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Postprint

This is the accepted version of a chapter published in *Theoretical perspectives on family businesses*.

Citation for the original published chapter:

Kuiken, A. (2015)

Theory of planned behaviour and the family business.

In: Mattias Nordqvist, Leif Melin, Matthias Waldkirch and Gershon Kumeto (ed.), *Theoretical perspectives on family businesses* (pp. 99-118). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing

<https://doi.org/10.4337/9781783479665.00013>

N.B. When citing this work, cite the original published chapter.

Permanent link to this version:

<http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:hj:diva-27570>

6. Theory of Planned Behavior and the Family Business

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1. Introduction

Explaining human behaviour is a difficult task, but many researchers in very different fields still attempt it. Several theories exist to predict and explain human behaviour. According to Weick, Sutcliffe and Obstfeld (2005), sensemaking is the central determinant of human behaviour because it is the process of giving meaning to what is happening in the environment. These meanings inform and constrain identity and action. Ajzen (1985) assumes, in the theory of planned behaviour, that there is an objective world in which behaviour is influenced by the attitude that an individual has towards a certain behaviour, social norms and perceived behavioural control. These three factors influence the intention to perform a specific behaviour, which is found to be a good indication of the actual behaviour. Generally, the theory of planned behaviour is used to explain the choices that individuals make with regard to leisure activities (Ajzen & Driver, 1992) and health (Courneya & Friedenreich, 1999; Conner, Norman & Bell, 2002) and to explain buyer behaviour (Lynne, Franklin Casey, Hodges & Rahmani, 1995; George, 2004). Within business administration, the theory of planned behaviour is used to explain why individuals start up a business (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993; Van Gelderen, Brand, van Praag, Bodewes, Poutsma & Van Gils, 2008), exit the firm (DeTienne & Cardon, 2012) and internationalise their business (Sommer & Haug, 2011).

Because the theory of planned behaviour predicts the behaviour of individuals by looking at their intentions, it is not a surprise that the primary application of the theory in family business research has been at the individual level. The theory of planned behaviour is used to obtain more insight into the decision of family members to join or exit the business (Sharma,

Chrisman & Chua, 2003; Zellweger, Sieger & Halter, 2011). Family business scholars generally agree that family businesses are a specific type of organisation in which members of the controlling family have a strong influence on the business (Tagiuri & Davis, 1992; Sharma, 2004; Chrisman, Sharma & Taggar, 2007; Sharma, Melin & Nordqvist, 2014). Even if family members influence the business, it does not necessarily mean that the intentions of these family members reflect the actual behaviour of the family business. Different family members have different intentions and different perceptions, which can lead to conflict within the family business rather than a common goal (Brännback & Carsrud, 2012). Therefore, an important question to ask is how a theory that is used to predict individual behaviour can provide insight into the behaviour of the family business. In this chapter, it is argued that interactions among family members lead to the shaping of intentions at the family level and interactions among family members and non-family employees lead to intentions at an organisational level.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the theory of planned behaviour and its current application in business administration and family business research and to propose how the theory of planned behaviour can be applied in future family business research. In the subsequent sections, the theory of planned behaviour is explained, after which its applicability to the field of family business research is explored. In the final section, suggestions for future research are provided.

2. The theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour is an extension of the theory of reasoned action introduced by Fishbein in the 1960s (Ajzen, 1991). Up until that point, many theories had attempted to explain the relationship between attitude and behaviour. These theories argued that a positive attitude towards a certain action leads to the performance of the appropriate behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). Generally, low correspondence was found between attitude and behaviour

(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Montano & Kasprzyk, 2008). As a response to the limited predictive power of these models, Fishbein (1963) and Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) developed the theory of reasoned action. The theory of reasoned action states that a person's attitude towards a certain behaviour and subjective norms shape the intention to perform a certain behaviour. The intention to perform a certain behaviour is, according to this theory, a good way to predict the actual behaviour. The theory of reasoned action assumes that humans take into account all available information and consider the implications of their actions (Ajzen, 1985).

