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# 1. Introduction

#### 1.1 Background & context

In today's world organisations need to stay ahead of their competition. In order to do so they need to remain and gain a competitive advantage over their competition. Already in 1986 Tushman & Nadler stressed that "organisations can gain competitive advantage only by managing effectively for today while simultaneously creating innovation for tomorrow." Being innovative is a key differentiator for organisation to thrive in this competitive world. A pressing problem for managers is to ensure sustained innovation (Tushman & Nadler, 1986). Managers tend to be myopic, are untrained, or are constrained by lack of experience (Braganza et al., 2009). They do need to ensure the organisation innovates and cope with the changing environment of the organisation.

A way to for organisation to achieve sustained innovation is to promote intrapreneurship. Intrapreneurship is a bottom-up process of recognising and exploiting opportunities by being innovative, proactive and taking risks (de Jong et al., 2015; Elert & Stenkula, 2020; Gawke et al., 2019; Neessen et al., 2019). Being innovative, proactive, and risk-taking describe the behavioural dimensions of intrapreneurship (de Jong et al., 2015; Neessen et al., 2019). Gawke et al. (2019) names this proclivity to these behaviours the entrepreneurial orientation. An orientation that argues that intrapreneurial employees self-start initiatives due to awareness of external trends and events.

Intrapreneurial employees positively contribute to the competitive advantage of an organisation. Increasingly these intrapreneurs are deemed to be an important factor to innovation and economic growth (Elert & Stenkula, 2020; Gawke et al., 2019). To be an intrapreneur, employees should display different behaviours. Bowen (2016) states that employees should not be passive recipients of changing jobs and products, they need to adopt to roles as innovators and differentiators. Adopting a more intrapreneurial way of working is required for employees to deal with or even initiate changing requirements and impact the strategic direction of a firm (Peters & Waterman, 1984).

#### 1.2 Problem statement

In an organisation not all employees will behave as intrapreneurs. Neessen et al. (2019) stated in their systematic literature review that employee autonomy is one of various dimensions that influence the intrapreneur. On that same note de Jong et al. (2015) found that job autonomy is directly related to innovative and proactive behaviour, both sub-dimensions of intrapreneurial behaviour. Underlying premise in the research of de Jong is that job autonomy is provided by the organisation. However, this is only part of the story. Although an environment provides a certain level of characteristics, it can be questionable whether this will engage the employee into certain behaviour. Autonomy, for example, can be given by an organisation, but some employees will thrive in it and others will be unhappy. It is generally assumed that a fit should exist between the characteristics desired by an employee and provided by an organisation (Lambert et al., 2003; van Vianen, 2018).

An increase in autonomy has proved to be beneficial for subjective well-being and work efficiency, nevertheless it does has a tipping point. Both E. Zhou (2020) and Stiglbauer & Kovacs (2018) discovered a "too-much-of-a-good-thing" effect occurred when autonomy exceeded the threshold of an individual, leading to a sharp decrease of subjective well-being. Following the model of Job Demands-Resources,

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autonomy can be perceived as a resource for an individual or a demand. Despite many researches has looked into the many perspectives of job autonomy (Jong & Ford, 2021; Simmering et al., 2003; Sørlie et al., 2022; Yu & Davis, 2016), no prior research has been done on the topic of autonomy (mis)fit and its influences on intrapreneurial behaviour. A gap in academic literature that this research attempts to fill.

Although people have an innate need to fit to their environment, a perfect fit seldomly exists (van Vianen, 2018). Meaning that most individuals and organisations will experience misfit. Misfits, however, are not necessarily bad as experiencing misfit will lead individuals to adapt to their situation (van Vianen, 2018). Understanding the effect of adaptation, in the case of autonomy misfit, towards intrapreneurial behaviour can help organisations to influence intrapreneurship in their organisation.

Intrapreneurial behaviour is often measured on individual level, but the act of getting intrapreneurial outcomes is often a team effort. Members of the team have to work and learn collaboratively to achieve the desired outcomes (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). In times of uncertainty and collaboration, psychological safety has shown to enhance the performance of the team (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017; Newman et al., 2017). Psychological safety is a shared belief held by members of a team that the team is safe for interpersonal risk raking (Edmondson, 1999). Teams with high levels of psychological safety have shown to take more risk, share more information, seek more feedback, and perform better with regards to innovation, process improvements, knowledge creation, and successful technology implementations (Edmondson, 1999; Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017; Newman et al., 2017).

