

DOES GENDER MATTER? A MODERATED MODEL FOR FAMILY
CLIMATE AND PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP OF THE FAMILY FIRM AS
EXPERIENCED BY NEXT-GENERATION FAMILY MEMBERS

by

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ABSTRACT

SARAH E. BROUGHTON SHIKE. Does Gender Matter? A Moderated Model for Family Climate and Psychological Ownership of the Family Firm as Experienced by Next-Generation Family Members.
(Under the direction of DR. FRANZ W. KELLERMANNNS)

While most family business leaders want their offspring to take over the family business, most next-generation family members choose to pursue opportunities outside their families' businesses. This research aims to understand how internal family dynamics affect the development of PO feelings towards the family business in next-generation family members. The moderating effect of gender, as socially constructed, was also explored.

Data were collected using a snowball technique and an anonymous online survey ($n=159$) and were analyzed using regression analysis. Next-generation family members were encouraged to participate in this study regardless of their ownership of, or employee status within, the business. The family dynamics measured were cognitive cohesion, emotional cohesion, adaptability, communication, intergenerational attention to needs, and authority. Findings are included, followed by discussion, limitations, and future directions for research. Currently, family business scholars have a limited understanding of how and when psychologically related micro-factors manifest in next-generation family members; however, relationships have been identified between a business family's internal dynamics and the development of certain attitudes, beliefs, and feelings held by their next-generation family members. Despite the similarities of this research to past examples in the SEW and related literature streams, no support was found for this study's hypothesized relationships. Additional empirical research is necessary to understand when and how a business family's internal dynamics influence the manifestation of PO feelings in their next-generation family members.

DEDICATION

Davin, Reagan, and Rachel: I dedicate my dissertation to you. Do hard things!

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EO	Emotional Ownership
FCS	Family Climate Scale
PO	Psychological Ownership
RBV	Resource-Based View
SEW	Socioemotional Wealth

CHAPTER 1: RESEARCH OVERVIEW

“In a family firm, the strands of the family system are so tightly interwoven with those of the business system that they cannot be disentangled without seriously disrupting one or both systems.”

Kepner, 1983: 57

“Train up a child in the way he should go and when he is old, he will not depart from it.”

Proverbs 22:6

Introduction to Context and Theory

Family firms are the foundation on which the world’s economy is built (De Massis et al., 2018). Family businesses are responsible for generating nearly 80% of jobs that comprise the global job market (Lee, 2017), and provide jobs for 59% of the United States private sector workforce. The United States is home to an estimated 32.4 million family-owned enterprises, accounting for approximately 87% of all domestic businesses, and 54% of the United States Real Gross Domestic Product (Pieper et al., 2021).

“The difference between an anonymously held company and a family business is the influence that a family has on the business.” (Pieper & Klein, 2007, p. 306). Family business research has documented that the family unit, encompassed by its unique tapestry of history, dynamics, culture, priorities, and structure, significantly influences key firm processes, including succession (Dyer, 1988). Understanding the implications of family involvement in a family business is said to be a “cornerstone” of family business research (Anglin et al., 2017). This dissertation seeks to analyze how a next-generation family member’s feeling of ownership about the family business is affected by their perceptions of their family’s internal dynamics. A family’s internal dynamics reflect their beliefs, assumptions, and rules regarding gender roles (Hofstede, 1980a). Since our families are largely influential to the development of beliefs, assumptions, and traditions (Feldmann et al., 2020), this study sought to understand the

moderating effect gender may have on the relationship between family dynamics and the development of ownership feelings for the family business.

Family businesses are comprised of interrelated subsystems that frequently interact or overlap one another (Habbershon et al., 2003; Tagiuri & Davis, 1996; Wilson et al., 2014). Scholars often favor a systems approach to illustrate the ebb and flow of information between related family business systems (Stafford et al., 1999), such as those between the business, family, manager, and ownership subsystems (Habbershon et al., 2003). A family's collective set of subsystems comprises capabilities and resources unique to the family's involvement in the firm, creating both constraints and competitive advantages for the business (Habbershon et al., 2003; Tagiuri & Davis, 1996). Psychological factors such as the development of ownership feelings towards the firm (Ceja & Tàpies, 2011) are suspected to influence business and family outcomes like succession, and questions like, "*How does the family contribute to firm success?*" (Zellweger et al., 2010, p. 54) are commonplace in current family business literature. Some progress has been made in the realm, for instance, Bernhard and O' Driscoll (2011) reported the elevated ownership feelings serve as a binding agent between the business family and the firm (Bernhard & Jaskiewicz, 2011; Pieper, 2007), and psychological ownership (PO) has been offered as both the antecedent (Bernhard, 2011) and predictor (O' Driscoll et al., 2006) of organizational commitment. Commitment is a critical component of successful family business succession processes (Handler, 1992) and a key attribute of effective successors (Chrisman et al., 2010). These discoveries have been valuable to family business research literature; however, the effects micro-psychological characteristics of business families have on family business outcomes remain largely unknown. The importance of examining and understanding the underlying dynamics contributing to business family characteristics is often explicitly expressed

in the literature, particularly in relation to how family members can individually and collectively influence the family business environment (Anglin et al., 2017; Astrachan, 2010; Bertrand & Schoar, 2006; Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007; Campopiano et al., 2017; Dyer Jr & Dyer, 2009; Evert et al., 2016; James et al., 2012; Jaskiewicz et al., 2017; Jaskiewicz & Dyer, 2017; Kammerlander & Breugst, 2019; Klein et al., 2005; Pieper, 2010; Sharma, 2004; Yu et al., 2012).

An improved understanding of the underlying psychological mechanisms at play in a business family is informative to many streams of family business research; however, the theory of socioemotional wealth (SEW) has significantly contributed to and benefited from research aimed at understanding how nuances within the family system impact the business system (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011). SEW was developed as a way to depict a family business's intentional pursuit to meet the affective needs, aka, non-economic goals, of the family (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007), which “in a nutshell,” are the differentiating factors between family businesses and non-family businesses. Family firms simultaneously pursue both financial and non-financial goals (Williams Jr et al., 2018); however, our comprehension of the factors that contribute to a family business's goals, behaviors, and outcomes is still taking shape (Sharma et al., 2020). Non-economic motives of many family business owners often include possessing power over their business for long periods of time, maintaining a lifestyle as a business owner, and perhaps most notably, the desire to pass on the business and its legacy to future generations (Anderson & Reeb, 2003a, 2003b; Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007; Rantanen & Jussila, 2011). Nonfinancial goals like ensuring business succession, creating and maintaining social capital, preserving and enhancing family reputation, and nurturing emotional connection to the firm can be of equal or greater importance than financial goals to family business leaders (Gomez-Mejia

et al., 2011). Socioemotional wealth (SEW) is currently gaining traction in the family business literature as a means to explain the motivations underlying the non-economic goals of family businesses (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011; Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007). This study aims to contribute to SEW by adding to our current understanding of the antecedents contributing to the development of PO feelings towards a target. SEW has been described as the “potential dominant paradigm” of family business research (Berrone et al., 2012) and has attracted a significant amount of interest from many family business investigators (Schulze & Kellermanns, 2015).

As noted in Sharma et al. (2020, p. 6), “...the influence of family institutions such as parenting styles and structures on self-efficacy, entrepreneurial orientation, and commitment of the next-generation to their family firm has been theorized in the literature (Garcia, Sharma, De Massis, Wright, & Scholes, 2019; McMullen & Warnick, 2015; Reay, 2019) but needs to be empirically tested.” Ceja and Tàpies (2011) identified the PO of next-generation family members as an important component to positive functioning and well-being within family firms; however, overall knowledge of PO and next-generation family members remains limited. Family relationships are strong predictors of succession for family businesses (Garcia et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2003); and the involvement of next-generation family member is essential if a family business is to thrive beyond the founding generation. This research contributes to the SEW literature by using empirical methods to analyze the relationship between a business family’s dynamics and the PO of the family firm, as experienced by next-generation family members. Additionally, this study expands on the relationship gender has with the development of ownership feelings.

Research Objectives of the Dissertation

This dissertation investigates the relationship between family climate and PO of the family firm, as experienced by next-generation family members. The research questions to be addressed in this work are as follows:

1. *How do family dynamics, as experienced by next-generation family members, impact their PO of the family firm?*
2. *How does gender moderate the relationship between family climate and PO of the family firm?*

Contributions

This dissertation contributes to our knowledge of SEW by empirically examining how the family climate impacts the PO of the family firm, as experienced by next-generation family members, regardless of whether they are employed in the firm. Both sons and daughters have reported difficulty building identity for themselves within the family business. Females may lack identity because they have not been shown how she fits within the firm structure, despite having worked there for several years, while sons have reported a conflict with fathers over power and control (Dumas, 1989). Even if males and females experience similar struggles, those challenges may surface for different reasons. The way in which the next-generation males and females experience family climate will impact, in turn, their PO. Thus, this research aimed to understand how gender moderates the relationships between a business family's internal dynamics and PO of the family business for next-generation family members.

This dissertation's focus is significant to the family business research field because it responds to several gaps in the current family business literature. First, it looked to better understand the development of micro-level psychological mindsets of business families by studying the development of PO feelings in next-generation family members (Jaskiewicz &

Dyer, 2017; Sharma et al., 2020). Additionally, it drew upon family psychology research as a means to enhance understanding of how the internal dynamics of business families affect business goals and outcomes (Combs et al., 2020) and may ultimately contribute to the possibility for intergenerational succession efforts (Mussolino & Calabrò, 2014). The study also answered calls to include gender as a socially constructed element within societies (Nelson & Constantinidis, 2017) to capture any differences in the development of PO feelings due to the influences of the individual's perception of their family's climate. Finally, this study was positioned to respond to the need for empirical studies contributing to the understanding, development, and preservation of SEW in family businesses (Berrone et al., 2012), as it sought to fill gaps in the current literature that may help illuminate motivations and contributions to family firm behaviors and outcomes (Rieg et al., 2015), such as successful intergenerational succession efforts.

Gaining a better understanding of how next-generation family members develop feelings, form opinions, and make decisions regarding the family firm, is beneficial to everyone from family business owners and next-generation family members to family business consultants and academics looking to better understand how family dynamics influence the relationship between the family and the family firm, this research can prove valuable.

Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation is organized in five chapters covering the following subjects. The literature review discusses socioemotional wealth (SEW) and similar theories related to the family system's influence on the family firm. Next, the roots and routes of PO, this dissertation's dependent variable is reviewed, in addition to other theories related to PO specifically informing this study. Special attention is given to "having a place" and "home" since those are obvious underlying factors associated with an individual's identity formation, and thus, a next-generation family member's perception of their family's dynamics. An overview of previous family dynamic research is discussed, as well as an introduction to the six individual dimensions comprising Björnberg and Nicholson (2007)'s measurement of family climate that serve as the six independent variables for this study. The literature review portion of Chapter 2 rounds out with a review of literature related to the moderating factor of the study, which is gender. The model depicting the hypothesized relationships followed by a discussion of each of the twelve hypotheses included in this dissertation conclude the chapter. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology used for collecting and analyzing the data, the preliminary analysis, and the controls variables included in this research. Chapter 4 reports the analyzation of the data, and Chapter 5 is a discussion of the theoretical contributions of the study, acknowledgments of its' limitations, and directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

This chapter contains a review of the literature that serves as a foundation of this dissertation. It begins with an overview of the study of family business as it pertains to socioemotional wealth, the overarching theory this work. A brief discussion of additional supplementary theory this research informs will be included. Next, a summary of psychological ownership, the dependent variable for this work, will be presented, along with additional supporting theory specifically related to and supporting the value of this study. Following that will be a detailed synopsis of each dimension of the FCS, which serves as the independent variable for this project. A review of gender, the moderator of this dissertation, and how culture and society guide our thinking will be reviewed, and the chapter will conclude with the hypothesis development.

Family Business Defined and the Systems Approach

Researchers have struggled to agree on a sole definition of “family business” that adequately reflects the many shapes and forms family business can take. Identifying an all-encompassing description presents a challenge, but Chua et al. (1999) offer the following definition developed to capture the “essence” of family business, which is the perspective I have adopted for the sake of this research:

The family business is a business governed and/or managed with the intention to shape and pursue the vision of the business held by a dominant coalition controlled by members of the same family or a small number of families in a manner that is potentially sustainable across generations of the family or families. (p. 25)

Scholars benefit from employing the systems approach when studying family business because it allows them to capture the distinct, yet intertwined, nature of the interacting subsystems they are comprised of (Habbershon et al., 2003). This theory has the capacity to

convey the flow of information between related family business processes and activities between subsystems like the family system or business system, while at the same time distinguishing boundaries between the entities (Stafford et al., 1999). Over time, family business research has built on the use of the systems perspective and this common theoretical structure has been employed to demonstrate the relationships between groups of factors affecting family business outcomes (Basco & Pérez Rodríguez, 2009; Davis, 1983; Distelberg & Sorenson, 2009; Hollander & Elman, 1988; Lansberg, 1988; Weigel & Ballard-Reisch, 1997). While each system affects and is affected by the others, collectively, they form the firm's unique sets of resources and capabilities (Habbershon et al., 2003). This unique bundle of resources resulting from family involvement in the firm is referred to as the "family firm-specific resources" or "familiness" of the firm" (Habbershon & Williams, 1999), and these resources have been used to distinguish the difference between family and non-family firms.

Much as the synergetic ability of two draft horses allows them to pull more weight collectively than the sum of their individual efforts would produce, it has been said that the collection of parts comprising a social system can produce synergetic outcomes (Ackoff, 1994). Assuming a family business system is comprised of components that collectively create positive synergetic results, their unique family firm-specific resources have the potential for creating competitive advantages (Habbershon et al., 2003); however, a negative net outcome could result in business failure. Likewise Kepner (1983, p. 65) offered a fitting illustration of an important firm to family influence: "...the firm is a part of the psychological if not the actual environment of the family. It is always a "third party" that is carried around in the minds of people in the family system." To simplify the discussion regarding the overlapping family and business system, this dissertation will refer to the family in terms of the "family system" or "nuclear

family”, and the business will be represented with “business system.”

In recent years, two topics have gained popularity in the family business literature: 1) a theoretical approach to analyzing and interpreting family business behaviors, and 2) the nuclear family comprising the “family” part of the family business (Jiang et al., 2018; Randerson et al., 2015). Socioemotional wealth (SEW), sometimes referred to as *affective endowments* (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011), has been defined as “non-financial aspects of the firm that meet the family’s affective needs, such as identity, the ability to exercise family influence, and the perpetuation of the family dynasty” (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007, p. 106). While the originally theoretical underpinnings of SEW were not explicitly stated to include systems theory, the values in which SEW embody likely are contain basic and specific assumptions of family business research (Hasenzagl et al., 2018), otherwise known as in-house and root-metaphor assumptions (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011). As will be discussed in the following section, SEW research can focus on many levels within the family business context, however this dissertation is primary concerned with understanding family system dynamics as they contribute to next-generation family members’ feelings of ownership over the family business. From the systems perspective, learning about micro factors such as family dynamics and feelings of ownership is important to the overall study of SEW, as these psychological factors have potential to significantly affect a business family’s effective endowments (Jiang et al., 2018).

Socioemotional Wealth

Like many areas of family business research, early SEW research focused on firm performance or outcomes due to the unique nature of family involvement (Cruz et al., 2014; Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007; Vardaman & Gondo, 2014), however like other streams of family

business research such as Resource-based view (RBV), authors are now illuminating the need for empirical work focused on the finer-grained theory development (Sharma et al., 2020). Calls for the examination of micro-level components of the foundations of SEW (Cruz & Arredondo, 2016), such as family-centric psychological factors (Brigham & Payne, 2019) have been identified as areas of interest and may help us better understand how SEW contributes to family firm outcomes (Chua et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2018).

SEW is rooted in the Behavioral Agency Model (BAM) which is a combination of agency theory and behavioral theory (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011). Berrone et al. (2012) outlined five dimensions of SEW, dubbed as FIBER, and proposed items that could be used to measure the various SEW dimensions. The “F” stands for family control and influence. The “I” denotes family member identification with the firm. The “B” represents the binding social relationships developed through kinship ties and social capital. The “E” refers to the role of emotions in the family. The “R” illuminate’s renewal of family bonds through transgenerational succession.

Much of the attention SEW attracts is due to its positioning as an umbrella under which it may be possible to encompass all existing business theories (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011) pertaining to the distinctive behavior of family firms (Berrone et al., 2012). While the theory appears to be a rational and promising approach to neatly file family business research within, there are both conceptual and empirical concerns regarding its overall composition and application in family business research (Brigham & Payne, 2019; Chua et al., 2015; Kellermanns et al., 2012). Much as the general definition of family business itself does (Chrisman et al., 2005; Di Toma & Montanari, 2010), the theory seems to suffer somewhat from identity issues.

Holistically, the Berrone et al. (2012) five-dimensional FIBER approach has been accepted as an appropriate start to describing SEW, and since publication in 2012 has had over

1800 citations as of April 14, 2021. However, the concept is not without challenges. Hauck et al. (2016) worked to build on this effort by validating and shortening the SEW scales. They were the first to offer a direct multidimensional measure of SEW based on FIBER; however, they were unable to fully and reliably validate the F and B dimensions, and therefore, proposed a shortened scale to measure the affective core of SEW instead based on the R, E, and I dimensions (Hauck et al., 2016).

The construct as a whole is appealing and, thus, a fast-growing area of study; however, it remains underdeveloped and fragmented (Brigham & Payne, 2019; Chua et al., 2015; Cruz & Arredondo, 2016; Miller & Le Breton–Miller, 2014; Schulze & Kellermanns, 2015). Researchers are still working to fill the gaps in its foundation on both macro and micro levels (Hernández-Linares et al., 2019). For instance, while researchers have developed and tested ways to measure it (Debicki et al., 2016; Hauck et al., 2016), none have become a standardized approach to doing so. Despite the gaps remaining in the development of the theory and measurement, the basic precepts of SEW are well established, accepted, and often discussed in related family business literature (Brigham & Payne, 2019; Chua et al., 2015; Miller & Le Breton–Miller, 2014), and it is argued to be *the* difference setting family firms apart from others (Berrone et al., 2012; Holt et al., 2018).

Noting the challenges encountered to this point to measure the level of SEW directly and reliably in a family firm Debicki et al. (2016) altered the focus of their research to developing and validating a scale called SEWi, that measures the *importance* of SEW to family owners and managers of family firms, rather than the level of SEW within a family firm.

The scale contains three dimensions: (1) Family Prominence, which is the importance of the family, owner, or business the community it operates within; (2) Family Continuity, which

assesses the importance of preserving family control and involvement in the firm; (3) Family Enrichment, which represents the importance of the need to fulfill broader obligations to the family and is representative of altruism within the family. The scale's three items overlap Berrone et al. (2012) in several ways while offering a richer overall view of SEW that was not captured in the initial FIBER scale.

As previously mentioned, SEW research has recognized the common acceptance that SEW exists within family firms, and agreement regarding the types of components that likely contribute to it are abundant. While the SEWi scale would benefit from additional testing and potentially some refinements, this approach allows for meaningful progress to be made. Simultaneously, the development of better psychometric measures of actual SEW levels themselves remains under construction. Based on their own unique sets of interests, families may value the importance of different non-economic benefits to varying degrees (Chrisman et al., 2013) and it is the significance family members associate with certain SEW benefits that drive behaviors (Miller & Le Breton–Miller, 2014). Therefore, it may not be necessary to attempt to measure levels of SEW in the same ways in which we would try to measure something like economic wealth anyway (Debicki et al., 2016). Debicki et al. (2016) defined the construct as “the array of non-financial benefits specifically associated with the well-being and affective needs of family members that are derived from operating a business enterprise” (p.48). This perspective rationalizes that the endowment of SEW is best represented by the owner's preferences for certain benefits of SEW and the importance or value they attribute to the presence of them (Debicki et al., 2016).

Establishing paradigmatic solidness by exchanging in-house and root-metaphor assumptions with more coherent theoretical underpinnings would advance the theoretical

development of SEW by providing a means to increase its scientific legitimacy as an all-encompassing theory for family business research (Hasenzagl et al., 2018). One contribution to this end was using a problematization approach to identify gaps in the current SEW theoretical basis that may provide avenues for future research, which ideally will provide a means to enhance the robustness of the theory (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011). This technique was used by Hasenzagl et al. (2018) to identify several areas of assumption regarding SEW occurring at several levels within the theory. Hasenzagl et al. (2018) adopted a new systems theoretical understanding of SEW, which challenges researchers to analyze generalized statements about SEW's contributions to business outcomes such as decision-making behaviors in family business, to insure functional equivalents possibilities are included, so that these foundation pieces of knowledge align with the observer's "horizon of meaning." Hasenzagl et al. (2018) expressed optimism that using new systems to "capture the (potential) social complexity of family firms." (p. 200) could provide meaningful refinement, clarity, and transparency to the underpinnings of SEW that are currently obscure or left to open for interpretation. Successfully doing so could provide the necessary foundation for the establishment of SEW as the independent paradigm (Hasenzagl et al., 2018).

Upon reviewing over 400 articles from the first decade of SEW research, Jiang et al. (2018) approached SEW from yet another angle when they suggested applying a social psychological lens to viewing it. As noted in their paper, the concept is not entirely novel, since Gómez-Mejía et al. (2007) initially based part of the SEW theoretical concepts on social psychology; however, considering the limited amount of work from that viewpoint, research seems to have strayed from it (Jiang et al., 2018). Jiang and colleagues (2018) sought to rectify some of the deviation from this approach by reviewing past SEW studies from a multilevel

perspective to uncover what psychological arguments were already present in the literature.

Based on their review of past research, they offered a different approach to future research in this area and describe the rationale for it in the following way:

Focusing on family members in changing contexts accordingly allows social psychological approaches to explain why, how, and when family members' actual, imagined, or implied interactions through a firm they control induces individual and collective thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that lead to unique SEW phenomena. In this regard, our approach refocuses SEWs causal mechanisms on the family members that control a firm instead of assuming that family control affords family members the ability to have SEW. Thus, we hope to not only uncover implicit psychological arguments already embedded in the SEW literature but also demonstrate how better integration of psychological tenets can help further untangle and understand the locus and drivers of various SEW phenomena across different levels of analysis (p. 130).

Jiang et al. (2018) review identified many psychological precepts implicitly embedded within the current literature. Thus, to move the literature forward and ideally avoid the reification of SEW research, they recommend future SEW work to integrate psychological theories at different levels of analysis to the mix. This approach would not only help move the research forward but may also begin to better explain the complicated and nonobvious social phenomena that take place within family firms. The authors recommended outlining social, motivational, cognitive, affective, and behavior tenets as starting points towards this end.

Motivated by the desire for the field to advance more efficiently and effectively, Brigham and Payne (2019) voiced their concerns about several problematic areas of current SEW research in their Family Business review editorial. They echoed others' concerns regarding conceptional and empirical issues (Chua et al., 2015; Kellermanns et al., 2012; Miller & Le Breton-Miller, 2014; Schulze & Kellermanns, 2015) and outlined several questions they felt imperative to the development of SEW. Soon after, Swab et al. (2020) specifically sought to respond to the concerns raised in this piece. First, Swab et al. (2020) took a second pass at the original FIBER dimensions by reviewing past literature and determined that not all dimensions of FIBER

coexist, are the same, or have the same valence. They concluded that family control (F) and influence is necessary for SEW but not sufficient on its own, as was renewal (R) of family bonds through dynastic succession. If both factors were present, they believed it creates the *ability* for a firm to preserve SEW endowment.

Identity (I), binding ties (B), and emotional attachment (E) were found to be crucial to the presence of SEW. These three dimensions can exist independently of one another and were categorized as a *willingness* for SEW. The researchers concluded that they believe if both (F) and (R) ability factors are present, that they can be coupled with any individual or combination of the (I), (B), or (E) motivational factors to create SEW. The authors discussed other concerns raised in Brigham and Payne (2019), including if the construct itself is a uni- or multidimensional. Upon their review, since the FIBER dimensions do not seem to all be equal or necessary for the presence of SEW, they propose future research would be well served to specifically articulate which dimension(s) of SEW are being contributed to (e.g., identity or emotional attachment), rather than vaguely stating a contribution to SEW (Swab et al., 2020). Explicitly addressing the nuances of SEW would offer a meaningful way forward in the research.

While reliable ways to measure portions of SEW remain elusive, as tennis legend Arthur Ashe remarked, “Start where you are. Use what you have. Do what you can” (Kruse, 2014). Family business research has made some exciting progress in SEW since its introduction in 2007. Even with its shortcomings, SEW currently seems to be the most useful explanation we must distinguish family firms from non-family firms. This dissertation seeks to join others in the call to empirically investigate the micro-foundations of SEW by examining the relationship between the family climate as perceived by next-generation family members and their PO of the firm to better understand the nuclear family’s role in family business.

Recently, Sharma et al. (2020) reviewed five areas of psychology that appear to be promising areas of study to help propel our understanding of the causes and consequences of family behavior regarding SEW and the family business. Social psychology, cognitive psychology, developmental psychology, evolutionary psychology, and industrial organization psychology were all mentioned as areas that should be pursued, and many line up nicely with the dimensions of the Family Climate Scale (FCS) (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007) and PO (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004) of the firm. “We believe that much can be learned by taking seriously the “family” part of family firms (Bertrand & Schoar, 2006, p. 95). Research indicates family climate contributes significantly to successful business succession between one generation and the next (Morris et al., 1997), in addition to impacting things such as family business culture and performance of family firms (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007; Dyer, 1986). Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) attribute the “infusion of family values in the business culture” (p. 229) as the pivotal factor impacting a family business’s culture and performance, and calls to learn more about specific characteristics of a nuclear family, and how those unique family variables impact the business environment (Anglin et al., 2017; Astrachan, 2010; Bertrand & Schoar, 2006; Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007; Campopiano et al., 2017; Dyer Jr & Dyer, 2009; Evert et al., 2016; James et al., 2012; Jaskiewicz et al., 2017; Jaskiewicz & Dyer, 2017; Kammerlander & Breugst, 2019; Klein et al., 2005; Pieper, 2010; Sharma, 2004; Yu et al., 2012).

Ultimately, many researchers have not stated how their work informs SEW specifically, despite calling for further investigation of the psychological characteristics of the family system as a means to better understand the family business system. These calls often mirror those in the SEW literature, which too bid for further investigation of the micro or psychological foundations of the family system. If all family business theory related to the social endowment of business

family indeed is enfolded by the multidimensional SEW approach (Berrone et al., 2012), it would appear that, by default, much and perhaps all of the psychological level inquiries of the nuclear family system would be relevant to SEW.

The underlying theme of these calls for additional investigation of the family is that there is an echoed need to better understand topics related to the psychology of the family system because it is a means to better understand family business behavior or business system outcomes (Sharma et al., 2020). For instance, as of late, literature contributing to both Resource-Based View (RBV) and SEW have deemed micro-level understanding of the family system as essential.

Based on our knowledge of SEW to date, SEW is a fitting overarching theoretical framework for this dissertation. The next section will discuss the theoretical roots of PO, which serves as this dissertation's dependent variable.

Psychological Ownership

Business scholars are increasingly curious regarding the various underlying factors affecting family business outcomes and there is still much to learn about the micro-factors contributing to the family business. For instance, the influence of the business family's internal dynamics on family members adopting certain attitudes or feelings about the family business is still largely unexplored (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). A need for research focusing on family business development of ownership feeling, particularly in those who may become successors, has been expressed (Rau et al., 2019). In addition, Rau et al. (2019) identified a plethora of directions for research, including some of which pertains to this dissertation. That includes 1) learning more about how non-active family members may affect PO levels in CEO's or successors, 2) how influential family patterns of communication are in the development of PO,

3) what roles gender and sibling order might play in the development or maintenance of PO in next-generation family members, 4) how conflict could potentially impact the level of PO amongst family members, and 5) focusing on the family as an antecedent to the development of PO of the family business. Addressing these and other underexplored areas of the development of PO feelings towards the family firm, such as the role gender plays in their formation, could offer valuable insight into how family members can foster environments conducive to positive PO antecedents, as well as advance our knowledge of PO's role in both positive and negative family business outcomes.

Over a century's worth of research indicates that people begin to experience and exhibit ownership feelings over things, both material and immaterial, from a very young age (Burk, 1900; Furby, 1978a; Litwinski, 1942; Pierce et al., 2003). Those feelings are thought to be "part of the human condition" and to "have important consequences for the individual" (Pierce et al., 2003, p. 5), at least for those socialized in a Western Heritage (Pierce et al., 2003). However, cultural and social factors can influence how people relate to their material possessions (Dittmar, 1992). A person feeling ownership over ideas, places, people, possessions, or any target in which they comes to view as "theirs," they have described a reflections of the relationship between the individual and the target (Litwinski, 1942; Pierce et al., 2003). Like others (Dittmar, 1992; Furby, 1978a, 1978b; Pierce et al., 2001), I view feelings of ownership, ownership feelings, and feelings of possession as interchangeable concepts and have used them as such in this dissertation.

As people develop close connections to objects or ideas, they begin to experience them as a part of their person or an extension of themselves (Dittmar, 1992; Pierce et al., 2003). These feelings can be experienced regardless of any real legal claim to the target; however, it is

possible for people to legally own a target but never bond with it in such a way that they would claim it as their own (Pierce et al., 2003). Feelings of PO can be felt at both an individual (e.g., “That was my idea.”) or collective (e.g., “Our team won the series!”) level. (Pierce & Jussila, 2010; Pierce et al., 2003).

Brown et al. (2014, p. 319) approached defining the concept in the form of a self-reflective inquiry when they wrote, “Simply put, PO poses and responds to the question: What do I feel is mine and a part of me?” According to Ozler et al. (2008), PO both cognitive and emotional components and has been defined as “a cognitive and emotive attachment between the individual and the object, which in turn influences our self-perception and conduct” (p.38).

Over time, as people mature and experience more complex relationships between what does and does not belong to them, feelings of ownership likely change or evolve as well (Pierce et al., 2003). While we still do not fully understand why individuals develop feelings of ownership, researchers have explored their development through natural biological lens or nature lens (Burk, 1900; Hall & Wiltse, 1891; Kline & France, 1899; Pierce et al., 2003; Porteous, 1976), a socialized or nurture lens (Furby, 1978a; Litwinski, 1942; Pierce et al., 2003; Seligman, 1975), or from somewhat of a combination of the two through the sociobiological perspective (Dittmar, 1992; Pierce et al., 2003).