Behavioural intention is defined as “*indications of how hard people are willing to try, of how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behaviour*” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181). The theory of reasoned action argues that intentions are determined by a person's attitude towards a certain behaviour and the subjective norms. The attitude towards behaviour is influenced by behavioural beliefs. Behavioural beliefs are beliefs about the likely outcomes of a behaviour and the negative or positive evaluation of these outcomes (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen, 1985). Subjective norms are a person's perception of the social pressures put on him or her to perform or not perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). It is assumed that a person is more likely to perform a particular behaviour when he or she believes that an important other thinks he or she should perform it (Ajzen, 1985). This important other can be different people for different behavioural situations (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1970). The theory of reasoned action only explains behaviours that humans can decide to perform, hence, where there is volitional control (Ajzen, 1985; 1991). As a result, the intention can only be expected to predict a person's attempt to perform a certain behaviour and does not take into account possible changes in intention or external obstacles that prevent a person from actually performing the behaviour (Ajzen, 1985).

In response to this weakness, the theory of planned behaviour was developed. In addition to attitude and social norms, perceived and actual behavioural control were included in the model of reasoned action (Ajzen, 1985). Perceived behavioural control is influenced by a person's beliefs with regard to the presence of factors that positively or negatively affect the performance of a behaviour and the perceived power of these factors (Ajzen, 1991). The more control a person has over personal and external factors that may influence the actual performance of an intention, the greater the likelihood that the behavioural goal will be attained (Ajzen, 1985). Actual behavioural control refers to the factors and resources that a person has access to that direct the intention into behaviour and determine whether the intention actually leads to the intended behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Hence, the theory of planned behaviour argues that human behaviour in a specific context can be predicted and explained by the attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived and actual behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991; 2011). The three predictive variables together lead to the formation of a behavioural intention. It is expected that the more positive these three forces are, the stronger the intention to actually perform a certain behaviour (Ajzen, 2011).

The theory of planned behaviour is widely applied in psychology and health research and is by now also used in other fields to explain a large variety of behaviours. Generally, two aspects of the theory of planned behaviour are studied: 1) how intentions are shaped and 2) how these intentions translate into behaviour. A closer look at the literature on how intentions are shaped shows that the addition of the perceived behavioural control factor adds to the predictive power of the model and that often social norms are a weak predictor of intentions (Ajzen & Madden, 1986; Hausenblas, Carron & Mack, 1997; Sheeran, 2002). In an early study on weight loss among college women, Schifter and Ajzen (1985) conclude that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control can accurately predict the intention to lose weight, however, actual weight loss was only moderately predicted and other

factors, such as having a plan and ego strengths, influenced the actual weight loss. Parker, Manstead, Stradling, Reason and Baxter (1992) examine the intention of drivers to commit specific driving violations. Their primary conclusions are that perceived behavioural control makes a significant positive contribution to predicting the behavioural intention of the violations studied, and social norms have only a small influence on intentions. Venkatesh, Morris and Ackerman (2000) show that in technology adoption decisions, men are more strongly influenced by their attitude toward using new technology, whereas women are more strongly influenced by the social norms and perceived behavioural control. This finding suggests that other factors can influence the relationship between attitudes, social norms, perceived behavioural control and intention. This suggestion is in line with the critique of Conner and Armitage (1998) that the theory of planned behaviour should take into account other factors, such as belief salience, past behaviour/habit, the structure of the perceived behaviour construct, moral norms, self-identity and affective beliefs to increase the predictive power of the model. For example, Sheeran and Orbell (1999) found that including anticipated regret and descriptive norms increases the percentage of variance explained for playing in a lottery. Ajzen (2011) warns that to add more factors, some criteria should be met: the factor should be behaviour specific, it should be understood as a causal factor determining intention and action, it should be conceptually independent of the other forces, it should be applicable to a large variety of human behaviours and, finally, it should consistently improve prediction of intentions or behaviour. These criteria suggest that adding additional predictors requires careful consideration.