Both autonomy fit and misfit has shown to influence dimensions of intrapreneurial behaviour. Yu & Davis (2016), for example, showed that autonomy misfit leads to higher levels of proactivity. De Stobbeleir et al. (2020) found a positive effect between psychological safety and feedback seeking. In case of autonomy fit, psychological safety has influenced creativity, risk taking, and motivation to engage in learning (Choo et al., 2007). Given these findings, psychological safety might influence the effects of autonomy (mis)fit in relation with intrapreneurial behaviour.

Summarising, autonomy has been researched as a contributing factor to intrapreneurship in various researches. However, none of these take into the personal needs to autonomy in relation to what is supplied by the organisation. As perfect fit seldomly exists (van Vianen, 2018), it is interesting to research what the effects are of autonomy (mis)fit on intrapreneurial behaviour of members in a team. Potentially psychological safety level in the team can have a moderating effect on the behaviour of members of the team.

## 1.3 Academic & practical relevance

In the current academic literature not much is known about the relation and effects of autonomy (mis)fit, psychological safety, and intrapreneurial behaviour. Although the elements on their own have been subject of many researches, the trilogy of these elements have not been examined. The contribution of this research as such is multifold.

#### 1.3.1 Academic relevance

The contribution of this paper to the academics is twofold. First, a recurring question in the field of intrapreneurship is the influence of teams on intrapreneurial behaviour (de Jong et al., 2015; Neessen et al., 2019). The answers of this research contribute to the field by displaying if and how the team affects intrapreneurial behaviour of an individual. Specifically, if a psychological safe team environment acts as a catalyst or as a coping mechanism in the case of autonomy (mis)fit for the individual. Secondly, this also answers a question raised by van Vianen (2018): "which environmental and individual factors mitigate experienced misfits?" In the case of this research the question is if psychological safety mitigates the experienced autonomy misfit.

#### 1.3.2 Practical relevance

Organisations has shown to benefit from innovation and other means of gaining competitive advantage (Elert & Stenkula, 2020; Peters & Waterman, 1984). Ensuring sustained innovation is a pressing problem for managers (Tushman & Nadler, 1986). Attracting, retaining, and growing intrapreneurs in the organisation

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is a vivid question for organisation. This research aims to show whether or not autonomy (mis)fit and/or psychological safety is beneficial to increase intrapreneurial behaviour of employees. Especially for organisations that are active in the field of software development, the context of this research. These insights could lead to adoption of recruitment strategies by selecting adaptable minds that can cope with misfit between levels of needs and supplies of autonomy (van Vianen, 2018; Yu & Davis, 2016).

Besides providing advice & insights to the attraction and selection of employees, this research tries to contribute to the field of job design. de Jong et al. (2015) already showed that job autonomy is an influencing factor to entrepreneurial behaviour. However, in that research employees are seen as an homogeneous group. This research attempts to complement that insight by acknowledging the personal needs of autonomy compared to what is supplied. This additional knowledge can help organisations to develop strategies and mechanisms to smartly design their jobs to promote and enhance intrapreneurship for different individuals.

#### 1.4 Method of research

A quantitative study will be used to collect the data for this study. A diary study will be used to collect the data. IT Software development teams are asked to fill in a daily questionnaire for 10 working days.

## Literature research

## 2.1 What is intrapreneurship & intrapreneurial behaviour?

"Intrapreneurship is a process whereby employee(s) recognise and exploit opportunities by being innovative, proactive and by taking risks, in order for the organisation to create new products, processes and services, initiate self-renewal or venture new businesses to enhance the competitiveness and performance of the organisation (Neessen et al., 2019)." In academic literature "intrapreneurship" usually refers to individual workers rather than organisations or boardroom-level decision makers (de Jong et al, 2011). This thesis adopts this points of view that intrapreneurship is a bottom-up approach (de Jong et al, 2011; Neessen et al., 2019). A common label of intrapreneurship is corporate entrepreneurship (de Jong et al, 2011). In line with de Jong et al (2011) this thesis regards corporate entrepreneurship as a top-down process that can be used by business owners and general manages to foster new ventures, innovation, and strategic renewal (de Jong et al, 2011).