Having had conceptually reviewed the literature, Pierce et al. (2003), like Dittmar (1992), suggests the combined roles of biology and social experience impact how people relate to their possessions. Based on their analysis, Pierce et al. (2003) outlined several “roots and routes” to better define how a person develops PO of a target and what purposes they can serve the individual.

Roots of Psychological Ownership

“Roots” of PO developed at least in part due to “three human motives: (a) efficacy and effectance, (b) self-identity, and (c) having a place” (Pierce et al., 2003, p. 8).

Effectance. Effectance represents the motives one has to interact effectively with their environment, and the ability to do so through the exploration and control of targets can offer feelings of efficacy and pleasure (Pierce et al., 2003; White, 1959).

Self-identity. Self -identity is often developed and expressed through the ownership and manipulation of various targets (Dittmar, 1992). Possessions can provide a sense of security to the owner, signal messages about oneself to others, and reinforce internal thoughts and beliefs about oneself (Dittmar, 1992; Pierce et al., 2003; Swenson, 1998). Possessions and how people derive meaning from them often serve as conduits for individuals to create and maintain senses of personal identity (Belk, 1988; Gentry et al., 1995). They may reinforce characteristics such as social position, attitudes, or personal qualities and can provide context for one’s past, present, and future (Dittmar, 1991). Dittmar (1991, p. 166) noted, “...the ways in which people relate to their possessions can be seen as reflections of how they view themselves and relate to their social and physical environment.” Thus, it seems likely that an important motivation for PO is grounded at least in part in knowing, understanding, expressing, and maintaining one’s self-identity (Belk, 1988; Gentry et al., 1995; Pierce et al., 2003). People can find comfort from being surrounded by cherished possessions, even if they have moved from one location to another (Belk, 1991; Swenson, 1998), and people sometimes use them as a way to make themselves “symbolically larger” (Belk, 1988), as well as an anchor to the past, extending one’s sense of self from the past into the present (Belk, 1988, 1991).

Since people can view possessions as an extension of themselves, losing them can feel

like a loss or “diminishment” of themselves (Belk, 1988; Zhang et al., 2021) Belk (1991) underscored that the collection and preservation of possessions could be motivated by numerous reasons, such as ascertaining prestige through a link to certain targets, providing an association to one’s personal history, or establishing an association with an event. In other words, people use targets to establish, anchor, and project meaning of ourselves. “But perhaps the most general underlying motive for acquiring and possessing objects that provide a sense of past is that such possessions are instrumental to knowing who we are. Without a demonstrable past, without the ability to remember where we’ve been, without some proof of our history, we don’t know who we are and cannot forecast or plan where we’re going. We are likely to feel at least a little like those amnesiacs or victims of Alzheimer’s disease who have been alienated from life by being alienated from their pasts” (Belk, 1991).

Having a place. Having a place to call “home” is thought to be important to people for several reasons, however past research has investigated a plethora of meanings for “home” (Després, 1991). Some scholars believe that homo sapiens have territorial needs the same as many other species, which allows them to establish an area of space as their own. This space helps provide them identity, mental and physical security, and stimulation. (Porteous, 1976). Place attachment has often been used as a term to describe the concept of home (Gustafson, 2001; Windsong, 2010); however, people bond to places other than their home as well (Gasson et al., 1988; Low, 1992).

“Place attachment is the symbolic relationship formed by people giving culturally shared emotional/affective meanings to a particular space or piece of land that provides the basis for the individual’s and group’s understanding of and relation to the environment (Low, 1992, p. 165).” While adults tend to refer to spatial and social control as attributes of the home, children often

describe it as a place to feel security or safety and have freedom of action (Després, 1991; Robinson & Kelley, 1998). The personalization of the space derived through the adornments within and around are often used to reflect one's ideas and values (Després, 1991; Swenson, 1998), and the displayed persona can be recognized by others (Porteous, 1976). Homes can reinforce one's sense of self and self-identity (Belk, 1988; Swenson, 1998) and the outward expression of using the home to convey messages about the inhabitants reinforces feelings of security and identity for them (Porteous, 1976). "Home" can offer inhabitants a place of refuge, belonging, and can be experienced in the context of memories or shared experiences and relationships with other people (Després, 1991). Bruner (1987, p. 25) compared home to the outside world as "...a place that is inside, private, forgiving, intimate, predictably safe. 'The real world' is outside, demanding, anonymous, open, unpredictable, and consequently dangerous." Swenson (1998, p. 382) described it as "...a secure haven, a refuge that draws you back, no matter where you go or how long you have been away."

Older adults sharing stories about days gone by often illuminate their identity in the context of their "home" (Shenk et al., 2004). In their qualitative study of elderly women seeking to understand the meaning of home, Swenson (1998) identified three major patterns amongst the participants: "(1) home is the center of self, (2) home is the center of caring, and (3) home is the center of reach" (p. 384.) For the women in the study, "home" provided a space to create and control. It is a place to nurture families and reinforce behavioral expectations, serve as a starting point for activities outside of the home, and reinforce their sense of identity, usefulness and being needed, and feelings of independence and autonomy in the world (Swenson, 1998).

"Home" is a space where the inhabitants can live by their own rules, preferences, customs, and belief systems (Després, 1991). The Bible offers a clear example of someone

establishing the rule of their home despite what others around them were doing when Joshua asked the people of Israel to make a choice about what god they shall serve and boldly declaring, "...but as for me and my house, we will serve the Lord." (Joshua 24:15 King James Version).

The feelings "home" elicit in people can be complex and are not always positive. Blunt and Varley (2004, p. 3) describe the polar experiences "home" can produce, depending on personal experiences, in the following way:

As a space of belonging and alienation, intimacy and violence, desire and fear, the home is invested with meanings, emotions, experiences and relationships that lie at the heart of human life. Geographies of home are both material and symbolic and are located on thresholds between memory and nostalgia for the past, everyday life in the present, and future dreams and fears.

Porteous (1976) points out that "home" can extend beyond the confines of an actual structure and include whole neighborhoods or geographic areas, and the meaning of "home" is often laden in emotion. Musicians like Lynyrd Skynyrd, John Mellencamp, Michael Bubl , John Denver, Simon and Garfunkel, Tim McGraw, Phillip Phillips, and Ozzy Osborn have produced billboard hits through their musical expressions of longings for "home." Lyrical references to "home" span from actual residences to whole regions, states, and beyond but ultimately convey the desire to return to a place that provides feelings including but not limited to familiarity, warmth, and safety. Perhaps the popularity of these songs with listeners can be explained by the comfort individuals find in listening to music as a coping mechanism, such as when they choose to listen to sad music when they are working to process sad feelings (Porteous, 1976; Van den Tol et al., 2016).

Possessions within or around a home in which an individual identifies with or has invested in emotionally reinforce the feeling of "home" (Porteous, 1976). The experiences of routine in daily life, physical investment through maintenance and housework, monetary

investment, and experiencing cyclical or seasonal celebrations at home help establish routines that are so familiar they can often be taken for granted by those who experience them (Després, 1991). People become emotionally invested in homes or possessions and have reported that when “home” is damaged or lost, it can be a personal and even traumatic experience (Belk, 1991), even if what’s lost is not physically owned by them (Farrar, 2009). When New Orleanians were asked about what they had lost to hurricane Katrina, many reported feeling they lost a piece of themselves when their city and the surrounding region was devastated by the massive storm (Farrar, 2009). Katherine Mansfield artfully describes this feeling of leaving pieces of oneself behind when she wrote, “How hard it is to escape from places! However carefully one goes they hold you—you leave bits of yourself fluttering on fences—little rags and shreds of your very life” (Baker, 1971). In a business setting, employees with high PO of the firm can experience a sense of personal loss when leaving an organization, and therefore are less likely to do so than those who do not (Zhang et al., 2021).

Routes of Psychological Ownership

When the three motives or “roots” of PO (efficacy and effectance, self-identity, and having a place or home) are fulfilled through feelings of ownership, they become catalysts for the formation of PO (Pierce et al., 2003). Beyond that, the “routes” individuals travel can inhibit or enhance the formation of PO. The experiences believed to be significant predecessors of PO include controlling the target or object, coming to know the target intimately, and self-investment into the target (Pierce et al., 2003). Additionally, in a recent study, “safety” was proposed as an additional route in which ownership feelings for targets may develop (Zhang et al., 2021).

Control is often a central feeling of ownership, and the things a person exercises the

most control over are more likely to be perceived as their own by the individual (Furby, 1978a; Pierce et al., 2003). As mentioned previously, the control, use, or engagement with something by an individual can reinforce feelings of those targets coming to be felt as “a part of the person” (Furby, 1978a; Pierce et al., 2003). Individuals sometimes develop ownership feelings over items that do not or cannot belong to them, such as when one sits in the same spot in a park or restaurant during every visit. They may come to view this spot as “theirs” and can even feel upset when someone else is sitting there when they want to use it. (Cleroux & Friedman, 2020). It appears even tiny amounts of control over a target can give way to ownership feelings. For instance, in a study focused on consumer behavior, Peck and Shu (2009) found that feelings of ownership increased in participants who were asked to merely touch, imagine, or touch and imagine themselves owning specific retail objects. The process of imagining ownership of the items increased the participant’s ownership feelings for them and increased their perceived value of the objects. (Peck & Shu, 2009). In organizational settings, autonomy (Pierce et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2021), transformational leadership (Ghafoor et al., 2011), and perceived power (Pierce et al., 2004) were found to enhance employees’ perceived control and thus, PO feelings, at work (Zhang et al., 2021).

Knowing a target or developing an intimate relationship with it can also be a channel for which PO feelings thrive (Pierce et al., 2003). People tend to invest more time and effort into caring for items they have ownership feelings for and view as extensions of themselves. Homeowners often conduct routine maintenance and updates to their homes more often when they have invested mental or emotional energy into them (Belk, 1987; Belk, 1988). The same study indicated the frequency in which 19–28-year-old male car owners wash, wax, and perform maintenance highly correlates with the automobile’s significance to the owners’ extended self.

People tend to engage less in caring for property that is no longer new or in as good of shape as it once was.

Time is a factor that seems to help enhance feelings of PO via knowing the target. Employees who have spent a significant amount of time working for an organization and have become familiar with it, other employees, and a job itself often experience enhanced feelings of PO of the firm (Zhang et al., 2021). Access to knowledge about a target, through individual learning or from information shared by others, also positively enhances PO through this antecedent. (Zhang et al., 2021).

Investing oneself into a target is another route for feelings of PO to develop (Pierce et al., 2001, 2003). This sort of investment can manifest through numerous channels, such as through the investment of time, labor, energy, or creativity (Pierce et al., 2003). As people personally invest in targets, they begin to view them as reflections or extensions of themselves and often develop ownership feelings, emotions, and responsibility for them (Pierce et al., 2003). Employees often derive a sense of ownership for their work or things at work due to their time investments, opportunity cost, and devoted efforts there (Chi & Han, 2008; Zhang et al., 2021). In addition to personal investments, individuals can be imparted with investment based on their participation, such as when stock ownership programs are in place, and employee's compensation for their investments includes shares of the business. Both employee-driven investments and organization-driven investments have increased PO feelings for some groups (Zhang et al., 2021).

Although each route has distinct characteristics, controlling, knowing, and investing in targets seem to be somewhat intertwining bodies. For instance, "place attachment" to a natural resource, such as a local park, can be enhanced through investing time in caring for it.

Individuals actively contributing to the care for a natural resource are believed to behave in more environmentally responsible ways (Vaske & Kobrin, 2001). Investing time working in the park would support an opportunity to get to know it better; and caring for the property by performing upkeep, raising funds for it, or picking up trash could also offer a sense of “control” for the individual. Many studies have identified family farmers’ place attachment to have evolved from multiple channels (Cheshire et al., 2013). Interestingly, while the precursors are clearly defined, they seem to be supportive of one another too.

In their meta-analysis reviewing the antecedents and outcomes of PO, (Zhang et al., 2021) proposed and found support for the addition of *safety* to the previously discussed classical routes of PO. They employed the definition of safety offered by Kahn (1990, p. 708) “ feeling able to show and employ oneself without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career.” They found support for organizational justice, trust, perceived organization support, and relational closeness as being positively related to people building ownership feelings via this route.

Figure 1.1

Routes to PO adapted from (Zhang et al., 2021, p. 3)

Control	Investment	Knowing	Safety
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Transformational Leadership •Attonomy •Perceived Power 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Employee-Driven Investment •Organizational Driven Investment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Organizational Tenure •Information Accessibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Organizational Justice •Trust •Percieved Organizational Support •Relational Closeness

Additional factors that may influence the emergence of PO were discussed in Pierce et al. (2003). They identified factors not previously discussed that likely influence the development of PO feelings. They expect PO’s potential to develop to be dependent on the target and the

individual and that situational forces can strongly influence their formation. They enlarged their discussion of the PO roots and routes by reviewing ways targets, individual factors, processes, and context can contribute to developing feelings of PO, which is briefly discussed next.

To expand the discussion of the roots and routes to PO, Pierce et al. (2003) included specific *target* attributes which may influence the process. For instance, targets may not be able to satisfy the three roots of PO and may possess the capacity to accelerate or block the route, which would likely impact PO development. This could play out in several ways, with one example being the target's receptiveness to being owned. Unreceptive or unavailable targets would hinder an individual's ability to develop a sense of "home" in it, where targets with greater capacity or availability might be able to foster or advance the feeling.

Individual factors may serve to influence the likelihood for PO to form. A person's motives can vary in strength, both across time and more basically at the individual level. Personality is also thought to be a factor. Extroverts, for example, may prefer to pursue targets through social means to a higher degree than that of introverts. Another example of individual characteristics likely to impact the development of PO could be a person's level of "openness to experience," since those who are more open may consider a broader range of possible targets compared to a less open person. One last example is the importance placed on owning the target. If the target can serve to boost self-evaluation or esteem, it may increase the individual's desire to possess it.

Context. Context is another means by which the formation of PO could be influenced. Structural and cultural aspects are two that seem likely to influence PO formation. *Structurally*, things such as hierarchy, rules, norms, and laws could alter the development of PO feelings. Obstructions to the routes associated with PO likely reduce motives related to establishing

ownership feelings. For instance, a structure inhibiting ones' ability to control or invest in a target would likely limit their development of ownership feelings for it.

Cultural aspects. Cultural aspects could also significantly impact the formation of PO. Additional discussion related to culture is presented in the “gender” section of this dissertation; however, Pierce et al. (2003) used Hofstede (1980a) definition to frame culture in this research as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes members of one human group from another” (p. 25). Two reasons contribute to the idea that culture is likely impactful forming of PO of a target. First, as mentioned previously, individual concept of self or identity is closely related to the formation of PO. Additionally, both individual concept of self and identity are somewhat influenced by society and culture (Hofstede, 1980b, 1998).

Additionally, PO is thought to be somewhat of a learned behavior transmitted to others through socialization, another culturally derived factor. Culture is influential to an individual's perceptions regarding things like forming self-concept and values. For example, the value placed on something like land ownership imposes specific criteria regarding self-expression. These influential perceptions are informed by the culture the individual lives within or desire to be associated with. A society's culture is transposed through traditions, customs, norms, and beliefs, each having the capacity to influence PO formation. Upon closer examination, Pierce asserted one's culture likely impacts every element of the PO framework. For instance, the perceived value associated with possessing certain attributes or targets varies between people and groups due to their culturally derived set of preferences (Pierce et al., 2003), for instance, some cultures value individualism, while others are more group centric (Davis & Williamson, 2019; Santos et al., 2017).

PO can be assessed at the individual level (Dirks et al., 1996; Hillenbrand & Money,

2015; Jussila et al., 2015) and collective, group, and organizational level (Heino et al., 2019; Pierce & Jussila, 2010; Pierce et al., 2018). Although collective PO has been observed in the literature, it is important to note that ownership feelings have to manifest on an individual level in order for them to exist at the group level (Pierce et al., 2018). Moreover, individuals may feel individual ownership within an organization without feeling a sense of collective ownership with their colleagues (Dawkins et al., 2017).

Adding to the original roots and routes of PO, the situational factors discussed in this section appear to have the potential for informing this study's outcomes. For instance, society and culture inform the meanings and inferences we have regarding gender roles and attributes. Individuals often glean much of their customary attributes and behaviors regarding gender from their families during day-to-day activities. Additional elements likely to influence when and how PO develops in next-generation family members were also discussed. Many appear to overlap the hypothesized relationships found at the end of this chapter. Thus, a more lengthy discussion of situational factors is included within the hypothesis formation section.

PO and Family Business

Although the theory of PO is well established within the organizational research literature, family business researchers have been slower to integrate it within their literature (Henssen et al., 2014). Research emphasizing PO in family firms remains relatively unexplored, particularly in next-generation family members, and of the published work in this realm, few are empirical in nature. Despite the modest representation of the theory within the literature, a review of the related family business and PO theory research indicates researchers widely assume PO to be influential for family businesses (Henssen et al., 2014). Additionally, some

scholars have named the theory a promising choice to advance our knowledge regarding the psychological factors affecting family businesses (Kraus et al., 2011; Rau et al., 2019).

A summary of the research on PO in family firms is listed in Table 2.1. several methods were used to assimilate this list. First, a search on Google Scholar using keywords such as psychological ownership, PSO, PO, feelings of ownership, ownership feelings, family business, family firms, family enterprise, next-generation, NEXTGEN, successors, offspring, sons, daughters, children, and heirs was completed. Next, database searches available through UNC Charlotte's J. Murrey Atkins Library, accessing ABI/INFORM Collection, Business Source Complete, and WorldCat were done.

Table 2.1

PO Research Findings Within Family Business Literature

Source	Sample	Method	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Theoretical Perspective	Key Findings
Broekaert et al. (2018)	15 family owners and non-family managers in five family firms	Qualitative	PO	Motivation	Psychological framework	Promoting PO in non-family managers is not enough to motivate them. A strong sense of PO can both help and hinder. A strong sense of PO in non-family managers can create issues with the family's desire to maintain control, and the employee's desired to have more control. Being a part of the business family does not automatically translate into being a psychological owner.
Ceja and Tàpies (2011)	20 2 nd to 4 th next-generation family members in Spanish Family-owned firms	Qualitative mixed methods	PO	Assumption of responsibility, commitment, pride, enthusiasm, caring, and protective behaviour of the family business, refusal to share, feelings of pressure or stress, resistance to change.	Succession	Authors believe next-generation family members often have strong levels of PO. Shared experiences, family climate, psychological empowerment, owning shares, healthy governance, structured and planned entry, psychological empowerment, owning shares. Proposed model.
Heino et al. (2019)	Next-generation family members.	Theoretical	Individual PO	Commitment to the family business.	Succession	Individual PO can result in positive and negative outcomes. Authors propose Collective PO (CPO) as a means to overcome negative issues stemming from PO.
Hensen et al. (2011)	Individuals who own and manage a family business.	Theoretical	PO and actual ownership	Ownership behaviours	Agency theory and RBV	Authors suggest ownership feelings are pivotal to understanding family business, and ownership behaviours are key indicators for family involvement.
Ikävalko et al. (2008)	150 owner-managers in S.E.Finland, including some of next-generation family	Quantitative	PO	Concept of family business	Familiness	Propose there is a social dimension, action dimension, and object dimension to PO and family business characteristics.

	members.						
López-Vergara and Botero (2015)	20 - 2nd or 3rd generation family firm shareholders with firm involvement	Qualitative, exploratory	Non-economic goals and stewardship behaviours	Formation of PO	Socio-emotional wealth	Non-economic goals engage an individual sense of responsibility in next-generation shareholders that contributes to the development of PO.. This responsibility stimulates shareholders to control, learn about, and devote time to the business.	
Mahto et al. (2014)	Next-generation family members	Conceptual	PO theory and a new concept of PO consideration set	Successor's commitment and turnover intentions	Succession	The development of PO of other targets (s) may conflict with their attachment to the family firm; this may influence their turnover intention and commitment to the firm.	
Mustafa et al. (2015)	80 family owners/managers and non-family employees from 40 small overseas Chinese family businesses	Quantitative	Organizational based PO and job-based PO	Extra-role behaviours	Family firm continuity	Job-related PO was significantly related to two extra-role behaviours, and organizational PO was significantly related to one extra-role behaviour.	
Rau et al. (2019)	1 st , 2 nd , and 3 rd generation family members from 942 German firms.	Conceptual	Generation in Family Firm	Innovation output	Family business sustainability	PO positively moderates the relationship between generations in the family firm and innovation	
Ramos et al. (2014)	101 family and non-family employees from 20 firms in China	Quantitative	PO	Extra-role behaviours and work engagement	Social identity and stewardship theories	PO related to the organization vs. the job affects extra-role behaviours and work engagement, and family status moderates the relationship between PO and the vigour aspect of work engagement.	

The original goal was to include only articles with next-generation family members in the sample; however, despite the literature encompassing a plethora of psychologically related topics, there were few overall results directly related to the dissertation topic. The initial search criteria were limited to family business research focused on next-generation family members and citing PO as a dependent variable. This search yielded one qualitative study comprised of 20 participants. Therefore, the search criteria were expanded to include samples where others besides next-generation-family members might be represented, which produced one additional qualitative piece. This study was small and had just 15 respondents who were either business owners or non-family managers. Only a few were next-generation family members.

The number of terms used in family business literature to describe family business and next-generation family members is vast. Having confidence that the search was exhausted after returning only two articles was difficult considering the numerous combinations of terms there were to include. To ensure research methods and results were correct, I met with UNC Charlotte's social sciences and business librarian for assistance, who confirmed my research was accurate. I continued to broaden my search within family business research as a whole. The research listed was chosen without regard for the type of PO being studied and excluded informative related research, such as that focused on ownership feelings or commitment, that did not specifically discuss psychological ownership.

Table 2.2 illustrates the characteristics of the results my search yielded. Only four of the studies were focused exclusively on next-generation family members, and I was unable to identify any that sampled next-generation family members regardless of their involvement in the family business. I found only one study positioned within the SEW framework; however, it appears several others would be informative to it as well.

Table 2.2*Characteristic of the PO Research in Family Business*

	Qualitative	Quantitative	Theoretical/Conceptual
Number of Articles	3	3	4
Sample focus: next-generation family members	2		2
Sample focus: mix may include founder and next-generation family members	1	1	2
Sample focus: mix includes non-family and next-generation family members	1	2	
PO - IV	2	3	2
PO - DV	1		
PO- mediator/moderator			2

Rantanen and Jussila (2011) seek to clarify the nature and outcomes derived from the fusion of family and business systems by offering their theory of Collective PO specifically aimed at Family Over Business (F-CPO) as a distinct explanation for the family and business bond. They define F-CPO as “the collectively held possessive sense (feeling) among members of a family that a particular business (as a tangible and intangible possession) belongs to the family as a whole and is an extension of that family” (p. 142). They believe within family businesses; members of the family system collectively hold possessive feelings towards the business and that the business encompasses the tangible and intangible dimensions in addition to the social systems associated with it. They theorized the family unit and family business interactions have the potential to satisfy many roots and routes of collective PO, including the need for a family home and stimulation, self-identity, collective social identity, collective control, and collective preservation of themselves (Rantanen & Jussila, 2011).

In my review of the contributing factors related to developing PO, I elaborated on the topic of “home” and the formation of one’s identity more than others. Youth learn a great deal

about their culture and customs from family members at home (Hofstede, 1980a). Since the family and business systems within family businesses overlap to a great extent, next-generation business family members likely glean a great deal about both the cultures of their family and the family business during daily family activity and discussion.

As noted previously, emersion in such an environment likely opens multiple potential avenues for ownership feelings of the family business to develop in next-generation family members. Kepner (1983) framed this feeling with the following description, "...the firm is a part of the psychological if not the actual environment of the family. It is always a "third party" that is carried around in the minds of people in the family system" (p. 65). A female next-generation family member alluded to these feelings when asked how she came to take over the family business: "First of all, I was *born* in the family business" (Brundin et al., 2013, p. 25). Other next-generation family member's descriptions of their thoughts or psychological framing of the family business, derived from early exposure to it, include: "the business was like part of the furniture at home, it was always there," "We learned to work and to shoulder our responsibilities from a very young age," and "The business was in my blood. I was always around the business from a very young age. I played there, then I went to work there" (Dumas, 1998, p. 224). Beginning early in childhood, many next-generation family members are groomed for succession through a positive introduction and socialization with the business, (Bloemen-Bekx et al., 2019; Brundin et al., 2013; Ceja & Tàpies, 2011; Dumas, 1998; Houshmand et al., 2017). The accounts of the feelings developed about the family business speak to this type of early introduction the business. Small children may begin their education at home through the exposure of "grown-up" conversation regarding the business at meals or other times, by working part-time in the business during their school years (Bloemen-Bekx et al., 2019; Dumas, 1998), or through visits to the

business (Dumas, 1998) throughout their childhood. These events appear to be particularly influential when the individual's parents are the business founders (Dumas, 1998).

During this early initiation stage, participants reported learning what values, decisions, experiences, behaviors, and relationships were important to the family. Using the participants response taken from Dumas (1998) who referenced being “born into the business,” the experience of long-term training and education, family influence, role modeling, and support were important to the her desire to be involved with the company. If the young woman's experiences contributed positively to her identification with the family business, she was more likely to be involved with it later in her life (Dumas, 1998). Additionally, her experiences parallel several roots and routes to PO, which implies a greater chance that she will develop PO of the family business.

I have yet to discuss how *routines* may contribute to PO, but they too are closely associated with many of the roots and routes of PO in literature. Suddaby and Jaskiewicz (2020) argued in their editorial that “traditions are the foundational element of successful family businesses.” (p. 235). They believe creating, maintaining, and passing down traditions to subsequent generations correlates with family business success and longevity. Traditions have been attributed to helping families build SEW (Brinkerink & Bammens, 2018). Since many family routines are established in the home and can act as mechanisms to reinforce identity and SEW, it is worthwhile to mention since the family and business systems often overlap one another significantly.

Research on family routines has suggested strong and supportive bonds develop between generations when they regularly participate in activities such as eating dinner, celebrating, and practicing family traditions together. In turn, these activities can improve family dynamics,

contribute to a strong family identity, and foster supportive relationships, even during crisis events (Reay, 2019). Reay (2019) goes further to suggest that family routines may influence family business outcomes. They believe the way next-generation family members perceive behaviors like support and psychological control from their parents affects their feelings of self-efficacy and commitment to the business. Thus, families with more flexible routines, or ones where children are encouraged to modify them as they become older, will likely have a stronger sense of self-efficacy and commitment to the family business than those who perceive family routines as more ridged (Reay, 2019). Efficacy has been established as an expected element of PO (Avey et al., 2009; Pierce et al., 2003), and PO has been found to influence employee organizational commitment (Mayhew et al., 2007; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Vandewalle et al., 1995) as well as affective commitment (Liu et al., 2012; Mayhew et al., 2007; Sieger et al., 2011). Like many studies of commitment, Reay's work does not specifically discuss or measure PO, but due to the role it plays in developing feelings like efficacy and commitment, a close examination of these works suggests its silent presence. Like organizational commitment, other theories possessing psychological components likely informs this research as well. The next section includes such examples.

Research Informative to the Study of PO in Next-Generation Family Members

Björnberg and Nicholson (2012) sought to understand the determinants of a next-generation family member's relationship with the family firm, regardless of what stage of succession they were in. They also sought to identify what underlying psychological components contributed to this relationship. Through a quantitative study of family members from 8 firms (Nicholson & Björnberg, 2007), they first identified what they refer to as "Emotional

Ownership,” which is a theory that includes elements of PO and similar theory in next-generation family members and was established specifically for application in family business studies. They named the theory “Emotional Ownership” after noticing respondents frequently used both of the words within the same sentences during their interviews. “This combination of words conveyed a sense of ownership that was a matter of sentiment, associated with belongingness and attachment beyond the monetary significance of the ownership bond, in which the family had a central role” (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012, p. 381).

Based on the interviews, the authors developed propositions and conducted a quantitative survey to advance their theory. That resulted in the identification of some believed antecedents and the development of a measurable scale for the theory. The initial qualitative study illuminated responses focused on two main topics that they highlight and build on: emotions associated with being a part of the business or “attachment,” and the overlap and gap between the self and the family business system, or “social identification.” They examined these two emotions and their relationship with being a part of the family business, which seemed to derive from ownership status (or lack thereof), in particular (Nicholson & Björnberg, 2007).

Interview participants often simultaneously discussed their emotional attachment to the firm by labeling it with a degree of closeness or detachment from it; however, the common thread was the presence of an emotional bond to the firm. Interviewees used language such as emotional ties, emotional attachment, belonging, inclusion, involvement, distance, exclusion, and removed to give meaning to the degree of emotional attachment. The participants rarely discussed the financial value of ownership; and when they did, it was minor compared to the emotional value the relationship afforded. Often respondents described their ownership of the firm as “sentimental value” or other nonmonetary terms, regardless of the actual size of the

wealth. Actual share ownership does not seem to be a requirement for emotional bonds to the firm to form, and participants exhibiting high degrees of emotional connectedness without actual ownership stake serve to reinforce this belief (Nicholson & Björnberg, 2007).

Björnberg and Nicholson (2012) conclude that the overlap and gap between the interviewees and the family business system appear to have been important to the formation of their personal identities. It was clear that the participants' definition of self was shaped by having grown up in the business. Their narratives were interwoven with family history and their relationships with others, often citing parent/child relationships. Discussion about the family business often overlapped those of childhood memories, describing it by using words such as: "history," "future," "second home," "ownership reflects the way we were brought up" to express this relationship. Participants reflected on how the business was a central part of their upbringing, and their description of this idea was often laden with emotion. Sometimes business was conducted in the family home itself, and participants reflected on being actively involved in the business from the time they were old enough to answer phones or operate machinery. Björnberg and Nicholson (2012) found close connections between relationships with family appeared to provide space for next-generation family members to develop feelings of attachment to the firm.

Participants often discussed their identity in terms of the overlap of themselves and the family business. They used language like: "we are clones," "overidentify with the business," "my dad/my family is the business," "hard to separate," "intrusive," "personal," "no clear differentiation," "more than me," "it's we rather than me," to describe this overlap of identification of the business with their personal identification. Based on this study, the authors theorized that "...perceptions of ownership are cognitively and emotionally interwoven with the

process of forming and maintaining an identity based on belongingness to a social group” (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012, p. 379), with the social group being the family business. The authors noted participants sense of belongingness or disassociation to the social group seemed to be influenced by the cohesion and attachment dynamics between members of the family, and that both current family members and a shared history with previous generations was influential to the forming of their identity and thus, ownership perceptions of the firm.