The second stream of research questions the assumption that intentions are a good predictor of actual behaviour. Intentions only account for twenty to thirty per cent of the variance in behaviour, and past behaviour is often a better predictor of future behaviour than intentions are (Gollwitzer, 1999; Sheeran, 2002). One moderator that is considered to close the gap

between intention and behaviour is the implementation intention. Implementation intentions capture when, where and how the intention to perform a certain activity is transformed into action (Gollwitzer, 1993). Orbell, Hodgkins and Sheeran (1997) found that if guidelines about when and where to perform a certain action are provided, it becomes more likely that the intention will be enacted. More specifically, Ajzen, Czasch and Flood (2009) found that participants are five times more likely to return a survey when there is an implementation intention. The authors also found that an implementation intention creates a sense of commitment to perform a certain behaviour, even if the implementation intention is not very specific. This finding suggests that commitment can be a better moderator than the implementation intention in the intention-behaviour relationship. In addition to implementation intention, Sheeran (2002) suggests a number of other factors that can moderate the relationship between intention and actual behaviour, such as the extent to which a person is focused on actions versus a focus on the current state, the participant's beliefs about the extent of regret they will feel when performing a behaviour, competing intentions, the degree of intention formation and the stability of the intention. Given the large number of factors that he suggests, Sheeran (2002) concludes that more research is required on the relationship between intentions and behaviour. Little attention appears to be paid to the relationship between intentions and behaviour by scholars who use the theory of planned behaviour. Ajzen (2011) argues that this relationship is not the core of the theory of planned behaviour, and if the relationship between intentions and behaviour is weak, it should be seen as a warning sign that the limits of the theory have been reached.

Recently, Sniehotta, Pesseau and Araújo-Soares (2014) stated that the theory of planned behaviour has outlived its usefulness because it has limited predictive validity, it does not take into account the effect of past behaviour on future behaviour and the assumption of rational behaviour is unrealistic. In response, Ajzen (2014) and Conner (2014) state that these

arguments are based on a poor understanding of the theory of planned behaviour. Although the theory cannot explain all variance, the amount of variance explained by the theory for intentions as well as behaviour is generally high (Conner, 2014). Ajzen (2014) stresses that the theory of planned behaviour does not assume rationality; the beliefs a person has can be based on wishful thinking, incomplete information or unconscious bias and may fail to correspond to reality. In line with previous research, both authors suggest that taking account of other predictors and measures of the existing predictors can add to the validity of the model, and therefore the theory of planned behaviour remains very valuable in explaining behaviour.

3. Theory of planned behaviour in business administration

Searching Scopus for the 'theory of planned behaviour' in the field of business, management and accounting leads to 512 results. The results show that the theory of planned behaviour has become increasingly popular since the late 1990s. One area in which the theory of planned behaviour is applied is in business ethics. Examples of topics studied are ethical decision making by managers and business professionals (Buchan, 2005; Hoffman, Hoelscher & Sorenson, 2006; Cohen, Ding, Lesage & Stolowy, 2010) and user intentions toward pirated software (Chen, Pan & Pan, 2009; Yoon, 2011). It is notable that many of these studies extend the theory of planned behaviour. Buchan (2005) includes moral sensitivity and ethical climate as additional predictors of intention, and Cohen et al. (2010) add moral obligation to the predictive variables for the intention to commit fraud. In studying user intention toward pirated software, Chen et al. (2009) include moral intensity and moral judgment as joint moderators and Yoon (2011) includes moral obligation and justice in the theory of planned behaviour.

Marketing is another area where the theory of planned behaviour is applied. In this area, the theory is used to explain consumer decisions. Taylor and Todd (1995) conclude that the theory of planned behaviour explains well the adoption of new products and services by consumers but that it understates the importance of the beliefs structure. Hence, the measure of beliefs must be considered in future research. Xie, Bagozzi and Østli (2013) apply the theory of planned behaviour to food consumption decisions and find that it applies well but only after the emotional and social aspects of consumption are taken into account.

