"An understanding of employee behavior in an organizational change setting through the theory of planned behavior and the moderating effect of training"

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Abstract

"Organizations are pressured to change and work more efficiently to sustain competitive advantage. One of the reasons for change initiatives of organizations to fail is the resistance of employees to change behavior. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is a broadly used theory to understand and predict individual human behavior of all kinds. In this research the theoretical foundation to use the TPB in an organizational change setting is broadened and the applicability of the TPB in this setting is empirically supported. An employee's (i) attitude, (ii) subjective norm and (iii) perceived behavioral control are positive determinants of their intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting. Also, change initiatives are often accompanied by expensive trainings for employees. This research provides more insight in the relation between training and the intention to change behavior. Training is therefore initiated as a moderator for the relation between the determinants of intention to use behavior according to the TPB and the intention to use behavior"

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Preface

This Master Thesis is the final step in becoming Master of Science, Master in Organization Studies. A title that I will be proud of. It has been a challenge, there have been obstacles and mistakes were made. But challenges can be stepping-stones for something great, obstacles can be overcome and mistakes can be fixed. I am proud of the thesis that lies before you, I hope you will enjoy it, I hope it will inspire you and above all, I hope that this thesis will earn me a Master's Degree.

I started the Extended Master Organization Studies almost one and a half year ago. I want to thank the organization, my colleagues and above all Frank Brouwers for providing me with the opportunity to perform a Junior Traineeship at a large health care organization, and giving me the guidance in my professional and personal development. This not only enriched this Master Thesis by extending its relevance but also gave me a chance to get a first taste of what it means to be an employee, team member and project leader of a large organization.

Furthermore, I would like to thank my academic supervisors Rob Pranger, Sander Smit and Hans van Dijk for providing me with the much needed guidance in writing this Master thesis. Especially Sander Smit who, as my first reader, used his expertise to help me with the writing process of a Master Thesis and believe me that has been essential.

Even after a long career as a student of Tilburg University this nearing end is also somewhat saddening. I have made some amazing friends and the life of a student in Tilburg proved itself to be never boring.

Thank you!

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1. Introduction

Health care organizations in most Western countries are pressured to reduce their expenditures to keep the health care systems affordable in the future. As a result, the health care branch in most western countries has developed a trend to change to a more efficient way of working since the 1990's (McNally, Ben-Shlomo & Newman, 1999). To sustain competitive advantage, health care organizations are continuously faced with the need to change their structures, objectives, processes, and technologies (Kwahk & Lee, 2006). Organizational change management is concerned with facilitating and implementing these changes (Jimmieson, Peach & White, 2008). The implementation of these changes can be crucial for organizations, nevertheless success of the implementation of organizational change is not guaranteed (Jimmieson et al., 2008; Kwahk & Lee, 2006; Rafferty, Jimmieson & Armenakis, 2013). The prevalence and cost of organizational change indicates that the success of change initiatives is a major concern for organizations (Jimmieson et al., 2008). They state that for these reasons researchers have a responsibility to offer insights as to how managers can improve management of change in their workplace (Jimmieson et al, 2008). More insight in the reason behind successes and failures of change implementations is thus highly required.

One of the reasons for failure of change in organizations is proven to be resistance of the user to change (Kwahk & Lee, 2006). The implementation of change initiatives in organizations often has to deal with the willingness (or unwillingness) of employees to change their behavior for the benefit of the change. Creating readiness for change amongst employees has been proposed as a direction for reducing resistance to change initiatives (Jones, Jimmieson & Griffiths, 2005; Kwahk & Lee, 2006), and thereby change in behavior of employees can be achieved. "The notion of readiness for change can be defined as the extent to which employees hold positive views about the need for organizational change (i.e. change acceptance), as well as the extent to which employees beliefs that such changes are likely to have positive implications for themselves and the wider organization" (Jones et al., 2005, p. 362). Management of organizations should be able to understand, predict and probably even influence behavior of their employees to enhance to possible success of change initiatives. Currently there is no dominant theoretical model or theory found in the literature to help organizations and managers to understand and predict behavior of employees in an organizational change context. Recently the TPB was introduced in this field of organizational change and results were promising (Jimmieson et al., 2008). Therefore, in this research the theoretical foundation for the use of the Theory of Planned Behavior to understand and predict employee behavior in an organizational change setting is broadened.

Change initiatives can ask for a change in behavior of employees of different kinds such as change in; social skills, technology adoptions, health behaviors, mindset amongst others. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is a practical and all-round model, because it has relatively little concepts and it can be used for

explaining and predicting all kinds of human behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen 2010). According to the TPB, intentions to engage in a certain behavior are a function of three basic determinants. One personal in nature; (i) attitude towards behavior, one reflecting social influence, (ii) subjective norm to perform behavior and one determinant dealing with issues of control; (iii) perceived behavioral control over behavior (Ajzen, 2005). In turn, from these intentions to use behavior an actual change in that behavior follows. Attitude towards behavior deals with a person's favorableness or unfavorableness towards a behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Subjective norm is associated with a person's perception of the social pressure that others do, or do not exert to perform a certain behavior (Ajzen, 2005). Lastly, perceived behavioral control deals with the extent to which people believe that they are capable of performing a given behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). According to the TPB, (i) the more favorable a person's attitude towards a behavior, (ii) the stronger the subjective norm to perform a behavior and (iii) the higher a person's perceived behavioral control over a behavior, the higher a person's intention to perform this behavior.

For over the last two decades, the TPB is used extensively in behavioral research, and the predicting power of the TBP is shown in many different studies on various topics (e.g., Albarracin, Johnson, Fisbein & Muellerleile, 2001; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Fishbein & Ajzen 2010; Sutton, 1998). Nevertheless, only limited research used the TPB to understand behavior in organizational and/or work settings. Especially in research in the organizational change setting the TPB is rather dearth even though change processes have attitudinal and behavioral components that are important, maybe even crucial, for the success of the implementations of these changes (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004; Holt, Armenakis, Field & Harris, 2007). Recently, Greaves, Zibarras & Stride (2013) found the TPB to be applicable to understand pro-environmental behavior in the workplace. They state however that further research needs to be conducted in this organizational settings to examine the overall applicability of the TPB (Greaves et al., 2013). Dawkins and Frass (2005) came to a similar conclusion in their study on the decision of union-workers to engage in an employee improvement program for their organization. They found that the TPB potentially is an effective theoretical model in predicting behavior in this setting, but also concluded that more scientific research is needed (Dawkins & Frass, 2005). In a study on employee intentions to support organizational change, Jimmieson et al. (2008) found support for the use of the TPB in predicting and understanding behavior in the organizational change setting and urged for further research as well. In sum, the TPB is well supported empirically as a theoretical foundation to predict and understand human behaviors (Armittage & Conner, 2001; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Greaves et al., 2013) and these former studies on the TPB in organizational change settings provide a suitable basis for the investigation of employee behavior in this setting. This study intends to broaden the theoretical and empirical foundation of the use of the TPB as an

instrument to understand and predict employee behavior in the organizational change setting by the measure of employee's intentions to use behavior in large health care organization.