Based on what they learned, they examined two criteria, attachment and social identification, which they felt had emerged as key contributors in shaping an individual’s relationship with the family firm. There is substantial support in the literature that attachment has a significant bearing on attitudes, behaviors, and emotions within the organizational context; however, few have attempted to study it from a perspective within a family business setting where workers are intrinsically linked with the organization through ownership (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012). In addition, little work has been done with regard to how social relationships affect an individual’s identification with an organization.

While closely related to PO and other “not-so-distant-cousins,” such as social identification and affective organizational commitment, the authors identified “Emotional Ownership” as a distinctive concept based on nuances, they felt attributed to the bond between individuals and organizations in the *family business context*. They indicate EO’s blend of attachment and identification with a business, and a better understanding of the psychological process of the individual encompassed in that bond contribute to our current understanding of the psychological aspects related to a family firm’s effective endowments or SEW. The key to the differentiation between EO and similar theories is the exclusion of possession from their definition.

“Emotional ownership is a cognitive and affective state of association that describes a (young) family member’s attachment to and identification with their family business” (Nicholson & Björnberg, 2008, p. 4). EO connotes the overlapping boundaries between the individual, and the social entity of the family business, with feelings of attachment being formed to the firm, *though the proxy of relationships with significant others*. The authors credit this distinction to be the differentiator between their EO theory and that of both affective organizational commitment and PO.

The Björnberg and Nicholson (2012) qualitative study aimed to create a measurable scale of EO based on the core competencies of attachment and identification. The team developed five propositions to test their understanding of the relationship of each antecedent to emotional ownership in next-generation family members. The first proposition directly evaluated the relationship between family climate and the EO of next-generation family members using a truncated version of the FCS. The remaining four propositions evaluated the possibility of family governance, fair process of integration into the business, group support from out-group members, and individual support from both within and outside of the family business as antecedents of EO in next-generation family members.

Upon reviewing the quantitative data, Björnberg and Nicholson (2012) conclude EO is conceptionally viable, measurable, and important. Their research was meant to inform questions surrounding the intergenerational survival of family businesses and reported: “some degree of EO is necessary but not a sufficient condition for the continuance of the family firm.” (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2008, p. 385). Non-owners may possess high levels of EO, just as owners may have little to no attachment or identification to the firm. Family members lacking attachment or identification with the business while serving in managerial roles are likely to insufficiently

overcome business challenges, which may lead to business failure. They conclude EO originates from the family and is shaped by the family climate. Thus, the model and concept of EO contributes to our knowledge of the creation of “familiness,” or rather, social capital, as it empirically sheds light on micro-level components of the creation and maintenance of family firm-specific resources across generations.

Björnberg and Nicholson (2012) report their work as having identified strong support for family climate and governance to contribute to EO; however, they suggest further empirical work on the observable outcomes of EO is needed to better discriminate the nuances distinguishing EO and other related constructs.

The work of (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012) offers thought-provoking insights into how the family climate contributes to next-generation family members’ development of ownership feelings towards the family business via a proxy of relationships with others. As noted by the authors, emotional ownership appears to carry many closely related or overlapping attributes to that of PO and affective commitment while excluding actual ownership of the family firm. This work not only helps us better understand some of the underlying psychological mechanisms in next-generation family members but also points to additional research areas ripe for exploration, including the role each dimension of the family climate plays in PO of the family business and how those roles may play out differently depending on the gender of the next-generation family member, which is precisely the focus of this dissertation.

Another informative piece by Ceja and Tàpies (2011) qualitatively explored the origins, manifestations and transmissions, and PO of 20 Spanish next-generation family members through an interpretative phenomenological and ethnographic analysis. They had reviewed the similar concept of EO (Nicholson & Björnberg, 2008); however, they identified a need to

specifically seek a better understanding of PO in next-generation family members, since strong, positive bonds to the family business are vital to many firm outcomes, including survival (Ceja & Tàpies, 2011). Consistent with Björnberg and Nicholson (2008)'s assertion that next-generation family members experience high levels of emotional and cognitive attachment in the family firm, they determined most of their participants experienced high levels of PO of their respective family firms as well. Upon examining the testimonials of their participants, they found PO to be transmitted across generations via “special relationships” with senior family members, and through the family climate, with the family climate appearing to be especially consequential to the development of ownership feelings in next-generation family members.

A relationship *based on trust* with a senior family member seemed to be influential for those citing this factor as contributing to their ownership feelings for the firm. The respondents who expressed this often viewed this person as a mentor. In addition, shared experiences, governance structures, owning shares of the business, and feeling informed or knowledgeable about the family firm were all important factors for developing positive and robust levels of PO towards the family firm, which the authors referred to as “Positive Psychological Ownership” (Ceja & Tàpies, 2011).

In addition to the factors they identified as likely contributors to building PO of the family business in next-generation family members, were ones they referred to as “Negative Psychological Ownership,” that appeared to undermine it (Ceja & Tàpies, 2011). These observations included adverse experiences with the business such as family conflicts, lack of information and feeling uninformed about the business, feeling forced to enter the business, lack of control, and perceptions regarding the professionalization process or feeling the firm has become too professionalized.

Ceja and Tàpies (2011) concluded that ownership feelings for the family firm seem to form in next-generation family members at very young ages when children start becoming cognizant of the importance of the family business. PO likely shifts during the course of a next-generation family member's life (Dawkins et al., 2017), thus assuming establishing PO of the business is a goal of the family, understanding how to facilitate positive, resilient bonds towards it should be of interest to senior family members. They suggest senior generations interested in establishing positive PO of the family business in next-generation family members take advantage of the opportunities to foster ownership feelings during these early stages by facilitating the elements found to contribute to them within their everyday family dynamics.

Next-generation family members who possess a high level of PO likely experience the business as an extension of their identity, which should promote the assumption of responsibility as well as feelings of commitment, pride, enthusiasm, caring, and protective behavior regarding the business (Ceja & Tàpies, 2011). PO has been linked with an individuals' openness or opposition to change (Dirks et al., 1996), and further research suggests individuals with high levels of PO selectively choose suggestions for change, depending on if the change will add to their "possession" or not, and are likely to shun suggestions for change that would not reinforce their PO feelings (Baer & Brown, 2012). This knowledge could be additionally informative to what we have learned about next-generation family members, as it seems plausible that establishing strong feelings of PO for the family business early in life could trigger next-generation family members to filter choices (e.g. education and extracurricular engagement) affecting their futures during adolescence and early adulthood, adopting the ones they feel enhance the continued bond with the business, and shunning those they feel might diminish it. If so, this additionally reinforces the importance of better understanding the development of PO

feelings in next-generation family members, so families who wish to encourage engagement with the family business can be better equipped to create atmospheres that promote PO and overall enhance their SEW.

Within this pioneering qualitative study exploring the underlying processes of the development of PO in next-generation family members, Ceja and Tàpies (2011) illuminated several areas clearly reflective of the roots and routes of PO as presented by (Pierce et al., 2003). Nine years after the publication of Ceja and Tàpies (2011), the addition of “safety” as a probable route of PO was added by (Zhang et al., 2021). The addition of this route to PO is consistent with Ceja and Tàpies (2011) findings. While the study was relatively small and focused solely on Spanish firms, it advances our knowledge of the development of PO in next-generation family members in several meaningful ways, including the endorsement of the belief that family climate is a key factor in the formation of it. The outcomes of this study collectively reiterate the value of the approach of this dissertation. The goal was to build on the existing knowledge by gathering additional information from a larger sample by employing quantitative methods to assess to what extent individual dimensions of the family climate affect the PO of the family firm in next-generation family members. Additionally, I aimed to provide data that is beneficial to the current understanding of how the moderating role of gender affects this relationship.

As Björnberg and Nicholson (2012) points out, “antecedents of commitment and willingness to become a full-time member of a family business can be traced back to the psychology of the relationship between the individual and the family business system.” (p. 374). There is an ongoing effort to unpack, frame, measure, understand, describe, and map the characteristics and presence of SEW within the family business (Brigham & Payne, 2019; Chua et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2018; Miller & Le Breton–Miller, 2014). As theoretical advancements

are made, areas of probable importance are illuminated. Currently trends in SEW and related research calls for a fuller understanding of the underlying mechanisms contributing to a family's effective endowments (Jiang et al., 2018; Sharma et al., 2020). Analyzing the micro factors of a business family system through one of several psychological aspects, such as PO feelings, is one means to enhance our knowledge in this area. The next section will discuss family dynamics within the family system, and their relationship to ownership feelings and our knowledge of a business family's effective endowments.

Family Dynamics

In addition to being the world's economic powerhouse (Farrell, 2019), family businesses are different from their non-family counterparts for many reasons. Likely, the most notable difference is the influential role the family system's dynamics and values play in the business system (Astrachan et al., 2002; Carlock & Ward, 2001). Systems theory has long been applied to broadly illustrate the individual and overlapping groups and subgroups related to family business (Tagiuri & Davis, 1996). Advancement in the family business literature has transpired at a rapid pace; and along the way, several useful models of family and business interaction emerged (Zachary, 2011). Some models offered methods of measurement, while others remain conceptual in nature. Pieper and Klein (2007) provide organization to the model literature by classifying previous models according to the stage of business research in which they were developed. They recognized the literature lacked a holistic model complex and flexible enough to house the vast dynamics, characteristics, and diversity of family business subsystems; and in response, offered "The Bulleye."

The Bulleye includes four levels of analysis including the environment, family business,

subsystem, and the individual. This structure is useful because it aggregates traditional family business subsystems down to the personal level while at the same time exhibiting the ability to scale up to show how the subsystems interact within the business and environment. Part of what makes a family business unique is the overlapping social systems represented within. Family members can hold several roles simultaneously, with each role affording different levels or intensities of power. As necessary, family members can armor themselves in whatever role garners the greatest position of power in the situation. For example, a father may co-own the business with one of his children; but during business-related disagreements, he might leverage his father role to a greater extent because it offers a higher level of authority than merely being a co-owner does. (Tagiuri & Davis, 1996). The model aids in the conceptualization of research questions (Pieper & Klein, 2007) and allows researchers to “parkour” between levels as they develop research models, which can then be empirically analyzed using alternatives to more traditional approaches, such as configurational approaches (Stanley et al., 2017) or multilevel modeling (Kellermanns & Eddleston, 2019).

The Bulleye is robust enough to encompass complex approaches to research questions; however, it is just as useful for more simplistic functions, such as helping to identify the level of analysis one wishes to anchor their research. One drawback to the Bulleye is that researchers will still have to identify measures for the dimensions they include since this model does not come re-equipped with measures.

This dissertation is focused on the individual’s perception of their family’s dynamics and how those dynamics contribute to their ownership feelings for the family business. Using the Bulleye to establish the level of analysis was helpful, but identifying the best measure for family dynamics for use in this research proved more challenging. I reviewed several measures of

family dynamics in both the family research literature and family business literature. Several attempts have been made to capture and explain the internal dynamics of the family system within a family business, and most are grounded at least in part in one or more family science and psychology research theories.

Of the measures identified as most relevant to the focus of my research, arguably the most competitive in the space is the F-PEC (Astrachan et al., 2002; Klein et al., 2003; Klein et al., 2005). F-PEC was designed to measure family influence in the firm. While this approach has gained much attention and includes some qualities related to my research questions, it lacks the dimensionality of whole family functioning that I was looking for in measure, making it only partially suitable for my research. The family APGAR (Smilkstein, 1978) offers insight into family functioning, as well, but was not developed for use in family business research and is positioned in relation to family mental health more so than as a measure of a family's unique dynamics. The Family FIRO (Danes et al., 2002) comes nearer to meeting my needs by addressing full family dynamic measures; however, it has not been systematically empirically tested and is better positioned to support therapeutic applications than research (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). While all of all the previously mentioned measures of business families offered redeeming qualities, none were as fitting as Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) measure of whole family functioning they call 'The Family Climate Scales.'

"Family climate plays a pivotal role in explaining family business culture and performance, largely through the infusion of family values in the business culture" (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007, p. 229). In essence, these measures analyze a family's characteristics and functioning, for example, how members of the family system relate to one another, communicate, and make decisions and adaptations, particularly during times of uncertainty

(Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007; Nosé et al., 2017). While other research has included measurements of the nuclear family's dynamics, "no comprehensive measure has been developed to date in the family business field that focuses exclusively on the dynamics and mechanisms of family psychology" (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007, p. 230).

The FCS also stands apart from others because of the motivations behind choosing the foundational properties integrated into the measures. The authors used a multifaceted approach to formulate the dimensions with the intent to establish a tool specifically capable of capturing the family climate within the family system, and the validated scales have been deemed useful for application in both business and non-business settings (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) evaluated family psychology and psychometric research as they worked to establish the theoretical foundations for the scales, ultimately identified seven measures: five evaluate whole family functioning and two focus on specific family function aspects or processes. All measures were based on or fit well within the family systems theory context, which according to Björnberg and Nicholson (2007), was originally derived from systems theory (Bateson, 2000). Systems theory offers a solid basic framework in which to analyze family business (Davis, 1983), and family systems theory "...ranks as one of the most influential and generative of all the family conceptual frameworks" (Broderick, 1993, p. 5), so based on the intended use for the tool, it appropriate for it to have roots in the family system line of research.

Additionally, the FCS is positioned well to contribute to the SEW literature, as it was specifically designed for use in family business research as a means to measure some of the complexities of the family system and how those affect the business system. Ideally, this tool will bolster our current knowledge around how the family system affects the business system by

illuminating answers to questions about how family climate contributes to or shapes things like family firm-specific resources, which ultimately reverberate through the firm impacting it in numerous ways (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). The collective attributes of the FCS made it the obvious choice for use in measuring family dynamics in this dissertation and its contribution to the theory of SEW.

Gender: as influenced, understood, and applied by society and culture

“Undoubtedly the most influential social construction doctrines have had to do with gender.” (Hacking & Hacking, 1999, p. 7)

The term *gender*, as adopted in contemporary Western models, was introduced by feminist scholars to articulate the differences between men and women as they pertain to the socially constructed attributes like femininity or masculinity and separate from the anatomical characteristics that biological sex represents (Ahl, 2006; Moore, 1994; Newman, 2002). Society plays a significant role in how we view gender (Ahl, 2006), but who or what is society? A basic definition of society could describe it as a large group of people living in the same geographical region, adhering to the same political authorities, and influenced and impacted by the same cultural expectations (Kendall, 2020). On the other hand, culture is “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, 2001, p. 9). It is a “tool kit” (Swidler, 1986) of things like customs, behaviors, abilities, and styles that can inform our thinking as we navigate life (Kendall, 2020).

Culture affects all humans and transmits the cultural beliefs considering certain behaviors as normal, abnormal, or abnormal for specific people (Cuellar & Glazer, 1996). It influences things like the customs and attributes related to individuals, families, or other subgroups of the

society in various ways, contingent on the encompassing society's cultural characteristics. Even the very definition of what and who a family *is* influenced by a society's culture. Additionally, it imposes the expected roles and behaviors for its members by informing people of the cultural norms that should be adhered to as members of the group. Families with children are subject to another layer of cultural expectations as both parents and children perform the roles associated with their respective roles in the child-rearing process. Culture determines the traditionally acceptable parenting values and regulates things such as the power attached to gender roles or authority levels afforded to elders. It also guides actions like the appropriate approaches to discipline, education, interaction with family members (Cuellar & Glazer, 1996). Business culture reflects the broader society's cultural patterns in which it is embedded (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005), and family business leaders, as members of both the family system and business system Sharma and Manikutty (2005). Evolutionary theorists suggest that business leaders' world views and decisions are significantly influenced by the dominant cultures of the societies in which the firm is embedded (Aldrich, 1999; Shane, 2004; Sharma & Manikutty, 2005). Gender's associated meanings, attributes, and expectations are transmitted between generations. Depending on the context, it may influence the relationship between the family climate and PO of the family firm in next-generation family members. Since gender can be interpreted and transmitted in various ways, to understand how its associated meanings impact family business or the development of ownership feelings for it, researchers must first seek to understand the collective patterns of thinking within families.

According to Collins et al. (2014), family is "arguably the single most important social institution founded in all societies." (p. 221). As subgroups of larger societies, families are profoundly influential in instilling values, attitudes, beliefs, behaviors, and other relevant

constructs (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005). Our identities often form in relation to the groups in which we belong (Hofstede (1980a). These lessons often happen without notice. Although we are not generally consciously aware that cultural lessons are being taught, each generation absorbs the lessons regarding values and the acceptable interactions and bonds between family members, impacting how we make decisions (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005). As it overlaps with the family business, the family cultural pattern creates the invisible, “automatic responses’ to “how we do things around here.” (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990, p. 141). Mothers and fathers are influential to their children’s ideals regarding gender roles within the family and business.

There are three ways in which Ahl (2006) reports that feminist theory can be classified when addressing the positioning of gender within the literature. In *liberal feminist* theory, men and women are considered, in general, similar. In *social feminist theory*, *psychoanalytical feminist theory*, or *radical feminist theory*, men and women are considered essentially different. Lastly, in *social constructionist* and *post-structuralist feminist theory*, men and women are viewed differently in socially constructed ways. This approach is not as concerned with sex, or rather what people *are* biologically, but instead prioritizes investigating the meanings, characteristics, or behavioral attributes of gender roles, as deemed appropriate within a society (Ahl, 2006).

Distinguishing biological sex and gender as two distinct categories have benefited feminists’ analysis within social sciences. Doing so contributes to the ability to examine and challenge the traditional symbolic meanings attributed to the male and female categories, as taught by society and embedded in culture, instead of assuming them to be fixed, naturally derived, or predetermined purely by genetic code (Moore, 1994). According to Feldmann et al. (2020), while many influences can play a part, society is likely the persuasive “background”

effect that derive gender norms and identity .

Over time, scholars began to commonly utilize the terms *gender* and *men/women* to represent the male/female classifications of biological sex, synonymously with socially constructed sex attributes, as was done in Ahl (2006). Non-differentiation between usage of the terms *sex* or *gender* in the literature is common (Ahl, 2006) and is reflective of the fact that biologically and socially defined attributes are often in alignment and are typically tightly interwoven. The Western world's prevailing norm is to view gender through a binary lens, where there are two distinct attributes (feminine and masculine), and that gender is tied to biological sex. Many authors believe these distinctions are largely unnecessary for their particular research; thus, they use *sex* and *gender* interchangeably. Others balance respect for the differences with their understanding that biological and social attributes are congruent for most individuals by using the terms collectively (*gender/sex*). This approach allows them to illustrate their meaning while simultaneously acknowledging the differences (Hyde et al., 2019).

Gender has been described as “an essential wellspring of all behavior, and one of the chief connectors between a culture and its members” (Walters et al., 1991, p. 26). The way gender is constructed within a culture is conveyed through socialization. These roles or expectations have implications on the social order due to the meaning of the learned gender qualities. This view proposes gender, as learned by socialization, varies by cultural norms. Individuals are brought up and shown the appropriate behavior to exhibit to meet the cultural norms' expectations. (Ahl, 2006). Societal views dictating appropriate gender behavior are developed around social values, beliefs, and attitudes (Little, 2016). Scholars in this area often investigate assumed gender norms, sometimes seeking to challenge perceptions that the culture takes for granted. Since biological sex is not a focus of this research, the study of gender goes

beyond “men vs. women.” It can include objects, titles, or numerous other items within the society that have gendered characteristics (Ahl, 2006).

The ways in which societies organize themselves are commonly gendered to a substantial degree (Little, 2016); for instance, the title “entrepreneur” is viewed as masculine (Ahl, 2006), as is riding a motorcycle, and the use of the blue baby items to signal a child is male (Little, 2016). The gendered attributes attached to things in our society like entrepreneurship and business (Byrne et al., 2019) can lead to discursive practices in how we approach researching them. Suppose the most common measures of specific business attributes are developed with a masculine perspective in mind, and the literature surrounding these topics continues to build on the previously established work in the field. In that case, discourses in methods prevail (Ahl, 2006).

Gender is a primary dimension of identity. Sociologists refer to it as a *core status*, as it drives the way individuals are socialized, institutional participation materializes, and the chances in life the different genders are afforded (Little, 2016). Parents and other family members are the first agents of socialization in one’s life, and literature indicates that parents are prone to socialize sons and daughters differently. Between the ages of 18-24 months, most children can identify stereotypical gender groups such as girl, boy, man, women, or feminine and masculine. By age three, most categorize their own gender, and although they can relax some later, by the ages of 5-6, they are ridged about stereotypes and preferences, as they pertain to gender (MayoClinic, 2017).

Even in households where parents raise their children with gender equality goals in mind, they may convey underlying gender roles determined by our culture. For example, as household chores are split up, boys may be assigned duties such as taking out the trash that require

“strength and toughness,” where girls may be given jobs like folding laundry or doing dishes that require “neatness and care.” Toys, personal achievements, and styles of play can also be associated with gender roles. Once students begin attending school, they may find themselves guided to engage in courses that align with “appropriate” gender roles. More recently, schools have worked to reduce the more common ways their institutions reinforce gender roles, but traditionally boys have been guided towards courses like shop and math while girls are encouraged to take home economics or humanities (Little, 2016).

The ways in which media presents gender roles can influence various views, values, assumptions, and attitudes in observers as well. Non-brand-related social effects are said to derive from the way gender roles, as part of the media, reinforce or frame gender stereotypes (Eisend, 2019). Examples of biases regarding gender’s role in family business are numerous in the media. Media may reinforce certain assumptions about gender, such as homemaking being a women’s role, even though modern-day men have taken on those tasks at a higher rate than ever before. Mainstream publications often frame female next-generation family members as ‘the little girl who became the successor,’ or “the little sister who managed to be more successful than her brother.” These stories convey messages that female successor success is rare, cute, and surprising, instead of injecting their stories with more professional tones (Salganicoff, 1990) additionally illustrates how societal norms are reflected in media, which further reinforces these values within our culture.

Research on women in entrepreneurship is often given context by comparing men’s and women’s outcomes, with women generally being positioned on the “losing” side or underperforming. (Ahl & Marlow, 2021). Ahl (2006) conducted a discourse analysis of the published women entrepreneurship research, which reviewed several discursive practices within

the literature that contribute to this common conception of women in entrepreneurship as less successful than their male counterparts. She asserts these outcomes are primarily due to the injection of normative masculinized assumptions within entrepreneurship research that naturally favor business outcomes generally attributed to men since entrepreneurship research is traditionally viewed through a masculine-leaning lens. When comparing women's and men's business outcomes empirically, often the tools used to measure the differences were initially constructed within a masculine frame; thus, the results of many studies reflect women to be less successful in entrepreneurship than men (Ahl, 2006).

Family business research clearly illustrates that family businesses often simultaneously prioritize financial and non-financial goals (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007; Miller et al., 2013). In the case of family business, one may be no more important to the business leader than another, so it is interesting to learn how measurement methods most often leveraged in entrepreneurial research has been constructed to favor financially related goals as the better measures of success. Women entrepreneurs may be less likely to prioritize financial goals than men, so naturally, they are viewed as less successful upon comparison.

Du Rietz and Henrekson (2000) challenged the prevailing conclusion that female entrepreneurs underperform when compared to their male counterparts. They conducted a study of 4200 entrepreneurs and found their results lined up with previous studies when examined at the aggregate level. Once they ran their data through an extensive multivariate regression with several controls, they found the underperformance result disappeared in every category except sales; however, there were no differences between gender in terms of profitability. The outcomes of this research challenge the belief of female entrepreneurs being underperformers when you take into account the preferences one has towards different types of business goals.

A study of gender and the semantics of ownership illustrated men and women view ownership differently (Rudmin, 1994). Individuals were asked to list examples of things that they own and to describe their feelings of ownership for the items. Females often reported ownership feelings for familiar people and their possessions, and their descriptions of ownership often included self-connection, pride, and responsibility. Male responses illustrated a focus on property as rights, and absolute autonomy and exclusivity were emphasized. Based on the differing ownership perspective observed by Rudmin (1994) they suggested the female perspectives and understanding of ownership has historically not been represented well in the literature. Reflecting on this research and the common instruments used to measure psychological feelings such as PO (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004), it may be beneficial to revisit the items used in the measurement to ensure no gender bias exists in the instruments themselves.

Women entrepreneurs are said to exhibit less interest in pursuing sales-growth as a main business goal when compared to their male counterparts. If true, when we seek to measure the level of success one accomplishes using business outcomes as a measure, considering both economic and non-economic goal preferences changes the way in which we interpret how businesses are leveraged to serve the individualized need and goals of their owners (Du Rietz & Henrekson, 2000). Perhaps as researchers work to employ SEW theory into their research, measurement tools will be adapted or developed to inform SEW framework. In light of its characteristics regarding non-economic goals, that will naturally reduce some of the biases we have observed when comparing male and female business outcomes in the past.

As established in this overview, the culture within a family unit is a subgroup of a larger society is heavily influenced by the prevailing norms of the culture within the society the family resides. Influence culture plays in the establishment of family norms are important to consider

for this research, as they could impact many dimensions within the family climate as well as PO of the firm. The three overarching categories of the FCS are (a) family intergenerational style, (b) family cohesion, and (c) family process (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007).

Family businesses are extensions of family dynamics, biases, and culture, and many of the anticipated behaviors are closely related to gender (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990), which suggests the gender of next-generation family members is likely to influence their self-reported perceptions of authority, cohesiveness, and processes within the family. Additionally, the roots and routes to feelings of PO of the family firm (Pierce et al., 2001, 2003) include many important factors that are also likely to be influenced by the established societal norms. For example, the roots or motivations of PO may be influenced, depending on the societal and family-imposed rules regarding one's gender.

Females are sometimes instilled with constructs dampening their belief that they might contribute meaningfully to their family business. Additionally, they may be guided to find identity in roles other than those associated with the family business. In such cases, it may never even occur to them that they could view the business as something belonging to them. As conveyed through family culture, social norms surrounding gender likely influence the potential opportunity for next-generation family members to engage their family businesses in ways that could promote ownership feelings.

Similarly to the roots, if a female is not able to experience routes to PO of the family firm, or rather have control of it, come to know it, invest in it (Pierce et al., 2001, 2003), or find safety in it (Zhang et al., 2021) due to the values and cultures of her family related gender, she may be less likely to develop PO. The family climate is highly influenced by internal and external sources of culture. Underlying beliefs regarding normative roles of gender likely

influence the family climate, which may well inhibit the development of PO of the firm for next-generation family members.

Additionally, if the social norms of gender within a family reduce the ways in which a female is allowed to engage the family business, she may never view it as a place to belong. For example, if a female was expected to take on additional duties of the household in order to free up time for one or more parents to engage in the business, she would likely have no reason to imagine herself as embedded there even though her contributions indirectly supported the family business.

In the home, the assignment of household chores may perpetuate cultural values pertaining to the types of jobs women should perform. Through her work with women in family business, Salganicoff (1990) has identified role conflicts in relation to a sense of self, issues around power, and interpersonal dynamics as areas women participating in family business have experienced incongruencies between what is perceived as expected business behavior in their family or society, and how she has been mentally coded to feel about or engage these things. Additionally, she reminds her reader that when individuals encounter issues such as these, they benefit from remembering that family businesses are microcosms of a larger society and that men and women are both responsible for holding and perpetuating social biases within our societies. This further illustrates the ways in which the cultural implications of the society at large, and that of a family, can impact the topics of this dissertation.

I would be remiss if I did not mention that as family culture informs us of what is important in life, the things which are valued by one's family elders are often viewed to be important to children as well. For instance, a family business example includes the way many mothers are "nurturers" of future family business leaders, teaching their children to love the

family business (Dugan et al., 2011; Martinez Jimenez, 2009). Family business founders often frame their identity to include the business (Davis & Harveston, 1998). If a strong sense of the family identity is associated with the business, the next-generation family member may, by default, develop a sense of identity with the firm mediated by their parents. The cultural processes within a family often “establish perceptions of who should be doing what in the family and the family business.” (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990, p. 151). Thus, the underlying societal culture a family unit is informed by is likely to be instrumental to how families develop family climates, view gender roles, and influence the chance for family members to establish PO of the family firm. Therefore, the role the dimensions of the family climate play in developing PO of the business in next-generation family members is likely to be significantly moderated by gender.

Like similar fields of research, family business takes a binary approach to gender, often focusing on the different outcomes between males and females. However, overall, there are few studies and thus, significant gaps related to how or why these differences come to be in a family business and how it ultimately affects a female’s engagement with the family business (Campopiano et al., 2017; Kubíček & Machek, 2019). Some recent family business literature has encouraged scholars within the field to rethink the traditional “gender as a variable” approach in their research, and instead look at differences in gender through the “gender is socially constructed” lens (Hytti et al., 2017; Nelson & Constantinidis, 2017). A qualitative study by (Hytti et al., 2017) took this approach in their gender analysis of female next-generation family business successors. They wanted to understand how these daughters construct their own identities to position themselves as viable family business leaders. The authors followed the “doing gender” rather than “being gender” approach (West & Zimmerman, 1987). Their work

viewed gender as socially constructed through interaction with family members and others but as something that can be negotiated and renegotiated.

“Gender is not a property of the female successor but of the relationship between daughters and the gendered assumptions that are socially embedded in family business practices.” (Hytti et al., 2017, p. 666). Their study’s outcomes suggest these next-generation women family business leaders construct and negotiate their identities by making use of the gendered scripts available to them, adapting as necessary to the expectations of the people they encounter while working in the family business. Participants reported that in response to other’s assertions or preferences of expected gender norms or attitudes, they may subtly adapt how to what extent they display certain socially implied gendered traits as a means to navigate the firm and reduce gender-related obstacles. For instance, as needed, they may fluctuate between concealing their roles as business leaders all together so as not to appear too dominant or masculine and displaying leadership behaviors that may traditionally be described as masculine attributes, in order to navigate and negotiate their way to leadership positions within the firm. Their work offers some interesting insight into how future next-generation females could position themselves to engage the company, despite the ways our societal expectations dictate. Expanding on this knowledge may help current family business leaders guide their female family members through the processes of learning to adapt to outside gender assumptions and prepare them to navigate in business leadership roles.

