

University of Alberta

Why they stay: Examining the intentions of non-family managers to remain
employed in family firms

by

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ABSTRACT

The project addresses a critical gap in family business research literature, the interactions between owning families and non-family managers, by developing an empirical study of the intentions of these managers to stay employed in family businesses. I develop and test a model of how two manager characteristics and two owning family behaviours affect family business manager intention to stay. The model extends self-determination theory into the realm of family business research and is an opportunity to empirically study Ballinger & Rockmann's (2010) notion of anchor events. The result is a mixed-methods project that includes a large online survey and a set of interviews with family business managers. From the collected survey data I test four hypotheses and report the results. Through the analysis I am able to demonstrate significant relationships between manager characteristics, owning family behaviours and family business manager intention to stay. From the interviews I develop deeper understandings and gain insights on owning family behaviours and non-family manager intention to stay employed in family businesses.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the five people who made it possible for me to pursue and complete this dissertation: my wife and my four children. It is also dedicated to two men in particular, Mel and Pat, who hired me into their family businesses. It is their example and patience with me that continues to motivate much of my research.

It must also be recognized that the support of my family and the inspiration of Mel and Pat would not have come to fruition without my doctoral supervisor, Dr. Jennifer Jennings. Dr. Jennings' tireless work at keeping me true to my goals and her generous guidance propelled me towards the completion of my dissertation and goals. Thank you Jennifer.

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SECTION I: OVERVIEW

CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION TO MY RESEARCH AREA, QUESTION, AND APPROACH

In this chapter I introduce family enterprise, situate my research in its literature, and introduce the specific gap in the literature that my research addresses. Additionally, I introduce the significance and prevalence of family enterprises globally, and describe the heterogeneity that exists within both the owning families and the family enterprises. Next, I focus in on the two areas of heterogeneity in family enterprise that I address in this study – non-family managers and how the owning family interacts with these managers – through which I identify the gap in the literature and generate an interesting question to assess it. To accomplish this, I present a puzzle that exists in our understanding of family firms – why non-family managers choose to stay employed in family businesses and how specific behaviours of the owning families might affect manager choice.

Much has been written about the prevalence of family owned and controlled businesses. It can be argued that a significant proportion of organizations around the world are family-owned and managed (Steier, 2009). Examples of the prevalence of family businesses are rife. Of Europe's total GDP family-controlled firms contribute up to 65% of the GDP (Gallo, 1994). In Asia 80% of the top 200 firms are family-controlled (Yeung & Soh, 2009). In addition, 65% of listed corporations in France are family firms (Zhao & Millet Royes, 2007). In the United States, and depending on how one defines a family firm, 40-60% of US GDP comes from family firms (Ward & Aronoff, 2002). In Canada, 56% of widely listed firms are owned by families (Gadhoun, 2006). Despite their apparent

significance for much of the history of management research and education, family businesses have been, for the most part, invisible in the literature (Steier & Ward, 2006) and thought to have been replaced by large-scale corporations (Elbaum & Lazonick, 1986). Only within the past 25 years has the field of family business developed within management and, with it, a growing body of research around the operation and management of family firms. Diverse topics exist within this literature, such as definitional issues, comparative performance of family versus non-family firms, and succession within family-run businesses. The unifying goal and purpose among these topics is to develop knowledge about family businesses. As insightful and important as research on these topics are, much remains unanswered and underexplored. For example, one underexplored broad aspect of family businesses, which has been identified as a weakness in our corpus of work, is research that seeks to address family firm heterogeneity (Sharma, 2011). Within the broad topic of heterogeneity, I focus my research on the owning family and their non-family managers. Utilizing the theoretical perspective of self-determination theory and Ballinger & Rockmann's (2010) notion of anchoring events, I use a mixed methods approach to study and understand why non-family managers choose to stay employed in family firms.

Background

Family businesses represent a dominant organizational form around the world (Steier, 2009) and exhibit a great deal of variety. While many are small, the proverbial "mom and pop" shops, others are large and diversified. Despite this acknowledged variety in family businesses, our research literature has developed with a rather homogeneous view of family firms. Instead of considering the variety evident in family firms, all too often

the literature approaches family businesses in the context of advantages and disadvantages in whatever research area the questions are being asked. Through this approach to family firms, great strides have been made in our knowledge and understanding of family businesses. However it is also an approach that tends to view family businesses and their members as being “predisposed to behave in a homogenous manner” (James, Jennings, & Breitreuz, 2012, p. 97) at the expense of the heterogeneity inherent with family businesses and how this heterogeneity might influence the outcomes of the studies being conducted.

The heterogeneity inherent in family firms can be demonstrated within the two primary domains encapsulated in any family business: the owning family and the business. Families and family businesses exist with great variety in structures, values, and patterns of interactions. Family’s variety is so great that the field of family studies has been described as “one of the most difficult areas of human social life study” (Bernandes, 2003, p. 84). This diversity within families makes each one unique. Over time, each family develops and manifests itself in its own distinctive and specific ways (Laszloffy, 2002). However, despite this variety, family is a “unity that can be distinguished from other forms of social organization” (Cigoli & Scabini, 2006, p. 24). Each family and its members will develop its own interaction behaviours that will determine behavioural norms between family members (Smith, Hamon, Ingoldsby, & Miller, 2009). Families also experience different temporal contexts and stages, both of which can affect roles and behaviours of family members within the family itself and within the business (MacMillan & Copher, 2005). This knowledge of families is an important consideration for family business research, because family also influences behaviours between members of a family and

those outside of that family (Grotevant, Dunbar, Kohler, & Lash Esau, 2000). It is these, and other, family effects that, in part, affects how an owning family impacts the business they own and control.

This diversity among families creates a similar diversity in family businesses in many ways, not the least of which is business structures and size. Unlike families, family firms will also demonstrate heterogeneity with respect to non-family employees and managers. In many family firms it is inevitable that non-family employees are hired to fill human resource gaps that the owning family either cannot, or are unwilling to, fill with kin. For example, a 1999 study found that the average size of Canadian family businesses within their sample was 18 full-time employees (Deloitte & Touche, 1999). This suggests that a good proportion of those employees must not be immediate members of the owning family. The same study found that, on average, the administration of the sample's family businesses were made up of 1.5 managers who are members of the owning family, and 2.5 managers who are non-family members. This statistic is one reason why I've chosen to examine non-family managers.

Non-Family Managers

There are a number of reasons why non-family members may be recruited into managerial roles within family firms. In a world where family size is shrinking in many countries (Cliquet, 2003) there may not be enough family members available to manage a family firm (Chua, Chrisman, & Sharma, 2003). Family businesses seeking and achieving growth actively seek out needed human resources from beyond the family circle (Baines & Wheelock, 1998). Non-family members may be required to fill managerial roles in family

firms because family members lack interest, skills, designations, and/or knowledge. Managers from outside the family can also play important mentoring and regent roles when there is a handover of power and direction during managerial succession (Lee, Lim, & Lim, 2003). These individuals can be part of the professionalization process of entrepreneurial firms, which has been shown to be an important step in their continued successful performance (Davila & Foster, 2005; Gallo & Vilaseca, 1998). As the governance and strategic management of family firms becomes more sophisticated, it is likely that such firms will become significant employers of non-family employees, many of whom will progress to management levels (Dyer, 1989). In short, managers without kin connections to the owners fill important and critical roles in family businesses. Non-family managers can contribute greatly to the achievement of the owner's goals and purposes for their company. Non-family managers have always played an important role in family firms and are likely to continue to infiltrate and influence family firms in the future.

Although they represent a critical resource to family-owned and controlled organizations (Ward, Envick, & Langford, 2007), non-family managers have received little attention from research scholars and there is "definitely a gap" in our understanding of their role in family businesses (Chua, Chrisman, & Sharma, 1999, p. 103). As Sharma (2004, p. 230) noted, our knowledge of non-family managers is "preliminary at this stage, showing a need for more systematic research attention". This gap was substantiated in a comprehensive review of scholarly family business articles published between 1985 and 2010 (James et al., 2012). Of the 2240 articles identified in this review, only 83 (3.7%) acknowledged the role of non-family members in family firms, and a mere six had non-family managers as their primary focus.

As Table 1.1 demonstrates, non-family employees and managers have been considered in a variety of past research topics and publications. While this might be considered a helpful start in understanding the experience of non-family employees, a closer look at the literature suggests that this may not be the case. In many of the publications, non-family members were not part of the framing of the paper. Instead non-family members served as peripheral factors, relegated simply to the role of control variable, and seldom used as a focal variable. Only 16 of the 83 papers considered the experiences of non-family members in the research. Of those 16, only six placed the non-family employees at the centre of the research project (Beehr, Drexler, & Faulkner, 1997; Brice & Richardson, 2009; McCollom, 1992; Mitchell, Morse, & Sharma, 2003; Poza, Alfred, & Maheshawi, 1997; Ward et al., 2007). This demonstrates that, even in the few papers that included non-family employees, the overwhelming majority of research relegated non-family employees to insignificant roles, giving the impression that our research has not recognized the important role non-family members play in family businesses.

---Insert Table 1.1 about here---

The Puzzle

Not only have non-family managers been overlooked in family business research, but extant theoretical perspectives paint a primarily pessimistic view of non-family managers. For example, agency theory suggests that their recruitment results in lower quality managers, because more talented executives would prefer employment elsewhere. It has been suggested that there are two reasons for this preference. First, relative to

public firms, family businesses offer less attractive terms of employment to outsiders, because owning families' desire to maintain control limits their ability to offer equity-based compensation (Morck, 1996; Schulze, Lubatkin, Dino, & Buchholtz, 2001). Second, there is a perception that the important and influential management positions within family firms are distributed on the basis of family membership rather than managerial skill and ability (Schulze et al., 2001). Thus, more capable managers self-select in favour of working for non-family organizations and this "sorting reduces the size, character, and quality of the labour pool" (Schulze et al., 2001, p. 101).

Other theorists have expressed negative views of non-family managers within family firms. Leon Danco characterised them as "generally helpless and immobile".

"They are either too scared to get out and get another job, they are too old, too timid, or too romanced. Whatever they know the owner has taught them. Their lack of knowledge is often a direct result of the owner's inability to teach them." (Danco, 2003, p. 67)

Danco also describes how these key employees often work through the ranks of the organization from an early age, but become "side-tracked by the boss, frustrated in ambition..." Moreover: "Such managers long ago accepted [it was] somebody else's responsibility of setting goals, long-term plans, and objectives," (pp. 67, 68). This view of non-family managers remains common. In a recent issue of *The Economist*, an article about challenges faced by many large Japanese corporations concluded that their troubles would have been avoided

had the founding families retained involvement in their management (The Economist, 2010).

Non-family managers frequently find themselves in family-owned firms that have been characterized as complex, secretive, and clan-based (Daily & Dollinger, 1992), and they are less likely to be involved in decision-making, particularly for significant issues (Danco, 2003; Dyer, 1989). It has also been suggested that non-family managers need to navigate between two, often conflicting, governance systems; one family-based and the other based on conventional business practice. This tension results in non-family members' experience of working within family businesses as being "substantially more demanding" than for those who work in public companies (Mitchell et al., 2003, p. 545). In the extant literature, there is the sentiment that "in some ways they [family businesses] may not be very good places for non-family members to work" (Beehr et al., 1997, p. 309), and there is some empirical support for this belief. For example, it has been demonstrated that non-family CEOs have significantly shorter tenures than family CEOs, averaging 6.53 years versus 17.6 years respectively (McConaughy D. , 2000), and that their positions are less protected from industry and firm level risks (Gomez-Mejia, Larraza-Kintana, & Makri, 2003). They are also less satisfied with the fairness of their compensation, believe more strongly in the existence of limitations to their advancement within the firm, and are more convinced that their firm is subject to family-only succession (Poza et al., 1997).

The prevailing academic view of family businesses for non-family managers is a negative view. From the literature one might expect that highly skilled business school graduates would shun family businesses as places of employment; this is not the case. Many graduates end up working and see their careers advance in family businesses (Dyer

W. J., 1989). Perhaps not all family businesses are good places for non-family members to work. Perhaps some owning families and some family businesses behave differently towards their non-family managers than the literature might expect. Anecdotally, it can be verified that the interactions between owning-family members and non-family managers can vary widely between family firms. There are family firms where non-family managers are given wide leeway in how they fulfill their role and others where every expense is authorized by the manager but paid only after verification by a member of the owning family. In other family businesses, non-family managers are hired because they possess a specialized skill set to fill a specific role and are allowed to fill that role with minimal oversight. Yet, in other family businesses, family oversight rules, as owners question, for example, "why would we change what we have done for 30 years?" There are family businesses where the owners open their home for staff Christmas parties, while in other firms even the most senior non-family managers are kept at a distance from the owner's family realm. These examples show how each family is unique in its approaches and behaviours towards outsiders. In family businesses, the owning family's approach to non-family managers will inevitably affect manager work experiences, work attitudes, and work outcomes. In some family businesses the consequences interactions between owning family and non-family manager may lead to organizationally positive outcomes, organizationally negative outcomes, or any variation in between.

Summary and Next Steps

It seems that family businesses are as distinct and heterogeneous as the families that own them. However, extant literature and theory contain some apparent contradictions with respect to the role of non-family managers within family organizations. Although, on

one hand, non-family managers fill a necessary and crucial role in the continued success of family businesses, on the other, those businesses are frequently considered to be inauspicious work places for employees who are not kin. In particular, the latter are firms that non-family managers, especially the more competent, would not enter or remain. Yet, despite these apparent contradictions, non-family managers continue to be successfully recruited by family businesses. Not only are non-family managers successfully recruited, but many of the managers choose to remain with the family businesses and, contrary to some predictions, demonstrate managerial skill and continue to contribute to the family firm's ongoing success. Therefore, this research looks at this apparent contradiction and asks: **"Why do non-family managers choose to stay employed in family businesses?"**

To answer this question I use a mixed-methods approach involving an online survey and interviews of managers in small and medium-sized family firms. Using mixed methods in a project is complex, but the benefit of this approach is that it compensates for weaknesses inherent in individual techniques and results in descriptively rich, but quantitatively meaningful, insights (Lee, 1999). My project follows closely a two-phase design in that the findings of the first stage influenced and informed the progression of the second phase (Creswell, 1994). I collected the online survey data and began its initial analysis before I started the interviews. As the survey analysis progressed, the emergent results influenced the direction of the interviews and their subsequent analysis. This design enabled me to measure and statistically test the affect of fostering self-determined motivation and anchoring events on family business manager intention to stay. I gathered greater detailed data from non-family managers on the fostering of self-determined

motivation and anchoring events, while pursuing a deeper understanding of the emerging statistical results.

In the next chapter, I build my model showing how two specific family business manager characteristics and two owning family behaviours affect the manager's intention to stay employed in the family business. I begin with an introduction to the outcome variable – intention to stay. Then, I draw upon organizational commitment literature to explain how I hypothesize the manager characteristics will affect intention to stay. To close out the chapter, I draw upon self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and anchoring events (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010) to explain how the two owning-family behaviours affect manager intention to stay. In Chapter 3 I present the quantitative methods I used to address my research question and four hypotheses, plus the quantitative analysis of my hypothesis testing. The fourth chapter contains a description of my qualitative methods and analysis. Chapter 5 is my escalation of the quantitative findings reported in Chapter 3 in that I report on my analysis of organizational commitment, basic needs fulfillment, and owning family identification as mediators of the identified relationships between my focal independent variables and manager intention to stay. My final chapter includes the discussion, conclusions, limitations, and future directions that can be drawn from my research.

Table 1.1: Areas of Past Research focused on Non-Family Managers

Author (s)	Title	Brief summary
Bheer, Drexler, & Faulkner (1997)	<i>Working in small family businesses: Empirical comparisons to non-family businesses</i>	Compares advantages and disadvantages associated with family membership status in small family owned businesses and find there are more advantages for family members relative to non-family members.
Brice & Richardson (2009)	<i>Culture in a family business: A two-country empirical investigation</i>	A comparison of family and non-family managers in two countries demonstrates significant differences across the two countries between family and non-family managers in their power distance, social flexibility, and spirituality
McCullom (1992)	<i>Organizational Stories in a Family-Owned Business</i>	An analysis of organizational stories reveals differences in how family and non-family members experience membership in a family business system.
Mitchel, Morse, & Sharma (2003)	<i>The transacting cognitions of nonfamily employees in the family business setting</i>	Through the lens of transaction cognitions the authors propose that the cognitions of non-family employees in a family firm can be more complex and challenging than for employees in a non-family firm.
Poza, Alfred, & Maheshawai (1997)	<i>Stakeholder perceptions of culture and management practices in family and non-family firms- A preliminary report.</i>	A project that studied perceptions of a family firm's culture and found that family and non-family CEOs had different perceptions of the same firm.
Ward, Envick, & Langford (2007)	<i>On the theory of psychological contracts in family firms</i>	Propose psychological contracts as an approach for looking at differences between family and non-family members of a family firm by way of fairness, trust, and justice.

SECTION II: THEORY AND QUANTITATIVE TESTS

CHAPTER 2:

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Intention to Stay

In this section, I introduce and develop my primary outcome variable, *intention to stay*. Intention to stay is not a common outcome variable in organizational behaviour research. For this reason, I draw on a related, and far more common, outcome variable in the organizational behaviour literature – turnover. From this literature, I use three important themes of turnover to conceptualize intention to stay.

In social science research, our tradition is to approach phenomenon through the lens of problems (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). Business scholars followed this approach regularly. Business and organizational research generally takes an inductive approach, observing the world, noting a problem, and inquiring into explanations for the problem. One result has been to investigate the problem of valued employees leaving an organization, which, in turn, led to research into turnover. There is, however, another perspective in social science research, one that is a “study of the conditions and processes that contribute to the flourishing or optimal functioning of people, groups, and institutions” (Gable & Haidt, 2005, p. 104). I incorporate this second approach to framing my research. Instead of research into foreshadowed problems, I selected foreshadowed flourishing and optimal functioning, to increase our understanding of why valued employees stay, because I am far more interested in centripetal forces that draw the managers into the family

business, than in centrifugal forces that push them away from the family business (Khanin, 2011).

The difference between the interest in researching turnover and staying may extend beyond that of ontological perspectives. In fact, Mitchell & Lee (2001) suggest that the “decision to stay or remain with an organization is not just the obverse of the decision to leave” (p. 212). How substantially different the decision to leave or to stay are remains uncertain and, within organizational behaviour literature, research suggests that different processes affect the decisions. A review of 25 years of literature determined that relatively less research attention had focused “specifically on how an employee decides to remain with an organization and what determines this attachment” (Maertz & Campion, 1998, p. 75). My own review of the literature confirmed this conclusion. Save for some research in the organizational behaviour literature on nursing (AbuAlRub, 2010; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007; McCarthy, Tyrell, & Lehane, 2007; Mrayyan, 2008), the centripetal forces attracting employees to an organization remains an understudied area. As a result, turnover is the closest traditional organizational behaviour concept to staying and I use it to provide a useful counterpoint for my discussion of managerial intention to stay. From the turnover literature I draw upon three themes important to this project.

The first theme is the distinction between voluntary and involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover implies the ability and freedom of employees to leave their current paid employment, of their own volition. Conversely, involuntary turnover applies to those whose employment is terminated by the employer (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Essentially, the difference between the two turnover types is that the former is the individual's choice. This distinction also applies to the notion of a manager's intention to stay. For the purposes of

this project, intention to stay is the concept underlying managers' choice to remain in their paid employment, rather than the factors that might prevent a manager from exercising that choice¹. By focusing on managers' choice to stay in their paid employment I do not mean to imply that I do not recognize that for managers to stay there must be some sort of mutual agreement between the managers and their employers. There are, of course, organizational factors and employer factors involved in a manager being able to stay, which I capture in my control variables.

The second theme arising from the turnover literature relates to the use of intention as a proxy measure of actual behaviour. A challenge when studying turnover lies in its measurement, because studying turnover often relies on participants recalling episodes of turnover. Participant recall can introduce retrospective bias into voluntary turnover research. To overcome this possible bias, researchers have used turnover intention as a proxy for turnover itself. The link between intentions and behavioural outcomes has been demonstrated extensively in turnover studies (see for example Chen, Hui, & Segó, 1998; Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992; Mitchel, 1981; Tett & Meyer, 1993). In addition, empirical work has demonstrated the relationship between higher turnover intentions and higher rates of actual turnover (Richer, Blanchard, & Vallerand, 2002). I use intention as a proxy measure of actual behaviour as a suitable device to overcome self-report biases (Gellatly, 2010).

The third thematic element from turnover literature is the recognition that turnover is not the result of a single event, but the result of many factors (Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001; Mobley, 1977; Prestholdt, Lane, & Mathews, 1987; Richer et al., 2002). I infer, from extant research, that organizational

members' choice to stay (or leave) their employment is also not the result of a single event, but the culmination of many factors that result in their ultimate decision. Figure 2.1 contains my overarching model.

---Insert Figure 2.1 about here---

Managerial Characteristics as Potential Determinants

At the individual analysis level, I focus on two variables that have been identified as important in the unique environment of family businesses – family membership status and the combination of internal socialization and professional training. To theorize about the role of each variable in influencing family business manager intent to stay, I draw upon organizational commitment, more specifically the three-component model of organizational commitment developed by Allen & Meyer (1990 and later), as the underlying mechanism between the managerial characteristics and intention to stay.

Family Membership Status. A family is a basic social unit bound together by ties of blood, adoption, marriage, living arrangements, and across generational boundaries (Duval, 1988; Hill, 2003; Levin & Trost, 1992). As such, 'who' has always been an important question: who are members of a particular family and who are not (Cigoli & Scabini, 2006)? This question is significant because its answer influences the relationships between people within the familial social unit and those outside it. The unit's membership influences the parameters and boundaries of the social processes related to, and associated with, the family.

Family membership is theorized to exert influences on its members. Families develop beliefs about society, socialize their members into wider society, and create

expectations between their members about the provision of basic social needs (Murdock, 2003; Patterson & Garwick, 1994). They also provide the setting in which members develop and maintain binding ties between each other (Hill, 2003). Ideas about the nature of relationships, motives, and objectives are created in familial settings (Cigoli & Scabini, 2006). These notions influence intra-family behaviours, as well as those exhibited in external society. Familial relationships also influence personal identities and self-image, helping to shape a coherent sense of self (Giblin, 1995; Grotevant et al., 2000; Levin & Trost, 1992). Families have their own idiosyncratic identities and, as a group, are socialized together to share similar goals, values, and behaviours, all of which influence the actions and interactions of family members amongst themselves and with people outside the family unit. As a result, when a family owns and controls a business “two unique groups, family and non-family members” develop, where the non-family members “lack status in the family system” (Ward et al., 2007: 38, 39). Non-family members have grown and developed in their own families, subject to their family’s unique influences, further separating them from the owning-family group in a family business. As such, the distinction between family and non-family membership status might be expected to affect a manager’s intent to stay by affecting levels of their commitment to the business (Ward et al., 2007).

Previous research examining why people decide to stay (or leave) their employment has identified two main factors influencing their decision – their willingness to stay/leave and their ability (opportunity) to do so (Gerhart, 1990; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995). Willingness is determined by factors internal to the manager, such as the manager’s commitment to the organization. Organizational commitment has

been defined as “a force that binds an individual to a course of action” (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001, p. 301). By implication, organizational commitment should have a positive relationship with intention to stay. Research has consistently demonstrated a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions, and a positive one between organizational commitment and retention (Griffeth, et al., 2000; Luchak & Gellatly, 2007).

A widely accepted conceptualization of organizational commitment is the three-component model developed by Allen & Meyer (1990 and later). This model proposes that organizational commitment includes affective, continuance, and normative forms. The model suggests that each form of commitment is associated with different expressions of behaviour. Moreover, even when the behavioural outcomes arising from each are the same, the reasons for the behaviour differs by commitment type (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). *Affective commitment* describes the emotional attachments that cause employees to *want* to stay with an organization, and studies demonstrate that it is significantly influenced by work experiences (Meyer et al., 2002). *Continuance commitment* is associated with an employee's non-emotional attachment to an organization that they feel would be too costly to break. These attachments can include interpersonal relationships, financial links, or other associations where an employee perceives the benefits of staying as more valuable than any benefits they might receive from alternative organizations. Some of the antecedents of continuance commitment include employees' perception of alternative employment options and recognition of the investments made in their current organization (Meyer et al., 2002). *Normative commitment* is a type of attachment characterized by employees' feelings of how they *should* behave

and are *expected* to behave in a given social setting. Empirical work has demonstrated that this form of organizational commitment is influenced by employees' socialization experiences and their organizational investments (Meyer et al., 2002).

Although all three forms of commitment have been shown to be correlated with each other they have also been shown to be distinct from each other and to have many forms of expression (Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996). One form of behavioural expression shown to be common across the three forms of commitment relates to turnover and their negative relation to it. Affective commitment demonstrates the strongest negative correlation, while normative commitment has the weakest (e.g., Luchak & Gellatly, 2007; Meyer et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Continuance commitment's negative correlation is an inverted, U shaped, non-linear one (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007; Meyer et al., 2002). Taken together, the three forms of organizational commitment bind individuals to "a course of action specified within the terms of the commitment", one of which is the intention to stay with their current employer (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004, p. 994).

Although there is a great deal of diversity in family business managers (Dyer W. J., 1989; Hall & Nordqvist, 2008) at the most basic level of distinction the diversity can be captured in two types- family managers and non-family managers. From the basic beliefs about the nature of family and its relationships, family managers are likely to exhibit higher levels of organizational commitment and be more inclined to intend to stay with the business. In family business research, there is the assumption that, in a family business, some sort of blurring of distinctions between family and business exists. The family is a resource to be utilized by the business, to varying degree and across various times to achieve its goals by, for example, providing financial capital and labour. Similarly, the

business is seen as a resource for the family in filling its role to provide for the family. The business is a source of family income as well as member income (Olson, Zuiker, Danes, Stafford, Heck, & Duncan, 2003; Stafford, Duncan, Danes, & Winter, 1999). This blurring of distinctions seems to suggest that, in family businesses, the business and the family are in some way an owning-family-specific idiosyncratic extension of the other. This is a key assumption I rely on to theorize that family managers will exhibit relatively greater organizational commitment than non-family managers.

More specifically, family managers' *affective commitment* should be positively affected by the emotional and relational bonds created between family members. In the family setting, members develop and maintain ties with other members (Hill, 2003); there are emotional ties to family motives and objectives (Cigoli & Scabini, 2006). For a family that owns a business, the business is an extension of the family. Correspondingly, the emotional commitment that develops in the family should extend to the business as the family's binding ties, motives, and objectives are enacted, to various degrees, in the business. *Cetera paribus*, by virtue of their family membership status, family managers should be expected to display greater affective commitment to the business than managers without that status.

Continuance commitment is a reflection of attachments to the organization that the manager perceives are too costly to break. By virtue of their member status, family managers might be subject to costs of leaving that are not considerations for non-family managers. One potential cost is loss of their coherent self-image and identity that developed within the owning family (Giblin, 1995; Grotevant et al., 2000; Levin & Trost, 1992). For a family manager, staying with the family business maintains this sense of

coherence, while the possible threat of losing it might be perceived of as a cost of leaving the family business. And, of course, another cost particular to family managers is the possibility that not staying with the family business changes their ability to fulfill their familial roles and responsibilities and jeopardizes their position within the family.

Normative commitment amongst family managers should also be higher than it is for non-family managers, because their family membership would be likely to affect how they believe they should behave. As described previously, family members, through family processes, develop a sense of how to behave amongst themselves and with non-family members. The management and operation of a family business reflects the goals and visions of its owners and the behavioural expectations required of its employees. Wiener speaks of normative commitment as “the totality of internalized normative pressures to act according to the organization’s goals” (Wiener, 1982, p. 418). Family managers will have developed a sense of obligation to both their family and its business and, through their family membership, will have internalized the normative pressures to act according to the family and its business’s goals and agendas. Thus, a manager related to the firm’s owners would be more aware of how he or she should behave and can be expected to naturally display greater congruence with the goals and vision of the firm than a non-related manager. Additionally, normative commitment captures a sense of obligation and loyalty (Meyer & Allen, 1991), both of which are associated with members of a family unit and should extend to the family’s business. Taken collectively, the expectation is that family managers should have higher organizational commitment than non-family managers.

Based on the preceding arguments I expect the following:

H1: Family managers will express stronger intentions to remain employed in family firms than non-family managers.

Professional Training and Internal Socialization. Professional training and internal socialization are two additional influences on a family business manager's intention to stay. The professional training influence pushes the manager away from the business, whereas the internal socialization influence pulls the manager toward the business

Past family business literature has suggested that professional training and internal socialization are important factors for family business managers (Dyer, 1989). Often, the literature places the two in opposition to each other (Dyer, 1989; Hall & Nordqvist, 2008). On one hand, *professional training*, directs managers towards decision-making based on a "set of general principles or propositions independent of the particular case under consideration" (Dyer, 1989, p. 221). Professional training is expected to include expectations of meritocratic values as well as formalized structures and processes (Stewart & Hitt, 2012). It is, therefore, expected that professional training would push away from the often idiosyncratic, irrational, and emotional nature associated with family businesses (Schulze, Lubatkin, & Dino, 2003).

On the other hand, *internal socialization* is a process whereby individuals are taught and learn "what behaviours and perspectives are customary and desirable within work settings as well as ones that are not" (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In family businesses, internal socialization is the process by which, over time, managers "develop new values, attitudes, and self-identity" (Hall D. , 1987, p. 302) that direct the manager toward making decisions according to the values and needs of the owning family (Dyer,

1989; Mitchell et al. 2003). From this perspective, professional training and internal socialization do seem to work in opposition to each other, with the former pushing the manager away from the family business and the latter pulling the manager toward it. Family business managers do, however, exhibit great variety in their training and career paths (Dyer, 1989; Hall & Nordqvist, 2008). It is unlikely that any two managers have followed exactly the same path in respect to their professional training and internal socialization. For that reason, we must look at the combination of professional training and internal socialization to understand the effect of both on a family business manager's intention to stay with the family business. Figure 2.2 depicts my hypotheses.

---Insert Figure 2.2 about here---

The manager least likely to stay is the one who has received high levels of professional training and little internal socialization. These managers have been trained and socialized into the general rules and principles associated with their field of speciality. They have not received much by way of internal socialization's processes that would aid the manager in becoming comfortable with the idiosyncratic family-related rules of decision-making and roles in the business. There would be an expected tension between how the manager was taught to perform his/her role and how the business expects the role to be filled. This tension might inhibit emotional ties to the family business and lower the manager's sense of affective commitment towards it.

Professional training bestows, on managers, a degree of status. This status arises from their position resulting from their "accomplishments rather than their family relations" as well as any accreditations associated with their training (Dyer, 1989). Managers with

high levels of professional training and low levels of internal socialization will be perceived, externally, as having a status of competence and legitimacy independent of their current employer. The managers themselves should perceive their status and expertise as not being reliant on the whims or particular nature of their current employer. These two perceptions of status, coupled with the general (and transferable) principles they have been trained to utilize in management, will result in lower perceived costs of leaving. These managers would perceive available employment options and little loss of status in leaving the family business. The expected outcome of these perceptions is that managers with high levels of professional training and low levels of internal socialization exhibit, relative to other managers, lower intentions to stay.

When compared to other managers, a highly trained, professional manager with little internal socialization might also be expected to have the lowest level of normative commitment. Normative commitment is derived from a manager's perception of how he or she is required to behave. In family businesses, tension between how managers *want* to behave (according to their professional training) and how the business *expects* them to behave (according to the values and needs of the owning family) can create tension. This tension could increase, according to the level of professional training a family business manager has; the greater the professional training, the greater the incongruity between a manager's desired and expected behaviour, which potentially lowers his/her normative commitment to the firm.

The manager with relatively high professional training and low internal socialization is overwhelmingly influenced by the push of former, while experiencing little pull from the latter. Therefore, these family business managers are expected to be influenced by their

professional training; to have relatively low affective, continuance, and normative commitment levels; and, because of this, low intentions to stay. Thus, I expect these managers to exhibit the lowest intentions to stay.

H2a: A manager with high levels of professional training and low levels of internal socialization will have the lowest intention to stay.

The next group of managers are those who have relatively little professional training and little internal socialization. Similar to the first group, these family business managers have little experience internal socialization's pulling influence on their intentions to stay. These managers have not had time to develop emotional ties to the family business thereby increasing their affective commitment. Nor would the managers have had the opportunity to internalized the family business' idiosyncratic notions of expected behaviours and increasing their normative behaviour.

However, because their level of professional training is also low, they are unlikely to know or have adopted the professional manager mindset regarding decisions being made within the business, according to sets of general principles referred to by Dyer (1989). Thus they would not experience professional training's pushing influence away from the family business' idiosyncratic decision making processes and thus lowering the manager's affective and normative commitment. Nor would the manager benefit from the expert status bestowed by professional training.

In the end, what may distinguish managers who have low levels of internal socialization and professional training from the first group of managers would show in their continuance commitment. For managers with this combination of professional training and

internal socialization their status as a manager is tied to their current employer. Status loss becomes a potential cost of leaving. Because they lack significant professional training, these managers do not benefit from the associated expert status and perceived transferable skills. This would result in fewer perceived alternative employers and, therefore, higher leaving costs, thus increasing their level of continuance commitment. An additional, and associated, cost of leaving for the manager would be a loss of status. Based on these costs of leaving I would expect their continuance commitment to be relatively higher than managers with high levels of professional training and low levels of internal socialization and through their continuance commitment have higher intentions to stay employed in the family business.

H2b: The manager with low levels of both professional training and internal socialization will have the second lowest intention to stay.

Family business managers with high levels of both professional training and internal socialization have an intention to stay that is second only to those who low professional training, but high internal socialization. As I have argued, a high level of professional training on its own could decrease a manager's affective, continuance, and normative commitment to a family firm, creating a push away from the family business. I also suggested that internal socialization has a pulling influence on family business managers. Taken together, these arguments might suggest that, when a manager has both high levels of professional training and internal socialization, the effects would offset each other. However, this might not be the case with respect to a manager's intention to stay. These managers have experienced high levels of internal socialization's pulling influence. As I will argue in the next section, increased socialization leads to frequent

positive work experiences. These experiences are expected to have the result of increasing a manager's affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). It is the increased levels of affective commitment that I expect to lead to managers with this combination of professional training and internal socialization to have the third highest intention to stay employed in a family business. As I have pointed out previously affective commitment has consistently been demonstrated to, relative to continuance and normative commitment, have the strongest statistically negative relationship with turnover intention and positive relationship with many organizationally positive outcomes. Accordingly, affective commitment should have the strongest positive relationship with intention to stay of the three types of commitment. It is through the strong impact of affective commitment that I expect the overall balance to tip in a positive direction and bring intention to stay above neutral. Therefore, family business managers with relatively high levels of both professional training and internal socialization should have the second highest intention to stay.

H2c: The manager with high levels of both professional training and internal socialization will have the second highest intention to stay.

This leaves family business managers who possess relatively low levels of professional training and high levels of internal socialization. These managers experience the pulling influence of internal socialization to a degree that overpowers the pushing influence of any professional training. As I stated, internal socialization teaches managers the organization's customary behaviours (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) and how to "effectively fulfill their organizational roles" (Hall, 1987, p. 302). As the manager's tenure increases, so will their level of internal socialization (Rollag, 2004).

In a family business, internal socialization aligns the manager toward organizational visions shaped by the “dominant coalition controlled by a family” (Chua et al., 1999, p. 25). Through internal socialization, managers’ role behaviours become more reflective of the owners’ attitudes and identity. In performing their role, newcomers will increasingly view, identify, analyze, and make decisions according to the values and needs of the owning family (Dyer 1989, Mitchell et al. 2003). Over time, as managers in family businesses become more accepting of their role in the family business, their behaviours and attitudes become more aligned with the values, attitudes, and self-identity of the owning family. Managers will, as a result, have organizationally appropriate understandings of behaviours and role performance (Rollag, 2004). This should lead to more positive job experiences and be reflected in their satisfaction, through feedback and evaluations. The positive work experiences will lead to higher levels of affective commitment in the manager (Meyer et al.. 2002).

As tenure increases, a manager’s continuance commitment should also increase. Internal socialization will result in the manager investing time and effort to develop appropriate role behaviours, self-identity, attitude, and internalize the owning family defined values in the family business. Additionally, the manager will invest in developing a skill-set tailored to the idiosyncrasies of a particular family business. As a result of investments such as these, I expect the manager with a high level of internal socialization to have increased continuance commitment. The final aspect demonstrating internalization’s influence pulling family business managers into the business is the positive effect socialization has on normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

The preceding describes how internal socialization might be thought of as positively influencing all three forms of organizational commitment and, through this, positively influences family business managers' intention to stay. Family business managers with high levels of internal socialization and little professional training experience little of the pushing influence and a great deal of the pulling influence. For this reason I expect these managers to demonstrate the highest intention to stay.

H2d: The manager with low levels of professional training and high levels of internal socialization will have the highest intention to stay.

Owning Family Behaviours as Potential Determinants

Up to this point, I have conceptualized internal socialization as the amount of time a manager has spent with the family business employer. Internal socialization is, however, a more complex process. In fact, internal socialization is the process by which individuals develop the values, attitudes, and identities that allow them to effectively perform their roles in an organization. I suggest that the more completely internalized the effects of socialization – i.e., the better the quality of the socialization -- the higher the family business manager's intention to stay will be. I suspect that some family businesses will be better than others at socializing their managers into the firm. In this section, I explore differences in the quality of socialization that owning families provide.

First, I draw upon self-determination theory a motivation theory that identifies the 'nutrients' that feed the process of internalizing extrinsic regulation, that is, of transforming externally-regulated motivation into self-determined motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). These 'nutrients' include actions that nurture an individual's needs for autonomy,

competence and relatedness, which I argued will influence a manager's intention to stay in a family firm. Next, I draw on Ballinger & Rockmann's (2010) notion of anchoring events, as events that establish durable, long lasting, affective connections in relationships. I will connect the notions of anchors and self-determined motivation to suggest two particularly powerful ways in which the owning family can further affect family business managers' intention to stay.

Fostering Self-Determined Motivation. Socialization involves teaching and learning acceptable organizational roles. It involves, to varying degrees, an employee's internalization of extrinsic organizational regulations. Previously, I argued that, in a family business, socialization involves the manager internalizing the owning family's extrinsic regulation. I am interested in understanding how the owning family can nourish this process, thereby increasing a manager's intention to stay with the family business. Self-determination theory is concerned with this aspect of the internalization process, making it ideally suited for shedding light on how a particular owning family behaviour might affect managers' intention to stay.

Self-determination theory proposes that people have a natural desire to integrate themselves into a variety of social contexts such as the workplace (Ryan & Deci, 2000). People are growth-oriented and naturally inclined to integrate "their psychic elements into a unified sense of self and integration of themselves into social structures" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 229). For this reason, people are often involved in a process of internalizing the extrinsic regulation of social structures, moving from non-intrinsic motivation toward self-determined motivation. Self-determination theory identifies the "fundamental nutrients" of this process, "namely, ambient support for experiencing competence, relatedness, and

autonomy" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 229). The feeling of having one's innate needs of competence, relatedness, and autonomy fulfilled leads to what Deci and Ryan call "self-determined motivation" (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

In general, motivation can be thought of as an energetic force that initiates an engagement with an activity, and determines its direction, intensity, and persistence (Colquitt, LePine, Wesson, & Gellatly, 2010). There are two types of motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic motivation refers to performing an activity to attain some separable outcome" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71), whereas intrinsic motivation is "accomplishing one's work for the inherent satisfaction and pleasure one experiences while engaging in it" (Richer et al., 2002, p. 2091). Self-determined motivation is a motivation arising from the process of internalizing extrinsic regulations. This means that a person's motivation is no longer extrinsic, but approaches intrinsic and becomes identified motivation, where control over a behavioural choice is controlled by the person (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore self-determined motivation is the engagement, direction, intensity, and persistence of an activity, internally chosen for one's own purposes. A family business manager motivated by self-determination has internalized the family business's extrinsic regulation.

