrepreneurial marketing actions via pursuing opportunities that can create customer value both domestically and internationally (Thomas et al., 2013; Tyler et al., 2020; Spielmann et al., 2021). This encapsulates them supplying core bottles of wine, coupled with implementing wine tourism ventures (Beverland and Lockshin, 2001; Alonso and Kok, 2021).

Moreover, the global wine industry is noted for exporting ventures, in which cases of wine are shipped to various countries around the world (Dana *et al.*, 2016; Balogh and Jambor, 2017; Mann *et al.*, 2018; Crick and Crick, 2022). Plus, wine producers often internationalise through selling their products to foreign visitors, such as via their cellar doors and/or other forms of wine tourism, which in turn, support exports once tourists return to their countries of residence (Jaffe and Pasternak, 2004; Crick and Crick, 2021c). As such, the population of interest was the Italian wine sector. Italy is one of the largest producers of wine in the world, together with containing firms that are prominent regarding the themes of this study (Broccardo *et al.*, 2015; Francioni *et al.*, 2017; Galati *et al.*, 2017). The key informants were the sampled organisations' owner-managers because these individuals were anticipated to be aware of the core issues being tested within the conceptual model (Ritala, 2012; Crick and Crick, 2021a). These industry-level factors made the Italian wine sector an ideal empirical context to advance the entrepreneurial marketing literature.

Data collection

A quantitative research design was deemed to be the most appropriate methodology for this investigation. That is, a statistical approach was required to test the research hypotheses and control paths [5] (Cadogan *et al.*, 2001; Souchon *et al.*, 2016; Crick *et al.*, 2021). An electronic survey was designed (via Qualtrics) containing operationalisations of the constructs within the conceptual model. In March 2021, the survey was pre-tested with a set of academics (n = 3) and practitioners (n = 7). This did not reveal any concerns pertaining to the measures, instructions and formatting (Reynolds and Diamantopoulos, 1998). In May 2021, a pilot study (n = 53) was launched to check the descriptive statistics of the measurement scales (Hunt *et al.*, 1982). No problems were raised during this preliminary stage. In June 2021, the core study was commenced (n = 229). Since the measures within the pilot study and core study were identical, the two datasets were merged to form a larger sample size (as per Crick and Crick, 2021a). The final sample (53 + 229, n = 282) accounted for a 16.87% response rate – which was satisfactory. The data were checked for non-response bias by comparing the first vs. second-halves of the collected information. With non-significant t-values between these groups, non-response bias was unlikely to be present (Armstrong and Overton, 1977).

The survey was translated (and back-translated) into Italian (following Chidlow *et al.*, 2014), but the English version of the survey's content is presented within this study to facilitate wider readership. Put another way, the survey was supplied in the language of the key informants – to increase the odds of them accurately engaging with (and understanding) the questions. Regarding the sampling frame, the research team built a new database containing smaller-sized (and export-oriented) vineyards and wineries throughout Italy. Importantly, there are numerous Italian wine producers, but many of them do not export (Vrontis *et al.*, 2011; Alonso and Bressan, 2015). Thus, the database (the sampling frame) included 1,672 wine producers – with all of them corresponding to the themes of the research objective. Here, a larger sampling frame would have been redundant because non-exporters would have been ineligible for this investigation.

Operationalisations

The constructs were measured as follows. First, an export EMO was captured using a residual-based multiplication of an export market orientation and an export entrepreneurial orientation (extending Baker and Sinkula, 2009; Morgan *et al.*, 2015). An export market orientation was measured using an adapted version of Jaworski and Kohli's (1993) MARKOR scale, namely, export intelligence generation (five items), export intelligence dissemination (four items) and export intelligence responsiveness (four items), each using seven-point Likert scales, ranging from: 1 = very strongly disagree to 7 = very strongly agree. An export proactiveness (three items), export risk-taking (three items), export autonomy (three items) and export competitive aggressiveness (three items). These involved seven-point Likert scales, ranging from: 1 = very strongly disagree to 7 = very strongly agree (Boso *et al.*, 2013).

Furthermore, the scales for an export market orientation and an export entrepreneurial orientation (as well as export coopetition and an export coopetition-oriented mind-set) were adapted to feature an international-level theme (as per Cadogan *et al.*, 1999, 2003). This allowed the relevant constructs within the model under investigation to be conceptualised and tested in similar capacities (applying to exporting ventures). The residual-based measure involved purifying the elements of the export market orientation and export entrepreneurial orientation scales (as described later). Next, composite notions were created for each latent variable – before they were multiplied to create an interaction-like term. To ensure that multicollinearity was not present, an ordinary least squares regression analysis was run (using SPSS 25) to remove the shared variance of the export market orientation and export entrepreneurial orientation constructs. The unstandardized residuals were utilised to create this measure (following Danneels and Vestal, 2020; Hamzah *et al.*, 2022).

The respective measures for an export market orientation, an export entrepreneurial orientation, and an export EMO were classified as material formative operationalisations. That is, because the individual dimensions were conceptualised as being inter-related, it was appropriate to create composite variables (once purified), as opposed to evaluating the intricacies of these constructs (following Lee *et al.*, 2014; Karami *et al.*, 2022). Due to the use of residual-centring, the export EMO construct did not correlate with the respective scales for an export market orientation and an export entrepreneurial orientation (r = 0.00). This was a trait of the interaction-like term when using the residual-centring technique (Danneels and Vestal, 2020; Hamzah *et al.*, 2022). It is acknowledged that entrepreneurial marketing behaviours can be captured in several forms (Eggers *et al.*, 2020; Alqahtani *et al.*, 2022; Buccieri *et al.*, 2022). Nevertheless, the chosen measure was robust, not least of which, being adapted from earlier research (see Baker and Sinkula, 2009; Morgan *et al.*, 2015).

Second, export coopetition was captured using a seven-point Likert scale, with four items, ranging from: 1 = very strongly disagree to 7 = very strongly agree (adapted from

Bouncken and Kraus, 2013; Bouncken *et al.*, 2018). Third, export performance was operationalised using a seven-point interval scale, with three items, ranging from: 1 = extremely dissatisfied to 7 = extremely satisfied (adapted from Cadogan *et al.*, 2009). Fourth, regarding the controls (other than an export market orientation and an export entrepreneurial orientation), firm size was measured using the number of full-time employees (Peng and Luo, 2000). Firm age was captured using the number of years that the small companies had been operating (Westhead *et al.*, 2001). Business experience was measured via the number of years that the respondents had worked in their current firm (Boso *et al.*, 2013). Industry experience was operationalised through the number of years that the respondents had worked in the global wine sector (Crick and Crick, 2021a).

Export intensity was measured using the small businesses' export ratios (Cadogan et al., 2009). An export geographical scope was assessed through the smaller-sized organisations' number of export markets (Tallman and Li. 1996). Export experience was measured using the number of years that the small enterprises had been exporting (Souchon et al., 2016). It is recognised that the measure for export experience is a proxy operationalisation. Nevertheless, although it does not necessarily assess the quality of firms' export experience, the number of years that organisations have been exporting was deemed to be an established measure to capture the nomological properties of this construct. Furthermore, when pre-testing the survey, the sampled owner-managers notified the research team that this was a suitable proxy for measuring export experience within the Italian wine industry (linking with Reynolds and Diamantopoulos, 1998). With this in mind, Souchon et al.'s (2016) scale was used to capture the variance of this latent variable. Family business status was operationalised using three questions that captured whether the smaller-sized companies were family-owned (borrowed from Chua et al., 1999). This construct was transformed into a dummy variable, in which: 0 = a non-family-owned company and 1 = a family-owned enterprise.