Greater numbers of females are represented in management positions within family firms than in non-family firms; however, there is still a lack of equal representation across genders (Hall, 2018). If PO increases the potential for next-generation family members to become involved in the business but females decedents are less likely to obtain leadership roles within

the family business than males (Byrne et al., 2019; Martinez Jimenez, 2009; Wang, 2010) it seems plausible that gender has a moderating role in that relationship. Culture is largely responsible for the assumptions and rules individuals possess regarding gender (Walters et al., 1991) and children begin learning about culture from their parents at a young age (Hofstede et al., 2005). For family business research to fully grasp emergent perspectives such as this one, work still needs to be done to understand how family relationships contribute to male and female next-generation family members' attitudes and feelings towards the family business (Garcia et al., 2019). If an important family business goal is successful transgenerational succession, it is in the family's best interest to do what they can to preserve their effective endowments by adequately preparing as many decedents as possible for the possibility to become successor(s) (Astrachan & Pieper, 2011). This dissertation aims to add depth to our understanding within the current SEW literature by seeking to understand how the influences our family dynamics, as they are informed by culture, relate to next-generation family members formation of PO feelings for their family business, and how these dynamics may present differently in males versus females.

In the next section the hypothesized model is presented, and the development and discussion of each hypothesis is discussed.

Overview of Hypothesized Model

This research seeks to offer insight into several developing areas of the family business literature. As noted by Garcia et al. (2019), there are currently gaps regarding how next-generation family members perceive relational factors in the immediate family systems. They proposed that factors in the family system, such as parental behaviors, shape the next-generation

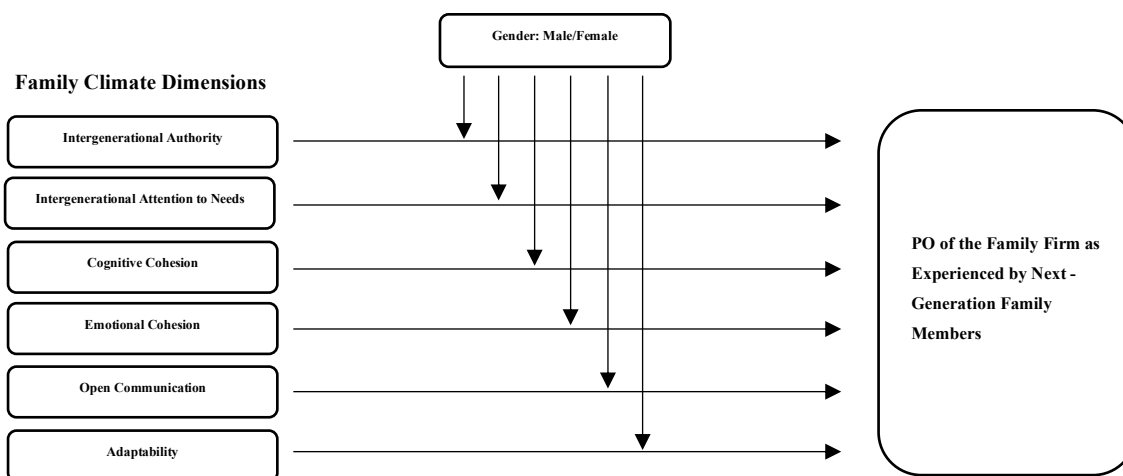
family members' beliefs, attitudes, and competencies (such as commitment) towards the family firm. They suggested employing multidimensional approaches to studying those relationships since the relationships often inform individual to a group or group to individual dynamics. Other authors have called attention to the continued need for the application of family science theories to better understand how family system relationships affect both family and business-related outcomes in family businesses (Combs et al., 2020). Research on gender and succession (Nelson & Constantinidis, 2017) and other topics have been largely under-theorized in family business research and could benefit from being informed by other social sciences like psychology. Additionally, while studies about women and family businesses have increased over the past several years, they continue to be a rarity in the overall family business research literature (Kubíček & Machek, 2019). Calls for more empirical studies regarding women's roles and outcomes in relation to family businesses have been made. Recommendations to include family science theories (Jaskiewicz et al., 2017; Jaskiewicz & Dyer, 2017) into studies regarding women in family firms have also been made since these topics can offer explanation beyond what our current family business theory is capable of. The current study looks to address each of these calls for research, necessary to the establishment of a more solidified SEW theory, through the twelve hypothesized relationships which are expanded on next.

Scholars have identified many areas of family business research, including that of SEW, likely to benefit from a psychological approach perspective (Elsbach & Pieper, 2019; Sharma et al., 2020), which is what this study has been designed to contribute to. Figure 2.1 illustrates the hypothesized relationships used to pursue answers for my research questions. This study is comprised of twelve hypotheses. The first six aim to reveal how the six distinct areas of the family climate influence next-generation family member's PO of the family firm. The six

components comprising the family dynamic independent variable portion of this study are the individual dimensions of Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) validated Family Climate Scales. Gender, viewed as socially constructed and highly influenced by families (Kubíček & Machek, 2019), has been selected as a moderating variable because based on what was learned during the literature review, it is likely to affect the relationships between the dimensions of the family climate and PO of the family firm for next-generation family members. Hypothesis 7-12 will discuss the proposed direction the interaction of gender will have on each direct effect. The chapter will conclude with a Table 2.2. which contains a detailed summary of each of the hypothesized relationships.

Figure 2.1

Hypothesized Model



Family Dynamics and PO

Family Intergeneration Style

One of the most fundamental desires of family business owners is the need to pass the business on to the next generation (Barach & Ganitsky, 1995). To meet this goal, responsible

owners, who understand the importance of adequately preparing successors to maximize the chance for successful firm succession, are willing to put the family unit's interests and the firm before their own (Astrachan & Pieper, 2011; Pieper & Astrachan, 2008). It can take many years to develop the skills needed for successful business transitions. Those committed to equipping the next generation with the skillsets and knowledge necessary should begin doing so in early childhood. Surprisingly, despite successful succession being a common goal for family business owners, the family climate, starting with the intergenerational relationships, often has characteristics incongruent with that outcome.

Family systems are a hierarchical structure, and generational membership determines authority within the group (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990). How next-generation family members perceive authority within their family climate is likely to contribute to the formation of PO feelings for several reasons. In their family climate research, Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) suggested that senior members handle authority within the family unit is likely to be of significance. Past research concludes unfair treatment through abusive or otherwise destructive leadership within organizations reduces less-senior employees' feelings of commitment to the organization. Since PO is an antecedent or predictor of commitment (Bernhard, 2011; O'Driscoll et al., 2006), it seems likely that negative experiences related to overbearing authority in the family unit could reduce PO of the firm for next-generation family members (Garcia et al., 2019).

Parenting styles are likely to have much influence on a family's intergenerational style. (Baumrind, 1966); Baumrind (1971, 1978) discussed three parenting styles or parental control: permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative. *Permissive* parents are very responsive to their children but do not require much of them. A study of adolescents raised under this parenting

style found the children were relatively low achievers and had lower abilities to self-regulate (Baumrind, 1966, 1991). *Authoritative* parenting is associated with several adaptive outcomes in children, such as developing internal locus of control, and increased positive self-concept (McClun & Merrell, 1998), and the capability to self-regulate (Baumrind, 1991). This parenting style's traits include clear parental control paired with rational discipline practices, and reasons for discipline are communicated to the child (Baumrind, 1966). Of the styles discussed, this type of parenting is known for affording the most favorable outcomes (Baumrind, 1991).

In contrast, *authoritative* parents are rigid in their discipline applications and do not make adjustments to situational or the child's needs, or both in regard to parental decisions (Baumrind, 1966; Segrin et al., 2012). These parents are forceful in their response to curb willful behavior that does not adhere to their beliefs regarding appropriate behavior, restrict autonomy, and do not encourage "give and take" discussion because they believe that the children should adhere to what they say is right (Baumrind, 1966). *Overparenting*, more commonly known as helicopter parenting, is when parents are highly involved and risk-averse when it comes to their children, interceding at inappropriate levels on their behalf to help children be successful and happy, which sometimes persist into adulthood (Segrin et al., 2012). While motivated by good intentions, their overuse of power can result in lower self-efficacy in the children (Givertz & Segrin, 2014; Segrin et al., 2012) since they were never allowed the opportunity to solve problems and build confidence on their own. It also inhibits open and problem-free communication (Givertz & Segrin, 2014; Segrin et al., 2012). Their strong desire for their children's happiness motivates them to remove any obstacles impeding their child's success and happiness, generally as defined by the parent, not the child. The children also often develop senses of entitlement (Givertz & Segrin, 2014; Segrin et al., 2012) and struggle to regulate their

emotions (Segrin et al., 2012). This parenting style can result in anxiety, withdrawn behaviors, depression, and insecurity (Bayer et al., 2006).

Overparenting and authoritarian parenting produce similar adverse outcomes. Both share three characteristics: 1) Children are not allowed the latitude to make choices that do not align with the parent's opinion, 2) communication is not openly exchanged, and 3) parents over-control the child. Overparenting is also similar to that of the permissive style, as parents are highly responsive to their children and neither require children to do much for themselves. (Segrin et al., 2012). For optimal outcomes, parents need to balance supportive and controlling behaviors, adjusting appropriately as their children age (Givertz & Segrin, 2014). Parents and young adult children alike report they were more satisfied with their family when the authoritative parenting approach was used (Givertz & Segrin, 2014).

Intergenerational Authority and PO (PO). *Roots of Psychological Ownership.* A next-generation family member's self-efficacy towards the family firm is negatively impacted by parental psychological control (Garcia et al., 2019). Children of overly authoritarian parents may lack the confidence in their abilities or self-efficacy (Givertz & Segrin, 2014; Segrin et al., 2012) to believe they could make meaningful impacts on the family business. It seems likely that communication and adaptability could be closely related to this characteristic as well. One of the main differences separating PO and other similar feelings people hold towards originations, such as commitment and satisfaction, is the idea of control (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). The need for efficiency may be dampened for next-generation family members if the authority mechanism within the family inhibits their interaction with the business. Therefore, they may not identify ways to motivate efficiency towards it.

In relation to their involvement with the family firm, men and women are often not

viewed the same, both within and outside the business. Parents may not teach their children to think of themselves in relation to the company equally due to family culture (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990). Thus, the factor influencing family culture may present situations where family members do not make associations between themselves or the firm; therefore, they are not motivated to have feelings for it because it is not something they are encouraged to identify with or do not view it as their place.

If the family authority structure instructs who or what an individual can and cannot do or be, this could further underscore their lack of motivation for it. Although driven by different motivations, an authoritarian or overcontrolling parent may be very persuasive in their attempts to dictate what the child should be or do (Givertz & Segrin, 2014; Segrin et al., 2012), which could inhibit motivations to have ownership feelings for the business. Ultimately, it seems the family's authority structure could be very influential to a next-generation family member developing motivations or "roots" of PO to the family firm.

Routes to PO. As previously touched on, the ability to control, know, invest oneself, or feel safety in relation with the family firm (Pierce et al., 2001, 2003; Zhang et al., 2021) will largely depend on the relationship with one's parents or elders; and it is likely authoritarian or overcontrolling parents may inhibit a next-generation family member the ability to form PO through *routes* even if some *roots* are present.

Research on factors preventing inter-family succession found incumbent unwillingness to "let go" as the most cited barrier to family businesses succession (Sharma et al., 2001). They are unwilling to allow a potential successor the opportunity to develop skills and the respect (authority) essential to leading the organization. They may also decide to pursue other careers or could influence the dominate coalition to view the potential successor as incompetent (De Massis

et al., 2008).

Citing Mintzberg (1994), Kellermanns and Eddleston (2004) noted that some family firm founders are unwilling to share information about the business with others, which has been understood to inhibit firm outcomes and expansion. Family climates that consist of high levels of older-generation authority could hinder a next-generation's routes in several ways. Some examples might include how the lack of autonomy (or perceived power) could block *control*, how not being allowed to contribute or make decisions in meaningful ways could block *investment*, and how important information not shared freely could block the ability to *know* the organization. Additionally, the *safety route* could be impeded for reasons such as not feeling supported by their elders. Kahn (1990) defined safety as "feeling able to show and employ oneself without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career" (p. 708). Both overparenting and authoritarian styles likely inhibit a next-generation family member from feeling safe to be themselves within the family firm.

Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) identified intergenerational authority to be orthogonal to emotional cohesion, cognitive cohesion, and intergenerational attention. This is consistent with reports that family parenting styles that balance flexibility and cohesion are more satisfactory to its members, as is balancing flexibility and cohesion (Givertz & Segrin, 2014), and that intergenerational authority has been found to be negatively related to shared vision (Miller, 2014). Although the mechanisms could play out differently depending on parenting style or family culture (Kaye, 1996), it seems likely that families with higher levels of senior family member authority result in lower feelings of PO for next-generation family members.

Hypothesis 1: Intergenerational Authority is negatively associated with PO of the firm in next-generation family members.

Intergenerational Attention to Needs and Psychological Ownership. According to Bandura (1986), an individual's behavior or intentions are responses to their personal environmental experiences and interactions. Building on this knowledge (Garcia et al., 2019) theorized that next-generation family members perceived self-efficacy and commitment to the family firm are influenced by the family environment in which they were raised. This information informs not only this hypothesis but also that of hypothesis #1.

Succession research found family members who were not endowed the skills to take over the family business inhibit successful succession. This can stem from family members lacking trust in potential successors or being committed to allowing the possible successor opportunity to demonstrate or gain these skills (De Massis et al., 2008). These outcomes illustrate the ways in which authority figures not tending to the needs of the younger generation could negatively affect their development of PO feelings. Additionally, to prep next-generation family members for succession, it is crucial to instill within them the family's social capital or "familiness" (Habbershon & Williams, 1999) that makes their business unique (Sund et al., 2015). This would imply that it is vital to pay attention to the younger generation's needs in regard to the family business if they are to develop ownership feelings of it. The ways a senior family member attends to the needs of a younger one could be done through an authoritative parenting style.

An authoritative parenting style generally leads to more satisficing outcomes for both the children and the parents (Givertz & Segrin, 2014). These parents are highly involved with their children, being both demanding and responsive, and controlling but not restrictive (Klein & Ballantine, 2001). This style is known for more constructive open parent-child communication, conveying trust of the child, and psychological autonomy. Children raised in homes who take this approach to child-rearing score higher on social development, competence, self-perceptions,

and overall mental health than children from other types of homes. Authoritative parents require children to meet specific standards and work to their potential while at the same time respecting the needs of their children. When problems arise, they discuss them and find acceptable solutions together (Klein & Ballantine, 2001).

Roots of PO. Parents who are more attentive to the needs of their children are likely to be able to help establish the groundwork for next-generation family members to feel PO of the family firm. As illustrated by the outcomes of an authoritative parenting approach, parents have the ability to firmly direct next-generation family members to adhere to family values while simultaneously finding ways to do so that meet the needs of their children. For instance, if children living on a family farm are more drawn to livestock work than field or paperwork, a parent could create opportunities for them to be fulfilled through those types of farm chores while at the same time emphasizing that while fieldwork and bookwork are less attractive, it is necessary for the success of the farm and a certain amount, and thus, a child is still expected to engage them. This approach likely positively influences the motivations for ownership feelings because children can see how they can affect the farm, feel it is a place where their identity can be anchored, and can envision their place within it. In contrast, if a child's needs are not considered in relation to the farm, or if they are not taught how they could use the farm to satisfy needs to be efficacious, define themselves, or feel like it is a place they belong, it will likely reduce their motivations to develop PO of the farm.

Routes to PO. Parents who open the pathways to the development of PO of the family firm through *route* mechanisms in relation to the needs of that specific child will likely have more influence on the formation of those feeling than those who do not consider their needs. In the example of the family farm, giving a child the opportunity to have some control within the

farm, is allowed invest themselves in it, get to know it, or feel safe or comfortable to be themselves there, will likely increase chances the child will develop feelings of PO for it. In the case of the child drawn to livestock, perhaps this could be facilitated from a young age by giving them a bucket calf to care for. Girls have reported having greater self-esteem and boys a greater sense of well-being when give the opportunity to engage work that is interesting and challenging. These task contribute to a sense of sense of responsibility as well (Mortimer et al., 1992). Having the responsibility of mixing and washing bottles, feeding the calf on a schedule, and keeping the pen clean would help them build confidence in their abilities and facilitate several PO routes. As children age, they could be allowed additional age-appropriate opportunities, for example, allowing them to contribute to breeding, feed, and marketing decisions and using the tractor to clean pens. This does not mean parents would not require these children to engage the field and paperwork duties they enjoy less; however, if parents can communicate their importance in a way that speaks to the child's interests, they will likely comply with those requirements with less complaint. For example, explaining to the child why growing hay and corn impacts their ability to raise livestock efficiently and that bookwork can help them identify ways to be more profitable illustrates the importance of these activities of the farm in a way that is more likely to result in children choosing to engage them. The message that these activities are essential to the functioning of the business is likely more meaningful when explained in a way that the child can understand them in relation to their own interests. For these reasons, it appears intergenerational attention to needs will positively affect next-generation family member's PO of the firm.

Hypothesis 2: Intergenerational Attention to Needs is positively associated with PO of the firm in next-generation family members.

Family Cohesion

Björnberg and Nicholson (2007, p. 234) employ Murray's (2002) description of the uniqueness attributed to the family firm as "the marriage between the rational and the emotional." Emotional cohesion and cognitive cohesion are often viewed collectively, but Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) identified the importance of parceling them out when measuring the family climate. Although highly intercorrelated, both play unique roles within the family unit, and it is possible for a family to possess high levels of one, and not the other. Both types are important to how well the family is able to navigate difficulty or crisis (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). It is important to note that destructive conflicts can result from a family lacking either, which can result in a number of negative implications for a family or family business (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). For instance, family emotional cohesion is likely to be negatively affected by painful events of the past. It can also be impacted by a family legacy lacking characteristics a person would desire to identify with. Additionally, business emotional cohesion is likely to be negatively impacted if unethical business practices are a part of the company culture (Pieper & Astrachan, 2008).

While potentially due to cognitive and/or emotional differences, family conflicts or family infighting has been assumed to undermine the transmission of PO to next-generation family members. This was exhibited when respondents in Ceja and Tàpies (2011) discussed observing parents and/or siblings arguing about business-related topics or watching their parents stress over poor sibling relationships due to something business-related.

As discussed early, authoritative parenting styles positively influences cohesion (Givertz & Segrin, 2014), while intergenerational authority has been found to be orthogonal to both emotional and cognitive cohesion. When viewing group behavior in terms of conduct and not

outcomes, cohesive groups enjoyed increased performance (Beal et al., 2003). Family cohesion has been cited as a necessary condition for business survival, sustainability, and success (Pieper & Astrachan, 2008).

According to Simarasl et al. (2020), individuals who reported belonging to a “tight-knit” group are more likely to actively participate in the group and remain psychologically connected. (Zahra, 2012). Psychological literature has established that a human’s self-concept is comprised of personal identity (how we view our unique self) as well as our social identity (derived from group membership) (Hillenbrand & Money, 2015; Hofstede, 1980a). When individuals become part of a group, the interests that the group holds take precedent over one’s personal interests (Pieper, 2010). While connections have been surmised about individual level self-concepts and PO, empirical studies that explore the connections between identity and the development of PO feelings are lacking (Hillenbrand & Money, 2015).

Family relationships can make or break succession planning and successor training (Lansberg & Astrachan, 1994) and are said to be the dominant variable in successful business succession efforts (Morris et al., 1997). It can be difficult to stop conflicts in the family system from creating conflicts in the business (Morris et al., 1997; Nicholson, 2008), or vice versa, since the systems are reciprocal in nature (Morris et al., 1997). Due to the overlap between family and business identities, conflict within family businesses can increase exponentially (Milton, 2008). Family conflicts can lead to subsequent business decisions, which in turn can manifest new conflicts or differences among family members (Morris et al., 1997). Businesses suffer when families allow tensions to build within the family unit (Olson et al., 2003). To curb such conflicts, it is advisable for business families to focus on nurturing shared values and family cohesion by building trust and encouraging open communication, particularly when preparing

heirs for potential succession is a primary goal for the family (Morris et al., 1997).

High cohesion is usually viewed as positive, except when it's taken to the extreme and considered enmeshed (Beavers & Voeller, 1983). This over-bonded and over-involved cohesion results in individuals having little autonomy to fulfill personal needs and goals. Total loyalty is an expectation (Galvin et al., 2015). It would appear in this case that too much of a good thing is no longer a good thing.

On the other hand, low cohesion results in extreme emotional separateness where individuals have high individuality and autonomy, and their priorities predominate. Insufficient cohesions within the family unit can result in destructive conflicts and could risk harm to both the family and the business (Miller, 2014).

Cognitive Cohesion and Psychological Ownership. Pieper (2010) suggested that the social values of a group may better explain higher levels of commitment and moral behavior in businesses. Family is the primary means for transferring norms across generations (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005), and as noted by Pieper (2010), social values of the family unit could provide ways to create support and buy-into accept decisions made by the authorities in the firm (Euler et al., 2001; Hofstede, 1980a). Family cohesion appears to be positively related to a family's commitment to the firm (Lansberg & Astrachan, 1994), and since PO is an antecedent of commitment, it is conceivable that the same mechanisms promoting commitment could also enhance feelings of PO.

Roots of PO. Cognitive cohesion illustrates the level at which a family shares values, interests, tastes, goals, social attitudes, and beliefs (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). Hofstede (1980a) explained that while we are programmed on the individual level, our identity is derived from the groups with which we affiliate. It is plausible that cognitive cohesion could help

establish roots of PO. For example, since members hold similar viewpoints, efficacy and effectance could be materialized because they are confident in their abilities to effectively engage the business. Furthermore, since the business is one thing they all hold in common, and people's identity is recognized in conjunction with the groups they belong to, self-identity in relation to the family business seems likely. Lastly, motivations to finding their place or feeling the business is a place in which they belong would seem reasonable since the cohesion between family members would support feelings of inclusion and belonging (Pierce et al., 2003).

Routes to PO. Cognitive cohesion within the family could influence a next-generation family member to feel ownership feelings for the business, as a flow-through from their own parents. Since individuals view their identity in relation to the groups in which they belong, next-generation family members will likely perceive they have some control within the family business. High levels of cognitive cohesion could contribute to the desire to invest in the firm since it is important to the group. When families who own firms operate cohesively, organizational learning takes place at a faster pace and with more breadth.

Organizational learning can create an atmosphere conducive to innovation (Zahra, 2012). This type of cohesiveness appears to be more cognitively related and should allow next-generation family members to understand the company better since information seems to be shared more frequently in cohesive family groups. Lastly, cognitive cohesion could develop through the channel of safety since similarly held views about how the world should work likely leads to confidence in organizational justice behaviors and relational closeness. Safety implies members feel free to be themselves, so the idea that cognitive cohesion with the family could help individuals feel safe is likely.

Hypothesis 3: Cognitive Cohesion is positively associated with PO of the firm in next-

generation family members.

Emotional Cohesion and Psychological Ownership

Trust and affability were identified as the two most important factors in family relationships (Morris et al., 1997), and while “trust” goes beyond the scope of the Family Climate Dimensions and thus, this dissertation, affability applies to emotional cohesion and family bonds. Cohesion in family businesses can be formed and sustained through channels that engage both the family and the business (Pieper & Astrachan, 2008). Of the four types of cohesion identified as ones supporting the construction and maintenance of emotional bonds in Pieper and Astrachan (2008), two of them, *family emotional cohesion* and *business emotional cohesion*, are especially informative to this specific hypothesis. Pieper and Astrachan (2008) identified this emotional bond as a “basic human process” of forming bonds with family or other significant individuals.

According to the authors, family emotional cohesion originates early in life; satisfies needs such as safety, security, affiliation, belongingness, and care-taking; and ultimately plays an important role in the development of an individual’s sense of belonging and self-esteem (Bowlby, 2008). The authors also mention that parenting styles or upbringing, family values, and education can offer some mechanisms to enhance family emotional cohesion. Finally, they believe the behavior to be largely determined by biology and outside of the immediate control of the individual or group in which they belong. They identified this type of cohesion as being important for other types of cohesion and overall human interaction.

Business families looking to enhance and stabilize these bonds can do so through activities such as regular family meetings that can facilitate opportunities to share knowledge, socializing with extended family members or in-laws, building common values, and celebrating

milestones. Sources of emotional bonding can include things like the family name, family history, and family legacy. The identity of the family can be a great source of pride for its members, and the accomplishments of past generations may be a way to increase one's pride associated with being a part of it. Stories comprised of actions exhibiting values such as altruistic behavior may especially enhance family bonding, as can increase family participation in philanthropic activities.

Business emotional cohesion is affected by many of the same things as *family emotional cohesion*, with the exception of the family business as the main source of cohesion (Pieper & Astrachan, 2008). This type of bond impacts the family member's sense of self and community, and the pride, social status, or identity-related to being associated with the business can work to enhance it. Family members may take pride in certain attributes of the business, such as quality products, the business's approach to corporate social responsibility, or the strength or popularity of the brand; and the business can offer opportunities outside of what the family can for members to develop these sorts of feelings.

Managing the legacy of the business, preserving memories associated with past generations, and conveying them to the present ones are ways to potentially increase the pride and identity for the business that is felt by current family members. That, in turn, maintains the continuity of the family business legacy. Additionally, other business artifacts such as portraits or monuments and positive organizational culture can provide opportunities to reinforce these things as well. Like PO and other psychological concepts, multiple forms of cohesion have the ability to strengthen and reinforce one another, and one may have the ability to make up for deficiencies in another area when necessary (Pieper, 2007).

Emotional cohesion appears to enhance PO transmission to next-generation through

family and business cohesion as described in (Pieper & Astrachan, 2008), as well as through shared experiences and traditions, such as the example illustrated by a respondent in Ceja and Tàpies (2011), who reminisced about summers spent at the family wineries during wine harvest.

The strength of the family bond, or *emotional cohesion*, is the “emotional glue” necessary for forming relationships between family members. Family cohesion has been described as the sense of “connectedness and emotional bonding” within the family (Simarasl et al., 2020), and lack of emotional cohesion can result in division within the family (Cabrera-Suárez et al., 2014).

In her recent commentary, Reay (2019) suggested past research repeatedly illustrates that consistent routines such as celebrating family events, maintaining family traditions, and eating dinner together are important to the development of supportive and strong connections between generations, which is in line with Pieper and Astrachan (2008) and Nicholson (2008).

In order to illustrate some of the ways in which the roots and routes of PO could be satisfied for next-generation family members through emotional bonds, this researcher employed examples from Pieper and Astrachan (2008) and briefly touched on factors that could satisfy each root and route.

Roots of PO. Motivation for effectance could derive from participating in family philanthropic work or making a difference through the company’s approach to corporate social responsibility. The motivation of identifying oneself in relation to the business could derive from several family or business-related factors as described above, such as wanting to be known in conjunction to the family or business legacy, or the prestige associated with the family or the business. Finally, the motivation to “have a place” could be met through attachment to the family or firm through history, culture, and experiences that reinforce bonds contributing to individuals feeling that they belong there.

Routes to PO. Emotional cohesion within the business family or family business itself could be powerful catalysts for PO (Ceja & Tàpies, 2011). For instance, regular inclusions in family business meetings, participation in the family business's intern program, taking family business plant tours, or participating in philanthropic activities important to the business family could offer a sense of control or power. Similarly, past or current family or business accomplishments that are viewed by outsiders as prestigious and being associated with a business that is known for its powerful or prestigious brand may facilitate the feeling of control or power for the individual (Pieper & Astrachan, 2008).

Lastly, safety could be felt through strong emotional bonds, familiarity with the organization resulting from some of the activities already mentioned, or through perceived organizational support or trust stemming from the inclusion in things like family meetings .

Hypothesis 4: Emotional Cohesion is positively associated with PO of the firm in next-generation family members.

Family Process

Open Communication and Psychological Ownership. “Good communication is both good for business and good for family relations” (Lundberg, 1994, p. 36). It is hard to imagine a process within a family or business that is not enhanced by effective communication. The functions of open communication and adaptability, as part of the family process, counterbalances all previously discussed dimensions of the Family Climate Scale (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). Family communication serves as an important symbol for families (Sciascia et al., 2013), and communication between the current family business leadership and the next-generation members has been identified as a key factor critical to successful succession efforts. Family communication is thought to support enrichment, growth (Handler, 1991, 1992) and interfamily

relationships (Handler, 1991, 1992; Sciascia et al., 2013). Families lacking direct communication exchanges typically have ongoing dissatisfactions within the family, which in turn negatively impacts both the family and the family business (Williams, 1992).

Additionally, open communication has been identified by several family business scholars as a key element to the healthy functioning of a family business system (Davis et al., 1997; Poza & Daugherty, 2020). Starting the socialization process between potential successors with both the family and family business can help create strong cohesion with said units but doing so is dependent upon adequate communication (Garcia-Alvarez et al., 2002; Pieper, 2007; Pieper & Astrachan, 2008; Sciascia et al., 2013).

Owner/founder relationship building and maintenance with potential successors requires strong open and constructive communication as well (Higginson, 2010); otherwise, lack of trust and conflict can develop (Morris et al., 1997; Sciascia et al., 2013). Cohesion, open communication, and intergenerational attention have been found to enhance identification with the family firm in next-generation family members (Cabrera-Suárez et al., 2014). Parental support likely shapes the type of commitment next-generation family members have towards the family firm, and emotional support and verbal encouragement can enhance a next-generation family member's emotional attachment to the family firm (Garcia et al., 2019).

Again, since PO has been identified as a predictor of organizational commitment (Mayhew et al., 2007), open communication is expected to be positively related to PO of the family firm for next-generation family members as well. As noted earlier in the discussion of Family Intergenerational Style, parenting styles that foster open communication and maintain high standards while at the same time work to adapt to a child's needs results in a more positive outcome than other methods (Klein & Ballantine, 2001).

Communication is positively related to a shared vision in a family business, according to a study about the importance of family climate and shared vision in developing next-generation leaders in family firms (Miller, 2014). “The implications for family business owners is [sic] that they would be wise to spend as much time on fostering a positive family climate characterized by open communication as they do on creating and executing a successful business strategy if their goal is to pass the business from one generation of family owners to the next” (Miller, 2014, p. 1).

While no-doubt one of the most important characteristics of many types of family functioning (including those associated with the family climate), communication within families can be highly complex for various reasons. Preferences regarding communication styles can vary between family members and generations (Zehrer & Leiß, 2020); however, there are multiple ways in which communication can support the motivations and development towards PO to a family firm.