As such, both internal socialization and self-determination theory focus on how people integrate into their social contexts, with self-determination theory-offering insights on what nourishes the socialization process. It suggests that, if a manager's perception is that their need for feeling autonomous, competent, and related are fulfilled, the lessons taught and learned through internal socialization provided nourishment for a better quality internal socialization.

Along with identifying the three nutritional needs of the internalization process, self-determination theory acknowledges that the social environment influences the internalization process (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In other words, the internalization process can be either facilitated or impeded by the social context (Deci et al., 1994). The process is facilitated or impeded, depending on the extent to which the social context provides fulfillment of a manager's psychological need for autonomy, competency, and relatedness. In a family business, the owning family shapes the social context (Chua et al., 1999). Therefore, it can impede or facilitate a family business manager's internalization of the owners' (extrinsic) regulation through the fulfillment of the manager's need to feel autonomous, competent, and related (thereby fostering self-determined motivation). Thus, owning families play a significant role in the socialization process, which affects the quality of a manager's socialization into the firm.

To influence the quality of a manager's internal socialization and, thereby, positively influence his/her intention to stay, I assume that, to be most effective, the owning family should foster self-determined motivation on an ongoing basis. This assumption is implied in Deci & Ryan's conceptualization of self-determination theory where basic needs fulfillment is not seen as a one shot effort, but envisioned as an ongoing process. Early research by Deci & Ryan applying self-determination theory to the work place bears this out; the work focused on job related outcomes as a result of implementing a program designed specifically to address need fulfillment of employees by supervisors on an ongoing basis (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). As such, I expect the ongoing efforts of members of owning families to affect managers' perception of basic need fulfillment, not their perceived level of basic need fulfillment, will impact the quality of their internal

socialization and, in turn, positively affect their intention to stay employed in the family business.

As I have explained, the quality of the internal socialization should affect family business manager's affective, continuance, and normative commitments. The better the internal socialization quality, the higher the commitments should be. The more an owning family fosters a manager's self-determined motivation, the better the quality of the manager's socialization into the family business is. This results in higher organizational commitment and greater intention to stay.

H3: The more that family business owners foster managers' self-determined motivation, the higher the manager's intention to stay will be.

Providing Anchoring Events. As useful as self-determination theory is in providing a foundation for understanding how the fulfillment of managers' needs are crucial to the quality of their socialization, it is likely that high-quality socialization consists of numerous factors. So far, I have suggested that socialization occurs over time and the owning families fostering a manager's self-determined motivation improves the quality of the family business manager's internal socialization. In this section, I extend this thinking to consider how a family business manager's intention to stay might be influenced and made more durable through anchoring events.

A family business manager's perception of the fulfillment of his/her three innate psychological needs and their intention to stay is subject to change. Through their interactions with members of the owning family, their perceptions and intentions will be subject to assessment, questioning, strengthening, and/or weakening, depending on the

interactions' outcomes. Although perceptions are subject to change, some perceptions might prove to be long-standing and durable, despite subsequent interaction outcomes. Ballinger & Rockmann (2010) developed such a concept – the concept of anchoring events.

Anchoring events form from a single exchange or short sequence of exchanges, and are “marked by extreme emotional and instrumental content” (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010, p. 373). These events cement relationships between the focal individual and the target. The nature of the event and its outcome changes and determines the decision rules the focal individual uses to evaluate the future content of their relationship with the target (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). The result of an anchoring event is a durable and stable perception of the relationship between the focal individual (which could be a family business manager) and the target (which could be the owning family). But what might an anchoring event look like?

I worked for a family business that was lead by a mercurial and volatile patriarch, who had high expectations of his managers and demanded results from them. Of the many stories that existed in the organization about this patriarch, one stuck with me. A manager told the owner that his spouse had been diagnosed with cancer. Instead of simply expressing the expected platitudes of sympathy for the manager's spouse, the owner sent him home to care for her. For the next six months, this manager was not expected to show up at work yet received full pay and continued to be able to fully access his employer-supplied health benefits in the treatment of his wife. When the spouse's treatments were completed and her health stabilized, the manager was welcomed back at work with no

expectation to repay all he had received while away. This is, I think, a powerful example to conceptualize Ballinger & Rockmann's anchoring events.

Ballinger & Rockmann's theory of anchoring events developed from the notion that, as individuals experience events, they develop an *autobiographical memory* (Conway & Pleydell-Pearce, 2000; Wheeler, Stuss, & Tulving, 1997) that contains descriptions of events that "relate to the achievement or blockage of an individual's most central goals" (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010, p. 375). From these descriptions, individuals develop "self defining memories" (Conway, Singer, & Tagini, 2004; Moffitt & Singer, 1994), which are thought to be affectively intense, vivid, oft rehearsed, linked to other similar memories, and connected to their enduring concerns and/or conflicts (Conway et al., 2004). The results are relationship heuristics that allow easy recall of self-defining memories (Caruso, 2008). These relationship heuristics help individuals to interpret and predict a target's behaviour, and shape relationships in the context of organizations (Rousseau D. , 1995). Accordingly, "certain significant events can have a long-lasting impact on relationships" (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010, p. 376). To summarize, an anchoring event may be defined as:

(1) A social exchange that occurs when a focal individual is highly dependent on a target for exchange content necessary to meet a particularly central goal for the focal individual, (2) whose resolution differs, either positively or negatively, from his or her expectations given the decision rules he or she applied to the relationship prior to the event, (3) where the actions of the target in the exchange are judged to have an internal locus of causality and to be controllable (376).

Anchoring events include, according to this definition, social exchange relationships, where there is dependence, relevance, and an unexpected outcome. Another important factor in deciding whether an event is an anchoring event is the focal individual's perception of the target's response as intentional and whether the outcome is perceived as being within the target's control. If so, an affective response will develop towards the target that, via autobiographical memory, stimulates similar affective responses and feelings during future interactions with the target.

Anchoring events affect individuals' perceptions of social exchanges and relationships. These events influence perceptions of social relationships such that they attain a degree of durability. Such durability may remain intact even in the presence of subsequent contradictory event outcomes in the focal individual-target relationship (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). In the context of family businesses, the owning family can be a source of anchoring events for the firm's managers. Managers depend on the owners for employment and perceive the owning family as controlling the outcome of their exchange. I suggest that, in the socialization process and via the behaviour of the family firm's owners, anchoring events can occur that affect the quality of a manager's socialization. Although anchoring events are likely to affect more than just a manager's perception of basic need fulfillment, for the sake of continuity, I will continue to centre my discussion of anchoring event's possible effect on intention to stay around self-determination theory.

Self-determination theory also recognizes the importance of events in the integration process. Cognitive evaluation theory, a subset of self-determination theory, proposes that social-contextual events "will affect these feelings will also influence

motivation (Richer et al., 2002, p. 2092). Anchoring events may augment the integration and internalization of extrinsic regulations. I suggest that the occurrence of anchoring events that affect, for example, managers' perceptions of how well their innate need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are being met should increase the durability of their ongoing self-determined motivation, even in the presence of contradictory interactions with the owning family ⁱⁱ.

It should be noted that the perceptions created by anchoring events could be either positive or negative. To be an anchoring event, the outcome of a social exchange can differ either positively or negatively from the focal individual's expectations (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). A negative anchoring event is one whose outcome blocks the focal individual's attainment of a central goal; it will establish an autobiographical memory for the focal individual and create easily recallable heuristics that will taint future interactions with the target as non-reciprocal and non-beneficial. In the language of self-determination theory, anchoring events between a family business manager and the owning family can establish a durable perception of either innate need fulfillment or non-fulfillment. If positive, anchoring events may serve as powerful reminders to managers that their need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness is being fulfilled, thereby positively influencing their interpretation of and future responses to the owners' behaviours. This should improve the quality of the family business manager's socialization into the family business. Conversely, negative anchoring events would establish the perception that a manager's needs not being fulfilled in their interactions with the owning family. This perception cannot be reversed easily, even in the face of contradictory interaction outcomes, thus resulting in a lower quality socialization process for the family business manager.

Based on my analysis of both anchoring events and self-determination theory, the following can be hypothesized about family business managers' intention to stay with their firm:

H4: Positive anchoring events between a family business manager and the owners of the family business will increase the manager's intention to stay, whereas negative anchoring events will decrease it.

In the next chapter, I provide a detailed description of how I tested these hypotheses.

Figure 2.1: Basic Conceptual Model

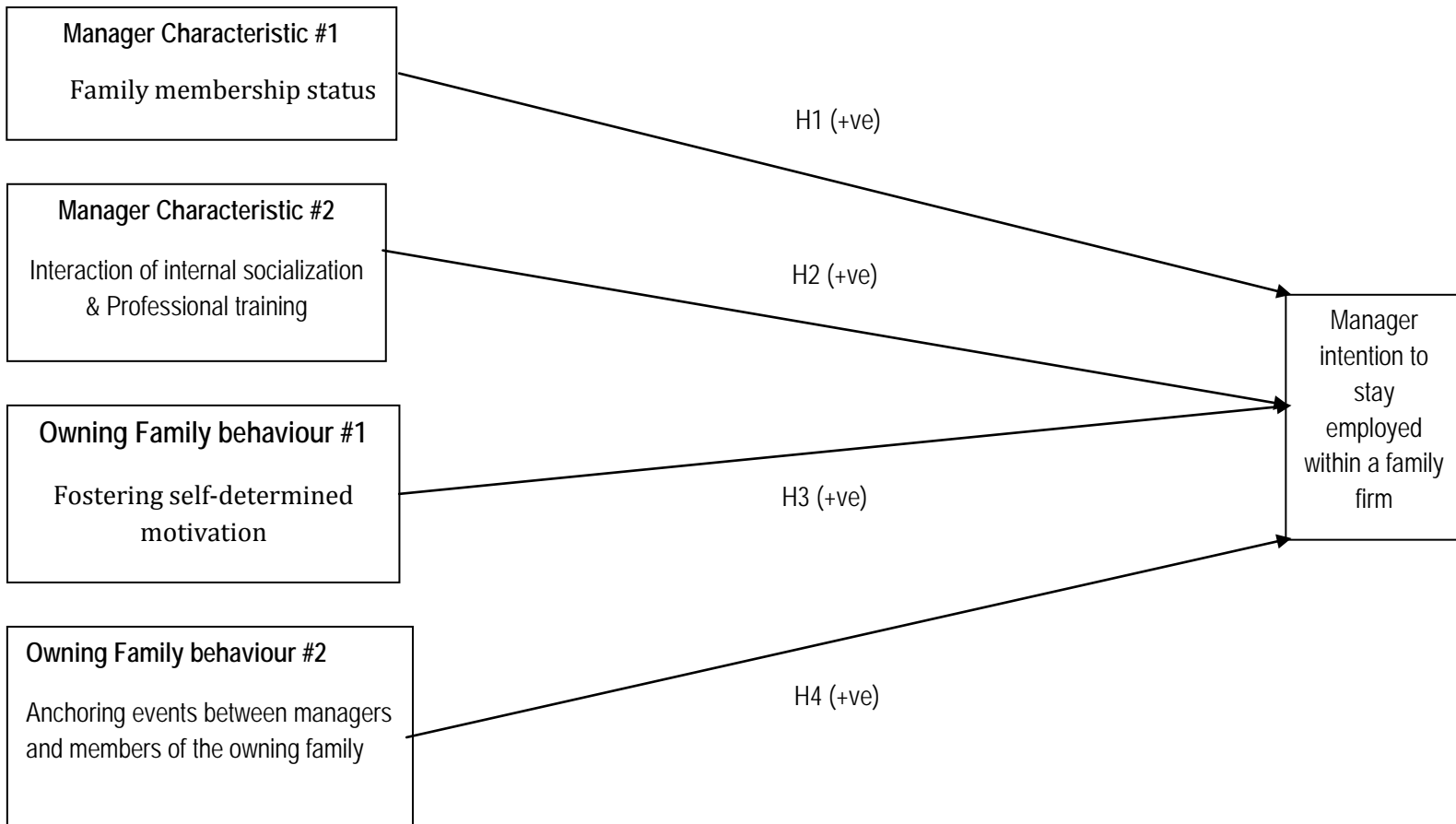
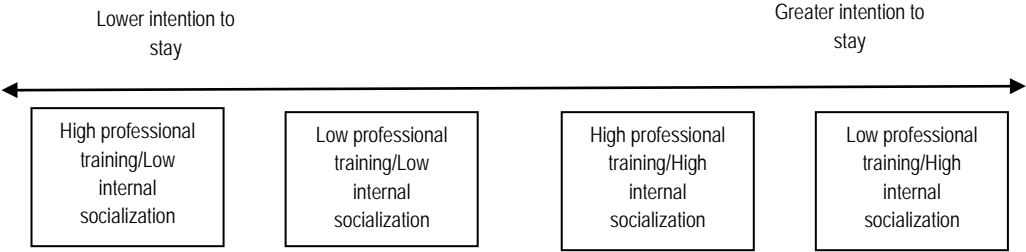


Figure 2.2: Predicted Relationship Between the Combination of Professional Training and Internal Socialization on Family Business Managers' Intentions to Stay



CHAPTER 3:

QUANTITATIVE METHODS, DATA, ANALYSIS, & RESULTS

Following up on my model development of family business manager intention to stay and hypotheses, in this chapter I present my survey methods, analysis, and results. First, I discuss survey development and deployment, including a detailed overview of the scales and measures used in the analysis and their construction. I follow this with a brief explanation of my analysis method, ordinary least squares regression. Next, I report my findings, opening with a description of the data set and variables. I conclude this chapter by explaining the hypothesis tests and robustness tests I conducted.

METHODS

Survey Sample

The choice to draw upon small and medium-sized family businesses was deliberate. Smaller family firms are “far more representative of family-owned businesses in which there are multiple family members involved in owning and running the business and where family ownership is complete and dominant” (Miller et al., 2008, p. 52). I suspect that the influence of an owning family may be expressed more strongly in these businesses, relative to large or publicly traded family businesses, and may influence the organization’s goals and vision more directly. In addition, a strong family influence may have an effect on the fulfilment of managers’ needs for autonomy, competency, and relatedness. Statistics Canada defines small to medium-sized businesses as those employing 1-250 employees (Small and medium-sized enterprises data warehouse SME data warehouse, 2010).

I contracted the online survey administration and sample selection to Qualtrics Inc., a reputable research firm. The contract stated that they would provide me with a sample size of 400 managers. Qualtrics' distributed the surveys through affiliated panel companies to reach target sample sizes, and returned the raw data to me. Identification of qualified managers was determined based on Qualtrics' defined job categories. Included managerial positions were executive vice-president/senior vice-president, director/department head, manager/senior manager, assistant manager/assistant director, and product manager. Excluded job titles were partner/owner and president/CEO/COO.

I collected two separate samples; the main sample consisted of managers, who had been with their employer for more than one year. The second, and smaller, sample included managers, who had been with their current employer for less than one year. My interest in extending the research beyond intentions to stay and test the hypotheses against actual behaviour motivated this choice. Although I argued in the previous chapter that the use of intention as a proxy measure of some behaviours is a common practice in organizational behaviour research, I saw my research as an opportunity to either reinforce the value of the practice and/or to gain insights into why a non-family manager might choose to terminate their employment with a family business. To address this, I designed the survey to detect managers with less than a year's tenure and channel them into a separate question stream that directed them to answer based on both their current and previous family business employer for the remaining questions.

To conduct my analysis, I planned to use the two data sets from Qualtrics to create three samples, one for managers who had recently left a position, one for those who had not, one combined sample. From the overall sample of 400 managers, the sample of

managers, who had not recently left a position and had worked with their current employer for more than one year, was 300. For managers who would answer based on their previous job the intended it was 100.

A two-tiered question screened all participants. It asked if they were non CEO managers in family-owned businesses that had 2-250 employees and whether the owning family is actively involved in the businesses. Managers answering based on their prior job were subject to the same screening. Defining family businesses this way fits with the Chua et al. (1999) definition of a family business on all points except that of multi-generational family involvement.

Data Collection

To develop the survey, I conducted a review of pertinent literature to find appropriate measures for all the model's variables and identified control variables. Once identified, I arranged the measures in the survey to limit the introduction of method biases. Method biases are a concern in all behavioural research and can be a major contributor to measurement error in the research (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Lee, 2003). Biases can enter a survey through various sources. Some of the potential sources lie within the participants, while others lie within the survey itself. Among the potential sources of bias introduced by the participant are consistency motif, implicit theories and illusory correlations, social desirability, acquiescence, and affinity. Potential bias sources within the survey may arise from item complexity, item ambiguity, scale format, and item context effect (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Podsakoff et al. (2003) identify design of the survey instrument as a way to control for method biases. According to the authors, the key to controlling for the biases in survey design is to eliminate what may be common between the measures of the criterion and predictor variables. The preferred method of controlling for this bias is to obtain the variable measures from separate sources. Since the survey sample is totally anonymous, it was not possible to identify sources, therefore not possible to collect the measures separately. Unable to locate separate sources for variable measures, I resorted to "temporal, proximal, and psychological" separation of my variable measurements (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 887). I interspersed my independent variable and dependent variable measures throughout the survey, often separating them by control variable measures.

An additional bias control in the survey design was participant anonymity. Ensuring participant anonymity is thought to reduce respondent "evaluation apprehension and make them less likely to edit their responses to be more socially desirable, lenient, acquiescent, and consistent with how they think the researcher wants them to respond" (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p.888). Anonymity was ensured for participants by excluding identifying questions and by Qualtrics and its partner panel companies' commitment to it.

The design elements, as described so far, deal mainly with attenuating method bias sources residing within participants. I employed other design considerations to limit method biases within the survey. I relied on Podsakoff et al. (2003) to direct this aspect of survey design. Podsakoff and his co-authors point out that many constructs we attempt to test are often complex and ambiguous. These same authors also indicate that, beyond the construct complexity and ambiguity, researchers can introduce added complexity and

ambiguity through design, by asking a single question that taps into multiple behaviours or attitudes (Hinkin, 1995), or that uses words that are unfamiliar, have multiple meanings (Peterson, 2000) or use technical language or colloquialisms (Spector, 1992). The result can be that respondents may misunderstand the items and develop their own interpretations, creating false correlations.

To limit item complexity and ambiguity, I relied almost entirely on previously used and validated measures of the model constructs and variables. This afforded me confidence that researchers had previously demonstrated the understandability of the components of each measure. However, despite this confidence in the measures, I also pilot tested the survey to get feedback from practitioners and academics on the survey questions clarity. As such, my pilot testing included three members of my doctoral committee and seven current and previous family business managers. Based on their feedback I further refined the survey.

Other research tool effects, identified by Podsakoff et al. (2003), include scale format, scale anchor points, and reverse coded items effects. Fortunately, the same methods used to minimize participant-related bias effects limit these effects. Using a variety of response formats also limits scale format and scale anchor point effects. A few of my variable measures include reverse coding in their questions, namely the shorter organizational commitment scale, basic needs satisfaction scale, job involvement scale, and job satisfaction scale. The rigour, applied by past researchers, who have used these scales, should help to mitigate the reverse coding effect about which Podsakoff and his co-authors warned. The survey design challenge in minimizing method biases is to address the bias issues while not negatively affecting the survey's logical flow. Based on the

feedback from the pilot testers and adjustments made, participants understood the survey's overall flow. The final survey is presented in Appendix 1.

Qualtrics disseminated the completed survey to their partner panel companies, who distributed it through their normal channels. Over the next six weeks, data was collected. A total of 3438 individuals began the survey of which 399 completed it (an initial response rate of 12%). This response rate might be considered low, but it is slightly higher than the norm of 10% for online surveys. Of the 3438 people who started the survey, 3018 answered at least the first question, that of consent to continue with the survey with a "yes" or "no." The qualifying questions further reduced the sample. For example, 2234 people answered that their employer was a family(s) business, but only 1285 of that 2234 answered that the owning family(s) were involved with the business. As the survey progressed, the questions continued to weed out participants, ending with a sample size of 386. Thus, the actual response rate was 30%, well over the online survey norm.

Of the 386 completed surveys, 366 spoke only of their current jobs, while another 20 responses reflected experiences with previous and current work places. Because I wanted to compare responses between these two groups, Qualtrics made several attempts to increase the number of managers responding about their previous employers, using a variety of panels, but could not increase the sample size above 20. Although a sample of 20 is too small to conduct the planned comparison between the two groups, I conducted all hypotheses testing against the larger sample that combined the 366 managers with the other 20, using only responses about their current position.

Dependent variables

Intention to Stay: My initial plan included two previously used measures of intention to stay, Mayfield & Mayfield's (2007) seven-item scale and D'Amato & Herzfeldt's (2008) single-item scale. Along with this, I intended to use Chen, Ployhart, Cooper-Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese's (2011) measure of turnover intention for backup purposes. However, as I prepared the survey and clarified the project goals, I decided to drop the Mayfield & Mayfield scale, a decision motivated by its worrisome, previously demonstrated, and relatively low, internal reliability of 0.66 and 0.70. In the end, I used D'Amato & Herzfeldt's question "Do you see yourself with your current employer in 3 years?" and added a second question "If it were completely up to you, how likely is it that you will be working for your current employer in 3 years?" Two forces motivated the inclusion of an additional question: the desire to create a more robust measure and to more clearly ask participants solely about their intentions regarding staying or leaving. Although D'Amato & Herzfeldt present examples of previous studies demonstrating the appropriateness of single item measures when measuring intent to stay, I felt that, based on my argument that staying and turnover are the result of different motivations, I should follow sound statistical practice and develop a measure that does not rely on a single response. Thus, I included the second question in the survey.

In designing the second question, I wanted to remove any ambiguity that may have arisen from the first question, because the first question gave respondents latitude to include other factors. For example, knowledge of impending layoffs at their employers and how many times they have been "written up" could influence their responses. To focus participants on their intentions to stay, the second question asked them to address only

their internal motivation and commitment to intending to stay with their employer. Both questions were answered on a five-item scale. The answers for both questions ran the complete range of potential answers (question one 1= "definitely not" to 5= "definitely yes" and question two 1= "definitely will not" to 5= "definitely will.") Once the data was collected, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis of the two questions with a Varimax rotation included. This two-item, intention to stay scale had a factor loading of 0.95 for both items, an alpha of 0.90, mean of 3.79, and standard deviation of 1.09.

As I pointed out, I also included a backup measure for my outcome variable. Given the fact that intention to stay is not a commonly studied outcome variable in organizational behaviour research, I thought this step was important. Determining a backup measure for an uncommon outcome variable was not straightforward. In the end, I decided to return to the turnover literature to find a turnover intention measure to use. To select a measure, I searched recent issues of the *Academy of Management Journal* for papers on turnover. I chose Chen et al.'s (2011) four-item, five-point, Likert scale measure of turnover intention (alphas ranging from 0.61 to 0.92 over three samples during three distinct time periods). I conducted exploratory factor analysis on the scale's four items resulting in the findings reported in Table 3.1.

---Insert Table 3.1 about here---

An alpha of 0.95 for the measure with a mean of 2.39, and standard deviation of 1.20 resulted from the variable analysis.

I used the backup measure in two different ways. The first backup made no adjustments to Chen et al.'s (2011) turnover intention measure expecting opposite

relationship in the hypotheses. The second back up created a hybrid turnover intention scale. I did this by combining the two-item measure of intention to stay with a reverse coded version of the Chen et al. (2011) measure of turnover intention. Again, I conducted a factor analysis and internal consistency test on the resultant six-item measure of intention to stay. The results are presented in Table 3.2

---Insert Table 3.2 about here---

An alpha of 0.94 was reported with a mean of 3.67, and standard deviation of 1.09. This left me with three separate outcome variable measures: a two-item measure of intention to stay, a six-item hybrid measure of intention to stay and a four-item measure of turnover intention.

Independent Variables

Family Membership Status: I asked participating managers to identify their relationship to the owner(s) of the family firm that employs them. Their response options were (i) related by birth or adoption, (ii) related through marriage, or (iii) not related (Chrisman, Chua, Pearson, & Barnett, 2010). The latter category identified participants who were non-family managers. Those managers related to the owning family through marriage were classed as family managers, because their relationship to their firm is associated with both formal and normative ties, linking them to the family they have married into (Cigoli & Scabini, 2006). This assessment of family member status resulted in a dichotomous variable either member or non-member. Following this classification of participants, 270 were non-family managers and 116 were family managers.

Combination of Professional Training and Internal Socialization. To measure their professional training, I asked participants about their educational background, professional designations and certifications, and other formal training, which I aggregated into an index. To generate the index of professional training, I applied one point to participants for every category of education achieved: high school diploma, some college or university, college or university degree, some graduate courses, and graduate degree. This meant that a manager, who had only high school education, received one point, while managers with a graduate degree were given 5.

I also asked participants about any earned professional designations, for which I provided a textbox, so they could list them individually. Each designation received half a point. I analysed those responses manually, to determine how to apply them, by comparing their responses to their description of the industry they worked in and their education. This assured that training did not receive additional points if, for example, someone who had completed a graduate degree and identified a "masters degree in human resource development" as a professional designation. However, a manager with a high school diploma, working in a consulting company, received an additional half point if they had a Microsoft certification. Once I combined professional designations and education, the variable ranged from 1 to 5.5 (mean= 2.77, standard deviation= 1.16,).

I based internal socialization solely on the manager's years of employment with the family business. Some classic research into socialization (Gomez-Mejia, 1983; Van Maanen, 1975) used tenure as a secondary socialization measure. Over the years, scholars have developed more detailed and nuanced measures that capture the dimensions of socialization (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994).

Unfortunately, these are multi-item measures whose length, in what was already a long survey, raised the problem of making the survey length onerous. For that reason, I opted for tenure, a “more traditional operationalization of socialization” (Chao et al., 1994, p. 737) instead of the more nuanced socialization measured used in some recent papers (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007). The average tenure in my sample was 8.83 years (standard deviation of 8.20).

For the next step, I combined my professional training and internal socialization measures by multiplying the responses (Cox, 1984). Prior to doing so, I centred both variables in order to minimize potential multicollinearity issues (Kremelberg, 2011). The resultant centred multiplicative variable had a mean of 1.25 and standard deviation of 9.88.

Fostering Self-Determined Motivation. Initially, I measured this variable using seven items on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” I asked participants to evaluate whether members of the owning family were fulfilling their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. I followed step-by-step process to assess the validity and reliability of this scale. I began by conducting an exploratory factor analysis of the full set of items with a Varimax rotation to assess how well the items load together. The preferred factor loading score for including an item was 0.50 (Kremelberg, 2011). Item 6 was below the cut off value, indicating it did not load well on the construct the other questions were loading on. The factor loading of fostering of self-determined motivation items are presented in Table 3.3:

---Insert Table 3.3 about here---

I then checked the internal consistency and reliability of my measures (Table 3.4). As a second step in the validation test, I compared the Cronbach's alpha of the scale with items removed. I considered a Cronbach alpha of 0.70 or greater sufficient (Nunnally, 1978). Based on a 0.30 result in the factor analysis and the noticeable increase in the reliability score, I removed item six from the scale. The resultant six-item fostering of self-determined motivation scale had an alpha = 0.93, mean= 3.81, and standard deviation= 0.76.

---Insert Table 3.4 about here---

Anchoring Events. Anchoring events are a new concept in organizational research with no previously developed methods of identifying them in empirical research at the start of my project. To identify anchoring events in my research, I relied on Ballinger & Rockmann's (2010) article wherein they develop the concept of anchoring events. My goal with this measure was two-fold. First, I wanted to verify that the type of significant event I was asking the participant to report on fit within Ballinger & Rockmann's conceptualization of anchoring events, i.e. that the impacting event to which participants refer in their responses were within the theorized parameters. My second goal was to determine whether the event had a positive or negative outcome, a requirement for testing my fourth hypothesis (H4).

Achieving these two goals involved a complex process with several steps, but it allowed me to create my positive and negative anchoring event variables. First, I gathered the responses of participants who may have experienced anchoring events with owning family members. Second, I determined the outcome direction, either negatively or positively affecting their achieving a central goal. Third, I screened out those participants

who reported an event, but whose perception of the event did not fit with Ballinger & Rockmann's identifying parameters of anchoring events. Finally, I used the findings from step 3 to determine the number of positive and negative anchoring events that would be used in my hypothesis testing. What follows is a detailed description of the four steps and their results.

Based on an affirmative response to the preliminary question "Can you recall an incident that occurred between you and a member of the owning family of your current employer that quickly and dramatically changed your relationship with the owning family?" I selected all respondents who may have experienced an anchoring event and identified which respondents had reported a positive event and which had a negative one. In the survey, participants were asked two questions regarding the direction of the event. The first question asked "How would you describe the outcome of the incident?" for which they could select from a five-point Likert scale with responses ranging between 1="very negative impact on an important goal of mine" and 5="very positive impact on an important goal of mine." The second question was "How would you describe the family member's behaviour with respect to the incident?" Again the participants chose from five possible responses, but this time the responses ranged between 1= "fell far short of my prior expectations" and 5="greatly exceeded my expectations." Although each question dealt with a separate aspect of anchoring events, impact on a central goal and differences in expectations, I felt it necessary to combine the two. In their paper on anchoring events Ballinger & Rockmann (2010) clearly link the two aspects of event outcome together. Once combined, I determined a factor loading score of 0.94 for both items, alpha of 0.87, a mean of 2.95, and standard deviation of 1.37.

I used the resulting scale to identify the directionality of the anchoring event, by eliminating those whose scale responses were 3, i.e. that the participant indicated that the event's outcome had a neutral impact on an important goal of theirs and that the owning family member had acted according to the manager's prior expectations. For the remaining responses, I manually created two dummy variables, one for positive events and one for negative ones.

In step three, I further refined the events variable. Up to this point, I assumed that the incidents identified by the participants fit with Ballinger & Rockmann's detailed description of anchoring events. To verify this, I used the six-item, five-point Likert scale, question designed to capture the remaining elements of an anchoring event. The six items and range of responses are presented in Table 3.5. I used my understanding of the essential elements that contribute to there being an anchoring event to create the six items. Prior to distributing the survey, I contacted both Ballinger and Rockmann directly to discuss my project and the six questions I was planning to use but only Ballinger responded. Ballinger encouraged the measure's development, describing it as "promising" (Ballinger, 2011). The resultant scale had an alpha of 0.77, mean of 3.78, and standard deviation of 0.74.

---Insert Table 3.5 about here---

From the scale results, I identified those with a score above 3 as having an event that fit within Ballinger & Rockmann's anchoring event parameters. Once I determined the respondents who experienced anchoring events, I again categorized the anchoring events as negative or positive. Following the same process described above, I created two dummy variables, one for negative and one for positive anchoring events. Based on this

process, sixty-four participants experienced anchoring events. Thirty of the events were categorized as positive and 34 negative.

Control Variables

I used a variety of control variables in my hypothesis testing models. These control variables can be broken down into three categories: the owning family, the business, the manager, and alternative explanations.

Owning Families. The character of owning families is an important consideration in family businesses. Previous scholars have employed various means in their attempts to identify and measure the extent of the owning family's influence on their firms. One measure is the Family Power, Experience, and Culture (F-PEC) scale developed by Astrachan, Klein, & Smyrniotis (2002) and critiqued in Cliff & Jennings (2005). Since its development, the scale, or some derivative of it, has become popular in family business research (e.g. Klein, Astrachan, & Smyrniotis, 2005; Holt, Rutherford, Kuratko, 2010; Zachary, McKenny, Collin-Short, & Tyge-Payne, 2011). For this project, I chose to measure family involvement in the firm using Chrisman et al.'s, (2010) adaptation of the F-PEC scale to separately measure owning family involvement, through generation of ownership and company age, and owning family commitment to the business. Following their example, I verified owning family involvement through percentage of the firm owned by the family. To measure family commitment to the business, I used the seven-item, five-point Likert scale, sub-scale of culture that was used in Chrisman et al. 2010. The questions are presented in Q 33 and Q95 of Appendix 1. The mean level of ownership was 93.72% with a standard deviation of 15.14. The generation of ownership distribution is reported in Table 3.6.

---Insert Table 3.6 about here---

Company age ranged from 1 to 125 years with the average age being 25.27 years (standard deviation 21.55). The lowest level of family ownership reported in the sample was 25%. The owning family commitment scale demonstrated high internal consistency with an alpha of 0.90 (mean 4.50 and standard deviation 0.68).

Beyond this standard family ownership control variable, I considered two additional owning family controls. The first of which was to measure founder effect. Founders are thought to exert strong influences on their companies (He, 2008; McConaughy & Phillips, 1999). Accordingly, in a study where behaviours of the owning family members towards non-family managers is one of the main areas of inquiry, it was important to determine if founders were still involved with and exerting direct influence over their business, so I asked participants if the founder was still alive and involved in the business. I assigned one point if the founder was still alive and an additional point if the founder was still involved with the business, giving a range of possible scores of 0-2. In my sample, 69.6% of the founders were alive and involved in their businesses.

The second control owning family variable I considered was a scale of *family functioning*. In a study of how owning family behaviours might influence manager intention to stay, the obvious question was how a family's functioning might affect their behaviours towards others. Is a dysfunctional family less likely to be able to foster self-determined motivation or provide anchoring events? I used the family adaptability, partnership, growth, affection, and resolve (APGAR) scale proposed by Smilkstein in 1978. The Family APGAR was developed as a tool for assessing baseline of family functioning by doctors' offices or,

in other terms, as a “utilitarian screening instrument for family functioning” by assessing family member’s perception of their family’s functional state (Smilkstein, Ashworth, & Montano, 1982, p. 303). Not only is APGAR a commonly used measure of family functioning in other fields, but has received attention in family business research (e.g. (Danes & Lee, 2004; Danes & Stafford, 2011). The family APGAR is a five-item, five-point Likert scale designed to measure perceptions of family functioning. In my survey, I asked both family and non-family managers to respond to their perceptions of the owning family’s functioning.

To create my scale of family functionality, I combined family and non-family responses by item. However, before this I had to make one more alteration to the non-family manager responses to the APGAR questions. The APGAR questions ask participants to respond based on their knowledge of the internal workings and perceptions of family members. And while in family businesses owning family ‘laundry’ may often be on display for non-family managers to observe, the managers may not always have sufficient exposure to the owning family to answer all the APGAR questions, For that reason, I gave non-family managers a sixth option – do not know – when answering the APGAR questions. The sixth option meant that I had to adjust the non-family APGAR measure from six items to five items before I could combine it with the family APGAR measure. To accomplish this, I had SPSS re-code those whose chose option six to “missing.” With that step complete, I combined each family and not-family item individually and then combined them into the “ComboAPGAR” scale (alpha 0.91, mean 3.98, and standard deviation .87).

Company Level Controls. Company level controls includes data on company size (Table 3.6), age, performance industry, and agency controls. I measured company

size based on the number of employees. Participants were asked to choose between five categories of number of employees (2-10, 11-20, 21-50, 51-100, and 101-250). As summarized in Table 3.7 the smallest category of company size made up 35.6% of the sample with the 11-20 category at 17.5%, the 21-50 category at 17.8%, 51-100 category at 16.5%, and 101-250 category at 12.6%. The average age of the companies was 25.27 years (standard deviation 21.55) and the oldest company was 125 years.

---Insert Table 3.7 about here---

I measured company performance in three ways: annual sales, performance relative to competitors, and survivability in the next three years. For each question, the participants were asked to rate the company's performance on a 1-10 scale, with 10 being the higher performance rating. The reported annual sales for the sample ranged between \$1 and \$600,000,000 with a mean of \$12,584,003.19 and standard deviation \$55,603,616.19. Obviously, the reported annual sales has a strongly skewed distribution. In my analysis, I attempted to limit the problem by using the log of annual sales, but, in the end, the high number of participants not reporting annual sales (only 127 participants reported company sales) led me to make the decision not to use annual sales as one of my performance control variables. When asked about their company's performance relative to their competitors the mean was 7.89 (standard deviation 1.53). As for the manager's perception of their company being able to survive for the next three years, the mean response was 6.18 (standard deviation 1.69).

In addition to these company level controls, I attempted to measure the affect of two agency controls on intention to stay. These controls represent a common method by which principal's attempt to align agent's interests with their own. The controls were offers

of ownership stakes in the company, through shares, and performance-based pay. I asked participants if their employer offers a share ownership program and if a portion of their pay was performance based. In the sample, 12.3% percent of the managers worked in companies that had share ownership programs and 26.4% of the managers had performance-based pay.

To identify the industry the family business was involved in, I gave participants fifteen industry categories from which to select theirs. For those whose industry was not listed, there was an 'other' category and to type in industries not listed. Once the data was collected, I manually reviewed the participant's inputs in the other category and re-assigned many to existing categories and created a category for personal services/recreation/entertainment. The three most represented industries were wholesale/retail (21.1%), construction (14.6%), and manufacturing (8.8%). A more detailed breakdown of the industry profile in the sample is presented in Figure 3.1.

---Insert Figure 3.1 about here---

Manager Level Controls. For manager level controls, data on the manager's age and sex were collected. In my sample, 53.9% of the respondents were women. For manager age, I used five age range categories. Age breakdown is presented in Table 3.8.

---Insert Table 3.8 about here---

Alternative Explanations. I included variables from the turnover literature in my data collection that I felt offered possible alternative explanations for managers choosing to stay employed in the family business. Researchers have used a variety of variables to investigate voluntary turnover. Past research includes variables such as personality (e.g. Organ & Ryan, 1995), self-efficacy, (e.g. Stajkovic & Luthan, 1998) and trust (e.g. Mayer,

Davis, & Schoorman. 1995). I did not use these variables, instead choosing job satisfaction, job alternatives, job involvement, job performance, and income satisfaction as alternative explanations.

The idea of satisfaction, more specifically job satisfaction, and job alternatives lie at the heart of much of our thinking about what lies beneath voluntary turnover (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Even March & Simon (1958) explored the connection between job satisfaction, job alternatives, and voluntary turnover. The thinking is that people are motivated to remain with an organization as long as they perceive a balance between the inducements to stay and the inducements to leave. Ease of movement and desirability of movement are seen as powerful motivators that affect this balance (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Referencing Jackofsky & Peters (1983), Mitchell & Lee (2001) state that, "desirability of movement has come to be equated with the concept of job satisfaction" (p. 191). In the same paper, the authors avowed, "ease of movement has come to be represented by the number of perceived job alternatives" (p. 191). I used a three-question, seven-point, Likert scale to measure job satisfaction used previously by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh (1983) (Q21 & Q83 in Appendix 1). I reverse coded question two and combined the items and got an alpha measure of .82 with a mean of 8.59 and standard deviation of 1.17. The measure I used to identify the manager's perception of job alternatives came from Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001 and was a two-question, five-point Likert scale measure (Q134 Appendix 1). The demonstrated internal consistency of the scale for my sample was 0.91 (mean 4.45 and standard deviation 1.73).