Fifth, turning to the instruments, an export coopetition-oriented mind-set (used to test for endogeneity bias) was measured using an export-specific version of Crick and Crick's (2019) seven-point Likert scale, with four items, ranging from: 1 = very strongly disagree to 7 = very strongly agree. The informant quality tool (presented at the end of the survey – as a check for face validity and common method variance under the marker variable technique) was measured using a seven-point Likert scale, with five items, ranging from: 1 = very strongly disagree to 7 = very strongly agree (adapted from Boso *et al.*, 2013). The single-item ratio scales were transformed through natural logarithms to reduce their variances (following Morgan *et al.*, 2009). These instrumental variables are discussed in due course, with respect of the study's robustness checks.

Data analysis

The statistical data were analysed by using the following processes [6]. First, through SPSS 25, the characteristics of the final sample were examined. A reasonable mixture of smaller-sized Italian wine producers were sampled – based on their employees, ages, exporting activities, and more (Table 1). This signified that the final sample was not exclusive to a particular sub-set of the broader population.

Second, via SPSS 25, an exploratory factor analysis model (with a principal components analysis extraction and a varimax rotation) was conducted to examine the factor structure of the multi-item scales (Crick and Crick, 2019). Small factor loadings (below 0.50) were suppressed to yield strong measures. A few indicators were deleted to remove cross-factor loadings, but this did not unduly affect the quality of the measures (Crick and Crick, 2021b; Hamzah et al., 2022). The items for export proactiveness and export innovativeness had to be regressed (using an ordinary least squares model – through SPSS 25). Here, the shared

Characteristics	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Number of full-time employees	14.50	16.01	0.00	151.00
Number of part-time employees	5.43	14.71	0.00	227.00
Number of seasonal employees	11.50	19.92	0.00	296.00
Number of years trading	53.29	44.57	1.00	548.00
Number of years working in current role	15.44	6.89	1.00	55.00
Number of years working in current firm	15.77	7.24	1.00	50.00
Industry experience (years)	19.80	7.56	1.00	56.00
Number of export markets	19.67	10.53	1.00	96.00
Export ratio (%)	50.66	15.70	3.00	95.00
Export experience (years)	26.45	15.21	1.00	188.00

Table 1. Details about the final sample

Note(s): The sampled vineyards and wineries were not restricted to core wine sales, such as having involvement with wine tourism offerings (including selling goods and services to international customers). For emphasis, all wine producers within the final sample were categorised as being smaller-sized organisations

variance was removed, whereby the unstandardised residuals were saved (Cadogan *et al.*, 2001). Then, all multi-item measures loaded onto distinct components. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin test of sampling adequacy was satisfactory (0.73), as was the result from Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 6,621.14$; df = 561; Sig. = 0.00). Additionally, 81.79% of the overall variance was explained.

Third, using LISREL 10.30, a series of confirmatory factor analysis models were run. Specifically, the latent variables were assessed in conceptually-relevant groups to verify their underlying factor structure (Hooley *et al.*, 2005; Boso *et al.*, 2013). These sets were chosen because the constructs had similar theoretical underpinnings – with there being a high-degree of likely statistical shared variance (Kelloway, 1998). In doing so, the measurement models could converge, as an excessive number of latent variables were not evaluated at any one time (Baker and Sinkula, 1999; Cadogan *et al.*, 2006). This was acceptable, as the exploratory factor analysis model involved assessing all multi-item scales in one stage. After certain problematic indicators were eliminated, the final scales had somewhat large standardised factor loadings (with significant *t*-values) and relatively small standardised error variances. Plus, the model fit indices were within the minimum thresholds (Table 2).

Sets	χ^2/df	Sig.	RMSEA	CFI	IFI	NNFI	GFI	SRMR
1	1.47	0.21	0.04	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.02
2	0.88	0.48	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.01
3	2.98	0.03	0.08	0.99	0.99	0.95	0.99	0.02
4	1.53	0.14	0.04	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.02
5	1.55	0.16	0.04	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.02
6	0.26	0.61	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00
7	2.61	0.01	0.08	0.98	0.98	0.96	0.98	0.04

Note(s): The latent variables that were run in conceptually-relevant groups featured as follows – set 1 (informant quality, firm size and firm age), set 2 (export performance, business experience and industry experience), set 3 (informant quality, export intensity, an export geographical scope, export experience and family business status), set 4 (export coopetition and an export coopetition-oriented mind-set), set 5 (export intelligence generation, export intelligence dissemination and export intelligence responsiveness), set 6 (export innovativeness and export risk-taking) and set 7 (export proactiveness, export autonomy and export competitive aggressiveness)

Table 2. Final model fit indices

Fourth, through SPSS 25, the components of the conceptual model were tested using a three-stage hierarchical regression analysis (in line with Crick and Crick, 2021a). Step 1 involved assessing the main control variables, step 2 accounted for the procedural control paths and step 3 examined the research hypotheses. The standardised regression coefficients (the beta-values) were outlined, coupled with their *t*-values and significance-levels. To test the quadratic and interaction effects, residual-centring was used to alleviate multicollinearity errors (as per Story *et al.*, 2015). This was supplemented by presenting the graphical display of the moderator to unpack such complex associations. Furthermore, the model summary and change statistics were recorded. Importantly, the research hypotheses and control paths were evaluated during the final (nested) stage of the hierarchical regression analysis (following Cadogan *et al.*, 2009; Crick and Crick, 2021c).

Reliability and validity

Reliability was assessed through the internal consistencies of the multi-item operationalisations, which had Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α) in excess of 0.60 (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993; Knight, 2000). Face validity was evaluated by pre-testing the survey with a sample of knowledgeable scholars and owner-managers (Reynolds and Diamantopoulos, 1998). Moreover, the informant quality tool helped to ensure that credible respondents had been sampled (Boso *et al.*, 2013). This is because it had a relatively large average (5.20), indicating that a suitable proportion of the key informants possessed the relevant expertise regarding the themes of this investigation. Content validity was checked via utilising established operationalisations for the latent variables (Crick *et al.*, 2021). Convergent validity was present, as the final measurement scales had composite reliabilities that were above 0.60 and average variance extracted scores of greater than 0.50 (Souchon *et al.*, 2016). These metrics reinforced the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α) (Table 3).

Discriminant validity was tested during the confirmatory factor analysis models, whereby, using LISREL 10.30, the phi matrix correlations were squared and compared against the average variance extracted values. In all cases, the largest squared phi matrix correlations were below the smallest average variance extracted scores. Hence, there was evidence to suggest that discriminant validity was present (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Purified multi-item scales	Internal consistency	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted
Export intelligence generation	0.86	0.86	0.76
Export intelligence dissemination	0.67	0.69	0.53
Export intelligence responsiveness	0.75	0.79	0.67
Export innovativeness	0.77	0.78	0.64
Export proactiveness	0.63	0.73	0.61
Export risk-taking	0.84	0.85	0.74
Export autonomy	0.92	0.92	0.86
Export competitive	0.69	0.71	0.55
aggressiveness			
Export coopetition	0.87	0.87	0.70
Export performance	0.96	0.96	0.90
Informant quality	0.86	0.86	0.67
Export coopetition-oriented mind- set	0.87	0.87	0.70

Note(s): The reliabilities for the single-indicators could not be processed. Yet, since the scores for the multiitem scales were above the minimum thresholds, the single-item scales were deemed to be reliable. Additionally, all multi-item operationalisations retained at least two indicators after the scale purification stage

Table 3.
The reliabilities of the purified multi-item scales

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Common method variance

"Common method variance refers to the shared variance among measured variables that arises when they are assessed using a common factor" (Siemsen *et al.*, 2010, p. 456). It is recognised that there are different ways to evaluate common method variance (Chang *et al.*, 2010). The research team commenced with certain procedural tools, for which the survey was designed in a user-friendly manner to maximise the respondents' engagement with the questions (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). For example, clicking-based scales and dropdown menus were supplied to the key informants, as well as using coloured text and clear instructions. While procedural checks for common method variance are useful, it is important to test for the presence of these biases. Indeed, some statistical tests are superior to others (as noted by Chang *et al.*, 2010; Hulland *et al.*, 2018). As such, using SPSS 25, the marker variable technique (a widely accepted stringent tool) was utilised. This involved creating two correlation matrices – one with the bivariate correlations and the other stating the partial correlations (controlling for the informant quality tool). As the average difference was very small (r = 0.01), it is unlikely that the survey data were biased in this capacity (Lindell and Whitney, 2001).

