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Entrepreneurial orientation, concern for socioemotional wealth preservation, and family firm performance

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores whether concern for socioemotional wealth enhances or undermines the positive effect of entrepreneurial orientation on family firm performance. Two analysis techniques were used: second-generation structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) and fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis (fsQCA). These techniques were applied to data on 106 Spanish family firms. Results of both analyses are similar, lending validity and robustness to the proposed research model. Specifically, the results indicate that 1) entrepreneurial orientation positively influences family firm performance, 2) concern for socioemotional wealth preservation positively influences both entrepreneurial orientation and family firm performance, and 3) concern for socioemotional wealth preservation positively moderates the influence of entrepreneurial orientation on family firm performance.

1. Introduction

Family firms are the most common type of company worldwide, as reported by numerous authors (e.g., Gedajlovic, Carney, Chrisman, & Kellermanns, 2012; Gómez-Mejía, Haynes, Nunez-Nickel, Jacobson, & Moyano-Fuentes, 2007; Masulis, Pham, & Zein, 2011; Poza & Daugherty, 2013). In many economies, growth, well-being (Astrachan & Shanker, 2003), wealth, and even employment (Chang, Memili, Chrisman, Kellermanns, & Chua, 2009; Fan, Wei, & Xu, 2011; Matthews, Hechavarria, & Schenkel, 2012) are driven by family firms. The well-recognized importance of family firms in a wide range of economies has led researchers to increase their efforts to study how such organizations operate and what drives their performance (Chrisman, Kellermanns, Chan, & Liano, 2010; Sharma, Chrisman, & Gersick, 2012).

Among the most widely studied and generally acknowledged determinants of firm performance, including that of family firms, is entrepreneurial orientation. In recent decades, entrepreneurial orientation has become a focus of the business management literature (Lomberg, Urbig, Stöckmann, Marino, & Dickson, 2017), leading to the development of this concept (Hernández-Perlines, 2018; Rigtering, Eggers, Kraus, & Chang, 2017). Underlying the analysis of the entrepreneurial orientation is the way in which new business opportunities are exploited by firms. Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is an attribute of firms that reflects what it means to "be entrepreneurial" in an operational or practical sense (Covin & Wales, 2019). Firms are most commonly conceived of as having EO when they exhibit behaviors reflecting risk taking, innovativeness, and proactiveness (Miller, 1983). However, they also have EO if they are proactive and innovative (Merz & Sauber, 1995). Additional factors sometimes identified as indicative of EO include competitive aggressiveness and autonomy (see Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). This study draws on research by Lomberg et al. (2017), who argue that the characteristics that best define EO are innovation, proactivity and risk taking. Several *meta*-analyses (e.g., Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin, & Frese, 2009; Markin, Gupta, Pierce, & Covin, 2018) have shown that EO generally has a positive impact on firm performance. Notably, research in the family firm context (e.g., Chirico, Sirmon, Sciascia, & Mazzola, 2011; Barroso Martínez, Sanguino Galván, & Bañegil Palacios, 2016) has largely corroborated this finding. However, many questions remain unanswered (Moreno & Casillas, 2008).

The effect of EO on company performance is not always simple or direct (Hernández-Perlines, Moreno-García, & Yáñez-Araque, 2017). Some authors, such as Covin and Miller (2014) and Wales, Monsen, and McKelvie (2011), have advocated further analysis of how EO affects performance, focusing on factors that could influence this process

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(Covin, Green, & Slevin, 2006; Lyon, Lumpkin, & Dess, 2000). Studies suggest that EO is likely to drive firm performance most strongly and positively when enacted in particular "congenial" environmental and organizational contexts. That is, both external and internal conditions can enhance or diminish the effect of EO on firm performance. The effects of external, environmental factors on the EO-performance relationship are, for the most part, well understood and no longer represent cases of low-hanging fruit in EO research (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011). For example, research has explored the influence of the environment (Francis & Collins-Dodd, 2000; Zahra & Garvis, 2000), the market or industry (Lohrke, Franklin, & Kothari, 2015), technology (Knight, 2000), and the country context (Basco, Hernández-Perlines, & Rodríguez-García, 2020). In contrast, the effects of internal factors (e.g., organizational structures, processes, cultures, resources, and managerial styles) on the EO-performance relationship are relatively understudied and represent fertile ground for EO research. Consideration of such internal factors can provide insight into how EO might best be managed in pursuit of superior firm performance. Indeed, research on internal factors whose alignment with EO might influence firm performance has garnered major research attention in recent years (Wales, Gupta, & Mousa, 2013).

Analysis of EO is important for companies in general and, by extension, for family businesses too (Hernández-Linares, Kellermanns, López-Fernández, & Sarkar, 2019). Combining EO and family business reveals a key internal factor: socioemotional wealth. This factor is one of the distinctive elements of family businesses (Holt, Pearson, Payne, & Sharma, 2018) and has been so important that authors such as Brigham and Payne (2019) and Swab, Sherlock, Markin, and Dibrell (2020) have gone as far as to state that the development of research on family businesses is due to the introduction of socioemotional wealth. A key factor is concern for socioemotional wealth preservation in family firms. Socioemotional wealth (hereafter SEW) was defined by Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007, p. 106) as the "non-financial aspects of the firm that meet the family's affective needs, such as identity, the ability to exercise family influence and the perpetuation of the family dynasty." Berrone, Cruz, and Gómez-Mejía (2012) identified five dimensions of SEW: family control and influence, identification of family members with the firm, binding social ties, emotional attachment of family members, and renewal of family bonds to the firm through dynastic succession. These authors argue that "SEW is the single most important feature of a family firm's essence that separates it from other organizational forms" (p. 260). Crucially, concern for SEW preservation has been found to have a positive effect on family firm performance (Alonso-Dos-Santos & Llanos-Contreras, 2019).

Given the well-acknowledged salience of SEW in family firm identity and the broader construct of "familiness" (Barros, Hernangómez, & Martin-Cruz, 2017), it is perhaps unsurprising that research has begun to explore the relationship between SEW and EO (Hernández-Perlines, Moreno-García, & Yáñez-Araque, 2019) as well as the effects of SEW on the EO-performance relationship in family firms (e.g., Hernández-Linares et al., 2019; Kallmuenzer, Strobl, & Peters, 2018; Schepers, Voordeckers, Steijvers, & Laveren, 2014). To date, results have been ambiguous and noncumulative.