Characteristically intrapreneurship should be seen as a process. Intrapreneurship "is about a set of activities of an individual or an organisation to get from point A to point B in time, with an increased competitiveness and performance of the organisation as the end goal (Neessen et al., 2019)." This definition shows that intrapreneurship is not simply a behaviour of an individual or an organisation, but rather a complex construct of various activities. The complexity of this construct is shown in an integrative framework of intrapreneurship as created by Neessen et al. (2019) (fig. 1) that displays the various constructs that together constitute intrapreneurship. The framework makes a clear distinction between organisational and individual constructs. For example the support of management or how the organisation is structured influences intrapreneurship in the organisation. Attitudes and characteristics of individuals likewise influence intrapreneurship by impacting the behaviour of individuals. When individuals behave intrapreneurially it will lead to outcomes as new product / innovation, new business venturing, or self-renewal (Neessen et al., 2019).

The framework of Neessen et al. (2019) displays intrapreneurship as the sum of intrapreneurial behaviour and corporate entrepreneurship. The dimensions of intrapreneurial behaviours are defined as proactivity, innovativeness, risk-taking, opportunity recognition and exploitation, and networking. A review of Gawke et al. (2019) found three prominent conceptualisations of employee intrapreneurship in academic literature. Intrapreneurship can be seen as the employees participation in organisation's intrapreneurial pursuits (the intrapreneurial outcomes approach), the contribution of employee activities to strategic renewal and new ventures of an organisation (the behaviour-based approach) or as the employees' entrepreneurial orientation. This entrepreneurial orientation is conceptualised as the tendency toward innovativeness, risk taking and personal initiative. This last conceptualisation is commonly accepted in the literature to measure intrapreneurial behaviour (de Jong et al, 2011; Gawke et al., 2019; Neessen et al., 2019; Stam et al., 2012). As we are primarily concerned with the behaviour of an individual and not the outcomes of that behaviour, this research follows the entrepreneurial orientation by adopting the view point of de Jong et al (2011) on intrapreneurial behaviour. These authors describe intrapreneurial behaviour "as the identification and exploitation of opportunities by individual workers that (also) advance the organisation."

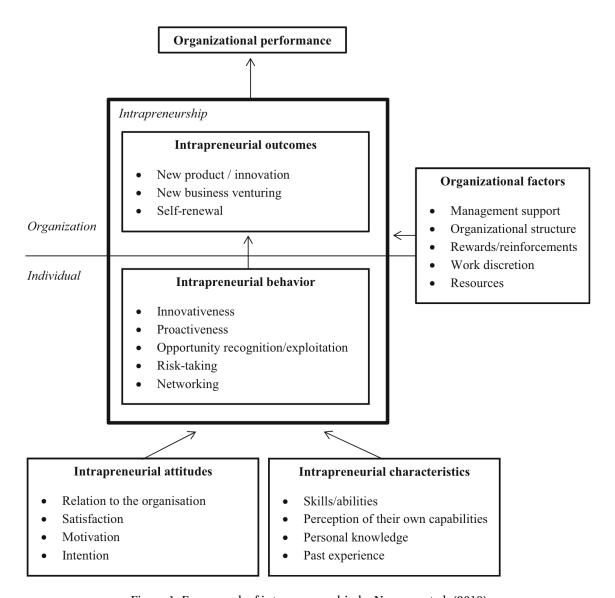


Figure 1: Framework of intrapreneurship by Neessen et al. (2019)

## 2.2 The role of autonomy

Labor market conditions are changing. Rapid technological progress, increased employee tenure, a rise in high-skilled job, and request for more flexibility all indicate an increased need for autonomy (Stiglbauer & Kovacs, 2018). Companies are advised to grant employees a greater span of control in order to leverage digital technologies and employee's expertise (Muecke & Iseke, 2019). As autonomy is becoming a more prominent work characteristic it can be of value to further investigate its relationship with intrapreneurial behaviour.

Autonomy is an influencing factor for intrapreneurial behaviour (Neessen et al., 2019). Giving employees the freedom to design its own work and make decisions results into more intrapreneurial activities and higher levels of self-efficacy (Neessen et al., 2019). On that same note de Jong et al. (2015) found that job autonomy leads to higher levels of intrapreneurial behaviour, especially on its innovation and proactivity dimensions.

However, Gerards et al. (2021) states that the positive relation between autonomy and intrapreneurial behaviour is ambiguous. One stream states that autonomy has shown to influence intrapreneurial behaviour thru the mediating effect of a transformational leadership style (Gerards et al., 2021). Another stream states that employees will be reluctant to show initiative when organisations and leaders emphasise efficiency and flawlessness, even when given autonomy (Jung et al., 2003; Yukl, 2001). Additionally, both autonomy and innovative behaviour have shown meaningful variability on daily basis (Zacher & Wilden, 2014). On days of perceived high autonomy employees are more likely to generate novel ideas, proactively tackle work-related problems and be more inclined to innovate (Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Orth & Volmer, 2017).