Change management can attempt to influence behavior of employees when change initiatives are introduced through providing different trainings. Employee trainings are nowadays seen as an important dimension of human resource management in organizations, especially in organizations facing high pressures to change (Ji, Huang, Liu, Zhu & Chai, 2012). In this study the concept of training refers to formal training. Formal training is conceptualized as structured training offered by the company during or outside working hours (Castellanos & Martin, 2011). The objectives of training in organizations are numerous and cover a wide diversity of aspects such as adaption to change, quality improvement, and increasing employee motivation (Castellanos & Martin, 2011). These trainings or courses are usually very costly; they need to be developed, are mostly given by professionals, and they take time of the employees in which they are not able to attend their normal proceedings. The Success of these trainings is thus important for organizations, though not assured. In the literature the effect of training on employee behavior is inconsistent. On the one hand scholars conclude that training for employees is not effective in changing behavior of employees (Miller 1990; Nelson, Cook & Ingram, 2013). On the other hand studies show that training is indeed effective for changing employee behavior (Häfner & Stock, 2010; Ji et al., 2012; Orpen, 1994) Regarding this inconsistency in the literature it can be concluded that further research on the effects of training is necessary and multiple researchers ask for further elaboration on training and its effect on behavior changes (Miller, 1990; Nelson et al., 2013; Orpen, 1994). For example, Nelson et al. (2013) states that no literature that explores the effectiveness of competency trainings in improving employee behavior was found during a search within several large databases and thus more research is needed. This research answers to this calling by including the concept of training. It is added to the model of the TPB to determine the effect of training on employee behavior in an organizational change setting.

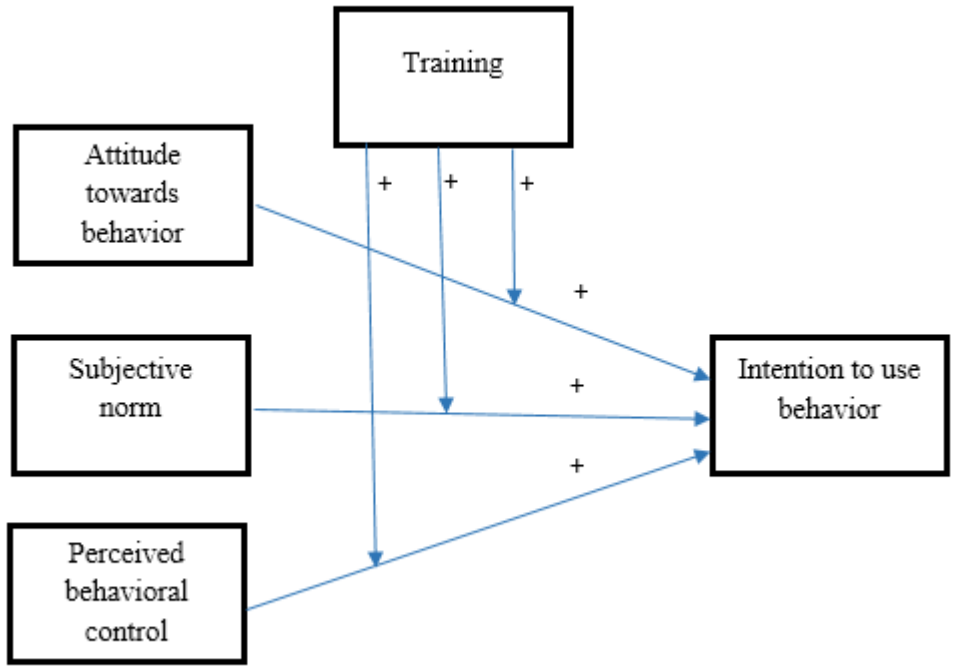
When following the assumptions of the TPB, an effective training with the goal to change behavior should raise the intention of employees to use the preferred behavior, since this will lead to an actual behavioral change. Also, an effective training should have a positive influence on the determinants of intention, attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control, so that the intention to use behavior will become even more positive. Therefore this study introduces training as a possible moderator on the relations between the intention to use behavior and its determinants according to the TPB. To the author's knowledge, training is not used as an additional variable for the TPB in former literature. By adding training as a moderator to the TPB, firstly, this research intends to give more insight in the relation between training and employee behavior. Secondly, the TPB with the extension of training can possibly be used in the future as a tool for measuring the effectiveness of training in an organization that intends to change employee behavior.

The goal of this research is to broaden the theoretical and empirical foundation of the TPB as a practical and all-round method to understand and predict behavior in the organizational change setting. Thereby, the extent to which the basic determinants of intention to use behavior according to TPB; (i) attitude towards behavior, (ii) subjective norm to perform behavior and (iii) perceived behavioral control over behavior are related to the intention to use behavior by employees of a large health care organization is identified. The variable training is added as a moderator to the model of the TPB to give more insight in the relation between training and the intention to use behavior of employees. From these goals the following research question arises as central in this research:

"To what extent are (i) attitude towards behavior, (ii) subjective norm and (iii) perceived behavioral control" related to the intention to use the behavior in an organizational change setting, and to what extent does training acts as a moderator on these relations?"

To help the reader visualize the main question of this research and the hypotheses that will follow in the theoretical framework, the conceptual model is shown below in figure 1.0.

Figure 1.0; conceptual model



2. Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

2.1 Theory of Planned Behavior

For years scientists are trying to predict, understand, and explain human behavior. Explaining human behavior in all its complexity is a difficult task (Ajzen, 1991). Over the past quarter of a century the "social cognitive approach" is dominant in social psychology to explain and predict human behavior. In this approach it is assumed that behavior is best understood as a function of people's perceptions of reality, rather than as a function of an objective description of the environment (Conner & Norman, 2005). This means that a person has the ability to make sense of itself and is therefore self-regulating. An element of this self-regulating concept is the assumption that people experience mental and behavioral processes by which people revise their behavior (Conner & Norman, 2005). Over time a broad range of social cognition models arose which tried to understand and predict human behavior in specific behavioral fields (Erdley, Rivera, Shepherd & holleb, 2010). For example in predicting and understanding health behaviors (e.g. smoking, exercise physician visits, dietary and vaccination) the Health Belief Model and the Stage Theory of Health Behavior are dominant (Conner & Norman, 2005). To predict human behavior in social situations there are different models such as the Interpersonal Negotiation Strategies model and a model of Social-Cognitive Processing (Nangle, Hansen, Erdley, & Norton, 2009). Then again, other models have a focus on behavior included in ICT adaption, like the Technology Acceptance Model and the Use of Technology and Innovation Diffusion Theory (Kim & Crowston, 2011). Nevertheless for understanding and predicting behavior in organizational (change) settings no dominant model can be found in the current literature (Jimmieson et al., 2008). So, there are many different social cognitive models that explain specific types of human behavior. However, in the organizational change context the preferable employee behavioral can be diverse, and the understanding of these behaviors can be crucial for the success of organizational change initiatives. Unique in the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the precursor of the TPB, and the TPB is that all kinds of human behavior can be studied, and the theory contains relatively few concepts.