The current study advances knowledge of how EO affects performance among family firms that vary in their level of concern for SEW wealth preservation. We employ a unidimensional operationalization of the EO construct, similar to that used by Schepers et al. (2014). However, unlike Schepers et al. (2014), we theorize and, using a sample of 106 Spanish family firms, show that SEW positively moderates the EO-performance relationship. Notably, Schepers et al. (2014) describe concern for SEW preservation as having a "price tag" (p. 44), which precludes family firms from realizing the full benefit of acting entrepreneurially (i.e., displaying a high level of EO). We argue that while certain compromises and inefficiencies may result when family firms demonstrate high concern for SEW preservation, actions based on this concern might also enable family firms to extract value from EO more fully. In short, we posit that while concern for SEW preservation carries a price tag, it may nonetheless lead to actions and policies that enable family firms to achieve high performance when exhibiting high EO levels.

This research makes two principal contributions to the literature. First, we contribute to developing an understanding of how and why concern for SEW wealth preservation matters in family firms. We thus respond to the call by Brigham and Payne (2019) to advance the analysis of SEW to verify its influence on various aspects of the family business (Chua, Chrisman, & De Massis, 2015; Newbert & Craig, 2017). We undertake this task by recognizing not only the independent effect of this variable on family firm performance but also the reality that concern for SEW presentation is necessarily expressed within larger contexts of strategic posture. Crucially, showing such concern affects the performance of family firms that adopt one of the most commonly recognized and advocated strategic postures, namely EO. This approach is consistent with that of authors such as Chirico et al. (2011) and Llanos-Contreras, Jabri, and Sharma (2019), who argue that SEW can strengthen the influence of EO on the performance of family businesses as a result of a better understanding of the process that causes this influence. Second, we offer a more holistic view of concern for SEW preservation as a phenomenon. Many authors have analyzed the differences between family and non-family businesses (Chua, Chrisman, Steier, & Rau, 2012), although there is a growing body of research that seeks to verify the heterogeneity within family businesses. Authors such as Odom, Chang, Chrisman, Sharma, and Steier (2019), Fang, Kellermanns, and Eddleston (2019), and Swab et al. (2020) state that SEW is the key factor in the heterogeneity of family businesses and therefore a distinguishing element of this type of firm. This concern should not simply be understood from a constraint or loss perspective but should also be considered from a strategic asset perspective. Family firms often make suboptimal decisions and engage in questionable actions due, for example, to family social obligations. Therefore, concern for SEW preservation is not always without cost. Nonetheless, there are benefits to this concern. We argue that these benefits enable high-EO firms to appropriate the greatest value from their entrepreneurial actions. In a recent literature review, Swab et al. (2020) concluded that SEW may have different dimensions and that not all of them must coexist and have the same effect. In our research, we found that the five dimensions of the model proposed by Berrone et al. (2012) coexist and have positive valences, although their effect on family firm performance varies.

The following section presents the theoretical background of our research, further explaining the concepts of EO and concern for SEW preservation. Our research expectations and model are then proposed in the Hypotheses section. Following this, the sample, data collection, measures, and analytical techniques are presented in the Methods section. The Results section details the findings of our research, along with the analytical techniques used to reveal them. Finally, a Discussion and Conclusions section presents the research implications, limitations, and opportunities for future research.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. The concept of the family firm

Great diversity exists in how family firms are defined (Chua et al., 2012; Corbetta & Salvato, 2004). A review of the literature reveals three groups of definitions. The definitions in the first group are based on family involvement in both the ownership and management of the family business (Chua, Chrisman, & Sharma, 1999; Litz, 2004; Tatoglu, Kula, & Glaister, 2008). The definitions in the second group are based on the "essence" of the family firm (Chrisman, Chua, & Sharma, 2005; Habbershon, Williams, & MacMillan, 2003). Finally, the definitions in the third group are based on the dimensions through which families influence firms (Astrachan, Klein, & Smyrnios, 2002; Holt, Rutherford, & Kuratko, 2010; Kellermanns, Eddleston, & Zellweger, 2012).

Based on the recommendations of Miller, Le Breton-Miller, and Scholnick (2008), for the purposes of this study, we define family firms using a combination of the definition based on family involvement and the definition based on the essence of the family firm. The definition of a family business used in this paper combines both quantitative and qualitative aspects. The quantitative aspects allow us to operationalize the definition of a family business. The definition of a family business offered by the Spanish Institute of Family Businesses is based on the definition of a family business given by the European Group of Family Businesses (GEEF) and the Board of the Family Business Network (FBN; for a discussion of the concept of the family business, see Corona & Del Sol, 2016, pp. 23–24). In addition to the aforementioned quantitative criteria, to be recognized as a family firm by the Spanish Institute of Family Businesses, there must be an express, joint desire of the founders and successors to keep control of ownership, governance, and management of the company in the hands of the family.

2.2. Entrepreneurial orientation

A review of the recent business management literature shows that EO is one of the most relevant research topics (Cavusgil & Knight, 2015; Wales et al., 2013; Basco et al., 2020). EO is one of the most consolidated topics in business management (Lomberg et al., 2017), as reflected by the number of studies that have focused on this area (Covin & Miller, 2014; Covin & Slevin, 1989; Hernández-Perlines, 2018; Kropp, Lindsay, & Shoham, 2006; Rigtering et al., 2017). EO has been defined in terms of innovation and proactivity (Merz & Sauber, 1995). In another stream of research, EO is defined in terms of innovation, proactivity, and risk taking. The earliest references to EO are attributed to Miller (1983), who described this phenomenon as business behavior characterized by innovation, proactiveness, and risk taking. More specifically, Miller (1983, p. 771) asserted that "[a]n entrepreneurial firm is one that engages in product-market innovation, undertakes somewhat risky ventures, and is first to come up with 'proactive' innovations, beating competitors to the punch." From this perspective, EO can be considered the strategic posture that enables firms to launch new market offerings, take risks as a result of trying new products, services, or markets, and be more proactive than rivals (Covin & Slevin, 1989, 1991; Miller, 1983; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005). Additional factors sometimes identified as indicative of EO include competitive aggressiveness and autonomy (see Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). We agree with Lomberg et al. (2017) and Basco et al. (2020) that innovation, proactivity, and ownership are the elements that best define EO. Innovation is the tendency to support new ideas, experimentation, and the use of creative processes (Chandra, Styles, & Wilkinson, 2009; Kropp et al., 2006; Miller & Friesen, 1983; Covin, Eggers, Kraus, Cheng, & Chang, 2016). Proactivity is about anticipating future market desires and needs by introducing new products and services before competitors (Rauch et al., 2009; Anderson, Kreiser, Kuratko, Hornsby, & Eshima, 2015; Filser, Eggers, Kraus, & Málovic, 2014). Proactivity allows a company to a gain first-mover advantage by being a pioneer (Covin & Slevin, 1989; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Rigtering et al., 2017). Finally, risk taking means that the company takes bold steps that involve substantial resources without any certainty of potential benefits (Kraus, Rigtering, Hughes, & Hosman, 2012; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Rigtering et al., 2017). EO is commonly operationalized as a second-order type b multidimensional composite (see Covin & Wales, 2012; Hansen, Deitz, Tokman, Marino, & Weaver, 2011; Hernández-Perlines, 2018; Rauch et al., 2009).