Indeed, the informant quality scale had an acceptable degree of variance – with a standard deviation of 0.60 (allowing it to serve as the marker variable). The use of the marker variable technique suggested that a common method factor did not influence the statistical results. As a supplementary check, the research team conducted Harman's single-factor test (following Hamzah *et al.*, 2022). Specifically, using SPSS 25, an exploratory factor analysis model was produced – with a principal components analysis extraction, a varimax rotation and suppressing small factor loadings (below 0.50) (in line with Crick and Crick, 2019). Subsequently, 12 distinct factors emerged – the expected number of components based on the multi-item operationalisations in question (together with satisfactory model fit assessments). The largest component accounted for 9.77% of the overall variance, which in turn, provided reinforced evidence (supplementing the marker variable technique – which was argued to be a more comprehensive tool to ensure that such biases were not present) that common method variance was not at play within this investigation [7]. As per the earlier (and formal) exploratory factor analysis model, the robustness of this tool was satisfactory.

Endogeneity bias

Endogeneity bias was evaluated across the following steps (using LISREL 10.30). First, the conceptual model was reduced to evaluate a specific component that could have been spurious, namely, the relationship between export coopetition and export performance (guided by Antonakis *et al.*, 2010). Second, the instrumental variable was chosen, namely, an export coopetition-oriented mind-set (Crick and Crick, 2021b). Third, two structural models were run, one examining the connection between export coopetition and export performance, followed by another featuring the instrument (the link between an export coopetition-oriented mind-set and export coopetition). Fourth, the change statistics were displayed. This revealed that the $\Delta \chi^2$ (33.11), relative to the Δdf 17, was below the critical value of 33.41, showing no evidence of these biases (Souchon *et al.*, 2016). While this difference was somewhat small (0.30), the conditions for the test were met. The statistical results are presented and discussed as follows.

Statistical results and discussion

An overview of the statistical results

The bivariate correlations (and the associated descriptive statistics) highlighted the key associations between the constructs, alongside the instrumental variables (used for the robustness checks) but did not feature in the model-testing stage (Table 4). As previously

Coopetition in an international arena

Scales	1	2	3	4	2	9	7	8	6	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Export market orientation 2. Export entrepreneurial orientation	1.00	1.00													
3. Export EMO	0.00	0.00	1.00	100											
5. Export coopetition	-0.01	0.05	0.10	-0.03	1.00										
6. Firm size	0.14	0.15	-0.17	-0.02	0.02	1.00									
7. Firm age	-0.04	-0.11	0.01	0.03	-0.02	0.41	1.00								
8. Business experience	-0.03	0.04	0.08	-0.01	90.0	0.04	0.34	1.00							
9. Industry experience	-0.09	0.02	0.03	90:0-	0.04	0.04	0.21	0.84	1.00						
10. Export intensity	-0.02	0.03	-0.01	0.19	-0.11	0.18	0.28	0.19	0.19	1.00					
11. Export geographic scope	0.17	0.29	-0.07	0.25	0.01	0.64	0.38	0.18	0.81	0.62	1.00				
12. Export experience	0.03	0.03	-0.05	0.07	-0.01	0.51	0.72	0.37	0.29	0.54	89.0	1.00			
13. Family business status	-0.04	-0.09	0.08	0.18	-0.06	-0.32	-0.24	-0.35	-0.28	-0.22	-0.32	-0.27	1.00		
14. Export coopetition-oriented	0.00	-0.02	0.10	-0.11	0.52	-0.13	-0.11	0.12	0.14	-0.07	-0.09	-0.11	-0.04	1.00	
mind-set															
15. Informant quality	0.01	0.01	0.18	0.02	0.00	0.22	0.16	-0.01	0.08	0.15	0.22	0.15	-0.08	0.13	1.00
Descriptive statistics															
Mean	4.00	5.66	0.00	4.22	4.30	2.33	3.80	2.61	2.88	3.85	2.84	3.14	0.09	4.73	5.20
Standard deviation	0.53	0.46	0.61	1.03	0.97	0.92	0.61	0.65	0.56	0.47	0.57	0.58	0.28	0.82	09.0
Minimum	1.00	1.00	-1.27	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.17	0.00	0.18	0.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	00.9	5.24	5.38	7.00	7.00	5.02	6.31	3.91	4.03	4.56	4.56	5.23	1.00	7.00	2.00
Note(s): Bivariate correlations that were in excess of 0.10 were significant at the 10.00%-level, values that were greater than 0.12 were significant at the 5.00%-level, and scores that were above 0.16 were significant at the 1.00%-level. These significance-levels refer to the absolute values (using two-tailed tests)	ons that were in excess of 0.10 were significant at the 10.00%-level, values that were greater than 0.12 were significane significant at the 1.00%-level. These significance-levels refer to the absolute values (using two-tailed tests)	scess of 0. at the 1.00	10 were s)%-level.	ignifican These si	tat the 10 gnificanc	0.00%-levels r	el, values efer to th	that wer e absolut	e greater e values (than 0.12 using tw	were signor- tailed to	nificant a sts)	t the 5.00	%-level,	and

Table 4. Bivariate correlations and descriptive statistics

noted, the informant quality tool was used to test for evidence of face validity and common method variance (under the marker variable technique). The export coopetition-oriented mind-set latent variable was utilised to evaluate the presence of endogeneity bias.

During the hierarchical regression analysis, an export EMO yielded a quadratic relationship with export performance. As such, H1 was supported. Additionally, this non-linear (inverted U-shaped) connection was positively moderated by export coopetition, meaning that support existed for H2. The graphical display of the non-linear (inverted U-shaped) interaction effect (the quadratic link between an export EMO and export performance under the moderating role of export coopetition) is shown in Figure 2.

There was mixed support for the control variables (including the controls that were used to test the quadratic and moderating paths). That is, some were significant (and others were non-significant). The independent variables (encapsulating the controls) explained 19.00% of the variance of the outcome variable (export performance), coupled with a significant model fit summary [8]. During the final (nested) stage, the change statistics were significant (Table 5).

Theoretical implications

The following discussion points (corresponding to the statistical results) contribute to the wider entrepreneurial marketing literature. In turn, they offer theoretical implications that advance knowledge positioned at the marketing/entrepreneurship interface. First, an export EMO had a quadratic relationship with export performance. This extends (via an international perspective) several earlier studies that have indicated that although there are merits associated with implementing innovative, proactive, risk-taking, autonomous and competitively aggressive behaviours used to create customer value (the core essence of marketing/entrepreneurship interface), there are certain potential dark-sides of these firm-wide behaviours (see Wales et al., 2013; Morgan et al., 2015; Story et al., 2015). In other words, these merits are likely to exist, but only up to a fixed point, which if exceeded, yields a diminishing-returns effect due to the dangers associated with implementing an export EMO. This manifests through reduced export performance if decision-makers mismanage these firm-wide activities.