As explained above, various theoretical frameworks have been proposed to deal with the psychological processes involved in predicting and explaining human behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Before the 1980's researchers usually assumed that there were different causes for different kinds of behaviors and therefore scientists were confronted with a multitude of concepts and theories (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) was introduced to show that it is possible to explain all sorts of human behavior with relatively few concepts embedded within a single theoretical framework (Ajzen & Fisbein, 1980). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) had as ultimate goal to predict and understand an individual's behavior and developed this theory by an understanding of the relationship between attitudes and behavior.

The TPB that originated in the social psychology literature is an extension of the TRA and was first proposed by Icek Ajzen (1985). Nowadays, The TPB is one of the most popular social psychological models for the prediction of behavior of all kinds (e.g. Ajzen, 2011; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010, Sutton, 1998). The TPB is based on the assumption that human beings take available information into account and implicitly or explicitly consider the implications of their actions (Ajzen, 2005). According to the TPB three basic determinants are the function of intention to use behavior, (i) attitude towards behavior, (ii) subjective norm to perform behavior, (iii) perceived behavioral control over behavior. It is assumed that these determinants directly follow from a set of beliefs towards the behavior under consideration; behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Beliefs are defined as subjective probabilities (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), and they can be formed through different sources such as personal experience, TV, newspapers, formal education. These beliefs represent the information someone has on a behavior and serve to guide the decision to perform or not perform the behavior in question (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). The three basic determinants of intention to use behavior will be further explained on the basis of these beliefs.

First, behavioral beliefs and attitudes; a person hold beliefs about the positive or negative consequences they might experience when they perform behavior. These considered consequences (behavioral beliefs), are assumed to determine peoples attitude toward performing the behavior. That is, when their positive or negative evaluation of themselves performing the behavior is perceived to result in a more positive than negative outcome, the attitude towards that behavior will be favorable (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). In this paper attitude refers to "a latent disposition or tendency to respond with some degree of favorableness or unfavorableness to a psychological object. The attitude object can be any discriminable aspect of an individual's world, including a behavior" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010, p. 76).

Second, normative beliefs and subjective norm; people hold beliefs about whether important persons or groups in their lives would approve or disapprove of them performing a certain behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). If the perception of a person holds the beliefs that important others approve performing that behavior, people are likely to perceive social pressure to engage in that behavior. (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Subjective norm refers to "the person's perception of social pressure to perform or not perform a given behavior" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010, p. 130).

Third, control beliefs and perceived behavioral control; a person also forms beliefs about personal and environmental factors that can help or impede their efforts to perform certain behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). These control beliefs result in a sense of high or low perceived behavioral control over that behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) The TPB is an extended version of the TRA by adding a concept of perceived

behavioral control that deals with control issues. Conner and Arbitrage (1998, p. 1430) supported this extension by stating that "consideration of perceptions of control are important because they extend the applicability of the theory beyond easily performed, volitional behaviors to those complex goals and outcomes which are dependent upon performance of a complex series of other behaviors" By adding perceived behavioral control to the TRA, the TPB became even more applicable to more complex behaviors in more complex settings. The perceived behavioral control refers to "the extent to which people believe that they are capable of performing a given behavior, that they have control over its performance. Perceived behavioral control is assumed to take into account the availability of information, skills, opportunities and other resources required to perform the behavior as well as possible barriers or obstacles that may have to be overcome Fishbein and Ajzen (2010, p. 154-155)."

According to the TPB the more positive attitude towards the behavior, the higher the subjective norm to perform thee behavior and the higher the perceived behavioral control over the behavior, the higher a person's intention to use this behavior (e.g. Ajzen, 2005, Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). The TPB uses the construct of intention to use behavior as a determinant of the actual performance of behavior. As a general rule, the stronger the intention to employ in a behavior, the more likely should be the actual conduct of this behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

2.2 Intention to use Behavior

Behavioral intentions are indicators of a person's readiness to perform behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). The fundamental underlying dimension characterizing an intention to perform behavior is the person's estimate of the likelihood or perceived probability of performing a given behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). The term intention in this study refers to the subjective probability of performing behavior. The TPB predicts that the higher this person's estimate of the likelihood of performing the behavior, the higher the probability that this behavior will actually be executed. This relation between intention and behavior is previously verified in many different studies and is researched in many different contexts (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Sutton, 1998) and is beyond the scope of this research.

The overall reason why attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control are believed to be determinants of a person's intention to perform certain behavior can be found in the expectancy-value model. As previously mentioned attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control directly follow from a set of beliefs towards a behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Beliefs represent the information someone has on behavior, which in their turn forms the foundations of the determinants of that person towards that specific behavior. In the expectancy-value model it is said that beliefs include the likelihood and evaluation of the outcomes and consequences of this particular behavior, and people act rationally upon

their beliefs (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). The TPB is built on this assumption that people reasonably act upon their beliefs, which means that if the beliefs are positive, people will act upon it with a positive intention and vice versa. It is not said that people are rational, as individual beliefs can be accurate or inaccurate. Someone that acts upon an inaccurate belief can be seen as irrational (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). According to the expectancy-value model one can thus expect that people reasonably act upon their beliefs; their attitude, their subjective norm and their perceived behavioral which in turn influences the intention to perform behavior.

2.3 Attitude towards behavior and intention to use behavior

The first concept that directly influences the intention towards use of behavior according to the TPB is Attitude. Attitude is one of the most frequently used constructs to try to predict and explain behavior over time. Scientists of different fields have devoted a great deal of effort to define attitudes in relation to intention and behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). At first, very broad comprehensive views of attitudes arose and were widely shared amongst scholars. An example of these early definitions is from Allport (as cited in Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010); "An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related" (p.810). This definition appeared to be unworkable in the scientific field and Thurstone (1931) suggested that referring to attitudes as the affect for or against a psychological object was sufficient. Most modern definitions of attitudes are based upon this more practical definition. In the TPB attitude towards behavior is similarly an important determinant of the intention to use behavior and nowadays the definition of attitude is generally agreed upon. Attitudes in the current study refer to "a latent disposition or tendency to respond with some degree of favorableness or unfavorableness to a psychological object. The attitude object can be any discriminable aspect of an individual's world, including a behavior" (Fishbein & Ajzen 2010, p.76).