Entrepreneurship research is another area where the theory of planned behaviour is used. Approximately twenty per cent of the 512 articles in Scopus are related to entrepreneurship. Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud (2000) and Kautonen, Gelderen and Fink (2013) found that the theory of planned behaviour is well able to explain entrepreneurial intention or the willingness to establish a business. Krueger et al. (2000) compare the theory of planned behaviour to Shapero's model of the entrepreneurial event. The purpose of the model of the entrepreneurial event is to answer two questions: 'What brought about this event?' and 'Why this particular event?' (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). The model of the entrepreneurial event states that the intention to start a business is influenced by the perceptions of desirability and feasibility and a person's disposition to act on the decision (Shapero & Sokol, 1982; Krueger et al., 2000). Krueger et al. (2000) conclude that Shapero's model is slightly superior to the theory of planned behaviour, primarily due to the limited support for the social norms component in the theory of planned behaviour. However, Krueger et al. (2000, p. 424) suggest that the social norms element might be a more useful predictor in regard to the intentions for corporate ventures because "the organizational setting is social in nature". Kautonen et al. (2013), in addition, show that attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control not only explain entrepreneurial intentions but also provide evidence that entrepreneurial intentions together with perceived behavioural control lead to entrepreneurial behaviour. To increase the

predictive power of the theory of planned behaviour, Laspita, Breugst, Hebllich and Patzelt (2012) argue that the entrepreneurial status of parents and grandparents should be included when entrepreneurial decisions are considered. Sommer and Haug (2011) argue that specific characteristics of the entrepreneur should be considered when studying international entrepreneurship. DeTienne and Cardon (2012) combine the theory of planned behaviour and threshold theory in their study on entrepreneurial exit. Their primary interest is in the perceived behavioural control element of the theory of planned behaviour, and they conclude that this element together with industry experience, age and educational level influence the choice of exit path. This research shows that the theory of planned behaviour can potentially be applied to decisions made at different stages of the life cycle of the firm and that a variety of predictive variables can be considered to increase the predictive power of the model.

4. The relevance of the theory of planned behaviour in the family business context

As mentioned before, the purpose of the theory of planned behaviour is to predict and explain behaviour in a specific context. One specific context is the family business, in which “the family and the business overlap to such an extent that family members have a significant influence on the key decisions and direction of the enterprise and vice versa” (Sharma et al., 2014, p. 1). This overlap leads to specific factors that are likely to influence the decision making of the family members involved in the business. The goals of the family and the self-interested behaviour of individual family members can have a strong impact on how the business is managed (Chrisman et al., 2007). More recently, socioemotional wealth considerations, as introduced by Kumeto in this book, are argued to drive the decision making in a family business. Koropp, Kellermanns, Grichnik and Stanley (2014) use the theory of planned behaviour to gain a better understanding of financial decision making in family firms because subjective norms are at the centre of the theory and, as such, can take into account the

noneconomic rationale in family firms. They find that family norms and attitudes toward external debt and equity affect the behavioural intention to use these financing choices.

Succession is the core of the family business literature (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011, Nordqvist et al., 2013). Nordqvist, Wennberg, Baú and Hellerstedt (2013) draw an analogy between the entrepreneurship process and the succession process in the family business, where decisions must be made about entering and exiting a business. Given this similarity, it is not surprising that the theory of planned behaviour is primarily applied to succession questions in the domain of family business research. Sharma et al. (2003) state that succession is a planned behaviour because the incumbent is initiating the succession. The succession is desirable for him and consistent with social norms, and perceived control exists if a possible successor is available. Sharma et al. (2003) found that behavioural beliefs do not have a significant influence on succession planning but that social norms and the likeliness that a trustworthy successor is available do have a strong influence on succession planning. To date, this study is one of the few using the theory of planned behaviour that considers the succession decision from the incumbents' perspective. More research is available on the decision of the next generation whether to enter the family business or not. Aldrich and Cliff (2003) suggest that this decision is influenced by what they call family embeddedness. The family system and the family's resources, norms, attitudes and values influence the recognition of entrepreneurial opportunities, and these decisions potentially trigger changes in the family.