Here, export performance could be harmed due to owner-managers pursuing ineffective product-market strategies, making risky decisions, being overly proactive, as well as being overwhelmed with market-level information that cannot be processed (Eggers *et al.*, 2013; Kreiser *et al.*, 2013; Hamzah *et al.*, 2022). The latter point extends the findings of Cadogan *et al.* (2009), in terms of an export market orientation (a component of an export EMO) having a

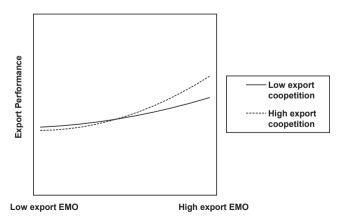


Figure 2. Graphical display of the key interaction effects

Independent variables	Beta	Step 1 t-values	Sig.	Beta	Step 2 t-values	Sig.	Beta	Step 3 t-values	Sig.	Coopetition in an international
Firm size	-0.24	-2.98	0.00	-0.24	-2.80	0.01	-0.22	-2.53	0.01	international
Firm age	0.14	1.59	0.11	0.14	1.58	0.12	0.16	1.86	0.07	arena
Business experience	0.20	1.80	0.07	0.18	1.62	0.11	0.19	1.75	0.08	
Industry experience	-0.20	-1.90	0.06	-0.19	-1.86	0.06	-0.18	-1.71	0.09	
Export intensity	0.03	0.40	0.69	0.04	0.43	0.67	0.04	0.50	0.62	
Export geographical scope	0.59	5.44	0.00	0.58	5.15	0.00	0.57	5.14	0.00	
Export experience	-0.27	-2.48	0.01	-0.25	-2.21	0.03	-0.27	-2.45	0.02	
Export market orientation	0.04	0.56	0.57	0.03	0.38	0.70	-0.11	-1.45	0.15	
Export entrepreneurial orientation	0.02	0.28	0.78	0.03	0.45	0.65	0.03	0.35	0.73	
Family business status	-0.27	-4.38	0.00	-0.27	-4.30	0.00	-0.27	-4.36	0.00	
Export market orientation				-0.06	-0.69	0.49	0.12	1.16	0.25	
squared										
Export entrepreneurial				0.00	0.02	0.99	0.07	0.66	0.51	
orientation squared										
Export EMO				0.06	0.46	0.65	-0.23	-1.49	0.14	
Export coopetition				-0.01	-0.23	0.82	0.02	0.30	0.77	
Export coopetition squared				0.07	1.15	0.25	0.05	0.87	0.39	
Export EMO × export coopetition				-0.01	-0.19	0.85	0.23	2.30	0.02	
Export EMO squared (H1)							-0.32	-3.10	0.00	
Export EMO squared ×							0.23	1.98	0.05	
export coopetition (H2)										
Model summary										
R^2	0.20			0.21			0.24			
Adjusted R^2	0.17			0.16			0.19			
Change statistics										
ΔR^2	0.20			0.01			0.03			
ΔF -statistic	6.93			0.32			5.80			Table 5.
Sig.	0.00			0.93			0.00			Hierarchical
Note(s): The critical <i>t</i> -value	e was 1.65	5 (5%, one-s	sided, s	ince the p	oaths were	direction	onal)			regression model

non-linear (inverted U-shaped) link with export performance. They signified that due to the complex nature of exporting strategies, owner-managers could be overloaded with market intelligence (such as involving customers and competitors) that they cannot cope with (nor utilise). Thus, possessing an export EMO might equip decision-makers with knowledge/skills regarding exploiting opportunities and delivering value to foreign customers, but this requires careful management due to a diminishing-returns effect distorting the performance outcomes of these firm-wide activities. As such, the findings of this study advance Cadogan et al.'s (2009) work — via incorporating an international entrepreneurial perspective, as opposed to a solely international marketing-focussed approach. That is, an export EMO is a different notion to an export market orientation.

Implementing an EMO could be challenging in domestic settings, but such concerns might be exacerbated by the volatility of international markets, coupled with cultural (and language-related) differences and the extra costs pertaining to entering new countries (Calof and Beamish, 1995; Cadogan *et al.*, 2002; Andersson, 2004; Kuivalainen *et al.*, 2007; Boso *et al.*, 2013). Hence, it makes sense that a non-linear (inverted U-shaped) link exists between an export EMO and export performance. Such issues support the seminal themes of resource-based theory, in which entrepreneurs with fewer assets are less-likely to implement performance-enhancing strategies, as opposed to those that possess more resources and

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capabilities (Barney, 1991; Hunt and Morgan, 1995; Morgan *et al.*, 2009; Johnson *et al.*, 2011; Nason and Wiklund, 2018). Similarly, the results reinforce the argument that entrepreneurs should be strategically flexible to withstand complex environmental conditions, like uncertainties in export markets (Priem and Butler, 2001).

Second, export coopetition positively moderated the quadratic connection between an export EMO and export performance. This was a key finding, since cooperating with competitors can stabilise some of the potential dark-sides of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface – not least of which, decision-makers innovating in the wrong areas, taking poorly-calculated risks and over-investing their limited resources and capabilities in unprofitable product-markets (extending Chetty and Wilson, 2003; Freeman *et al.*, 2006). This result supplements the work of Crick *et al.* (2021), which found that coopetition positively influences the linear (albeit negative) link between an EMO and business performance. Yet, Crick *et al.*'s (2021) study did not fully-embrace the complexities of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface by overlooking the potential for a quadratic association, together with not accounting for international-level issues. This study, therefore, builds on the limitations of Crick *et al.*'s (2021) study. In other words, the export EMO – export performance link is unlikely to be linear, but rather, is quadratic and impacted by moderating factors (like export coopetition).

These new insights helped to develop the entrepreneurial marketing domain by uncovering how these firm-wide actions operate in international arenas, including how an export EMO can be effectively combined with export coopetition activities (extending Chetty and Wilson, 2003; Ryan *et al.*, 2019; Crick and Crick, 2022). It is likely that international entrepreneurs engage in export forms of coopetition differently to these organisation-wide activities in domestic settings due to the risks surrounding pursuing foreign markets, handling environmental uncertainties and managing the varied ways to deliver value to customers (Freeman *et al.*, 2006; Crick and Crick, 2020). Nevertheless, when implemented alongside an export EMO, export coopetition was a performance-enhancing form of networking. Consistent with a relational perspective of resourced-based theory, key stakeholders (here, industry rivals in export markets) can boost the performance outcomes of certain firm-wide behaviours (see Lavie, 2006; Barney, 2018).

Third, on a related matter, relatively few investigations have examined coopetition strategies in export-intensive settings (Kock et al., 2010; Shu et al., 2017; Crick and Crick, 2021a). Specifically, while coopetition has been unpacked in a significant amount of depth over the last twenty-five years, most of this work has concentrated on the interplay between cooperation and competition in domestic contexts (Brandenburger and Nalebuff, 1996; Bouncken and Kraus, 2013; Bengtsson and Johansson, 2014; Bouncken et al., 2020). By finding that export coopetition positively moderates the non-linear (inverted U-shaped) link between an export EMO and export performance, new insights emerge to indicate that collaborating with appropriate competing enterprises (in foreign settings) can be advantageous in some scenarios. Engaging in export coopetition is a way for underresourced, smaller-sized enterprises to become more strategically flexible in their international markets to yield higher-levels of export performance (linking with Priem and Butler, 2001). Indeed, although there are potential dark-sides of the marketing/ entrepreneurship interface, if managed effectively, export coopetition can reduce some of these concerns (building upon Morgan et al., 2015). For emphasis, many small businesses are unable to boost their performance on their own and require the support of stakeholders (Barney, 2018). With this in mind, export coopetition could assist owner-managers to overcome the challenges associated with operating with limited assets.