The relation between attitude towards behavior and the intention to use this behavior can be explained from two different perspectives. The first is through the aforementioned expectancy-value model (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010), and the second is through the literature on readiness for change (Jimmieson et al., 2008). In their paper on employee intentions to support organizational change Jimmieson et al. (2008) describe that the attitude-intention relation is consistent with the literature found on readiness for change. They state that several authors have argued that favorable and positive views about organizational changes, and the extent to which employees believe that such changes are a profitable and have positive consequences for themselves and the organization, lead to more positive change reactions (Jimmieson et al., 2008). Rafferty et al. (2013) argue that the most critical factor in successfully implementing a change in organizations is the employees' attitude towards change. These views support that positive attitudes lead to a higher

intention to use behavior profitable for organizational change. The assumption from both perspectives is that a person is expected to intent to perform behavior when it is likely for this person that it will generate positive outcomes when the behavior is performed. When the attitude towards behavior is favorable, it is more likely that a person intention to use this behavior increases as opposed to when a person's attitude towards behavior is negative. From these arguments the first hypothesis follows:

Hypothesis 1

"The more favorable the employees attitude towards the behavior, the stronger his/her intention to use this behavior"

2.4 Subjective norm and intention to use behavior

The second concept, which directly influences the intention to use behavior according to the TPB, is subjective norm. In the literature it is agreed upon that a social surrounding can exert influence on people's intentions and actions. This influence is mostly captured through the concept of subjective norm (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Subjective norm generally refers to what is acceptable or permissible behavior in a group or society (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). There are different theoretical views that state that subjective norm is important to a person because (i) of self-interest; a person does not want to be seen as unusual or weird in a group, (ii) it gives meaning to social actions, (iii) or it gives guidelines to a social surrounding. In this research subjective norm refers to "perceived social pressure to perform (or not to perform) a given behavior" (Fisbhen & Ajzen, 2010, p. 130). The term "subjective norm" was chosen because a person's perception may or may not reflect what others *actually* think about the behavior in question (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). It therefore reflects an individual's perception of reality.

The relation between subjective norm and intention can be explained from two different perspectives. The first is through the expectancy-value model complemented with the five bases of social power by French and Raven (1959). The second is through the current literature on organizational change (Jimmieson et al., 2008). Firstly, according to the five bases of social power, people can exert influence on our behavior because they possess one or more of the following types of power; Reward power (the one exerting power has the ability to reward), Coercive power (the one exerting power has the ability to punish), Legitimate power (the one exerting power is seen as someone with an important role or position), Expert power (the one exerting power is believed to be an expert) and Referent power (the one exerting power is seen as a role-model) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). It is common for people to have the perception that others can exert one or more of these powers (French and Raven, 1959). This perception puts pressure on a person's choice to perform or not perform a certain behavior. When you have the perception that you will be punished or

rewarded by your colleagues when performing a certain behavior, it is reasoned by the expectancy-value model that people will act upon these perceptions.

Secondly, in the current change literature Jimmieson et al. (2008) in their paper on employee intentions to support organizational change, describe that the subjective norm-intention relation is consistent with the current literature on organizational change. It is repeatedly suggested that change managers should benefit from the social networks present in organizations as a tool for creating power bases and alliances that inform and influence one another to create shared meaning during times of change (Jimmieson et al., 2008). Change managers are able to influence employee behavior through these pressures to act in change-supportive ways. Tenkansi and Chesmore (2003), describe in their paper that intra-organizational strong ties are beneficial for implementing organizational change because change is a social influence process that is influenced by network relations. Furthermore, in their paper on organizational change in HRM practices, Fant, Ichniowski and Shaw (2002) conclude that social networks matter for the successful implementation of an organizational change; "one worker cannot be trained and convinced to do his job in a new way without also training and convincing all the other workers to simultaneously change their behavior" (Fant et al., 2003, p. 325). Thus, within the organizational change literature research suggests that subjective norm matters for the intention of employees to use change beneficial behavior. For these reasons it is expected that the stronger the positive subjective norms of an employee to perform behavior, the higher the intention to use that behavior will be.

Hypothesis 2

"The stronger an employee's subjective norms to perform a behavior, the stronger his/her intention to use this behavior"

2.5 Perceived behavioral control and intention to use behavior

The third, and last, concept that directly influences the intention to use behavior according to the TPB is perceived behavioral control. This concept was added to the TRA when it had become clear that attitudes and subjective norm alone might not be sufficient in predicting and explaining human behavior. People cannot act upon their intentions if they miss the skills and/or resources required to perform the behavior or if external factors prevent them from doing so (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). A person must be able to have some control over whether or not to perform the behavior in question. A rather simple example of this ground rule is breathing. Breathing is a human behavior that is not voluntary. A person's attitude towards breathing, what other people think of breathing or even the confidence whether you can breathe or not does not influence the fact that a person has to breathe and will breathe when one wants to stay alive. So, a ground rule when one wants to apply the TRA or the TPB is that behavior can only be carried out when

people have sufficient volitional control over the behavior in question (Ajzen, 1985, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010,). This notion might be the reason for the TPB to be dearth in organizational change research.

Currently, The TRA and TPB are barely used to understand and predict behavior of employees in organizational change settings (Jimmieson et al., 2008). A reason for the absence of the TRA and TPB in this setting might be that organizational changes are mostly initiated by management or directors which might influence the voluntarily nature of the behavior that is studied. Whether employees are free to choose if they change their behavior according to the will of the managers or the board of the organization, might be dependent on, amongst others, the kind of method that is introduced, the control of managers, the kind of organization, the organizational culture. The TPB is an extension of the TRA since the construct of perceived behavioral control to deal with this particular issue has been added. The construct is introduced to deal with situations in which people may lack *complete* volitional control over the behavior that is studied (Ajzen, 1985, 1991). Therefore, one must conclude that the TPB is indeed most suitable for predicting and understanding behavior in an organizational change setting since the extension of the construct of perceived behavioral control.

Many different names have been given to the construct of control in the literature, including; self-directedness, perceptions of control, helplessness, choice, decision freedom, agency, action control, powerlessness, mastery, autonomy, locus of control, self-efficacy, and self-determination (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Skinner, 1996). The importance of these concepts on human behavior is studied and proven multiple times in the past (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010), and it is believed that a person's perceptions of their control over a behavior accurately reflects their actual control, It is generally agreed upon that differences in perceived behavioral control play an important role in human functioning (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Skinner, 1996). This research follows Fishbein and Ajzen (2010, p. 154-155), who define perceived behavioral control as "the extent to which people believe that they are capable of performing a given behavior, that they have control over its performance. Perceived behavioral control is assumed to take into account the availability of information, skills, opportunities and other resources required to perform the behavior as well as possible barriers or obstacles that may have to be overcome."