An alternative EO construct has also been proposed and is widely recognized in the academic literature. This five-dimensional construct was introduced by Lumpkin and Dess (1996). Here, EO "refers to the processes, practices, and decision-making activities that lead to new entry," and the dimensions of EO are risk taking, innovativeness, proactiveness, autonomy, and competitive aggressiveness (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996, p. 136). Thus, Lumpkin and Dess add autonomy and competitive aggressiveness to the list of EO dimensions initially proposed by Miller (1983). A key distinction of these two alternative conceptualizations of EO is that Miller's proposed conceptualization focuses on the idea that EO is represented by the shared variance of innovativeness, proactiveness, and risk taking. By contrast, EO as conceptualized by Lumpkin and Dess (1996) is a profile construct represented by the patterns through which the five dimensions coexist in practice (for a full description of the conceptual differences between the two EO constructs, see Covin & Wales, 2019). Crucially, these two conceptualizations of EO are not competing per se, and neither is better than the other. They are simply distinct constructs (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011). The current study focuses on EO as an overall composite construct consistent with Miller (1983) and Covin and Slevin (1989). According to Basco et al. (2020), EO captures the behavior of the company through innovation, proactivity, and risk taking. While EO can be measured in different ways (Lomberg et al., 2017), in this paper we consider EO to be a higher-order multidimensional composite consisting of innovation, proactivity, and risk taking (Covin & Wales, 2012; Hernández-Perlines et al., 2019). This way of measuring EO enables analysis of the direct effects of this composite on business performance, as well as the indirect effects of each of its components (innovation, proactivity, and risk taking) on this performance (Hernández-Perlines, Moreno-García, & Yañez-Araque, 2016).

2.3. Socioemotional wealth

Family firms pursue a combination of both business and family goals (Mahto, Davis, Pearce, & Robinson, 2010), which usually overlap (Gómez-Mejía, Cruz, Berrone, & De Castro, 2011; Klein, Astrachan, & Smyrnios, 2005). Vandekerkhof, Steijvers, Hendriks, and Voordeckers (2015) and Martínez-Romero and Rojo-Ramírez (2017) are among the scholars who have reported that family goals influence business goals. Non-financial goals include SEW, which, as a distinctive feature of family businesses (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2011), has become one of the main points of reference for the management of such firms (Berrone, Cruz, Gómez-Mejía, & Larraza Kintana, 2010; Glover & Reay, 2015). A new research stream has emerged that focuses on family firms' emotional endowment, represented by SEW. The entrepreneurial behavior of the family can be analyzed in terms of socioemotional wealth, which relates to the non-financial rewards that family firm owners derive from their businesses (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007). SEW entails the creation of non-financial utility that benefits the family through the family's investment decisions (Hernández-Perlines et al., 2019; Souder, Zaheer, Sapienza, & Ranucci, 2017). Gómez-Mejía et al. (2011), Alonso-Dos Santos and Llanos-Contreras (2018), and Llanos-Contreras and Jabri (2019) have reported that SEW influences entrepreneurial orientation because, depending on family priorities, families adopt certain philosophies and policies regarding innovation, proactiveness, and the risks they are willing to take. This study examines how concern for SEW preservation moderates the influence of entrepreneurial orientation on family firm performance.

The academic literature provides a lively debate on how to measure SEW. Early studies proxied SEW using family ownership and management (e.g., Berrone et al., 2010; Gómez-Mejía, Makri, & Kintana, 2010; Vandemaele & Vancauteren, 2015; Zellweger, Nason, & Nordqvist, 2012). Other studies have captured the concept of SEW using the strategic orientation of small and medium-sized enterprises (e.g., Goel, Voordeckers, van Gils, & van den Heuvel, 2013; Schepers et al., 2014). Miller and Le Breton-Miller (2005) proposed a four-dimensional model to measure SEW through continuity, control, community, and connections. Berrone et al. (2012) proposed a five-dimensional model to measure SEW, consisting of dimensions representing (1) "the control and influence of family members," (2) "the close identification of family members with the firm," (3) "family firms' social relationships," (4) "the role of emotions in the family business context," and (5) "the intention of handing the business down to future generations" (pp. 262–263). These dimensions are referred to as "FIBER." This measure of SEW was used, for example, by Cennamo, Berrone, Cruz, and Gómez-Mejía (2012) to

study how SEW enables family firms to adopt actions that encourage proactive stakeholder involvement and by Gast et al. (2018) to study how particular combinations of SEW dimensions affect the innovativeness of family firms. The reason for adopting the FIBER model in this paper to measure concern for SEW preservation is its powerful influence on family business research (Brigham & Payne, 2019; Odom et al., 2019), garnering a high number of citations (Swab et al., 2020).

2.4. Firm performance

The study of family firms has experienced huge growth in recent years (Swab et al., 2020), and there is increasing interest in explaining family firm performance (Xi, Kraus, Kellermanns, & Filser, 2015; Kraus, Kallmuenzer, Stieger, Peters, & Calabrò, 2018). Family firms have common characteristics, such as being owner-managed, having ownership concentrated in a family group, and being subject to the influence of the owners on decision making (Molina-Parra, Botero-Botero, & Montoya-Restrepo, 2017). In family firms, three types of objectives converge that affect their competitiveness and even determine their future survival (Molina-Parra et al., 2017). Family business performance depends both on the business behavior itself (Chririco & Nordqvist, 2010; Miller & Le Breton-Miller, 2011; Semrau, Ambos, & Kraus, 2016) and on factors related to the family nature of the business. This family nature is one of the elements that has received most attention in research on family firms (Dyer, 2018). The ownership structure, the role of the family, and so on determine the performance of family firms (Jaskiewicz & Dyer, 2017), reflecting their heterogeneity (Corbetta & Salvato, 2004; Chua et al., 2012).