Fourth, the control variables (including the procedural controls) were useful in unpacking the complexities of the conceptual model (driven by Jaworski and Kohli, 1993; Westhead *et al.*, 2001; Cadogan *et al.*, 2009; Reay *et al.*, 2015; Souchon *et al.*, 2016). Nevertheless, it was more

important (to yield contributions to theory and practice) to focus on the core issues under investigation in the conceptual model, namely, pertaining to the quadratic link between an export EMO and export performance under the moderating role of export coopetition. Hence, they highlighted other (albeit decidedly minor) factors surrounding the complexities of the connection between an export EMO and export performance, such as mechanisms that drive (or do not drive) these outcomes. Fifth, to stress an earlier point, improved insights have emerged on the wider themes of resource-based theory. Specifically, the seminal aspects of this theoretical lens concentrated on inside-the-firm issues pertaining to decision-makers leveraging their resources and capabilities to obtain higher-levels of performance (Wernerfelt, 1984; Barney, 1991; Barney and Clark, 2007). However, resource-based theory has evolved in different ways, like appreciating the external environment's impact on the performance outcomes of firm-wide assets and recognising the need for a stakeholder perspective (Priem and Butler, 2001; Barney, 2018). By evaluating the quadratic relationship between an export EMO and export performance under the moderating role of export coopetition, new light has been shed on the networking themes of this viewpoint (via rivals in export markets). For this reason, a stakeholder perspective that might include coopetition (especially in international arenas) should be a core component of resource-based theory (extending Lavie, 2006; Barney, 2018; Crick and Crick, 2020, 2021c).

These new insights are important because coopetition is a seemingly paradoxical strategy (Bengtsson and Kock, 2014; Bouncken *et al.*, 2015). This means that there will always be some rivalry underpinning coopetition activities, including within export markets (Bengtsson and Johansson, 2014; Shu *et al.*, 2017; Kraus *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, on the one hand, entrepreneurs must carefully engage in these networks – not least of which, due to their potential performance-enhancing nature (Ritala, 2012; Bouncken *et al.*, 2020). On the other hand, export coopetition might be harmful if it is mismanaged. This encapsulates there potentially being tensions between the partners involved (Bouncken and Kraus, 2013; Bouncken *et al.*, 2018; Crick, 2019). Well-managed export coopetition strategies are likely to stabilise the possible dark-sides of employing an export EMO as a means to enhance performance. This resonates with the wider outside-the-firm elements of resource-based theory. Again, this highlights that coopetition (here, in an exporting sense) should serve as a construct that fits into a stakeholder perspective of resource-based theory (building on Barney, 2018).

Sixth, as another discussion point, there have been calls for research to effectively operationalise an export EMO (or comparable notions) (McAuley, 2010; Boso et al., 2012; Mort et al., 2012; Yang and Gabrielsson, 2018; Buccieri et al., 2022). This corresponds to other work that has measured domestic forms of entrepreneurial marketing behaviours (Morgan et al., 2015; Sadiku-Dushi et al., 2019; Eggers et al., 2020; Alqahtani et al., 2022; Sun and Lee, 2022). The adopted measurement scale was advantageous because it captured the nomological properties of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface in an international arena. Similarly, the scale for export coopetition was beneficial for assessing such networks in foreign product-markets (building upon Chetty and Wilson, 2003; Shu et al., 2017; Crick and Crick, 2021a). These provided operational tools that can guide future investigations to evaluate the antecedents and consequences of these strategies. Otherwise, entrepreneurial marketing scholars must cope with using inadequate operationalisations that do not apply in international arenas.

Seventh, a final discussion point involves how this investigation advances research pertaining to international entrepreneurship. That is, the wider international entrepreneurship literature has provided numerous insights into how smaller-sized enterprises can boost their performance (see, for example, Fischer and Reuber, 2003; Wright and Dana, 2003; Bell *et al.*, 2004; Crick and Crick, 2018; Christofi *et al.*, 2021). Yet, in this investigation, stronger insights have emerged on how decision-makers can combine an export EMO and export coopetition to boost their performance in export markets. In other words, these factors serve as mechanisms that can assist small businesses to survive and prosper

within their international markets – and overcome key obstacles associated with operating across international borders (extending Coviello and Munro, 1995; Knight and Cavusgil, 2004; Kocak and Abimbola, 2009; Mort *et al.*, 2012; Efrat *et al.*, 2017; Hagen *et al.*, 2019; Buccieri *et al.*, 2022). In turn (and for emphasis), these points highlight how entrepreneurial marketing behaviours and coopetition operate in an international arena – for which there are positive and negative issues at play (depending on how they are managed by the international entrepreneurs in question). This develops earlier work that has primarily focussed on the elements of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface and coopetition in domestic settings.

Practical implications

In addition to this study's theoretical contributions, the following recommendations are outlined for owner-managers. First, although decision-makers are unlikely to use the term called an export EMO (a scholarly notion), in pragmatic terms, its implementation can (under certain circumstances) enhance export performance. Therefore, it is advised that:

- (1) Owner-managers of under-resourced small firms must innovate, be proactive, take calculated risks, behave autonomously and exhibit competitively aggressive activities to create value for their customers in export markets. This should involve careful planning for how to best-leverage their resources and capabilities, coupled with managing environmental-level opportunities and threats. In the latter scenario, the export environment could be more dynamic (rapidly-changing and unpredictable) than in domestic arenas due to the complexities of international forces that could influence the export performance of smaller-sized companies.
- (2) More specifically, if entrepreneurs engage in too little or too much of these entrepreneurial marketing activities, their export performance can suffer. Thus, decision-makers face a somewhat tricky situation when managing entrepreneurial marketing activities in an international arena. To minimise wasting their time and scarce assets, when these firm-wide strategies begin to become counter-productive (the drawbacks outweigh the benefits), resources and capabilities should be invested into ventures that are more likely to increase export performance.

Second, where appropriate, decision-makers are advised to cooperate with relevant competitors in their foreign markets (export coopetition), as these strategies can reduce some of the harmful performance consequences of employing an export EMO. Accordingly, it is suggested that:

- (1) Owner-managers of smaller-sized enterprises should explore the prospect of sharing their assets with appropriate rival firms to target existing export markets and new countries – to lessen the probable risks and costs associated with internationalisation. Otherwise, they may face the challenge of not being able to succeed within these export markets due to employing an insufficient volume of resources and capabilities (by operating on their own).
- (2) More specifically, decision-makers are recommended to share costs, pool knowledge, etc., to create more value-adding experiences for their foreign customers, *vis-à-vis*, if they entered such export markets by using their own assets. Therefore, well-managed export coopetition can lower the downsides associated with the volatility and uncertainty surrounding internationalisation strategies not least of which via employing an export EMO.

Third, entrepreneurs must be mindful that under certain conditions, export coopetition has the scope to be somewhat harmful regarding export performance. That is, these networking activities involve a delicate blend of cooperation and competition (on an international scale). Consequently, it follows that:

- Coopetition in an international arena
- (1) If entrepreneurs do not adequately cooperate enough with their competitors, it could imply that there is a lack of commitment or may make it very difficult for them to operate within a given sector. If decision-makers share excessive volumes of resources and capabilities with their rivals, they could lose vital information or market-wide advantages (like unique selling points). Thus, a realistic balance must take place to be collaborative while conserving enough assets for situations where these networks become ineffective.
- (2) Caution should be exercised when choosing appropriate coopetition partners (those that can be trusted and target complementary product-markets). Likewise, ownermanagers should be careful about the circumstances where, and extent to which, they collaborate with their competitors within their foreign markets. They must not become dependent on these rivals, since this could lead to them being exploited – with large-scale costs (like lost sales and reduced profits) and non-financial problems (such as damaged reputations).