The relation between perceived behavioral control and intention can as well be explained from two different perspectives. The first is through the expectancy-value model, complemented with statements from Skinner (1996), and the second is through the current literature on organizational change (Jimmieson et al., 2008). Firstly, high perceived control embodies an expectation that internal factors (e.g. competence, motivation, willpower, determination) and external factors (e.g. luck, circumstances, availability of resources) are the reason behind behavioral outcomes (Fisbhein & Ajzen, 2010; Skinner, 1996). People vary in the extent to

which they feel that they are able use these factors to successfully accomplish goals (Skinner, 1996). Both internal and external factors can influence the intention to perform certain behavior because they influence a person's perception of whether they are able to successfully carry out their intentions. Increased perceived behavioral control is associated with improved health, wellbeing and having greater success in life (Skinner, 1996). The expectancy-value model explains the last step in the relation between perceived behavioral control and intention by explaining that a person is expected to act rationally upon these beliefs. Thereby a person that positively evaluates the internal and external factors to carry out a behavior is expected to have a higher intention to use this behavior.

Secondly, in their paper on employee intentions to support organizational change Jimmieson et al., (2008) describe that the perceived behavioral control-intention relation is consistent with the current literature on organizational change. It is suggested that perceptions of control are influential in helping employees to cope and adjust during times of organizational change (Jimmieson et al., 2008). In their paper on a stress and coping approach to organizational change, Terry and Jimmieson (2003) explain that an organizational change can bring uncertainty for employees and can therefore be stressful. Employees that have positive control beliefs, thus have higher perceived behavior control, are less likely to doubt the efficacy of their attempts to use a new behavior and have less difficulties to adjusting in general (Sonnentag & Spycala 2012; Terry & Jimmieson, 2003). Thus, the extent to which employees believe that they have the qualities, and are able to use a new behavior will help them to act in change supportive ways (Jimmieson et al., 2008). For these reasons it is hypothesized that the greater the perceived behavioral control over a behavior, the higher the intention to use this behavior.

Hypothesis 3

"The greater the employees perceived behavioral control over a behavior, the stronger his/her intention to use this behavior"

2.6 Training as a Moderator in the TPB

Human capital is seen as one of the most important assets of today's organizations. Trainings provided by the organization play an important role in the development of this human capital (Ehrhardt, Miller, Freeman & Hom, 2011; Liang, Kao, Tu, Chin & Chung, 2013). Through trainings organizations are able to provide employees with the tools to collect knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics needed in their work (Liang et al., 2013). McDonald (2004) states that training can act as a learning system and enables employees to adapt more easily to change whereby their effectiveness for the organization is increased. So, these trainings provide employees with the characteristics needed to gain competitive advantage for their organizations, which is crucial for organizations within an environment that ask for constant organizational

changes. Organizational change managers attempt to influence the success of change initiatives by offering trainings to their employees. Especially when it is the change in behavior form these employees that determine the success of the change initiative. These trainings are usually very costly and time consuming which makes it important that these trainings cause the actual change in behavior of the employees that was intended. In this paper the concept of training refers to formal training. Formal training is conceptualized as structured training which is offered by the company, during or outside working hours (Castellanos & Martin, 2011). The objectives of training in organizations are numerous and cover a wide diversity of aspects such as adaption to change, quality improvement and increasing employee motivation (Castellanos & Martin, 2011). In this paper the focus is on training with the objective to change behavior of employees according to an introduced organizational change.

Scholars are not able to consistently determine the effect of these trainings on changing employee behavior. On the one hand, scholars conclude that trainings for employees are not effective in changing behavior of employees (Miller 1990; Nelson et al., 2013). Miller (1990) states that there is little empirical evidence linking training to improved employee job behavior or attitude. In his study he concludes that job skill training just does not work efficiently (Miller, 1990). Also, Nelson and colleagues (2013) conclude in a study on the prediction of nursing staff blood pressure monitoring behaviors, that despite the expenditure of time and money on competency training, knowledge on the use of these techniques by nurses was substandard (Nelson et al., 2013). On the other hand it is proven that training is indeed effective for changing employee behavior (Häfner & Stock, 2010; Ji et al., 2012; Orpen, 1994). It is argued that trainings can improve the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the employees and can increase their motivation and commitment to exert behavior in favor of the organizational change (Ji et al., 2012). In studies on time-management training it was proven that training had a positive effect on the performance of time management behavior (Häfner & Stock, 2010; Orpen, 1994), but also on the attitude of the employees towards time management (Orpen, 1994) and the perceived control over time of employees (Häfner & Stock, 2010). In the current research the view of the positive effect of training on employee behavior is followed. This view findings suggest that trainings can positively affect the intention to use behavior as well as its determinants. Therefore, training will be taken into account as a moderator for the relationship between attitude towards use behavior, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. Thereby, the TPB can be used to address the effectiveness and usefulness of trainings to change behavior of employees in organizations.

When trainings are specially developed to change behavior of employees by giving them information and tools to use the preferred behavior, it is expected that the predictors of the intention and the intention to use behavior both will be positively influenced by this training. The intention of employees to use behavior is

expected to become higher because after the training, the behavior comes to mind when an employee finds him/herself in a situation in which this behavior can be used. During a training the behavior is extensively discussed and practiced which will influence the ease with which it comes to mind and therefore employees will be triggered to actually use the behavior in question. This assumption is consistent with a common psychological phenomenon called the availability heuristic. The availability heuristic describes how people tend to base their judgment of an object on the ease it comes to mind (Kahneman, Slovic & Tversky, 1982). The ease of a behavior coming to mind increases when someone already has experience with this behavior (Kahneman et al., 1982), for example during the training. Also, the complete world of marketing is based on the assumption that advertising and brand awareness (whether people recall, recognize or know a brand) stimulate consumers to buy a company's products or use their services (Huang & Sarigöllü, 2012).

Attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control are all expected to become higher when training is involved. When employees and his/her colleagues attend a training they should gain a better understanding of the behavior, why it is preferable to use and how to gain skills to use the behavior. These skills give the employees the understanding, ability and confidence that they need to use the behavior in question. When colleagues of these employees likewise have this understanding and confidence about the behavior they are more likely to motivate others to use this behavior. Therefore, in this research "training" is proposed to act as a moderator on the relationships between attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control and intention to use behavior.

It is expected that an employee training that was given to change behavior will positively influence the behavioral beliefs of the employee or create new positive behavioral beliefs about this behavior. Positive attitudes of employees towards their work or towards a change in behavior to effectively do their work can motivate employees to actively use what they have learned in their trainings in daily proceedings (Liang et al., 2013). According to Liang et al. (2013) trainings could assist employees to foster their positive attitudes towards their work and thereby enhance individual and organizational effectiveness. In their research on education and training concerning a Chinese company, it was found that trainings in fact do enhance employee's attitudes (Liang et al., 2013). Also, Ehrhardt et al. (2011) state that trainings provided by organizations influences a variety of desirable attitudes of employees, and Orpen (1994), came to the same conclusion. In this study the same positive effect of training on attitude towards use behavior is expected, as well as a positive effect of training on intention as explained before. So, training is expected to be a moderator on the relation between attitude towards behavior and intention to use that behavior. From these expectations the following hypothesis is derived;

Hypothesis 4.1

"Training has a positive moderation effect on the relationships between attitude towards behavior and intention to use that behavior"