One of the most widely analyzed aspects in the family business literature is the influence of the participation of the family in the performance of the family firm (De Massis, Kotlar, Wright, & Kellermanns, 2018; Calabrò, Minichilli, Amore, & Brogi, 2018). This topic has been widely analyzed, especially in relation to the percentage of family participation in the capital of the company and the extent of this participation due to holding positions as senior managers of the family business (see Basco, 2013; Gedajlovic et al., 2012; De Massis et al., 2018). Another relevant aspect in the family firm literature is the separation of ownership and management. Here, the objective is to determine whether the concentration of ownership influences family firm performance (González, Guzmán, Pombo, & Trujillo, 2010) as well as family governance (Wagner, Block, Miller, Schwens, & Xi, 2015). Another group of researchers have focused on the analysis of values as key factors in improving competitiveness and survival (De la Garza et al., 2011). Finally, in recent years, research on family firms has focused on SEW as a determinant of performance (Gómez- Mejía et al., 2018; Dyer, 2018). Swab et al. (2020) claim that the extraordinary growth in family firm research is due to the emergence of this concept in the literature, following the work of Gomez-Mejia, Patel, and Zellweger (2018). For Holt et al. (2018), SEW is the element on which differentiation in family firms is based.

At this point, we must specify how to measure family firm performance. Some authors have focused on financial performance, using various financial or accounting indicators, as well as market valuation or economic value (Chrisman, Chua, & Sharma, 2003; Molina-Parra et al., 2017). Family firm studies have also used financial indicators such as firm growth, profitability, and share price to measure performance (Van Praag & Versloot, 2007; Manzano-García & Ayala-Calvo, 2020). However, in recent years, the trend has been to replace this form of measurement by subjective or perception-based measures of the degree of satisfaction with the fulfillment of such financial indicators (Lian & Yen, 2017). This form of performance measurement is central to determining the success of business activity (Manzano-García & Ayala-Calvo, 2020). In this study, we use financial indicators evaluated in terms of satisfaction.

3. Hypotheses

3.1. EO and family firm performance

Dozens of studies have provided evidence of a positive relationship between EO and business performance (e.g., Barringer & Bluedon, 1999; Davis, Greg Bell, Tyge Payne, & Kreiser, 2010; Frank, Kessler, & Fink, 2010; Hernández-Perlines & Mancebo-Lozano, 2016; Miller, 1983; Wiklund, 1999; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005; Zahra & Covin, 1995). This positive relationship has been shown to exist across varying business forms and national contexts (Rauch et al., 2009; Saeed, Yousafzai, & Engelen, 2014), making EO a valuable and generally acknowledged predictor of business success (Kraus et al., 2012). In the cases where a positive relationship between EO and firm performance was not observed, measures of EO other than the commonly employed Miller/Covin and Slevin (see Covin & Wales, 2012) scale were often used (Rauch et al., 2009). Authors such as Naldi, Nordqvist, Sjöberg, and Wiklund (2007), and Zahra (2005) have advocated the use of EO to characterize and analyze entrepreneurship in family firms. Numerous studies have shown that EO positively influences family firm performance (e.g., Barroso Martínez et al., 2016).

Given the consistency of prior findings on EO's relationship with firm performance, including research in the context of family firms (e.g., Chirico et al., 2011; Barroso Martínez et al., 2016), the prior theory is not extensively reviewed in the current study. Instead, we simply note that EO generally succeeds as a positive driver of firm performance because timely acts of product, market, and/or technological new entry enable the creation and capture of value that renews firms and sustains their viability in the face of competitive threats (Covin & Slevin, 1989, 1991; Miller, 1983; Putniņš & Sauka, 2019; Wales, Covin, & Monsen, 2019). We offer the following hypothesis as the baseline for the current study.

Hypothesis 1:. *Entrepreneurial orientation is positively associated with family firm performance.*

3.2. The moderating effect of SEW

Many studies have considered the influence of contingency factors on the EO-firm performance relationship. Research has examined external contingency factors such as environmental hostility, turbulence, and dynamism (Miles, Covin, & Heeley, 2000; Namen & Slevin, 1993; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005), the industry life cycle (Covin & Slevin, 1990; Lumpkin & Dess, 2001), and external networks (Lee, Lee, & Pennings, 2001; Stam & Elfring, 2008). Other studies have considered internal contingency factors such as resource availability (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005), marketing capabilities and strategy formation mode (Covin et al., 2006; García-Villaverde, Ruiz-Ortega, & Canales, 2013), internal social context (De Clercq, Dimov, & Thongpapanl, 2010), and generational involvement (Chirico et al., 2011). In a configurational model, Dess, Lumpkin, and Covin (1997) integrated internal and external moderators.

The current study explores concern for SEW preservation as a likely moderator of the EO-performance relationship. We employed the aforementioned FIBER model to conceptualize SEW. Family control and influence enables family firms to make proactive strategic decisions that are innovative and involve a certain level of risk (Habbershon & Pitsrui, 2002; Kellermanns et al., 2012). Family involvement enhances the positive impact of innovation capability on growth (Casillas & Moreno, 2010) and the promotion of entrepreneurial spirit (Zahra, 2005). Family members tend to engage in entrepreneurial behavior aimed at improving the social status of the family firm (Davis, Pitts, & Cormier, 2000), and the family's identification with the firm improves performance (Anderson & Reeb, 2003; Zellweger & Nason, 2008). Strong links between family members influence the identification of business opportunities (Jack, 2005) and the accumulation of resources (Khayesi,

George, & Antonakis, 2014). Emotions are another distinctive attribute of family firms (Astrachan & Jaskiewicz, 2008; Berrone et al., 2012; Zellweger & Astrachan, 2008) that play a key role in firm behavior (Goss, 2008) because of their impact on decision making (Astrachan & Jaskiewicz, 2008). Baron (2008) reported that affect (feelings and emotions) tends to encourage an increase in creativity and opportunity identification in risky environments. Succession is one of the biggest challenges facing family businesses (Le Breton-Miller, Miller, & Steier, 2004) because successor choice has long-term implications (Miller & Le Breton-Miller, 2005; Miller et al., 2008). Scholars such as Eddleston, Kellermanns, and Zellweger (2012) have shown that long-term orientation is positively related to entrepreneurial spirit. Delmas and Gergaud (2014) reported that family businesses with transgenerational intention tend to adopt innovative practices, thereby enhancing entrepreneurship (Zahra, Hayton, & Salvato, 2004). In short, key governance decisions in family businesses, including those pertaining to EO, are interrelated with a concern for SEW preservation (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2018).

Research is beginning to uncover linkages between EO, concern for SEW preservation, and family firm performance. However, due to the use of different samples, measures, and analytical techniques, research results have yet to reveal a consistent pattern in the reported findings. Moreover, there are plausible alternative expectations to those offered in the current study on how EO, concern for SEW preservation, and family firm performance are interrelated.