Roots of PO. Communication can support the roots of PO in a number of ways. Garcia et al. (2019) proposed verbal encouragement and emotional support to be two important factors contributing to their children’s self-efficacy towards the family business; and as discussed previously, efficacy has been identified as a contributor to PO (Avey et al., 2009; Pierce et al., 2003). Family communication likely supports the motivation for identity with the family firm, as shared family history and stories can enhance pride and identity for next-generation family members (Pieper & Astrachan, 2008). Communication can also reinforce the motivation for the business to be a place the individual can consider “home.” Talking about and sharing experiences, history, and artifacts can reinforce “home” as a place they feel comfortable or belong.

Routes to PO. Communication can improve relationships between older generations and younger ones, and the experience of positive leadership. When older generations are accommodating to next-generation family members' needs, it can create a sense of control or power for the next-generation family member. Again, in Pieper (2007)'s examples, investing oneself into the business can be accomplished by attending family meetings, and coming to know the business can be enhanced through stories, learning through internships, or taking plant tours. Lastly, safety can be accomplished through relational closeness, perceived organizational support, or trust, all of which are enhanced by appropriate communication with other family members. Many outcomes derived from effective communication can increase PO of the family firm in next-generation family members, which brings us to hypothesis #5.

Hypothesis 5: Open Communication is positively associated with PO of the firm in next-generation family members.

Adaptability and Psychological Ownership. In order for families and businesses to effectively navigate challenges, they need to be adaptable (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). Denison et al. (2004) highlighted an often-under-exploited advantage of family firms, which is the ability for them to adapt to the present while being connected to the past through the family legacy and the vision of the founder. Family businesses are free from the bureaucracy and other restrictions non-family businesses encounter to a higher degree, which allows them to make quick, bold decisions and use unorthodox means to seize opportunities, which in turn allows them to thrive over the course of generations (Miller & Le Breton-Miller, 2003). The ability to adapt is crucial to growth and progress (Bubolz & Sontag, 2009; Distelberg & Sorenson, 2009); however, not all family businesses leverage this freedom to the extent possible. While family and business systems require adequate structure to retain integrity and maintain stability (Distelberg

& Sorenson, 2009), too much rigidity can inhibit communication about topics such as strategic planning and potential business opportunities. Therefore, family members may struggle with the ability to navigate succession successfully (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007; Distelberg & Sorenson, 2009).

Adaptability and family cohesion have been linked to better communication and healthier relationships within families (Olson, 1989), helping them to navigate situations that could result in negative conflict more effectively, and thus improve the family's quality of life (Danes et al., 2000). Adaptivity has been indicated as a contributing factor for some families to view the business succession phase as an opportunity for innovation (Hauck & Prügl, 2015). Work done by Lee (2006) found adaptability to be a predictor of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction for next-generation family members, and their results indicated adaptability to be of greater importance to family relationships than cohesion. Another study by Lansberg and Astrachan (1994) identified family cohesion and adaptability to mediate the relationship between family commitment to the business and the owner-manager and successor relationship. Their work indicated that adaptability only affects commitment for families with either high or low levels of cohesion. It would appear that there are additional complexities to these relationships are not yet understood.

Clearly, adaptability is an important function within the family unit and like communication, the intergenerational authority has been found to be negatively related to adaptability in next-generation family members (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). It is important to emphasize that, like other psychological factors related to business and family systems, the family process is viewed as reciprocal in nature (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007; Walsh, 2015) and interacts with all functions of the family climate. The ways in which adaptability relates to

next-generation family member's PO of the family is discussed below.

Roots of PO. Adaptability in the family climate could contribute to the motivations at the “root” of PO in several ways. Families exhibiting high levels of adaptability are likely more open to allowing next-generation family members to feel effectance. Effectance can be gained through control or exploration within the family business (Pierce et al., 2003), and families with high levels of adaptability are more open to innovation and business opportunities. In conjunction with intergenerational attention to needs, innovation could result in the next-generation family member having more opportunities to envision ways to contribute to and derive satisfaction from the family business. Next-generation family members may also take pride in their family history or ways in which the family has adapted to adversity, changing business climates, and opportunities for innovation and growth. That pride may result in a family legacy the individual is motivated to root their own identity in.

Lastly, perhaps in conjunction with other family climate dimensions or even personality factors, adaptability may promote a next-generation family member to feel the business is a “home” they want to be a part of. Family climates and business climates often overlap, so adaptability within the family unit likely spills over into adaptability within the firm. A next-generation family member who has learned from their family the value of adaptability may have a sense of pride in this characteristic and feel it is a place they would like to belong.

Routes to PO. Adaptability within the family may contribute to the control route of PO. Next-generation family members are more likely to be given the opportunity to exert some power or be adaptable in their interactions with the business than families with less autonomy. Adaptable families may also allow and encourage next-generation family members to invest in the business in ways that are particularly meaningful to the individual. Additionally, in

conjunction with factors such as communication or cognitive cohesion, adaptable family climates may promote the ability for the next-generation family members, particularly those who are interested in preparing heirs for succession, to better understand the business.

It is recommended that responsible business owners wishing to adequately prepare the next-generation for successorship should begin teaching age-appropriate lessons, skills, and values relevant to running the business as early as age three (Astrachan & Pieper, 2011). Taking such an active approach in preparing potential successors would certainly enhance their knowledge of the family business, which can, in turn, serve as a route to PO.

Finally, adaptability and cohesiveness have been found to be collectively important to building strong relationships within the family unit. Family closeness is one mechanism for feeling safety, which can afford next-generation family members an opportunity to derive feelings of PO. Adaptable families are likely to promote trusting relationships and feelings of support (Sundaramurthy, 2008), which are additional ways in which next-generation family members can experiencing feelings of safety in the family firm.

It is likely that adaptability will be found to work in conjunction with other FCS to promote feelings of PO, but there is adequate supporting evidence that it will be positively related on its own merits as well. That leads to the next hypothesis.

Hypothesis 6: Adaptability is positively associated with PO of the firm in next-generation family members.

It has been proposed that family climate is positively related to *emotional ownership* (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012), which has many overlapping qualities of both PO and affective commitment (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012). Now that the hypothesized relationships of the individual family climate dimensions and PO have been established, the discussion shifts to the

ways gender affects this relationship.

Moderation Variable: Gender

As illustrated in the previous hypothesis discussion, there are likely numerous opportunities for the family climate to contribute to developing PO feelings for the family firm in next-generation family members. In addition to empirically testing the above hypotheses, this researcher is interested in including gender as a moderating variable for each of the previous hypotheses. The next section will consist of six additional hypotheses, each discussing ways gender likely moderates the relationship between that specific family climate dimension and PO of the family firm in next-generation family members.

Family business succession has been the focus of many family business studies; however, little work is available regarding the relationships between “familiness” or family-specific resources regarding succession outcomes (Byrne et al., 2019), and even less regarding psychological topics in respect to the business family (Sharma et al., 2020). More specifically, there is very little work available regarding how it impacts family business (Byrne et al., 2019; Martinez Jimenez, 2009).

While family businesses have more females serving in high-level positions than non-family companies, they still account for 24% of family firm CEOs worldwide (Kubiček & Machek, 2019). Previous research indicates women are often not considered seriously as potential successors (Dumas, 1989; Wang, 2010) until a family crisis creates an opportunity for them to participate in a leadership capacity (Dumas, 1989). The literature points to macro factors like social and cultural beliefs, and micro factors such as individual and family factors, contributing to fewer women business successors (De Massis et al., 2019).

Families represent a hierarchical structure, and authority within the family is generally deciphered by generational rank or seniority (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990). This hierarchy affects both the family and business system, and beliefs regarding family hierarchy and authority often transfer into the family business. Females often rank lower than males within the hierarchical family structure, putting them at a disadvantage to be considered seriously for succession compared with their brothers (Wang, 2010). Beliefs regarding appropriate roles for both men and women are conveyed through the family, sometimes intentionally, other times not (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990; Salganicoff, 1990).

Societal or family-derived gender role expectations can result in barriers to succession for women (Salganicoff, 1990). Females often attribute traditional gender roles within society or their family unit as reasons they are not engaged in the family firm (Dumas, 1998). The primogeniture norm, where families assume the firstborn male will take over the family firm, is still influential in many families (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990; Hytti et al., 2017; Keating & Little, 1997). Females are sometimes viewed as more fragile than males, thus requiring more protection from the world than their male counterparts (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990). In a qualitative study of daughters in leadership roles within family businesses, Hytti et al. (2017) identified that all the women in their research positioned themselves to be considered legitimate successors by intentionally constructing identities for themselves as such. Their study respondents reported adopting some masculine qualities as a part of this constructed identity to better position themselves for the “masculine business life.” They likely implemented this approach to combat preconceived notions around their abilities to handle themselves in a business setting. The interviewees also reported considering their audience and being selective about when and where to exert different parts of their identity.

Family members often assume that next-generation males will be groomed for family business leadership roles, leaving some daughters feeling excluded (Galiano & Vinturella, 1995). Daughters are generally socialized into the company to a lesser extent than their brothers (Byrne & Fattoum, 2014; Dumas, 1998; Wang, 2010). Instead, they are often assigned chores that support the family system, which frees up parents and brothers to engage the business system (Webbink et al., 2012). While the daughter's contributions support the family's ability to attain family and business goals, these assignments do not prepare them for working in the business.

Family and non-family members may view daughters as incompetent or not as smart as male heirs (Dumas, 1998). They are often met with skepticism by immediate family and others regarding their ability to be a leader within the business (Galiano & Vinturella, 1995). Perhaps this in-part results from fewer opportunities to learn about the company than are generally afforded to potential male successors. Allowing sons to engage in the business while at the same time daughters are assigned household duties may reinforce false beliefs regarding the daughter's capabilities while strengthening confidence in the brother's potential capabilities. Chores like laundry and dishes are repetitive, not complex, and somewhat seclude those performing them to the house. In contrast, being assigned more "important" jobs within the business provides opportunities to learn about the family business, build business-related skillsets, and practice interacting in the business environment. They may unintentionally perpetuate the idea that daughters are less capable or less suitable for business leadership than their brothers.

It is common for daughters to be considered "temporary" workers (Martin, 2001) or only suitable for administrative or secretarial type work (Dumas, 1992). When daughters work in the business, they often do not have defined roles or formalized titles, which can significantly reduce

the meaning or visibility of their contributions to others (Dumas, 1992). Role conflict, especially within father/daughter relationships, can also be problematic to females taking over leadership roles in the family business (Dumas, 1992). For example, it can be difficult for females to escape the “Daddy’s little girl” image and be viewed as a capable business professional (Dumas, 1992).

There are limited studies available that report on gender has on the relationship between family climate and PO of the family firm, particularly so from a next-generation family member perspective; however, there has been some work done on gender-related parent-child dyads concerning the family business. Most position the father as the senior in these studies, which is understandable considering most business leaders are male (Cole, 1997; Handler, 1994; Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990). Recently, Sharma et al. (2020) highlighted this gap in the research when they proposed “latent” family members like spouses or mothers are influential business stakeholders; however, they have not been given attention in the literature. While these women often possess no formal role within the family business, they influence goals, resource utilization, and succession planning. Family science offers some insight regarding parent-child behaviors and outcomes (Jaskiewicz et al., 2017). Still, it does not inform us regarding how family relationships and gender affect feelings of possession over something like a family business. The reciprocal relationship between the family and business systems often creates a home atmosphere that is difficult to comprehend if one has not lived it.

The unique, reciprocal relationship between a family and their business and the scarcity of studies focused on how dynamics in the family unit contribute to the development of feelings such as PO in next-generation family members and how gender may affect the development of such feelings, consequently means there is limited knowledge to derive direct insights from for this study (Jaskiewicz et al., 2017). Some hypotheses of this study had more applicable past work

available than others; however, as gaps in the research informative to this study were identified, it was somewhat helpful to draw from the literature a few steps removed from the current topic in order to formulate potential outcomes regarding the effects gender has in the following six hypothesized relationships. Evidence to support the moderating hypothesis was often found in research streams that likely had overlapping characteristics with this study. For instance, it was sometimes necessary to look to parent/child relationship research published in the family science literature to learn about likely outcomes of certain family dynamic or relationship patterns. While this is somewhat informative in terms of family dynamics, scholars have yet to determine under what circumstances these patterns do or do not hold true for business families. The business succession literature also encompasses work regarding the family climate in the business (Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Haberman & Danes, 2007) and even some gender related studies (Kubíček & Machek, 2019), but often the focus of this literature is on father/child dyads with little reference to the mother's involvement (Breton-Miller et al., 2004), and while some studies include components regarding why certain decedents may not be considered viable successors (Dumas, 1989; Wang, 2010), much less often does the sample include decedents who chose not to pursue careers in the family business .

Women have been referred to as “nurturers of the next generation of leaders” because of their highly influential role in imparting family and business values to their children while engaging the family system (Dugan et al., 2011). They often begin instilling their children with information about the business when their children are relatively young. As Martinez Jimenez (2009, p. 55) put it, “mothers teach their children to love the company.” Leadership roles within family businesses are more often held by males than females (Smythe & Sardeshmukh, 2013). Since family systems and business systems often share similar family characteristics, that flow

between the entities (Sharma, 2008) (Pearson et al., 2008), relational observations in family business succession literature likely apply to similar relationships in the family system.

In non-business families, fathers have been identified as role models for work for late adolescents and early adults (Roest et al., 2009). Thus, there seems to be evidence supporting the ideas that fathers are significantly influential on next-generation perceptions of the family climate related to PO of the family firm.

The Effects of Gender on the relationship between Intergenerational Authority and Psychological Ownership. Often high-levels of dominant or authoritative behavior in a family or business is associated with males (Bygren & Gähler, 2012), so the discussion of authority in this hypothesis assumes high-levels of authority are likely male-family leader derived. While high levels of intergenerational authority is likely off-putting for males and females alike, next-generation males likely experience a greater negative affect to their development of PO of the family firm than females. The relationship between sons and fathers in the family business can be difficult, particularly during distinctive life stages (Handler, 1994; Seymour, 1993). Family hierarchy often naturally places females in lower positions than males, so next-generation females are often afforded the least amount of authority within the overall family structure (Martinez Jimenez, 2009). As such, females are likely familiar with the expectation of deferring to authoritative figures. This imposed expectation of deferring to authoritative figures is somewhat exhibited by some of the more common ways they are found to engage with the family business. Often, female involvement happens through performing some sort of supporting role for their father (Dumas, 1989). Daughters often use the family business to bond to their fathers (Dumas, 1989), so high levels of authority in the family climate are likely not as pivotal to their PO of the family firm as it is for males, who are more likely to engage in conflict with

male leadership in the family business (Dumas, 1989; Hutson, 1987; Vera & Dean, 2005).

Additionally, it is not uncommon for female next-generation family members to be exposed to business operations to a lesser extent than males (Martinez Jimenez, 2009), and the reasons behind the lack of business exposure may further imbed thoughts regarding their access or rights to the business as females (Danes et al., 2005).

Some research indicates father-daughter and mother-son dyads experience less turbulent business succession than same-sex dyads (Haberman & Danes, 2007). Father-son conflict, as it relates to the family business, is more likely to be related to power, control, or competition due to sons feeling pressure to outperform their predecessor (Vera & Dean, 2005). High levels of authority likely magnify tensions and cause friction between males and next-generation family members.

Hypothesis 7: The positive relationship between perceptions of Intergenerational Authority in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.

The Effects of Gender on the Relationship between Intergenerational Attention to Needs and Psychological Ownership. Daughters are often less exposed to the family business than sons, putting them at a disadvantage when it comes to being equipped with the tools needed to navigate succession well. Next-generation females involved in family business often view their fathers as mentors (Dumas, 1992; Dumas, 1990; Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990). Before this state of involvement, it is likely that fathers who take a mentoring approach to attend to female next-generation family members' needs as they relate to the family business will likely enhance their chances of developing PO feelings for the family firm. Females who have entered the

family business report that their decision to do so was influenced from an early age; and supportive and influential family members, role modeling, and long-term training at the business were all indicated as factors contributing to their desire to position themselves within the firm (Dumas, 1998).

A portion of this family climate dimension focuses on protecting the younger generation. Fathers more often feel the need to shield daughters from the world or business problems more than their sons (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990). In this instance, senior generations attending to the next-generation females' needs could protect them from being ill-prepared to engage the family business, so they are more likely to be looked upon as someone who belongs in the company.

Females are traditionally less likely to have defined roles in an organization than men (Handler, 1994). A father who nurtures a daughter needs to understand how she relates to the business. He also needs to pay attention to her needs and encourage her to identify with the company, which will likely further enhance their relationship. Female successors in family business report supportive relationships with their father, both before and after joining the family business. That close relationship contributed to their decision to join the family business (Smythe & Sardeshmukh, 2013). In addition, females have been said to use the business as a means to bond with their fathers, and they are more concerned about relationships than their male counterparts (Smythe & Sardeshmukh, 2013). When females perceive attention is being paid to their needs, it likely promotes feelings PO.

Since males are assumed to have rights to leadership roles in the family business to a greater extent than females (Stavrou, 1998), attending to the needs of the males is not as impactful as attending to the needs of the females.

Hypothesis 8: The perceptions of high levels of Intergenerational Attention to Needs in the family climate will positively affect female next-generation family members' PO of the family firm to a greater degree than for male next-generation family members.

The Effects of Gender on the Relationship between Cognitive Cohesion and Psychological Ownership. Family psychology research indicates that fathers are usually more actively involved with their sons than their daughters (Starrels, 1994). They generally have closer bonds with them, and in congruence with other same-sex relationships, prefer bonding through participating in activities together rather than using verbal communication (Russell & Saebel, 1997). Fathers spend more time with their sons than they do with their daughters (Raley & Bianchi, 2006). Overall, fathers are more likely to have closer relationship bonds with sons than daughters and are more involved in guiding and disciplining them than their daughters (Starrels, 1994).

Parent/child dyads of the same sex generally develop similar interests. Men are drawn to masculine activities, and it is often easier to find common ground with sons through participation in them than it is with daughters (Raley & Bianchi, 2006). Literature indicates that one reason behind the length of time spent in same-sex parent-child dyads is because each gender has specific types of information to be shared in relation to their gender. For instance, fathers may need to teach a son “how to be a man,” and daughters are often taught how to be nurturers (Raley & Bianchi, 2006). While fathers often report having closer bonds with their sons than they do their daughters, they do not report feeling any less affection for daughters than their sons (Raley & Bianchi, 2006). Next-generation males are often groomed differently and to a greater extent for business succession than females. Often daughters are not trained for working in the family business as early or to the same extent as their brothers (Smythe & Sardeshmukh, 2013), and it is

not uncommon for women to prefer starting their own business over trying to join the family business in a male-dominated industry (Feldmann et al., 2020; Smythe & Sardeshmukh, 2013).

Females are more often assigned domestic duties in the home rather than being prepared for business succession. The differences in the way that males and females are raised impact the values and knowledge imparted to them. Males are likely more in tune from a young age regarding “how we do things around here,” and gender differences can affect things like preferred leadership approaches. Since a son’s bond with their fathers through cognitive cohesion, perceptions of high levels of cognitive cohesion are likely to enhance male feelings of PO to the family firm to a greater extent than females.

Hypothesis 9: The positive relationship between Cognitive Cohesion in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for female than for male next-generation family members.

The Effects of Gender on the Relationship between Emotional Cohesion and Psychological Ownership. The quality of relationships between parents and their children is a crucial factor influencing succession (Handler, 1991; Smyth & Davis, 2004), and stronger relationships have better communication and stronger feelings of support (Cabrera-Suárez et al., 2001). Father-daughter relationships in family firms are generally more harmonious and less competitive than father-son relationships (Dumas, 1989, 1992). Sons typically engage in more conflicts with fathers regarding control, power, competition, and autonomy, where daughters are more focused on intimacy and family harmony (Smythe & Sardeshmukh, 2013).

Since next-generation daughters are often more focused on nurturing roles within and outside of the family business (Dumas, 1992; Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990), they generally prioritize harmony and relationships to a greater extent than next-generation sons (Smythe &

Sardeshmukh, 2013). Additionally, Smythe and Sardeshmukh (2013) found daughters use the business as a means to feel emotionally close to their fathers, *even before joining the family business*. Family business literature has often cited strong family relationships as beneficial to the company but using the business as a *means* for daughters to bond with fathers is an outcome that has only been recently documented in the family business literature. Additionally, their respondents reported having a supportive relationship with their father both before and after they decided to become business successors, which likely aided in their decision to join the business while also contributing to the successful outcome of the transition.

Females are likely to value emotional cohesion over cognitive cohesion because of their traditional gender roles. Emotional closeness likely reinforces feelings of security. Next-generation females perceive high levels of emotional cohesion in the family climate; because the family firm is a big part of the family identity, it will increase her PO of the family firm.

Hypothesis 10: The positive relationship between Emotional Cohesion in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.

The Effects of Gender on the Relationship between Open Communication and Psychological Ownership. Open communication plays a vital role in all aspects of the family climate. Healthy father-daughter relationships offer many benefits to the daughter, including contributing to the daughter's self-perception and her levels of comfort and ability to form positive relationships with other males (Dunleavy et al., 2011). Due to the differences in parenting styles for male and female children and societal gender stereotypes, daughters may assume their fathers cannot or will not communicate with them on an emotional level. Many daughters will only engage in conversations with their fathers on topics such as finances, car

trouble, or academics (Dunleavy et al., 2011).

Females have reported that part of their motivation to pursue succession in the family includes better communication between the incumbent and successor, early socialization in the family business, and the quality of father-daughter relationships. (Campopiano et al., 2017). Communication at the family level would attribute to all of these motivations.

The successful integration of next-generation family members into the family firm requires good communication skills (Zehrer & Leiß, 2020), and many scholars have underscored the necessity of maintaining good communication during the process of succession (Handler, 1991; Lansberg, 1988; Morris et al., 1996). Poor communication in family businesses can result in conflict and trust issues (Morris et al., 1997).

Knowledge transfer from older generations to younger ones is imperative to succession. Next-generation family members report more significant issues with intergenerational communication, leaving them dissatisfied with their predecessors, and that can be detrimental to succession efforts (Zehrer & Leiß, 2020). Communication has been linked to several positive outcomes in family business, including promoting a shared vision between generations (Miller, 2014).

Females working in the family business with their fathers have reported having a preference for open and honest communication (Brundin et al., 2013). Good communications between the dyad allow females to find common ground with their fathers, which can help develop their business leader skills (Kubíček & Machek, 2019). Some report that while goals can be congruent, management styles can greatly differ. Open communication also opens a channel to navigate differences in a constructive way (Brundin et al., 2013). Successful father-daughter successions often include the father serving as a mentor to his daughter. These relationships are

supported and maintained through good communication exchanges.

Father-son conflicts tend to be related more closely to the dyad. For instance, typical conflict in these relationships stems from struggles for power, control, or competition (Dumas, 1992). In contrast, conflict occurring during father-daughter succession generally stems from less personal and more outward issues (Dumas, 1989). The nature of the conflicts themselves likely reduces the emotional pain associated with navigating them.

Females' preference for open communication between family members and others is generally stronger than that of males. Strong communication in the family climate likely affords many opportunities and channels that could enhance female next-generation family member's PO of the family firm.

Hypothesis 11: The positive relationship between Open Communication in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.

The Effects of Gender on the relationship between Adaptability and Psychological Ownership. In a multi-perspective study of succession in the family business, adaptive family culture; familiness; and family cohesion were identified as the top three factors contributing to successful business succession by both junior and senior family members (Bozer et al., 2017). In addition to adaptability contributing to successful succession efforts, when paired with a cohesive family structure, it significantly increased the family's probability of accepting a succession change (Lee, 2006). Family and business systems are overlapping entities and often carry many of the same attributes and values. Healthy family systems are generally more adaptable to change, and this is a necessary attribute for the health and growth of the family business.

A study on employees' ability to adapt within the workplace found women to be significantly more adaptable than men (O'Connell et al., 2008). Historically, females are expected to juggle many career and family-related duties simultaneously, and this experience may contribute to that outcome.

For female next-generation family members to view themselves in relation to the family business, they may need to ignore messages regarding traditional societal gender roles.

Adaptable family climates may be more open to females performing functions that are generally thought to be masculine, so it is likely that a family climate with high levels of adaptability may increase her chances of developing feelings of PO to the family firm.

Hypothesis 12: The positive relationship between Adaptability in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for female than for male next-generation family members.

Table 2.3*Summary of Hypothesis, Organized by Dimension*

Intergenerational Style and Psychological Ownership
H1: Intergenerational authority is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.
H2: Intergenerational attention to needs is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.
Family Cohesion and PO
H3: Cognitive cohesion is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.
H4: Emotional cohesion is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.
Family Process and Psychological Ownership
H5: Open communication is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.
H6: Adaptability is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.
Intergenerational Style and Psychological Ownership, Moderated by Gender
H7: The positive relationship between perceptions of Intergenerational Authority in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.
H8: The positive relationship between perceptions of Intergenerational Attention to Needs in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.
Family Cohesion and Psychological Ownership, Moderated by Gender
H9: The positive relationship between Cognitive Cohesion in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for female than for male next-generation family members.
H10: The positive relationship between Emotional Cohesion in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.
Family Process and Psychological Ownership, Moderated by Gender
H11: The positive relationship between Open Communication in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.
H12: The positive relationship between Adaptability in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for female than for male next-generation family members.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The following chapter provides a comprehensive summary of the methodology used to collect and prepare the data needed to evaluate the hypothesized relationships discussed in Chapter 2. First, descriptions of the survey instrument, survey approach, and sampling frame are provided. A discussion of the self-reported measures used in the survey will be discussed, as will the methods employed to prepare the data for the statistical analyses that will be discussed in the next chapter.

Overview

This quantitative empirical study aims to better understand the moderating role gender has on the relationship between the family climate and PO of the family firm, as perceived and experienced by next-generation family members. A quantitative survey, comprised of previously validated measures, has been designed to capture this study's data. I created an online survey on the Qualtrics platform to collect data for this research. Next-generation family members were the target population for this study. As discussed in the introduction, this study has adopted the following definition of family business as described by Chua et al. (1999)

The family business is a business governed and/or managed with the intention to shape and pursue the vision of the business held by a dominant coalition controlled by members of the same family or a small number of families in a manner that is potentially sustainable across generations of the family or families (p.25).

Responses were collected from descendants of family businesses, age 18 or older. This dissertation more formally defines target participants as *any individual of any generation, other than the founders themselves, who are members of a business-owning family*. Participants did not need to have ever worked in the family business, nor have plans to do so. Most studies on next-

generation family members focus on next-generation family members who are involved in the business, so surveying both those who have engaged the business along with those who have not added uniqueness to my approach. A snowball technique similar to the one implemented in (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012) Emotional Ownership research was used to distribute the survey. The online survey instrument included previously validated scales. A detailed account of the processes used to create and distribute the survey, a description of the resulting sample collected, and methods used to evaluate the data prior to the correlation and regression analysis will be provided next.

Survey Instrument

The data for this dissertation were collected during the COVID-19 global pandemic, which added a degree of difficulty to reaching potential survey respondents. Many people were working remotely, practicing heightened sanitation methods, and adhering to limited face-to-face contact with others through social distancing practices. Traditional means of sending mail surveys or personally delivering them was a less attractive choice during this time. Contacting people via telephone was also somewhat challenging, especially when business phones have not been forwarded to the remote worker's location. To avoid potential complications due to the pandemic, the predominate use of email and messaging agents to contact potential recipients and electronic surveys to collect the data appeared to be the most logical way to reach the target population.

Family businesses are a unique population to survey for a variety of reasons, but perhaps most notably because of the overlap of the family and business system (Habbershon et al., 2003). Compared to general business research, family business scholars face unique challenges when

attempting to survey this population (Wilson et al., 2014). As such, snowball and other similar data collection methods of convenience are often utilized in family business research. For example, in an overview of the development of the family business research field, Bird et al. (2002) reported 66% of empirical articles they reviewed derived from convenience samples. Reasons those involved in a family business might be reluctant to participate in primary research include the desire to protect the family's secrets, preferences against sharing information with those outside of the family or business, and as a mechanism of protection against negative publicity (Wilson et al., 2014). To procure adequate sample sizes, "...researchers must attain a higher level of trust when studying family businesses, which can potentially improve response rates and accuracy when eliciting information through direct means such as surveys (Schulze et al., 2001)." (Wilson et al., 2014, p. 8).

As noted by Bacher et al. (2019), "...Tourangeau (2014) summarized five theoretical categories: Hard-to-reach survey populations are hard to reach because they are hard to sample, hard to identify, hard to find or contact, hard to persuade and hard to interview," (p. 2) so the first reason a convenience sample was appropriate for this study was because, like previous family businesses researchers (Birley, 2002; Schröder et al., 2011), I found no professional or social organizations, databases, or other lists that were comprised of next-generation family members regardless of their involvement with the family business. Past researchers have accessed this population through individuals currently involved with the family business (Birley, 2002; Schröder et al., 2011), such as a parent or sibling. However, family dynamics, convenience, or other factors may inhibit their willingness to refer certain decedents; and factors such as unhealthy relationships between family members may inhibit target respondents from answering since the request to participate flowed through another family member.

Another factor that contributes to the difficulty of collecting data from these individuals, is that business survey response rates to surveys have increasingly declined over the years, and the average response rate for family business research publicized in seven respected outlets is just 21% (Pielsticker & Hiebl, 2020). Family members appear to be more reluctant respondents than non-family members, and traditionally electronic surveys result in lower response rates than mailed or personally delivered ones (Pielsticker & Hiebl, 2020). However, Hiebl and Richter (2018) reported in their management accounting response rate research that they found no significant difference between mail and electronic response rates. Establishing contact with family business respondents prior to sending surveys appears to increase survey responses (Pielsticker & Hiebl, 2020), which was the approach used for this study whenever possible.

Pielsticker and Hiebl (2020) believe it is possible the data on survey responses has not caught up to the shift in more people using mobile devices or tablets to engage surveys and that the research has not yet captured the shift in response rates. In a recent study comparing the use of PC and mobile devices for an online tourism survey, respondents in both China and the United States exhibited no significant difference in response quality across devices for multiple choice questions, despite response times being slightly longer for the mobile device user (Zou et al., 2020). These results aligned with those reported in a study comparing the use of web surveys taken on smartphones and tablets, even when not optimized for those screens. (Tourangeau et al., 2018).

The survey was developed using the Qualtrics XM platform (see Appendix A). Items for the survey, scripts, invitations to participate, and the overall survey process were developed and approved by Office of Research Protections and Integrity at the University of North Carolina, Charlotte. Family businesses are often reluctant to share details regarding their families and

businesses (Wilson et al., 2014), so the survey process was designed with anonymity for respondents as a top priority. No IP addresses or other identifies were collected in conjunction with the survey and every participant entered the survey through the same anonymous survey link.