Secondly, it is expected that a training given to change behavior will positively influence the normative beliefs of an employee or create new positive normative beliefs about this behavior. McDonalds (2004) describes that training can play a key role in refreezing processes whereby an individual is likely to get reinforcement, confirmation, and support from significant social groups within the organization such as staff members, trainers, managers and costumers. These social groups can pressure employees to perform the behavior that was subject of the training. Also, colleagues that attended the same training can assert subjective norm through simply talking about the training and their experiences with the new behavior. Sarkis, Gonzalez-Torre & Adenso-Diaz (2010), describe how training of employees activates frontrunners for the (behavioral) change, and they can exert pressure from which other employees can feel subjective norm. For these reasons, this study also expects a positive effect of training on subjective norm to perform a behavior, as well as a positive effect of training on intention as explained earlier. So, a moderating effect of training on the relation between subjective norm to perform behavior and intention to use behavior is expected. From these expectations the following hypothesis is derived;

Hypothesis 4.2

"Training has a positive moderation effect on the relationships between subjective norm to perform a behavior and intention to use behavior"

Thirdly, it is expected that training given to change behavior will positively influence the control beliefs of an employee or create new positive control beliefs about this behavior. Multiple studies have stated that trainings are effective because they enhance skills of employees that are helpful for fulfilling job responsibilities (Ehrhardt et al., 2011; Liang et al., 2013,). In their study on time management training Häfner and Stock (2010) found that that employees gained skills through training which enhanced the feeling of perceived control over time. In the current study it is expected that training will also have a positive effect on perceived behavioral control. The intention to use behavior is also expected to increase when an employee attends a training. Therefore, a moderation effect is expected of training on the relation between perceived behavioral control and the intention to use that behavior. From these expectations the following hypothesis derives;

Hypothesis 4.3

"Training has a positive moderation effect on the relationship between perceived behavioral control and intention to use that behavior"

3. Methods

3.1 Research context

This research has been performed at a large health care organization that provides care for over 4000 chronic ill or disabled people (clients) in the Netherlands. The care for people with chronic illnesses or disability is a high cost in the budget of the Dutch government and reductions on this budget are made. Therefore, Dutch health care organizations experience high pressures to change. At the time of this research the health care organization decided to implement a change. This change included behavioral changes from employees at the organization. This organizational change setting provides a suitable basis to conduct this research.

3.2 Research design

To test the hypothesis of this research data was gathered from employees of a large health care organization with approximately 5000 employees. The research design of this study is a cross-sectional design. The data was collected at one point in time amongst employees form five different districts within this health care organization. Two groups are compared on existing differences, thus without any manipulation from the researcher. The research question will be answered through the use of quantitative methods. These methods include testing the hypotheses derived from theory. The data for this quantitative analysis is obtained through electronically distributed questionnaires.

3.2 Sample strategy and data collection

Employees form five different districts are questioned. In some districts employees had been given a training to use behavior intended by an organizational change, and in other districts employees did not jet follow this training. To answer the research question and collect data from as much employees as possible, data was collected by means of an electronically distributed questionnaire. Employees of two groups are selected from these five districts, one group (from 2 districts) in which most employees have taken the training and one group (from 3 districts) in which most professionals did not take the training.

A diversity of employees has been approached to participate in this research. A selection of employees was made because only data from employees that were asked to change their behavior according to the implementation of an organizational change are valuable for this particular research. First, cluster managers and second, employees from three different kind of teams; teams that take care of clients that live on their own, teams that take direct care of the clients that live in a home on one of the centrum locations and teams that take care of clients during daytime (day care). Therefore the following 5 main categories of respondents can be specified; cluster managers, personal attendant, attendant home, attendant day-care, first responsible day-care. A team consists of approximately 6 people. E-mails were send with the link to the questionnaire to approximately 45 teams and 10 cluster managers. Thus, the sample consisted of 280 employees from the

company. 139 questionnaires were completed; another 36 employees started the questionnaire but failed to finish it. The response rate of this study was (139/280)*100% = 49.6%. To involve as much relevant data as possible in this research the 36 questionnaires that were not completed were used for only one or two of the studied behaviors in this research depending on whether they completed all questions for a behavior. Therefore an additional 36 responses were added to the analysis leading to a response rate of (175/280)*100%= 62.5%.

The questionnaire used in this research can be found in appendix A. The questionnaire was designed using the guidelines as provided by Francis, et al., 2004. This manual has been specially designed for the health care sector and is therefore very applicable for designing the questionnaire for this research. An e-mail, with a link to this online questionnaire was send to employees; cluster managers, and a general e-mail address of multiple teams. The sample strategy for the questionnaires was based on the willingness of these employees to participate. To improve the responds rate, a second, and third, e-mail which included the link to the questionnaire, were send later in time as a reminder.

3.2 Measures and Validation

The Method of Family Care (MFC) was developed by Beneken genaamd Kolmer (2007) and aims to enrich the lives of the clients and their caretakers by involving the social network in the care of the client. The health care organization decided to implement this MFC. The MFC includes multiple tools and methods for employees to involve the social network of the client in the care of the client. These methods ask for a change in behavior from those employees. In this study, the intention to use three of these preferred behaviors were measured as the independent variable: intention to use behavior. These three measures are; (i) intention to "use genogram" to gain insight in the background of the client, (ii) intention to "contact" important members of the social network to involve them in the care for the client, (iii) intention to "clarify" expectations and boundaries by the use of open communication between professionals, the social network and the client to increase satisfaction of the social network, the client and the professionals. For all three behaviors the respondents got a brief explanation before they were asked whether or not they understood the behavior in question. If respondents answered that they did not understand the behavior, respondents were automatically forwarded to the questions about the next behavior.

According to the TPB, an important ground rule of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control is that, to have predictive validity, the object of the attitude must be composed of the same target, action, context, and time elements as the intention use behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). For this research this means that also the independent variables are measured three times; attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control are all measured for the behaviors "use genogram," "contact" and "clarify."

Each hypothesis is thus tested three times in this research which means that first, hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3a, 4.1a, 4.2a, and 4.3a were testing the hypotheses for the behavior use genogram, second, hypotheses 1b, 2b, 3b, 4.1b, 4.2b and 4.3b were testing the hypotheses for the behavior contact and last, hypotheses 1c, 2c, 3c, 4.1c, 4.2c, and 4.3c were testing the hypotheses for the behavior clarify.

The questionnaires included questions that form the items of five scales. These scales measure the five variables in the conceptual model; the dependent variable; (i) intention to use behavior, the independent variables; (ii) attitude towards behavior, (iii) subjective norm, (iv) perceived behavioral control, and the moderator; (v) training. In the following section the items and scales used are specified. Thereafter results of the principle component analysis (PCA) and reliability analyses (RA) are given for each scale. In table 1.0 a summary of the results from the PCA and RA are given.