Several prior studies are most strongly associated with the current study. With respect to the relationship between EO and concern for SEW preservation (i.e., excluding the consideration of firm performance for now), results from the recent study by Hernández-Perlines et al. (2019) of family firms in Spain indicate that each of the five dimensions of the FIBER model of concern for SEW preservation is positively associated with EO. Moreover, these five SEW dimensions collectively explain 32.6% of the variance in EO. Findings regarding the moderating effect of SEW on the EO-family firm performance relationship are less conclusive.

Specifically, in a study of 297 Spanish family firms and 312 Portuguese family firms, Hernández-Linares et al. (2019) found that the influence of SEW on the EO-performance relationship could be either positive or negative depending on the dimension of EO. Similarly, in a study of 180 Austrian family firms, Kallmuenzer et al. (2018) reported that the risk taking dimension of EO was negatively moderated by a firm's emphasis on "family-related goals" (assessed using shortened measures of scales suggested in the FIBER model) but that such goals had no significant influence on the relationships between the other EO dimensions and family firm performance. In a study of 232 Belgian family firms, Schepers et al. (2014) found that the positive effect of EO on firm performance declined as the level of SEW increased among the majority of the firms in the sample.

Notably, different EO constructs were used in the aforementioned studies, with Schepers et al. (2014) employing the unidimensional operationalization of EO most commonly associated with the work of Miller (1983) and Covin and Slevin (1989). By contrast, Hernández-Linares et al. (2019) and Kallmuenzer et al. (2018) employed the multidimensional operationalization of EO most commonly associated with the work of Lumpkin and Dess (1996). Both constructs are theoretically justifiable ways of conceptualizing EO (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011; Covin & Wales, 2012, 2019). Nonetheless, the two EO constructs of interest in these three studies are, in fact, different constructs, which renders these studies noncomparable. Of the three aforementioned studies, the Schepers et al. (2014) study is most relevant to the current study because this study and theirs both employed the Miller/Covin and Slevin operationalization of EO. In this operationalization, EO is treated as a single construct and is not segmented into multiple dimensions.

The key theoretical premise of the Schepers et al. (2014) study is that concern for SEW preservations often results in suboptimal decisions that jeopardize a family firm's ability to extract full value from its entrepreneurial actions. That is, concern for SEW preservation comes at a cost, such as prioritizing emotions and social/family relationships over actions that maximize returns on investment in EO. For example, family firms where there is great concern for SEW preservation may exhibit high levels of EO, as demonstrated by Hernández-Perlines et al. (2019). However, the entrepreneurial initiatives that are funded more likely reflect family biases and preferences rather that the results of objective market analysis. In other words, Schepers et al. (2014) offer some support for the argument that family firms with a high concern for SEW wealth preservation may embrace EO, but that EO will not necessarily be expressed in manners most conducive to the long-term financial health of the firm.

The support (as revealed in a subset of the research sample) for the aforementioned premise of Schepers et al. (2014) is important. Still, we argue that countervailing influences may enhance the positive effect of EO on family firm performance in the presence of high concern for SEW preservation. In particular, research suggests that managers with strong personal and emotional ties to an organization, such as firm founders and family members who manage family firms, are less likely to engage in actions reflecting short-term thinking or other forms of managerial myopia. Instead, such individuals typically prefer actions and policies reflecting their concern for good organizational stewardship (see, for example, Le Breton-Miller, Miller, & Lester, 2011; Schuster, Nicolai, & Covin, 2019). This situation arises because the sustained viability of the firm is often a matter of priority and personal pride for such individuals (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2011). Under such circumstances, when the firm exhibits high EO levels the entrepreneurial actions undertaken are likely to have been carefully considered. As suggested by the attention-based view of the firm (Ocasio, 1997; Ocasio & Joseph, 2005), when firm priorities are aligned with managerial attention, the outcomes are often more positive. Innovations will have been carefully researched, risks will have been carefully assessed, and the consequences of proactive behaviors will have been carefully considered. In short, the EO exhibited in family firms where there is greater concern for socioemotional wealth are more likely to reflect conscious and careful consideration, the result being greater returns on EO. Consistent with this logic, the second hypothesis may be stated.

Hypothesis 2:. *Concern for socioemotional wealth preservation positively moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and family firm performance. More specifically, the entrepreneurial orientation-firm performance relationship is more positive among family firms with high levels of concern for socioemotional wealth preservation than among family firms with low levels of concern for SEW preservation.*

Fig. 1 shows the research model, which depicts the hypotheses tested in this study.

4. Method

4.1. Sample and data collection

Data for this research were collected from a sample of family firms in Spain. Corona and Del Sol (2016) showed that family firms account for 89% of companies, 57% of gross domestic product (GDP), and 67% of private-sector employment in Spain. Accordingly, the selected national context is one in which the matters addressed in this research are particularly salient. The Spanish Family Firm Institute is a statewide business organization that covers the main family businesses in Spain. The companies associated with the Institute generate 27.5% of Spain's GDP and employ 1,250,000 people. Many of the companies associated with the Institute are leaders in their sectors. The data were gathered using a questionnaire emailed via Limesurvey v. 2.5 to the top company executives of a sample of firms taken from the Spanish Family Firm Institute. The questionnaire consisted of 7-point Likert items. The sample comprised 1,045 businesses. We obtained 106 responses, providing a response rate of 10.14%. The data were collected between April and June 2017. Table 1 gives details of the sample and data collection procedure.

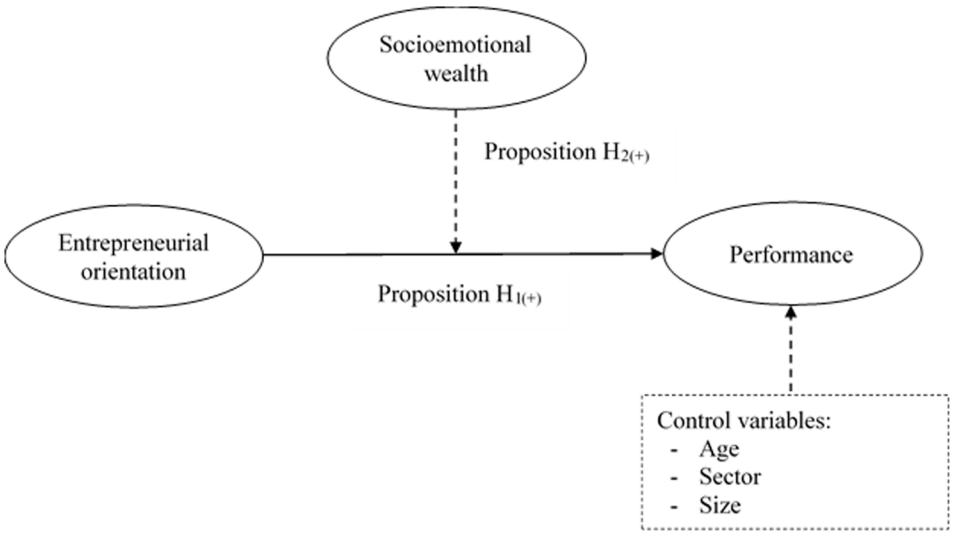

Fig. 1. Proposed research model.