@@ elaborate more on the dark side of too much autonomy

A "too-much-of-a-good-thing" effect exist for autonomy. E. Zhou (2020) discovered that giving too much autonomy to an individual has a tipping point. When exceeding that tipping point too much of autonomy displayed to be detrimental for the individual.

Much of the existing literature researches autonomy from the provisioning aspect of an organisation (e.g. de Jong et al., 2015). These studies see the relation between autonomy and intrapreneurial behaviour thru the lens of job design (see de Jong et al., 2015; Gawke et al., 2019; Rigtering & Weitzel, 2013). Although the organisation can offer autonomy, whether the autonomy will be taken will depend on the individual. Additionally reactions on high autonomy levels strongly depend upon individual and/or contextual characteristics (Stiglbauer & Kovacs, 2018). Jong & Ford (2021) argues that it is critical to not only examine job autonomy on its own, but to examine the congruence between autonomy and preference for autonomy. The person-environment theory offers a perspective to research this congruence. Seen in simple terms, the needs and supplies of autonomy can be either a fit or a misfit.

Not all individuals will display the same behaviour, even when they are in the same environment. To find possible reasons for this difference a popular theory is Person-Environment fit theory. "Person-Environment fit is generally defined as the compatibility between individuals and their environment (van Vianen, 2018)." The theory suggests that the attitudes, behaviours, and other outcomes, do not result from the person or environment separately, but rather from the relationship between the two (Jong & Ford, 2021). Meaning, if the characteristics of an individual are aligned with those of the environment, it will lead to a certain outcome in behaviour. Person-environment fit theory examines how job attitudes are explained by the fit between individuals and their work situation (Jong & Ford, 2021).

Key assumption of person-environment fit theory is that people have an innate need to fit their environments (van Vianen, 2018). Having a fit allows individuals to better understand the behaviours of others and facilitates interpersonal interactions. They compare themselves with other people in their social environment (van Vianen, 2018). Perfect fit, however, is a rare circumstance (van Vianen, 2018). People make suboptimal choices, and individuals and their environments change over time (van Vianen, 2018). A dominant model in current person-environment fit theory is Schneider (1987) attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) model (Simmering et al., 2003). This model posits that employees are attracted to organisations that provide a high level of fit, are selected by organisations that recognise this fit, and leave the organisation when misfit occurs. This deemphasises the possibility that individuals might change themselves rather then just leave the organisation (Simmering et al., 2003). Although individuals and organisations might

strive for fit during attraction and selection, researching misfits might provide organisations with more tangible advise and insights to change their selection strategies, or to help new hires to adopt to their situation.

To answer our main hypothesis in this research the fit concept of needs-supplies is chosen. Needs-supplies fit displays the alignment of the employees needs, desires, or preferences and the supply provided by the job they perform (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) The reason for this is twofold: 1) autonomy is typically researched in the context of person-job fit (van Vianen, 2018), and 2) needs-supplies fit has the greatest impact on job attitudes (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Regarding the effects of (mis)fit two opposing views are prevalent. The affective-cognitive based view states that a needs-supplies fit gives rise to positive attitudes, which in turn acts as motivators (Yu & Davis, 2016). The view of self-regulation holds an opposite perspective. Within this view the core principle of cybernetics is followed that a negative feedback loop is required to get in motion (Edwards, 1992). In other words, there has to be a misfit in order to engage in certain behaviour. The research of Yu & Davis (2016) showed that a misfit of autonomy yields proactive behaviour at an individual, supporting the self-regulatory view.

### 2.2.1 When needs & supplies of autonomy are a fit

A fit between the autonomy needs and supplies can be viewed from the existing literature that treats autonomy as a job resource or job design perspective. Although the person-environment fit is not directly used in this research, it does display the effects when needs and supplies of autonomy are a fit.

de Jong et al. (2015) found that job autonomy was directly related to the intrapreneurial dimensions of innovativeness and proactiveness. Job autonomy in this research made a difference towards entrepreneurial behaviour. Job performance is also affected by job autonomy. Muecke & Iseke (2019) found that job autonomy leads to better performance as it enhance work motivation and reduces mental strain. In conjunction with high-quality leader-member exchange, job autonomy strengthens the effect of this exchange on creative work. Summarising, job autonomy has been found to have positive outcomes on a variety of perspectives.