3.2.1 Intention to use behavior

The intention to use behavior is measured on a two-item scale. In the questionnaire the respondents got two statements on which they had to answer on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1; "completely disagree" to 7; "completely agree." The first statement was about the willingness of the respondent to use the behavior in question and the second whether they planned to use the behavior in question. Intention was measured three times; intention to use genogram, intention to contact and intention to clarify. The two items of the intention use behavior scale were subjected to PCA. First the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed.

First, intention towards genogram; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of only coefficients above .7. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .5 precisely the minimum recommended value .09). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (1.753), explaining 88% of the variance. The factor loadings are strong, both .936. A Reliability Analysis (RA) was done to check the reliability of the intention scale. The RA on the intention towards genogram scale revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .859 which is well above the preferable .8, (Pallant, 2010), which indicates high internal consistency of the items.

Second, Intention to contact; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of only coefficients above .7. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .5. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (1.780), explaining 89% of the variance. The factor loadings are strong, both .943. The RA on the intention contact scale revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .906, which indicates high internal consistency of the items (Pallant, 2010).

Third, Intention to clarify; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of only coefficients above .6. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .5. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (1.660), explaining 83% of the variance. The factor loadings are strong, both .911. The RA on the intention contact scale revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .794, which indicates high internal consistency of the items (Pallant, 2010).

All three FA's and RA's show that the intention scale is reliable. The two items "intention will" and "intention plan" are used for the scale and measure intention to use behavior.

3.2.2 Attitude towards behavior

The attitude towards behavior is measured on a four-item scale. In the questionnaire the respondents got four statements on which they had to answer on a seven-point Likert scale. The first statement was about their overall impression towards the use of behavior (1; negative versus 7; positive), the other three statements were whether they find the use of behavior, 1; unnecessary for clients versus 7; necessary for clients, 1; unpleasant (for me) versus 7; pleasant (for me) and 1; does not add value 7; adds value.

The four items of the attitude towards behavior scale were subjected to PCA. First the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Attitude was measured three times; attitude towards genogram, attitude towards contact and attitude towards clarify.

First, attitude towards use genogram; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of only coefficients above .7. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .852, exceeding the recommended value of .5 (Field, 2009). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (3.329), explaining 83% of the variance. The factor loadings are strong, ranging from .894 to .941. The RA on the attitude towards genogram scale revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .932, which indicate high internal consistency of the items (Pallant, 2010).

Second, Attitude towards contact; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of only coefficients above .6. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .803. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (3.129), explaining 78% of the variance. The factor loadings are strong, ranging from .853 to .903. The RA on the attitude towards genogram scale revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .906, which indicates high internal consistency of the items (Pallant, 2010).

Third, attitude towards clarify; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of only coefficients above .5. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .785. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (2.924), explaining 73% of the variance. The factor loadings are strong, ranging from .787 to .902. The RA on the attitude towards genogram scale revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .867, which is well above the preferable .8 and indicates high internal consistency of the items.

All three FA's and RA's show that the attitude scale is reliable. The four items; attitude; overall impression; attitude; unnecessary/necessary, attitude; unpleasant/pleasant and attitude; value/no-value are used for the scale and measure the concepts of attitude towards behavior.

3.2.3 Subjective Norm

Subjective norm to use behavior is measured on a four-item scale. In the questionnaire the respondents got four statements on which they had to answer on a seven-point Likert scale. The first statement was whether they thought their colleagues want them to (1; use behavior 7; not use behavior), the second about whether they feel pressure from their colleagues, the third whether they feel free to choose if they use the behavior or not and the last if their superior wants them to use the behavior. The four items of the subjective norm scale were subjected to PCA. First the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Subjective norm was measured three times; subjective norm to use genogram, subjective norm to contact and subjective norm to clarify.

First, subjective norm to use genogram; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of negative correlations which indicate that the items are not measuring the same underlying characteristic, and only one coefficient was above .3. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .420, which is below the recommended value of .5 (Field, 2009). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). From these values can be concluded that the data is not suitable for PCA. The RA on the subjective norm genogram scale showed a Cronbach's Alpha of only .310, which indicates a very low internal consistency of the items.

Second, subjective norm to contact; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of negative correlations, an indication of that the items are not measuring the same underlying characteristic, and two coefficient above .3. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .527, only just above the recommended value (Field, 2009). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of two components with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (1.547, 1.214), explaining 38,686 and 30.355%of the variance. The factor loadings

range from .418 to .719. The RA on the subjective norm genogram scale revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .465, which indicates a very low internal consistency of the items. Cronbah's Alpha if item deleted showed only an improvement to .473 when SNwelniet was deleted.

Third, subjective norm to clarify; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of negative correlations and only one coefficient above .3. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was insufficient; .450 (Field, 2009). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). From these values can be concluded that the date is not suitable for PCA. The RA on the subjective norm genogram scale revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .173, which indicates a very low internal consistency of the items.

The assessments of suitability of the data for FA's of subjective norm to use genogram and subjective norm to clarify were negative. The data was not suitable for FA. The data for the FA on subjective norm contact was suitable. Nevertheless, the correlation matrix showed negative coefficients, which could indicates that some of items have not been correct reverse scored. After an extra check this possibility was ruled out. So, it means that the items are not measuring the same underlying characteristic. The Cronbach's Alpha of all the subjective norm scales were very low, indicating low internal consistency of the items. The Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted showed that no deletion would turn the Cronbach's Alpha above the sufficient value of .7. After consideration it was concluded that the items of the subjective norm scale did not measure the underlying characteristic, and only one item was chosen to represent the scale subjective norm. The construct that was closest to the definition of subjective norm given in the theoretical framework was chosen to represent the construct of subjective norm which represents the question whether the participants feel pressure from their colleagues to perform the behavior in question.

3.2.4 Perceived Behavioral Control

Perceived behavioral control over behavior is measured on a six-item scale. In the questionnaire the respondents got six statements on which they had to answer on a seven-point Likert scale. The first statement was about the feeling of the respondent to be able to use the behavior, the second whether they have faith that they can use the behavior, the third whether they found the use of behavior 1; easy, 7; difficult, the fourth whether the choice of using the behavior is out of their control, the fifth whether they have enough knowledge to use the behavior and last, whether they have enough time to use the behavior. The six items of the perceived behavioral control scale were subjected to PCA. First the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Perceived behavioral control was measured three times; perceived behavioral control over use genogram, perceived behavioral control over contact and perceived behavioral control over clarify.

First, perceived behavioral control over use genogram; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of only coefficients varying from 0.069 to 0.607. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .733. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of two components with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (2.614, 1.144), explaining 44% and 19% of the variance. The factor loadings of the first component are ranging from .371 to .827 and of the second component are ranging from -.397 to .697. Which might indicate that there are two underlying characteristics of perceived behavioral control, perceived behavioral control out of control and perceived behavioral control time would become a separate characteristic. The RA on the perceived behavioral control genogram scale revealed an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha of .723. The Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted shows a rise in Cronbach's Alpha to .736 if the item perceived behavioral control time is deleted.