For the most part, the remaining manager level control variables came from an influential meta analysis of the antecedents of turnover conducted by Griffeth et al. (2000).

In their study, they acknowledge both the consistency with using these variables in voluntary turnover research as well as their moderate influence on the behaviour. I measured job involvement (Q82 Appendix 1) using a ten-question, seven-point Likert scale, measure developed by Kanungo (1982). For my sample, the resulting scale had an alpha of 0.85, mean of 4.23, and standard deviation of 1.07. To help reduce self-report bias, I measured job performance in three domains. First, I asked participants to rate their job performance on a scale of 1-10. Next, I asked them to rate their performance, relative to their peers, on a scale of 1-10 and, finally, asked them how their supervisor would rate their performance on the same scale. The responses to this three-question set were aggregated together and averaged into a job performance scale that had an alpha of 0.80, mean of 8.81, and standard deviation of 1.10. I rated income satisfaction on a 1-10 scale, but it with a single question – “On a scale of 1 to 10 please indicate your perceived fairness of the pay you receive from your current employer” with 10 being totally fair. On average, my sample participants rated their income satisfaction at 7.4, and with a standard deviation of 2.14.

Satisfaction Scale. As I looked deeper into my alternative explanations and thought about satisfaction and alternatives being central to our notions of voluntary turnover, it seemed that there was the opportunity to create a ‘best possible alternative explanation’. To do this, I created the scale based on theory and used scale methods to combine job satisfaction, income satisfaction, and job involvement scales to create a satisfaction scale. I did not include job alternatives and job performance, because these are purer alternative explanations, while job satisfaction, job involvement, and income satisfaction are more closely tied to behavioural explanations for intention to stay. The three variables have been identified as antecedents of voluntary turnover (see Griffeth et

al., 2000). Given their mutual effect on voluntary turnover, it made sense to combine them into a best alternative explanation variable. Theoretically, the combination made sense as well. Intuitively, combining job satisfaction and income satisfaction made sense, because both measure managers' perceptions of their satisfaction with aspects of their job. Including job involvement in my satisfaction scale was not as obvious a choice but its inclusion in a satisfaction scale is also appropriate. In his conceptualization of his job involvement scale Kanungo (1982) argued that a person's psychological identification with a job includes two aspects. One aspect is the job's saliency with the person's intrinsic and extrinsic needs. The other is the "need-satisfying potentialities of the job" (p.342). To me, this means that there is a theoretical connection between job satisfaction and job involvement. Theoretically, then, it made sense to combine job satisfaction, job involvement, and income satisfaction into a satisfaction scale.

Before creating the satisfaction scale, I had to overcome a problem with my survey design. When I designed the survey, I did not intend to combine any of the variables, so I did not use the same number of choices for all sets of questions. When measuring job satisfaction and job involvement I followed past practice for the measures and employed seven-item Likert scales, but when measuring income satisfaction, I used a ten-point scale. To overcome this discrepancy, I chose a forced one factor solution by including the 14 items used to measure job satisfaction, job involvement, and income satisfaction in a factor analysis with both Varimax rotation and regression type factor scores. Through this procedure, SPSS created a new variable with each respondent's factor score. This variable became my satisfaction scale (mean 0.00, standard deviation 1.00).

Principal Variable Factor Analysis

As a part of my preparatory work, I conducted a factor analysis with Varimax rotation of my principal constructs. I included all constructs measured by scales for hypothesis tests H1, 2, 3, & 4 in the analysis. As such, I included the intention to stay, turnover intention, ongoing needs fulfillment, and anchor scale measures. Eigenvalues greater than 1 suggested the presence of a distinct factor (Kremelberg, 2011). Three eigenvalues met this requirement – 7.47, 2.80, and 1.83. The results of my principal component factor analysis are presented in Table 3.9.

---Insert Table 3.9 about here---

From Table 3.8, I conclude that evidence of discriminate validity between the anchor scale, fostering self-determined motivation, and my staying/turnover measures exists. However, evidence for discriminate validity between my measures of intention to stay and turnover intention I had expected to find do not. This was an unexpected outcome based on the existing literature that supported my belief that the concepts are distinct. Since both had strong alpha scores, suggesting reliable scales, I felt comfortable continuing the use of the scales. The factor analysis suggests that more work is required in developing an intention to stay measure that is both reliable and discriminate from turnover intention.

Ordinary Least Squares Regression

For the hypothesis testing, I used IBM SPSS Statistics Edition 19 and employed a stepwise process. The first step involved building hypothesis-testing models using the

variables developed to test my model. This lengthy and involved process produced many iterations of the models as I refined my variables and overall model design. As I built these iterations, I made use of variable correlation indexes and calculated the variance inflation factors (VIF) between variables to identify problems with any of the variables. I used a VIF value of 10 or higher to denote possible multicollinearity problems (Kremelberg, 2011). As noted above, this process resulted in the centring of my variable for the combination of professional training and internal socialization as well as its component parts. Beyond these two variables the VIF scores did not exceed 1.73 for any of the variables.

As a precaution, I subjected the data to a series of regression diagnostic tests. First, I checked for skewed, asymmetrical, distributions in my key variables. Skewed distributions, measured by calculating skewness, were present in the key variables. To determine the statistical significance of the skewness statistic, I applied the formula $\sqrt{6/N}$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Based on my sample size of 386, I determined a skewness statistic greater than $|.125|$ to be statistically significant. As Table 3.10 shows all but two variables, the satisfaction scale and manager age, had statistically insignificant levels of skewness.

---Insert Table 3.10 about here---

Based on the results, the non-normal distribution of the variables suggests the possibility of instability of regression coefficients and type I errors. I chose not to transform key variables for three reasons. First, in analyses, where the goal is inferences about differences between groups (such as family membership status and positive/negative anchors), normalcy of distribution is not as critical a requirement (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Second, I chose not to transform the

variables because of the sample size. For sample sizes larger than five times the number of independent variables, the risk associated with skewed distributions is diminished. In my models, I have a maximum of 25 independent variables (including the mediating variables). The sample size of 386 well exceeds the stated minimum sample size and, as such, should reduce the skewness risk to my regression coefficients. Third, I believe that the advantages of transforming the skewed variables “may be slight” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, p. 84).

Following my skewness tests, I continued the regression diagnostics check with studentised residual, leverage, and Cook's D tests for unusual observations. A total of ten observations were above the cut off values for leverage and Cook's D. After checking the observations, I determined the results were not due to coding errors. Following the unusual observation tests and the unusual variables checks, I tested the model for heteroscedasticity and non-normality of residuals. These tests are necessary to confirm that the models and data conform to the assumption that the sample is normally distributed, standard deviation of error terms are constant (homoscedastic), and that there is constant variance in the residuals (non-heteroscedasticity). These tests are necessary, because, if the error terms and variance in residuals are not constant, goodness of fit Pearson coefficients may be overstated in the models. The tests suggested the possibility of heteroscedasticity (in skewness and Kurtosis but not in the Q-Q plot graph). As a result, there is the possibility of some effect from non-normally distributed residuals. A more complete discussion of this regression analysis is reported in Appendix 2.

ANALYSIS & RESULTS

In this section, I outline the findings from the quantitative analysis of my online survey data. I begin with the descriptive statistics, followed by a presentation of my four hypotheses tests and their results. I conclude with a brief discussion of my findings.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 3.11 (key variables) presents the detailed descriptive statistics about the survey participants and the companies in which they work.

---Insert Table 3.11---

Owning families. In this chapter, I reported how the generation of ownership and the age of the companies are distributed in my sample. I did not report in detail the extent to which owning families controlled the companies. The level of control is well demonstrated on two axes: ownership level and involvement in management. The families privately owned the majority of the companies. In my sample, 292 (81%) of the firm's owning families owned 100% of their companies. Owning families were also overwhelmingly represented in the management of the companies, 330 firms had, at least, one family manager and 170 had between 2 and 18.

The likelihood that the owning families in the sample exerted influence on their firms is also suggested by the results of the family commitment scale. I used the scale to measure owning family commitment to their company. "Family commitment represents the extent to which the family takes an interest in firm activities, and consequently, the likelihood that family influence will be exercised" in their firms (Chrisman et al., 2010, p. 12). The mean family commitment score for the owning families represented in the sample

was 4.50 out of 6. In the survey, a score of four or higher indicated that the respondent agreed that the owning family demonstrated commitment to the company. This, plus the negative skewness of this measure, suggests overwhelmingly that the owning families in the sample demonstrated high levels of commitment to the business. Combining the results for family commitment and family involvement indicates a sample where the owning families were likely to have strong influences on their firms.

Another important firm-related factor is founder effect. Founders have long been thought to have significant and long lasting effects on the businesses they create. Beyond the effect they may have on the firm's governance and performance (He, 2008; Nelson, 2003), founders are thought to affect the firm's culture and identity (Dyer & Whetten, 2006; Eddleston, 2008; Zahra, Hayton, & Salvato, 2004; Zahra, Hayton, Neubaum, Dibrell, & Craig, 2008). Referencing Davis & Harveston (1998), Eddleston (2008) wrote that a family firm's culture is "inextricably tied to the founder, because he or she makes the initial decisions regarding the firm's mission, goals, strategies, and structure as well as the day-to-day operating decisions that influence the firm as it grows and evolves" (p. 1056). In a family business, the organization's culture also reflects the values, propensities, and operational rules of the founder (Zahra et al., 2004, 2008). When asked, the participants claimed that, in their employing family business, 77% of the founders were still living (308 firms) and, of the 308 firms, 92% of the founders were still involved in the business.

Company level controls. The data provides clues about the companies the participants work for. The companies were, for the most part, not large. Several firms had more than 101 employees (50), but just over half (53%) had 2-20 employees, with the largest category being 2-10 employees (36%). Miller et al. (2008) suggests that, in smaller family businesses, owning families can be expected to have stronger influences on their

family businesses. The sample's overall size distribution should, therefore, work well for my study where owning family influence is central to my model.

Although the majority of the companies are relatively small, this does not seem to indicate weakness in performance. For those participants who reported annual sales, the resultant data had a large standard deviation and very high degree of skewness (9.63) ⁱⁱⁱ. Beyond sales, the survey included two additional measures of firm performance. One was based on the participant's perception of their firm's performance relative to their competitors. When asked on a scale of 1-10, with 10 being "far exceeding", to compare their company's performance with that of its nearest competitors, 64.8% of the managers gave their company a score of 8.8. The second alternative firm performance measure was based on the participant's expectation of their employer being able to survive into the near future (three years). In this case, 57% of managers responded that it was "very likely" that the company would survive into the next three years, while 22% chose "likely".

Manager level controls. The managers were, for the most part, relatively well educated. A majority had either started or completed post-secondary education. Over 86% had, at least, some post-secondary education and 56% of those had completed college/university programs. Although the sample seems to have a high post-secondary education, this does not necessarily indicate an un-representative sample. Increasingly, post-secondary education is seen as an important step towards employment and careers in North America. For example, approximately 80% of Canadian parents expect their children to attend post-secondary education (Shipley, Ouelette, & Cartwright, 2003). Also, enrolment in Canadian post-secondary institutions has risen by 57% in the past 15 years (AUCC, 2010). The case is similar in the United States, where my respondents work. Post-secondary in the United States has been trending up for many decades and, in 2010,

reached record levels (Rampell, 2010). Given this trend, it is reasonable to expect a strong post-secondary representation in managerial samples.

All of the managers have been with their employers long enough to have experienced some internal socialization. In fact, 90% experienced more than a year of internal socialization. A closer look at the managers suggests that this sample is representative of the population of managers, at least in terms of internal socialization. The current labour market has been described as fluid and with shorter tenure periods (Heisz, 1996; 2002). Supporting this claim, my sample's median tenure of 6 years implies that nearly half of the managers have been with their current employer for 6 or fewer years and the other half of the sample had tenures ranging from 6 to 49 years. It may also suggest that many of the managers had not become fixtures, stuck in their jobs or, as Danco put it "generally helpless and immobile... either too scared to get out and get another job or too old, too timid, or too romanced" (Danco, 2003, p. 67).

Anchoring events. As stated earlier in the chapter, I noted that, of 386 managers, 64 had experienced events with the owning family that fit within the parameters of Ballenger & Rockmann's (2010) definition of anchoring events. This number represents 16.58% of the sample, a result that fits with the concept of anchoring events not being the norm and, perhaps rarer, the means by which non-reciprocal relationships develop.

Fostering self-determined motivation. As the mean score for this scale demonstrates, on average owning families fostered the managers' self-determined motivation in their workplace. This is born out not only by the median score being 3.86, but by confirming that at least half the managers reported their self-determination was fostered

more than “sometimes.” As Figure 3.2 shows, the negative skewness (-0.54) confirms that most managers experienced fostering of self-determined motivation.

---Insert Figure 3.2 about here---

In Table 3.12, I present the Pearson correlations among all the variables used in the hypothesis testing regression analysis. The matrix is useful for demonstrating significant correlations between the variables. The matrix can also reveal multicollinearity between variables. Multicollinearity was considered problematic for those correlations with a score of 0.65 or greater (Kremelberg, 2011). Four variables were above the cut off value. The correlation between job satisfaction and intention to stay had a Pearson correlation score of .68, a result that could have been predicted based on past research on voluntary turnover. Organizational commitment and owning family identification also correlated highly (0.69).

The high correlation between the variables was not unexpected. In some ways the strength of the correlations confirms what researcher have long considered one of the impacts of family ownership and involvement on their companies, i.e. owning families affect their businesses. Throughout this document, I used previous family business research to built arguments that owning families and their businesses are extensions of each other. If this were the case, then it would be reasonable to expect organizational commitment and owning family identification to correlate highly with each other.

The other variables with correlations that approached the cut off value where fostering self-determined motivation and job satisfaction (Pearson correlation of .62). This result is welcome in that it may offer support to my hypothesis that fostering self-determined motivation by owning families leads to organizationally positive outcomes with the managers.

Although overly high correlation between variables did not appear to be a problem with the data, as a precaution, I included variance inflation factor (VIF) analysis in my regression tests for H1-H4. Throughout the hypothesis testing, I monitored VIF scores. At no point in any of the regressions did the VIF exceed 2.74. This assured me that multicollinearity was not a concern with my data.

Hypotheses Tests

I conducted individual hypothesis testing for intention to stay and summarised them in Table 3.12. I did the testing incrementally, testing each hypothesis on the dependent variable, intention to stay, before testing the next hypothesis. Following these four hypothesis tests, I conducted robustness checks on my intention to stay variable, meaning that I completed a comparison hypothesis test for the dependant variables hybrid intention to stay and turnover intention.

In fine-tuning my hypothesis regression models, I opted for the more conservative two-tailed t tests. I planned to subject my models to the more conservative testing option to develop the most robust models possible. Once I finalized the models, I considered the possibility of one-tailed t tests. Each of my hypotheses is directional; making one-tailed t tests an acceptable measure of the statistical significance of relationships with my regression models (Kremelberg, 2011; Tatsuoka & Lohnes, 1988). Based on this, the following discussions of the hypothesis testing report the results of the one-tailed tests.

The layout of Table 3.13 is as follows. Model 1 presents the results for the OLS regression of dependent variable and the full set of control variables. Model 2 shows the results of my regression test of H1, that family managers will have higher intentions to stay.

The H2 test results, the combination of professional training and internal socialization, are presented in Model 3. The positive effect of the fostering of manager self-determined motivation by owning families (H3) is presented in Model 4. And finally, Model 5 shows my H4 test results, the effect of anchoring events on the dependent variable. Model 6 is the full model with all variables entered simultaneously.

---Insert Table 3.13 about here---

Change in R². The R² is a measure of the determination coefficient and indicates how much of the dependent variable variance the model explains. The adjusted R² refines the R² by accounting for the number of variables and will change only if the inclusion of an additional variable improves the model more than could be explained by chance (Kremelberg, 2011). Starting with Model 1, the adjusted R² shows that the control variables explain 30% of the variance in the managers' intention to stay. As I added the independent variables, the coefficient of determination increased relative to that of Model 1. The largest increase in the adjusted R² from a single variable, $\cong 10\%$, came with the inclusion of fostering self-determined motivation. The full model, Model 5, increased the explanatory power to 45%, a 50% increase relative to Model 1. I draw two conclusions from the adjusted R² analysis of my models. One is that my model explains less than 50% of the variance in the participants' intention to stay. This means the model does not explain even a simple majority of the variance. While this conclusion might be somewhat disappointing, a more positive conclusion is that a positive and significant increase exists in the explanatory power of the variables between Models 1 and 5.

Effect of Controls. Model 1 included only the control variables. With a sample size of 370 managers, the overall model revealed a highly significant F score of 11.57. Several of the control variables were significantly related to, and in the expected direction of, family business manager's intention to stay. Many of the significant control variables measured the managers' attitudes toward their jobs and the company – satisfaction scale and the two family business' performance measures. The relationship with intention to stay was highly significant for the satisfaction scale, the business' relative performance, and its perceived survivability. Given the factors included in the satisfaction scale and the results of the Griffeth et al. (2000) meta-analysis, I anticipated the strength of the satisfaction scale statistical significance. That perceptions of company survivability were significant was also not surprising. I expect managers, who perceive limited chances of their employer remaining in business, to begin or accelerate their job search; a change in work behaviour often thought to be associated with turnover intention (Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Mobley, 1977). Interestingly, and in contrast to potential predictions within the literature cited in Chapter 2, job alternatives was only marginally significant ($p \leq 0.10$) and not highly significant as was expected.

As with any research project there were some control variables that, despite expectations to the contrary, were not statistically significant to the outcome variable. Notable among these was owning-family generation and founder effect. Family businesses are defined as unique and special organizations, because of the presence and effect of owning families (Gersick, Davis, McCollom Hampton, & Lansberg, 1997; Sharma, 2004). A whole body of family business literature exists that has developed around the assumption that owning families make a difference in their businesses. Despite this, in this

project, two previously researched aspects of family involvement did not significantly impact the outcome variable. Fortunately, owning family commitment was highly significant ($p \leq 0.001$) in all the models (but Model 4) ^{iv}. This outcome strongly supports the notion that owning families can affect outcomes in their business. It also suggests that family influence on their business is, perhaps, better represented in a more fine-grained measure than either generation of ownership or founder effect.

Also disappointingly absent from the list of significant variables were my agentic effect measures. Given the frequency of use and theoretical weight afforded to the agency theory in family business research (Chrisman, Chua, & Sharma, 2005), I saw my research as an opportunity to include two, standard, agent-aligning tools as control variables. However, despite the strength often assigned to agency theory, for the managers in the sample, owners' use of shares and pay for performance to align agent interests did not affect their intention to stay. As Table 3.12 indicates, the incentive's effect was insignificant in all models and share programs were marginally significant ($p \leq 0.10$) only in Models 1 and 3.

Hypothesis 1. Model 2 tests H1 that family managers will have higher intentions to stay employed in family firms. From the test, several things are apparent. First, the model is highly significant ($p \leq 0.001$) with an F score of 11.78 and it explains 32% of the variance in intention to stay (adjusted $R^2 = 0.32$). Second, all the control variables that were significant in Model 1 remain statistically significant, at the same level of significance and direction, in Model 2. Third and most important, a highly significant relationship exists between family member status and manager intention to stay ($p \leq 0.001$). Because I coded the family member variable as 1 and non-family members as 0, the direction of the

standardized beta value (0.16) suggests that managers who are members of the owning family are much more likely to have higher intentions to stay employed with their family's business, therefore supporting H1.

Hypothesis 2. Model 3 is my test for H2, the impact of the combination of professional training and internal socialization on family business manager intention to stay. With the inclusion of the training and socialization variables, the N drops from 370 to 369 but the model remains highly statistically significant ($p \leq 0.001$) with an F score of 10.65 and accounts for 32% (adjusted $R^2 = 0.32$) of the variance in intention to stay. Unfortunately, the focal variables of the model did not perform as expected. Of the three variables, only the internal socialization variable was statistically significantly ($p \leq 0.001$) related to manager intention to stay. Contrary to my predictions, neither the amount of a managers' professional training nor its combination with internal socialization appear to significantly affect manager intention to stay employed in the family business. As such, H2 is only partially supported.

Hypothesis 3. Model 4 is the test for H3, the effect of owning families fostering self-determined motivation in their managers on an on-going basis. The expanded model returns to an N of 370 and continues to be statistically significant ($p \leq 0.001$), F score = 16.09. The adjusted R^2 , 0.40, is the highest thus far. Some differences exist *vis-à-vis* the control variables in Model 4. In Model 4, company performance become only marginally significant ($p \leq 0.10$), while job alternatives and job performance become significant ($p \leq 0.05$). As in Model 3, ownership generation is marginally significant ($p \leq 0.10$). Most importantly, the standardized beta for fostering of self-determined motivation was 0.39 with a p value less than or equal to 0.001. This result suggests that owning families who foster

self-determined motivation in their managers on an ongoing basis, have a statistically high ($p \leq 0.001$) and positive effect on the manager's intention to stay, thus supporting H3.

Hypothesis 4. Model 5 is the test of H4, the affect of anchoring events on manager intention to stay. The F score is highly significant (13.41) and the adjusted R² is 0.36. Positive anchoring events had no statistically significant relationship with intention to stay, whereas negative anchoring events had a highly significant ($p \leq 0.001$) negative effect on manager's intention to stay. Hence, Model 5 offers partial support for H4 in that only negative events affect manager intention to stay.

In summary following the four hypothesis tests, I found support for H1, partial support for H2, support for H3, and partial support for H4.

Robustness Tests. Using the two other outcome variables planned for in my research, I review the tests I conducted for H1-H4. As stated earlier, intention to stay is not a commonly studied outcome in organizational behaviour research. To address this shortcoming I included two additional outcome measures by which to verify the robustness of my main intention to stay measure.

The robustness checks compare my hypothesis with the two alternative dependent variables i.e. the turnover intention measure and the hybrid intention to stay measure. This allowed me to assess differences and similarities in results across the three outcome variables. Accordingly, the hypothesis testing process described above was repeated for the two other outcome variables (see Appendix 3).

When I compared the results for the second two dependent variables to the intention to stay results, I found three obvious conclusions. First, as expected, when the

outcome variable is turnover intention, the direction of the results for the focal independent variables is opposite those of the tests involving the two intention to stay variables. This result provides a degree of confirmation that turnover intention and intention to stay measures measure opposite behavioural intentions. Second, with respect to the focal variables, Models 4 & 5 are similar across the three dependent variables in that fostering of self-determined motivation and negative anchoring events have a highly statistically significant affect on the outcome variable. Third, family membership status and internal training became statistically less significant when I used turnover intention and hybrid intention to stay. Family membership status was only weakly ($p \leq 0.05$) significant when the outcome variable was hybrid intention to stay and insignificant when the outcome was turnover. Internal socialization went from highly significant to weakly significant ($p \leq 0.05$) with the hybrid intention to stay measure and marginal ($p \leq 0.10$) with turnover intention.

Overall the robustness tests proved useful and supported the validity of intention to stay as an outcome variable in organizational behaviour research. Both the similarities and differences found between the three outcome variables also supported its validity. By similarities, I refer to similarities in the control variables that remained highly statistically significant predictors across all three dependent variables. One such control variable was the satisfaction scale. The scale is composed of factors that are demonstrated antecedents of turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000) and from my analysis also antecedents of intention to stay. This, plus the fact that the relationship between the satisfaction scale and intention to stay was opposite in direction from the variable's relationship with turnover, further supports the usefulness of intention to stay.

Instead of supporting the validity of using intention to stay in organization behaviour research, the differences between the results for turnover intention and intention to stay speak to the inherent differences between the two constructs and measures and their not being simply behavioural mirrors of each other. This is demonstrated, in part, by the differences in the two dependent variables' relationship with the independent variables. Both intention to stay and turnover intention are related to different focal variables, in different directions, and at different degrees of statistical significance. Family membership status and internal socialization significantly affect intention to stay, but not turnover intention. And, although the relationship between fostering of self-determined motivation is only marginal for intention to stay, the relationship between the fostering of self-determined motivation and turnover intention is highly significant. Similar variation in statistical significance continues in the control variables, notably in job alternatives, job involvement, and job performance. That the differences are, to some degree, mitigated in the hybrid measure's results also supports the notion that intention to stay and turnover intention are not mirrors of each other. The hybrid measure is essentially a combination of the two other dependent variables. Combining the two measures brings the previous differences closer together. Based on this information, I conclude that my hypothesis testing is robust.

Figure 3.1: Breakdown of Family Businesses by Industry (% of total)

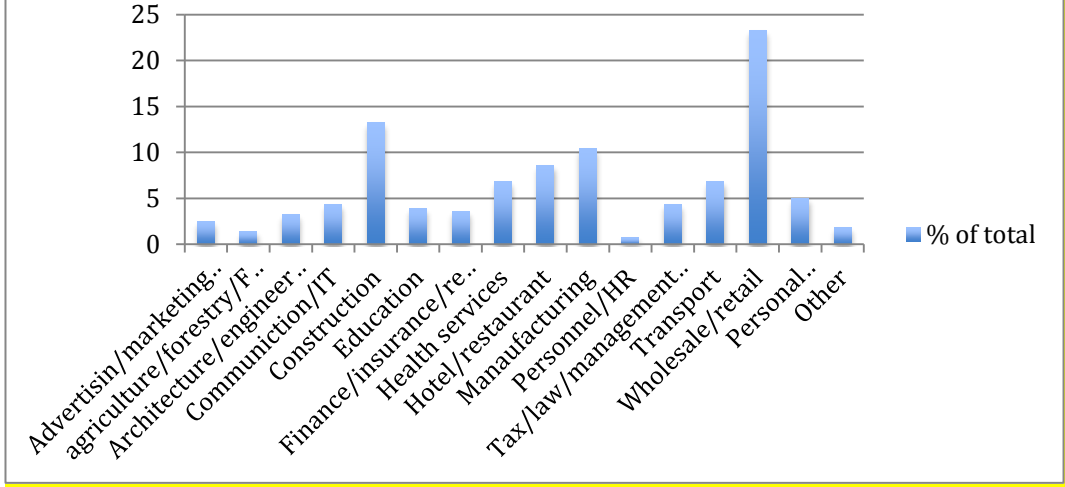


Figure 3.2: Distribution of Fostering Self-Determined Motivation

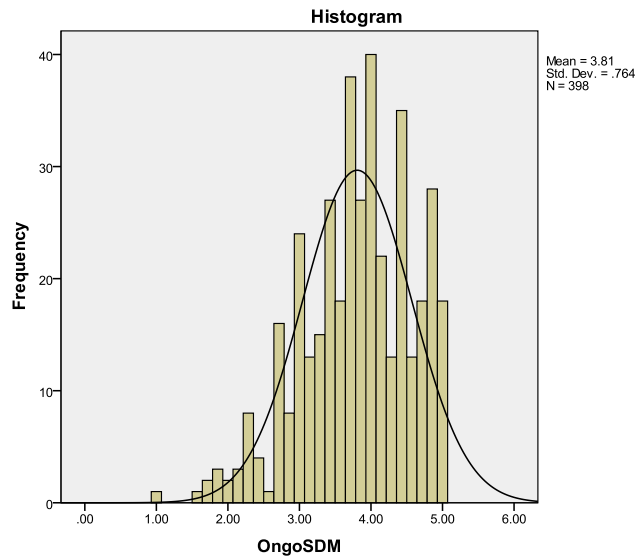


Table 3.1: Factor Analysis of Turnover Intention Scale

	Items	Component 1
1	I am thinking about leaving this organization.	.956
2	I am planning to look for a new job.	.956
3	I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.	.912
4	I don't plan to be in this organization much longer.	.909

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Table 3.2: Factor Analysis of Hybrid Intention to Stay Scale

	Item	Component 1
1	Do you see yourself with your current employer in 3 years?	.787
2	If it were completely up to you, how likely is it that you will be working for your current employer in 3 years?	.837
3	I am thinking about leaving this organization. (R)	.930
4	I am planning to look for a new job. (R)	.932
5	I intend to ask people about new job opportunities. (R)	.867
6	I don't plan to be in this organization much longer. (R)	.895

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Table 3.3: Factor Analysis of Fostering Self-Determined Motivation Scale

	Item	Component 1
1	Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel free to perform my role independently.	0.889
2	Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel that they recognize my capability as a manager.	0.843
3	Members of the owning family(s) do things that made me feel essential to the company's success.	0.872
4	Members of the owning family(s) do things that limit my ability to do my job as I think it could best be done.	0.834
5	Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel like I belong in the company.	0.831
6	Members of the owning family(s) let me know I fill my managerial responsibilities properly. (R)	0.299
7	Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel connected to the business	0.872

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. 1 component extracted.

Table 3.4: Internal Consistency of Fostering of Self-Determined Motivation scale

	Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach' s Alpha if Item Deleted
1	Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel free to perform my role independently.	22.7538	20.650	.813	.850
2	Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel that they recognize my capability as a manager.	22.7814	21.048	.751	.857
3	Members of the owning family(s) do things that made me feel essential to the company's success.	22.7487	20.511	.793	.852
4	Members of the owning family(s) do things that limit my ability to do my job as I think it could best be done.	22.7638	21.012	.735	.859
5	Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel like I belong in the company.	22.6834	21.265	.753	.858
6	Members of the owning family(s) let me know I fill my managerial responsibilities properly. (R)	23.3970	24.442	.236	.928
7	Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel connected to the business	22.7764	21.141	.779	.855

Table 3.5: Factor Analysis of Anchor Scale

	Item Question	Scale Responses	Factor Loading
1	The incident directly impacted a very important goal of mine.	1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	0.631
2	The outcome of the incident was not what I was expecting.	1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	0.703
3	The family member(s) had control over the outcome of the incident.	1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	0.784
4	I was highly dependent upon the family member(s) who had control over the incident.	1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	0.739
5	The incident changed how I viewed future interactions with the family member and/or owning family as a whole.	1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	0.677
6	When I think of the family member and/or owning family, I frequently recall this incident.	1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree	0.570

Table 3.6: Generation of Ownership

Generation	Percentage
First generation	62.2%
Second generation	25.7%
Third or more generations	7.3%
No response	4.8%

Table 3.7: Summary of Companies by Size

Company Size (# of Employees)	Percent of Total
2-10 employees	35.6
11-20 employees	17.5
21-50 employees	17.8
51-100 employees	16.5
101-250 employees	12.6

Table 3.8: Manager Age by Category

Age Category	Percentage of Sample
Under 30 years	12.5%
30-40 years	22.8%
41-50 years	32.1%
51-60 years	24.6%
61 or older	7.8%

Table 3.9: Factor Loadings from Principal Components Factor Analysis

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
Intention to stay (alpha= 0.897)			
1. Do you see yourself with your current employer in 3 years?	-0.697		
2. If it were completely up to you, how likely is it that you will be working for your current employer in 3 years?	-0.735		
Turnover intention (alpha= 0.950)			
1. I am thinking about leaving this organization.	0.919		
2. I am planning to look for a new job.	0.861		
3. I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.	0.860		
4. I don't plan to be able to be in this organization much longer.	0.887		
Fostering Self-Determined Motivation (alpha= 0.884)			
1. Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel free to perform my role independently.		0.785	
2. Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel that they recognize my capability as a manager		0.778	
3. Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel essential to the company's success		0.823	
4. Members of the owning family(s) do things that limit my ability to do my job as I think it should be done.		0.767	
5. Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel like I belong in the company		0.817	
6. Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel connected to the business.		0.812	
Anchor Scale (alpha= 0.774)			
1. The incident directly impacted a very important goal of mine.			0.685
2. The outcome of the incident was not what I was expecting.			0.614
3. The family member(s) had control over the outcome of the incident.			0.815
4. I was highly dependent upon the family member(s) who had control over the incident outcome.			0.793
5. The incident changed how I viewed future interactions with the family member and/or owning family as a whole.			0.565
6 When I think of the family member and/or owning family, I frequently recall this incident.			0.504

Table 3.10: Skew of Key Variables

Variable	Skew Statistic
Family commitment	-1.295
Company generation	1.550
Founder effect	1.064
Company size	0.391
Company age	1.721
Industry	-0.170
Relative performance	-0.759
Company survivability	-0.769
Shares	1.901
Incentives	1.072
Manager age	-0.066
Manager sex	-0.159
Job alternatives	-0.321
Job performance	-1.040
Job satisfaction	-1.276
Job involvement	-0.164
Income satisfaction	-0.873
Satisfaction scale	-0.037
Family status	0.881
Internal socialization	1.932
Professional training	0.427
Combination variable	2.022
Fostering self-determined motivation	-0.539
Positive anchoring event	3.239
Negative anchoring event	2.987
Organizational commitment	-0.845
Owning family identification	-0.759
Basic needs fulfillment	-0.359

Table 3.11: Key Variables

Measure (SPSS Variable)	Theoretical Range	Composition	Reliability	Mean	S.D.	Skew	Additional Info.
Dependent Variables							
Intention to Stay	1-5	136, 137	.897	3.789	1.098	-.881	
Hybrid Intention to Stay	1-5	136, 137, 138r	.939	3.667	1.091	-.552	
Turnover Intention	1-5	138 (4 items)	.950	2.395	1.204	.472	
Focal Independent Variables							
Family Status	0= Non Family 1= Family	Q90r		.299	.458	.881	0 = 70.1% 1 = 29.9%
Socialization	1 to 49 years	Q8_Tenure		8.830	8.198	1.932	
Centred Socialization		Q8_TenureC		.0046	8.198	1.932	
Education	1=HS 2= some post sec 3=post sec 4= some grad school 5= grad school	Q124		2.740	1.157	.445	1= 13.6% 2= 30.2% 3= 36.3% 4= 8.1% 5=11.8%
Designations	.5 for each	Q124 + Adl_Training= Pro_Training		2.767	1.159	.427	Min= 1 Max= 5.5
Pro_Training Centred		Pro_TrainingC		.000	1.159	.427	
Combination Variable		Pro_Training * Q8_tenure		19.256	16.645	2.022	Range = 1.5 -112
Combination Variable Centred		Pro_TrainingC * Q8_tenureC		-1.253	9.878	-1.444	
Fostering SDM	1-5	Q102 (102_6r omitted) (7 items less 1)	.884	3.807	.764	-.539	
Anchor Scale		= 0 if Q117 =No = mean (q119_1 to _6) if Q117=yes	.774	.799	1.582	1.570	
Experienced an Anchor				.212	.409	1.418	n=84
Event was an Anchoring Event		Anchor Scale score of 3 or more		1.784	.383	1.686	N= 71
Positive Anchoring Event				.075	.264	-3.239	N=30
Negative Anchoring Event				.085	.279	2.987	N=34

Table 3.11: Key Variables

Measure (SPSS Variable)	Theoretical Range	Composition	Reliability	Mean	S.D.	Skew	Additional Info.
Control Variables							
Family Commitment	1-6	Q95 (7 items)	.901	4.497	.686	-1.295	
Generation	1= 1 st Gen 2= 2 nd Gen 3 = 3 rd plus	Q97		1.55	.826	1.524	1 = 62.2% 2= 25.7% 3 = 7.3% DNK= 4.8%
Founder Effect	0-2	Q99, Q100 (1 point if founder alive, 1 point if founder still involved)		1.470	.839	-1.064	
Company Size	1= 2-10, 2=11-20 3=21-50 4= 51-100 5=101-250	Q4		2.530	1.431	.391	1= 35.6% 2 = 17.5% 3 = 17.8% 4 = 16.5% 5 = 12.5%
Company Age	Min= 1 Max= 125	Q96		25.27	21.546	1.721	
Industry	1 Advert/Market 2 Ag/Forest/Fish 3 Architect/Eng 4 Communication/IT 5 Construction 6 Edu 7 Finance/Ins/Real Est 8 Health 9 Hotel/Rest 10 Manufacturing 11 Personnel/HR 12 Tax/Law/Consult 13 Transport 14 Wholesale/Retail 15 Servi/rec/entertain 16 Other	Q103		9.532	4.157	-.172	1 = 2.8% 2 = 1.5% 3 = 3% 4 = 4.8% 5 = 14.6% 6 = 4.8% 7 = 5.3% 8 = 6.0% 9 = 8.3% 10 = 8.8% 11 = 1.3% 12 = 4.5% 13 = 6.8% 14 = 21.1% 15 = 5.0% 16 = 1.8%
Company Performance	1-10 (far exceeding	Q108		7.890	1.694	-.759	
Company Survivability	1-7 (very likely)	Q109		6.180	1.254	-.759	
Share Program	1=yes 0=no	Q111		.160	.363	1.901	1= 15.6% 0=84.4%

Table 3.11: Key Variables

Measure (SPSS Variable)	Theoretical Range	Composition	Reliability	Mean	S.D.	Skew	Additional Info.
Control Variables							
Incentive Based Pay	1=yes 0=no	Q129 recode 1, 0- if no incentive, make proportion =0%		.260	.442	1.072	1= 26.4% 0= 73.6%
Manager Age	1= under 30 2= 30-40 3= 41-50 4=51-60 5= 61 +	Q 127		2.910	1.142	-.066	1= 12.5% 2= 22.8% 3= 32.1% 4=24.6% 5=7.8%
Manager Sex	0= male 1= female	Q126,		1.540	.499	-.159	0= 46.1% 1= 53.9%
Job Alternatives	1-7	Q134 (2 items)	.914	4.454	1.732	-.321	
Job Performance	1-10	Q84, 85, 86	.803	8.811	1.101	-1.040	
Job Satisfaction	1-7	Q83_1, 83_2r, 83_3	.823	8.597	1.717	-1.276	
Job Involvement	1-7	Q82_1,2,3,4,5,6r,7,8,9r,10	.848	4.231	1.065	-.164	
Income Satisfaction	1-10	Q128 1= unfair, 10=totally fair		7.420	2.141	2.141	
Satisfaction scale		Q82, Q83, Q128_Pay	.853	.000	1.000	-.037	

Table 3.11: Key Variables

Measure (SPSS Variable)	Theoretical Range	Composition	Reliability	Mean	S.D.	Skew	Additional Info.
Mediator Variables							
Organizational Commitment	1-7	Q114, 115, 116 (18 items)	.868	4.865	.961	-.845	
Basic Needs Fulfillment	1-5	Q 79, 80, 81	.877	3.966	.548	-.392	
Owning Family Identification	1-7	Q123 (6 items)	.915	5.0318	1.352	-.759	
Unused Control Variables							
Combined APGAR	1-5	APGAR 1r,2r,3r,4r,5r	.914	3.898	.869	-.646	
Family Ownership %	1-100	Q94		93.720	15.137	-2.568	
Company performance (Q107_Sales)	Min=1 Max=600 mil	Q107					Mean=12584003.19 SD= 55603616.19 Skew= 9.629
Company performance (Q107_SalesLn)	Min=0 Max=8.78						Mean= 5.889 SD= 1.529 Skew= -1.635