By following these practical implications (and key recommendations), entrepreneurs should experience higher-levels of export performance when implementing an export EMO, together with export coopetition (as well as reducing the odds of these strategies being counter-productive). Several limitations and avenues for future research are covered in the following section.

Limitations and avenues for future research

While this study has contributed to the broader entrepreneurial marketing literature, there are several limitations and avenues for future research. First, the survey data originated from one industry and country, namely, the Italian wine sector. Although this was an ideal empirical context, it would be helpful for future research to use different settings to determine whether these findings are generalisable (via undertaking multi-industry studies and crossnational comparisons). Second, despite the survey data passing all major robustness checks, key archival information would have been beneficial (like to measure export performance – albeit this was not feasible for this investigation). Hence, this would be an issue that could be pursued in future studies, subject to gaining access to such data. Third, the quantitative methodology was necessary to test the facets of the conceptual model. Nonetheless, it would have been advantageous to have conducted some follow-up interviews to unpack the statistical results. Consequently, future research could employ mixed-methods approaches.

Fourth, the statistical findings were cross-sectional (hence, the results were a snapshot of a given temporal period). In the future, subject to accessibility issues, longitudinal research might be interesting. This would help to support causal claims. Fifth, this investigation was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic. While several robustness checks were used to assess the quantitative findings, the empirical evidence could have been influenced by how the Italian wine industry was impacted by this major environmental shock. Therefore, in future research, it would be helpful to evaluate if similar results occur in more stable settings (not least of which sampling Italian wine producers after the COVID-19 pandemic is over). To summarise, these points were not major problems, but rather, can be used to direct future investigations surrounding the marketing/entrepreneurship interface (and coopetition) in international arenas. Some conclusions are offered in the next section.

Conclusions

Guided by resource-based theory, the objective of this investigation was to unpack the association between an export EMO and export performance by considering the possibility

for quadratic effects and the moderating role of export coopetition. This research objective was supplemented by the subsequent two research questions:

- RQ1. Is there a non-linear (inverted U-shaped) association between an export EMO and export performance?
- RQ2. Does export coopetition positively moderate the potentially quadratic link between an export EMO and export performance?

After undertaking an empirical investigation involving a sample of 282 Italian wine producers (and conducting all major robustness checks), the following three conclusions are made to contribute to research positioned at the marketing/entrepreneurship interface. First, it is concluded that a non-linear (inverted U-shaped) association exists between an export EMO and export performance (answering RQ1). Second, it is also concluded that export coopetition positively moderates the quadratic connection between an export EMO and export performance (answering RQ2). Third, a final conclusion is that the broader (relational) themes of resource-based theory provided stronger insights into answering RQ1 and RQ2. That is, there are wider issues at play that can impact export performance, including the importance of small businesses harnessing their assets, noting the vitality of entrepreneurs networking with certain key stakeholders (like competitors in export markets) and being strategically flexible in dynamic environmental conditions.

Notes

- 1. Internationalisation occurs in different respects and is influenced by varying barriers and stimuli, including stakeholder support, affecting decision-makers (Fischer and Reuber, 2003; Ferraris et al., 2016; Crick and Crick, 2018; Jafari-Sadeghi et al., 2020; Christofi et al., 2021; Crick, 1992). Although different market entry modes exist, this study focusses on exporting (a mode of internationalisation) to enhance the themes of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface (following Boso et al., 2013; Sraha et al., 2020; Raman Sharma et al., 2018). Consequently, export-specific constructs were conceptualised, operationalised and tested (consistent with Cadogan et al., 1999). This way, the research team could investigate the complexities of these issues as opposed to using a mixture of exporting and non-exporting latent variables. For clarity, certain insights were gathered from domestically-focussed studies and transferred to international contexts (Covin and Slevin, 1989; Hult and Ketchen, 2001; Rauch et al., 2009; Dai et al., 2014).
- The research team offers thanks to an anonymous reviewer for requesting more depth on the VRIN/ VRIO framework.
- Regional clusters largely involve a group of similar organisations operating within a close geographic proximity, such as alcohol producers, tourism and hospitality providers, sporting clubs and restaurants (Porter, 2000; Dana and Winstone, 2008; Felzensztein and Deans, 2013; Crick et al., 2020b; Felzensztein et al., 2019).
- 4. Alliances have been evaluated as a way for entrepreneurs to succeed within their domestic and international markets (Hara and Kanai, 1994; Brouthers et al., 2015; Robson et al., 2019). These typically involve formal partnerships between rival companies, such as competing airlines pooling assets and providing membership schemes for their customers (see Wright and Dana, 2003). Export coopetition is a different notion, as it encapsulates formal and informal arrangements between competitors in export-focussed environments (Chetty and Wilson, 2003; Freeman et al., 2006; Crick and Crick, 2021a). Although coopetition has been explored in international contexts, some of this research pertains to larger firms, including multinational corporations, as opposed to smaller-sized enterprises (Luo, 2007; Luo and Tung, 2007). This study extends these themes but focusses on small (and under-resourced) businesses to unpack the complex relationship between an export EMO and export performance (quadratic effects under the moderating role of export coopetition).
- The research team appreciate an anonymous referee's suggestion to add more information surrounding the focus of the adopted methodology.

- Before the statistical data were analysed, the limited number of missing values were replaced through expectation maximisation. This involved using SPSS 25 to substitute the missing values with the means for the given constructs (as per Hamzah et al., 2022).
- The research team are grateful to an anonymous referee for requesting that more depth should be added on the ways that common method variance was addressed in this investigation.
- 8. It is noted that the final adjusted R^2 of 0.19 (19.00%) was relatively low. However, throughout the extant literature, there is not a single-agreed cut-off value for what constitutes an acceptable score, and especially, concerning a multi-item measure (here, export performance). In various empirical investigations, authors have presented similar (or lower) values (Shepherd and Zacharakis, 2001; Peng, 2004; Cohen and Dean, 2005; Morgan et al., 2018). Furthermore, some authors have found comparable (or lower) adjusted R^2 values when attempting to explain export performance or similar constructs (see Madsen, 1989; Contractor et al., 2005; Rasheed, 2005). In this study, the reported adjusted R^2 was deemed to be satisfactory in this capacity. Indeed, the research team used this metric, but also, concentrated on the different elements of the three-step hierarchical regression model, such as the change statistics, standardised regression coefficients and t-values (and their significances). In this holistic sense (considering the use of stringent robustness checks), there were no critical problems with the results from the model-testing stage. The core focus surrounded how the three-stage hierarchical regression analysis advanced theory and practice pertaining to the marketing/entrepreneurship interface. The authors are grateful to an anonymous referee for suggesting that more detail should be added regarding the final adjusted R^2 .