Based on the preliminary testing conducted to gauge preferred question formats, I suspected many respondents might access the survey using a smartphone or tablet, so I optimized questions so the survey could be viewed well on both mobile devices and computers, and when possible, informed potential respondents that the survey was device friendly.

Survey Approach

I identified individuals within my personal and professional network who fit the desired respondent profile to directly plant “snowball seeds.” Additionally, I identified people who may or may not fit the respondent profile themselves but who likely had personal and professional connections that did, and who I had reason to believe would help distribute the survey on my behalf. Throughout a six-day window, I solicited survey responses via phone, social media posts, social media private messaging, and email. In some cases, I was specifically asked to contact someone referred to me, which I did.

All of the people I contacted were sent one of two formal invitations, as approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The first was constructed specifically with potential respondents in mind, and the other was for those I asked to help distribute surveys. Each of these invitations included details about the research and survey instrument; contact information for the researcher, faculty advisor, and the Office of Research Protections and Integrity; the study identification number; the link to the survey; and a request to share the survey with others. Due

to the nature of using a snowball method to reach potential participants, it was possible an individual might receive a link to the survey with no accompanying invitation letter to explain the research. Thus, all pertinent information included in the letter was also included at the beginning of the survey.

Sampling Frame

Members of various industry groups, governmental organizations that work with small businesses, professional business organizations, business staff and faculty from both public and private institutions that had potential ties to their local business communities and alumni, women's business groups, and social networks were contacted to plant the "seeds" for the snowball. Care was taken to start the sample with as diverse of a collection of "seeds" as possible (Kirchherr & Charles, 2018) to capture as distinct of a sample as possible, and surveys were procured from both contacts within my extended network as well as through cold calling. Many of my personal and professional contacts are located in the Midwest; however, seeds for the survey were planted throughout the entire United States.

To start the snowball, I sent 130 personalized emails or direct messages to potential respondents. I personally contacted individuals from at least 13 states across the United States. These individuals were invited to participate and/or share the study with others. I also made three social media posts during the response time, which were directly shared by others an additional 29 times. I am aware of at least a few instances where posts were shared through copying and pasting the link instead of sharing the original post. Thus, I would assume there may have been some additional posts of which I was not aware of. Of those I saw that were shared from the original post, some individuals additionally specifically tagged people from within their network

and asked if they would participate in the survey.

Recognizing I had limited contacts and referrals for individuals who would not describe themselves as Caucasian, I additionally contacted 10 minority focused Chamber of Commerce's in three states and the Minority Business Development Agency as a means to further expand the reach of my survey.

The sample size for this study was found using an A-priori Sample Size Calculator for Multiple Regression (Soper, 2006). The parameters entered were anticipated effect size: .15, desired statistical power level: 0.8, number of predictors: 20, and probability level: 0.05. This resulted in a minimum sample size of $N = 156$. Due to the nature of snowball surveys, the total number of individuals invited to participate is unknown. The total number of respondents who self-identified as meeting the criteria for the study was 289. Of those, 194 (67%) completed the survey in its entirety. Two hundred seventeen (75%) respondents reported some portion of the business was still owned by the founder or a next-generation family member, and 161 (74%) of those completed the survey in its entirety. Thus, 161 observations were used as the sample for this study. The survey captured participant's individual perceptions of each question.

Upon beginning the survey, participants were asked to confirm consent for their data to be used for academic research purposes and to self-identify their status as next-generation family members. Age had no bearing on the criteria necessary for this group (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012); however, the age requirement to establish "adult" level of maturity participation was 18 years or older. Participants were asked the three screening questions listed in Table 3.1 to establish participant eligibility. Each screening question was asked in "yes or no" format, and any individual who answered "no" to any of the screening questions were thanked and exited from the survey.

Table 3.1*Survey Screening Questions*

<p>Anonymous Participation Consent: Proceeding with the survey indicates you understand the information provided in the previous screen.</p> <p>Please choose “yes” to proceed. Choosing “no” will exit you from the survey.</p>	
1	Would you like to participate in this study, and do you consent for the researcher to use your data as a part of this study and in future academic research?
<p>Establishing Next-Generation Family Member Status and Age</p> <p>Welcome to my Next-Generation Family Business Research Survey!</p> <p>First, I need to confirm you are a next-generation family member. A <u>next-generation family member</u> is <i>any individual of any generation, other than the founders themselves</i>, who are members of a business-owning family.</p>	
1	Are you a next-generation family member?
2	Are you a direct descendant (i.e., blood relative or adopted child) of the family business founder(s)?
3	Are you age 18 or older?

Qualtrics has an option called “User Agent” which can be added post-survey to better understand the types of devices and browsers used to access surveys. Qualtrics describes the use benefit of reviewing User Agent as, “This element provides information about the respondent’s operating system and browser” (2006); however, no individual identifiers such as emails, names, addresses, or IP addresses were collected in this dataset. This information offers more insight into how survey respondents engaged the survey.

Of the 161 responses, 90 (56%) were completed on an iPhone or Android phone, 68 (42%) were completed on a PC or Apple computer, and 3 (2%) were completed on an iPad. Table 3.2 illustrates the ways in which respondents engaged the survey.

Table 3.2*Summary of Responses by Device and Browser*

	Cellphone		Computer		Tablet	
	iPhone	Android	PC	Apple Computer	iPad	Total Responses
Browser	35	9	57	11	0	112
Facebook Application	19	10	0	0	3	32
Facebook Messenger	16	0	0	0	0	16
LinkedIn	1	0	0	0	0	1
Total Responses	71	19	57	11	3	161

In addition, 49 (30%) of the respondents accessed the link from a social media application (Facebook, Facebook Messenger, LinkedIn); however, it is possible the link could have been copied and pasted from social media into a browser which would have then been considered completed from a browser. Since many emails were sent to potential respondents from multiple sources, it seems likely that the majority of the browser respondents would have received the invitation via email, but it is possible they could have received the link from someone else through text messaging or another means.

Measures

This section introduces the self-reported measures that were selected to evaluate the interactions between the constructs described in the literature review. The validated scales used to measure the dependent and independent variables are reviewed first, followed by an overview of the moderator and additional variables chosen to serve as controls.

A summary of all variables and their original sources included in this study is illustrated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3*Summary of Variables and Measures*

Variable	Measure
Dependent Variable	
Psychological Ownership	7 items, adapted for target to be family business (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004)
Independent Variables	
Communication	8 items, (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007)
Authority	8 items, (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007)
Intergenerational Attention to Needs	8 items, (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007)
Cognitive Cohesion	8 items, (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007)
Emotional Cohesion	8 items, (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007)
Adaptability	8 items, (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007)
Moderator	
Participant Gender	Male/female
Controls	
Age of Company	Number of years in existence, pulldown
Age of Respondent	Numeric pulldown
Business Industry	Agriculture; Forestry, Fishing, and Hunting; Business Information; Construction, Utilities, Contracting; Food and Hospitality; Health Care/Health Services; Legal, Financial, Accounting, Insurance; Manufacturing; Motor Vehicle, Personal Services, Retail; Transportation. Warehousing; Real Estate, Rental, Leasing; Other
Current Generation(s) of Ownership	One generation, two generations, more than two generations
Number of Employees	Total number of non-family and family employees
Succession Policy	Yes/no
Number of Generations Working in Family Business	One generation, two generations, more than two generations
Participant Current Ownership Share	Numeric pulldown, percentage Less than high school, high school or equivalent, some college, associate, bachelor, master, doctor, professional degree
Participant Level of Education	
CEO Gender	Male/female
CEO Relationship to the Business	Business founder, next-generation family member, non-family member

Upon establishing consent for participation and that individuals self-identified as having met the criteria to participate in the study, the following directions appeared. “The following

questions have no right or wrong answers. I am only interested in your opinions. While answering the following questions, *I would like you to think about the immediate family you grew up in...* in particular the adult members of your family. Please indicate your level of agreement for each of the statements in the following series of questions.” These instructions mimic the ones participants were given in Björnberg and Nicholson (2007).

Dependent Variable: Psychological Ownership

PO has been identified as both a predictor (O’ Driscoll et al., 2006) and antecedent (Bernhard, 2011) of organizational commitment in family businesses. Bernhard (2011) differentiated organizational commitment and PO by illustrating the question that each answers. “While PO answers the question ‘How much do I feel is mine?’ organizational commitment focuses on the question ‘Should I maintain membership with this organization and why?’” (Bernhard, 2011, p. 11). Organizational commitment has been said to be both a critical component (Handler, 1992) and key attribute to effective succession (Chrisman et al., 2010).

Business succession is often a prominent non-financial goal for family businesses. Therefore, understanding this and psychologically related micro components of the business family’s socioemotional wealth and how that may impact potential successor involvement is a priority for family business owners and scholars alike. Despite the known relationships between PO and commitment, PO remains relatively underexplored, particularly in next-generation family members (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012; Ceja & Tàpies, 2011; Heino et al., 2019; Mahto et al., 2014).

PO, the dependent variable in this study, was captured using the PO measurement instrument developed Van Dyne and Pierce (2004). Items were adapted, per the author’s instruction, to reflect the intended target of my survey, so “family business” replaced the word

“organization” in each of the questions. Participant’s level of agreement for each item was measured on a five-point Likert scale: strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, strongly agree. The instructions for measuring PO of the family firm were adapted from the original instructions to fit the need of my target following the protocol outlined in Pierce et al. (2018) collective PO research.

One item required reverse scoring, then a PO composite variable was created by calculating the average of all of the scale items. Internal consistency for each item in the scale was evaluated using Cronbach’s Alpha. Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) reported Cronbach’s coefficient alphas for each of their three studies as $\alpha = .87$, $\alpha = .90$, and $\alpha = .93$, respectively. The internal consistency of PO in my sample was $\alpha = .854$. DeVellis (2016) considers Cronbach alphas measurements between $\alpha = .80$ to $\alpha = .90$ to exhibit a “very good” level of reliability. Upon further examination, eliminating one item would have yielded a slightly larger result ($\alpha = .867$); however, since the scale exhibits a good level of reliability as-is, dropping the item would make only a negligible difference. Removing items from a scale can produce other reliability concerns (DeVellis, 2016); therefore, all seven questions were retained. Instructions and the seven items used to measure PO are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4*Scale items and instructions for PO*

<p>Section Introduction: In this section, I am interested in your <u>feelings of ownership</u> towards the family firm.</p> <p>Instructions: Think about the home, boat, or cabin that you own or co-own with someone and the experiences and feelings associated with the statement 'THIS IS MY (OUR) HOUSE!'</p> <p>Now, <i>while thinking of the family business</i>, indicate the degree to which you personally agree or disagree with the following statements.</p>	
1	This is MY family business.
2	I sense that this organization is OUR family business.
3	I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for the family business.
4	I sense that this is MY family business.
5	This is OUR family business.
6	Most of the people that work for this organization feel as though they own the family business.
7	It is hard for me to think about the family business as MINE. *
* Indicates reversed scored items	

Independent Variables: Six Measures of the Family Climate

The independent variables for this study include the six scales that comprise the Björnberg and Nicholson (2007) FCS. They include open communication, intergenerational authority, intergenerational attention to needs, cognitive cohesion, emotional cohesion, and adaptability. Participant's level of agreement for each item was measured on a five-point Likert scale: strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree, strongly agree. For this dissertation, the six individual scales which comprise the overall FCS were used as stand-alone independent variables. Tables 3.5, 3.6, and 3.7 include an itemized list of the questions that make up each scale. Reverse coded items are notated as well.

Like the PO scale, all items that required reverse scoring were addressed and composite variables for each scale were created prior to testing the level of internal reliability. Cronbach's alpha was computed for each scale and is reported in Table 3.8 in conjunction with the originally reported Cronbach Alpha for each scale. All scales returned a "very good" level of internal

consistency (DeVellis, 2016).

With roots firmly planted in family psychology research, the FCS were comprised through the combination of several hand-picked, reputable family psychology sources (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). By design, the authors combined several theories when creating the scale, with the intention of developing a measure specifically suitable for adaptation and use in the family business research field, while at the same time maintaining relevance for other areas of research that might benefit from its perspective (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). The authors identified three dimensions as principal components of family business survival and success: (a) family intergenerational style, (b) family cohesion, and (c) family process (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). They hypothesized these areas would have a strong influence on firm survival and success. They view *authority* as the psychological style of the family, cohesiveness as the psychological structure, and *process* as a counterbalancing agent within the family climate. Process is an important feature, as it represents how well members communicate, adapt, and make decisions, particularly when encountering unexpected circumstances. The three overarching dimensions each house two factors, for a total of six unique measurements. The factors include intergenerational authority, intergenerational attention to needs, cognitive cohesion, emotional cohesion, open communication, and adaptability.

Intergenerational style includes the measures for *intergenerational authority* and *intergenerational attention to needs*. *Intergenerational authority* was designed to evaluate how parents and children interact with one another. Some families allow younger generations more liberty or autonomy within the working relationship than others, and this measure evaluates the degree of liberty or constraint there is from one generation to the next.

Intergenerational authority was found to be orthogonal to emotional cohesion, cognitive

cohesion, and intergenerational attention. It would seem the way authority of the senior generation is handled is of special significance in the family system (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). It negatively correlates with open communication and adaptability, which implies families with high levels of this dimension may be at risk to be overly ridged and could struggle to cope well during seasons of change.

Intergenerational attention to needs involves the socialization of potential successors within the context of the family business (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007; Morris et al., 1996). The questions in this measure assess to what extent the older generation supports, takes interest, and overall mentors younger family members.

Intergenerational style was meant to encompass relationships not limited to parent-child interaction. Relatives other than immediate family can be engaged in the family business, so a broad perspective is warranted. “Intergenerational style acts as a mold for the structure, that is, roles and expectations that the successor will be entering into. It defines the leadership model for successors to adapt to, and the model for other relationships that family members may be expected to replicate in the future” (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007, p. 234).

Personality can play a role in how older and younger generations interact; however, the overall style of interaction between senior and junior family members can impact how conflicts are approached and resolved and whether or not a firm can survive the succession process. While overall intergenerational style is a two-way process, the focus of this element is on the attitudes and actions of the senior generation, since behavior expectations for family members flow from the top down (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007). Table 3.5 lists the survey items for intergenerational authority and intergenerational attention to needs.

Table 3.5*Family Intergeneration Style Scales*

Intergenerational Authority	
	Section Description: In the next section, I am interested in how <u>authority</u> is handled in your family. In this family...
1	the younger generations try to conform with what the older generation would want
2	the wishes of the older generation are obeyed
3	the authority of the older generation is not questioned
4	family members of the older generation set the rules
5	we make decisions with every person having an equal say, regardless of seniority *
6	older and younger members have equal amounts of power *
7	the word of the older generation is law
8	the younger generation is encouraged to freely challenge the opinions of the older generation *
Intergenerational Attention to Needs	
	Section Description: In the next section, I am interested in how <u>intergenerational attention to needs</u> is handled in your family. In this family...
1	the older generation takes a close interest in the activities of the younger generation
2	the older generation shows an active concern for the welfare of the younger generation
3	the younger generation are expected to look after their own interests *
4	older members have a protective attitude toward the younger members
5	the young adults are left to their own devices *
6	the older generation is highly supportive to the goals of the younger generation
7	the older generation is very responsive to the needs of the younger generation
8	older family members are attentive to the concerns of younger family members
* Indicates reversed scored items	

Family cohesion houses both the *cognitive cohesion* and *emotional cohesion* elements of the FCS. Cognitive and emotional cohesion are highly intercorrelated; however, particularly in the context of family firms, they are distinctive properties that should be considered independently. For instance, multigenerational family firms may sometimes report high levels of cognitive cohesion, while having low levels of emotional cohesion (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007).

Cognitive Cohesion is based on shared ideas, beliefs, and world views that can be communicated to those outside the family unit. It is vital to family (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007; Miller, 2014). A competitive advantage can be created through a strong leadership culture within the family firm, or rather, what Habbershon and Williams (1999) describe as familiness (Miller, 2014).

Emotional Cohesion is necessary for forming strong relationships; and it is important beyond the firm itself, extending out to community stakeholders (Nicholson & Björnberg, 2004). “How the family is able to hold together through crises and difficulties is largely a product of the intellectual and emotional ‘glue’ between members” (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007, p. 232). Cohesion can act as a grounding force for the family business system as it promotes commitment to family values and altruistic behavior towards family members (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007; Dutta, 1997).

There are three types of conflict commonly discussed in business literature: task conflict, process conflict, and relationship conflict (Jehn, 1994; Jehn et al., 1999). Task conflict stems from disagreement about the components or outcomes of a task. Process conflicts are generally about the logistics of completing a task, and relationship conflict involves interpersonal conflict such as personality or relationship differences, or differences in norms or values (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). Conflicts occurring within the family system may stem from a lack of cognitive cohesion even though emotional cohesion is high. Neuroscientists have found emotions strongly influence the process of both emotional and cognitive conflict (Zinchenko et al., 2015), and that humans process emotional and cognitive conflict differently at both the behavior and neural levels (Egner et al., 2008). Interpersonal conflict that can involve emotions such as resentment, concern, or anger is harmful to a firm because it increases stress and anxiety while

reducing the processing abilities or the cognitive functions of family members (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Schlippe & Kellermanns, 2008).

While moderate levels of task and process conflict can be beneficial to a firm, relationship conflict can greatly inhibit family firm outcomes, in addition to affecting any potential beneficial outcomes deriving from task or process type conflicts (Kellermanns & Eddleston, 2004). Unfortunately, at times family members may misattribute a conflict of cognitive beliefs as an emotional conflict, which can create unnecessary barriers to resolution (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007).

Deficiencies in either type of cohesion could lead to unhealthy conflict, which in turn can negatively impact business outcomes. While lack of cohesion can be detrimental to the family firm, dysfunctional levels of emotional cohesion can lead to detrimental rigidities as well (Beavers & Voeller, 1983). Thus, both cognitive and emotional cohesion are important and relevant factors to consider when evaluating the family climate. Table 3.6 lists the survey items for intergenerational authority and intergenerational attention to needs.

Table 3.6*Family Cohesion Scales*

Cognitive Cohesion	
	Section Description: In this section, I am interested in the <u>similarities of world view</u> in your family. In this family...
1	we have similar views on things
2	we tend to have widely differing views on most social issues *
3	we have shared interests and tastes
4	our attitudes and beliefs are pretty similar
5	we do not have much in common *
6	we think alike
7	we have radically different perspectives on things *
8	our values are very similar
Emotional Cohesion	
	Section Description: In this section, I am interested in the <u>emotional bonds</u> of your family. In this family...
1	for many of us, our strongest emotional ties are outside the family *
2	the emotional bond between us all is very strong
3	we usually feel happy to be with each other
4	we miss each other when we're apart for a while
5	family members make each other feel secure
6	family members feel warmth for each other
7	we are not emotionally close *
8	we feel a lot of love for each other
* Indicates reversed scored items	

Family process encompasses the scales for *open communication* and *adaptability*. The need for a healthy family process is important to both the family system and business system. Also mentioned previously, open communication and adaptability appears to be negatively correlated to intergenerational authority. Families may struggle to cope well with change if the older generation tightly holds onto authority (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007).

Open communication is vital to the health of a family business, especially since it is necessary to balance it beyond the bounds of a nuclear family system.

Adaptability examines how well the family can solve problems and adapt when faced with change. Rigid or less adaptable families may be at a disadvantage when it comes to engaging conversations such as productive strategic planning and may frame the potential abilities of the business system too narrowly.

The family process dimension is an important feature of the family climate. Open communication and adaptability are reciprocal in nature; and as mentioned previously, counterbalance the structure and style of the family. Research indicates the way conflict is handled within a family business can affect one's overall quality of life since family members may be both living and working together (Danes et al., 2000). Table 3.7 lists the survey items for intergenerational authority and intergenerational attention to needs.

Table 3.7*Family Process Scales*

Communication	
	Section Description: In this section, I am interested in your family's <u>communication</u> style. In this family...
1	people don't openly express their opinions *
2	we keep our views pretty much to ourselves *
3	we are polite rather than honest in how we communicate with each other *
4	we regularly talk about things that concern us
5	people are not interested in each other's opinions *
6	we take time to listen to each other
7	we bring issues out in the open, good or bad
8	we are frank with each other
Adaptability	
	Section Description: Q5.7 In this section, I am interested in <u>how well your family adapts</u> to change. In this family...
1	we face challenges very effectively
2	we are flexible and adaptable in how we deal with difficulties
3	we are poor at dealing with the unexpected *
4	we are always able to help each other when the need arises
5	in solving problems, we are not often willing to change our routines *
6	we approach problems with a positive mindset
7	we know we have the power to solve major problems
8	when we face difficulties, we work together effectively
* Indicates reversed scored items	

Table 3.8*Reliability: Internal Consistency of the FCS*

Dimension	Cronbach's Alpha Current Study	Cronbach's Alpha Original Sample (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007)
Open communication	0.845	0.847
Intergenerational authority	0.809	0.750
Intergenerational attention	0.850	0.809
Cognitive cohesion	0.887	0.894
Emotional cohesion	0.941	0.894
Adaptability	0.880	0.859
	<i>N</i> = 161	<i>N</i> = 291

Moderator: Gender

Moderating variables seek to illustrate when the introduction of an additional independent variable or ‘predictor’ (Creswell & Creswell, 2017) influences the main effect in a research model (Hair et al., 2019). Gender is a commonly used for this purpose (Hair et al., 2019) and serves as moderator for this study. Changes in the interaction of the main effect occurs due to the influence of the magnitude to the positive or negative that a moderator has on it (Hair et al., 2019).

For this survey question, participants were offered a choice of two options: male and female. Gender of the participant was presented as a “requested response” rather than a forced response in the survey. This study was designed with the social constructionists’ framework, which has gained popularity in recent entrepreneurship and family business literature (Ahl, 2006; Byrne et al., 2019; Hytti et al., 2017; McAdam et al., 2020) in mind. This stream of research suggests that like other groups of people, business and families are not gender-neutral entities, nor are the roles individuals play within them (Byrne et al., 2019). “In examining the succession process as gendered, we see gender as constructed (and co-constructed) in interactions between

actors (between daughters, fathers, mothers, brothers and other stakeholders within and outside the family) continuously negotiating and renegotiating the meaning of gender. Gender is not a property of the female successor but of the relationship between daughters and the gendered assumptions that are socially embedded in family business practices.” (Hytti et al., 2017, p. 666). Family business is often thought of as a “masculine” entity; and if successors are groomed and potentially chosen more often based on the alignment of a society’s or family’s underlying assumptions regarding gender characteristic, business families may often and unintendedly narrow their potential successor pool, which could then inhibit a successful succession effort (Byrne et al., 2019). This non-metric variable was transformed to a dichotomous variable dummy variable, where 1 = female, and 0 = male.

Control Variables

One way to reduce potential error when determining if the significance levels of relationships between variables accurately represents the observed effects is to include control variables (Hair et al., 2019). Variables included as controls should be ones identified as potentially contributing to the measured affects the study is focused on. Including these variables in the analysis helps to reduce uncertainty due to unaccounted for variance when observing statistical relationships (Hair et al., 2019).

Factors selected for controls in this study were ones other than the independent variables and moderator that likely contribute to a next-generation family member’s PO of the family business. In his research examining “the family effect” of family business and firm performance Gibb Dyer (2006) suggested researchers use caution when making assumptions about the results of studies on firm performance that do not account for factors such as industry, governance, firm characteristics, and management. Without proper control, the perception of effects may appear;

however, had they included proper control variables, may have yielded different results. There are many possibilities that could be added to the control section; however, I included a total of 13, commonly used in the family business literature, that seemed likely to influence the outcomes of my study. These 13 are often controlled for in the family business literature; however, many others could be possible choices as well (Hair et al., 2019).

I followed the advice of (Gibb Dyer, 2006) and included factors pertaining to industry, governance, firm characteristics, and management characteristics. Additionally, I included characteristics of the respondent themselves since those have also been found to influence the effect of relationships in empirical family business research (Gimenez-Jimenez et al., 2020).

Each control and its measurement will be described below. There are numerous ways the control variables could influence the outcomes of this study, which is why it is necessary to account for them. I also included limited examples to exhibit ways each control may skew the outcome of this study if not stabilized. The process of creating and coding new variables in order to incorporate categorical data into the regression analysis is noted for the items that required them.

The industry best describing the respondent's family business was collected as a categorical variable with 13 separate industry groupings listed. Almost 65% of respondents reported their family business belonged to the agricultural group, and an additional 10% of respondent's indicated "construction" best described the family business's industry. Since the majority of the respondents selected one of those two options this control was captured by creating two separate dichotomous industry variables.

Although females have been involved in farming in the United States for hundreds of years, *agriculture* is often attributed as a male-dominated occupation. (Shisler & Sbicca, 2019).

In addition to being considered a masculine profession, family farms may additionally possess unique characteristics that are less common in other types of businesses as well (Astrachan & Shanker, 2003; Dumas et al., 1995; Houshmand et al., 2017). For instance unlike other business types, adolescents often work on their family's farm year-round (Houshmand et al., 2017), live in a home located on the same property as the business, and begin helping with the business earlier than children from other types of businesses (Dumas et al., 1995). The dummy variables for agriculture were coded 1 = agriculture, 0 = all other industries.

Construction is another traditionally male dominated field that could present a host of related factors affecting next-generation females' ability or desire to participate in the family business (Kubíček & Machek, 2019). This may influence the development of ownership feelings for the business, adding to the reason it was designated as a single control variable. The construction dummy variable was coded 1 = construction, 0 = all other industries.

The **CEO gender** control variable for this study was captured by asking participants to select between male or female to indicate the current CEO's gender. Males are more likely than females to garner upper-management roles in family businesses (Hall, 2018). Preferences towards certain types of decision-making processes, management approaches, and communication styles are just a few characteristics of family business managers thought to be influenced by gender (Kubíček & Machek, 2019). Some past research suggests incumbent and successor leadership style is correlated, and that daughters who exhibiting attributes commonly viewed as feminine may not be considered as a potential successor (Kubíček & Machek, 2019; Overbeke et al., 2013). A dummy variable was created and coded as CEO gender 1 = male, 0 = female.

The **CEO's relationship** to the business family is an additional characteristic of the

family business controlled for in this study. Some families may prefer appointing a non-family CEO or selling the business before they transferring leadership to a female next-generation family member (Cao et al., 2015; Kubiček & Machek, 2019). Responses for this question were categorical, and respondents were asked to indicate if the current CEO was the firm founder, a next-generation family member, or no relation to the business family. These answer indicating a family relationship were collapsed into one to allow for a dichotomous variable to be created. Business founders or related successors often are unwilling to relinquish control of the firm until later in life, if ever having retired (Handler, 1994; Sharma, 2004), which may influence a next-generation member's ability to "control" the business themselves (Liu et al., 2012). A next-generation family member's relationship with the family firm may also influence their feelings towards the family firm. Unhealthy relationships, for instance, (Kaye, 1996). The CEO relationship dummy variable was coded 1 = founder or next-generation family member, 0 = CEO is non-family member.

Respondent level of education was included as an eight-item continuous variable. Level of education achieved is sometimes used as criteria to assess a potential family business successor's ability to take over the business (Brockhaus, 2004; Overbeke et al., 2013). Education level of the successor was also found to be positively correlated with an effective business succession transfer as well as post-succession performance (Morris et al., 1997). In contrast, education may create a desire for next-generation family members to find a career outside of the family business (Zardo et al., 2020).

Controlling for the existence of a ***succession policy*** was included as a governance policy that could influence the main or moderating effects of this study. Participants were asked to indicate if their family business had a succession policy, such as the oldest male in the family is

chosen as the business successor, a practice often referred to as “primogeniture.” Succession policies have been highlighted in past research as a contributing factors influencing relationships in empirical family business research (Gimenez-Jimenez et al., 2020). Primogeniture is a common practice used in many cultures to select family-firm successors (Kubíček & Machek, 2019). The topic is well-established in the family business succession literature (Keating & Little, 1997; Kubíček & Machek, 2019). However, recent research points to evidence suggesting family business leaders may be relying on it to a lesser extent as they plan for intergenerational succession (Calabrò et al., 2018). The dummy variable for succession was coded 1 = yes, there is a succession policy, 0 = no, there is no succession policy.

The current generations of ownership was presented as a continuous variable in the survey. Choices indicating how many generations possessed legal ownership shares at the time of the survey were one generation, two generations, or more than two generations. Family businesses in which legal ownership is concentrated at one level likely maintains stricter authoritative control over important business decisions. In contrast, businesses with multiple generations of owners may be more likely to exhibit a more equitable distribution of power and may employ a more collaborative approach when making important business decisions (Ward & Dolan, 1998).

Family members possessing ownership shares may have more emotional attachment to the shares than they would for other businesses. Should an individual decide it is time to sell their shares, they may experience a negative emotional burden from doing so. For instance, the individuals may feel they are being disloyal to their family for having the desire to liquidate their shares (Ward, 1997).

Current number of people employed at the business was captured on a continuous scale

as a measure of firm size. (Chrisman et al., 2012)

Current number of generations working in the firm was additionally accounted for using the same continuous variable choices as generations of ownership. Respondents could choose one generation, two generations, or more than two generations as their answer. More than one generation of family members working together could result in positive and negative implications, particularly when paired with other family business dynamics or relationships. For instance, older family firms have been observed to be less innovative with each generation; however, 3rd generation or older next-generation family members who had high levels of PO for the family business increased innovative outputs at the same levels as the firm's founder (Hauck & Prügl, 2015)

Adolescents working with their parents on the family farm year around were found to have a better psychological sense of well-being than their nonfamily firm working peers and reported better relationships with their parents (Houshmand et al., 2017). In contrast, sometimes multiple generations working together can create division due to older generations being reluctant to share power or engage in succession efforts, leaving the younger generations feeling as if they are living in the “shadow” of their mother or father (Davis & Harveston, 1999; Ferrari, 2019).

Age of the business was captured as a continuous variable in the survey. Business age could influence several factors in this research, including experience in surviving succession efforts (Chua et al., 1999). Older businesses have also been associated with higher achievements both in the family and within the business systems (Olson et al., 2003); however, later generations of owners may produce lower levels of outcomes such as innovation (Rau et al., 2019). Others have used age of the business as a control variable with the assumption that the

older the business is, the more the business family is likely to be attached to it (Chrisman et al., 2012; Zellweger & Astrachan, 2008).