The idea of family embeddedness is the starting point in the majority of family business research that uses the theory of planned behaviour, arguing that growing up in a business-owning family influences the career choice. Carr and Sequeira (2007) look at how the exposure to a family business influences entrepreneurial intent, using the attitudes towards business support, perceived family support and entrepreneurial efficacy as mediating factors. These authors find not only a significant direct relationship but also an indirect relationship,

through the mediators. Schröder et al. (2011) look at career choice intentions for adolescents that grew up in a family business; not only do they take the adolescents into account but also the parents' view. They find that among others, personality traits, gender, identification with the family business, parental job rewards and parental succession preferences influence adolescent choice to enter the family business. Zellweger et al. (2011) examine the career choices of students with a family business background, where a distinction is made between succeeding the parents, starting up their own business or becoming employed. In line with the family embeddedness concept, these studies suggest that the social norms construct has a strong impact on the decision to enter the family business, start up a company or become otherwise employed. This finding contradicts studies in other areas of research where the social norms construct was often found to be a weak predictor of intentions.

5. Multilevel analysis in family business research and the theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour has only been applied to a limited extent in the area of family business research. Given the large variety of decisions and behaviours that have been studied using the theory, there appear to be several possible future applications of the theory of planned behaviour to family business research. However, this theory focuses on individual behaviour, whereas a multilevel model is required to obtain an appropriate understanding of family business (Chrisman et al., 2007; Long & Chrisman, 2014). In this section, a multilevel approach to the theory of planned behaviour is introduced.

Behavioural theory, as introduced by Mazelli in her chapter in this book, explains how individual decisions can become organisational decisions. According to the behavioural theory of the firm (Cyert & March, 1963), collective bargaining and coalitions lead to the formation of common rather than individual goals. In turn, based on experience, goals can be

changed. In behavioural theory, as well as in other theories, such as identity theory, this move to a different level of analysis is facilitated by a focus on interaction. According to Berger and Luckmann (1966), social structures are the sum total of direct and more abstract interactions as well as recurrent patterns of interaction. The family as well as a company can be perceived as a social structure.

Combining the theory of planned behaviour and social interactions can provide insight into the applicability of the theory on different levels of analysis. The interactions among individual family members result in social relations. This type of interaction is what Kotlar and De Massis (2013) labelled as familial interaction, where interaction takes place in informal meetings among family members. Through informal dialogue, the beliefs of individual family members are transferred into common beliefs about their family, the business and how to act towards the community (Hoffman et al., 2006). The starting point of the theory of planned behaviour is that beliefs with regard to the outcome of a decision, what others think is desirable behaviour and the extent to which a behaviour can be performed influence the intention to perform a certain behaviour. When a social structure, such as the family, has developed common beliefs with regard to these three forces, they can help to explain family behaviour, such as starting or selling a company. However, different individual preferences can result in disagreement on what is desirable behaviour, which in turn can result in conflicts among family members (Sorenson, 1999; McKee, Madden, Kellermanns & Eddleston, 2014). Although these conflicts can have negative effects and delay decisions, they also force the family to rethink decisions that can change intentions in the theory of planned behaviour. Hence, when using the theory of planned behaviour in future family business research at a family level, possible conflicts must be considered because they can change family intentions, for example with regard to the succession.

Apart from informal meetings, family members involved in the business take part in official meetings that can include non-family employees; Kotlar and De Massis (2013) refer to these meetings as professional meetings. Professional meetings are shaped by values, norms and expectations that are based on family beliefs (Hoffman et al., 2006). Strategic consensus, which is the degree of agreement between individuals at different levels in the organisation at a particular point of time, must be achieved if the organisation wants to be successful (Bourgeois, 1980; Kellermanns, Walter, Lechner & Floyd, 2005). Similar to the family level, conflict can arise at the organisational level during the process of shaping organisational beliefs and intentions. Aside from differences in beliefs and intentions among individuals, differences between individual beliefs and organisational beliefs can cause friction. For example, when setting group goals, it was found that actual performance was enhanced when individual and group goals were aligned (Locke & Latham, 2006). In a family business, the extent to which the family controls the business influences the control they have over strategic decisions (Carney, 2005). If family members have agreed upon the family intentions and the family has complete control over strategic decision-making, the organisational intentions can be a one-to-one reflection of the family intentions. As a result, conflict between the family intentions and the organisational intentions is less likely to arise. However, if the family does not have complete control over strategic decision making, differences in the intentions of the family and non-family employees can result in conflict, but now at the organisational level. Hence, when applying the theory of planned behaviour at levels other than the individual level, possible conflicts must be considered.