Nevertheless, the nature of this research discards the desire to have autonomy in contract to the autonomy supplied by the organisation. de Jong et al. (2015) for example, already mentioned the limitation that highly entrepreneurial employees may be the ones that obtain high-autonomy functions. This potentially skews it findings. Investigating the effects of job autonomy on intrapreneurship warrants a personenvironment fit view.

Hypothesis 1: A fit on autonomy is positively related to intrapreneurial behaviour

#### 2.2.2 Needs and supplies are not always aligned

The needs of an employee regarding autonomy is not always matched by organisations. In these cases PE-fit literature speaks of a misfit. Experiencing misfit as an individual will lead to adaptation (van Vianen, 2018). Depending on the misfit perception, opportunities to repair the misfit, and environmental and individual mitigating factors it might motivate individuals to leave the job or adapt to the situation (van Vianen, 2018).

Although people have a need to fit their environments (van Vianen, 2018), academic literature holds powerful examples of beneficial misfits. For example, in a study that examines autonomy fit and personal development, Simmering et al. (2003) found that autonomy misfit is essential to create the need for personal development by the individual. Autonomy misfit for newcomers has shown to lead to higher levels of proactive behaviour (Yu & Davis, 2016). Providing support for the self-regulatory view of needs-supplies misfit.

The exact nature of misfit might yield to different outcomes. Misfit can either be an excess of supply or be a deficiency of what the individual needs. Which type of misfit is experienced will make a difference on their impact (Lambert et al., 2003; van Vianen, 2018; Yu & Davis, 2016). An excess of misfit will do less harm then a deficient misfit (van Vianen, 2018). Additionally Lambert et al. (2003) showed that not all experienced misfits is of importance for the individual. Meaning, that although there is a misfit, it does not have a consequence on behaviour or outcome.

That excess of misfit does less harm is shown by Yu & Davis (2016). Their research investigated the level of proactivity for newcomers in an organisation, based on their personal needs for autonomy and what was supplied by the organisation. Here, the authors found that an excess of autonomy misfit lead to higher levels of proactivity compared to fit and deficient misfit. This shows that in case of an excess misfit, more autonomy provided then desired, leads to stronger adoption of the individual to belong (Yu & Davis, 2016).

Stiglbauer & Kovacs (2018) found that an excess of autonomy misfit on a person's well-being only decreased when the misfit was substantial. For deficient misfit the effect was linear, meaning that any increase from a deficient misfit to fit leads to an equal improvement on well-being. Individuals that were lacking autonomy in this study, while having a high need for autonomy suffered on well-being. Important to note here is that the portion of people that experienced an excess misfit was very small in the study (Stiglbauer & Kovacs, 2018).

Summarising, autonomy is an influencing organisational factor to stimulate intrapreneurial behaviour (Neessen et al., 2019). Similarly, autonomy misfit has proven to contribute to dimensions of intrapreneurial behaviour (fig. 1). As such, I hypothesise that a misfit of needs-supplies regarding autonomy will influence intrapreneurial behaviour depending on the type of misfit.

Hypothesis 2a: An excess of autonomy misfit (P < E) is positively related to intrapreneurial behaviour

Hypothesis 2b: A deficiency of autonomy misfit (P > E) is negatively related to intrapreneurial behaviour

## 2.3 Psychological safety

Today's business environment accomplishes much of its work in collaboration (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017; Newman et al., 2017). Rather then being individuals at work, multi-disciplined teams are working collectively to accomplish their goals. Product design, patient care, strategy development, and rescue operations are a few examples that call for collaborative work (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). The field of organisational research has identified psychological safety as an important factor in how people collaborate to achieve a shared outcome (Edmondson & Lei, 2014).

Psychological safety is the shared belief by members of the team that the team is safe for interpersonal risk-taking (Edmondson, 1999; Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017; Newman et al., 2017). Individuals that feel psychologically safe in a team will be less concerned with the way others might react when introducing a new idea or when voicing a concern. High levels of psychological safety has been linked to higher levels of creative thinking and risk-taking, innovation in R&D teams, process improvements in manufacturing, knowledge creation, and successful implementation of technology (Newman et al., 2017). Frazier et al. (2017) recognises that psychological safety is a key factor in facilitating the process of learning, collaborating, and employee engagement.

The performance enabling role of psychological safety has consistently been found in numerous studies (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Especially when organisational learning is of importance, psychological safety is relevant (Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Much of today's organisational learning happens between the interactions of interdependent individuals. Individual's concerns about interpersonal risk or consequences could limit the learning behaviours of these individuals. High levels of psychological safety can reduce these concerns and as such contribute to organisational learning.