Data Analysis

Preliminary Analysis

To ensure data were randomly and equally distributed, normality was assessed on the dependent variable items through a visual inspection of graphical analysis. Data should be randomly and normally distributed and individual observation should not be influenced by one another (Hair et al., 2019).

As reported previously, the number of observations collected for this study was 161. A preliminary analysis of the data was conducted in order to identify any incomplete or missing data observations (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Hair et al., 2019). As illustrated in Table 3.9, only two were missing, which accounted for 1.2% of the sample. Both were from the respondent gender question, which was the only non-forced response item on the survey. The percentage of missing observations were well under the acceptable threshold to eliminate without potential negative repercussions to the sample. There are several ways to reconcile missing data in the data set (Hair et al., 2019). Since the missing data points were minor and the sample size was sufficient without including those two observations, I chose not to impute missing values (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 3.9*Univariate Missing Data Statistics*

	Possible Responses	Actual Responses	Percent Missing	Method of Imputation
Dependent Variable				
Psychological Ownership	161	161	0	n/a
Independent Variables				
Communication	161	161	0	n/a
Authority	161	161	0	n/a
Intergenerational Attention to Needs	161	161	0	n/a
Cognitive Cohesion	161	161	0	n/a
Emotional Cohesion	161	161	0	n/a
Adaptability	161	161	0	n/a
Moderator				
Participant Gender ^a	161	159	1.2%	Complete Case
Controls				
Age of Company	161	161	0	n/a
Age of Respondent	161	161	0	n/a
Business Industry	161	161	0	n/a
Current Generation(s) of Ownership	161	161	0	n/a
Number of Employees	161	161	0	n/a
Succession Policy	161	161	0	n/a
Number of Generations Working in Family Business	161	161	0	n/a
Participant Current Ownership Share	161	161	0	n/a
Participant Level of Education	161	161	0	n/a
CEO Gender	161	161	0	n/a
CEO Relationship to the Business	161	161	0	n/a
^a . Gender response 157/161 = 1.2% missing				

Common Methods Bias

Variance stemming from the methodology used to gather data, rather than the attributes of the measurements themselves, is referred to as *Common Methods Bias* (Hair et al., 2019; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Variance can be controlled by taking a variety of steps to avoid it while in the survey planning stage (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Additionally, it can be controlled using methods during the data analysis itself. For this study, previously validated scales were chosen and the respondent's contact information was not collected, These things should help to lower the potential for common methods bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003) .

The survey may have had some characteristics contributing to variance that should be

considered, according to Podsakoff et al. (2003). For instance, criterion and predictor variables were collected from the same source. I utilized Podsakoff method of evaluating common methods bias Podsakoff et al. (2003), which is commonly used in family business research (Tehseen et al., 2017) to evaluate Common Methods Bias of this survey.

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is often used prior to other multivariate analysis to assess for common methods bias (Hair et al., 2019). A EFA is not suitable to evaluate nonmetric variables, thus dummy variables have to be created to transform any measurements you wish to include in the EFA, and it is ideal if the sample data size is at least 100. Dummy variables had previously been created for use in this analysis, and the study sample size is adequate (Hair et al., 2019). This analysis was completed using IBM SPSS 27.

All items are loaded into the test, and the resulting analysis reflects the amount of variance each factor accounts for. The extracted variance is referred to as an Eigenvalues (Hair et al., 2019). Twelve factors emerged from the EFA analysis, and all were items from the independent variable scales. Two items from the dependent variable and The Eigenvalues for the first factor explains 28.41%. Total cumulative variance was 71.339%. The results of this assessment indicate common methods bias is not a significant concern in this study (Hair et al., 2019).

Chapter four includes an ANOVA, descriptive statistics, correlation, the regression analysis, and a report of the hypothesis supported.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

Overview

This section outlines preliminary and statistical analyses performed to test each hypothesized relationship in my study. The software used to complete the analysis was IBM's SPSS Statistics, Version 27.

PO of a target can be developed through multiple roots and routes. The empirical analysis of this work aimed to examine what role the unique characteristics of business-owning families' internal dynamics might play in the development of PO of the family firm for next-generation family members. Since several surrounding factors have potential to inject bias into the results, it was important to control for those in this analysis. Additionally, I sought to understand what interacting effect gender had on these relationships.

Descriptive statistics, correlations, collinearity diagnostics, and a regression analyses were conducted. Descriptive statistics were then assessed to evaluate frequencies, means, and standard deviations for all independent and dependent variables, as reported in Tables 4.1.1 and 4.1.2. A univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to assess the overall model fit (Creswell & Creswell, 2017) and an analysis of the bivariate correlations was performed. Finally, the regression analysis was completed and outcome for each hypothesis evaluated for statistical significance (George & Mallery, 2019; Hair et al., 2019).

Bivariate Correlation Results and Descriptive Statistics

The bivariate correlation results and descriptive statistics are provided in Table 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 . The average age of the survey respondents for this study was 47, the average age of the family business was 73, and the average respondent owned 24% of the family business. The

mean number of generations who own the business is 1.76, and on average, two generations are employed at the family business captured within this study with a mean total of 7.5 employees working at the business. Most (84%) respondents reported a male CEO and 99% indicated the CEO was either the founder or a next-generation family member. A succession policy, such as the first-born son of each generation being expected as future heir of the organization, was reported by 40% of the respondents. Two sets of industries comprised nearly 75% of all responses. Sixty-four percent of respondents reported their family business falls with either the agriculture, forestry, fishing, or hunting industry; and an additional 10% reported construction, utilities, and contracting best described the business's operations. This sample reported high levels of college education. Only 7.5% of the respondents indicated they had taken no college courses beyond high school, and more than 67% of respondents held a bachelors, masters, or doctoral degree. In comparison, the U.S. Census Bureau recently reported 36% of the U.S. population held bachelor's degree or higher, up from just under 30% in 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020).

Pearson's r product-moment correlation is the bivariate correlation formula used to interpret the strength of relationships between variables in this study. The Pearson analysis computes correlations between two continuous or nominal variables, indicating direct and indirect relationships between the variable (Salkind, 2013). Bivariate correlation absolute value scores, also referred to as *correlation coefficients*, range from +1.00 to -1.00 are measures of relationship strength (Salkind, 2013). Stronger relationships exist as scores move closer to 1 or -1, while weak or no relationships occur as absolute values approach 0. Standard "rules of thumb" when interpreting the strength of a relationships between variables are: .8 to 1.0 = very strong, with 1 indicating a perfect correlation, .6 to .8 = strong, .4 to .6, = moderate, .2- to .4 =

weak, and .0 to .2 = no relationship (Salkind, 2013).

Prior to conducting the correlation analysis, it was necessary to transform items from my survey related to industry and education that had not originally been captured as continuous or nominal variables since this correlation method required those formats (Hair et al., 2019; Salkind, 2013). Additionally, the individual items from each scale used in the study were compiled to create one scale variable, and the means for each of those scales was standardized for a more accurate analysis (Hair et al., 2019). To do this, composite variables were created for all reverse scored items, and the individual scale items were compiled and averaged to create the new z-score or standardized score variables (Salkind, 2013, 2014). Once the scales were compiled and standardized, they were ready to be included in the analysis (Hair et al., 2019).

Pearson's r correlation was run using IBM SPSS Statistics, Version 27, and since the direction of relationship was unknown a two-tailed test was employed to measure significance levels. Results of the correlations were reported at the $p < .05$, $p < .01$, and $p < .001$ significance levels. As seen in the correlation analysis, PO of the family business was found to be correlated and statistically and positively significant with seven other variables. The age of the survey respondent was ($r = .22, p < .001$), thus suggests that older respondents reported higher levels of PO. Ownership status was ($r = .34, p < .001$), which indicates those reporting higher levels of legal ownership also reported higher levels of PO. Interestingly, generations of ownership, which represents the number of generations who currently own business shares was also significantly related to PO ($r = .212, p < .05$), which indicates those reporting more generations possessing ownership shares also reported higher levels of PO. Succession policy ($r = .18, p < .01$) was a dichotomous variable converted for use here, and it appears there is a positive and significant relationship between these types of policies and the respondent's reported level of PO. The more

generations the respondents indicated were employed at the family business the greater they rated their level of PO ($r = .208, p < .001$). These first six correlations were all between control variables and the DV for the study. The next correlation was Adaptability, one of the IVs for the study ($r = .29, p < .001$). This significant correlation indicates the more respondents perceive their family to be adaptable, the higher the level of PO they reported. The last relationship found to be significantly correlated for PO in this study was the moderating variable, gender. It was statistically negatively correlated at ($r = -.29, p < .001$) suggesting that men reported higher levels of PO than females. It is important to again note that while all of the previously mentioned correlations were statistically significant at different levels, all of the previously mentioned correlations levels were between $r = .2$ and $r = .4$, indicating weak relationships.

Gender was only correlated with one of the IVs for this study. It had a weak but positively significant relationship with emotional cohesion ($r = .21, p < .05$). This result suggests that females reported higher levels of emotional cohesion in their families than men did.

There is a notable pocket of significantly correlated variables in Table 4.1.2. It includes the six IVs used to measure family dynamics in this study. Between all IVs, only two did not correlate with every other IV in the study. Both were intergenerational authority, and it was not correlated significantly with adaptability or cognitive cohesion in this study.

While the bivariate analysis garnered 45 correlated and statistically significant relationships, again only one of those was between variables included in the direct effect model.

Table 4.1.1*Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations*

	Mean	Std. Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Agriculture	0.64	0.48								
2	Construction	0.10	0.30	-.44***							
3	Number employed at the business	7.50	6.37	-.08	.17*						
4	Gender of CEO	0.84	0.37	.00	.09	.04					
5	Current CEO family member	0.99	0.11	.03	.04	-.07	-.05				
6	Age of the family business	73.36	41.39	.42***	-.11	.07	-.24***	-.08			
7	Age of the survey respondent	47.33	15.42	.06	-.04	-.05	-.17*	-.05	.33***		
8	Respondent ownership status	24.38	32.48	.19*	-.12	-.06	.00	.00	.14	.48***	
9	Generations of ownership	1.76	0.59	.07	-.01	.29***	.03	.15	.16*	.00	-.04
10	Succession policy	0.41	0.49	.10	-.02	.14	-.06	-.14	.04	.20*	.07
11	Generations employed	2.01	0.61	.12	-.01	.39***	-.02	.00	.16*	.02	-.09
12	Respondent education	4.77	1.33	-.02	.00	-.03	-.09	.07	-.11	-.15	-.11
13	Communication	3.67	0.85	-.11	.06	-.04	-.17*	-.06	.03	-.04	.12
14	Adaptability	3.87	0.75	-.12	.05	.13	-.17*	.07	.08	.08	.09
15	Cognitive cohesion	3.77	0.80	.12	.00	.03	-.03	.06	.07	-.12	.05
16	Emotional cohesion	4.07	0.87	.01	-.06	.02	-.08	-.08	.07	-.11	-.04
17	Intergenerational authority	3.23	0.80	.14	-.02	.17*	-.05	.11	.07	.24**	.02
18	Intergenerational attention	3.70	0.74	.05	-.09	-.03	-.10	-.05	.07	.01	-.03
19	Respondent gender	0.48	0.50	-.01	-.07	.04	-.28***	-.12	.08	-.16*	-.32***
20	Psychological ownership	3.38	1.00	.08	.00	.06	-.09	.12	.12	.22***	.34***

Note. N = 159. SD = standard deviation; dummy variables were coded agriculture 1 = agriculture, 0 = all other industries; construction 1 = construction, 0 = all other industries; gender of CEO 1 = male, 0 = female, current CEO family 1 = founder or next-generation family member, 0 = CEO is non-family member; succession policy 1 = yes, 0 = no, gender of participant 1 = female, 0 = male.

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001. (two-tailed).

Table 4.1.2*Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations Continued*

	Mean	Std. Dev	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1 Agriculture	0.64	0.48										
2 Construction	0.10	0.30										
3 Number employed at the business	7.50	6.37										
4 Gender of CEO	0.84	0.37										
5 Current CEO family member	0.99	0.11										
6 Age of the family business	73.36	41.39										
7 Age of the survey respondent	47.33	15.42										
8 Respondent ownership status	24.38	32.48										
9 Generations of ownership	1.76	0.59										
10 Succession policy	0.41	0.49										
11 Generations employed	2.01	0.61	.17*									
12 Respondent education	4.77	1.33	-.05	-.15								
13 Communication	3.67	0.85	-.02	.00	-.03							
14 Adaptability	3.87	0.75	.12	.21*	-.03	.53***						
15 Cognitive cohesion	3.77	0.80	.08	.15	-.01	.33***	.54***					
16 Emotional cohesion	4.07	0.87	.08	.11	.05	.44***	.64***	.68***				
17 Intergenerational authority	3.23	0.80	.03	.00	.04	-.27***	-.12	.00	-.21*			
18 Intergenerational attention	3.70	0.74	.07	.08	-.03	.38***	.50***	.59***	.67***	-.17*		
19 Respondent gender	0.48	0.50	-.05	-.10	.27*	.02	-.04	.02	.21*	.08	.11	
20 Psychological ownership	3.38	1.00	.18*	.20*	-.14	.04	.21*	.13	.08	-.05	.08	-.29***

Note. $N = 159$. SD = standard deviation; dummy variables were coded agriculture 1 = agriculture, 0 = all other industries; construction 1 = construction, 0 = all other industries; gender of CEO 1 = male, 0 = female, current CEO family 1 = founder or next-generation family member, 0 = CEO is non-family member; succession policy 1 = yes, 0 = no, gender of participant 1 = female, 0 = male.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. (two-tailed).

Results of the Regression Analysis

The hypotheses for this study were tested using a hierarchical regression analysis comprised of four models. Table 4.3 illustrates the results of the regression analyses. As noted previously, there is one dependent variable for this study and it is PO. All four models controlled agriculture (industry), construction (industry) number of employees, gender of CEO, current CEO relationship to family, age of the business, age of the survey respondent, generation of ownership, presence of a succession policy, number of generations employed, respondent education, and respondent ownership status. The Standardized Beta scores were reported for each of the four models. Creating Standardized Beta scores is necessary to allow for more equal comparison in a regression analysis (Hair et al., 2019). R^2 , the coefficient of determination is the percentage of variance of the dependent variable that can be explained by the variable(s). It depicts the shared percentage of variance of the variables (Hair et al., 2019), and ranges from 0.0 (indicating no prediction) to 1.0 (perfect prediction). The more the variability shared between two variables, the closer the relationships (Salkind, 2013).

Model 1 tested the control variables for the study. Respondent business ownership status was significantly and positively related to PO ($\beta = 0.345$, $p < .001$). The model was significant ($p = .001$) with an R^2 of .227, suggesting that more legal ownership a next-generation family member has, the greater their PO will be. While the model is significant, it explains 22.7% of the variance in PO, which is considered a low amount.

In Model 2, PO regressed on the control variables in addition to the six independent variables representing Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. The model's R^2 increased to .245, but was not significant and none of the hypotheses were supported.

The gender of the respondent was added to Model 3 of the regression. Respondent's business ownership status was statistically significant again ($\beta = .290, p < .01$). Gender was dummy coded females = 1, males = 0 and was negatively and statistically significant in this model ($\beta = -0.191, p < .05$). The model R^2 increased to .268 which was significant at the $p < .05$ level, but it changed very little from Model 1's R^2 and remains fairly small. These results suggests next-generation family members PO increases with the amount of legal ownership that they have, and that male respondents report higher levels of PO than females. Note that the likelihood the result for respondent business ownership is a false positive decreased from $p < .05$ to $p < .01$ in this model. This suggests the inclusion of gender helped reduce some of the variance for respondent ownership status. Additionally, in the bivariate analysis, gender was not significantly correlated to PO, but in the presence of the IV's and controls, it is.

Model 4 included the interactive variables to test hypothesis 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12. The respondent's ownership status remained statistically significant in this model ($\beta = .265, p < .05$) as did gender ($\beta = -0.193, p < .05$), but none of the interactions were significant, nor was the model. Therefore, hypotheses 7 to 12 were not supported.

Six independent variables were represented in my study, and a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) illustrates the effect of the other IVs. A large VIF suggests the standard effect of the coefficient, as well as is a symptom of collinearity or multicollinearity between IVs in a regression analysis (Hair et al., 2019). When VIF returns a $< \text{or} = 1$ result, there is no correlation between predictors. Values that fall between the 1-5 range are moderately correlated, but often still not of concern. Values greater than 5 are severe and indicate regression p values may have reliability issues. All VIFs in my study fall between the 1-5 range. So there should be little concern regarding multicollinearity in this study (Hair et al., 2019).

A summary of the hypothesized relationships for this study is included in Table 4.4. As suggested in the regression analysis, none of the 12 hypotheses to test my model were supported. Following the table is Chapter 5, which includes a discussion of the results, limitations of the study, areas for future research, and the conclusion.

Table 4.2*Regression Models*

	Model 1 Controls	Model 2 Main Effects	Model 3 Moderator	Model 4 Interactions
Dependent Variables				
Psychological Ownership				
Controls				
Agriculture dummy variable	-0.017	0.012	0.007	0.035
	0.053	0.063	0.053	0.054
Construction dummy variable	-0.029	-0.019	-0.005	0.010
Number employed at the business	-0.088	-0.091	-0.140	-0.133
Gender of CEO	0.117	0.107	0.089	0.089
Current CEO family member	0.024	0.011	0.031	0.020
Age of the family business	0.000	0.016	0.001	-0.001
Age of the survey respondent	0.114	0.101	0.106	0.086
Generations of ownership	0.130	0.111	0.105	0.124
Succession policy				
Number of generations employed	0.139	0.115	0.089	0.084
Respondent education	-0.083	-0.081	-0.047	-0.049
Respondent ownership status	0.345***	0.337***	0.290**	0.265*
Independent Variables				
Intergenerational authority		-0.083	-0.055	-0.097
Intergenerational attention		0.027	0.033	-0.016
Cognitive cohesion		0.014	-0.013	0.015
Emotional cohesion		-0.015	0.059	0.080
Communication		-0.116	-0.113	-0.103
Adaptability		0.127	0.087	0.06
Moderating Variables				
Gender			-0.191*	-0.193*
Interactions				
Intergenerational authority and gender				0.048
Intergenerational attention and gender				0.120
Cognitive cohesion and gender				-0.061
Emotional cohesion and gender				-0.075
Communication and gender				0.030
Adaptability and gender				0.123
R ²	0.227	0.245	0.268	0.288
Adjusted R ²	0.163	0.148	0.168	0.154
Std. Error of the Estimate	0.910	0.919	0.908	0.916
▲ R ²	0.227	0.018	0.023	0.019
F	3.566***	2.525	2.685*	2.149

Standardized Beta coefficients are shown.

N = 159

***significant at the .001 level

**significant at the 0.01 level

*significant at the 0.05 level

Table 4.4*Hypothesized Relationships and Results*

Intergenerational Style and Psychological Ownership	
H1: Intergenerational authority is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.	Not Supported
H2: Intergenerational attention to needs is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.	Not Supported
Family Cohesion and PO	
H3: Cognitive cohesion is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.	Not Supported
H4: Emotional cohesion is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.	Not Supported
Family Process and Psychological Ownership	
H5: Open communication is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.	Not Supported
H6: Intergenerational authority is positively associated with PO of the firm in next generation family members.	Not Supported
Intergenerational Style and Psychological Ownership, Moderated by Gender	
H7: The positive relationship between perceptions of Intergenerational Authority in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.	Not Supported
H8: The positive relationship between perceptions of Intergenerational Attention to Needs in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.	Not Supported
Family Cohesion and Psychological Ownership, Moderated by Gender	
H9: The positive relationship between Cognitive Cohesion in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for female than for male next-generation family members.	Not Supported
H10: The positive relationship between Emotional Cohesion in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.	Not Supported
Family Process and Psychological Ownership, Moderated by Gender	
H11: The positive relationship between Open Communication in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for male than for female next-generation family members.	Not Supported
H12: The positive relationship between Adaptability in the family climate and PO of the next generation family member will be moderated by gender. Specifically, the relationship will be less positive for female than for male next-generation family members.	Not Supported

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This final chapter will discuss the findings of my research. I have organized it into six main sections. The first briefly reviews the overall focus of my study. The second discusses the findings from my analysis and discusses them as they relate to my hypothesized model. The third reviews the contributions this study makes to the literature. The fourth and fifth address the limitations of the research and offer suggestions for future direction. The final section provides one last summary of this work and will conclude the dissertation.

Overview

The United States is home to 32.4 million family businesses (Pieper et al., 2021) accounting for nearly 87% of tax returns and employing 59% of the private sector workforce (Pieper et al., 2021). Family businesses behave differently than non-family businesses in several ways (Berrone et al., 2012; Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011). A predominate difference is their tendency to simultaneously prioritize economic and non-economic goals (Chrisman et al., 2012; Sharma et al., 2020). One non-economic goal is the common desire to pass the business on to subsequent generations (Chrisman et al., 2012). This and other non-economic goals can be theoretically explained by the motivation family business leaders often have to preserve their family's SEW.

Sometimes referred to as “effective endowments,” SEW has been defined as the “non-financial aspects of the firm that meet the family’s affective needs, such as identity; the ability to exercise family influence; and the perpetuation of the family dynasty” (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007, p. 106). Despite theory still being largely under developed (Brigham & Payne, 2019), SEW has attracted significant attention from family business scholars (Schulze & Kellermanns,

2015) because of its ability to capture nuances within the family business attributable to the individuals comprising the family-unit (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011). Scholars speculate these distinctions may lead to SEW becoming the predominant family business research paradigm (Berrone et al., 2012).

Family businesses often hold intergenerational succession as a goal, but they are not always good at planning for it. Eisenberg (2019) noted 75% of family businesses have intentions to pass ownership to the next generation, but only 43% of family-owned business have planned for it. Additional issues that pertain to my research is that of family dynamics, as they often inhibit succession without substantial conflict (Morris et al., 1996). Additionally, females comprise a larger share of management positions in family businesses than non-family businesses (Hall, 2018) but overall, are still underrepresented for a multitude of reasons (Wang, 2010). Some of those reasons are likely related to a society's culture (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990), which people largely learn about in the home at a young age from their families (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005).

For families aiming to fulfill the non-economic goal of succession across generations and the preservation of their SEW, family member involvement is critical (Sharma et al., 2014). Family relationships (Lee, 2006; Morris et al., 1997) and perceived or actual parental behaviors (Garcia et al., 2019) are important to a next-generation family member's willingness to engage in the family business.

Building from the existing literature, the purpose of this dissertation was to review, identify, and assess the existing gaps related to the family units' internal dynamics as they relate to a male next-generation family member's ownership feelings for the family business. Additionally, I sought to empirically test the hypothesized relationships developed from the

literature review. The following were formulated to express the questions I aimed to answer with this research, and the subsequent section will discuss the findings of the study.

1. *How do family dynamics, as experienced by next-generation family members, impact their PO of the family firm?*
2. *How does gender moderate the relationship between family climate and PO of the family firm?*

Research Findings

The bivariate correlation for this study returned 45 significant correlations between variables; however, as noted in Chapter 4, the only IV to be correlated with PO was adaptability, and PO was significantly negatively correlated to the moderating variable gender (female = 1, male = 0). Additionally, gender was not correlated significantly to any of the IV's, with the exception of emotional cohesion, and all of the after-mentioned correlations were weak.

The hypothesized relationships for this research were that intergenerational attention, cognitive cohesion, emotional cohesion, communication, and adaptability would be positively related to the development of PO in next generation family members, while authority would be negatively related to the formation of PO. Additionally, gender was hypothesized to positively or negatively moderate each of the six relationships. As was discussed in the results section of the previous chapter, none of the 12 hypotheses were supported. The gaps I aimed to fill with this research seemed likely, considering the previous contributions to the field about the development of PO feelings in next-generation family members.

While this study did not find significance great enough to reject any of the 12 null hypotheses, it did yield some significant findings. Respondent's ownership status was positively

and significantly related to PO in all four models. The scores were relatively stable across all four models; however, adding in the main effects, moderators, and interactions had some effect.

The family business research literature has previously identified females as holding fewer top management positions than men (Hall, 2018), which may contribute to this observation. Rudmin (1994) reported men and women seemed to report experiencing PO differently, with females focusing on things like self-connection and males property rights. Thus, the differences between men and women in this sample could be indicative of different values when it comes to ownership feelings. Legal ownership has been thought to travel the routes and routes of PO, thus, likely to influence it, but a recent meta-analysis indicated mixed results related to legal ownership and PO (Zhang et al., 2021). Perhaps the development of PO differs for business families because of the life-long personal relationships they share. Another reason could be that manifestation of PO at the individual and group levels influences that outcome.

Explanation of Non-Findings

The regression analysis indicates legal ownership shares are important to PO and that men report high levels of PO than women. As respondents of the survey reported higher levels of legal ownership, they also reported higher levels of PO. Interestingly, besides gender and PO, ownership status was correlated only with agriculture.

In contrast, significant correlations were present for number of generations that currently own the business, number of generations currently working in the business, number of total employees, succession policies, adaptability, cognitive cohesion, emotional cohesion, and PO. These results indicate more higher legal ownership yields higher PO, but in the correlation matrix, those who reported more than one generation with ownership shares also reported higher

levels of PO. This study was designed to focus on individual PO of the family business; however, this result may point to the existence of a collective PO.

During the literature review for this study I identified four other empirically tested next-generation family member publications where PO was used as the dependent variable (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012; Broekaert et al., 2018; Ceja & Tàpies, 2011; López-Vergara & Botero, 2015). My study did not capture country of origin, but the data collection method likely generated responses exclusively from the United States Midwest. Table 5.1 illustrates the differences noted between the comparison studies and mine. All studies but mine concluded next-generation family members experience a high level of PO.

Table 5.1

Existing empirical articles with PO or similar as DV

Study	Sample Size Details	Legal Ownership	Country	Method
López-Vergara and Botero (2015)	20 next-generation family members.	Shareholders	Finland and Columbia	Qualitative
Ceja and Tàpies (2011)	20 next-generation family members from several businesses.	No specific details but appeared many possessed shares.	Spain	Qualitative
Broekaert et al. (2018)	15 respondents working in 5 companies. Sample consisted of two founders, 8 next-generation, and five non-family managers.	All family member in ownership.	Flemish speaking part of Belgium	Qualitative
Björnberg and Nicholson (2012)	53 respondents from 8 companies completed 56 interviews. One senior manager from each company (5 founders, 3 Next-generation), and 50 next-generation members, including spouses. The three next-generation family leaders completed two interviews, one as a leader, one as the family leader and one as the next-generation family member.	No specific details offered other than not all had ownership shares.	Not specified but presumed U.K.	Qualitative
Shike Dissertation	161 next-generation family members	44% were non-owners. Totals: 70 non-owners, 36 1-25%, 35 25-75%, and 20 76-100%.	Not specified but presumed predominantly United States	Quantitative

All of my respondents self-identified as next-generation family members; 70 owned shares of their family business, but their involvement in the family business is unknown. The differences in the research approach between my study and these may explain the reason for the null outcomes of the hypothesized relationships. First, this dissertation was quantitative in nature, using validated scales as the measurement instrument, while the others were all qualitative in nature. Comparatively my sample size was three times larger than the next closest sample size, and respondents were not clusters derived of related individuals crusted around a small number of businesses as a few of the examples were. Small sample sizes are not abnormal for qualitative research and my study's sample size was small for a quantitative study, just meeting the minimum sample size for the number of variables included. However, the respondents of my study were not concentrated around just a few businesses as the ones in these studies were. Additionally, 44% of the respondents in this study possessed legal ownership and the average ownership for the respondent pool was just under 25%. It is likely my sample included a larger percentage of individuals who neither possessed shares of the business nor were employed at it.

Qualitative research and quantitative research both have their advantages and disadvantages. Quantitative studies are measured and analyzed numerically to answer predetermined research questions or hypothesis, while qualitative studies are broader in nature, analyzing narratives to identify major themes. The main advantage of quantitative research is that sample sizes are often large enough to establish statistical validity and results are more likely to be reflective of the overall population; however, qualitative studies include rich, in depth descriptions that are not collected in quantitative research. The primary disadvantage of quantitative research is it's rather superficial, as there is no narrative to help explain why, while

qualitative studies lack a sample size large enough to be reflective of the overall population (Vanderstoep & Johnson, 2008). These reasons explain a lot about the differences between the four previous studies and this one, which is taken into consideration as I compared my studies to those.

I used the validated individual scales from the FCS to measure the family dynamics dimensions of my model. (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012; Ceja & Tàpies, 2011) both referenced the FCS to interpret the family unit's influence on PO or psychological components in their respective studies as well. The main difference between the comparison studies and mine is that many of the participants in the comparison studies possessed a mechanism to experience control through either engagement in the job context, possession of legal ownership, or both. It is unclear how legal ownership affects PO. My results returned a positive correlation between legal ownership and PO; however, in a recent meta-analysis Zhang et al. (2021) found no significant relationship. My study included individuals who had ownership, but my study *did not* control for working in the family business. Thus, I cannot confirm if respondents in my sample would have exhibited increased PO by individuals experiencing control through engagement in the business. My respondents' PO was assessed using a validated scale (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004), while the comparison studies either asked for the family members to assess their own levels of PO or presence of PO was determined by the researcher. For instance, (Ceja & Tàpies, 2011) asked, "Do you experience a sense of PO towards your family firm?" (p. 7). Their interest was to learn if the participants had a sense of attachment to the firm, and if so, about their participants' "cognitive and emotional" experience in regard to that attachment. They reported their participant's responses indicated many strong "PO feelings," such as happiness, pride, committed, and enthusiasm, and that their high levels of PO, were in line with (Björnberg &

Nicholson, 2008). However, Nicholson and Björnberg (2008) research stream at that period of time was focused on developing a measure of “emotional ownership” (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2012) for the family business. The similarities between my work and Ceja and Tàpies (2011) is that we both asked specifically about family climate factors. According to their descriptions, their assessment of PO was less defined, and rather than using a validated scale, made their assessment of PO based on how they interpreted the information. The differences between the potential bias in their small sample in conjunction with our differing approaches to assessing PO (mine specific, theirs anecdotal) could have made a difference.