Table 1
Details of the sample and data collection.

Property	Value
Sample size	1,045
Context	Spain
Responses received	106
Sampling method	Simple random
Confidence level	95%, p = p = 50%; α = 0.05
Response rate	10.14%
Sample error	9.03%
Data collection period	April to June 2017

We assessed the statistical power of the sample using Cohen (1992) test. We used G * Power 3.1.9.2 software to do so (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). The sample of family firms targeted by this study had a statistical power of 0.998, surpassing the limit of 0.80 recommended by Cohen (1992). Key characteristics of the sampled family businesses are as follows: 62.27% are more than 25 years old; 66.03% employ fewer than 50 workers (i.e., they are small companies); 42.47% operate in the service sector; 52.83% are in the second generation; 66.67% of their CEOs do not have a university degree; 66.98% of their CEOs are men; 55.66% of their CEOs are family members; and 74.53% have external advisors on their board of directors.

4.2. Measures

4.2.1. Entrepreneurial orientation

We used nine items to measure entrepreneurial orientation across the dimensions of innovation (three items), proactiveness (three items), and risk taking (three items), as per the Miller/Covin and Slevin scale (see Covin & Miller, 2014). Entrepreneurial orientation was operationalized as a second-order type b composite. The items for these dimensions were measured using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

4.2.2. Socioemotional wealth

We measured socioemotional wealth using 27 items across the five dimensions defined by Berrone et al. (2012): family control and influence (six items), identification of family members with the business (six items), binding social ties (five items), emotional attachment of the family members (six items), and renewal of family bonds through succession (four items). Socioemotional wealth was operationalized as a second-order type b composite. The items of these dimensions were measured using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

4.2.3. Performance

We used an overall measure of perceived performance of the firm, assessed relative to competitors (Olson, Slater, & Hult, 2005). More specifically, we measured business performance using a 4-item scale combining the scales proposed by Chirico et al. (2011), Kellermanns et al. (2012), Kraus et al. (2012), Naldi et al. (2007), and Wiklund and Shepherd (2003). Four dimensions were used: sales growth, profit growth, growth in market share, and growth in return on capital. We used a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*fully agree*). The use of satisfaction measures to explain business success is becoming increasingly common (Manzano-García & Ayala-Calvo, 2020).

4.2.4. Control variables

We used size (number of employees), sector (1 = primary, 2 = industrial, 3 = construction, and 4 = services) and age (number of years since creation) of the business as control variables. These control variables have been used extensively in family firm studies (Chrisman et al., 2005). The use of control variables can help explain the common variance between predictors and reduce the likelihood that parameters will be overestimated. However, a comparison of the results of three separate statistical analyses—one with all the control variables, one with only the control variables that are significantly related to the dependent variable, and one with no control variables—showed that the parameters were almost identical, with no changes in the significance levels or confidence intervals. Given these results and the recommendations of Bernerth and Aguinis (2016), we did not include any control variables in the analysis.

4.3. Analytical techniques

Two methods were used in this study. The first is partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). This method is suitable in the early stages of a new theory (Gefen, Rigdon, & Straub, 2011; Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2010) and when the sample is small (Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009). Finally, this method is well suited to complex models (Hair, Sarstedt, & Ringle, 2019). In this study, we used ADANCO 2.2 software (Henseler, Dijkstra, & Theo, 2020). However, PLS-SEM has a series of limitations related to symmetrical causal relationships and net effects, usually attributable to problems of multiple regression analysis (MRA) and structural equation modeling (SEM; Skarmeas, Leonidou, & Saridakis, 2014; Woodside, 2013). To overcome these limitations, a

second data analysis method was used, namely fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis (fsQCA). This qualitative method is useful to study phenomena using a small data set. FsQCA is capable of handling uncertainty (Ragin, 2000, 2008). To conduct the fsQCA, fs/QCA 2.5 software was used (Ragin & Davey, 2014). This double methodological approach provided robust results (Hernández-Perlines et al., 2016).

5. Results

The results of this study are presented in two sections, one for each analysis technique. We first present the results of the PLS-SEM and then the results of the fsQCA.

5.1. PLS-SEM results

We analyzed the data and tested the hypotheses using PLS-SEM in ADANCO 2.2 software (Henseler et al., 2020). We first checked that the variables were reliable and had suitable levels of convergent and discriminant validity. Barclay, Higgins, and Thompson (1995), Roldán and Sánchez-Franco (2012), and Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, and Gudergan (2017) have advocated evaluation of the measurement model using the following indicators.

5.1.1. Composite reliability

Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommend values greater than 0.7 for composite reliability. The observed values were suitable based on Hair, Risher, Sarstedt, and Ringle (2018) criteria because they were between 0.7 and 0.9. Furthermore, there were no problems of redundancy because no value was greater than 0.95 (Diamantopoulos, Sarstedt, Fuchs, Wilczynski, & Kaiser, 2012; Drolet & Morrison, 2001). Thus, the variables had acceptable values for composite reliability (see Table 2).

5.1.2. Cronbach's alpha

Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommend Cronbach's alpha values greater than 0.7. As Table 2 shows, Cronbach's alpha was greater than this value for all variables.

5.1.3. Rho a

This statistic provides a reliability value that lies between the previous two extreme values (composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha). As proposed by Dijkstra and Henseler (2015), Rho A should be greater than 0.7 and should lie between the values for composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2018). This condition holds for our data (see Table 2).

Table 2
General sample information.

		N	%
Firm Age	less than 25	40	37.73
	greater than 25	66	62.27
Firm Employees	10–49	70	66.03
	50–249	26	24.52
	greater than 250	10	9.45
Firm Sector	primary	20	18.86
	Industry	41	38.67
	Services	45	42.47
Generational level	1st	24	22.64
	2nd	56	52.83
	3rd and following	26	24.53
CEO Studies	No university	76	66.67
	University	38	33.33
CEO's gender	Male	71	66.98
	Female	35	33.02
Family CEO	Yes	59	55.66
	No	47	44.34
External Family firm advisors	Yes	27	25.47
	No	79	74.53

5.1.4. Average variance extracted (AVE)

The AVE can be used to evaluate the convergent validity of each composite. Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommend a value that is greater than 0.5 for the AVE. This condition holds for our data (see Table 2).