Psychological safety is both an individual-level and team level construct (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017). However, Edmondson & Lei (2014) argues that the group is the appropriate level to measure psychological safety. "Starting with Edmondson (1999), studies have found statistically significant variance in psychological safety between groups within organisations; that is, people working closely together tend to have similar perceptions of psychological safety, which vary across groups within the same organisation. This body of work thereby supports the idea that psychological safety in organisational life can best be considered a phenomenon that lives at the group level. (Edmondson & Lei, 2014)."

## 2.4 Psychological safety impacting intrapreneurial behaviour

Individual elements of the intrapreneurial behaviour construct has been linked to psychological safety. Risk-taking, for example, is enhanced by psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999; Newman et al., 2017). Likewise, enhancements of creative thinking, innovation, process improvements are outcomes of teams that have a high level of psychological safety (Newman et al., 2017). Members of a team in a psychologically safe climate share more information, speak up with suggestion for organisational improvements, and are found to take initiative to develop new products and services (Edmondson & Lei, 2014).

De Stobbeleir et al. (2020) discovered that in psychological safe teams members engage in feedback seeking among team members. This type of feedback seeking can be labeled as "relational proactivity," aligning well with the networking dimension of intrapreneurial behaviour. Feedback seeking positively contributes to experimentation and learning. Psychological safety is strongly related to team learning and performance in environments that benefit from learning (Sanner & Bunderson, 2015). An appropriate culture that allows experimentations, feedback, and learning by trial and error is one of the two required aspects to unfold intrapreneurs' potential (Gawke et al., 2019). The other aspect being proactive intrapreneurs.

Psychological safety has been found to effect components of intrapreneurial behaviour and intrapreneurial outcomes as described in the framework (fig. 1) of Neessen et al. (2019). Given the impact on these isolated components I hypothesise that there is a relation between psychological safety and the complete construct of intrapreneurial behaviour. To my knowledge there has not been any distinctive research that linked psychological safety to the complete construct of intrapreneurial behaviour.

Hypothesis 3: Psychological safety is positively related to intrapreneurial behaviour

## 2.5 Psychological safety to influence the effects of autonomy misfit

Getting to intrapreneurial outcomes like new products or self-renewal isn't an individual effort, but a team effort. As today's work is mostly accomplished in collaboration (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017; Newman et al., 2017), the effects of an individual autonomy misfit can be influenced by others in the group. As individuals work in teams, it's the reaction of those team members to the individual that potentially impacts its attitude to the job. As such, the team can be influential in supporting an individual towards intrapreneurial behaviour. Whether or not the psychological safety in a team influences an individuals intrapreneurial behaviour answers a call for further research by Neessen et al. (2019).

Moderating effects of psychological safety has been proven extensively in academic literature. In their systematic literature review Newman et al. (2017) already summarised that psychological safety weakens the negative relationship between role conceptualisation and achievement orientation, expertise diversity influence the team performance, and the relationship between process innovativeness and profitability. This moderating effect has been found on individual, team, and organisational level. This prior research gives viability to a potentially moderating effect of psychological safety between autonomy (mis)fit and intrapreneurial behaviour.

#### 2.5.1 When needs and supplies of fit are unbalanced

An excess of misfit has shown to lead individuals to adapt to the situation. Yu & Davis (2016) discovered that an excess of misfit lead to higher levels of proactive behaviour by the individual. Ashford & Black (1996) identified seven key types of change-oriented proactive behaviours: feedback seeking; information seeking; job change negotiation; positive framing; general socialising; building relationships with the boss; and networking. Especially information seeking and feedback seeking has been found to be influenced by psychological safety (De Stobbeleir et al., 2020; van Vianen, 2018). Feedback seeking may be beneficial for individuals to cope with the misfit of autonomy (van Vianen, 2018). Teams with high levels of psychological safety ensure that information will be sought within the team, where in teams with low levels of psychological safety information will be sought outside the team (De Stobbeleir et al., 2020; Safdar et al., 2017).

Following the self-regulatory view, an excess of autonomy will give individuals an impetus to engage in

intrapreneurial behaviour. Given that an excess of autonomy misfit leads to higher levels of proactivity, proactivity being a key behavioural dimension of intrapreneurship, and acknowledging the existing literature on the influencing effect psychological safety has on proactivity, I hypothesise:

Hypothesis 4a: Psychological safety strengthens the positive effect of an excess autonomy misfit towards intrapreneurial behaviour

Additionally, Yu & Davis (2016) showed that also a deficiency of misfit yields to proactive behaviour, although lower then the case of excess misfit. Clarification for this difference has not been provided by the authors. A possible explanation can be found in the findings of Lambert et al. (2003) that deficient misfit leads to greater job dissatisfaction for specific inducements. The dissatisfaction of work has been found to lead to creativity (J. Zhou & George, 2001), Likewise, van Vianen (2018) noted that "Seeking feedback may help individuals to better cope with misfit by putting effort into learning or adjusting to the job demands."