Table 3.12: Pearson Correlation Matrix (2 tailed test)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Intention to stay	1													
2 Owning family commitment	.389***	1												
3 Ownership generation	.046	-.042	1											
4 Founder effect	.022	.058	-.540***	1										
5 Co size	.100*	.027	.227***	-.223***	1									
6 Co age	.023	.059	.394***	-.492***	.216***	1								
7 Industry	-.049	-.003	-.032	.032	.030	.034	1							
8 Co's relative performance	.354***	.335***	-.035	.011	.021	.014	.001	1						
9 Co's perceived survivability	.480***	.418***	-.022	.074	.073	.052	-.060	.402***	1					
10 Share program	.096†	.036	.035	-.034	.167***	-.077	-.141**	-.016	-.003	1				
11 Incentive program	.112*	.065	-.021	.067	.135**	-.083	.058	.068	.097	.343***	1			
12 Manager age	-.086†	-.013	.000	-.057	.075	.060	.063	.015	-.026	.024	.075	1		
13 Manager sex	.040	.105*	-.014	-.008	-.151**	-.054	.074	.023	.001	-.033	-.115*	-.028	1	
14 Job alts	-.071	-.046	-.040	.017	.095†	-.188***	-.110*	-.041	.035	.081	.057	.074	.051	1
15 Job performance	.134**	.155**	-.057	.062	-.083†	.043	.062	.321***	.202***	-.139**	-.141**	-.097†	.187***	.022
16 Job satisfaction	.641***	.427***	.005	.041	.004	.015	.041	.358***	.431***	-.009	.033	-.103*	.097†	-.023
17 Job involvement	.452***	.233***	.063	-.003	.136**	-.110*	-.078	.155**	.221***	.185***	.143**	.006	-.026	.029
18 Pay satisfaction	.464***	.291***	-.010	.051	.009	-.018	-.028	.407***	.241***	.057	.102*	-.037	-.021	-.068
19 Satisfaction scale	.062	-.023	.037	-.007	-.092	.024	.011	-.095†	-.051	-.086†	-.069	.037	.024	-.012
20 Family membership status	.168***	.075	-.120*	.125*	-.181***	-.218***	-.093†	.087†	.005	.252***	.094†	-.018	.015	-.076
21 Internal socialization	.153**	.147**	-.033	-.100†	-.025	.286***	-.002	.111*	.119*	-.078	-.126*	-.066	.093†	-.247***
22 Professional training	-.005	-.006	.049	-.048	.183***	-.036	-.081	-.077	.046	.187	.158**	.048	-.089†	.065
23 Internal soc X prof training	.139**	.135*	.037	-.139**	.024	.244***	-.050	.085	.129*	.034	-.057	-.034	.033	-.216***
24 Fostering SDM	.527***	.475***	-.098†	.110*	-.098†	-.058	-.006	.379	.417***	.029	.032	-.103*	.104*	.041
25 Positive anchor event	.107*	.087†	-.051	.078	.147**	-.068	-.043	-.020	.004	.199***	.196***	.130**	-.002	-.001
26 Negative anchor event	-.368***	-.214***	-.094†	.043	-.125*	-.006	.052	-.097	-.219***	-.082	-.061	.086†	.030	.016
27 Organizational commitment	.634***	.475***	-.046	.051	.011	.017	-.024	.369***	.367***	.106*	.086†	-.081	.119*	-.169***
28 Basic needs fulfillment	.379***	.337***	-.040	.111*	-.116*	-.026	.054	.279***	.302***	-.103*	-.032	-.103*	.149**	-.005
29 Owning family identification	.522***	.368***	-.002	.039	.016	-.087†	-.033	.339***	.293***	.143**	.115*	-.045	.075	.055

	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
16 Job satisfaction	.357***	1													
17 Job involvement	.044	.384***	1												
18 Pay satisfaction	.199***	.441	.239***	1											
19 Satisfaction scale	.033	.156**	.237***	-.057	1										
20 Family membership status	-.140**	.019	.224***	.173***	-	.147**	1								
21 Internal socialization	.164**	.076	-.031	.079	-.072	.085	1								
22 Professional training	-.050	-.070	-.010	.024	-.112*	.034	-	.172***	1						
23 Internal soc X prof training	.183***	.071	-.018	.119*	-.100†	.108*	.762***	.356***	1						
24 Fostering SDM	.392***	.624***	.319***	.473***	.018	.115*	.162**	.001	.169***	1					
25 Positive anchor event	-.139**	.012	.148**	.100*	-.058	.021	-.116*	.008	-.087	.015	1				
26 Negative anchor event	.031	-	.303***	-.152**	-	.239***	-.023	.016	-.026	.030	-.013	-	.249***	.087†	1
27 Organizational commitment	.197***	.594***	.507***	.439***	.016	.276***	.211***	-.106*	.160**	.547***	.100*	-	.241***	-	1
28 Basic needs fulfillment	.495***	.680***	.163***	.314***	.115	-.071	.141**	-.103*	.114*	.647***	-	.094†	-.150**	.361***	1
29 Owning family identification	.153**	.492***	.485***	.399***	-.039	.372***	.088†	-.063	.047	.549***	.093†	-	.234***	.685***	.353 1

Table 3.13: Tests of H1-H4, Testing for the Dependent Variable Intention to Stay

	Model 1	Model 2: H1	Model 3: H2	Model 4: H3	Model 5: H4	Full Model
Control variables						
Owning Family commitment	0.169***	0.162***	0.160***	0.049	0.122**	0.026
Ownership generation	0.058	0.063	0.079†	0.068†	0.037	0.070†
Founder effect	-0.008	-0.009	-0.005	-0.004	-0.009	-0.006
Company size	0.061†	0.095**	0.068†	0.093*	0.028	0.082*
Company age	-0.059	-0.039	-0.139**	-0.030	-0.036	-0.057
Industry	-0.017	-0.009	-0.008	-0.028	-0.011	-0.009
Company's relative performance	0.160***	0.139**	0.146	0.110†	0.165***	0.101*
Company's Perceived survivability	0.337***	0.341***	0.330***	0.262***	0.284***	0.233***
Share program	0.069†	0.027	0.077†	0.045	0.052	0.011
Incentive program	0.051	0.051	0.056	0.040	0.047	0.042
Manager age	-0.082*	-0.078*	-0.065†	-0.056†	-0.067†	-0.038
Manager sex	0.014	0.016	0.016	0.015	0.014	0.016
Job alternatives	-0.070†	-0.054	-0.039	-0.088*	-0.055	-0.043
Job performance	0.019	0.041	0.002	-0.083*	0.045	-0.030
Satisfaction Scale	0.120**	0.135***	0.118**	0.104**	0.110**	0.112**
Independent Variables						
Family membership status		0.155***				0.109**
Internal Socialization			0.188***			0.120**
Professional training			-0.014			-0.004
Internal soc X prof training			0.004			-0.024
Fostering self-determined motivation				0.393***		0.310***
Positive anchoring event					0.053	0.061†
Negative anchoring event					-0.261***	-0.210***
F score	11.573***	11.781***	10.648***	16.092***	13.405***	14.780***
R ²	0.329	0.348	0.354	0.422	0.393	0.484
Adjusted R ²	0.301	0.319	0.321	0.396	0.364	0.452
n	370	370	369	370	370	369

Note: † p ≤ 0.10, * p ≤ 0.01, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001 (one tailed test for all independent variables)

SECTION III: EXPLORATIONS

CHAPTER 4:

QUALITATIVE METHODS & RESULTS

Introduction

In the previous chapter I reported my quantitative analysis results, which provided some key insights into my study. As I expected, family managers do have higher intentions to stay, internal socialization does act as a centripetal force pulling managers towards the family business, and negative anchoring events do lessen their intentions to stay. Despite the strength of my results, certain aspects of the findings puzzled me, three aspects in particular:

- 1) Why did the existence of positive anchoring events not have a statistically significant positive effect on manager intention to stay?
- 2) What factors lie between experiencing a negative anchoring event and not leaving the family business?
- 3) How do owning families foster relatedness in non-family managers?

Qualitative research is useful in seeking “answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 4). In moving ahead, I followed the example of some prominent qualitative research experts (e.g. (Elsbach & Kramer, 2003; Maitlis, 2005; Nag, Corley, & Gioia, 2007; Santos & Eisenhardt, 2009)) and allowed the three puzzles to influence the collection and analysis of my interview data. This meant that, for the qualitative portion of my project, my focus shifted

from manager characteristics to better understandings of the owning family behaviours I hypothesized would have an impact on manager intention to stay. In the remainder of this chapter, I detail the qualitative portion of my research project. I describe the sample, data collection methods, and my analysis, and conclude with a discussion of my findings.

Interview Sample

A challenge of any research project is finding suitable data; this was certainly with my project. I needed to identify businesses that were not only family owned and controlled, but also businesses that had a mix of family and non-family managers. Additionally, I wanted the businesses to be small and/or medium-sized to remain theoretically and methodologically consistent with the quantitative sample. Fortunately, my experience in and connections to such industries met my study's needs.

Context. I drew informants from automobile dealerships (across a variety of different automotive manufacturers). The choice of automobile dealerships was both convenient and, in my opinion, representative of the variety generally present in family businesses. Automotive dealerships vary in size (e.g., number of employees, revenues), in their ownership structures (e.g., sole owner with single or multiple dealerships; owner consortium; multiple owners from the same family, etc.), and in their generational composition. In addition, dealerships are often multi-divisional/functional form businesses with multiple managers. Loosely categorized, most dealerships will, at a minimum, have vehicle repair, administration, and sales functions. Each department or functional area normally exhibits its own management structure. Within each functional area, the organization will require different professional skills, training, and knowledge. Depending

on the functional area, a manager may need to have professional training specific to an automotive manufacturer and/or their function. Also, because dealerships are independent businesses with specific localized needs, practices and norms, internal socialization may play an important role in how managers learn to be successful in the business. Each dealership can also be expected to have non-owner managers, who have received both professional training and internal socialization relevant to their role in the company.

I conducted my interviews at Canadian new vehicle dealerships. In Canada, a majority of dealerships are family owned (Interview transcript KP). Unlike in the United States, Canadian dealerships rarely host multiple brands on the same property, although the owners may have different brands in their dealership portfolio. As with many industries, some dealer-group ownership consolidation has occurred, but the Canadian groups tend to be concentrated regionally instead of nationally.

Independent business people purchase the dealership, as a franchise, from the manufacturer. Due to their franchise status, the owners are encouraged to follow certain standards as defined by the manufacturer. Increasingly, each manufacturer has codified standards and expectations to which franchise owners are held. The vehicle manufacturers incentivise owners to meet whatever the current standards might be, such as image standards for new or current facilities, organizational standards, and staff training standards. When dealerships comply with the standards, they receive inducements from the manufacturer. For example, when I worked at a Ford dealership, their standards program was called "Blue Oval." We were in the process of achieving the first of several levels of certification through this program. It involved, for instance, having written processes and job descriptions for each staff position, maintaining certain levels of

technician training, and conforming to the current Ford image standards. In return, once certified, the dealership would receive, among other things, discounts from the manufacturer on financing its new vehicle inventory. The incentives increased with each certification level.

This incentivising mindset by the manufacturers is, I believe, a distinguishing factor of the industry. The industry relies heavily on incentives to drive employee behaviour. It is industry standard practice in North American dealerships to use various pay-based incentives to increase performance and productivity in all levels of the dealership (Jansen, Merchant, & Van der Stede, 2009). As a result, managers' actions and performance are closely monitored, measured, and scrutinized (Jansen et al., 2009). Dealerships are, therefore, often rife with internal competition, where performance is measured and incentives form a significant portion of the employees' remuneration. The net result is that, despite their franchise status, dealerships display great individuality, have highly competitive internal environments, and manager performance is rewarded with financial incentives.

Manager turnover is quite common in dealerships, providing an interesting setting in which to conduct research on intentions to stay. My experience with various dealerships, over the years, indicated high management turnover. One of the itinerant managers I interviewed confirmed my impression when he told me "it is absolutely true that manager turnover is high in every aspect of dealership management" (Interview transcript SR). Contributing factors include the sheer number of automotive dealerships and the transferability of skill sets between dealerships and brands.

Recruitment Procedures. To meet the needs and demands for rigour in the sample, I took several steps to ensure a reasonable level of variety in my sample. I did not want to oversample by owning family. To assure this did not happen, I interviewed no more than two managers at any one dealership and limited participation of multiple-dealer groups in the sample. Beyond this, I chose managers who would provide adequate variety across the control variables and focal independent variables. This meant that, in targeting managers, I considered a blend of sex, age, experience, and training, purposely avoiding family membership status, because I have already established that family managers have higher intentions to stay (Appendix 4). Thus, I did not interview family managers. Practically speaking, I knew that finding a minimum of 20 informants would be challenging, but believed the number to be a minimum for maintaining methodological rigour in the sample.

Perhaps the most challenging area of diversity and representativeness in the sample was intentions to stay. I suspected that finding managers who reported low intentions to stay with the employing family firm would be difficult. Research on behavioural outcomes, such as turnover, absenteeism, and other behaviours that may not benefit the organization comes with the challenge of getting participants to admit to such behaviours or intentions towards such behaviours. We all possess a tendency toward a desire to project socially desirable behaviour (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Lee, 2003). In the context of my study, I expected managers to perceive high intention to stay as socially desirable behaviour. To overcome this, I took great effort to assure and re-assure managers that their employer would not be made privy to any portion of the interview.

When it came to finding possible interviewees, I engaged in two separate and distinct approaches. In both approaches I relied on contacts in dealerships, stemming from two sources, relationships I developed during my non-academic career and contacts my doctoral supervisor had. First, I contacted dealership owners and asked their permission to interview up to two managers. I explained that their consent meant I would be allowed to conduct interviews, thirty to sixty minutes long, with one or two of their managers about their experiences as managers in a family business. I requested a brief interview with the owners to obtain background information on the dealership and owning family. I knew that involving owners in a project that included sensitive questions about their managers' intentions to stay may introduce challenges, but open disclosure is common practice in order to gain access to private work places. Requesting owners' permission was also a courtesy to the eventual informants and their employers.

My plan was that, once permission was granted, I would contact the managers myself, explain the project, that the owner's permission to conduct the study had been granted, and solicit the manager's participation. Unfortunately, this did not fit with the real world demands on owners and managers in dealerships. As stated above, dealerships are intense, high-pressure work environments where, for managers especially, departmental performance is constantly measured. This meant that, in all cases, I was not allowed to choose the informants, but the owners identified the managers whom they were comfortable freeing from their responsibilities for the interviews. Once the owners granted permission, I made arrangements for the interviews to take place either in person or electronically. At this point, I interviewed 18 non-family managers, 11 owners/dealer

principals in ten dealerships. Table 4.1 presents a more-detailed description of the dealerships. I refer to this group of informants as the '*resident*' managers.

---Insert Table 4.1 about here---

All the dealerships were family-owned and operated; five dealerships were part of a dealer group, representing approximately half of the group's dealerships. The owning families actively participated in their dealership(s) management and/or its oversight at all the dealerships in this study.

During my interviews with the resident managers, the danger of oversampling managers with high intentions to stay and strong relationships with the owning family became apparent. As a result, I developed an alternate approach to soliciting participation, relying on personal contacts, but in a much more specific way. I asked them to introduce me to colleagues within their networks whom they knew to be dissatisfied with their current employment and employers. Through this approach, I gained a few possible informants, but no additional interview participants. I contacted each potential participant several times, confirmed their participation, and scheduled interviews. However, when the scheduled times came, the managers were never available. Perhaps I should have expected this outcome; the interview might be unpleasant for disaffected managers and, therefore, explain why they would avoid it.

Fortunately, my contacts included four individuals with experiences that afforded them unique perspectives and insights on family-owned dealerships. Collectively, they have 73 years of experience, the majority as managers, in 35 family-owned vehicle

dealerships. One of the managers, KP, had worked only in Ford dealerships but the other three had worked in a variety of domestic and import dealerships. This group served as an additional source of insight into the conditions, experiences, and consequences of how owning family behaviours impact, both negatively and positively, manager intention to stay. Each of the informants has direct experience working with a variety of owning families and their behaviours from which I could draw upon in my interviews. Additionally, by virtue of their having held managerial and leadership positions in multiple dealerships, they were a source of the experiences and understandings of the consequences of owning family behaviours on managers, who would have been their peers throughout their careers. I refer to these managers as my *'itinerant'* manager group.

Participants. The informants in the resident manager group represented dealerships located in Alberta, Ontario, and Prince Edward Island. The itinerant managers could speak to their experiences, having worked for family owned dealerships in Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Prince Edward Island, and Yukon.

Descriptive information for both groups of managers is reported in Table 4.2.

---Insert Table 4.2 about here---

Of the managers that I interviewed four were women and 18 were men. The average number of years in the industry was 12.5, with a range of 3-36 years. The majority of managers were employed in the sales department (8 managers). That this department was the most represented was not surprising given that, traditionally, the sales department has been viewed as the most important part of a dealership (Interview SR & Interview KP).

For many dealerships, departments other than sales (i.e. service, parts, administration) have been considered support departments for sales and not as their own profit centres. An owner from one of my previous projects told me this view has led to sales departments being the main avenue to leadership positions in dealerships (James, 2012). The remaining managers represented in the sample worked in parts, service, fixed operations and general management.

Interview Procedures

Interviews are representations of peoples' experiences that are "collaboratively produced", in the interactions between informant and interviewer (Silverman, 2006, p. 112). The interviews were, as stated previously, semi-structured interviews. The goal of the interviews was three-fold. First, I wanted to allow and encourage the informant to express how they feel, experience, remember, and make sense of working in a family-owned dealership (Patton, 1990). Second, I wanted to allow the informant to define what constitutes the incidents I was seeking to identify and describe the incidents' effects (Leitch, Hill, & Harrison, 2010). Third, as the researcher, I wanted to develop a "local acquaintance with the setting" (Huberman & Miles, 1994, p. 432). To accomplish this, all interviews began with my manager interview outline (APPENDIX 5). The interview outline served as a general road map, a reminder of the general areas and incident types around which I hoped to gather data. As such, the outline served as a starting point from which each interview evolved with the manager and me working together to gain insights on anchoring events, the owning family fostering of self-determined motivation, and intention to stay.

To minimize informant concerns and promote the open sharing of attitudes and opinions, I conducted all face-to-face interviews in private rooms away from other employees. This meant that most of the face-to-face interviews occurred in the manager's office, a location that also served to minimize any discomfort engendered by the interview. The telephone interviews took place in privacy too, usually with the manager in his/her office. To further limit other possible effects of self-report bias, all interviews followed a similar script format and were conducted calmly (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Ultimately, I made every effort to conduct the interviews so that I, as the researcher, could gain insights into the context in a setting that encouraged the informant to openly share their self-understandings in the interviews (Leitch et al., 2010). I conducted 16 interviews in person and six via telephone. I recorded all interviews using a digital recording device.

I transmitted the digital files to a contracted professional service for transcription. Since the analysis would be neither discourse nor conversation analysis, the transcriptions followed the regular format used in business studies in that they included only the words spoken by the participant, but not additional contextual information encased in the recordings (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). In addition to the transcribed record of the interviews, I maintained my own interview notes, where I recorded thoughts about and reactions to the interviews as they progressed. Together, these two interview records formed the body of data to be analysed qualitatively.

Data Analysis

By its nature, qualitative research involves ongoing and continuous analysis and reflection from the start of data collection through to the reporting process (Ely, Anzul,

Friedman, Garner, & Steinmetz, 1991; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). I followed this process throughout my interviewing. Once I completed the interviews, I began a new phase of analysis, bringing the accumulated data together to find out what the consequences of the managers' experiences and understandings were (Charmaz, 2006). As stated above, continuous analyzing and reflecting on the interview data also included reflecting on the emerging quantitative results.

Analysing qualitative data requires finding the story in the data. The initial task was to "make sense of what is going on" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995, p. 209). To do this, I engaged in a process of 'latent' or 'axial' (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) data coding to conduct my analysis. Axial content analysis is a process by which the researcher can build a dense texture of relationship around the axis of a category (Charmaz, 2006) by using an iterative approach with a series of question and answer cycles "examining cases and then refining and modifying them based on subsequent cases" (Huberman & Miles, 1994, p. 431). In examining and refining my cases, I utilized "interpretive reading of the symbolism underlying the physical data" in an attempt to reach the "deep structural meaning conveyed" by the informants (Berg, 2004, p. 269). This process also involved latent analysis of the interview texts.

Latent content analysis requires two fundamental steps (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). The first is to read the data carefully, to become so familiar with it that the researcher will "use the data to think with" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995, p. 210). In this step, the goal is to look for patterns and how those patterns relate to each other, and for any identifiable features that remain stable through time. The second step is to find the data's central concepts and categories (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). Here new

understandings of the concepts and categories emerge, previously coded data is re-coded, and the overarching dimensions materialize. The desired outcome of this process is to bring the connections from concrete to abstract (Huberman & Miles, 1994). In this way, latent analysis provided me with an organizing scheme to bring the data from concrete to abstract.

I identified the analytic units by searching manager transcripts for interactions describing anchoring events and fostering self-determined motivation. In the text, I highlighted passages where the manager discussed related interactions with a member of the owning family and the manager's own reflections on them. Because interviews are collaboratively produced (Silverman, 2006), the identified sections included statements made by both the informants and by me.

Next using an interactive approach, I developed the coding scheme. I started with three cases, coding each interview separately, and creating a coding scheme using the informants' words, terms, and statements as either "in vivo" (Nag, Corley, & Gioia, 2007) or using my own terms. As I added each interview, I further refined, modified, and updated the coding scheme based on this subsequent information (Huberman & Miles, 1994). I looked for similarities and differences within the identified sections of text to develop the coding scheme, using *Nvivo 10* to track and organize my coding. Over time and with constant comparison, I began to recognize patterns in the data wherein similarities in concepts were discernible. Then, I collapsed the codes into categories that stayed true to the language or intent of the informants (Nag, Corley, & Gioia, 2007).

Through axial cycles, I iterated back and forth between emerging concepts and relationships in the data. In the iterative cycles, I looked for the symbolism that lay within the concepts (Berg, 2004) and considered extant concepts and theories in the literature (Jennings, Edwards, Jennings, & Delbridge, 2012; Nag, Corley, & Gioia, 2007). Thus, a more abstract set of themes emerged from the concepts. I cast some themes in terms of the extant literature and others in terms true to the language of the informants when the theme was best expressed as such.

The final step, in bringing the interview data from the concrete to the abstract, involved my collapsing the themes into overarching dimensions (Corley & Gioia, 2004; Jennings et al., 2012; Nag, Corley, & Gioia, 2007). At this level, I can add qualitatively to my family business manager intention to stay framework.

Before settling on the overarching dimensions, I involved several of my colleagues in verifying my coding scheme, concepts, and themes. I asked them to independently to assess my coding, concepts, and themes. Their responses confirmed that I was moving in the right direction with the analysis. In addition, their feedback showed me see additional connections and concepts in the interviews that I had not identified.

Findings

Puzzle One: Why did positive anchoring events not lead to managers having higher intention to stay?

The finding that positive anchors did not have a statistically significant effect on manager intention to stay perplexed me, because examples of owning family engaging in extraordinary actions with their non-family employees during my previous career are what

intrigued me when I was introduced to Ballinger & Rockmann (2010) and anchoring events. Throughout my research project, I assumed that both positive and negative anchoring events should powerfully affect the focal manager. Countering my intuition, the survey analysis demonstrated clearly a negligible (and statistically non-significant) effect for positive anchors. I was not ready to give up on them though.

In their paper, Ballinger & Rockmann did not provide concrete examples of what an anchoring event might be. Although the paper is superbly thought out and conceptually developed regarding what they refer to as “significant phase shift events” (p. 375), and they painstakingly detail each stage of a three- stage model of anchoring events, they do not provide empirical examples of them. Instead, Ballinger and Rockmann provide a detailed definition of conditions required for an anchoring event. Using this definition, on my interview data, I found examples of positive anchoring events.

In the interviews, I asked all informants a question along the lines of “can you recall an incident between you and any member of the owning family where the outcome was different than you expected and it caused you to change how you thought future interactions with them would be?” As described above, I began the analysis by identifying sections of the interview transcripts where the informants responded to my questions about significant phase shifts. Having identified text referring to these events, I used *Nvivo* to organize the events and text segments. All but two of the informants (CC & TR) responded as having experienced a significant phase shift event. In Table 4.3, I list the managers who described positive outcome events, their description of the event, and some additional details of the event

---Insert Table 4.3 about here---

As I read and re-read the identified positive events, the types of experiences the managers had with the owning families struck me. Each exchange was between a dependent focal individual and a target judged to have an internal locus of causality and intended the outcome. Perhaps no example is clearer than the one given by RO. Early in my interview with RO, when we were discussing fostering of autonomy, he brought up a time, several years previous, when he was having some personal problems that needed to be "reigned in." RO refused to give any details of what was happening in his life to cause it to spiral out of control. Later in the interview, I asked RO if there had been a significant interaction between a member of the owning family and him. He referred to that prior period and implied that, on one occasion, he had done something he felt was particularly heinous. He described the significant interaction as:

I go back to this episode that happened seven or eight years ago and it was a personal thing and I really thought that when I was coming back to work, because of what happened and what I had done, I was probably going to be fired. And that didn't happen. And it not only surprised me a bit, but I was extremely happy it didn't happen and it changed my life for the good (Interview transcript RO).

RO was, at the time of the incident, an older gentleman well past an age where finding new employment would be challenging, especially in a small town where reputation matters so much like the town where he lives. This left RO highly dependent on the owning

family for his livelihood. By not penalizing RO and allowing him to retain his position, the outcome differed positively from his expected outcome. As a result of the incident, RO's relationship with the owning family and their company changed. As RO put it, "I was committed. I was really committed after that." And finally, RO also recognized that the outcome of the interaction was the outcome the owning family intended and it was in their control. Table 4.4 demonstrates how other informants associated the positive event with higher intention to stay.

---Insert Table 4.4 about here---

Of the 22 identified positive events shown in Table 4.3, four were linked to a manager's higher intentions to stay. This means that, of the total number of identified positive outcome events, only 18% of informants attributed the interactions to higher intention to stay. What happened to the other 82% of the positive events? The answer may lie in Table 4.3.

In my summary of the identified significant phase shift events (Table 4.3), there is a column titled "Anchor Category." I developed the categories by returning not only to the informants' answers about significant events, but also to the broader context of their description around the event. Through this process, I started to recognize themes being repeated among the positive events, so I categorized them. Table 4.3 shows that I identified four categories of positive event: crisis, trust, folklore, and not quite an anchor. The *crisis* events involved some sort of crisis in the manager's life and the owning family's response to it. There were eight (36%) crisis events. The crises included deaths, serious illness, and the future of their career. In each case, the manager linked the event to

causing lasting affective change in the manager's perception of the owning family. Or as PL stated "when you see them and you realize it, it's like wow you know what? They really do care about you. You know what I mean? And that's what it is, yes, they really do care about you" (interview transcript PL).

The second event category involved *trust*, interactions motivated by unexpected displays of trust by an owning family member towards the manager. There were four (18%) trust events. All of the events involved some sort of promotion in the manager's career trajectory; trust, because the manager perceived the promotion as an expression of the owning family trust in his/her ability to meet the challenges of the new position. The managers took an ongoing perception of trust between themselves and the owning family as a result of the event. "I look forward to coming to work every single day and I love the car business. They trust me, I trust them, and the numbers don't lie" (Interview transcript BB). A shared trait among these two positive event categories was the ease with which managers recalled them and their continued repetition in the managers' normal work activity.

The four *folklore* events (18%) are events the manager either experienced or witnessed. The events have the unique effect of having become part of the folklore surrounding the owning family and how they work with their people. For the managers they are an oft-recalled memory elicited for themselves when working for the family could be particularly frustrating. GJ described this well in his reflections on both the folklore and realities of working for a family patriarch. GJ said, "I mean he is a businessman, but a lot of people say that he is a crusty old bugger, but he does have a heart of gold honestly, he

does have a heart of gold. Like we all get frustrated sometimes, but I mean what he does for people, it's unbelievable honestly like, you know" (Interview transcript GJ)?

The fourth positive event category, *not quite an anchor*, contains six events (27%) that did not share an ease of recall or repetition by the managers. With the not quite anchor events, four of the managers were not able to describe the event when asked my initial question. BG's initial response was "I haven't had an experience like that." It was not until I gave him an example and an additional prompt that he came up with an example – his son's wedding. The interview experience was similar with informants KH and BM in that the positive event required additional questions from me. For LA, it did not take multiple questions for him to recall an event, but he was unable to recall details of the incident. In describing how someone would remember an anchoring event, Ballinger & Rockmann (2010) used terms such as intense, vivid, and high levels of rehearsal. They are events that, for the individual, create a recallable heuristic. Anchoring events become a "temporal landmark" (Shum, 1998). From the informants' description of the event and the circumstances of the telling, I questioned if these were actual anchoring events. None of the four events seemed to be vivid in the manager's memory, nor were they a heuristic recalled often by the manager. For this reason, I categorized them as not quite anchoring events.

This left the two events described by AM, the free meat and retirement plan. I categorized them as not quite an anchor for another reason. Anchoring events are a way to understand the development of non-reciprocal relationships that, instead of developing over long periods of time, develop "through the course of one exchange or a short sequence of exchange" (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010, p. 373). What AM described are the

ongoing and longstanding practices of the owning family. For example, long before AM began working with the family the family gave away free meat to the staff at that dealership. The practice began as the owning family built the dealership and continued with the incorporation of a non-family dealer principal. The family's pension scheme represents another ongoing gesture that pre-dates AM's time with the dealership.

Categorizing these six events as not quite anchoring events is not to say that the events had no impact on the managers. With all the events in this category, the informants saw the owning family member's actions as impactful on their relationship, but they did not create the punctuated change an anchoring event does. Instead, their impact is limited, as BM put it "Well I just thought that that was very compassionate on his part" (Interview transcript BM). Such events cannot be considered as contributing to significant phase shifts in their relationships with the owners.

Based on my overall analysis, I concluded that, when asked to identify anchoring events, the informants described experiencing two types of positive interactions with the owning family. Anchoring events represent one type (crisis, trust, and folklore). The other type was the "not quite an anchor" event. I believe that, for my informants, a degree of ambiguity regarding positive anchors existed.

The possibility of ambiguity in positive anchors seemed more important when I compared the informants' descriptions of positive and negative events. In my interviews, eight of the described events were negative outcome events. The negative event informants identified the significant phase shift event that negatively impacted their relationship with a member of the owning family quickly and clearly. With the negative

events, informants did not have to search their memories to describe negative actions by the owners. It seemed that, if the manager had experienced a negative significant phase shift in their relationship with a member of the owning family, they could recall the incident easily. In addition, they recalled these events with vividness, ease, and lack of ambiguity in the description. From this comparison of positive and negative events, I concluded that there may be psychological differences between negative and positive events and that one of the differences seemed to lie with their ambiguity.

In light of this conclusion and re-thinking Ballinger & Rockmann (2010), I realized that Ballinger & Rockmann (2010) also thought inherent differences existed between the psychological effects of negative and positive events. This thinking is reflected in three of their five propositions regarding anchoring events (propositions three, four, and five). In these propositions, Ballinger & Rockmann give extra weight to negative outcome events. For example, proposition 3 states, "An anchoring event is more likely to occur in a reciprocal relationship that is negative than in a reciprocal relationship that is positive or equally balanced" (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010, p. 382).

Past research points to negative valence events having greater impact on individuals than positive valence events (Anderson, 1965; Dreben, Fiske, & Hastie, 1979; Ebbesen, Kjos, & Konecni, 1976; Festinger, Schachter, & Back, 1950; Kreitler & Kreitler, 1968; Peeters & Czapinshi, 1990; Skowronski & Carlston, 1989; Taylor, 1991). A review of scholarly literature comparing the relative effect of negative and positive valence events found that the issue of negative events being stronger "appears to be consistently supported across a broad range of psychological phenomena" (Baumeister et al., 2001, p. 354). In the same review, the authors noted a general lack of exceptions to the power of

negative versus positive events. This led the authors to suggest the difference between negative and positive events may be “one of the most basic and far reaching psychological principles” (p. 362). From a deeper reading of Ballinger & Rockmann (2010) and existing literature confirming the relative strength of the psychological effect of negative events, I realized that there must be definite differences between positive and negative anchoring events.

After further consideration of the literature, I discovered additional insight within my not quite an anchor category. In describing psychological differences between positive and negative events, Baumeister et al. (2001) consider the need for consistency for positive events. Without taking into account the possible implications of anchoring events, Baumeister et al. suggest that good (i.e. positive) involves consistency across time and interactions. They point to (Rozin & Royzman, 2001) and say that good cannot be created by “a single good event but can be destroyed by a single bad one” (p. 358). The consistency across time and interactions resonates with the owning-family actions, described by my informants, that I categorized as not quite an anchor. It resonates because what these managers described was the owning family’s ongoing small positive actions that created a positive affective environment (like the free meat). In this way, past literature confirms what I found in my interviews. The ‘good’ Rozin & Royzman (2001) referred to are the “not quite an anchor” actions of owning families that incrementally create the positive state for the employees and managers. This state of ‘good’ helps create the ambiguity my informants demonstrated as they tried to identify significant positive events among the stream of less impactful positive actions of the owning family.

Through the interviews, I demonstrated a direct positive connection between positive anchoring events and manager intention to stay. Additionally, I showed a degree of ambiguity in manager perception of significant positive events that was not present for those informants who experienced negative anchoring events. Based on these findings, past literature pointing out the psychological strength of negative experiences, and the difficulties of maintaining positive effect, I can, in part, answer my first puzzle – why did the positive effect of positive anchoring events not show as being statistically significant in my survey analysis? My survey questions about anchoring events did not sufficiently deal with either the ambiguity of positive anchoring events explained by some of the informants or the difference in psychological effects between positive and negative events.

Unlike the survey, the interviews allowed me to access richer information not only about the informant, but also about the types of interactions they recalled when asked to think about anchoring events. I was also able to re-phrase and contextualize questions in ways I did not do with the survey. In my interviews, the informants could describe and give many more event details. As a result, in my qualitative analysis, I identified and sifted through the ambiguities in their positive event descriptions. Because of this, I isolated positive anchoring events from positive owning family actions more precisely. In the survey analysis, I had no mechanism to make the same distinction. It is possible that within the survey's data a portion of the 30 events, categorized as positive anchoring events, are in fact "not quite anchoring events." My survey questions and responses did not account for the ambiguities associated with describing positive anchoring events. If the survey analysis does include sufficient number of these affectively weaker "not quite anchoring events", that may account for the non-significant results shown in my positive anchor tests.

My conceptualizing of the survey's anchoring event questions and subsequent analysis did not adequately address the relatively greater psychological effect of negative versus positive events. In formulating my survey and its analysis, I did not account for negative stimuli having greater influence than positive stimuli (Ito, Larsen, Smith, & Cacioppo, 1998). I assumed that the same question set could be used for positive and negative anchoring events, without considering the seemingly natural bias we all have in our psychological response towards negative events. I would conclude that any future research on anchoring events use an expanded set of questions to better deal with the strength differences so that the researcher can deal more effectively with the ambiguity I found in people's thinking about positive anchoring events.

Puzzle two: What factors lie between managers experiencing a negative anchor event and not leaving the family business?

My quantitative analysis showed a highly significant ($p \leq 0.001$) inverse relationship between negative anchoring events and manager intention to stay. As described in Chapter 2, my original plan was to use the survey to investigate the expected link between intention to stay and leaving the family business. Unfortunately I gathered only 20 survey participants, who spoke to their previous position in a family business, a sample size far too small to conduct the investigation. The interviews were a second opportunity to investigate what factors might lie between a manager, whose intention to stay was lowered by a negative anchoring event, and his/her choice to stay or leave the family business.

Through my interviews, I identified eight negative anchoring events (described in Table 4.5). As inferred in the previous section, each of these fit well within Ballinger & Rockmann's (2010) description and definition of anchoring events. Managers recalled them vividly, as part of a recurring heuristic used when dealing with the owning family. They involved targets on whom the manager was reliant and in whom the manager perceived control and intent over the outcome. From the informant's description of the events and my analysis of their comments around them, I categorized the events into three categories – put in their place, thrown under the bus, and broken promises. Two events are categorized as *put in their place*. The managers described these events as a member of the owning family reminding them of their position as an outsider. In both cases, the manager assumed a certain degree of latitude in their behaviour only to have their assumption about their relationship with the owning family or the scope of their decision-making ability quickly adjusted by the family member.

Three managers experienced what NH referred to as being "*thrown under the bus*." These events share the experience of the owning family member not supporting the managers as they performed their duties. Three managers described events where the owning family unexpectedly did not support how the manager's was performing their duties. In NH's case, the family member sided with the customer, despite NH having followed all established protocol for dealing with the customer's complaint. In the event described by SR, the owning family decided to use past triple digit growth in the managers' departments to punish them for the current double-digit growth in their departments. RL described an event where the owning family decided overnight to replace a long-time employee without apparent cause.

The third category of negative anchoring events involved a member of the owning family *breaking a promise* to the manager. Two of the events involved the owning family unexpectedly changing the managers' expectations on their remuneration despite past promises to the contrary. The third event did not have monetary roots, but involved the owner not abiding by the agreed terms in their business relationship.

---Insert Table 4.5 about here---

Of the eight negative anchoring events, only two managers (KP& SR) linked the event with their ultimate decision to leave the family business. That a negative anchoring event would set in motion a manager leaving his/her employment is not necessarily surprising. Taken in isolation, it is, perhaps, the expected outcome from a negative and affectively intense incident like a negative anchoring event. Such an outcome fits with the unfolding model of voluntary turnover. The model predicts that shocks to the system can cause an employee to re-evaluate his or her basic attachment to their employer (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Although Mitchell & Lee (2001) do not mention negative anchoring events, it stands to reason that, given the nature and definition of anchoring events, a negative anchoring event would certainly shock an employee's system.

Despite the negative anchoring event and the likely re-evaluation of their attachment to the family business, six of the eight events were not directly linked to decisions to leave the family business^{vi}. In the following paragraphs, I present my analysis of what the informants said about the factors that lie between them experiencing a negative anchoring event and not leaving the family business.

The reasons, given by informants who chose to continue to work for the owning family with whom they had had the negative anchoring event, fit well with two common areas of the turnover literature – that of continuance commitment and job alternatives. Continuance commitment refers to “an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization,” where employees will remain with the company because “they need to do so” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). I found evidence of the strength of continuance commitment felt by the managers who stayed with their employers after a negative anchoring event. One manager, who described her response to the negative event of the dealership not honouring her hiring terms, expressed powerfully the strength of the continuance commitment. She described her situation as a single parent, solely responsible for the care of two young children. She told me “and I wasn’t in the position where I could go out and not have a job, I had to have a job, so I have to take what they gave me” (Interview MR).

As with affective and normative commitment, continuance commitment has been linked to lowering turnover intention and turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000) and likely positively related to intention to stay. However, unlike affective and normative commitment, high levels of continuance commitment do not always lead to organizationally positive outcomes. Whereas organizationally positive behaviours such as citizenship behaviour and job performance are positively associated with high levels of affective commitment, the relationship between these behaviours and continuance commitment is weak or even negative (Colquitt et al., 2010). The informants’ statements reflected the weak or negative pattern associated with continuance commitment. The managers changed their attitudes to their work and the performance of their jobs. One manager described her attitude change

after the event as “Why am I trying to make a profit for the dealership, when the dealership is so quick to throw me under the bus” (Interview transcript NH)? As a result of a negative anchoring event, this manager described herself as someone, who went from being motivated to contribute to organizational performance to putting in her time and collecting her needed pay cheque. SR also attributed this attitude towards work and behaviour change to the two managers who had their incentive program pulled from them.