5.1.5. Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity can be analyzed by checking that the correlation between each pair of constructs is not greater than the value of the square root of the AVE for each construct and by using the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT). For discriminant validity to hold, the HTMT values should be less than 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015). These conditions hold for the data, thereby confirming discriminant validity (see Table 3).

Both EO and SEW were operationalized as second-order type b composites obtained in two steps using the latent variable scores (Wright, Campbell, Thatcher, & Roberts, 2012). This procedure was performed following the recommendations of Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001). We thereby avoided problems of collinearity between indicators (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). Problems of collinearity may appear when the variance inflation factor (VIF) is greater than or equal to 5 (Kleinbaum, Kupper, Muller, & Nizam, 1988). No problems of collinearity were observed in this study (see Tables 4 and 5).

After confirming the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement model and the absence of problems of collinearity in EO and SEW, we tested the hypotheses proposed in the model. We tested these hypotheses using the path coefficients and level of significance. Bootstrapping with 5,000 subsamples was applied.

Analysis of the structural model shows that EO has a positive relationship with family business performance. The path coefficient is 0.393, which is greater than the minimum value of 0.200 proposed by Chin (1998). This effect is significant, with a t-value of 6.547 based on a one-tailed t(4,999) test with p less than 0.001. EO is capable of explaining 38.7% of the variance of family firm performance (see Table 6). Therefore, the results confirm the first hypothesis (Figs. 2 and 3).

The moderating effect of SEW is positive and significant because the path coefficient is 0.275 and the t-value is 4.063. Furthermore, the moderating effect of SEW causes the influence of EO on family business performance to increase such that it is capable of explaining 45.4% of the variance of performance (see Table 6). Thus, the results confirm the second hypothesis. In addition, the size of the moderating effect of EO is medium, with an f^2 value of 0.22 (Chin, 2010).

The goodness of fit must be calculated to complete the analysis of the

Table 3
Correlation matrix, composite reliability, convergent and discriminant validity, heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT), and descriptive statistics.

Composite/Measure	AVE	Composite reliability	SEW	EO	P
1. Socioemotional wealth	0.642	0.937	0.801*		
2. Entrepreneurial orientation	0.506	0.840	0.651	0.711*	
3. Performance	0.612	0.836	0.532	0.687	0.782*
Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT)					
1. Socioemotional wealth			0.534		
2. Entrepreneurial orientation			0.327	0.496	
3. Performance			0.465	0.563	0.584
Cronbach's alpha			0.941	0.798	0.801
Rho A			0.876	0.814	0.783
Media			4.13	4.08	4.31
Standard deviation			1.08	0.96	0.94

Note: The correlations are for the second-order CFA output; (*) the elements on the diagonal show the square root of the AVE; AVE = average variance extracted; SEW = socioemotional wealth; EO = entrepreneurial orientation; P = performance.

Table 4
Collinearity of entrepreneurial orientation.

Factor	Loading (λ)	Variance inflation factor
Innovativeness	0.367	1.826
Proactiveness	0.365	2.308
Risk taking	0.398	2.402

Table 5
Collinearity of socioemotional wealth.

Factor	Loading (λ)	VIF
Family control and influence	0.478	1.905
Identification of family members with the firm	0.429	1.703
Binding family ties	0.308	1.283
Emotional attachment of family members	0.421	2.091
Renewal of family ties through succession	0.397	1.875

Note: VIF = variance inflation factor.

Table 6
Structural model.

Model	R^2	β	t-value
Direct Model: EO ⇒D	0.387	0.393	6.547
Direct Model with EO and SEW			
EO ⇒D	0.405	0.371	5.094
SEW ⇒D		0.250	4.563
Moderation Model: EOxSEW ⇒D	0.454	0.398	4.657
		0.264	5.076
		0.275	4.063

Note: EO = entrepreneurial orientation; SEW = socioemotional wealth.

structural model. The standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) is used. For the proposed model, the value of the SRMR is 0.068. This value is less than the threshold of 0.085 suggested by Henseler et al., 2015. Therefore, the results indicate that the model has a good fit (Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016).

5.2. FsQCA results

In this section, we present the results of the fsQCA, which was conducted using fs/QCA 2.5 software, to test the hypotheses (Ragin & Davey, 2014). The 7-point Likert responses were transformed into fuzzy-set responses to perform this analysis. First, all missing values were eliminated from the data set. In this study, there were no missing values. Second, each composite must be calculated by multiplying the scores of its items. Next, the responses must be calibrated using three thresholds (Woodside, 2013): 10th percentile (low agreement or completely outside the set), 50th percentile (moderate level of agreement or neither inside nor outside the set), and 90th percentile (strong agreement or completely inside the set). Finally, we performed analyses of necessity and sufficiency to evaluate the effect of the composites. These steps have been followed in other studies such as the study by Ruíz-Palomino et al. (2019). FsQCA yields three possible solutions: complex, parsimonious, or intermediate. In this study, we considered the intermediate solution, as per Ragin (2008) recommendations.

The results in Table 7 show that EO and SEW are individually necessary conditions for high performance because their consistency values are both greater than 0.90, which is the threshold established by Ragin (2008). Although SEW has a higher value of consistency (0.9698) than EO (0.9227), EO is capable of explaining a higher percentage of high family firm performance. This finding indicates that family firm performance is explained to a greater extent by EO (in 82.49% of cases) than by SEW (in 74.63% of cases). Notably, when EO and SEW are considered together, the consistency increases to 0.97, with a coverage value of 91.52% of the cases of high-performance family firms.

According to Eng and Woodside (2012), when the consistency is greater than 0.75, the fsQCA model is informative. In this study, the condition of sufficiency shows that family firm performance improves when EO and SEW are jointly considered (see Table 8). SEW positively moderates the effect of EO and is capable of explaining 91.87% of the cases of high-performance family firms.

6. Discussion and conclusions

In this study, we explore how socioemotional wealth moderates the influence of entrepreneurial orientation on family business

Table 7
Necessary conditions: Intermediate solution.

	Outcome: Performance (fuzzy set)	
	Consistency	Coverage
EO	0.922787	0.824916
SEW	0.969868	0.746377
EO*SEW	0.977401	0.915254

Note: EO = entrepreneurial orientation; SEW = socioemotional wealth.