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Appendix

Author(s)	Publication	Paper type	Research design	Empirical context(s)	Key findings
Bell (1995)	European Journal of Marketing	Empirical	Mixed- methods	Finland, Norway, and the Republic of Ireland	Smaller-sized organisations internationalise for a variety of reasons. Indeed, the speed of their internationalisation strategies is influenced by several factors, such as the presence of network partners, demand from customers and certain resource and capability constraints
Coviello and Munro (1995)	European Journal of Marketing	Empirical	Mixed- methods	New Zealand	Entrepreneurs benefit if they collaborate with certain network members when internationalising. They should foster market-oriented and entrepreneurially-oriented actions to survive and grow within their export markets. Marketing efforts are especially relevant in these export-focussed networks
McAuley (1999)	Journal of International Marketing	Empirical	Qualitative	United Kingdom	Small firms are driven by various factors within their internationalisation strategies to exploit key opportunities. These pertain to product considerations, psychological and branding factors, cognitive issues (e.g. networks and leveraging business skills) and industry conditions. These points expedite the internationalisation process, including for owner-managers operating in low-growth sectors
Knight (2000)	Journal of International Marketing	Empirical	Quantitative	United States	operating in low-growth sectors Smaller-sized organisations are advantaged from implementing an internationally-focussed entrepreneurial orientation, alongside pursuing effective marketing strategies. Together, marketing and entrepreneurial activities can be used to successfully internationalise small firms' business models
					(continued)

Author(s)	Publication	Paper type	Research design	Empirical context(s)	Key findings	Coopetition in an
Andersson (2004)	Journal of Business Venturing	Empirical	Qualitative	Sweden	Tangentially associated with entrepreneurial marketing activities in an international arena, small companies should internationalise related to factors that are linked to the industry lifecycle. Depending on whether a sector is growing (or has matured), decision-makers must pivot their international strategies to succeed in their foreign markets	international arena
Fillis (2004)	International Small Business Journal: Researching Entrepreneurship	Empirical	Mixed- methods	United Kingdom	Possessing a combination of marketing and entrepreneurial traits can assist small firms to successfully internationalise. For example, being creative (and executing synonymous innovative marketing behaviours) can help them to overcome the hurdles concerning having limited resources and capabilities	
Knight and Cavusgil (2004)	Journal of International Business Studies	Empirical	Mixed- methods	United States	Born-global enterprises can internationalise their business models through managing a careful balance of an international-level entrepreneurial orientation and an international-level market orientation. These firm-wide actions can assist entrepreneurs to foster their networks, develop new offerings and utilise improved technologies to boost their performance	
Spence and Crick (2006)	International Marketing Review	Empirical	Qualitative	Canada and the United Kingdom	The marketing/entrepreneurship interface (in an international capacity) is a varied body of knowledge, in which decision-makers can perceive probable risks and rewards in varied ways. This manifests into the different approaches that opportunities can be discovered and exploited to maximise international-level performance outcomes, alongside other measures of succeeding, vis-à-vis, failing in their foreign markets	
Kocak and Abimbola (2009)	International Marketing Review	Empirical	Qualitative	Turkey	International new ventures are advantaged if they can harness a market orientation, as well as an entrepreneurial orientation – to capitalise on opportunities in their international product-markets. If synergy exists, these firm-wide actions can positively impact international-level performance outcomes (albeit there could be certain contingencies at play)	
					(continued)	Table A1.

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Author(s)	Publication	Paper type	Research design	Empirical context(s)	Key findings
McAuley (2010)	Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship	Conceptual	Not applicable	Not applicable	While a considerable amount of work has been conducted on how smaller-sized organisations internationalise, such research has scarcely examined these strategies in the context of research positioned at the marketing/entrepreneurship interface. Future research must unpack these issues under this cross-disciplinary perspective. There are ample opportunities to utilise rigorous methodologies to make novel contributions to theory and practice
Boso <i>et al.</i> (2012)	International Business Review	Empirical	Quantitative	United Kingdom	It is effective for owner-managers to implement an export market orientation and an export entrepreneurial orientation, as these firm-wide actions can increase export performance. This relationship (surrounding export-focussed entrepreneurial marketing behaviours and export performance) is likely to be contingent on certain market-level forces (i.e. export-level competitive intensity) and small firms' financial resources
Cadogan (2012)	International Marketing Review	Conceptual	Not applicable	Not applicable	There are different strategic orientations that decision-makers can employ to boost their performance in their export markets. For example, owner-managers might implement an entrepreneurial orientation and a market-orientation to deliver value to their customers overseas. Nonetheless, there could be complex links with organisational performance, such as non-linear (inverted U-shaped) patterns, whereby, the likes of an export-level market orientation and an export-level market orientation and an export-level for the primal-levels of these international (and firm-wide) strategies
Mort <i>et al.</i> (2012)	European Journal of Marketing	Empirical	Qualitative	Australia	are exceeded Entrepreneurial marketing strategies can be implemented to different degrees in an international arena. Yet, there are key strategic tools that can help small organisations to yield higher-levels of performance in their foreign markets. These are opportunity creation, customer intimacy-based innovative products, resource enhancement and legitimacy. Further, it is important for studies to operationalise constructs, like an export EMO

Table A1. (continued)

Author(s)	Publication	Paper type	Research design	Empirical context(s)	Key findings	Coopetition in an
Boso <i>et al.</i> (2013)	Journal of Business Venturing	Empirical	Quantitative	Ghana	Owner-managers are encouraged to implement a well-balanced mixture of an export market orientation and an export entrepreneurial orientation to boost their export performance. These consequences can be enhanced by possessing strong social and business ties with key stakeholders. Such network partners will vary across certain contexts, but establishing these relationships can strengthen the success of small firms engaging in internationally-focussed entrepreneurial marketing behaviours – to facilitate future research	international arena
Hallback and Gabrielsson (2013)	International Business Review	Empirical	Qualitative	Finland	Entrepreneurial marketing activities in an international arena refer to the degree to which decision-makers are innovative and adaptive within their foreign markets to deliver value to relevant end-users. These organisation-level behaviours can be fostered by an internationally-focussed market orientation, coupled with environmental conditions, like turbulence. If managed correctly, performance (in foreign countries) can be increased. This suggests that innovation and marketing strategies can be combined in an advantageous way in international product-markets	
Thomas <i>et al.</i> (2013)	International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior and Research	Empirical	Qualitative	France	Entrepreneurial marketing strategies help small organisations to differentiate their offerings from competing brands, which in turn, allows them to boost their performance. This is important for smaller-sized companies that export their products, as managing strategies positioned at the marketing/entrepreneurship interface allows them to survive and prosper within turbulent international product-	
Story et al. (2015)	Journal of Product Innovation Management	Empirical	Quantitative	Ghana and the United Kingdom	markets Based on insights from developed and developing nations, innovativeness is a key firm-wide activity that can (under certain conditions) boost new product development performance. However, this non-linear (inverted U-shaped) link is affected by factors, such as a market orientation, financial resources and environmental conditions. Evidence from two countries (with varied cultural and economic differences) provided an international perspective on these aspects of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface	

(continued)

Table A1.

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Author(s)	Publication	Paper type	Research design	Empirical context(s)	Key findings
Efrat et al. (2017)	International Business Review	Empirical	Mixed- methods	Israel	Born-global organisations are likely to benefit from managing a mixture of marketing-focussed activities (e.g. an adaptive marketing mix) and innovative behaviours in their international product-markets. This is especially prominent in situations where economic development is high. As such, this indicates that marketing and innovation are complementary forces for smaller-sized enterprises operating outside of their home countries
Yang and Gabrielsson (2017)	Industrial Marketing Management	Empirical	Qualitative	Finland	Entrepreneurs are likely to handle sector-wide information in different ways, in terms of causation vs. effectuation-based decision-making tools. Depending on what approach is adopted, the processes surrounding small firms discovering and exploiting opportunities in their international markets will vary. These options can help owner-managers to engage in international-level entrepreneurial marketing behaviours
Andersson et al. (2018)	Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal	Empirical	Qualitative	Sweden	Networks are important for entrepreneurs seeking to enter international markets with large psychic distances compared to trading within their home country. By establishing informal and formal partnerships with certain stakeholder groups, the barriers of entering (and being successful in) new foreign product-markets can be reduced. This reinforces the role of networks pertaining to entrepreneurial marketing strategies, but with an
Crick and Crick (2018)	Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship	Empirical	Qualitative	New Zealand	international dimension When internationalising their business models, small firms (that seek the support of angel investors) use a mixture of causation and effectuation- based decision-making approaches. This can assist them to obtain funding from such investors. Nonetheless, owner-managers must demonstrate their intention to internationalise at a particular scope and scale—to evidence that they seek to expand their operations into certain foreign countries