Hypothesis 4b: Psychological safety strengthens the positive effect of an excess autonomy misfit towards intrapreneurial behaviour

#### 2.5.2 When autonomy is a fit

Following the job design perspective that autonomy fit leads to more intrapreneurial behaviour (de Jong et al., 2015) and better performance (Muecke & Iseke, 2019), it can be hypothesised that psychological safety will have a positive influence on the intrapreneurial behaviour of members in a team with autonomy fit. Psychological safety has proven to have positive effect on the learning behaviour of teams (Edmondson, 1999; Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017). Learning behaviour is described by Edmondson (1999) as "learning at the group level of analysis as an ongoing process of reflection and action, characterised by asking questions, seeking feedback, experimenting,reflecting on results, and discussing errors or unexpected outcomes of actions." These behaviours are positively related with the performance of the team (Edmondson, 1999; Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Frazier et al., 2017). Choo et al. (2007) found that psychological safety influenced creativity, divergent thinking, risk taking, and motivates engagement in learning, increasing the performance of the team as such. Additionally, Frazier et al. (2017), found that work design characteristics (including autonomy) positively influence psychological safety.

Hypothesis 4c: Psychological safety strengthens the positive effect of autonomy fit towards intrapreneurial behaviour

The concepts and relationships of this research have been visualised in the research framework (fig. 2).

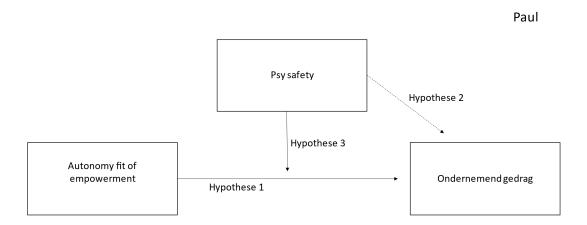


Figure 2: Research framework

# 3. Methodology

## 3.1 Research design

A descriptive research design is being used for this study. Collecting the data was done utilising diary studies. Two primary reasons led to the practice of using diary studies. First of all, diary studies are helpful to collect data on working environment characteristics that are subject to fluctuations (Bakker, 2014). Secondly, using diary studies help to prevent common rater bias, a pronounced effect in PE-fit studies (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Common rater bias are conscious or unconscious tendencies that affect supplied ratings. By using a diary study, and thus collecting responses on multiple days this bias can be prevented. The developed hypothesis are concerned about the relationships of fluctuating states and are typical research questions to be answered by a diary study (Ohly et al., 2010).

As psychological safety is primarily a team construct (Edmondson, 1999) and getting to intrapreneurial outcomes is a team effort, the research design is focused on team behaviour as well. Teams are asked to collect data during a sprint. Sprints are a fixed period of time in which a teams tries to fulfil their commitments to work items, promised at the start of the sprint. The concept of sprints are part of Scrum, an agile methodology of work. Typically, sprints last for two weeks. When a sprint starts for the team, the data collection period starts as well.

From the start of the sprint team members are asked to answer a daily questionnaire. Using daily diaries might increase retrospective bias compared to using experience-sampling methods (Ohly et al., 2010). For this research, using experience-sampling is not required as we are not searching for affective or cognitive observations for specific events during the day. Rather, the research aims to get an overall perceived assessment of the day. Using daily diaries as such suffices and enables the participants to enter the survey at their own convenience, positively adding to the response rate. To further reduce nonresponse and dropout, as diary studies can be burdensome for the participants (Ohly et al., 2010), the number of questionnaires is capped to 10, as done by other research (see Vleugels et al., 2018). The daily assessments are capped to a maximum of 5-7 minutes to not affect the willingness of participants as suggested by Ohly et al. (2010).