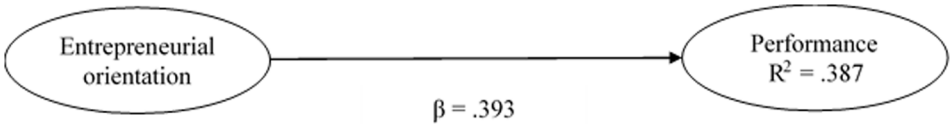

Fig. 2. Structural model: Direct model.

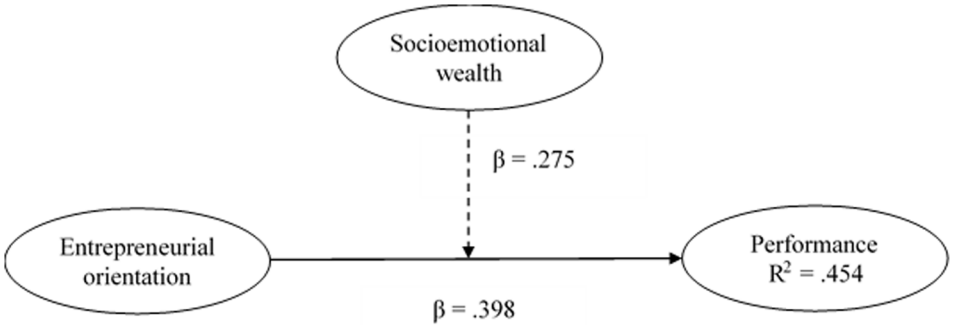

Fig. 3. Structural model: Moderation model.

Table 8
Intermediate solution for the analysis of sufficient conditions.

	Raw coverage	Unique Coverage	Consistency
EO	0.852632	0.852632	0.797542
SEW	0.861272	0.861272	0.737497
EO*SEW	0.902222	0.902222	0.918740

Note: EO = entrepreneurial orientation; SEW = socioemotional wealth.

performance. In doing so, we address the following research questions: Does EO influence family business performance? How does SEW affect family business performance? Does SEW moderate the influence of EO on family business performance?

The first question led us to hypothesize a positive association between EO and family business performance. We provide evidence of this association using the chosen methods of analysis. According to PLS-SEM, EO can explain 38.7% of the variation of family business performance. According to fsQCA, EO explains high performance in 82.49% of family businesses. This study adds to the growing number of papers that show that EO is positively associated with the performance of family businesses (Chirico et al., 2011; Barroso-Martínez et al., 2016; Hernández-Perlines et al., 2019). The second research question is whether SEW influences family business performance. We found that SEW has a positive influence on family business performance: SEW can explain high performance in 74.63% of family businesses. The third question is whether SEW positively moderates the influence of EO on performance. Both methods confirm this moderation. When SEW was considered in the PLS-SEM, the effect of EO on family business performance was shown to explain 45.4% of the variation in performance. The proposed moderation model has a good fit, with an SRMR of 0.068. This value is lower than the threshold proposed by the literature (Henseler et al., 2015). The fsQCA shows that the combined effect of EO and SEW can explain high performance in 91.52% of cases. The results of this study conflict with those of the study by Schepers et al. (2014), who reports a negative moderating effect of SEW on the relationship between EO and family business performance. The results of Schepers et al. (2014) suggest that the concern for SEW preservation can lead to costly and suboptimal decisions that diminish its effect and/or appropriate management. We acknowledge that SEW should not be expected to lead to more financially prudent decisions. It is based on agency theory rather than a management perspective that focuses on the value of SEW's strategic assets (see Le Breton-Miller & Miller, 2009; Le Breton-Miller, Le Breton-Miller, & Lester, 2011).

The following theoretical and managerial conclusions may be drawn from this study. The most important theoretical contributions of this study relate to how to measure both EO and SEW. In both cases, a multidimensional composite was used, giving rise to a global or single construct. The choice to use a multidimensional composite stemmed from the need to evaluate the overall effects and the relationships between these elements. Our results support previous studies in which EO was measured using the scale proposed by Miller/Covin/Slevin as a single measure (Chirico et al., 2011; Barroso-Martínez et al., 2016). This measure has acceptable reliability and validity. Although we considered companies from only one country (Spain), the use of the Miller/Covin/Slevin composite displays invariance in different cultural contexts, as shown by Basco et al. (2020) and Runyan, Ge, Dong, and Swinney (2012).

The second theoretical contribution relates to the way in which SEW was measured. As with EO, the measure was single and was formed of different dimensions. The multidimensional character of SEW proposed by Berrone et al. (2012) is confirmed. We agree with Swab et al. (2020) on the multidimensional and formative character of a global composite. We respond to the call by Brigham and Payne (2019) to clarify how to measure this concept. We show that SEW as a single composite has suitably reliability and validity values. This composite consists of the five dimensions proposed by Berrone et al. (2012), each of which is valid individually. The two most important contributions of this study relate to SEW. The first is that this study supports the understanding of how and why concern for SEW preservation plays a key role in family businesses by affecting their performance both directly and positively. The second is that this study offers a holistic view of concern for SEW preservation as a phenomenon because the premise is that concern for SEW preservation enables family businesses to increase their profits by appropriating greater value of their shares. The third theoretical contribution relates to the model. This model uses suitable measures of the composites and has an acceptable level of goodness of fit.

The main managerial implication of this study relates to the moderating role of SEW in the influence of EO on family firm performance. Based on this managerial implication, family business managers can draw on the dimensions of SEW (family control and influence, identification of family members with the company, binding social ties, emotional attachment of family members, and renewal of family ties to the company through dynastic succession) to enhance the effect of EO on family business performance, particularly in relation to the most important SEW dimensions.

This study has certain limitations, which, if addressed, provide opportunities for future research. The first limitation relates to the sample. The recommendation is to extend the sample to a greater number of family businesses, not only in Spain but also in other contexts. Such an approach could be used to examine country effects on SEW and the moderating effect on the influence of EO on family firm performance.

The second limitation is that the model does not consider the effect of internal company variables such as strategy, organizational structure, management style, human capital, resources and capabilities, and dynamic capabilities. Likewise, we did not consider the effect of variables in relation to the family nature of the firm, such as ownership structure, family participation in management, generational level, the existence of external consultants, agency costs derived from the separation of ownership and control, the role of in-laws in the family business, and the presence of women in management.

Finally, future lines of research might include analysis of the role of COVID-19 in EO and SEW, as well as their influence on family firm performance. Longitudinal studies could verify the effect of the COVID-19 on the proposed relationships.

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