Job alternatives or the perceived lack thereof, motivated managers to stay with their employer after a negative anchoring event. While the perceived availability of job alternatives can be argued to contribute to high levels of continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) it is also conceived to be a distinct contributing factor in turnover intentions and turnover (Batt & Colvin, 2011; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Swider, Boswell, & Zimmermen, 2011). For several informants, a perceived lack of available alternatives provided powerful chains tying them to employers with whom they experienced a negative anchoring event. Even in an industry where the required job skills and knowledge are easily transferable across dealerships and product brands, the perceived lack of alternatives clearly held a manager in place. One of the itinerant manager spoke of a manager who felt he was trapped where he was because of a lack of alternatives in the region. Unfortunately for the owning family, a manager who had driven growth and increased profits in his department is now “there but not there, working for his benefit and not for the dealership’s [benefit]” (Interview transcript SR).

In addition to continuance commitment and a perceived lack of alternatives, one other possible reason exists for managers choosing to leave the family business and others choosing to stay after a negative anchoring event. A review of negative anchoring

events descriptions suggests that some events might have had greater affective consequences than others, that some were 'worse' than others. From Table 4.5, compare SR's description of an owning family that, as a panel of three, lined up against the managers in the form of an "inquisition" with ChC's experience of being put in his place over something the manager had said. The former event seems emotionally more powerful than the other. However, there are also examples in the interviews of managers who appear to have had emotionally similar negative anchors and still had different staying outcomes. ChC and KP work at different dealerships, for unrelated owning families, and both had negative anchoring events where they were put in their place, reined in by a member of the owning family. KP's response was to begin to search for another job and, three weeks later, he left the family business where he experienced his negative anchoring event. ChC's response was to professionalize future interactions with the owning family and not search for another job. The negative anchoring event changed how he performed his duties with the family, but did not seem to negatively affect his intention to stay nor his job performance. When asked if they hoped to be with the dealership in three years, ChC was clear that he had no intention to leave and hoped to continue working for the owning family for a long time.

Both ChC and KP remembered negative anchoring events that, from the outside, appear to be similar in emotional strength. Both described an event with a member of the owning family, that had an unexpected outcome, changed their relationship with the owning family, and that should have a negative impact on their intention to stay. The two managers also have several similarities relevant to the choice to stay. Both have demonstrated ability and willingness to move between dealerships. Both can demonstrate

track records of success that would make them desirable managers. Neither is limited in their available alternatives. Despite these similarities, the impact of the negative anchoring events on their decision to stay or leave was very different.

Besides the obvious difference that one manager chose to stay and the other chose to leave there is another difference between their negative anchoring events. In ChC's negative anchoring event, the family member was cautioning him that he had crossed a line in his communications with the family member. In the event, the owning family member's comments were aimed at the fulfillment of ChC's need for relatedness. KP's negative anchoring event involved the owning family member questioning KP's plans for improving his department. Thus, KP's negative anchoring event involved the fulfillment of his need for competence. Looked at from this perspective the two negative anchoring events differed in the fulfillment of two different fundamental needs, competence, and relatedness. A possible conclusion is that negative anchoring events that involve different basic needs fulfillment may lead to different choices with regard to staying or leaving.

The data showed an unexpected and interesting twist on why managers chose to stay with an employer despite having experienced a negative anchoring event with a member of the owning family. The twist came up in my interview with MR. For much of her career; MR was a single mother solely responsible for rearing her two children. Through the course of the interview, MR eventually told me of two separate negative anchoring events with the same owning family. It was while describing the more recent event that she recalled the previous one, which she said she had "completely blocked it out" (Interview transcript MR). She went on to say "Not blocked it out like because I couldn't move on but I

just kind of – I was in no position to argue because there was the door if I didn't like it, it was pretty much what I was told.”

To be able to more fully consider the significance of MR blocking out the first negative anchoring event, additional details regarding MR's relationship with the owning family become relevant. MR had a long history with the family and dealership prior to the negative anchoring events. MR spent seven years in the sales department at the dealership, then left. She left for an opportunity in a different city. Three years later, MR returned to the dealership and the owning family. During her first stint with at the dealership, she developed a very close relationship with the family patriarch, such that she described her staying with the dealership seven years as “I stayed with them so long because I couldn't go to another dealership in this area and do the same job because I was loyal for them because of the things that they had done for me” (Interview transcript MR). Her first employment experience with the owning family seemed to have been marked by a series of “not quite anchoring events” that eventually lead to a non-reciprocal relationship, the manager feeling obligated to, gratitude to, and trust of the owning family and its patriarch (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The second point of interest is that both negative anchoring events occurred during her second employment experience and involved the dealership breaking a promise and the family patriarch not providing the same level of support MR became accustomed to during her first stint with them.

Evidence exists in the literature that some people do repress negative information “reflective of a tendency to want to shield the self from the negative impact” of that information (Baumeister, et al., 2001, p. 342). When the first negative anchoring event occurred, MR shielded herself from the negative impact of not only the broken promise, but also the perceived lack of support from someone who had previously shown her a great

deal of support. MR explained her mental blocking of the event as “so in order to cope, to use the word, is you try to block out the negative things so you can focus on my work” (Interview transcript MR). By blocking the memory of the event, the manager was able to continue to perform her job and not have the event tarnish the relationship she valued with the owning family. From her statements, blocking the negative anchoring event enabled MR’s second stint at the dealership to last five years, allowed her to provide for her family, and spared her the anxiety of seeking alternative employment. Blocking of the event also allowed MR to remain loyal to the owning family, a loyalty that was, in her words, “misplaced” (Interview transcript MR). However, MR seems to have paid a personal cost for repressing the negative anchoring event and remaining loyal to the owning family. In MR’s understanding, and by her words, the misplaced loyalty drove her work, “not wanting to be a disappointment,” until she “got to that point where I physically couldn’t do it anymore” and she had to go on long term disability due to stress (Interview transcript MR).

From my analysis of the effect of negative anchoring events on manager intention to stay, choosing to stay or leave, it is clear that, whichever choice we focus on, the behaviour is complex and multifaceted. The effect of negative anchors, intention to stay, staying, and leaving are each subject to many antecedents and outcomes. My interviews demonstrate examples of continuance commitment, available alternatives, and the emotional strength of the event influencing the managers’ behaviours. Consistent with past research, my sample contained managers, whose staying for reasons of continuance commitment was not organizationally beneficial. The negative anchor may not have affected their staying, but did hurt their job performance. I also linked the lack of available alternatives to managers staying after a negative anchoring event. For these managers, the negative anchoring event was, again, linked to decreased job performance by the

affected managers. The data provided examples of negative anchoring events that could be categorized as emotionally weak or emotionally strong. There are indications that emotional strength of the negative anchoring event impacts the staying outcome. There is also evidence that the effect of a negative anchoring event is not limited to the event's emotional strength, but may also include items such as self-determined motivation, basic needs fulfillment, and other more personal aspects of the managers.

Another interesting insight into negative anchoring events and managers staying was the "blocking out" of an event by a manager. Ballinger & Rockmann (2010) did not consider mental blocking in their paper introducing anchoring events and their consequences. My review of the turnover literature found that triggering events were discussed as events that may motivate a person's search for alternate employment, but the possibility of people mentally blocking the event was not considered. It was not until I searched the literature comparing psychological impacts of good and bad that blocking negative information to shield the person from its effect came up. Is blocking a common or rare negative anchoring event coping practice? Could blocking be more common in non-reciprocal relationships that develop over time or is the practice more common in the face of punctuated equilibrium events like anchoring events? Regardless, the possibility of managers blocking negative anchoring events raises questions for me about how negative anchoring events are related to intention to stay and the choice to stay or leave.

Puzzle Three: How do owning families foster relatedness in non-family managers?

This final question represents, from a family business research perspective, a fundamental question in that it looks directly at an impact of family ownership that is unique

to family businesses. An obvious effect of family ownership is the creation of two distinct social groups, family members, and non-family members. Past family business research recognized the importance of the family/non-family distinction in family businesses (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006; Chua, Chrisman, & Bergiel, 2009; Hall & Nordqvist, 2008; Mitchell et al., 2003; Vallejo, 2009). The importance of the distinction between who is and who is not a family member extends beyond family business research into research on family. The question of family membership is, perhaps, one of the oldest questions in family science research (Cigoli & Scabini, 2006). To study family, the scholars must first identify who the family members are. Only then can they answer their questions of family effects, roles, consequences, and etcetera.

As I stated in Chapter Two, I believe that family membership has strong and lasting effects on individual family members and that these influences impact the family business. Being part of a family, knowing who its members are, is one of the ways individuals define themselves. Regardless of the form or structure of our family, we know who family members are (Levin & Trost, 1992). It stands to reason that we also know who we are by who is not part of our family. It is because of this and other family related processes, mentioned in Chapter Two, that one of the most intriguing things in applying self-determination theory to a family business context arises – the fulfillment of a non-family manager's need for relatedness in a family business. I expected that owning families 'inviting in' non-member managers are not a simple or natural thing for owning families to do. I hoped that, by applying self-determination theory's understanding of motivation to the family business context, I might identify some things that some owning families might do better than others, thereby leading to positive organizational outcomes. My survey analysis

confirmed that fostering self-determined motivation has a significant and positive impact on manager intention to stay. However, the analysis did not breakdown the fostering of the respondents' self-determined motivation into the three constituent fundamental needs. The interviews provided me an opportunity to look at fostering individual needs, especially the need for relatedness, in greater depth and detail.

For an owning family, because of the inherent importance placed on who are and are not family members, fostering feelings of relatedness in non-family managers might be particularly challenging. In the language of self-determination theory, relatedness refers to people feeling attached or connected to others, and a sense of mutual respect (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Bowlby, 1958; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci, Ryan, Gagne, Leone, Usnov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Harlow, 1958; Ryan, 1993). In any business, managers have the need to feel connected to, attached to, and respected by the organization. In a family business, especially smaller ones where the influence of the owning family is strongest, the organization is a reflection of the owning family; therefore, managers will have the need to, in some way, feel connected to, attached to, and respected by the owning family. For non-family managers, standing between them and these needs are the barriers of the family processes that place such emphasis on membership. It is because of these barriers that I suspect fostering relatedness in non-family managers might be particularly challenging for owning families.

As a first step in the relatedness analysis of the interview data, I re-read the transcripts to identify sections where the informants spoke about their feelings of relatedness within the family business, but with a focus on how the managers felt the owning family fostered those feelings. I looked for managers, who expressed either high or

low feelings of relatedness, and sought to identify what the owning families were doing that might contribute to the managers' feelings of relatedness. From this process, I identified five concepts about their understanding of feeling related in a family business (see Table 4.6).

---Insert Table 4.6 about here---

Before discussing the five concepts and insights my informants might have on how owning families foster feelings of relatedness for non-family managers, it is useful to consider what the managers, as a group, said in general about intention to stay. Only one manager (NH) expressed their being indifferent about remaining with the family business for an extended period of time. NH is one of the itinerant managers who, coincidentally could not recall a time where an owning family did anything that made her feel a sense of relatedness at work. NH is also the manager who expressed strong opinions about family ownership as a negative for the dealerships she has worked in. The rest of the managers expressed strong desires and intentions to stay with family businesses where they were employed.

I should note that several of the managers, when asked to speak about their feelings of relatedness, made statements to the effect that they felt as if they are members of the family. Equally as important, each manager that expressed this sentiment quickly clarified that they recognized they were not part of the owning family. A clear example of this comes from one informant who told me "I feel like almost a part of the family. I'm not part of the family, but I feel like I'm part of the family" (Interview transcript BM). This is interesting, because the managers obviously felt strongly attached, connected, and mutual respect from the owning family. Despite this, they recognised the fundamental family

distinction of who are and are not members of the owning family. This observation in the data adds support to two of my assumptions – in a family business family membership status, regardless of how related the manager feels at work, remains a rigorous distinction for non-family managers and, despite the rigorousness of owning family membership status, non-family managers can feel high levels of relatedness. The question that remains is what the data had to say about how owning families foster feelings of relatedness in non-family managers in a family business.

Allowing familiarity is one way that owning families fostered feelings of relatedness in the informants. One manager described his/her relationship with the family business leader as “I think it’s just the relationship I have with them. I mean yes I’m fully aware that he is my boss and you know, is deserving of the respect as such, but I can also joke with him and have fun with him and where there’s also that little bit of a friend aspect as well. It’s not all heavy...”(Interview transcript JK). This statement, like those in Table 4.6, demonstrates two things; the managers are aware of an authority and power difference between themselves and their family “boss”; and that, despite this difference, some owning families, by allowing familiarity between the managers and the family “boss”, foster relatedness through a blurring of barriers of the legitimate authority due the “boss” from the non-family managers.

Legitimate authority has been thought of as having three types – rational grounds, traditional grounds, and charismatic grounds (Weber, 1947). Under this legitimate authority conceptualization, rational grounds bestows authority on a “boss” by virtue of the manager’s belief in the legality of the formal (hierarchical) authority of the boss’ position within the business. With traditional grounds, authority derives from the manager’s beliefs

about the “sanctity of immemorial traditions and legitimacy of those exercising authority” (p. 328) over them. Charismatic authority rests on devotion paid by virtue of some exceptional “sanctity, heroism, or exemplary character” (p. 328) believed to exist in the person exercising authority. Family and non-family businesses are, to varying degrees, formal organizations with some sort of legal structure in accordance to local laws. Consequently, the likelihood exists that, in family and non-family businesses, the leader will be afforded a degree of rational authority. However, in family businesses, especially small and medium sized ones, by virtue of the presence and influence of an owning family, the “boss”, who is a member of the owning family, will also be perceived as holding traditional authority. Additionally, authority is determined and moderated by associated prevailing institutional logics (Thornton & Ocasio, 1999). In a family business, one of the prevailing logics used by non-family member employees and managers in accessing the family member “boss” will be local logics regarding family. These logics can include notions of hereditary power relationships, gender roles, family unity, and other notions that would invest a degree of traditional authority on the “boss.” The result is an expected power and authority barrier between owning family members and non-family managers.

In the interviews, some managers’ experiences indicated the maintenance of the barrier between family and the non-family managers. As an example, GJ, despite long years of employment, continues to refer to the owner as Mr. and not by first name despite being instructed otherwise on many occasions. In other dealerships the owning family seems to purposely reduce the authority barrier. These are dealerships where the managers, like JK, feel they can, for example, joke with owning family members. Another manager said, “There is a comfort level there, too, that I don’t mind telling him [the owner] off” (Interview transcript TR). In another case, the manager (CC) commented that he and

the owner keeping each other's secrets. Informants regularly brought up the examples when speaking about how the owning family fostered feelings of relatedness, including how the owning family relaxed the power and authority barrier, allowing the managers to feel connected.

Chitchatting is a phase that came up *in vivo* from an informant's description of the owner's son's social interactions with his fellow managers. When asked about how the owning family makes them feel connected, attached, and respected, this manager spoke of the dealer principal and said:

One thing that, again it's different than I think in other stores, the dealer principal walks to the back and says "hi" to all the staff. They know a little bit about him, not just, at the dealership. He talks to some of the mechanics about four wheeling or something. More on a personal level where all the barriers kind of get broken down where there is chitchat and it's an open flow kind of thing. You have to have that. There's a time to work. There's a time to just have a good time with some of your staff (Interview transcript AM).

The chitchatting category was by far the most common activity used by owning family members to foster relatedness in the business. It involved various ways in which the owning family interacted with managers, including activities beyond simply speaking with them. The managers described various ways that the owning family members always welcomed the managers into their offices, the family members who "pop" (GJ) into the manager's office for a visit, and other casual conversations in and around the dealership. Although the informants gave a variety of examples of owning families chitchatting, there

seems to be a few key elements of owning families successfully fostering relatedness through chitchatting: it was informal, unscheduled, sincere, and the non-family manager/owning family member interaction included elements beyond business related topics.

Socializing refers to another social interaction between owning families and the non-family managers. These interactions take place beyond the confines of the dealership. Although the informants mentioned only five such interactions, they seemed to have fostered feelings of relatedness in the non-family managers. These social interactions included invitations to come to the family home for dinner, to family weddings, and going out for drinks together. It was not just the owning family inviting non-family managers, but the owning family's willingness to accept manager invitations to social events, such as their children's weddings. It might be expected that this owning family behaviour would be reserved for non-family managers with long tenure in the family business; this was not always the case. Two of the five interactions involved managers with less than one-year tenure in the family business socializing with members of the owning family.

Reinforcing their value is essentially the manager being told through various means that their work is valued by the owning family and or its members. SR, one of the itinerant managers, brought up reinforcing the managers' value to the family. Of the four itinerant managers, SR is the one whose career has most consistently reflected that of the 'fixer', content with short-term contracts and business only relationships with the families who hire him. He is the manager whose personal preference has always been not to allow personal relationships with the owning family to interfere with the job he was hired to do.

When I asked him about the effect on non-family managers of feelings of relatedness he said:

Now there's a very, very, very, very, very significant aspect of why non-family managers will stay in a family-owned business. So I am currently with a dealership that engages the managers on a belonging basis. It's not that you go enter a boss' house or anything like that, or that you participated in the owning family's personal aspects of their lives. But it is that the only family that constantly expressed their gratification (gratitude) to their managers for what they're doing for the family (Interview transcript SR).

This statement identified a very specific behaviour that this particular manager identified as positively influencing intention to stay, but also fosters feelings of relatedness in the non-family manager.

From my reading of the interviews, reinforcing the manager's value to the company and the owning family was accomplished in several ways. For some, it was through comments made directly to them by an owning family member. For others, the behaviour came less directly as second or third party feedback. Another method was public acknowledgements by the owning family done either collectively or individually with the managers.

These owning family behaviours might be easily associated with the fostering of competence. Competence involves such things as the managers feeling responsible for successfully fulfilling their duties and succeeding at challenging tasks (Deci & Ryan, 2000). When managers' value to the business is reinforced, their need to feel competent may be

fostered. Many businesses, not just family businesses, engage in such behaviour. What family businesses do differently is link the non-family manager's success not only to the businesses' success, but also to positive owning family outcomes. By doing so, owning families foster feelings of relatedness in their non-family managers.

Other owning family members participating speaks to the impact of multiple family members being involved in fostering relatedness. The data showed a few owning families where multiple family members actively fostered relatedness in non-family managers. In addition, I found examples of family members beyond the family leader engaging with the non-family manager in the four owning-family behaviours discussed above. As Table 4.6 demonstrates, involvement of other family members was not limited to members officially involved in the business, but included those who had retired and those with no connection to the business beyond being members of the owning family.

When I began investigating my third puzzle, I wondered how owning families might address the challenge of overcoming barriers between the two distinct social groups in a family business, thereby fostering relatedness in the non-family managers. From the interviews, I identified five behaviours owning families engage in that blur the barrier. Blurring the barrier involved owning families acting with sincerity and honesty towards the managers, thus creating, and reinforcing affective ties between the two groups. Although relatedness seemed to be fostered quite effectively in the managers, they remained aware that, no matter how connected they may feel, they were not members of the owning family. At best, they were "almost part of the family." Owning families can foster relatedness in their non-family managers, while benefiting from the manager's increased intention to stay with the business.

Summary of Findings

In this chapter I introduced the qualitative portion of my research, its goals, methods, and findings regarding three specific puzzles. I wanted to better understand anchoring events, fostering self-determined motivation, and their relationship with intention to stay. To that end, I presented the findings on positive anchoring events, negative anchoring events, and fostering feelings of relatedness by owning families. Through my analysis, I provided empirical examples of both positive and negative anchoring events. I found evidence that suggests there are differences in how positive and negative anchoring events are identified and understood by the focal individuals who experience them. Additionally, I gained some insights into factors that may influence the choice to stay or leave the family business after a negative anchoring event. Finally, I demonstrated five behaviours owning families use to blur the barrier between family and non-family to foster relatedness in the non-family managers.

In the next chapter, I will present my tests for the mediating effects of organizational commitment, basic needs fulfillment, and owning family identification.

Table 4.1: Description of Resident Manager Dealerships

Dealership	Domestic or Import Brand	Managers Interviewed	Owner/DP Interviewed	Province	Dealership History	Generation of Current Ownership	Number of Owning Families	Part of a Dealer Group?
Small Town 1	Domestic	GJ, BG	Owner	Ont	Bought	1	1	No
Large City 1	Domestic	KH, KM	DP	Ont	New	1	1	Yes
Small Town 2	Domestic	ChC, PL	DP	Ont	New	2	1	Yes
Small Town 3	Domestic	AM	DP	Ont	New	1	1	Yes
Small Town 4	Domestic	CC	DP	Ont	New	1	1	Yes
Large City 2	Domestic	AC, BM	DP	Ont	Bought	1	1	Yes
Small City 1	Import	PG, TR	Owner	PEI	Bought	1	1	No
Large City 3	Domestic	RO, LA	Owner	Alberta	Bought	2	2	No
Small City 2	Domestic	BB, JK	Owner	Alberta	Bought	2	1	No
Large City 4	Domestic	RG, RL	Owner	Alberta	Bought	2	1	No

Table 4.2: Descriptive Information about the Informants

Manager	Position	Dealership	Phone Interview	Tenure/Years as Itinerant	Education	Sex
Resident Group				Tenure in Dealership		
GJ	Sales	Small Town 1	N	4	?	M
BG	Sales	Small Town 1	N	35	?	M
KH	GM	Large City 1	N	7	BA	M
KM	Service	Large City 2	N	3	College	M
ChC	Sales	Small Town 2	N	5	?	M
PL	Parts	Small Town 2	N	16	?	F
AM	GM	Small Town 3	N	3	College	M
CC		Small Town 4	N	3	College	M
AC	Fixed Operations	Large City 2	N	1	?	M
BM	Sales	Large City 2	N	12	?	M
PG	Sales	Small City 1	Y	6	?	M
TR	Fixed Operations	Small City 1	Y	12	BA	F
RO	Parts	Small City 3	N	36	HS	M
LA	Service	Small City 3	N	6	HS	M
BB	Sales	Small City 2	N	6	HS	M
JK	Service	Small City 2	N	12	BA	F
RG	Parts	Small City 4	N	25	College	M
RL	Sales	Small City 4	N	9	?	M
Itinerant Group				Years as Itinerant		
SR	GM	10	Y	23	HS	M
KP	Fixed Operations	15	Y	25	College	M
NH	Fixed Operations	5	Y	6	College	F
MR	Sales/Service	5	Y	16	HS	F

Table 4.3: Positive Anchoring Events

Anchor Category	1 st or 2 nd Hand Event	Interaction with	Manager	The Event
Crisis	1 st hand	Owner	AC	"I had just moved into the province and started with the dealership and found out I might have cancer. I did not have a doctor. That same afternoon the owner hooked me up with his doctor. At 4PM I was at the doctor's office with the owner and that was the first time I really talked to the owner. He made sure that I had everything I would need. That five minute chat made me realize the way he is and I felt good."
Crisis	1 st hand	Son	JK	"I think probably the greatest thing with me is about 6 years I lost my dad. It was sudden and unexpected. That day I came to work and the owner saw me and the first thing he did was give me a big hug. You know there was nothing about "oh you need to get this work done." It was basically a big hug, a couple questions for me, and then out the door (to mourn)"
Crisis	1 st hand	Owner	KP	"In 2006 the entire local economy crashed and the dealership was really hurting. All the managers gave back their bonus money. So fast forward to November 2011 the owner says, "I'm going to pay the \$3600 I owe you because I appreciate, my family appreciates the fact that you guys came to the party." And he paid everybody their bonuses back."
Crisis	1 st hand	Owner	KP	The employees started to unionize but changed their mind. When the employees told the union the union said, "we're going to sue you guys personally." So this is Wednesday and the employees rush into the owner's office saying, "they're going to sue us." The owner gets his lawyer to file an injunction and two days later he drives the employees 250 km to the court to defend the employees."
Crisis	1 st hand	Owning family	MR	"I had just started at the dealership and I got married. The family paid for all the flowers and gave use a \$500 dollar gift card. All I had hoped for was the day off!"
Crisis	1 st hand	Owner	PL	"In different ways they will help you out like for example my nephew passed away a couple years ago. My family came for the funeral and needed a place to stay and the family lent us a RV, I mean nothing said, its like "here's your trailer."
Crisis	1 st hand	Owner	RO	"I really thought that when I was coming back to work because of what happened and what I had done I was probably going to be fired. And that didn't happen...it didn't happen and it changed my life, for the good."
Crisis	1 st hand	Owner	SR	"Out of the blue the owner is telling me all of the problems with his children, "what am I going to do with these boys."

Table 4.3: Positive Anchoring Events

Anchor Category	1 st or 2 nd Hand Event	Interaction with	Manager	The Event
Trust	1 st hand	Owner & son	BB	"I mean when they gave me a chance to be sales manager that key to me on what my future was going to be with them because I've never been sales manager before."
Trust	1 st hand	Owner	KM	"I left the dealership for a while. When I did come back, he invited me back with open arms. It wasn't that I was coming back and it was held over my head, ever... He just made the transition, back and forth, very easy on me"
Trust	1 st hand	Owner	PG	"He gave me a chance right off the bat."
Trust	1 st hand	Owner	RG	"The owner opened a new dealership in the west end and the parts manager that was here left and the owner gave me the manager position here right away. I was the only one he thought of."
Folklore	2 nd hand	Owner	GJ	"He's always been fair to me, treated me fairly and treated me with respect. I mean I've never call him by his first name. I always call him Mr. Bu...er and even though over the years he's said "call me Z" (owner's first name), don't call me Mr. Bu...er" but I never have so it's always Mr. B or Mr. Bu...er."
Folklore	2 nd hand	Son	JK	"We've had employees in the past run into really great financial difficulties and I've seen them offer advances in salaries and let them pay back a little bit at a time rather than all at once. So just really good hearted things like that that to me would be unexpected in other businesses."
Folklore	2 nd hand	Owner	PL	I mean they went out of their way and paid thousands of dollars for his funeral."
Folklore	1 st hand	Owner	SR	"The dealership was shopping for new health benefits. The dealership had an absolutely tremendous loss ratio. And it precluded this thing ever being a viable option for the employees. The loss ratio was based on one particular employee, whose wife is desperately ill and he has medical issues too. I suggested that the owner cut off this employee and re-establish the medical plan. The owner came back with, this absolutely blew me away, he came back with the fact that he would personally subsidize anybody in the dealership who wanted to be involved in the medical plan rather than jeopardize this one person's access to the medical pan."

Table 4.3: Positive Anchoring Events

Anchor Category	1 st or 2 nd Hand Event	Interaction with	Manager	The Event
Not quite an anchor	2 nd hand	Whole family	AM	"One thing they do, which kind of blows people away, is they give meat out. I know it sounds kind of something. To me, when you say meat, what's that? That's not a big deal but a lot of the staff in the back, a bag of meat, that goes a long way"
Not quite an anchor	1 st hand	Owner	AM	Another thing that they do which is a big deal I'm appreciative of and I think a lot of our staff is. We don't have a retirement plan in this business. I mean, once you're done in this business you are done. What the dealership does is for every dollar you put in our group savings plan; they'll match 50%."
Not quite an anchor	1 st hand	Owner	BG	"One from me when my son got married. I asked the owner if I could have a nice car for the wedding and here he gave me a nice big white Cadillac to have for the wedding. I mean you didn't have to do that. You could have just said, just take that old blue car over there" but he gave me a nice white Cadillac."
Not quite an anchor	1 st hand	Son	BM	"Yeah, so I had a similar incident that I just remembered. My mother died last March and I took 3 days off work and I came back Thursday. When I walked in the showroom the son said, "BM you need more time off. You shouldn't be back here. Come back Monday" Which made me feel pretty good."
Not quite an anchor	1 st hand	Owner	KH	"There was a time at which he was interested in purchasing a dealership in Moncton. It ended up not occurring, but I went down (with him) basically as someone who would be involved in the negotiation with the owners, <i>et cetera</i> ."
Not quite an anchor	1 st hand	Owner	LA	"I do remember dealing with something that I was absolutely dreading talking to him about it and then when we did it was a pretty cut and dry "that sounds right and that's what we need to do" and there you go!"

Table 4.4: Reported Positive Anchoring Event Outcomes

Manager	Event	Directly Attributed Outcome
AC	Found him a doctor	"You think about stuff like this and this is why I stay"
BB	Made him sales manager	Tied his future with the dealership
PG	Gave the manager a chance	Turned down other job offers
RO	Did not fire the manager	"I was really committed after that"

Table 4.5: Negative Anchoring Events

Anchor Category	1 st or 2 nd Hand Event	Interaction with	Manager	The Event	Post Event	Stayed or Left
Put in their place	1 st hand	Family member	ChC	"It was something she said to me one time and I was going "hmm, that's the way you feel about it well then fine!"	"You've got to be careful, you know, how you say. You have to be, I guess, wary of what you say to somebody ... I'm a lifer. I'll be here for twenty something years."	Stayed
Broken promise	1 st hand	Owner	MR	I was told, "we'll hire you and this will be your compensation package and this is how it will break down. After X amount of time this is what will happen". After the time had passed it was like "oh he miss-spoke, that was not the way it was supposed to happen, and this is the way it will be."	"I unfortunately had that previous experience where – I apologize for I've honestly have blocked out. Not blocked it out like because I couldn't move on but I just kind of – I was in no position to argue because there was the door if I didn't like it, it was pretty much what I was told. And I wasn't in the position where I could go out and not have a job, I had to have a job, so I have to take what they gave me."	Stayed
Thrown under the bus	1 st hand	Daughter	NH	"I had a customer complain about her vehicle and the length of time it was taking to repair. I was trying to help her and it became apparent that the sales manager and I could not help her. The customer wrote a letter about me specifically and hand delivered it to every member of the staff. The owner's daughter replied to the letter and basically threw me under the bus and told her I was having a bad day and stuff that was not true."	"I got no support, and from then on it wasn't. I had no desire to even do my job in a proper way, you know... Why am I trying to make a profit for the dealership, when the dealership is so quick to throw me under the bus?"	Stayed
Thrown under the bus	2 nd hand	Owner	RL	"There was a change in the business office this year. There was a lady that had been the manager. On Thursday they let her go and hired a girl and put her in place on the Monday unannounced	"So it created – I mean it created huge ripple through the whole store... it did show me is that changes can be made at any time without – probably not a lot of justification."	Stayed
Broken promise	1 st hand	Owner	SR	"The owner and I got embroiled in a legal battle. Based on him doing something that I warned him time and time again not to do. The owner turned around and came to me and said "I don't need you anymore." You know, he didn't turn around and justify it. He didn't turn around and tried to buy his way out of it or anything like that "I just don't need you anymore." "	"This is the only time in all about career that we've been talking about that I actually felt hard done by. This is the first time that I felt that this really was a stupid thing to be doing and that it wasn't being done properly and that the outcome was going to have a severe detriment to everybody that's involved in this thing and so I took my legal action and I won my legal action and I left for the first time having burned a bridge"	Stayed

Table 4.5: Negative Anchoring Events

Anchor Category	1 st or 2 nd Hand Event	Interaction with	Manager	The Event	Post Event	Stayed or Left
Broken promise	2 nd hand	Owner	SR	"The service manager and sales manager were put on performance incentives and the turn around was immediate until the owners took away the incentives because they thought the managers were making too much money."	"So both of those managers obviously felt hard done by it that you know... They were making their income based on income generation and the owners ripped it away. Both of those managers are gone. I mean they're still there, but they are not there. They're not doing anything to their (the dealership and the owning family) benefit. They're only doing it for their own benefit."	Stayed
Put in their place	1 st hand	Owner	KP	"I was going home one night and I was out at my car and one of the sons came up to me and said "blah, blah" and I said something in response "yes this is what I have planned etcetera". And the next morning I get a call to go to the owner's office. He starts to berate me about my suggestion and I kind of zipped my lip."	"I quit three weeks later."	Left
Thrown under the bus	1 st hand	Whole family	SR	"They did performance reviews at a hotel. They sat at the front of a meeting room, arranged five across the front, and sat you in a chair facing them. And then proceeded to do an employee review that wasn't a review at all but was actually an inquisition in which you had already been found guilty."	"That type of interview or that type of performance review is what actually got me to leave the dealership. They did it to everyone of them. Everybody came out of there cowed and I was probably one of the few that actually had the fortitude to say "Well, it's obvious you don't want me" and packed my bags and move on down the road."	Left

TABLE 4.6: Owning Families Fostering Relatedness with Non-family Managers

1st Order Concepts	# Of Passages in the interviews	Examples
Allowing familiarity	4	<p>"He trusts me with things. Let's keep it simple; we keep each other's secrets basically right. I mean I know things that other people don't know." (CC)</p> <p>The owner's "great ability is that he makes you feel like you have a personal relationship with him." (KH)</p> <p>Our cafeteria "is a bit of a social spot. Everybody eats together. We eat with them (the owners) everyday." (RL)</p>
"Chit chatting"	24	<p>I walk in the door in the morning and they see me or I see them it's Good Morning, how are you today? Did you sleep well last night? Go out on the town, do anything terrible? Just openness and fun." (RO)</p> <p>"You talk to them all day and not necessarily about work. Its about how the family is, what you did last night." (RL)</p> <p>"He (the owner) comes in and says "hi" to all the staff. More on a personal level where all the barriers kind of get broken down where there is chit-chat and it's open flow kind of thing." (AM)</p>
Socializing	5	<p>"I'd get invited over for supper, even my kids come over for supper." (MR)</p> <p>"Yeah [I have been to their house] just, you know, now and then, I mean, I've been there for different events, going out to supper with them tonight." (PG)</p> <p>Yeah, the rest of the family, I've known them over the years from going to weddings and things like that." (KM)</p>
Reinforcing their Value	10	<p>"The wife came up to me and said, "we really appreciate what you do for us." (SR)</p> <p>The owner "and I have had some very good conversations especially of late where he has come right out and told me that I'm a very valued employee and probably one of the most trusted employees here." (JK)</p> <p>"If it's a bad decision, I pay the price. If it's a good decision, I get a pat on the back. Quite literally, a literal pat on the back. Sometimes, with monetary behind it" (KM)</p>
Other owning family members participating	6	<p>The founder (retired) "called me up this morning to see how things are." (BB)</p> <p>"I've known them for 12 years. Like his (the owner's) mum comes in here and I'm like hugging her. I've spent the night at her house." (TR)</p> <p>"I've only been to his (the owner) house to pick him up for a meeting or something like that. I've never been in his house yet but yet his family came to my wedding this summer." (SR)</p>

CHAPTER :5

MEDIATION ANALYSIS

In the previous chapters I purposely confined the focus of my theorizing and analysis to a main-effects study of intention to stay employed in a family business. In this chapter, as part of my exploration, I move to a preliminary inquiry of the mediating variables hinted at in the development of my model of intention to stay. "Mediators explain how external physical events take on internal psychological significance... mediators speak to how or why effects occur" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176). For this investigation, three mediating variables interest me: organizational commitment, basic needs fulfillment, and identification with the owning family (Figure 5.1).

---Insert Figure 5.1 about here---

As mediating variables, the reasons for choosing organizational commitment and basic needs fulfillment are obvious. In developing my first two hypotheses, I framed my theorizing of the effects of family membership status, internal socialization, and professional training around the motivating construct of organizational commitment. It stands, then, that I presented organizational commitment as a mediator of a manager's intention to stay. As I developed my third and fourth hypotheses, I moved from organizational commitment to self-determination theory to speculate on how two specific owning family behaviours might affect manager intention to stay with the family firm. A managers' perception of basic needs fulfillment will mediate the relationship between the owning family's ongoing efforts to foster self-determined motivation and a manager's intention to stay. Essentially, I argued that the level of organizational commitment and

basic needs fulfillment will affect a family business manager's intention to stay employed in a family business. I use these two mediating variables to explain why my focal independent variables influence intention to stay. In short, I hypothesize that organizational commitment and basic needs fulfillment represent mediating variables in my model of family business manager intention to stay.

The managers' identification with the family that owns the business in which they are employed, *owning family identification*, is my third mediating variable. The impetus for including it arose from previous research conducted within the social identify framework – organizational identification. In this research, organizational identification has been linked empirically to various organizationally positive outcomes, such as task performance (van Kippenberg, 2000), organizationally beneficial decision making (Bartel, 2001), employee reports of working harder, and, especially pertinent to this study, lower intention to leave their current employer (Ashfort & Saks, 1996).

Organizational identification looks at a person's bonds, "defined by the merging of self with the target" (Klein, Molloy, & Brinsfield, 2012, p. 133), where the target to which the bond is formed is an organization. As a person identifies with the organization, they feel less uncertainty within the organization (Johnson, Morgeson, & Hekman, 2012). Through organizational identification, the person forms a bond with the organization and feels a sense of belonging in it (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Klein et al., 2012). In this way, the organizational identification and organizational commitment concepts involve individuals bonding with the organization. As a result, they are considered conceptually close (Gautam, Van Dick, & Wagner, 2004), while remaining "conceptually and empirically distinct" (Klein et al., 2012, p. 133). Organizational commitment and organizational

identification are binding forces between organizations and their members but organizational identification is a force that involves psychological, rather than physical, ownership with the identified group (Avey, Avolio, Crossley, & Luthans, 2009). For organizational identification researchers, three aspects of the concept are especially important – the sense of oneness a group may have, the degree to which members define themselves as a member of the group, and the value they place on that membership (Ashforth et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2012). Additionally, similar to other organizations, social groups, and businesses, organizational identification is likely to have a negative effect on intention to leave and, by extension, a positive influence on intention to stay. Yet, family businesses are a distinct business form, which arises from the influence and presence of owning families in the business. I suggest that, because of the owning family's influence, there can be two higher-level identities with which employees will seek to merge identities – the organization and the owning family – each separate from, but related to the other. In a family business, organizational identification should lead to organizationally positive outcomes, but so too should owning family identification.

Using the conceptual discussion as framework, I present owning family identification effects on family business manager intention to stay in my model in a specific way: By virtue of their family membership status, family managers should have relatively higher owning family identification and feel relatively greater psychological ownership than non-family managers in the same family business (mediation hypothesis 1).

Mediation hypothesis two, I investigate the interaction between the pull of internal socialization and the push of professional training. As managers internalize the business and owning-family goals and values, increased levels of internal socialization should

influence the managers' sense of oneness and degree to which they define themselves as a group member. This should, in turn, increase the managers' owning family identification, while greater levels of professional training should lower the manager's owning family identification.

My third mediation hypothesis proposes that higher levels of basic needs fulfillment will be associated with higher intention to stay. Using self-determination theory, I show how fostering the three basic psychological needs leads to more effective socialization of the family business manager, by creating self-determined motivation. Following on the discussion above then, improving the effectiveness of value and regulation internalization will increase a manager's owning family identification. Finally, anchoring events solidify relationships between the focal individual and the target. The direction of the anchoring event will create and define the nature of a stable and durable relationship between the manager, the owning family, and the organization, which impacts the manager's level of identification with the owning family.

Accordingly, I expect:

H5: Organizational commitment, basic needs fulfillment, and owning family identification act as mediators of the relationship between the two family business manager characteristics, the two owning family behaviours, and manager intention to stay.

Mediating Variables

Organizational Commitment. I conceptualized *organizational commitment* through the lens of Meyers & Allen's three-component model of organizational

commitment. In the survey, I used the shorter organizational commitment scale developed by Meyer et al, 1993 and subsequently used by scholars such as Luchak & Gellatly (2007). This scale reduces the number of questions from 24 to 18 on a five point Likert scale (Q114, 115, 116 in Appendix 1). In the shortened scale, there are six questions for each commitment type (affective, continuance, and normative). Following the coding used in both papers, I created scales for overall organizational commitment, affective, continuance, and normative commitments. The sample results for each commitment type are shown in Table 5.1.