Table A1. (continued)

Author(s)	Publication	Paper type	Research design	Empirical context(s)	Key findings	Coopetition in an	
Yayla et al. (2018)	International Business Review	Empirical	Quantitative	Turkey	International entrepreneurs that operate in turbulent export markets need to be responsive to major shifts within their competitive business environments. Indeed, they are especially advantaged if they can foster a market orientation in an international area, as well as harnessing relational capital in their host countries. These market-oriented activities (plus, entrepreneurial traits) can positively influence their performance outcomes in international settings	international arena	
Yang (2018)	International Business Review	Empirical	Qualitative	Finland and Sweden	Focussing on multinational corporations (i.e. with large-scale resources and capabilities), international-level forms of entrepreneurial marketing behaviours are fostered through acquiring and leveraging assets to exploit prominent opportunities overseas. Due to the insights from multinational corporations, it is unclear if these issues apply to smaller-sized enterprises (that are more likely to have resource and capability constraints)		
Yang and Gabrielsson (2018)	Journal of International Marketing	Conceptual	Not applicable	Not applicable	Knowledge relating to the marketing/ entrepreneurship interface in an international arena remains an under- researched domain. Future research areas include measuring an export EMO (and similar notions) to capture its nomological properties, coupled with how owner-managers design and implement entrepreneurial marketing strategies to succeed within their		
	European Journal of I Marketing	Empirical	l Quantitative	China	foreign markets Export performance is typically determined by prior successes and failures in international arenas. That said, if owner-managers possess the provisions to harness certain assets, they can improve their decision- making processes to yield higher-levels of export performance. This links (albeit tangentially) with the marketing/entrepreneurship interface via the ways that firm-level assets must be effectively managed to help small companies to survive and grow within international settings		
					(continued)	Table A1.	

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Author(s)	Publication	Paper type	Research design	Empirical context(s)	Key findings	
Etemad (2019)	Journal of International Entrepreneurship	Conceptual	Not applicable	Not applicable	In a complex international environment, there are numerous factors that can help or hinder the performance of entrepreneurs seeking to create value for their customers in foreign markets. There could be advantages by integrating different firm-wide activities, including international-level market-oriented and entrepreneurially-oriented activities. In doing so, decision-makers can succeed within their export markets due to being better-equipped at understanding the dynamic nature of their internationalisation strategies	
Hagen <i>et al.</i> (2019)	International Marketing Review	Empirical	Qualitative	Italy and the United States	If owner-managers of smaller-sized firms are agile in their export markets, they can boost their performance in such contexts. This involves a careful (and synergetic) balance of marketoriented and entrepreneurially-oriented behaviours to reduce the risks associated with entering (and succeeding within) certain foreign countries. This encapsulates being creative, utilising resources and capabilities in an effective manner and coordinating internationally-focussed entrepreneurial marketing ventures	
Ibeh <i>et al.</i> (2019)	International Marketing Review	Conceptual	Not applicable	Not applicable	with certain key stakeholders There are growing issues pertaining how owner-managers discover and exploit opportunities in their foreign product-markets (e.g. buyer-seller relationships), including the prospec of working with certain key stakeholders to amplify their successes – and mitigate their failur This resonates with the networking themes of entrepreneurial marketing	
Nguyen <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Journal of Strategic Marketing	Empirical	Mixed-methods	Vietnam	here, in an international arena The international aspects of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface can be examined through the notion or absorptive capacity. This is a multi- dimensional construct that can increase performance in foreign product-markets. Although an export EMO was not directly conceptualised, operationalised and tested, it shows how owner-managers can be engaged in these firm-wide activities in an international arena	

Table A1. (continued)

Author(s)	Publication	Paper type	Research design	Empirical context(s)	Key findings	Coopetition in an
Ryan <i>et al.</i> (2019)	International Marketing Review	Empirical	Qualitative	Republic of Ireland	International new ventures can amplify their performance (i.e. in foreign countries) by leveraging horizontal partnerships (formal or informal) with certain key stakeholders. This links to the networking themes of the marketing/entrepreneurship interface (in an international context), in which decision-makers may lack the necessary assets to engage in some entrepreneurial marketing strategies. However, collaborating with network partners can alleviate some of these challenges	international arena
Crick <i>et al.</i> (2020a)	Journal of Business Research	Empirical	Qualitative	United Kingdom	Entrepreneurial marketing activities do not always create an adequate degree of value for customers in international markets. In addition, from an effectuation-based decision-making lens, there are certain factors that are important, such as how ownermanagers may suffer in financial and non-financial capacities if they mismanage their entrepreneurial marketing actions in an international arena. This surrounds affordable losses, in which entrepreneurs could lose credibility in their international product-markets	
Kahiya (2020)	International Business Review	Conceptual	Not applicable	Not applicable	Certain geographically-isolated countries contain a vast number of small organisations that must export their offerings to survive (and grow) within their sectors. Albeit covered in passing, entrepreneurial marketing strategies might assist decision-makers to boost their export performance by effectively leveraging key assets. This highlights that for a large number of entrepreneurs, internationalisation is a survival-level strategy, as opposed to one that yields a sustained competitive advantage. That is, internationalisation facilitates scalability — without doing so could lead to small firms failing within their rapidly-changing markets	
					(continued)	Table A1.

Author(s)	Publication	Paper type	Research design	Empirical context(s)	Key findings
Peterson and Crittenden (2020)	Journal of Business Research	Empirical	Mixed-methods	United States	Focussing on inwards forms of internationalisation activities (and their connection to the marketing/entrepreneurship interface), immigrant entrepreneurs often aim to create value for their customers from a similar ethnic background as well as targeting those from their host country. That said, they are likely to face challenges, such as cultural assimilation, language barriers, and immigration status paperwork. This can impact the extent to which these internationalised (and small) businesses can engage in entrepreneurial marketing ventures
Buccieri and Park (2022)	Journal of Business Research	Empirical	Quantitative	India	International new ventures can utilientrepreneurial marketing behavior to reconfigure in their foreign mark to boost post-market entry performance. This is especially relevant if international markets and dynamic — with rapidly-changing conditions. Put another way, international new ventures usually have scarce assets, for which these strategies can overcome these markets.
Buccieri et al. (2022)	Journal of Strategic Marketing	Empirical	Quantitative	India	level problems Entrepreneurial marketing behaviours can assist owner-managers to implement successful differentiation strategies and forms of innovation. In turn, international performance can be increased. This signifies that an EMO can provide a beneficial set of firm- wide actions in international arenas. This is helpful for smaller-sized organisations that seek to internationalise within a short period after they have entered a given industry

Note(s): These studies provide an indicative overview of how facets of entrepreneurial marketing activities have been internationalised in earlier research. This involved examining scholarly material that has been published in marketing and entrepreneurship journals, as well as outlets that have published studies addressing such cross-disciplinary issues. Here, work pertaining to the marketing/entrepreneurship interface has appeared in various commercially-focussed outlets, meaning that it is truly a cross-disciplinary perspective. Collectively, while the marketing/entrepreneurship interface serves as an established body of knowledge, relatively little research has been undertaken about how entrepreneurial marketing behaviours operate in export markets, including their association with export performance. Therefore, this background information emphasises the importance for conducting this investigation. This includes how the complexities of this association remain unclear, such as how there might be a non-linear (inverted U-shaped) link between an export EMO and export performance – under the moderating role of export coopetition

Table A1.

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