At the end of the sprint a closing survey is sent to the members of the team and the team's supervisor. The closing survey of the team was an extended version compared to the daily surveys. The survey for the team supervisor is focused on assessing the perceived intrapreneurial behaviour of team. The supervisors answers ensure triangulation of the perceived data of the time, as such increasing the validity of the findings and preventing common rater bias (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

#### 3.2 Data collection

The collected for this research is gathered with teams active in software development team. Software development teams commonly work according the Scrum methodology. Key philosophy in the Scrum Guide is becoming more proficient, as team, in the leading values of Scrum, namely: commitment; focus; openness; respect; and courage, in order to be successful (Schwaber & Sutherland, 2020). The primary focus of the team is to make the best possible progress towards the goals that are set by the team. Given the Scrum values and its goal for the Scrum team, researching these hypothesis in software development teams is expected to yield interesting results. Companies using Scrum are likely to expect

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innovative behaviour of their teams as adaptation and self-management is an essential pillar of Scrum (Schwaber & Sutherland, 2020). Additionally, Scrum teams are typically together for a longer period of time. This prevents diluting effects of socialisation behaviour typically seen at newcomers in an organisation (Vleugels et al., 2022; Yu & Davis, 2016).

To narrow the diversity of organisations participating in the research, participating teams are required to work in a commercial, for-profit organisation. At least 30 teams will participate in the research. Given the often multi-national composition of teams the survey will be held in English to enhance the possibility of participation.

During a period of data collection surveys were distributed by e-mail for 10 consecutive working days at 15:30. This daily survey held questions for all variables that are being researched. All members of the team received this e-mail notification, expect for the team supervisor. The supervisor received a notification on the 10th day of the collection period. The focus of this survey was to answer questions with regards to the perceived intrapreneurial behaviour of the entire team. These surveys were programmed, collected, and distributed by using the software Qualtrics.

#### 3.3 Measures

#### 3.3.1 Intrapreneurial behaviour

Intrapreneurial behaviour is measured using the validated measurement of (de Jong et al., 2015). This measurement is proven to measure the dimensions of proactive, innovativeness and risk-taking. The construct exists out of nine questions which are answered using a 7-point Likert scale (1= not at all, 7 = at all). An example question of the construct is: "I generate creative ideas," all questions can be read in appendix A1.

### 3.3.2 Autonomy (mis) fit

To determine the (mis)fit of autonomy for an individual the construct of (Spreitzer, 1995) is used. This validated measurement consists out of three question, all answered via a 7-point Likert scale (1= not at all, 7 = at all). "The opportunity to determine how I do my job" is an example question, all other questions can be read in appendix A2.

#### 3.3.3 Psychological safety

Psychological safety is measured via the well-proven construct of Edmondson (1999). Using a 7-point Likert scale (1= very inaccurate, 7 = very accurate) the participants need to answer 7 questions. Example questions are "Members of this team are able to bring up problems and tough issues" and "Working with members of this team, my unique skills and talents are value and utilised." The full list of questions is available in appendix A3.

#### 3.4 Data analysis

The analysis of data will be done via the program RStudio. Analysing and discovering relations and effects between the variables will be done utilising multiple regression analysis.

## 3.5 Methodological issues

Conducting research can lead to various methodological issues that potentially harm the reliability of the research. In order to prevent the occurrence of this research a number of preventive actions have been executed.

In order to prevent non-response the recommendations of Ohly et al. (2010) have been incorporated. Setting a maximum of surveys and reducing the effort to complete them attributes to not burden the participants during the process.

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# **Appendix A: Measures**

# Appendix A1: Intrapreneurial behaviour (de Jong et al, 2011)

Code	Question (1-7 Likert scale)
IBI1	generate creative ideas
IBI2	search out new techniques, technologies and or product ideas
IBI3	promotes and champions ideas to others
IBP1	identifies long term opportunities and threats for the company
IBP2	is known as a successful issue seller
IBP3	puts effort in pursuing new business opportunities
IBR1	takes risks in his/her job
IBR2	when large interests are at stake, goes for the 'big win' even when things could go seriously
	wrong
IBR3	first acts and then asks for approval, even if he/she knows that would annoy other people

# Appendix A2: Autonomy (misfit) (Spreitzer, 1995)

Code	Question (1-7 Likert scale)
AUT1	The opportunity to determine how I do my job
AUT2	The opportunity to decide on my own how to go about doing my work
AUT3	The opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job

## Appendix A3: Psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999)

Code	Question (1-7 Likert scale)
CPS_1_R	If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you
CPS_2	Members of this team are able to bring up problems and tough issues
CPS_3_R	People on this team sometimes rejects others for being different
CPS_4	It is safe to take a risk on this team
CPS_5_R	It is difficult to ask other members of this team for help
CPS_6	No one on this team would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts
CPS_7	Working with members of this team, my unique skills and talents are value and utilised