---Insert Table 5.1 about here---

Basic Needs Fulfillment: The other original mediating variable was the manager's perception of the fulfilment of their three basic psychological needs. Originally, the plan was to utilize the Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale. This scale has been the most commonly used scale in self-determined motivation research (Basic psychological needs scale). However, a more recent paper reported on the validation of a work-related, basic need, satisfaction scale (Van den Broeck et al., 2010). The authors developed a scale that overcomes the "ad-hoc" (p 984) nature of previous basic needs at work scales. Moreover, the authors contend that the basic needs satisfaction at work scale was not formally validated and contains items that do not necessarily "tap into the satisfaction of the basic needs." (p 984). From the paper, I obtained a 14- item, five-point Likert scale, measure of basic needs satisfaction that is claimed to be better suited to measuring needs satisfaction at work than previous scales have been (Q79, 80, 81 in Appendix 1). The scale performed well with my sample, showing an internal consistency of 0.88 with a mean of 3.97, standard deviation 0.55, and skewness of -0.39.

Although the measure's alpha of 0.88 showed strong internal consistency, the newness of the measure warranted my confirming that the factors were discriminate. As with other measures used in the survey, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis with a Varimax rotation on the basic needs measurement, the results of which are presented in Table 5.2.

---Insert Table 5.2 about here---

From Table 5.2 some questions arise. Although past studies carefully verified the scale's construct validity across four samples, with a total sample size of 1185, and demonstrated a clean factor structure (Van den Broeck et al., 2010), the measure did not do that with my sample. There were differences in our approaches to the factor analyses. The previous authors did not use a Varimax rotation, rather a Promax rotation, in their initial factor analyses. Also, for the factor structure, the authors followed Joreskog & Sorbom (2004) and conducted the confirmatory factor analysis using maximum-likelihood estimation in Lisrel 8.54. Using Lisrel on my confirmatory factor analysis may have given my results a similar clean look to theirs. It is possible, however, that my unsatisfactory factor analysis results reflect the translation of a work-related scale that was tested on a Dutch sample now being used on a North American sample. Regardless of the reasons, my confirmatory factor analysis suggests that my basic needs scale may be a limitation in my study, despite its demonstrated high overall internal consistency.

In an effort to be thorough and support this conclusion, I used the basic needs fulfillment factor analysis and created an adjusted basic needs scale, by gathering the items based on the three individual needs, by factors, and factor scores. Through this

process, I created an eleven-item adjusted basic needs scale that included the following items (Table 5.3).

---Insert Table 5.3 about here---

In my mediation analysis, I tested both scales. My adjusted scale did not significantly change the results. Once I created the new scale, I re-ran the first two steps of Baron & Kenny's mediation procedure. Accordingly I re-ran the correlations between the focal independent variables and the adjusted basic needs scale. Following this, I re-ran the regression model, including my new mediating variable scale, against intention to stay. Unfortunately, the adjusted measure did not change the results significantly. The new measure remained significantly correlated to the focal variables, and statistically un-related to intention to stay. The results of both tests are presented in Table 5.4 and 5.5.

---Insert Table 5.4 & 5.5 about here---

Owning Family Identification. Throughout this dissertation, I have considered owning families to exert influences on the culture, norms, and practices within their businesses. The ever-present spectre of the owning family hovers over family businesses, especially in the smaller ones that constitute my sample. I wondered if, how closely a manager identified with the owning family would, in part, explain how a manager's intention to stay is influenced by internal socialization, the fostering of self-determined motivation, and anchoring events. Since measuring owning family identification is a new idea in family business research, I sought out a suitable organizational identification scale that I could adjust to fit my needs. The organizational identification scale I chose is a six-item, five-point Likert scale measure developed by Mael and used in Mael & Ashforth (1992). To adjust the scale to measure owning family identification, I removed references to the

organization in the questions and replaced them with references to the owning family. As with the other portions of the survey, the owning family identification questions were subject to pilot testing. Here the testers confirmed the face validity of the measure. Exploratory factor analysis offers strong support for the construct validity of the family identification measure, presented in Table 5.6.

---Insert Table 5.6 about here---

The scale was also shown to be reliable with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.92 (mean 5.01, standard deviation 1.35, and skewness -0.76).

Mediation Analysis and Results

My tests for mediation followed the procedures described in Baron & Kenny (1986). Although this paper is 26 years old, the procedure they laid out for testing mediation effects remains common practice in social research and is widely adopted in management research (Boyd, Haynes, Hitt, Bergh, & Ketchen, 2012). Recent examples of its continued use include DeStobbeleir, Ashford, & Buyens (2011), Ndofor, Sirmon, & He (2011) and Tang, Crossan, & Rowe (2011).

The Baron & Kenny procedure for establishing mediation requires that the focal independent variables affects the mediator variable, the focal independent variable has statistically significant effect on the dependent variable, and the mediator has a statistically significant effect on the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). From the overall correlation matrix (Table 3.11), we can determine if the first condition for the variables of interest is met. The correlation matrix, summarized in Table 5.7, demonstrates that, with a

cut-off p value of 0.05 or greater, condition one is met for each of the mediator variables, but not with all the focal independent variables.

The total lack of significant correlation between the combination variable and either organizational commitment and owning family clearly indicates a failure of the variables to meet condition one.

---Insert Table 5.7 about here---

According to Baron & Kenny (1986), the second condition necessary for establishing mediation between variables is to demonstrate that a change in the focal independent is significantly related to a change in the outcome variable. In chapter 3, I showed focal independent variable compliance to this condition. In that chapter, I demonstrated statistically significant effects on intention to stay ($p \leq 0.001$) for family membership status, internal socialization, ongoing fostering of self-determined motivation, and negative anchoring events. Unfortunately, the other focal variables (professional training, the socialization/training combination variable, and positive anchoring events) were shown not to influence family business manager intention to stay significantly.

The third condition, laid out by Baron & Kenny (1986), is that the mediator variable must have a statistically significant effect on the dependent variable. Although some of the predicted independent variables did not meet the first and/or second condition of mediation for all the focal independent variables, namely professional training and the socialization/training combination variable, I conducted this mediation test, for thoroughness reasons, with all the variables in the regression models. The results of the third regression tests are presented in Table 5.8.

---Insert Table 5.8 about here---

From the tests for Baron & Kenny's first condition, organizational commitment and basic needs fulfillment met the condition with all the independent variables with which they were predicted correlate. Owing family identification did not fare so well; it met condition one for internal socialization, ongoing fostering of self-determined motivation, and both positive and negative anchoring events, but not the other focal independent variables (professional training and the combination variable). My condition two test further eliminated professional training, the internal socialization and training combination variable, and positive anchoring events. The test for condition two confirmed family membership status, internal socialization, ongoing fostering of self-determined motivation, and negative anchoring events met those conditions. Organizational commitment, basic needs fulfillment, and owing family identification all meet condition three, with intention to stay as the dependent variable ($p \leq 0.05$). Based on my analysis of my predicted mediating relationships and the conditions set out by Baron & Kenny (1986), I achieved the following mediation relationships. The results of the Baron & Kenny mediation tests are represented in Figure 5.2.

---Insert Figure 5.2 about here---

According to Baron & Kenny (1986), meeting the three conditions establishes the presence of mediation between variables, but meeting the conditions does not clarify the type of mediation. To establish the mediation type, Baron & Kenny's solution is to include the focal independent variable and mediator variable in the model and regress it against the dependent variable. The regression results determine the mediation type. Key to this

determination is what, if any, change there is to the focal independent variable's effect on the dependent variable. If the effect becomes statistically less significant, partial mediation exists and if the effect becomes statistically insignificant, full mediation exists (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Full mediation occurs between family membership status and both predicted mediation variables – organizational commitment and owning family identification. Partial mediation occurs between internal socialization and organizational commitment, internal socialization and owning family identification, ongoing fostering of self-determined motivation and owning family identification, and negative anchoring events and owning family identification. Partial mediation is also shown to occur between basic needs fulfillment, fostering self-determined motivation and negative anchoring events. It is interesting that, although not conceived of, organizational commitment has additional mediating roles in the model. The analysis shows that organizational commitment partially mediates the positive relationship between ongoing fostering of self-determined motivation and intention to stay. The results also demonstrate a mediating effect for organizational commitment on the negative relationship between negative anchors and intention to stay. Although I did not posit the mediating relationships when developing my model, the findings are not altogether surprising for two reasons. First, partial mediation “indicates the operation of multiple mediating factors” (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176). Second, given organizational commitment's strong predictive power for turnover intention, it should not be surprising that organizational commitment is one of the multiple mediator factors of intention to stay. The results of the final test of mediation are presented in Table 5.9.

---Insert Table 5.9 about here---

Mediation Robustness Test. Although Baron and Kenny's method remains an oft-used method for identifying mediation, some question its completeness (DeVaro, 2011; MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Shaver, 2005). One identified shortfall is that the method does not test the statistical significance of the indirect effect in mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). In a bid to overcome this perceived shortcoming, Preacher and Hayes collectively and individually developed macros to simplify the process of testing the statistical significance of indirect effects from within SPSS. On his web site, Hayes offers several macros for researchers' use (<http://www.afhayes.com/spss-sas-and-mplus-macros-and-code.html>). I chose to use the PROCESS macro. The PROCESS macro combines the capabilities of other existing tools with an expended ability to handle increased number of variables and more complex models (Hayes, 2012).

PROCESS provides two options: using the macro and associated syntax files; or, installing the PROCESS custom dialogue box. To streamline the process, I chose to install the dialogue box directly into SPSS. For the sake of completeness, I included all my predicted variables, even those disqualified by the Baron & Kenny process. I chose 1000 samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals at a 95% level of confidence for the confidence intervals. To account for the presence of heteroscedasticity, I engaged the heteroscedasticity-consistent standard error estimator option in PROCESS. A summary of the PROCESS tests is presented in Table 5.10.

---Insert Table 5.10 about here---

The PROCESS results partially supported my mediation analysis from the Baron & Kenny process. PROCESS showed statistical significance of the indirect effect for some of the predicted mediator variables. Because the boot strap confidence interval did not include '0', a statistically significant indirect effect was verified between family membership status and organizational commitment, between internal socialization and organizational commitment, as well as between professional training and organizational commitment. However, the indirect effect was insignificant for all other predicted mediation relationships. There are some interesting findings from the PROCESS results that I did not predict. First is the statistically significant indirect effect between professional training and organizational commitment. The Baron & Kenny procedure eliminated this predicted relationship, because professional training was not related significantly to intention to stay. Yet, through PROCESS, the relationship is significant. PROCESS also found statistically significant, and unpredicted, indirect effects between internal socialization and basic needs fulfillment, fostering self-determined motivation and organizational commitment, and negative anchoring events and organizational commitment.

On reflection, the relationships involving organizational commitment seem to fit well with the strength of organizational commitment's relationship with turnover (as demonstrated in a meta analysis of turnover by Griffeth et al, 2000). Through fostering self-determined motivation, extrinsic regulation is internalized. Through internalizing extrinsic regulation, it is conceivable that, as the regulations become intrinsic, the manager's commitment to following them and the organization could increase; as the commitment increases, so should the intention to stay. In much the same way, a negative anchoring event should cause managers to negatively change their expectations regarding future

exchanges with the owning family and weaken their commitment to them, thereby negatively affecting their intention to stay. The newly identified indirect relationship between internal socialization and basic needs fulfillment is perhaps more surprising. As I highlighted in Chapter two, internal socialization is a process through which managers “develop new values, attitudes, and self-identity” (Hall D. , 1987, p. 302) that direct the them toward making decisions according to the values and needs of the owning family (Dyer, 1989; Mitchell et al 2003). What the findings suggest is that, at least when the outcome variable is intention to stay, the values, attitudes, and self-identity that develops in the manager affects their perceptions of basic needs fulfillment. Perhaps this explains, in part, why some managers do not find it an intrusion on their autonomy or a sign of the owner’s lack of trust in their ability when the owning family’s manner is to ‘micromanage’ their business.

In the next section I wrap-up my report on my research project. For the concluding chapter, I will present a review of my findings, pull the findings together to try and make sense of the findings with a discussion of my contributions to family business research and other broader organizational theories, discuss limitations within the project, implications from the project, and future directions

Figure 5.1: Basic Mediation Conceptual Model

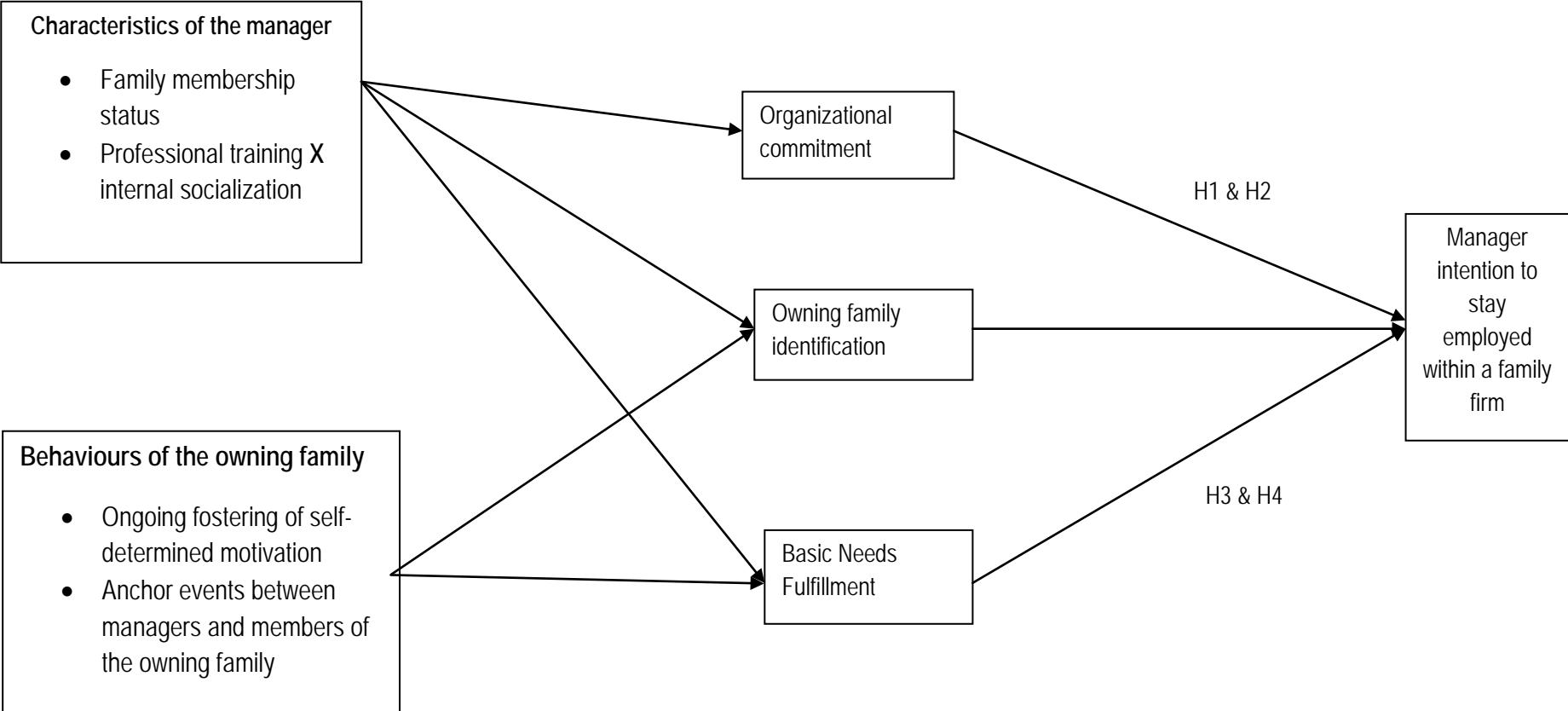


Figure 5.2: Mediating Relationships Meeting Baron & Kenny's (1986) Conditions

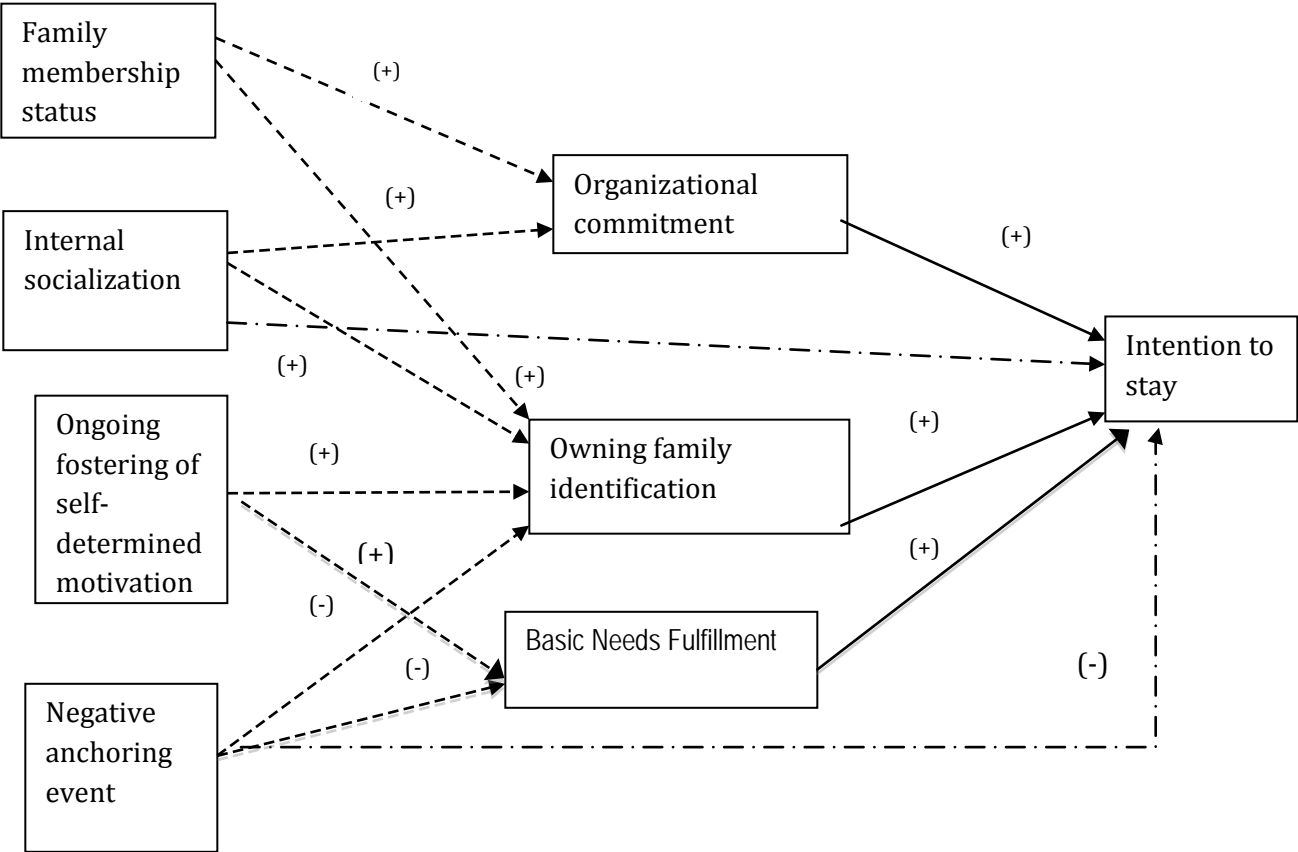


Table 5.1: Descriptives for Organizational Commitment's Three Components

Commitment Type	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Alpha
Organizational	4.87	0.96	0.85	0.87
Affective	5.05	1.30	0.73	0.85
Continuance	4.54	1.15	0.21	0.75
Normative	5.00	1.26		0.86

Table 5.2: Factor Analysis of Basic Needs Fulfillment at Work Scale

Items	Need	Component			
		1	2	3	4
The tasks I have to do at work are in line with what I really want to do.	Autonomy		.324	.323	.584
I feel free to do my job the way I think it could best be done.	Autonomy		.328		.722
The tasks I have to do at work are in line with what I really want to do	Autonomy				.676
In my job, I feel forced to do things I do not want to do. (R)	Autonomy	.775			
At work I often feel like I have to follow other people's commands.	Autonomy	.702			
If I could choose, I would do things at work differently. (R)	Autonomy	.689			
I am good at the things I do in my job.	Competence		.836		
I have the feeling that I can accomplish even the most difficult tasks at work.	Competence		.736		
I really master my tasks at my job.	Competence		.786		
I feel competent at my job	Competence		.783		
I often feel alone when I am with my colleagues (R)	Relatedness	.773			
At work, I feel part of a group.	Relatedness			.594	.461
At work I can talk with people about things that really matter to me.	Relatedness			.673	.404
I don't really feel connected with other people at my job. (R)	Relatedness	.758		-.427	
I don't really mix with other people at my job.	Relatedness	.677		-.524	
Some people I work with are close friends of mine.	Relatedness			.804	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 5.3: Adjusted Basic Needs Fulfillment at Work Scale Items

Item	Components		
	1	2	3
In my job, I feel forced to do things I do not want to do. (R)	0.775		
At work I often feel like I have to follow other people's commands. (R)	0.702		
If I could choose, I would do things at work differently. (R)	0.689		
I am good at the things I do in my job.		0.806	
I have the feeling that I can accomplish even the most difficult tasks at work.		0.736	
I really master my tasks at my job.		0.786	
I feel competent at my job.		0.783	
At work, I feel part of a group.			0.594
At work I can talk with people about things that really matter to me.			0.673
I don't really mix with other people at my job. (R)			-0.524
Some people I work with are close friends of mine.			0.804

Table 5.4: Adjusted Basic Needs Fulfillment Mediation Test, Step One

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Internal Socialization	1						
Professional Training	-0.172***	1					
Combination Variable	0.762***	0.356***	1				
Ongoing Needs Fulfillment	0.165**	0.001	0.169***	1			
Positive Anchoring Event	-0.116*	0.008	-0.087	0.015	1		
Negative Anchoring Event	-0.026	0.030	-0.013	-0.249***	-0.087†	1	
Adjusted Basic Needs Satisfaction at work	0.153**	-0.088†	0.138**	0.618***	-0.092†	-0.145**	1

Note: † p≤ 0.10, *p≤0.05, ** p≤ 0.01, ***p≤ .001 (one tailed test)

Table 5.5: Adjusted Basic Needs Fulfillment Mediation Test, Step Two

Control Variables	Standardized Beta
Family Commitment	-0.004
Company Generation	0.035
Founder Effect	0.017
Job Satisfaction	0.453***
Job Involvement	0.178***
Job Performance	-0.081*
Job Alternatives	-0.041
Pay Satisfaction	0.199***
Shares	0.020
Incentives	0.023
Manager Age	-0.044
Manager Sex	0.027
Company Age	0.035
Industry	0.033
Company Age	0.013
Relative Performance	0.030
Company Survival	0.206***
Mediation Variable	
Basic Needs Fulfillment (Adjusted)	-0.057
F Score	26.083***
R ²	0.572
Adjusted R ²	0.550
N	370

Note: † p≤ 0.10, *p≤0.05, ** p≤ 0.01, ***p≤ .001 (one tailed test for all independent variables)

Table 5.6: Factor Analysis of Owning Family Identification Scale

Item		Factor
1	The owning family's successes are my successes.	0.872
2	If a story in the media criticized the family I work for, I would feel embarrassed.	0.851
3	When someone praises the family I work for, it feels like a personal compliment.	0.836
4	When I talk about the owning family I say "we" rather than "I."	0.886
5	When someone criticizes owning family members I work for, it feels like a personal insult.	0.913
6	I am very interested in what others think of the family I work for.	0.631

Table 5.7: Pearson Correlations between Focal Independent Variables and Mediator Variables

Independent Variable	Mediating Variable		
	Organizational Commitment	Basic Needs Fulfillment	Owning Family Identification
Family membership status	0.276***		0.372***
Internal socialization	0.234***		0.117**
Professional training	-0.106*		-0.063
Internal soc x prof training	0.004		0.000
Fostering self-determined motivation		0.647***	
Positive anchoring events		-0.094*	
Negative anchoring events		-0.150**	

Note: † $p \leq 0.10$, * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq .001$ (1 tailed T test)

Table 5.8: Mediator Variable Effect on Intention to Stay

	Intent to stay		
Control Variables			
Owning family commitment	-0.047	0.018	0.007
Ownership generation	0.086*	0.064†	0.056
Founder effect	-0.058	-0.051	-0.044
Company size	0.006	-0.008	0.002
Company age	0.051	0.085*	0.064†
Industry	-0.001	-0.011	-0.012
Company's relative performance	0.062†	0.104*	0.078*
Company's perceived survivability	0.195***	0.232***	0.229***
Share program	-0.009	0.015	0.005
Incentive program	0.038	0.038	0.037
Manager age	-0.030	-0.037	-0.035
Manager sex	-0.004	0.012	0.015
Job alternatives	0.020	-0.041	-0.057†
Job performance	-0.036	0.058	-0.036
Satisfaction scale	0.092**	0.106**	0.109**
Independent variables			
Family membership status	0.021	0.118**	0.037
Internal socialization	0.101*	0.116**	0.119**
Professional training	0.042	0.005	0.019
Internal soc X prof training	-0.011	-0.025	-0.014
Fostering self-determined motivation	0.173***	0.253***	0.220***
Positive anchoring event	0.043	0.069*	0.052†
Negative anchoring event	-0.180***	-0.209***	-0.193***
Mediating variables			
Organizational commitment	0.402***		
Basic needs fulfillment		0.110*	
Owning family identification			0.223***
F score	19.503***	14.418***	15.677***
R ²	0.565	0.490	0.511
Adjusted R ²	0.536	0.456	0.478
n	369	369	369

Note: † p ≤ 0.10, * p ≤ 0.05, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ .001 (one tailed test for all independent variables)

Table 5.9: Mediation Summary

Focal Independent Variable	Regression result <u>WITHOUT</u> mediator variable		Regression result <u>WITH</u> mediator variable		Mediator Variable
	Standardized coefficients: Beta	Significance (2 tailed T test)	Standardized coefficients: Beta	Significance (2 tailed T test)	
Family Membership Status	0.155	0.001	0.026	0.554	Organizational Commitment
Family Membership Status	0.155	0.001	0.027	0.583	Owning Family Identification
Internal Socialization	0.188	0.001	0.112	0.010	Organizational Commitment
Internal Socialization	0.188	0.001	0.140	0.003	Owning Family Identification
Fostering SDM	0.393	0.000	0.343	0.000	Basic Needs Fulfillment
Fostering SDM	0.393	0.000	0.267	0.000	Owning Family Identification
Negative Anchoring Event	-0.261	0.000	-0.243	0.000	Basic Needs Fulfillment
Negative Anchoring Event	-0.261	0.000	-0.215	0.000	Owning Family Identification

Note: † p≤ 0.10, *p≤0.05, ** p≤ 0.01, ***p≤ .001 (one tailed test for all independent variables)

Table 5.10: PROCESS testing of the Mediating Variable's Indirect Effect.

Independent Variable	Mediating Variable	Indirect effect of X on Y bootstrapping confidence interval (lower limit to upper limit)
Family membership status	Organizational commitment	0.177 to 0.465*
	Basic needs fulfillment	-0.052 to 0.028
	Owning family identification	-0.033 to 0.194
Internal socialization	Organizational commitment	0.004 to 0.016*
	Basic needs fulfillment	0.0002 to 0.005*
	Owning family identification	-0.001 to 0.006
Professional training	Organizational commitment	-0.094 to -0.018*
	Basic needs fulfillment	-0.029 to 0.004
	Owning family identification	-0.033 to 0.001
Internal soc X prof training	Organizational commitment	-0.007 to 0.002
	Basic needs fulfillment	-0.002 to 0.002
	Owning family identification	-0.003 to 0.0002
Fostering self-determined motivation	Organizational commitment	0.142 to 0.349*
	Basic needs fulfillment	-0.006 to 0.141
	Owning family identification	-0.038 to 0.142
Positive anchoring events	Organizational commitment	-0.79 to 0.249
	Basic needs fulfillment	-0.119 to 0.020
	Owning family identification	-0.011 to 0.094
Negative anchoring events	Organizational commitment	-0.447 to -0.019*
	Basic needs fulfillment	-0.142 to 0.008
	Owning family identification	-0.183 to 0.022

(1000 bootstrap sample confidence intervals. 95% level of confidence for all confidence intervals.)

SECTION IV: WRAP-UP

CHAPTER 6:

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I review my project and its findings, explain some of the findings in more detail, address some limitations and implications, and address possible future directions.

Review of Findings

The purpose of this research project was two fold. One goal was to begin to address a recognized gap in family business research – that of the non-family manager (Chua et al., 1999; Sharma, 2004). The other was to investigate an apparent contradiction in the family business literature – why do non-family managers choose to stay employed in family businesses if, as our literature often portrays, family businesses are not the best places for non-family managers (Beehr et al., 1997)? I began this project under the assumption that many non-family managers not only choose to remain employed in family businesses, but that they are skilled, capable, and important contributors to the family business' success. Additionally, I agreed with many family business scholars, that family businesses contain a great deal of heterogeneity (Sharma, 2011), affirming that we should not think of family businesses as being cut from the same cloth. Following this, my next underlying assumption was that part of the reason these contributing non-family managers chose to stay in the family business results from the heterogeneity that exists in how owning families behave towards their non-family managers.

Using self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and the concept of anchoring events (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010), I looked at how owning families can affect a family business manager's intention to stay employed in the family business. Self-determination theory identifies three basic fundamental psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) that nourish the internalization of extrinsic controls and leads to self-determined motivation. I theorized and hypothesized that non-family managers, who are employed by owning families that foster self-determined motivation, will have higher intentions to stay employed in the family business. Based on the conceptualization of anchoring events, which are affectively intense or a short sequence of events that dramatically and memorably change reciprocal social exchange relationships to durable non-reciprocal relationships (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010), I suggested that such events could happen between family business managers and owning families. In my hypothesis, I proposed that positive anchoring events would be associated with family business managers' higher intention to stay, while negative anchoring events would result in lower intentions to stay.

In developing my family business manager intention to stay model, I included two manager characteristics previously identified as important distinctions in family businesses (Dyer, 1989; Hall & Nordqvist, 2008) and their relationship with the manager's intention to stay. I hypothesized about the family membership of the manager and the effects of the interaction between the centripetal influence of internal socialization and the centrifugal influence of professional training on managers' intention to stay (Khanin, 2011). Through this, I hypothesized that family managers would have relatively higher intention to stay and

I demonstrated how different relative levels of professional training and internal socialization interact and affect family business manager intention to stay.

To test my model and better understand why non-family managers choose to stay employed in family businesses, I used a two-stage mixed methods design. Stage one involved the administration and analysis of an online survey from which grew the second stage of semi-structured interviews with family business managers. In stage one, I developed a survey tool that I used to test my four hypotheses. In the survey, I created or used existing measures for my focal variables and a set of control variables representing the owning family, the family business, and the manager. With the assistance of a contracted survey panel company, I compiled a final sample of 399 surveys from participants located in the United States to analyse.

From this data, I created variable scales, developed regression models, and tested my four hypotheses using ordinary least square regressions. The data analysis results supported H1 and H3. It showed that family managers have higher intention to stay and that fostering self-determined motivation by the owning family has a significantly positive relationship to the managers' intention to stay. The analysis partially supported H2 in that only internal socialization showed a statistically significant relationship with intention to stay. H4 also received partial support. Positive anchoring events were not linked statistically to *higher* intention to stay, but negative anchoring events were significantly linked to *lower* intention to stay.

With these results in hand I also conducted mediation tests. My mediation check involved three variables – organizational commitment, basic needs fulfillment, and owning

family identification – as possible mediating variables. To test for mediation, I applied the process developed in Baron & Kenny's (1986) to each mediating variable and then tested the statistical significance of the mediating variables' indirect effect on intention to stay. From my analysis, organizational commitment and owning family identification seemed to have stronger mediating roles than basic needs fulfillment. My tests for statistical significance of mediating variable's indirect effects on intention to stay further confirmed the strength of organizational commitment as a mediating variable.

My project then moved to an exploration phase wherein I sought to better understand the effects of anchoring events, self-determined motivation, and the role of three mediating variables in manager intention to stay. Utilizing the follow up interviews, I extended some of the findings from my survey on anchoring events and self-determined motivation, selecting three puzzles to investigate further. Two puzzles involved anchoring events and one involved fostering the need for relatedness. From a sample of 22 non-family managers in automotive dealerships, I attempted to explain why, in my survey analysis, positive anchoring events did not have a significant relationship with intention to stay. I found that some managers (12) experienced positive anchoring events and that some of them (4) associated that experience with higher intention to stay. I also found hints of ambiguity in the perception of positive anchoring events, due to the inherent psychological differences in the emotional strength of positive and negative events and in how good (positive) social environments develop and are maintained.

In addressing the second puzzle – why managers may choose to stay with the family business after experiencing a negative anchoring event – I found eight negative anchoring events and evidence confirming the binding power of organizational commitment

and the lack of suitable alternatives. Within the group of managers, who chose to stay after a negative anchoring event, there was evidence that some stayed because of a lack of suitable alternatives to working in the family business. For others that stayed, evidence indicates continuance commitment's negative effect on organizational outcomes in the form of poor job performance. Past theory and research (for example Griffeth et al., 2000) might have predicted the preceding reasons for managers choosing to stay after a negative anchoring event, but my research shows two unexpected reasons for choosing to stay. One reason was that, depending on what basic need is affected by a negative anchoring event, lower intention to stay can lead to one of two outcomes – choosing to stay or to leave after a negative anchoring event. The other unexpected reason was a manager blocking memories of the negative anchoring event, because of circumstances necessitating s/he stay employed in the family business.

To understand how owning families foster relatedness for the non-family managers, I looked at the fostering of the one need I expected to be most challenging for owning families – that of helping non-family members feel related to an organization where the dominant group is an owning family. In the interviews, I found that all but one of the managers seemed to have high levels of relatedness fulfillment. More importantly, I identified four distinct activities owning families engaged in to foster relatedness. The activities were to allow familiarity with the non-family manager; engaging in informal, unscheduled, and sincere chitchat with the non-family manager; to socialize with the manager outside of work; to openly reinforce the manager's value to the business and family; and the involving of extended members of the owning family in the first three behaviours.

My moderation check involved checking to see if the effects of fostering self-determined motivation and anchoring events on manager intention to stay were stronger for non-family managers. In direct subsample comparison between family and non-family managers, the statistical effect of internal socialization, fostering self-determined motivation, and negative anchoring events were stronger in the non-family manager sample. However, when I introduced the interaction between family member status and the focal independent variables to the combined sample, the results were weaker. This round of tests revealed that the positive effect of internal socialization and fostering self-determined motivation on intention to stay were stronger if the manager was a member of the owning family, but the negative relationship between negative anchoring events and intention to stay was stronger for non-family managers. This final result partially supported my moderation hypothesis.

Implications

In this section, I pull together the findings from both stages of my research to discuss my results pertaining to why non-family managers choose to stay employed in family businesses. The overarching finding it is that owning families, through their behaviour towards the non-family manager, can have an effect on his/her intention to stay. Of the many behaviours owning families might engage in, I identified two through which owning families influence manager intention to stay – fostering self-determined motivation and providing anchoring events. In the remainder of this sub-section I propose implications to these findings to family business research and to broader organizational theories.

Implications to Family Business Research. Family business research does not have a long history in organizational research. The flagship scholarly journal, *Family Business Review*, is just celebrating its 25th anniversary. Business scholars increasingly dominate family business research (James et al., 2012), but fields develop according to the “shared system of meanings held by members of the field” (Greenwood, Suddaby, & Hinings, 2002, p. 59). As such, the family business research field has developed according to the shared systems of meanings of business scholars and business schools.

Accordingly, family business research began with a need to gain legitimacy within the wider field of business research, a field in which family businesses were viewed as irrelevant and inefficient and had long been supplanted by more desirable widely owned corporations with professionalized management (Church, 1993). The need to gain legitimacy might explain why much of the early family business research focused on identifying the continued presence and significant contributions of family business. Given this starting point, a majority of research involved implicit or explicit comparison between family and non-family businesses. Much has been written about differences, be it in economic performance, levels of entrepreneurship, strategic focus, and explanations of the differences between these business types (Sharma, 2004). By focusing on this, researchers have published considerably fewer papers looking inside family business or on differences between family businesses. My project adds to this growing body of work by looking at the day-to-day interactions between the two key family business groups and connecting those interactions with an identifiable organizational outcome. Thus, I add to the movement in the literature from general comparisons to specific discussions, both theoretical and empirical, about differences between family businesses. It is only through specific discussions of differences between family businesses that we can begin to

understand why some family businesses survive into longevity, successfully navigate succession, or perhaps achieve greater financial performance.

My work shows how, as a field, we can explore differences between family businesses by addressing questions regarding the microenvironment of family businesses. It also demonstrates that conducting such work will add to our understanding of family businesses and the effect of family ownership on their businesses. My project does this by revealing insights into why some family businesses are more successful than others in influencing valuable non-family managers to remain employed by the family business.

As demonstrated in Table 1.1, Areas of Past Research Focused on Non-Family Managers, another obvious implication to family business research arising from my project is to the understudied and little understood contributions and motivations of non-family members of family businesses. Not only does my project identify influential owning family behaviours it also illuminates how the behaviours affect the non-family managers' commitment and motivation while also providing insights into how non-family managers perceive and understand the owning family behaviours. Through this I have begun to fill the gap in our knowledge about the second most significant group inside a family business, the non-family member. Without knowledge about both family and non-family groups in family businesses we will not fully understand family businesses.

There is an additional implication to family business research that I would like to highlight, that of agency theory concepts in family business. Agency theory is a dominant theory in family business research and in organizational theory in general (Chrisman, Kellermans, Chan, & Liano, 2010) and one where its implications for family businesses

are debated, for example the work on stewardship theory (Schulze et al. 2001). In its most rudimentary form agency theory is interested in aligning agent interests with the principal interests. My project contained two control variables (share programs and incentive based remuneration) related to aligning interests, specifically the profit motives of principals. I included these variables to see if the interest aligning strategies would increase a manager's intention to stay. The results show that incentivised remuneration did not have a statistically significant impact on intention to stay. In addition, share programs had a marginally positive impact on intention to stay only in certain cases. From the outset, I assumed that aligning interests between agents and principals would lead to aligning the agent to the principal's business. I expected this, because family managers, as emergent principals, should have higher affective and continuance commitment and, for similar reasons, non-family managers, who are part of a share ownership program, should at least have higher continuance commitment. Despite these reasonable expectations, neither alignment strategies demonstrated any effect on intention to stay in either the family or non-family samples.

That the expected relationship between interest aligning strategies had little or no affect the managers' intention to stay calls into question my assumptions about agency theory and the extent to which the theory should be applied to organizational behaviours and outcomes. Agency theory focuses on individual self-interest, the expectation of interests diverging, and controlling the divergence of interests (Fama & Jensen, 1983; Jensen & Meckling, 1976). In my qualitative study and from the collective comments of the itinerant managers, I found consistent support between the use of agents aligning strategies, incentive programs in particular, and organizational growth and profit. However,

my quantitative analysis could not show as clear a connection between interest aligning strategies and intention to stay. This calls into question how useful an agency theory perspective is in looking beyond organizational performance and into behavioural outcomes of organizational members in a family business context. The implication to family business research is that agency theory may have additional differences beyond altruism costs when applied in a family business context.