Another factor to address is the relationship between intentions and the actual action taken. The majority of organisational decisions are not taken overnight and also take time to implement. The market can change or new knowledge can become available so that the intention does not accurately predict the eventual decision. Ajzen (2011) noted that the

changes that an individual cannot control are captured in the actual behavioural control that moderates the intention-behaviour relationship in the original model. In the past, actual behavioural control is not often taken into account, but at the organisational level, it might be necessary to control for these changes over time to gain insight into why an intention does or does not result in the expected behaviour. For example, a small family firm intends to change their corporate governance structure and hire an advisory board. However, due to a financial crisis, the demand for their products drops and the financial resources to hire the board diminish. Because of these changes in the situation, it might be decided to not hire the board as originally intended. Alternatively, time can be taken into account as a moderator between intentions and behaviour. Fried and Slowik (2004) argue that market time pressure, such as a quickly changing market, encourage management and employees to act quickly in regard to strategic decisions that influence the competitive advantage of the firm.

6. Future research

The above discussion shows that the theory of planned behaviour can be applied at the individual, family and organisational level in family business research. Key to future research using this multi-level analysis is to first obtain insight into individual beliefs, intentions and decisions through surveys. Individual beliefs shape the family and the organisational beliefs. Traditionally, research applying the theory of planned behaviour strongly relies on surveys and regression analysis. However, revealing beliefs at the family or organisational level requires broad access to these social structures and makes a qualitative design with interviews, observations and the examination of organisational documentation more appropriate (Van Riel & Balmer, 1997). Nevertheless, in organisational identity research where beliefs and values are often considered, surveys and quantitative research are applied

(Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv & Sanders, 1990; Brickson, 2005). In the case of quantitative research, questions that are similar to those asked at the individual level should be asked to individuals in the organisation and family about the family and organisational beliefs.

6.1. Succession

Although succession is the only area where the theory of planned behaviour is applied in current family business research, this does not mean that this area cannot be extended. Past research has, for example, shown that emotions play an important role in the succession process. The incumbent can resist succession because of a fear of losing control, social position, status and identity (Long & Chrisman, 2014) and as such, the attitude towards not going through the succession process is relatively positive. On the side of the successor, affective commitment can play a role that relates strongly to the emotions connected to being a part of the family business (Sharma & Irving, 2005). A strong feeling of being a part of the family business leads to a family member being more likely to intend to take over the business. These emotions are, to date, not directly taken into account. Anticipated affect is a factor that captures the emotions related to not performing an activity (Sandberg & Conner, 2008). In terms of anticipated affect, not taking over the family business can, in the case of affective commitment, lead to a loss of identity, sadness, or perhaps a feeling of failure. Zellweger et al. (2011) suggest that a feeling of being independent is important as well in the career choices of children of family business owners. This importance will also be captured by including anticipated affect in the theory of planned behaviour. In this way, the predictive power of the model can be improved.

Application of the theory of planned behaviour at the family level can provide additional insight into the decisions made with regard to succession. Kumeto's chapter in this book discussed the socioemotional wealth perspective. The socioemotional wealth of the family includes the emotions relating to owning the business and maintaining the business in the

family (Berrone, Cruz & Gomez-Mejia, 2012). Hence, not keeping the company succession within the family will reduce the socioemotional wealth of the family. As such, including anticipated affect at the family level can capture the emotions relating to the loss of socioemotional wealth if the next generation is not taking over. In past research, including anticipated affect as an antecedent has increased the predictive power of the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 2014). Understanding the emotions relating to the succession process can also provide more insight in the problems that can arise during it.

6.2. Strategic decisions and the theory of planned behaviour

Different business contexts result in different strategic processes and involve the activities of managers at different levels in the organisation (Burgelman, 1983). The family business context is argued to be different from the non-family business context because of the strong influence of the family on the final strategic decisions (Salvato & Corbetta, 2014). Strategic decisions are steps in a process to move the organisation towards a goal or a set of goals that the decision maker has determined (Bateman & Zeithaml, 1989). This definition suggests that the individuals in the organisation and the beliefs that they have with regard to strategy are important drivers of strategic behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour can help to predict strategic decisions and activities by considering individual beliefs as well as organisational beliefs, as discussed earlier.