The first of two studies in the Björnberg and Nicholson (2012) publication was qualitative in nature. They conducted two studies to learn about PO antecedents, family dynamics, and how families can strengthen the relationship between the family unit and family business. The first study was qualitative in nature, involving 56 members representing 8 family businesses. Firm founders and spouses were included in the interviews, and three individuals contributed twice: once as top managers, and once as next-generation family members. They asked them about their family climate (Björnberg & Nicholson, 2007) and history. The two main themes noticed by the researchers were discussions regarding emotions, and their relationship to the family business and how it pertains to definition sense of self. The authors particularly noticed emotions emerging as they discussed the central role of the family business in their upbringing. Their respondents’ attachment and social identity were most influential to the individual and the family business. The point of discussing their process in-depth is to illustrate different approaches that were drawn up to make observations of PO. They briefly touched on the ways in which PO seemed to be exhibited by their group, but it is unclear how they concluded its significance.

In the first study they were focused on the psychological “components” characterized by next-generation family members and were more specifically looking to identify the “psychological antecedents” of the relationship between next-generation family members and the firm. Like Ceja and Tàpies (2011), they observed participants experiencing emotional components and psychological components. This research led to their development of “emotional ownership,” which they pose as a means to describe the bond between the individual and organization in the family business. They cite ‘expressions around ownership’ as having been the origin of this work, but that EO includes neither legal ownership nor PO as a whole. They define EO, as “a cognitive and affective state of association that describes a (young) family member’s attachment to and identification with his or her family business” (Nicholson & Björnberg, 2008, p. 32). Since the nuances between samples, and likelihood that possessing control contributed to the other sample’s assessment of PO, it seems plausible this could explain some of the incongruence between my work and past work for all articles but one. The fourth example is not included in my previous direct comparison of the research since its focus, while informative, is not as closely related to the characteristics of my study.

Contributions and Practical Implications

Although the hypotheses of this study were not supported, there are some practical contributions that contribute to the understanding of PO in next-generation family members. Academics have frequently called for empirical research on studies related to psychological components of the business family in next-generation (Jaskiewicz & Dyer, 2017; Sharma et al., 2020). This study found no evidence that the internal family dynamic characteristics of communication, adaptability, intergenerational authority, intergenerational attention to needs,

cognitive cohesion, and emotional cohesions are a main driving forces to the development of PO in next generation family members

This study contributes to PO in the family business literature because it illuminates the importance of legal ownership to next-generation family member's PO of the family firm. Additionally, it provides insight into the roles gender has in developing PO in next-generation family members. This study found that next-generation men appear to possess more PO over the family business than women, however the men in this study had higher levels of PO than women, however they also had more legal ownership. Thus, it appears having some control of the business is important to them. It remains unclear if women experience PO through ownership shares in the same way as men. Lastly, the six family dynamics I included in the study did not seem to be related to the PO of next-generation family members.

Family business owners and consultants alike benefit from this study. Past research has illustrated PO as being an antecedent (Bernhard, 2011) and predictor (O' Driscoll et al., 2006) of commitment, and commitment is a very important component to effective succession efforts (Chrisman et al., 2010). Based on the findings of this study, families wishing to foster ways for next-generation family members to develop PO for the family business likely want to consider how they can provide some opportunities to gain legal ownership for viable successors. If ownership is not currently possible, planning for how next-generation family members can possess ownership shares in the future may be equally as important.

Additionally, family business research indicates females are often groomed for family business succession to a lesser extent than male decedents (Byrne & Fattoum, 2014; Dumas, 1998; Wang, 2010). Therefore, if business leaders would like to enhance the chances for a successful succession effort, it may be in their best interest to increase focus on grooming

female next-generation family members as well.

Limitations

Several limitations to this research have been identified. To start, the data collection method was a snowball sample. As explained by Bacher et al. (2019, p. 2) “...Tourangeau (2014) five theoretical categories: Hard-to-reach survey populations are hard to reach because they are *hard to sample, hard to identify, hard to find or contact, hard to persuade* and *hard to interview*.” Convenience samples, such as those collected using a snowball approach are appropriate to implement when populations are considered difficult to reach, hidden, or concealed (Pielsticker & Hiebl, 2020).

When accounting for the number of family businesses and average number of children per family in the United States, the overall population of next-generation family members is likely sizable. However, the population is difficult to both calculate and reach because there are no databases, lists, or organizations that readily identify next-generation family members who’ve made career choices both within and outside of the family business (Birley, 2002; Schröder et al., 2011). Additionally, family business response rates to surveys have declined making them additionally difficult to access (Pielsticker & Hiebl, 2020). Family business family members are often reluctant to participate in surveys and many prefer not to share information with others outside the family (Wilson et al., 2014). These factors require researchers to develop higher levels of trust with target respondents in order to obtain adequate response rates and enhance the likelihood of survey questions being thoughtfully answered (Wilson et al., 2014).

The convenience samples such as the one collected for this study can lead to bias since social and professional networks often include people with similar interests or characteristics.

Thus, it is likely chain referrals will be made to similar types of individuals which can create biased results (Etikan et al., 2016). Also, it is highly likely that there were sets of related individuals in this sample from the same family businesses, which can additionally create bias. In a past study; however, a convenience sample method spot checked their responses for validity and found no indication that surveys answered by members from the same business family included biasing trends that would threaten the validity of their results (Birley, 2002). To avoid bias, I intentionally sought to plant as diverse of a set of “seeds” as possible but cannot assume my efforts were adequate to create a diverse sample because of the nature of convenience samples. The concentration of certain groupings of industries within my dataset may indicate some pockets of similarly minded respondents.

The survey was cross sectional in design, which means data was only collected from respondents in a way that captured their feelings at that one point in time (Sedgwick, 2014). Psychological theory such as commitment is thought to change during different parts of people’s lives (Sharma & Irving, 2005), so it may be likely that PO does as well. While a cross-sectional method of data collection works well in many cases, it does limit the information gleaned from the study to that one period of time.

Agriculture and construction, two traditionally male dominated industries, accounted for 75% of the family businesses respondents indicated best described their family business. A more diversified set of industries could potentially return different results, thus, is a limitation of this study. Another important limitation related to the survey respondents was not collecting whether or not they were employed with the business. The respondents of this study were not required to possess ownership or work at the business, and current employment would have been helpful to better understanding the findings.

Lastly, common methods bias (Doty & Glick, 1998) can be of concern in this type of research. This study was both self-reported and cross sectional in design, putting it at-risk for inaccurate data results (Doty & Glick, 1998). Common methods bias can arise from poor survey design or methods as well. Ignoring common methods bias can result in errors during data analysis, so it is important for research to both plan ahead to avoid biased data, as well as be sure to test for it. There are several things that could have been done to reduce common method bias. First, the research design itself could have been improved by following the process to do so as outlined by Podsakoff et al. (2003) from the start of research design. For instance, the items for each scale were listed together, and the IV and DV scales were listed one after another, and all were Likert scales using the same anchor points. In the future it would be better to break this up. Additionally, a larger sample size would have been beneficial to this study for several reasons. In this context it would have helped to reduce the chances of common methods bias. A larger sample size would have also allowed me to run a confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS and the associated common method bias test, which would have been a better test for this type of bias than the ones I used (DeVellis, 2016).

Future Research

The limitation section offers many areas that could be included in areas for future research. Based on the results of the bivariate correlations and regression analysis, future research should look at the differences between younger and older next-generation family members. My results suggest there may be family dynamics influencing PO for some individuals and not others. This should be considered when designing future studies. It appears commitment can change over time (Otten-Pappas, 2015) and the intensity of PO is believed to be subject to

situational factors (Ceja & Tàpies, 2011; Dawkins et al., 2017). Additionally, a longitudinal study may help understand if, how, and when PO fluctuates when moderated by life-stage, level of actual ownership, profitability, or other factors related to PO in next-generation family members during different seasons of life. A longitudinal research project tracking next-generation family members from early in life to later to see if and when PO changed could be informative since most studies currently just capture a one-shot look at micro-level psychological elements of SEW.

In the future it may be interesting to attempt to capture past, present, and future data from a cross sectional survey design. If respondents happened to be reserved when rating their PO out of respect for the current elders, they may be willing to disclose what they believe their future PO is expected to be. Likewise, building from Mahto et al. (2014), learning why some may have been more interested in their youth or later in life and what the conflicting targets were would help us better understand when, if, and how PO changes over time.

Another area of potential future research is capturing whether the next-generation member had access to control, wanted control, or if they wanted control but competing factors took precedent. Perhaps they were not interested in being controlled, or the lack of a succession plan seemed too high-risk for them to invest themselves in during prime career building times.

Entrepreneurial research has identified that male and female entrepreneurs often pursue different types of financial and non-financial goals (Du Rietz & Henrekson, 2000). Rudmin (1994) found women to value things such as pride, self-connection, and responsibility, while men seemed to focus on property as rights, autonomy, and elusiveness. It's been suggested that the way scholars view successful business outcomes may be largely gendered, favoring more of a traditionally masculine perspective (Ahl, 2006). Perhaps the way we measure PO is somewhat

gendered in a similar way. Future research could explore if the current PO measures are adequate to equally capture individual ownership feelings for both males and females in family businesses.

Sometimes the firm itself is the problem if a founder lacks confidence or ego and the business becomes a source of addiction (Kaye, 1996). Firms with unhealthy family dynamics can be a breeding ground for all sorts of problematic issues, including children who feel trapped in the business or who are interested in being a part of the business, but their “target” of personal peace outweighs that of taking on ownership in the business. Future research could include additional family and individual dynamics that may help isolate whether lack of PO for the family business is due to unhealthy relationships in the family or with the business.

The current model could be adjusted to account for testing safety as an additional IV since it has been identified as a potential route to PO (Zhang et al., 2021). Zhang et al. (2021) identified in their recent meta-analysis that “safety” appears to be a fourth route to PO. Safety includes organizational justice, trust, perceived organizational support, and feelings of inclusion (Zhang et al., 2021).

Furthermore, research could assess the collective PO and individual PO in the same study to try to determine the differences. Portions of these seem quite distinct from one another, although some scholars regularly cross from one to the other to theorize. It would be helpful for us to understand if this practice is acceptable within family research or if it creates spurious effects? PO at the individual and organizational levels may vary between family businesses and outside businesses as well, so including two groups in a survey may help distinguish between the types of relationships to the business and nuances of each theory. Having a clearer understanding of some of the boundaries of each type of PO in family business could help untangle some of our potential misconceptions about PO in family business. Utilizing “The Bulleye” (Pieper & Klein,

2007) as a template to help develop cross-level analysis could further push our PO research towards better understanding.

Since PO was covered fairly extensively in the literature review, I want to bring just one more idea to the forefront prior to moving on to the next section. Mahto et al. (2014) proposed PO to the firm can be inhibited if the next-generation family member is concurrently developing ownership towards other targets. “The current or future equity potential may offer successors an ability to influence decision making in the family firm. However, a successor’s potential family firm ownership stake and influence on firm decision making does not always translate to their commitment” (Mahto et al., 2014, p. 67). From the time that humans are very young, we have a clear understanding about what we own, what we do not own, and how ownership over a target can and cannot be established (Friedman et al., 2018). Perhaps next-generation family members use rational decision making techniques based on this pre-established understanding of ownership when deciding how to choose between conflicting targets of ownership feelings. If so, this may help explain why next-generation family members sometimes decline opportunities in the family business that they would have otherwise been interested in pursuing. For instance, if a next-generation family member who had planned to join the family business post-college developed strong emotional feelings for a significant other while at college, circumstances may not permit for them to have both post-college. This would result in a situation where the individual now has two conflicting targets of ownership feelings. Thus, a decision between the two targets would likely need to be made. It may be at this point that a next-generation family member decides rationally what they will choose to possess ownership feelings over, and what they will let go.

Conclusion

According to (Zellweger et al., 2012), 6.9% of 93,000 students from 26 countries indicated they were willing to take over the family business directly post-graduation, and in the U.K., only 6.7% of respondents would be willing 5 years post-graduation. If family firms are interested in passing on the family business to the next generation, these numbers should be of concern.

This research studied the relationships of family dynamics and PO of the family firm, as experienced by next generation family members. The study was moderated by gender, to capture how the socially constructed norms (Cameron, 1998) transmitted through our culture affects the relationship between the family unit and PO. The research was conducted within the framework of SEW (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011; Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007).

My dissertation sought to answer two questions:

1. *How do family dynamics, as experienced by next-generation family members, impact their PO of the family firm?*
2. *How does gender moderate the relationship between family climate and PO of the family firm?*

Children learn from a young age have an advanced understanding regarding the rules of ownership. From age two they have the ability to decipherer what does and does not belong to them (Friedman et al., 2018). Family dynamics and the ways in which they are informed by culture, may explain why children can understand complex “rules” regarding ownership so early in life. The baseline ownership knowledge people possess likely contributed to the results of this dissertation. Other than reinforcing what we previously know about legal ownership being related to PO, this dissertation has not been able to offer little new evidence to explain how

gender may moderate family dynamics and micro-level psychological or emotional attitudes, thoughts, and feelings, towards the family business. Accordingly, future studies should build on the insights of this dissertation to further enhance our understanding of PO in family firms.

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APPENDIX: SURVEY

Survey Instrument

Survey

Introduction and Consent Section

Q1.1.

Does Gender matter? A moderated model for family climate and psychological ownership of the family firm as experienced by next-generation family members.

My name is Sarah Shike, and I am a late-stage doctoral student at The University of North Carolina, Charlotte. Under the guidance of Faculty Advisor Dr. Franz Kelleramanns, I am conducting research on next-generation family members of family businesses. This study explores how the family's unique characteristics or "climate" influence next-generation family members' feelings towards the family firm. Your engagement in this survey will contribute to the completion of my doctoral dissertation and the overall body of family business research knowledge.

This study is focused on the experience of growing up in a family business. I am looking for survey responses from next-generation family members.

A next-generation family member is:

Any individual of any generation, other than the founders themselves, who are members of a business-owning family.

Q1.2.

Key Information about this study:

All responses are completely anonymous. This survey contains no identifiers that could point to your identity.

- All survey data will be used *exclusively for my academic research only*.
 - This data may be included in future academic research studies.
 - The data may be included in academic or business-related publications in the future.
- The data collected from this survey *will not be sold*.
- The survey will take *approximately 20-25 minutes* to complete.
- Your *participation is voluntary*.
- You are free to exit the survey at any time.
- There are *no known adverse consequences* associated with either choosing or forgoing participation in this research study.

If you have questions about participating in the study, please contact:

Principal Investigator, Sarah Shike by email at sshike@uncc.edu or Faculty Advisor Franz Kellermanns by email at kellermanns@uncc.edu.

Additional questions or concerns about your rights as a participant in this study can be directed towards The Office of Research Protections and

Integrity at (704) 687-1871 or uncc-irb@uncc.edu.

Study number # 21-0286

Q1.3. Anonymous Participation Consent

Proceeding with the survey indicates you understand the information provided in the previous screen.

Would you like to participate in this study, and do you consent for the researcher to use your data as a part of this study and in future academic research?

Please choose "yes" to proceed. Choosing "no" will exit you from the survey.

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Survey Qualifying Questions

Q2.1.

Welcome to my Next-Generation Family Business Research Survey!

First, I need to confirm you are a next-generation family member.

A next-generation family member is **any individual of any generation, other than the founders themselves**, who are members of a business-owning family.

Are you a next-generation family member?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Q2.2.

Are you a direct descendant (i.e. blood relative or adopted child) of the family business founder(s)?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

Q2.3. **Are you age 18 or older?**

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

FamilyID

Q3.1. **Did someone in your family previously take this survey, and if so, did they share a FamilyID number with you?**

- ☐ Yes, a FamilyID number was shared with me.
☐ I do not have a FamilyID number to enter.

Q3.2. **Please insert your full FamilyID number below.**

Tracing Family Lineage

Q4.1.

In this first series of questions, I would like to learn a few basic details about your family business and how you are related to the business founder(s).

What industry best describes your family business?

- ☐ Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, and Hunting
- ☐ Business Information
- ☐ Construction, Utilities, Contracting
- ☐ Food and Hospitality
- ☐ Health Care/Health Services
- ☐ Legal, Financial, accounting, Insurance
- ☐ Manufacturing
- ☐ Motor Vehicle
- ☐ Personal Services
- ☐ Retail
- ☐ Transportation and Warehousing
- ☐ Real Estate, Rental, and Leasing
- ☐ Other

Q4.2. Is the business still owned by one or more decedents of the founder(s)?

(Please choose the option that best describes the current status of the original business.)

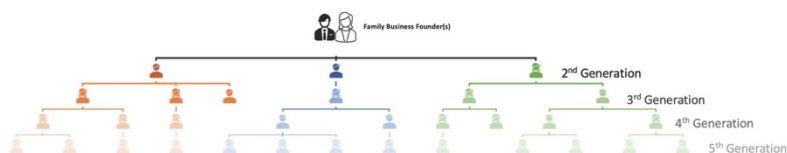
- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Yes, assets or land is owned by a decedent, but business is operated under a different name.
- ☐ Yes, but decedent(s) own less than 50% of the controlling interest.
- ☐ No, the business/property was sold to someone outside of the family.
- ☐ No, the company is permanently out of business.

Q4.3.

How old is the family business?

In years. If the business is closed or is no longer owned by a decedent of the founder, please indicate the number of years your family had it.

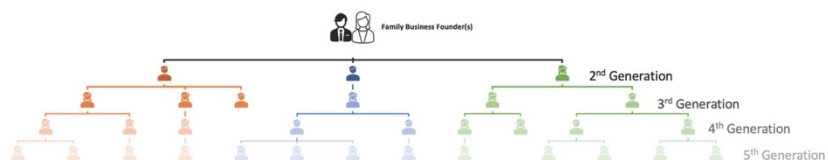
Q4.4. In this section, I would like to learn how you are related to the founder(s) of the family business.



What level generation are you?

- ☐ 2, I am a child of the firm founder(s)
- ☐ 3, I am a grandchild of the firm founder(s)
- ☐ 4, I am a great-grandchild of the firm founder(s)
- ☐ 5, I am a great - great - grandchild of the firm founder(s)
- ☐ 6, I am a great - great - great- grandchild of the firm founder(s)
- ☐ 7, I am a 4th - great grandchild of the firm founder(s)
- ☐ 8, I am a 5th - great grandchild of the firm founder(s)
- ☐ 9 I am a 6th - great grandchild of the firm founder(s)

Q4.5.



Please trace your family lineage back to the founder(s) of the business.

Birth order: within the family member's immediate family.

First born child = 1, second born child =2, etc.

	Birth order	Gender	
		Female	Male
2nd Generation	<input type="text" value="1"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

3rd Generation	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4th Generation	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5th Generation	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6th Generation	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7th Generation	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8th Generation	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
You	<input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Family Climate

Q5.1.

The following questions have no right or wrong answers. I am only interested in your opinions.

While answering the following questions, *I would like you to think about the immediate family you grew up in...*
in particular the adult members of your family.

Please indicate your level of agreement for each of the statements in the following series of questions.

Q5.2.

In this section, I am interested in your family's communication style.

In this family...

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
people don't openly express their opinions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

we keep our views pretty much to ourselves	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we are polite rather than honest in how we communicate with each other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we regularly talk about things that concern us	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
people are not interested in each other's' opinions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we take time to listen to each other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we bring issues out in the open, good or bad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we are frank with each other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q5.3.

In the next section, I am interested in how authority is handled in your family.

In this family....

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree
the younger generations try to conform with what the older generation would want	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the wishes of the older generation are obeyed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the authority of the older generation is not questioned	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
family members of the older generation set the rules	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we make decisions with every person having an equal say, regardless of seniority	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
older and younger members have equal amounts of power	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

the word of the older generation is law	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the younger generation is encouraged to freely challenge the opinions of the older generation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q5.4.

In the next section, I am interested in how intergenerational attention to needs is handled in your family.

In this family....

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
the older generation takes a close interest in the activities of the younger generation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the older generation shows an active concern for the welfare of the younger generation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the younger generation are expected to look after their own interests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
older members have a protective attitude toward the younger members	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the young adults are left to their own devices	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the older generation is highly supportive to the goals of the younger generation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the older generation is very responsive to the needs of the younger generation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
older family members are attentive to the concerns of younger family members	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q5.5.

In this section, I am interested in the similarities of world view in your family.

In this family....

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
we have similar views on things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we tend to have widely differing views on most social issues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we have shared interests and tastes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
our attitudes and beliefs are pretty similar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we do not have much in common	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we think alike	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we have radically different perspectives on things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
our values are very similar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q5.6.

In this section, I am interested in the emotional bonds of your family.

In this family....

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
for many of us, our strongest emotional ties are outside the family	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
the emotional bond between us all is very strong	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we usually feel happy to be with each other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

we miss each other when we're apart for a while	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
family members make each other feel secure	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
family members feel warmth for each other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we are not emotionally close	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we feel a lot of love for each other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q5.7. In this section, I am interested in how well your family adapts to change.

In this family....

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
we face challenges very effectively	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we are flexible and adaptable in how we deal with difficulties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we are poor at dealing with the unexpected	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we are always able to help each other when the need arises	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
in solving problems, we are not often willing to change our routines	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we approach problems with a positive mindset	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
we know we have the power to solve major problems	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
when we face difficulties, we work together effectively	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Trust

Q6.1.

In this section, I am interested in the trust you have for your parents.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
My parents keep my interests in mind when making decisions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would be willing to let my parents have complete control over my future in the family business.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If one of my parents asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel comfortable being creative because my parents understand that sometimes creative solutions do not work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on my parents.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my parents would be a mistake.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I had my way, I wouldn't let my parents have any influence over decisions that are important to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Psychological Ownership

Q7.1.

In this section, I am interested in your feelings of ownership towards the family firm.

Instructions: Think about the home, boat, or cabin that you own or co-own with someone and the experiences and feelings associated with the statement 'THIS IS MY (OUR) HOUSE!'

Q7.2.

Now, while thinking of the family business, indicate the degree to which you personally agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
This is MY family business.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I sense that this organization is OUR family business.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for the family business.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I sense that this is MY family business.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This is OUR family business.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most of the people that work for this organization feel as though they own the family business.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is hard for me to think about the family business as MINE.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Commitment to the family business

I owe a great deal to
my family business.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Next-generation history of engagement

Q9.1.

In this section I am interested to learn about any early involvement you had in the family business.

Did you work at the family business prior to 8th grade?

- ☐ Yes, and I was paid.
☐ Yes, but I was not paid.
☐ No

Q9.2. Did you work at the family business in high school?

- ☐ Yes, and I was paid.
☐ Yes, but I was not paid.
☐ No

Q9.3. Did you work for the family business in college?

- ☐ Yes, and I was paid.
☐ Yes, but I was not paid.
☐ No
☐ N/A - I did not attend college.

Q9.4. At what age did you first start helping with the family business?

(Indicate "N/A" if you have never helped or worked in the family business)

Q9.5. As a child, did you feel your parents were hopeful that you would pursue a career in the family business as an adult?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Unsure

Employment History

Q10.1. In this section I am interested in your history of employment and future employment intentions.

Are you currently unemployed?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Q10.2. Once you are ready to secure employment, where do you plan to work?

- ☐ In the family business
- ☐ If I was able to work in the family business it would be my first choice, but right now that is not a possibility.
- ☐ I plan to start my own company
- ☐ In an organization not owned by me or my family.
- ☐ Unsure
- ☐ I do not plan to be employed

Q10.3. Do you have plans to eventually work outside of the family business?

- ☐ Yes, I want to find work outside of the family business, full-time basis
- ☐ Yes, I want to find work outside of the family business, on a part-time basis
- ☐ No, I desire to only work in the family business.

My role at my
outside
employer (an
organization not
owned by me or
my family)

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Q10.7. Did you work anywhere between your highest level of education and starting employment with the family business?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

Q10.8. Do you have intentions of finding employment full-time outside of the family business?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ I want to start my own business

Degree of family involvement and other characteristics of the family firm

Q11.1.

In this section I would like to learn about the degree of family involvement and other characteristics of the family business.

The current CEO of the family business is:

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, enter the status of the CEO prior to its sale or closure.)

- ☐ The firm founder
☐ A next-generation family member
☐ A non-family member

Q11.2. What is the gender of the current CEO?

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, enter the gender of the CEO prior to its sale or closure.)

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

Q11.3.**What is the age of the current CEO?**

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, enter the age of the CEO at the time of its sale or closure.)

Q11.4. Enter the number of male and female firm founders:

Male

Female

Q11.5.**Does your family business have top managers who are not family members?**

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Q11.6.**Does your family business have top managers who are women?**

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

Please choose all that apply.

- ☐ Yes, firm founder(s).

- ☐ Yes, next-generation family members.
- ☐ Yes, non-family members.
- ☐ There are no top managers who are women.

Q11.7. How many generation are currently working together in the family business?

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

- ☐ One generation
- ☐ Two generations
- ☐ More than two generations

Q11.8.

How many family members are employed at the family business?

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

Q11.9.

How many non-family members are employed at the family business?

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

Q11.10.

Please choose the total number of age 18 or older, next-generation family members in your family.

Include anyone who is 18 or older and direct descendants of the firm founder(s), regardless of their employment at the business.

Q11.11. In this question I am interested to understand more about next-generation family members involvement in the family business.

How many next-generation family members are currently working in the family business?

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

Q11.12. How many next-generation family members does the business have the capacity to employ?

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

Q11.13. How many next-generation family members would the business be willing to employ?

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

Q11.14.

Does your family firm have a succession policy?

For example, does your family expect the firstborn son of each generation to take over the business?

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Q11.15.

In your family, do you feel males and females are given equal chances to engage the family business?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Firm Ownership

Q12.1. In our family business, the ownership is concentrated within _____generations.

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

- ☐ One generation
- ☐ Two generations
- ☐ More than two generations

Q12.2.

Do you currently own any percentage of the family business?

Please enter percentage below. Choose "0" if you do not own any part of the family business or if your family no longer owns the business.

Q12.3.

Have you owned any percentage of the family business in the past?

If yes, please enter percentage below.

Choose "0" if you have never owned any part of the family business.

Q12.4.

What percentage of the family business do you anticipate to own in the future?

If you do not anticipate to own any part of the family business, or if the business has been sold or permanently closed, please indicate "0."

Financial Performance

Q13.1.

In this next section, I am interested in the financial performance and other details about your family business.

Please indicate the amount of Annual Sales:

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

- ☐ Less than \$ 999,999
- ☐ \$ 1,000,000 to \$ 1,999,999
- ☐ \$ 2,000,000 to \$ 2,999,999
- ☐ \$ 3,000,000 to \$ 3,999,999
- ☐ \$ 4,000,000 to \$ 4,999,999
- ☐ \$ 5,000,000 to \$ 5,999,999
- ☐ \$ 6,000,000 to \$ 6,999,999
- ☐ \$ 7,000,000 to \$ 7,999,999
- ☐ \$ 8,000,000 to \$ 8,999,999
- ☐ \$ 9,000,000 to \$ 9,999,999
- ☐ More than \$10,000,000

Q13.2. Please indicate growth in employment in the family firm over the past three years.

(If the business is no longer owned by your family, answer the question as it pertained to the business prior to its sale or closure.)

6.00% - 7.99%

12.00% - 13.99%

- | | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|--|
| <input type="radio"/> No growth or decrease in growth | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| <input type="radio"/> Less than 2% | <input type="radio"/> 8.00% - 9.99% | <input type="radio"/> 14.00% or 15.99% |
| <input type="radio"/> 2.00% - 3.99% | <input type="radio"/> 10.00% - 11.99% | <input type="radio"/> Over 16% |
| <input type="radio"/> 4.00% - 5.99% | | |

Participant Background Information

Q14.1.

In this last section, I am interested in learning more about you.

What is your age?

Q14.2. What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

- ☐ Less than high school degree
- ☐ High school graduate (high school diploma or equivalent including GED)
- ☐ Some college but no degree
- ☐ Associate degree in college (2-year)
- ☐ Bachelor's degree in college (4-year)
- ☐ Master's degree
- ☐ Doctoral degree
- ☐ Professional degree (JD, MD)

Q14.3.

Choose one or more races that you consider yourself to be:

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Rather not say | <input type="checkbox"/> Caucasian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Black or African American | <input type="checkbox"/> Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Asian | <input type="checkbox"/> Other/unknown |

☐ American Indian or Alaska Native

Siblings

Q15.1.

How many siblings do you have?

Please enter the number of male and female siblings in the boxes below.

Male

Female

Q15.2.

Do you feel you and your siblings were given equal chance to engage the family business?'

☐ Yes

☐ No

COVID

Q16.1.

In this next section, I am interested in how COVID has impacted your family business.

How has the COVID-19 global pandemic affected the profitability of your family business?

☐ Sales increased

☐ Sales decreased

☐ No change

☐ N/A My family no longer owns the business.

Q16.2.

Do you feel your family business adapted to the challenges of the COVID-19 global pandemic

well?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ N/A My family no longer owns the business.

Q16.3.

Do you feel the COVID-19 global pandemic has changed your level of interest in the family firm?

- ☐ Increased interest
- ☐ Decreased interest
- ☐ No change
- ☐ N/A My family no longer owns the business.

Q16.4.

Do you feel the COVID-19 global pandemic has or will change your level of involvement in the family business?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ N/A My family no longer owns the business.

Q16.5.

Do you feel the COVID-19 global pandemic has placed a strain on the relationships within your family?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Q16.6.

Has the COVID-19 global pandemic changed the level of next-generation family member

involvement in the family business?

- ☐ Increased involvement
- ☐ Decreased involvement
- ☐ No change
- ☐ N/A My family no longer owns the business.

FamilyID

Q17.1.

I am looking to enhance this research by collecting two or more next-generation family member responses from the same family bloodline.

Do you have any additional next-generation family members in your family who might also consider contributing to my research?

FamilyID numbers are randomly assigned, and all survey responses are anonymous.

Referrals help advance my dissertation research are greatly appreciated!

- If *yes*, a FamilyID number will be provided on the next page, along with instructions on how to share it.
- If *no*, you will be exited from the survey.

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Dyad Collection Invite at end of Survey

Q18.1.

Thank you for helping me recruit additional participants for my dissertation research!

Below you will find your unique FamilyID number.

- This is a *randomly generated number* assigned solely for the purpose of pairing responses from the same family unit.

- All responses remain anonymous and your identity cannot be traced to this number.

To share this survey with your other next-generation family members:

- Copy the FamilyID number and survey link below. Share them with the individual(s) in your family you would like to refer.

Please note:

- The link to this survey can be shared with *any* direct decedent of a family firm founder. Your ***FamilyID should only be shared with people who are directly related to you.***

Next-Generation Family Business Survey Link:

http://uncc.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_4Mloctdw0dksF2C

FamilyID - can be entered at the beginning of the survey:

`${e://Field/FamilyID}`

-