Implications To Broader Organizational Theories. The broader organization domain I refer to in this section is the research generally associated with organizational behaviour. Although setting for this project and its findings is unabashedly family business its findings have implications for theories and concepts of organizational behaviour research in general. Throughout this project I have asked why non-family managers choose to stay employed in family businesses and what challenges family ownership brings to the question. In this line of questioning, I assume that the non-family manager is a useful and productive employee that the owning family would like to keep in their employ. This desire is, hopefully, not limited to family businesses, but extends to owners/operators of any business or organization. My project is, in large part, about improving the quality of the internal socialization process for managers, a benefit to companies whether family-owned or not.

To understand why managers, family member or non-family, choose to stay employed in a family business, my hypotheses remained rooted in the theories and literature beyond that of family business research and drew from the wider body of organizational research. The understanding of socialization I used to theorize about internal socialization did not come from family science's understanding of family member

socialization, but from management and organization literature. I did not use a family understanding of motivation or commitment in my project. Instead I drew from Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment and the work done with self-determination theory to understand motivation in organizations. By extension it is to the theories of self-determination and organizational commitment that my project has broader implications.

There are several implications from my findings to **self-determination theory**. One implication lies in our understanding of the three basic psychological needs. In their paper, Van den Broeck et al. (2010) point out that future work should "explore whether needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness yield different relationships with particular outcomes such that each of the needs relate to different aspects of worker's optimal functioning" (p. 997). My findings, as demonstrated by the difference in outcomes from a negative anchoring event experienced by two managers whom I interviewed, suggest that the fulfillment of each need relates to unique aspects of optimal functioning. In the referred comparison, the managers experienced similar anchoring events that affected the fulfillment of different basic psychological needs, yet one manager chose to stay and the other to leave the business. The theoretical implication is that my findings provide support to the notion that, individually, the needs have different relationships to outcomes and optimal functioning.

My findings provide another implication to self-determination theory related to scholars' research approaches using self-determination theory. A description of the existing research applying self-determination theory states that the literature

“has looked at how controlling versus autonomy-supportive environments impact functioning and wellness, as well as performance and persistence. In addition, supports for relatedness and competence are seen as interactive with volitional supports in fostering engagement and value within specific settings, and within domains of activity. This body of applied research has led to considerable specification of techniques, including goal structures and ways of communicating that have proven effective at promoting maintained, volitional motivation” (About the theory).

This statement describes work where participant levels of need fulfillment have been measured and compared to various dependent variables, for example job satisfaction (Ilardi, Leone, Kasse, & Ryan, 1993), job flexibility (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & DeWitte, 2010), job performance (Ferris, Liam, Brown, Pang, & Keeping, 2010) and organizational commitment (Gagne, Chemolli, Forest, & Koestner, 2008). Additionally, in specifying techniques of promoting volitional motivation, work has measured levels of basic needs fulfillment and compared those levels with theoretically developed independent variables, such as goal achievement, internalization, leadership, and job satisfaction (Ciani, Sheldon, Hilpert, & Easter, 2011; Deci et al., 1994; Hetland, Hetland, Andreassen, Pallensen, & Notelaers, 2011; Lam & Gurland, 2008).

Thus, the literature seems to have two foci, one that seeks to identify outcomes associated with basic need fulfillment and a smaller body of work that seeks to relate various supports with changes in basic needs fulfillment. Both areas are etic approaches, based on the researcher(s)' theoretically derived concepts (Silverman, 2006). As a result, the body of literature is one where meanings are externally imposed on participants, thus

lacking an emic approach to the work, one that derives its understanding from the “conceptual framework of those being studied” (Silverman, 2006, p. 284). My project represents a step in the emic direction, building a body of knowledge about the internalization of extrinsic regulation, based on the understandings of those experiencing the process. By integrating the internally defined understandings, a more complete understanding of self-determination theory, how it works and its related outcomes, can be achieved. For example, although I demonstrated fostering self-determined motivation’s relationship with a dependent variable, intention to stay, and basic need fulfillment as a mediator variable, I also incorporated the informants’ understanding of how basic needs are fulfilled to the overall understanding of self-determination theory concepts.

Another theoretical implication to self-determination theory arising from my project is the link between anchoring events (negative in particular) and basic needs fulfillment. Anchoring events are described by Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) as creating durable, stable, long lasting relationships between focal individuals and targets. The connection I found hints at the possibility of establishing durable, stable, and long lasting perceptions of basic needs fulfillment in certain organizational settings. Another demonstrated, and pertinent to self-determination theory, anchoring event relationship is the one shown in my mediation tests between anchoring events and organizational commitment. That anchoring events are in the same study shown to have relationships with both motivation and commitment serves to strengthen an already theorized integrative model of motivation and commitment (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004).

In addition to theoretical contributions, this project makes empirical contributions to self-determination theory. My survey required the measurement of two different concepts

from self-determination theory: fostering self-determined motivation and basic needs fulfillment. To measure the fostering of self-determined motivation, I had to create my own measurement. As a result, I produced a six-item scale with a high level internal construct consistency (factor loading scores of no less than 0.83) that demonstrated a high degree of reliability ($\alpha = 0.93$).

To measure basic need fulfillment, I chose a recently developed scale. When I began my project, published use of the basic needs fulfillment at work scale was limited to the studies included in Van den Broeck et al. (2010) and an additional study published in 2012 (Vander Elst, Van den Broeck, DeWitte, & DeCuyper, 2012). Although the studies were published in English language journals the measure was conducted in Dutch and Flemish. I was unable to find a study where the English version of the scale was used in an empirical study, making mine the first of its kind. Unlike the previous studies, however, my factor analysis did not demonstrate a clean factor structure from the measure. I suggest, in Chapter 5, that my use of Varimax rotation not Lisrel in the factor analysis might account for the difference in results. Whether this is the case or not the suggestion is that, for English, North American research, there is work that remains to be done in improving the basic needs fulfillment at work scale. The factor structure needs to be confirmed or corrected to further ensure that the basic needs satisfaction measure is not ad-hoc, that it measures each need not its antecedents, and is fully validated (Van den Broeck et al., 2010).

In Chapter two, I built my manager intention to stay model around **organizational commitment's** role as a force binding a manager to a course of action (Meyer & Herscovich, 2001). In the same chapter, I argued that, through its positive effect on

organizational commitment, internal socialization acts as a centripetal force drawing the managers into the family business. Correspondingly, I conceptualized fostering self-determined motivation and anchoring events as owning-family behaviours that influence the quality of internal socialization a manager experiences, thereby also impacting their organizational commitment.

As much as organizational commitment was a consistent element in the theoretical development of my model, it also had a consistent presence in the findings from both stages of the empirical project. In the mediation tests of the manager intention to stay model, organizational commitment either fully or partially mediated the relationships between all of the significant focal independent variables and intention to stay. Through these demonstrated relationships we know that organizational commitment is a mechanism through which internal socialization and fostering self-determined motivation positively affects manager intention to stay and that negative anchoring events decrease manager intention to stay. Beyond demonstrating the relationships between the theoretical concepts and intention to stay, this empirical work provides a concrete and detailed understanding of the specific owning family behaviours that, through organizational commitment, influence manager intention to stay.

There is an additional broader theory that my project has implications for, that of **social exchange theory**. As described in Chapter 2, Ballinger & Rockmann used social exchange theory, more particularly the development of non-reciprocal relationships that remain durable over long periods of exchange as the starting framework for conceptualizing anchoring events. The implication from my project, the demonstration of anchoring events and their relationship with intention to stay, is that social exchange

relationships do not have to form slowly over time or only after a series of reciprocity-based interactions deemed successfully fulfilled by the participants (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Molm, 2003; Molm, Takahashi, & Peterson, 2000). This opens the door not only to extending social exchange theory through the idea of punctuated equilibrium based non-reciprocal exchange relationships, but on anchoring events in particular. My project is, after all, only a first step in understanding anchoring events and the resultant changes in exchange relationships that begin to illuminate a complete picture of the changes.

To the best of my knowledge, mine is the first empirical work that employed the concept of anchoring events. As a result, I have established that events that fit within Ballinger and Rockmann's (2010) definition and conceptualization of anchoring events do occur between focal individuals and targets. In so doing, I helped to create a far more detailed understanding of how anchoring events are experienced and understood by those who undergo both positive and negative anchoring events. Also, by empirically demonstrating that anchoring events do significantly affect organizational outcomes, namely intention to stay and organizational commitment, I offer support for the notion of punctuated equilibrium changes in exchange relationships and have established their potential in organizational research.

My extension of Ballinger & Rockmann's (2010) work on anchoring events offers an additional empirical implication. Early in my exchanges with Dr. Ballinger, he indicated that he felt anchoring event research might require a qualitative approach, but he also encouraged and assisted with my survey question development (Ballinger, 2011). Based on the survey analysis results, a strong factor analysis demonstrating construct consistency and a Cronbach's alpha of 0.77 showing good scale reliability, I feel confident

that *negative anchoring events* can be identified and studied using my survey questions. From my interviews and their analysis, I believe that *positive anchoring events* can also be studied quantitatively, by adapting the questions to deal with the seeming ambiguity in identifying positive anchoring events. To make the corrections, I would design the survey such that, after participants had been asked if they had experienced a significant event and about the direction of its outcome, those who indicate a positive outcome be directed to a separate set of questions whereby they are asked to provide a few more details about the event. The details might encompass whether the owner's actions constituted part of an ongoing practice and about the ease with which they recall event details. These additional questions would weed out the 'not quite anchoring events' I found in my qualitative analysis.

Limitations

I believe that my findings offer strong and consistent support for my theoretical predictions. Despite this, I recognize that my project, like any research, is subject to limitations. For example, the survey reveals few specific details about the participants. This is due to the nature of the contractual arrangement between Qualtrics and myself. We gathered general demographic information like age, gender, and education, but I was restricted from asking participants any identifying information, such as their location or business name. Therefore, I cannot report on any distinguishing features between respondents and non-respondents. I also cannot report or comment on exactly how representative the final sample is of the panel population or the general population from which the panel was drawn. Nor can I verify, beyond the qualifying questions, that participants are who they present themselves to be. It should be noted, however, that

Qualtrics and its partner panel firms are reputable research firms whose reputation and continued existence relies on the quality of their panels. As such, they actively employ a variety of cross checks to ensure the veracity of survey participants to maintain their reputations and are open about the steps they take to ensure the quality of their services. The panel company is a member of ESOMAR and are bound to comply with the ICC/ESOMAR's (International Code Council/European Society for Opinion and Market Research) International Code on Market and Social Research.

To comply with the code, the panel companies recruit participants for the business-to-business studies using a double opt-in system. This means that panellists first complete a survey that identifies the types of studies for which they may qualify and, second, are re-contacted to confirm their intention to participate prior to being linked to a study. To ensure diversity, participants are recruited demographically, geographically, and via firm-related descriptors. Panellists are segmented by industry, company size, job-title, and function. This, according to the panel company's literature, allows them to tailor participants to meet the needs of very specialized projects like mine. To limit the participation of "professional survey takers", pool participants are limited to no more than 3 surveys per month. To limit misrepresentation in panellists, the panel company always builds in "litmus" testing questions to verify their panellists are who they say they are. Incentives may be used for some surveys, but not all. However incentive use is the decision of the panel company. (I have no knowledge of incentives being used for this project.) Beyond these generalities, the panel company provided a breakdown, on various axes, the representativeness of their panellists (Table 6.1).

---Insert Table 6.1 about here---

Deciding not to conduct my planned analysis of managers who had left a family business within the past year affected my study by limiting my ability to statistically compare leavers and stayers, and differences between intentions and actual behaviours. As explained in Chapter 3, the planned comparison became unrealistic because of the incredibly small number of managers who had left a family business in the past year. After several different attempts by Qualtrics, I still received only 20 participants to answer questions regarding experiences at a previous family business. This meant that, from the survey, I could come to conclusions only about relationships between the focal independent variables and changes in manager intention to stay. Moreover, I could not use the survey to determine how the focal independent variables and changes in intention to stay were related to managers leaving a family business. And, although the use of intention is an established proxy measure of behaviours, such as voluntary turnover, my qualitative study showed that the relationship between changes to intention to stay and staying is not direct; some manager stayed and others left. That the relationship is not direct highlights the lost opportunity of not being able to look across a larger sample and through the survey at leavers. By not being able use the survey to study the leavers, I missed a critical part of the answer to my overarching question – why non-family managers choose to stay employed in family businesses.

I realized a limitation pertaining to my qualitative study early in the data collection phase – the difficulty I had finding informants with low intentions to stay or even those who were dissatisfied working with the current family business employing them. I did attempt to overcome this limitation by contacting managers directly that were, as I learned through my contacts, dissatisfied with their current or previous family business employers. As I

explained in Chapter 3, this approach was unsuccessful, so I fell back on interviewing the itinerant managers. These itinerant managers had direct experience with leaving a family business due to dissatisfaction. They also had second-hand information and observations from working with other managers that left a family business, because of dissatisfactions with the business. Through the itinerant managers, I obtained valuable insight into the experiences of dissatisfied managers. From their experiences, I added a missing richness to my data and gained important information regarding why managers leave, the effects of negative anchoring events, and the fostering (or not) of the three basic psychological needs. Despite the value and credibility the itinerant managers added to my sample, their participation did not completely overcome the limitations of representation in the qualitative sample.

Another limitation of my project is that it was a cross-sectional not a longitudinal study. In my model and study, I make several assumptions about change over time. For example, anchoring events are, by definition, durable and stable over time; internal socialization is a process that occurs over time; and my question about fostering basic need fulfillment also questions relationships over time. Despite the temporal characteristic of my research questions, the project was cross-sectional. The decision to conduct a cross-sectional study was motivated, in large part, by concerns about the online survey sample. Based on Qualtrics's experience, significant drop off rates could be expected if I had chosen to re-run my survey. Even with as little as a two week gap between survey runs, I was advised to expect a 50% drop in my original sample in the first re-run and more significant drops in any subsequent runs. I believed that the maximum two-week time periods between survey runs that Qualtrics advised to maintain maximum retention rates

were too short to be of value for the nature of the issues I was researching. For this reason, I chose not to attempt a longitudinal study.

Future Directions

An issue with any research project is the extent to which its findings are generalizable to the population of employees and organizations outside its sample (Graebner, 2009). And although I argue that I expect my findings about the demonstrated effect of fostering self-determined motivation and anchoring events on organizational commitment and intent to stay to extend beyond family businesses, an obvious future research direction would be to recreate similar studies in wider settings. Appropriate settings for future studies include non-family businesses, combination of family and non-family businesses, or larger organizations where the owners' presence and influence is more distant. As a necessary extension of recreating my study, I would have the opportunity to refine and validate the anchoring event measure created for this study. In addition to contributing empirically to anchoring events as a concept, I would continue with the work of Van den Broeck and her co-authors in developing a multi-lingual measure of basic needs satisfaction and work scale. Although future research would be based on a desire to determine the extent to which my findings in this project are generalizable, I would likely change the data analysis. In future studies, I would take advantage of structural equation modeling instead of ordinary least squares. Structural equation modeling is a flexible analytic tool with desirable statistical properties that uses multiple equation models to represent structural (causal) relationships between multiple variables even if the variables affect each other mutually (Bielby & Hauser, 1977; Fox, 2006).

A second area of future research is to further contribute to family business research by continuing to integrate family theories into family business studies. In this project, I demonstrated that owning families do have direct impacts on their family businesses. Having identified some owning-family behaviours that affect intention to stay, the next step is to look at antecedents of the behaviours, like family functioning. Possible research questions include: Are high (or low) family functioning more related to positive or negative anchoring events? What are the relationships between family functioning levels and fostering individual basic needs? And how do family functioning and these suggested relationships relate to the traditional family business research questions of profit, succession, and sustainability? To accomplish this, I would begin with my missed opportunity of measuring family functioning through APGAR by a more careful design of the variable in future surveys.

There is another area in which family studies and the literature's accumulated knowledge about studying family could be used to extend family business research. In my project I spoke often about the owning family and in doing so treated owning families as unitary organizations not the heterogeneous social organizations that they are. By conceptualizing the owning families as unitary organizations I omitted some potentially interesting theorizing in my conceptualizing how owning families might influence a non-family manager's intention to stay.

In my theorising I did not consider that families are made up of a variety of people each of who may have their individual goals, values, and behaviours when interacting with others. Because families are not a unitary group, how does a researcher study a 'family' behaviour? In other words, "who speaks for the family?" To address this question, I

recommend that future researchers turn to the family studies literature to determine appropriate methods of finding out who speaks for the family. In fact, family scholarship has a long history of multilevel research on families. Useful points to start to begin to inform such research would be Copeland and White (1991) and Chapter 12 in Bengston, Acock, Allen, Dilworth-Anderson, & Klein (2005).

Beyond trying to account for who speaks for the family there is another aspect of the homogeneity inside families that I hope to investigate in future work. In any business-owning family, family members could be expected to exhibit differences in their behaviours toward non-family managers. Looking at these differences would allow the consideration of how these inter-familial differences might be understood by the non-family managers and affect their intention to stay. For example, are there differences in how fostering of self-determined motivation is experienced if the family member is the family leader, an uninvolved adult child of the family leader, or perhaps an adolescent heir apparent?

There is also an opportunity for future research that arises out of how I operationalized family in my study. To identify family members I combined those related by birth, adoption, and marriage. It is perhaps simplistic, in a study with as much focus on the socialization of outsiders as mine, to assume marriage is enough of a link to the owning family to group in-law managers as having adopted the values, norms, and goals of the owning family. In-law managers would, conceivably, also undergo a process of socialization upon joining the family. As such, in-law managers could form an interesting subset to consider, both in how they are socialized into a business family and in how their behaviours towards non-family managers are understood by the non-family managers and affect the non-family manager's intention to stay.

Concluding Remarks

From my two samples and their analysis, I demonstrated that owning families can affect their non-family managers' intention to stay through their behaviours. In addition, I identified two specific behaviours by which they can affect intention to stay: fostering self-determined motivation through fulfilling managers' needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness; and, providing anchoring events. These findings address my identified gap in the literature and help answer the question of why non-family managers choose to stay employed in a family business. These results contribute to family business research by addressing a gap in the understandings of the internal workings of family businesses, specifically the interaction between owning families and non-family managers. My project also increases our understanding of the wider body of organizations through extending theoretically and empirically self-determination theory, anchoring events as a research topic, organizational commitment, and the working of agency theory concepts.

On a personal level, after a career of working for a variety of owning families and their businesses and observing that some businesses and owning families were more successful than others, I often wondered about the causes of the differences. Based on my results in this study, I have, at least in part, demonstrated the answer to that question and, because of that, have something to give back to those owning families, who employed, taught and trained me over the years.

Table 6.1: Representativeness of Panel Participants

Descriptor	Number of Contacts	Percent of Category Total
By Region		
USA, Northeast	190,000	15.14%
USA, Southeast	330,000	26.29%
USA, Midwest	275,000	21.91%
USA, West	120,000	9.56%
USA, Northwest	55,000	4.38%
Industry		
Agriculture/Forestry	67,000	5.09%
Public Administration	17,000	1.29%
Services	508,000	38.66%
Wholesale/Distribution	90,000	6.76%
Construction	112,000	8.52%
Finance/Insurance/Real Estate	110,000	8.37%
Transport	52,000	3.96%
Retail	278,000	21.16%
Manufacturing	75,000	5.70%
Mining	5,000	0.04%
Service SICs		
Hotels/Recreation/Amusement	31,000	6.10%
Business/Personal Services	147,000	28.94%
Health	66,000	12.99%
Legal	25,000	4.92%
Education/Museums/Zoos	23,000	4.53%
Social Services	32,000	6.30%
Engineering/Management	60,000	11.81%
Other/Miscellaneous Services	124,000	24.41%

FOOTNOTES

i . For many of us the freedom to decide stay or leave a job may seem to be universal right, it is not a right extended to all, even in Canada where some temporary foreign workers have their freedom to decide severely curtailed by the terms of their employment and/or residency in Canada

ii. The fulfillment of a manager's innate need to feel autonomous, competent, and related can also be thought of as comprising the central goals of their managerial role. This fulfills the final requirement of anchoring events, that the outcome of the exchange between the focal individual and target contributes (or not) to the attainment of a central goal of the focal individual.

iii. Ultimately the choice was made not to use the annual sales performance measure in the final analysis. This choice was driven by the high degree of skewness, the low number of participants who reported sales figures (127), and the presence of a highly influential outlier (annual sales 4.8 times greater than the mean).

iv. Owning family commitment's statistical significance also remained consistent across all hypothesis tests with the two backup outcome variables.

v. The outcome of this event does not fit well with staying or leaving. SR is an itinerant manager whose continued employment is based in large part on referral from previous employers. In this case the negative anchoring event led to SR taking actions where, for the first time, he closed the door on a future relationship with an owning family

vi. The low incidence of managers (2) leaving a family business after experiencing a negative anchoring event is disappointingly low but is no doubt a result of the difficulty I had in finding disaffected managers who were willing to be interviewed.

vii. It should be noted that as further checks on the collinearity of the involved variables, I checked the VIF scores in regressions run on the non-family sample that had job satisfaction, job involvement, and income satisfaction as separate variables. In these regressions the VIF was never above 1.64. I also double-checked the correlation matrix of the non-family sample for job performance, job satisfaction, job involvement, and income satisfaction. Here again, multicollinearity concerns were not signalled. The Pearson correlation between job performance and the three other variables ranged from a marginally significant 0.08 ($p \leq 0.10$) to highly significant 0.32 ($p \leq 0.001$).

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APPENDIX 1:

SURVEY OF WHY FAMILY BUSINESS MANAGERS CHOOSE TO STAY EMPLOYED IN FAMILY BUSINESSES

Q1 A Survey of Family Business Managers You have been asked to help us learn more about what it is like to work in family businesses. Family businesses are an important driver of the economy but surprisingly little is known about what makes them unique. This research project is conducted by faculty of the University of Alberta. It has received funding from a Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC) research grant. Your participation will involve responding to questions in a survey questionnaire, which will take approximately 15-20 minutes of your time. We hope you find the survey interesting yet straightforward and simple to complete. On the next page is the permission form we are required by our university to provide all participants. Please review it before continuing with the survey. Many thanks in advance, Albert James

Q2 Consent to participate form It is necessary that before you participate in this study, you provide us with what is termed “informed consent.” This page explains what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or have any other questions, please contact Albert James at (780)242-5567 or via email (aejames@ualberta.ca). Please take the time to read this page carefully before indicating your willingness to participate in the project. By answering ‘Yes’ to the question at the end of this paragraph, you will be indicating that you understand the information regarding your participation in the research project and you agree to participate. The survey will ask you to provide certain information about your current employer, current position and your experiences and perceptions of your work. You will also be asked questions concerning personal characteristics that will enable us to conduct analyses based on groupings of similar individuals. The survey has been designed so that we do not reasonably anticipate either any harm or any benefits to accrue to you due to your participation in this study. All provided information will be anonymous and cannot be traced back to you at any time. Raw data will be kept on a password-protected computer and can only be seen by the researchers. Only aggregate results will be shared with the wider public. You may ask questions about the research today or in the future. Finally, you may discontinue participation in the session at any time for any reason whatsoever; if you do stop your participation at any time, your data will be safely discarded/destroyed. This study has been approved by the Research Ethics Board at the University of Alberta. For questions regarding participant rights and ethical conduct of research, contact the Research Ethics Board at (780) 492-8443 or email researchethicsboard@exchange.bus.ualberta.ca.

- Yes, I consent (1)
- No, I do not consent (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Q3 First we will ask you some simple questions to determine your eligibility to continue with the survey.

Q4 Approximately, how many employees work at your company?

- 1 (7)
- 2-10 (1)
- 11-20 (2)
- 21-50 (3)
- 51-100 (4)
- 101 - 250 (5)
- 251 or larger (6)

If 1 Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey If 251 or larger Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Q5 Is the business that you currently work for owned by a family or families?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unsure (3)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey If Unsure Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Q6 Are any members of the owning family(s) actively involved in the business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unsure (3)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey If Unsure Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Q7 Which of the following designations best describes your current position within the organization?

- Partner/Owner (1)
- President (2)
- CEO/COO (3)
- Executive VP (4)
- Senior VP (5)
- Director/Department Head (6)
- Manager/Senior Manager (7)
- Assistant Manager/Assistant Director (8)
- Product Manager (9)
- I am not currently a manager (10)

If Partner/Owner Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey If President Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey If CEO/COO Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey If I am not currently a manager Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Q8 How long have you been employed with your current employer?

- Less than 1 year (1)
- Number of years (2) _____

If Number of years Is Not Empty, Then Skip To End of Block

Q9 Were you previously employed in a managerial capacity in another organization within the past 12 months?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Block

Q11 Was this prior business owned by a family or families who were actively involved in the company?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unsure (3)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Block If Unsure Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Block

Q238 In the remainder of this survey you will be asked a variety of questions about yourself, your job, and your employer. Some of the questions may appear to be repetitive but they are each specifically designed to measure separate attitudes and opinions. Thank you in advance for your participation.

Q12 Was it your choice to leave your prior organization?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q13 How long were you employed with your previous organization?

- Less than 1 year (1)
- Number of years (2) _____

Q14 Was your position with your previous employer your first managerial position?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If Yes Is Selected, Then Skip To Were you promoted to your prior manag...

Q15 For how many years had you held managerial positions?

- Within the organization you worked for (1) _____
- Within all other prior organizations (2) _____

Q16 Were you promoted to your prior managerial position from within the business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q17 Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your prior job.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I felt like I could be myself at the job. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The tasks I had to do at work were in line with what I really wanted to do. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I felt free to do my job the way I think it could best be done. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was good at the things I did in that job. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I had the feeling that I could have accomplished even the most difficult tasks at work. (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often felt alone when I was with my colleagues. (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q18 Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your prior job.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I really mastered my tasks at that job. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In the job, I felt forced to do things I did not want to do. (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At that work place, I felt part of a group. (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I felt competent at that job. (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work I could talk with people about things that really mattered to me. (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q19 Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your prior job.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
At work, I often felt like I had to follow other people's commands. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I could have chosen, I would have done aspects of my job differently. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I didn't really feel connected with other people at that job. (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I didn't really mix with other people at that job. (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Some people I worked with were close friends of mine. (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

most of the time (10)							
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Q21 Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your prior job.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
All in all, I was satisfied with that job. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I did not like my job. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I liked working at my prior organization. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q22 Just before you left your prior job, how would you have rated your overall performance? (scale of 0-10 with 10 being excellent)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q23 Just before you left your prior job, how would you have rated your performance relative to your peers within that organization? (scale of 0 to 10 with 10 being excellent)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q24 Just before you left your prior job, how would your supervisor likely have rated your performance ? (scale of 0 to 10 with 10 being excellent)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q25 Thank you for telling us a bit about your prior job. We will now ask you about your supervisor at your prior organization and about that organization in general.

Q26 At what level was your direct supervisor

- Partner/Owner (1)
- President (2)
- CEO/COO (3)
- Executive VP (4)
- Senior VP (5)
- Director/Department Head (6)
- Manager/Senior Manager (7)
- Assistant Manager/ Assistant Director (8)
- Product Manager (9)

Q27 Was your direct supervisor related to the family, or families, that owned the prior business you worked for?

- Yes, by birth or formal adoption (1)
- Yes, through marriage (2)
- No (3)
- Do not know (4)
- Related, but not sure of how related (5)

Q28 Are you a member of the owning family or families of that prior business?

- Yes, by birth or formal adoption (1)
- Yes, by marriage (2)
- Not related (3)

If Not related Is Selected, Then Skip To We would like to ask you about the fa...

Q29 We would like to ask you a few questions about your relationship with your family (the family owning the business) at your prior job. For each, please select the most appropriate answer.

	Never (1)	Hardly ever (2)	Some of the time (3)	Almost always (4)	Always (5)
I was satisfied that I could turn to my family for help when something was troubling me. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was satisfied with the way my family talked over things with me and shared problems with me. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was satisfied that my family accepted and supported my wishes to take on new activities and directions. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was satisfied with the way my family expressed affection and	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<p>responded to my emotions, such as anger, sorrow, and love. (4)</p> <p>I was satisfied with the way my family and I shared time together. (5)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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If I was satisfied that I coul... Is Not Empty, Then Skip To Thank you for your continued particip...

<p>and directions. (3)</p> <p>Family members seemed comfortable with how members of the family expressed affection and responded to emotions, such as anger, sorrow, and love (4)</p> <p>Family members appeared satisfied with the way they shared time together. (5)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Q31 Thank you for your continued participation. We will now ask you a bit more about your prior employer.

Q32 What percentage of the business did the owning family(s) own?

- % (1) _____
- Do not know (2)

<p>(4)</p> <p>Members of the owning family agreed with the goals, plans, and policies of the company I worked for.</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p>(5)</p> <p>Members of the owning family really cared about the fate of the company I worked for.</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p>(6)</p> <p>Members of the owning family were willing to put in extra effort to help the company I worked for be successful.</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q34 For how many years had your prior organization been in business?

- Years (1)

Q35 In what generation of family ownership was the company you worked for.

- First generation (1)
- Second generation (2)
- Third generation or higher (3)
- Do not know (4)

Q36 How many generations of the owning family worked in your previous organization?

- 1 generation (1)
- 2 generations (2)
- 3 generations (3)
- 4 or more generations (4)
- Do not know (5)

Q37 Was the founder of the business still alive?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Do not know (3)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To Thank you for telling us about previo...If Do not know Is Selected, Then Skip To Thank you for telling us about previo...

Q38 Was the founder of the business still involved in the business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Do not know (3)

Q39 Thank you for telling us about previous organization and supervisor. We will now ask you about your experiences with your prior company.

Q40 From your experiences at your former organization please indicate the extent to which members of the owning family ...

	Never (1)	Rarely (2)	Sometimes (3)	Frequently (4)	Consistently (5)
Members of the owning family(s) did things that made me feel like I belonged in the company. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Members of the owning family(s) did things that made me feel connected to the business. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Members of the owning family(s) did things that made me feel that they recognized my capability as a manager. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Members of the owning family(s) let me know I had filled my managerial responsibilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<p>properly. (4)</p> <p>Members of the owning family(s) did things that made me feel free to perform my role independently. (5)</p> <p>Members of the owning family(s) did things that limited my being able to do my job as I thought it could best be done. (6)</p> <p>Members of the owning family(s) did things that made me feel essential to the company's success. (7)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Q41 What industry was your prior company in?

- Advertising/Marketing/Design (1)
- Agriculture/Forestry/Fishing (2)
- Architecture/Engineering (3)
- Communications/IT (4)
- Construction (5)
- Education (6)
- Finance/Insurance/Real Estate (7)
- Health Services (8)
- Hotel and Restaurant Industry (9)
- Manufacturing (10)
- Personnel Management/HR (11)
- Tax/Law/Management Consulting (12)
- Transportation (13)
- Wholesale and Retail Trade (14)
- Other (15) _____

Q43 How many managers were at your prior organization?

- # of managers (1) _____
- Do not know (2)

Q44 How many of the managers were members of the owning family(s) by birth, formal adoption, or marriage?

- Number of family managers (1) _____
- Do not know (2)

Q45 Prior to your leaving, what was the prior organization's annual sales level (approximately)?

- Annual Sales (\$) (1) _____
- Do not know (2)

Q46 When you left your prior employer how would you rate the organization's performance relative to its nearest competitors? (0=prior organization being far worse, 10= prior organization far exceeding)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q47 When you left your prior employer, how likely did you think it was that your prior organization would still exist in 3 years?

- Very Unlikely (1)
- Unlikely (2)
- Somewhat Unlikely (3)
- Unsure (4)
- Somewhat Likely (5)
- Likely (6)
- Very Likely (7)

Q49 Did your prior employer offer a share ownership program?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Do not know (3)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To Thank you for your patience so far. W...If Do not know Is Selected, Then Skip To Thank you for your patience so far. W...

Q50 Did you participate in the share ownership program and thus own shares in the business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q51 Thank you for your patience so far, only 13 quick pages to go.

<p>desire. (7)</p> <p>Before leaving my prior organization I thought it would have been very hard to leave the company right away, even if I had wanted to. (8)</p> <p>While I was with my prior organization I had a sense of obligation to the people in the company. (17)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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<p>While I was working at my prior organization I did not feel it would have been right to leave the company, even if it had been advantageous for me to leave. (5)</p> <p>If I had not already put so much of myself into my prior organization, I might have considered working elsewhere. (6)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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<p>While I was still with my prior organization one of the few negative consequences of leaving was the scarcity of available alternatives. (6)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Q55 Getting closer to being done, 9 pages remaining.

Q56 Can you recall an incident that occurred between yourself and a member of the owning family you worked for that quickly and dramatically changed your relationship with the owning family?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To Please indicate your degree of agreem...

Q57 Approximately how long after you joined the company did the incident occur?

- # Months or (1) _____
- # Years (3) _____

Q58 Regarding the incident, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
The incident directly impacted a very important goal of mine. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The outcome of the incident was not what I was expecting. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The family member(s) had control over the outcome of the incident. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was highly dependent upon the family member(s) who had control over the incident's outcome. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The incident changed how I viewed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<p>future interactions with the family member and/or the family as a whole. (5)</p>					
<p>When I think of the family member and/or owning family, I frequently recall the incident. (6)</p>	○	○	○	○	○

Q59 How would you describe the outcome of the incident?

- Very negative impact on an important goal of mine (1)
- Somewhat negative impact on an important goal of mine (2)
- Neutral impact on an important goal of mine (3)
- Somewhat positive impact on an important goal of mine (4)
- Very positive impact on an important goal of mine (5)

Q60 How would you describe the family member's behavior with respect to the incident?

- Fell far short of my prior expectations (1)
- Fell somewhat short of my prior expectations (2)
- Acted consistently with my prior expectations (3)
- Somewhat exceeded my prior expectations (4)
- Greatly exceeded my expectations (5)

(4) When someone praised the company I worked for, it felt like a personal compliment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(5) If a story in the media criticized my former organization I felt embarrassed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
(6)							

<p>When someone praised the family I worked for, it felt like a personal compliment. (5)</p> <p>If a story in the media criticized the owning family, I felt embarrassed. (6)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Q63 In this final section of the survey you will be asked some questions about yourself. These questions are not meant to identify you but to give us some background about our survey participants.

Q64 What is your education level?

- High School Diploma (1)
- Some college or university courses (2)
- College or university degree (3)
- Some graduate or professional courses (4)
- Graduate degree or professional designation (5)

Q65 What, if any, professional designations do you hold?

Q66 What is your sex?

- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Q67 What is your age category?

- Under 30 (1)
- 41 to 50 (2)
- 61 and older (3)
- 31 to 40 (4)
- 51 to 60 (5)

Q68 Almost there, 3 pages remaining

Q69 On a scale of 0 to 10, please indicate your perceived fairness of the pay that you received from your previous employer. (0= totally unfair, 10= totally fair)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q70 Was part of your income composed of pay-for-performance incentives?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To To what extent do you agree with the ...

Q71 Approximately what proportion of your pay was made up of incentives?

- % (1) _____

Q72 To what extent do you agree with the following statements about yourself?

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Working for a family business was important in my choice to work with my prior employer. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NOT working for a family business was important in my choice to work for my prior employer. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q73 Was becoming a manager part of your overall career plan?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unsure (3)

Q75 For how many years have you held your current position with this organization?

- Less than 1 year (1)
- Number of years (2) _____

Q76 Is this your first managerial position?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If Yes Is Selected, Then Skip To Were you promoted to your current pos...

Q77 For how many years have you held managerial positions?

- With your current organization (1) _____
- With all previous organizations (2) _____

Q78 Were you promoted to your current position from within the business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q79 Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your current job.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I feel like I can be myself at my job. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The tasks I have to do at work are in line with what I really want to do. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel free to do my job the way I think it could best be done. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am good at the things I do in my job. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have the feeling that I can accomplish even the most difficult tasks at work. (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often feel alone when I am with my colleagues.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

(15)					
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Q80 Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your current job.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
In my job, I feel forced to do things I do not want to do. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I really master my tasks at my job. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel competent at my job. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I feel part of a group. (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work I can talk with people about things that really matter to me. (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q81 Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements about your current job.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
At work, I often feel like I have to follow other people's commands. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I could choose, I would do things at work differently. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't really feel connected with other people at my job. (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't really mix with other people at my job. (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Some people I work with are close friends of mine. (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

most of the time (10)							
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Q84 How would you rate your overall performance on your job? (scale of 0 to 10 with 10 being excellent)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q85 How would you rate your performance relative to your peers within the organization? (scale of 0 to 10 with 10 being excellent)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q86 How would your supervisor likely rate your performance? (scale of 0 to 10 with 10 being excellent)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q87 Thank you for telling us a bit about your job. We will now ask you about your supervisor and about the organization you currently work for.

Q88 At what level of the company is your direct supervisor?

- Partner/Owner (1)
- President (2)
- CEO/COO (3)
- Executive VP (4)
- Senior VP (5)
- Director/Department Head (6)
- Manager/Senior Manager (7)
- Assistant Manager/Assistant Director (8)
- Product Manger (9)

Q89 Is your direct supervisor related to the family, or families, that own the business you current work for? (Please select the most appropriate)

- Yes, by birth or formal adoption (1)
- Yes, through marriage (2)
- No (3)
- Do not know (4)
- Related, but not sure of how related (5)

Q90 Are you a member of the owning family(ies)? (Please select the most applicable)

- Yes, by birth or formal adoption. (1)
- Yes, through marriage (2)
- Not related (3)

If Not related Is Selected, Then Skip To We would like to ask you about the fa...

Q91 We would like to ask you a few questions about your family (the business owning family). For each, please select the most appropriate answer.

	Never (1)	Hardly Ever (2)	Some of the Time (3)	Almost Always (4)	Always (5)
I am satisfied that I can turn to my family for help when something is troubling me. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am satisfied with the way my family talks over things with me and shares problems with me. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am satisfied that my family accepts and supports my wishes to take on new activities and directions. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am satisfied with the way my family expresses affection and responds to my emotions, such as anger,	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

sorrow, and love. (4)					
I am satisfied with the way my family and I share time together. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

If I am satisfied that I can t... Is Not Empty, Then Skip To End of Block

<p>and directions. (3)</p> <p>Family members appear to be comfortable with how members of the family express affection and respond to emotions, such as anger, sorrow, and love. (4)</p> <p>Family members seem satisfied with the way they share time together. (5)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Q93 Thank you. We will now ask you a bit more about the company you work for.

Q94 What percentage (%) of the company does the family(s) own?

- % (1) _____
- Do not know (2)

Q96 For how many years has the company you work for been in business?

- Number of years (1)

Q97 In what generation is the family ownership of your current employer?

- First Generation (1)
- Second Generation (2)
- Third Generation, or higher (3)
- Do not know (4)

Q98 How many generations of the owning family work in your current organization?

- 1 generation (1)
- 2 generations (2)
- 3 generations (3)
- 4 generations or more (4)
- Do not know (5)

Q99 Is the founder of the business still alive?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Do not know (3)

If Do not know Is Selected, Then Skip To Thank you for telling us about previo...If No Is Selected, Then Skip To Thank you for telling us about previo...

Q100 Is the founder of the business still involved with the business?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Do not know (3)

Q101 Thank you for telling us about the company you work for and supervisor. We will now ask you about your experiences with your organization.