Examples of strategic decisions are decisions with regard to investments, international market entry, growth, corporate governance, strategic change and innovation (Salvato & Corbetta, 2014). Entrepreneurship includes decisions with regard to strategic renewal and new venture creation and is an area of growing interest in strategic management (McKelvie, McKenny, Lumpkin & Short, 2014). Family business research has focused primarily on how entrepreneurial activities have influenced sustainability and performance, rather than on the entrepreneurship process (Rosa, Howorth & Cruz, 2014). Nordqvist and Melin (2010) identify

two streams of research combining family business and entrepreneurship: the entrepreneurial family and the entrepreneurial family business. The current research on family business and the theory of planned behaviour appears to relate to the entrepreneurial family, where there is a focus on how the family, or individual family members, can stimulate or limit entrepreneurial activity. Research on the entrepreneurial family business examines corporate entrepreneurship. This includes opportunity recognition and exploitation, which is influenced by the beliefs, attitudes and values of individuals in the organisation, by the external environment and by the organisational structure (Ireland, Covin & Kuratko, 2009). According to the theory of planned behaviour, information about the environment shapes the beliefs of individuals with regard to the desired behaviour. Hence, many of the factors outlined in the corporate entrepreneurship definition are included in the theory of planned behaviour.

Corporate entrepreneurship includes renewal and change in the form of innovation, the exploitation of new markets and process innovation; it is often argued that family firms resist these factors (Kellermanns & Eddleston, 2006; Kellermanns, Eddleston, Barnett & Pearson, 2008). Applying the theory of planned behaviour at multiple levels, as suggested in the earlier discussion, can provide insight into the beliefs of individual family members and non-family employees and into how they influence the actual decision to perform entrepreneurial activities. In earlier research, Naldi, Nordqvist, Sjöberg and Wiklund (2007) found that family firms engaged in entrepreneurial activities take fewer risks than non-family firms. The theory of planned behaviour can provide insight in why this is by comparing the beliefs and entrepreneurial decisions of organisations with different levels of family ownership and family involvement.

Another possible area for investigation is the area of family business internationalisation. Family business internationalisation is argued to be different from non-family business internationalisation: family businesses internationalise more slowly and use operation modes

where they can exercise more control (Kontinen & Ojala, 2010; Pukall & Calabrò, 2013). In past research, it was argued that this tendency is, among others, due to the attitude of the owner-manager towards internationalisation (Gallo & Sveen, 1991; Gallo & Pont, 1996). However, little is known about this attitude and how it is shaped. To obtain a good overview of which beliefs influence internationalisation decisions, the application of the theory of planned behaviour at different levels of analysis can provide insight into the beliefs of independent family members and the beliefs that influence decisions in the family business. By obtaining insight into the beliefs that influence firm behaviour, insight can be obtained in which beliefs must be changed to, for example, speed up internationalisation.

7. Conclusion

In this chapter, the theory of planned behaviour is introduced, and avenues for future research in the field of family business are suggested. In family business research, the theory of planned behaviour is primarily used to explain the exit and entry of family members in the business, and current research in this area is limited. It is argued that the theory of planned behaviour can also be applied at the organisational level because interactions among individuals result in common intentions for the organisation. Previous applications of the theory of planned behaviour show that additional predictive variables increase the predictive power of the model. Therefore, future application in the field of family business must consider whether the current factors of the theory are sufficient to explain the behaviour under study or whether additional factors must be included. This chapter suggests that perceived affect should be considered as an additional variable in succession research. Moreover, the suggestion that the theory of planned behaviour can also be applied at the organisational level allows for a variety of future research areas. Two areas suggested here are entrepreneurship in family firms and the internationalisation of family firms. Ajzen (2011) noted that the theory can be applied to basically any planned behaviour and that most behaviours are planned; this

means that the future applications of the theory of planned behaviour are not limited to the suggested areas.

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