Q102 From your experiences with your organization please indicate the extent to which members of the owning family(s) ...

	Never (1)	Rarely (2)	Sometimes (3)	Frequently (4)	Consistently (5)
Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel like I belong in the company. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel connected to the business. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel that they recognize my capability as a manager. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Members of the owning family(s) let me know I fill my managerial responsibilities properly (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<p>Members of the owning family(s) do things that make me feel free to perform my role independently. (5)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p>Members of the owning family(s) do things that limit my ability to do my job as I think it could best be done. (6)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p>Members of the owning family(s) do things that made me feel essential to the company's success. (7)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q103 What industry is your current organization in?

- Advertising/Marketing/Design (1)
- Agriculture/Forestry/Fishing (2)
- Architecture/Engineering (3)
- Communications/IT (4)
- Construction (5)
- Education (6)
- Finance/Insurance/Real Estate (7)
- Health Services (8)
- Hotel and Restaurant Industry (9)
- Manufacturing (10)
- Personnel Management/HR (11)
- Tax/Law/ Management Consulting (12)
- Transportation (13)
- Wholesale and Retail Trade (14)
- Other (15) _____

Q105 How many managers are there in the business you work for?

- Number of managers (1) _____
- Do not know (2)

Q106 How many of the managers are members of the owning family(s) by birth, adoption, or marriage?

- Number of family managers (1) _____
- Do not know (2)

Q107 What were your organization's most recent annual sales (approximately)?

- Annual Sales (\$) (1) _____
- Do not know (2)

Q108 How would you rate the organization's performance relative to its nearest competitors? (0= your organization's performance being far worse, 10= your organization's performance far exceeding)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q109 How likely is it that the organization you currently work for will still exist in 3 years?

- Very Unlikely (1)
- Unlikely (2)
- Somewhat Unlikely (3)
- Undecided (4)
- Somewhat Likely (5)
- Likely (6)
- Very Likely (7)

Q111 Does your current employer offer a share ownership program?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Do not know (3)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To Thank you for telling us about the co...If Do not know Is Selected, Then Skip To Thank you for telling us about the co...

Q112 Do you own shares in the company through the share ownership program?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q113 Thank you for your patience so far. Only 14 quick pages left!

<p>If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere. (6)</p>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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would be the scarcity of available alternatives. (6)							
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Q117 Can you recall an incident that occurred between yourself and a member of the owning family of your current employer that quickly and dramatically changed your relationship with the owning family?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To Please indicate your degree of agreem...

Q118 Approximately how many months after you joined the company did the incident occur?

- Number of months OR (1) _____
- Number or years (3) _____

Q119 Regarding the incident, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
The incident directly impacted a very important goal of mine. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The outcome of the incident was not what I was expecting. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The family member(s) had control over the outcome of the incident. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was highly dependent upon the family member(s) who had control over the incident outcome. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The incident changed how I viewed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<p>future interactions with the family member and/or owning family as a whole. (5)</p> <p>When I think of the family member and/or owning family, I frequently recall this incident. (6)</p>	○	○	○	○	○
--	---	---	---	---	---

Q120 How would you describe the outcome of the incident?

- Very negative impact on an important goal of mine. (1)
- Somewhat negative impact on an important goal of mine. (2)
- Neutral impact on an important goal of mine. (3)
- Somewhat positive impact on an important goal of mine. (4)
- Very positive impact on an important goal of mine. (5)

Q121 How would you describe the family member's behavior with respect to the incident?

- Fell far short of my prior expectations. (1)
- Fell somewhat short of my prior expectations (2)
- Acted consistently with my prior expectations. (3)
- Somewhat exceeded my prior expectations (4)
- Greatly exceeded my prior expectations (5)

<p>someone praises the company I work for, it feels like a personal compliment. (5)</p> <p>If a story in the media criticized the company I work for, I would feel embarrassed. (6)</p>							
---	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

When someone praises the family I work for, it feels like a personal compliment. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If a story in the media criticized the family I work for, I would feel embarrassed. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q124 What is your education level?

- High School Diploma (1)
- Some college or university courses (2)
- College or university degree (3)
- Some graduate or professional courses (4)
- Graduate degree or professional designation (5)

Q125 What, if any, professional designations do you hold?

Q126 What is your sex?

- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Q127 What is your age category?

- Under 30 (1)
- 41 to 50 (2)
- 61 and older (3)
- 31 to 40 (4)
- 51 to 60 (5)

Q128 On a scale of 0 to 10 please indicate your perceived fairness of the pay you receive from your current employer. (0 = totally unfair, 10= totally fair)

- 0 (0)
- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 (4)
- 5 (5)
- 6 (6)
- 7 (7)
- 8 (8)
- 9 (9)
- 10 (10)

Q129 Is part of your income composed of pay-for-performance incentives?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Do not know (3)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To To what extent do you agree with the ...If Do not know Is Selected, Then Skip To To what extent do you agree with the ...

Q130 Approximately what proportion of your pay is made up of incentives?

% (1) _____

Q131 Almost done, 4 pages remaining.

Q132 To what extent do you agree with the following statements about yourself?

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Working for a family business was important in my job choice. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NOT working for a family business was important in my job choice. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q133 Was becoming a manager part of your overall career plan?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unsure (3)

Q136 Do you see yourself with your current employer in 3 years?

- Definitely not (1)
- Probably not (2)
- Maybe (3)
- Probably yes (4)
- Definitely yes (5)

Q137 If it were completely up to you, how likely is it that you will be working for your current employer in 3 years?

- Definitely will not (1)
- Probably will not (2)
- Don't know (3)
- Probably will (4)
- Definitely will (5)

Q138 For the last question, please indicate your agreement with the following...

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I am thinking about leaving this organization. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am planning to look for a new job. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I intend to ask people about new job opportunities. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't plan to be in this organization much longer (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX 2:

REGRESSION DIAGNOSTICS

As a precaution, I subjected the data to a series of regression diagnostic tests – studentised residual, leverage, and Cook's D tests – to check for unusual observations. I also tested it for heteroscedasticity and non-normality of residuals.

To test for leverage, I identified the presence of outliers in the data by creating scatter plots of 'intention to stay' against all the independent variables. From the plots, it was apparent that there were outlier data points. Next, I examined the standardized residuals by having SPSS create a histogram of the standardized residuals (Figure a2.1). The shape of the resultant histogram suggests extreme residuals (notably the bar just below the zero point in the figure).

---Insert Figure a2.1 about here---

Then, I used SPSS to generate the regression with the studentised deleted residual. Through this process, I could begin to analyse the possible leverage effect of outliers. To do this, I had SPSS identify the specific outlier cases with a Studentised residual cut off value of '2' and generate outlier statistics, so I could flag cases where the leverage was excessive. I calculated an excessive leverage value using the formula where k is the number of variables in the model and n is the number of observations:

$$(2k + 2)/n$$

For my model, the formula worked out to $(2*26+2)/370= 0.1459$. Ten observations had leverage values that were greater than 0.1459. Following this, I tested for the Cooks D

result. The usual cut-off value is determined by dividing 4 by the sample size, in this case $4/370 = 0.0108$. From the resultant outlier statistics output, 10 cases exceeded the cut off value (Table a2.1). From these results, I identified the 10 cases, checked for coding errors, but found none. After I confirmed that the leverage was not as a result of coding errors as a confirmatory step I created a data set in SPSS that did not include the ten outlier variables. With this revised data set I re-ran the tests for H1 to H4. The new output remained consistent with the original results in that there were no differences between which focal variables were significant and their level of significance.

---Insert Table a2.1 about here---

To continue my regression diagnostics, I used SPSS to test my data for heteroscedasticity (constant variance in the error term) and non-normality of residuals. Two assumptions of linear regression analysis are that there is constant variance in the error term and that residuals are normally distributed (Kremelberg, 2011). First, I tested for heteroscedasticity, following the SPSS procedure as set out by UCLA: Academic Technology Services, Statistical Consulting Group (SPSS Web books: Regression with SPSS Chapter 2- Regression diagnostics). To test for heteroscedasticity, I used a graphical method whereby I had SPSS generate a scatter plot showing the standardized residuals on the Y-axis and the predicted values on the X-axis (Figure a2.2). The resultant graph shows a clustering pattern of data points on the right side of the graph. This clustering, as opposed to an even distribution of data points, indicates the presence of heteroscedasticity in my data set.

---Insert Figure a2.2 about here---

To test for non-normality of the residuals, I generated the residuals in SPSS. Following this, I had SPSS re-analyse the generated residuals and test for normality. The results of the tests are mixed. Both skewness (-0.83) and Kurtosis (1.201) were near zero and the Q-Q plot graph (Figure a2.3) appeared normal, supporting the sample's normality. Yet, both normality tests show statistical significance (Kolmogorov-Smirnov = 0.09***, Shapiro-Wilk = 0.96***). This suggests non-normality.

---Insert Figure a2.3 about here---

In summary, the regression diagnostics showed the presence of outlier variables that exerted leverage on the whole sample, but were not the result of coding errors and did not affect the pattern of significant findings. I also found that the data was subject to some heteroscedasticity and the possibility of some effect from non-normal distribution of residuals, which I will raise in my concluding chapter.

Figure a2.1: Standardized Residuals

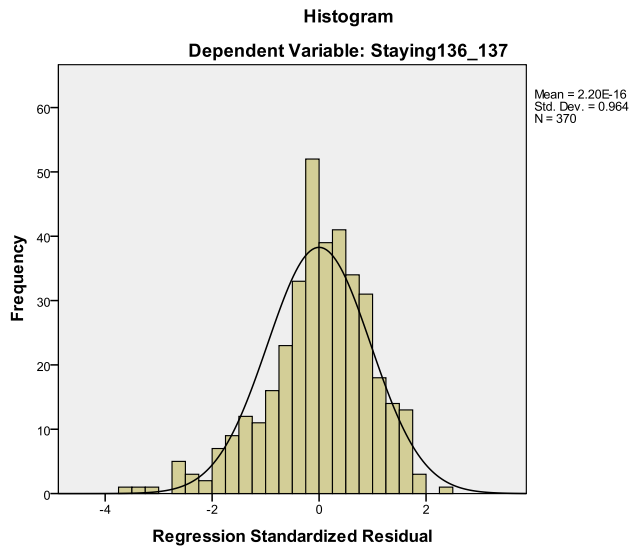


Figure a2.2: Test for Heteroscedasticity

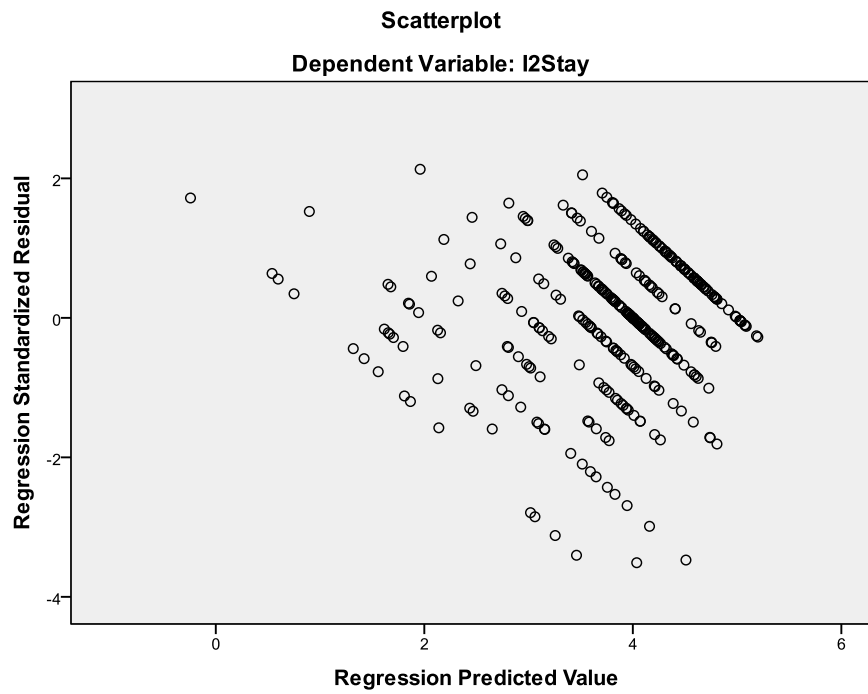


Figure a2.3: Test for Non-Normality of Residuals

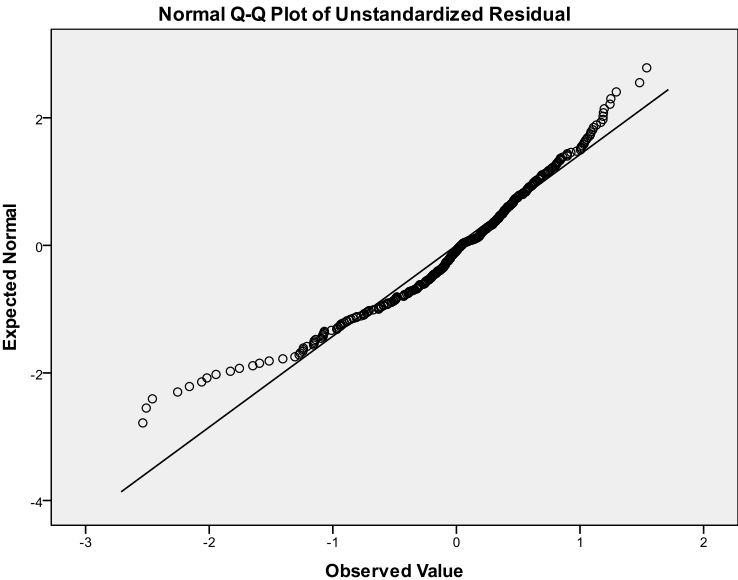


Table a2.1: High Leverage Cases, Cook's Distance

Case Number	Statistic	Significance F
72	0.068	1.000
355	0.041	1.000
344	0.031	1.000
66	0.027	1.000
107	0.022	1.000
7	0.022	1.000
10	0.022	1.000
17	0.020	1.000
397	0.019	1.000

APPENDIX 3:

ALTERNATIVE DEPENDENT VARIABLE HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS

Table a3.1: Hypothesis 1, 2, 3, 4 Test Results, Turnover Intention

	Model 1	Model 2: H1	Model 3: H2	Model 4: H3	Model 5: H4	Full Model
Control variables						
Owning Family commitment	-0.197***	-0.195***	-0.195***	-0.069	-0.158***	-0.054
Ownership generation	-0.020	-0.021	-0.029	-0.030	0.000	-0.021
Founder effect	-0.038	-0.039	-0.035	-0.041	-0.038	-0.037
Company size	0.042	0.033	0.041	0.007	0.070†	0.034
Company age	-0.036	-0.042	0.003	-0.067	-0.055	-0.061
Industry	-0.015	-0.017	-0.019	-0.001	-0.021	-0.009
Company's relative performance	-0.163***	-0.157***	-0.155***	-0.109	-0.167***	-0.113**
Company's Perceived survivability	-0.263***	-0.264***	-0.259***	-0.181	-0.216***	-0.153***
Share program	-0.002	0.008	-0.009	0.028	0.006	0.029
Incentive program	0.041	0.046	0.038	0.032	0.051	0.038
Manager age	0.044	0.043	0.036	0.017	0.028	0.005
Manager sex	0.003	0.002	0.005	0.000	0.003	0.004
Job alternatives	0.207***	0.202***	0.200***	0.228	0.193***	0.217***
Job performance	-0.067†	-0.073†	-0.066†	0.038	-0.088*	0.003
Satisfaction Scale	-0.170***	-0.174***	-0.169***	-0.159	-0.162***	-0.157***
Independent Variables						
Family membership status		-0.045				-0.008
Internal Socialization			-0.073†			-0.017
Professional training			0.014			0.010
Internal soc X prof training			0.043			0.062†
Fostering self-determined motivation				-0.419		-0.375***
Positive anchoring event					-0.022	-0.020
Negative anchoring event					0.232***	0.173***
F score	12.224***	11.507***	10.322***	14.808***	13.216***	14.261***
R ²	0.341	0.342	0.346	0.446	0.389	0.475
Adjusted R ²	0.313	0.312	0.313	0.421	0.360	0.442
n	371	371	370	371	371	370

Note: † p ≤ 0.10, * p ≤ 0.01, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001 (one tailed test for all independent variables)

Table a3.2: Hypothesis 1, 2, 3, 4 Test Results, Hybrid Intention to Stay

	Model 1	Model 2: H1	Model 3: H2	Model 4: H3	Model 5: H4	Full Model
Control variables						
Owning Family commitment	0.200***	0.196***	0.196***	0.066†	0.157***	0.048
Ownership generation	0.034	0.037	0.048	0.045	0.013	0.039
Founder effect	0.025	0.026	0.024	0.028	0.025	0.025
Company size	-0.008	0.008	-0.006	0.029	-0.040	0.004
Company age	0.006	0.017	-0.050	0.039	0.027	0.025
Industry	0.006	0.010	0.012	-0.009	0.012	0.004
Company's relative performance	0.172***	0.161***	0.162***	0.116**	0.176***	0.116**
Company's Perceived survivability	0.306***	0.308***	0.301***	0.220***	0.254***	0.190***
Share program	0.025	0.006	0.033	-0.008	0.014	-0.016
Incentive program	-0.013	-0.023	-0.011	-0.004	-0.025	-0.016
Manager age	-0.059†	-0.057†	-0.048	-0.031	-0.042	-0.016
Manager sex	0.002	0.003	0.000	0.004	0.001	0.001
Job alternatives	-0.177***	-0.167***	-0.161***	-0.198***	-0.161***	-0.174***
Job performance	0.053	0.063†	0.047	-0.057	0.077*	-0.015
Satisfaction Scale	0.158***	0.166***	0.157***	0.147***	0.150***	0.148***
Independent Variables						
Family membership status		0.082*				0.040
Internal Socialization			0.115*			0.052
Professional training			-0.014			-0.008
Internal soc X prof training			-0.031			-0.054†
Fostering self-determined motivation				0.439***		0.379***
Positive anchoring event					0.034	0.035
Negative anchoring event					-0.256***	-0.196***
F score	13.237***	12.659***	11.425***	19.978***	14.937***	16.667***
R ²	0.359	0.364	0.369	0.474	0.418	0.514
Adjusted R ²	0.332	0.335	0.337	0.451	0.390	0.483
n	371	371	370	371	371	370

Note: † p ≤ 0.10, * p ≤ 0.01, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001 (one tailed test for all independent variables)

APPENDIX 4:

MODERATING VARIABLES TESTING

Family Membership Status

In this appendix, I explore the moderating effect of family membership status on the relationship between the two owning family behaviours (fostering self-determined motivation and providing anchoring events) and manager intention to stay with the family business. In my first hypothesis, I predicted that, *cetera paribus*, family managers would have higher intentions to stay than non-family managers. From our understanding, members of the owning family are subject to influences, arising from their family membership, that act to increase their intention to stay with their family's business. Non-family managers are not subject to the owner's family influences the same way as family managers are, but will be more directly subject to their own family's influences. Lacking owner-family influences tying them to the business, other organizational influences that increase their intention to stay may be particularly important for the non-family manager. As such, enhancing the quality of their internal socialization may be particularly important for non-family managers.

In a family business setting, non-family managers are, relative to family managers, true outsiders. Even if a family manager is entering their family's business after a career elsewhere, he/she is automatically an insider by virtue of his/her family identity and other family processes. Family managers require less internal socialization and are naturally more closely aligned with the values, attitudes, and identity of the owning family and, therefore, the business. The quality of the internal socialization process may not matter so

much for family managers. It is the non-family manager that may have to change the most and, thus, have the greater challenge with internalizing the family business's extrinsic regulation. Relative to the family manager, the quality of the internal socialization through fostering self-determined motivation and anchor events might matter most to the non-family manager in increasing that manager's intention to stay.

For non-family managers, feelings of autonomy, competence, and relatedness may be particularly challenging. As described in Chapter 1, family businesses are often secretive, clan-centric, resistant to sharing control, and restrict decision-making power to family member (Daily & Dollinger, 1992). Given these tendencies, creating an environment where non-family managers can feel autonomous, competent, and related, is a significant challenge for some family businesses, but especially important for improving non-family managers' intention to stay.

To be autonomous, a manager must feel that their supervisors value self-initiated behaviour, support independent problem solving, and allow participation in decision making (Deci et al, 1994). Family business owners strongly influence a non-family manager's perception of his or her autonomy. For example, a family with strong ownership may restrict the dispersion of information to non-family members (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006). This restriction could limit a non-family manager's ability to act independently or make autonomous decisions. Additionally, given an owning family's expected preference for maintaining control, they may equate the independence of non-family managers' actions as a threat to the family's control.

Feelings of competence require that an individual perceive their own efforts as responsible for the success they achieve (Deci et al., 2001; Gagne & Deci, 2005). While non-family managers may be equally able to perceive successful completion of tasks as family managers are, they may not receive, due to their outsider status, adequate feedback from an owning family that would allow them to evaluate a task outcome. Owing family restrictions on information dissemination may obscure what constitutes a successful outcome or what the actual outcome is. For example, when managers cannot get complete information on performance outcomes, costs, debt, etc., for their area of responsibility, they may not be able to fully recognize the success of their behaviour.

Relatedness refers to feeling connected to the social group (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and its development requires a manager to feel mutual respect, care, and reliance upon others in a social group (Deci et al, 2001). Developing such feelings may be difficult for non-family members when family membership status is a fundamental distinction within families (Cigoli & Scabini, 2006), but it can be achieved. Societies and cultures have various customs and traditions around the inclusion of outsiders into families. Adoption and blended families are two examples of such circumstances. One issue related to the successful adoption of an individual into a family is the adopting family's openness in their relationships with the adopted person (Grotevant et al, 2000). Applying this idea to a business unit associated with secrecy and the incomplete sharing of information, may show that the adoption of non-family members, and fulfilling their need for relatedness, is challenging.

Anchoring events might also be expected to be especially important in determining the nature of relationships between owning families and the non-family managers. The

notion of anchoring events, as a concept, was developed within a social exchange theory framework (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). In social exchange, people are self-interested individuals seeking balance between perceived costs and benefits of an exchange (Meeker, 1971). In organizational settings, the assumption has been that rules of reciprocity govern exchanges between individuals (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Within a social exchange framework, the assumption has been that, through a gradual process of successful reciprocity-based exchanges, feelings of obligation, trust, and gratitude develop between a focal individual and a target (Blau, 1964; Rousseau D. M., 1989; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Families are not governed by the same exchange rules normally associated with organizations. Family scholars, who use a social exchange framework, also perceive people as self-interested individuals seeking to balance perceived costs and rewards (Smith et al., 2009). Family scholars use this perspective to explain the existence and endurance of families (Klein & White, 1996). Accordingly, the research focuses on norms of fairness, dynamics of attraction, distribution of power, as well as reciprocity (Chibucos, Leite, & Weis, 2005). In families, the relationships become interdependent with family usually conceptualized as a source of reward for members (Chibucos et al., 2005; Klein & White, 1996).

Combining this understanding of social exchanges in organizations and families, one might expect that owning family members, with existing interdependent relationships, to come into the family business with a greater willingness to enter into exchanges with the owners based on obligation, trust, and gratitude, than would be expected of non-family managers entering the business. This comparison might be expected to hold even in a

dysfunctional family where, despite the dysfunctions, a history of exchange norms has developed. Because of this relative lack of history between non-family manager focal individuals and owning family targets, anchoring events may have a highly influential effect on non-family managers. Anchoring events represent a specific type of punctuated equilibrium that circumvents the need for non-reciprocal exchange relationships to develop over time (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). My assumption is that family managers, through existing family exchange norms, enter the business with pre-existing non-reciprocal exchange relationships with the business owners. Non-family managers enter the family business and begin their exchanges with the owners based on norms of reciprocity, continue to use these norms until non-reciprocal relationships develop at some future point, unless an anchoring event occurs between the non-family manager and a member of the owning family, resulting in sudden, durable, and long lasting non-reciprocal relationships between the two individuals.

Unlike with family managers, to improve the internal socialization quality and experience the non-family managers benefits with higher intentions to stay, owning families may have to pay particular attention to the latter's perception of their innate needs fulfillment on an ongoing basis, including the durability of these perceptions. In so doing, family businesses might be able to overcome the inherent difference between family and non-family managers' intention to stay. Accordingly:

H6: The effects of fostering self-determined motivation and anchoring events will be stronger for non-family managers.

Moderating Variable Analysis and Results

To test for the moderating effect of family status, I continued with an OLS regression approach and returned to the data. Once in the data, I created two new data sets in SPSS. One data set that contained only family managers (n=119) and one that contained only non-family managers (n=261). To identify the family and non-family managers, I relied on the family membership status variable, the variable used in my original hypothesis tests of the full data set. With the two data sets created, I used SPSS to re-run the models I used in testing hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 in the full data set. Re-testing hypothesis one was not necessary for these two data sets. Based on the ANOVA F-scores, each of the models was positively ($p \leq 0.001$) related to changes in intention to stay for both family and non-family managers.

Comparing across the two sets of output (Table a5.1 & a5.2), I noticed the first difference with internal socialization. As predicted, internal socialization had a statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) positive effect on intention to stay. Any increase in internal socialization leads to an increase in the manager's intention to stay, but only for the non-family manager. Similar to my full data set test of hypothesis two, professional training and the combination of professional training and internal socialization again showed a statistically insignificant effect on intention to stay for both the family and non-family manager. When comparing the results of the tests for hypothesis three, the effect of fostering of self-determined motivation, between family and non-family managers samples, the positive effect of fostering self-determined motivation was stronger for non-family

managers ($p \leq 0.001$ versus $p \leq 0.01$). Much like the tests of hypothesis four in the full model, positive anchoring events were non-significant and negative anchoring events were significant and negatively-related to intention to stay for both types of managers. The effect was less strong for family managers ($p \leq 0.10$) than non-family managers ($p \leq 0.001$). The results suggest that there are differences in how owning families can, through their behaviours and actions, affect non-family managers' intention to stay relative to family managers.

The adjusted R^2 analysis provides some interesting insights. Compared to the family manager the adjusted R^2 is always significantly higher. At best, in Model 5, only 31% of the family managers' intention to stay is explained by the collected variables. This result is much less than the full sample was and even less than it was for non-family managers. When the sample is the 260 non-family managers the adjusted R^2 is 58%, a result that is higher than the adjusted R^2 results for the combined sample. This suggests the focal independent variables have stronger effects on non-family manager intention to stay than they do on family managers.

---Insert Table a4.1 & a4.2 about here---

Beyond the obvious differences in the adjusted R^2 between the family and non-family sample, there is another difference between the samples and their results – the variance inflation factor (VIF) results for the satisfaction scale and job performance in the two samples. VIF is a convenient measure that indicates how much the variance has been inflated by a lack of independence between the variables (O'Brien, 2007). When the VIF is high, the concern becomes the possibility that parameter estimates will be implausible, be

of the incorrect sign, and that small changes in the data can cause dramatic changes in parameter estimates (Belsley, Kuh, & Welsch, 1980; Greene, 1993; O'Brien, 2007). In the family sample, the VIF for job performance ranges between 1.65 and 1.87 and for the satisfaction scale the range is 1.19 to 1.36. However, when the models were checked for multicollinearity in the non-family sample they produced very different VIF scores. In the non-family sample, the VIF for job performance ranged between 30.54 and 40.00. For the satisfaction scale, it was 28.99 to 36.81.

This is an extreme result that indicates overloading between job performance and the satisfaction scale. The typical responses to high VIF scores are to eliminate one or more variables or combine variables into a new score (O'Brien, 2007). However, these corrective measures did not make sense in my case. One reason is that the threat of multicollinearity appears only in the non-family sample. Removing explanatory variables that proved to be significant in the other samples did not make sense logically, nor did combining job performance with the satisfaction scale. Adding job performance to the satisfaction scale does not fit with the theoretical rationale behind the satisfaction scale. Job performance, as constructed in the survey, is not reflective of the managers' satisfaction at work and, therefore, does not fit with a measurement constructed to reflect manager satisfaction^{vii}. As further checks on the collinearity of the involved variables, I verified the VIF scores in regressions run on the non-family sample that had job satisfaction, job involvement, and income satisfaction as separate variables. In these regressions, the VIF was never above 1.64. I also double-checked the correlation matrix of the non-family sample for job performance, job satisfaction, job involvement, and income satisfaction. Here again, multicollinearity concerns were not signalled. The Pearson correlation between

job performance and the three other variables ranged from a marginally significant 0.08 ($p \leq 0.10$) to highly significant 0.32 ($p \leq 0.001$). Thus, I followed the advice of O'Brien (2007) who suggests that interpretations of VIF scores can sometimes be used to question results "that are quite solid on statistical grounds" (p. 673). Instead of dismissing the results in the non-family sample, because of impossibly high VIF scores, I chose an alternative conclusion – because VIF was not a concern in the family sample, but was in the non-family one, there must be significant differences between the family and non-family sample that I may not have theorized, in that variables load differently between the samples.

---Insert Table a4.3 about here---

As the models in Table a5.3 indicate, the patterns of statistical significance from the tests of H1- H4 are repeated when the interaction between family status and the focal independent variables are included. Fostering of self-determined motivation and negative anchoring events, when interacting with family status, continue to show a statistically significant, although weaker, effect on manager intention to stay. Family status interacting with internal socialization has a marginal ($p \leq 0.10$), when interacting with fostering of self-determined motivation the effect is weak ($p \leq 0.05$), and for the interaction with negative anchoring events the effect is strong ($p \leq 0.01$).

Beyond the statistical significance of the family status interaction variables, I made another interesting find. In the main effects of Model 2, internal socialization is shown not to have a significant effect on intention to stay, but professional training now has a marginally significant effect ($p \leq 0.10$). This is interesting, because, until this point in the project, professional training has not had a significant effect on intention to stay.

Interestingly, when family status interacts with professional training, the variable is insignificant.

The direction of the effect is also an insightful part of the analysis. For all cases of statistical significance the effect of the family status interaction variable on intention to stay was positive. This is notable for two reasons, first because family status was setup as a dummy variable (family status = 1 and non-family status = 0) and there are implied implications from the direction of the coefficient. Second, when the interaction is with negative anchoring events, the effect is positive instead of negative, which negative anchors had in all the previous regression models.

Because family status was set up as a dummy variable, I can draw conclusions about whether there are differences between how the variables affect family and non-family manager intention to stay. To do this, I compared the main effect with the interaction effect. What the comparison shows, because both the main and interaction effect is positive, for internal socialization and fostering self-determined motivation, is that their affect on intention to stay is stronger for family managers than non-family managers. However, because of how family status was coded and the main effect of negative anchoring events is negative and the interaction effect is positive, the effect of negative anchoring events on intention to stay is stronger for non-family managers than it is for family managers. This outcome provides mixed support for my fifth hypothesis.

To summarize, I hypothesised that the effects of fostering self-determined motivation and anchoring events will be stronger for non-family managers. This was supported in the comparison of the family and non-family samples' coefficients of

determination. However, in the more precise analysis, which included the interaction of family status with fostering self-determined motivation and anchoring events, the hypothesis is only partially supported, when the effect of negative anchors is greater for non-family managers than for family managers.

Table a4.1: Family Manager Hypothesis 2, 3, 4 Test Results, Intention to Stay

	Model 1	Model 2: H2	Model 3: H2	Model 4: H3	Full Model
Control variables					
Owning Family commitment	0.167	0.165*	0.082	0.137†	0.069
Ownership generation	0.049	0.046	0.058	0.016	0.028
Founder effect	0.059	0.024	0.034	0.041	-0.006
Company size	0.041	0.042	0.054	-0.008	0.023
Company age	0.129	0.051	0.137†	0.163†	0.104
Industry	0.198	0.193*	0.183*	0.209**	0.189*
Company's relative performance	0.100	0.105	0.085	0.132†	0.117
Company's Perceived survivability	0.296	0.285**	0.234**	0.265**	0.211*
Share program	0.024	0.050	0.014	0.000	0.026
Incentive program	0.014	0.011	0.020	0.003	0.013
Manager age	-0.145	-0.138†	-0.140†	-0.139†	-0.133†
Manager sex	0.056	0.043	0.035	0.043	0.011
Job alternatives	0.052	0.069	0.043	0.049	0.046
Job performance	-0.041	-0.052	-0.126	-0.024	-0.110
Satisfaction Scale	0.294***	0.288***	0.232**	0.299***	0.238**
Independent Variables					
Internal Socialization		0.112			0.079
Professional training		-0.059			-0.080
Internal soc X prof training		0.005			-0.012
Fostering self-determined motivation			0.312**		0.275**
Positive anchoring event				0.129	0.100
Negative anchoring event				-0.179*	-0.141†
F score	3.396***	2.834***	4.005***	3.515***	3.317***
R ²	0.354	0.362	0.411	0.396	0.445
Adjusted R ²	0.250	0.234	0.308	0.284	0.311
n	109	109	109	109	109

Note: † p ≤ 0.10, *p ≤ 0.05, ** p ≤ 0.01, ***p ≤ .001 (one tailed test for all independent variables)

Table a4.2: Non-Family Manager Hypothesis 2, 3, 4 Test Results, Intention to Stay

	Model 1	Model 2: H2	Model 3: H2	Model 4: H3	Full Model
Control variables					
Owning Family commitment	0.045	0.045	0.005	0.025	-0.007
Ownership generation	0.088*	0.092*	0.091*	0.080†	0.090*
Founder effect	-0.019	-0.013	-0.012	-0.013	-0.002
Company size	0.114**	0.113**	0.122**	0.092*	0.097*
Company age	-0.099*	-0.134**	-0.085†	-0.083†	-0.103*
Industry	-0.094*	-0.087*	-0.100*	-0.095*	-0.094*
Company's relative performance	0.023	0.016	0.013	0.029	0.014
Company's Perceived survivability	0.231***	0.229***	0.209***	0.207***	0.187***
Share program	0.027	0.033	0.020	0.014	0.014
Incentive program	0.050	0.053	0.044	0.051	0.046
Manager age	-0.008	-0.005	0.002	0.002	0.006
Manager sex	-0.039	-0.032	-0.030	-0.030	-0.015
Job alternatives	-0.072†	-0.063†	-0.088*	-0.056	-0.062†
Job performance	2.454***	2.402***	2.104***	2.205***	1.879***
Satisfaction Scale	-2.373***	-2.333***	-2.074***	-2.107***	-1.834***
Independent Variables					
Internal Socialization		0.102*			0.088*
Professional training		0.022			0.034
Internal soc X prof training		-0.016			-0.029
Fostering self-determined motivation			0.184***		0.155**
Positive anchoring event				0.037	0.047
Negative anchoring event				-0.187***	-0.170***
F score	21.105***	17.889***	21.082***	20.577***	17.789***
R ²	0.564	0.572	0.580	0.590	0.611
Adjusted R ²	0.537	0.540	0.553	0.561	0.576
n	261	260	261	261	260

Note: † $p \leq 0.10$, * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq .001$ (one tailed test for all independent variables)

Table a4.3: Family/Non-Family Hypothesis 2, 3, 4 Test Results, Intention to Stay

	Model 2: H2	Model 3: H2	Model 4: H3	Full Model
Control variables				
Owning Family commitment	0.190***	0.049	0.118**	0.068†
Ownership generation	0.110*	0.071†	0.041	0.090*
Founder effect	-0.009	-0.005	-0.004	-0.002
Company size	0.111*	0.114**	0.030	0.095*
Company age	-0.131*	-0.018	-0.030	-0.074†
Industry	-0.005	-0.023	-0.014	-0.009
Company's relative performance	0.076†	0.101*	0.149***	0.036
Company's Perceived survivability	0.371***	0.267***	0.281***	0.261***
Share program	0.043	0.019	0.039	0.018
Incentive program	0.032	0.042	0.044	0.028
Manager age	-0.064†	-0.055†	-0.063*	-0.048
Manager sex	0.000	0.017	0.014	-0.009
Job alternatives	-0.034	-0.075*	-0.046	-0.034
Job performance	0.009	-0.067†	0.059	-0.043
Satisfaction Scale	0.109**	0.114***	0.114**	0.084*
Independent Variables				
Internal socialization	0.005			0.021
Professional training	-0.114†			-0.027
Internal soc X prof training	0.088			0.025
Fostering self-determined motivation		0.366***		0.296***
Positive anchoring event			0.044	0.063
Negative anchoring event			-0.327***	-0.255***
Socialization X Family status	0.116†			0.067
Professional training X Family status	0.066			-0.115
Int Soc, Pro train interaction X Fam status	-0.044			0.042
Fostering self-det motivation X Fam status		0.105*		0.100
Pos anchoring event X Family status			0.025	0.008
Neg anchoring event X Family status			0.119***	0.069†
F score	8.885***	15.628***	12.442***	11.205***
R ²	0.376	0.430	0.403	0.500
Adjusted R ²	0.334	0.403	0.371	0.455
n	369	370	370	369

Note: † p ≤ 0.10, * p ≤ 0.05, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ .001 (one tailed test for all independent variables)

APPENDIX 5: INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

Manager Interview

Outline of Interview Schedule

The interviews themselves will be loosely structured. The sessions will be based around the four issues listed below but informants will be given the freedom to express their feelings and perceptions of their work.

General Outline of Interview Order

1. Details about the participant:

- Their position at the company,
- Tenure at the company,
- If they moved through the ranks there or at other companies,
- Where & what position-related technical training

"Now that I have a sense of you can you tell me about the company more broadly?"

2. Details about the business:

- How many people do you supervise, who do you report to, is this person an owner
- Do you have much contact/interactions with the owners, are they a family,
- Are you a member of the family

"Now let's get to the heart of why I asked to interview you. When I worked in small businesses, the way I was treated on the job made a big difference to me."

3. Perceptions about their job:

- Do you like it here, would you recommend that others apply for a position here
- Why do you like it/not like it here, reasons for your attitudes
- Probing questions around their perceptions of having their needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competency met
 - i. Here I need to ask what autonomy, relatedness, and competence means for them
 - 1. Use one or two of the survey questions to ask about how they are made to feel the 3 needs met.
- Probing questions about the existence and strength of anchoring events

- i. "Can you remember an event between you and a family member where the outcome..."
 - ii. Tell me more about it, how did it change your interactions with the family and feelings about working for their company?
4. Intention to stay (can ask "scale of 10" questions)
 - Commitment,
 - Org & Family Identification

Owner Interview

Outline of Interview Schedule

The interviews themselves will be loosely structured. The sessions will be based around the four issues listed below but informants will be given the freedom to express their feelings and perceptions of their work.

General Outline of Interview Order

1. Details about the participant:
 - Their position at the company,
 - Their story at the company, tenure at the company, their career path
 - Their ownership story

"Now that I have a sense of you can you tell me about the company more broadly?"

2. Details about the business:
 - This history of the business
 - i. Who founded it
 - ii. Why a dealership
 - iii. Nature of the family's involvement over the years, did siblings, cousins, uncle participate in the business – and today
 - The dealership's organizational structure,
 - i. Org. chart
 - ii. What divisions
 - iii. Number of people
 - Philosophy toward employees, do you have any specific programs and plans about non-family managers
 - i. Probe on the 3 need fulfillment, how they think they are filling, if they try to fulfill them

ii. Do they try to create anchors, meaningful events for the managers

- Company performance- the health of the company (lets the owner speak about performance how they want to)

3. If there is time...

- Challenges of the industry
- Opportunities of the industry
- What is fun, invigorating about being in the business