Second, perceived behavioral control over contact; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of coefficients ranging from .114 to .528. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .796, exceeding the recommended value of .5 (Field, 2009). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (2.758), explaining 46% of the variance. The factor loadings range from .454 to .794, and perceived behavioral control time has lowest score. The RA on the perceived behavioral control contact scale revealed an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha of .742. The Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted shows a rise in Cronbach's Alpha to .757 if the item perceived behavioral control time is deleted. No other items if deleted show a rise in Cronbach's Alpha.

Third, perceived behavioral control over clarify; Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of coefficients ranging from .120 to .466. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin (KMO) value was .755, exceeding the recommended value of .5 (Field, 2009). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix (Pallant, 2010). PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue above 1.0 (2.588), explaining 43% of the variance. The factor loadings range from .389 to .754, and perceived behavioral control time has again the lowest score. The RA on the subjective norm clarify scale revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .721 which is above the acceptable .7. The Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted shows a rise in Cronbach's Alpha to .743 if the item perceived behavioral control time is deleted. No other items if deleted show a rise in Cronbach's Alpha.

All three FA's and RA's show that the perceived behavioral control scale is reliable. In all three RA the scale would become even more reliable when the item perceived behavioral control time is deleted. In the FA for perceived behavioral control it was suggested that there were two components, one including

perceived behavioral control time and perceived behavioral control out of control. The other FA's did not confirm this result and to be consistent in the scale of perceived behavioral control, this suggestion was overruled. Therefore, it is decided that only perceived behavioral control time is going to be deleted from the PBC scale. It is expected that time could play an important role in the perceived behavioral control of the professional as they work in an environment that has high time pressure. Therefore, perceived behavioral control time is taken into account as the second underlying construct of perceived behavioral control. That gives PBC two dimensions, firstly, perceived behavioral control internal and secondly, perceived behavioral control time.

3.2.5 Training

The suggested moderation variable for the relation between the determinants of intention to use behavior according to the TPB and the intention to use behavior is training. The specific training that is of consideration in this research is the training MFC, which was especially designed by the health care organization to help employees in performing the behaviors studied in this research (amongst some others). Measuring whether employees did or did not take the training is measured with one or two questions in the questionnaire. The first; did you take the training MFC? And if the respondents answered no, this was the last question about training. If the responded answered yes, the following question was how many hours did you take the training MFC? They could choose from the following answers; 1. "Less than one hour", 2. "1-8 hours", 3. "9-16 hours", 4 "17-24 hours", 5. "25-32 hours" and 6. "More than 32 hours". When a respondent answered "No" to the first question they were included in the 1 category.

3.2.6 Control variables, Level of Education and Function Type

Two control variables are included in this research. The first control variable is *level of education* and the second control variable is *function type*. The use of new behavior calls for certain skills and ability to learn. Employees with a higher education level are expected to have less difficulty in understanding the methods they supposed to use. Therefore, the level of education is controlled for. In the questionnaire the question "What is your highest level of education completed?" was asked to the respondents. It appeared that there are two distinct categories in the answers; MBO and HBO. A dummy variable was made with MBO coded as 0 and HBO coded as 1. The second control variable is function type. As mentioned earlier the following main categories can be specified; cluster managers, personal attendants, attendants home, attendants day-care, first responsible day-care. The personal attendants and first responsible day-care are responsible for the contact with the social network of the client. This gives them the prior experience with dealing with, and contacting these people from the social network. Also, it might influence the feeling of responsibility of these care-professionals as it is "their job" to contact the social network of the client.

Therefore it is expected that these two function types are, due to former experience and feeling of responsibility, better able to use the new behavior in question. In the questionnaire the question “What is your current function type?” is asked. From the answers to this question a new variable was made (function), that has two categories; personal attendants and first responsible day-care were coded as 1 and all other functions were coded as 0.

Table 1.0 summary results PCA and RA

Item	***Component***											
	Intention genogram	***Intention contact***	***Intention clarify***	***Attitude genogram***	***Attitude contact***	***Attitude clarify***	***Subjective norm genogram***	***Subjective norm contact***	***Subjective norm clarify***	***PBC genogram***	***PBC contact***	***PBC clarify***
intention												
Intention; will	.936	.934	.911									
Intention; plan	.936	.934	.911									
Attitude												
Attitude; overall impression				.910	.884	.827						
Attitude; unnecessary/necessary				.904	.903	.902						
Attitude; unpleasant /pleasant				.894	.853	.787						
Attitude; value/no-value				.941	.897	.898						
Subjective norm												
Subjective norm colleagues do/don’t								.418				

Subjective norm free choice								.719				
Subjective norm pressure colleagues								.652				
Subjective norm will superior								.656				
Perceived behavioral control(PBC)												
PBC able										.827	.794	.706
PBC trust										.689	.766	.754
PBC easiness										.705	.582	.649
PBC out of control										.477	.637	.672
PBC knowledge										.769	.768	.705
PBC time										.477	.454	.389
KMO	.500	.500	.500	.852	.803	.785	.420	.527	.450	.733	.796	.755
BTS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Eigenvalues	1.753	1.780	1.660	3.329	3.129	2.924		1.547		2.614	2.758	2.588
% of variance	88	89	83	83	78	73		39		44	46	43
Cronbach's Alpha	.859	.874	.794	.932	.906	.867	.310	.465	.173	.723	.742	.721

3.3 Analytical approach

To test the previously stated hypotheses a hierarchical multiple regression is used, The results of the hierarchical multiple regression will indicate how well the independent variables, (i) attitude towards behavior, (ii) subjective norm to use behavior and (iii) perceived behavioral control over behavior, are able to predict the dependent variable; intention to use behavior (with education and function controlled for), and it will also tell how much of the unique variance each of the independent variables explains in the dependent variable (Pallant, 2010). The hierarchical regression analysis is also used to test the moderation (or interaction) effect of training. An interaction effect can be represented in a linear model by the addition of an extra term that is the product of the relevant independent variables (attitude towards behavior * training, subjective norm * training and perceived behavioral control * training) (Coulton & Chow, 1993). The presence of the interaction effect is determined when the interaction term contributes significantly to the variance explained in the dependent variable over the main effects of the independent variables (Coulton & Chow, 1993; Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003). The hierarchical regression is done three times, for all behaviors considered in this study. In the hierarchical regression the control variables education and function are put in model 1. Thereafter, attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control added in model 2 to determine the main effects. In model 3 training is added, so the main effect of training is identified. Last, in model 4, 5, 6 and 7 the product terms are added to the hierarchical regression to determine whether an interaction effect is present. Before testing for an interaction effect the values of the variables are centered as recommended by multiple researchers (Jaccard, Turrisi & Wan, 1990, Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003). If variables are not centered before including the interaction effect there might be problems with multicollinearity. Centering is done by subtracting the mean score from each score on that variable, therefor when a variable is centered, thus, the zero point occurs at the mean (Jaccard et al., 1990; Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003).

Further elaboration on the results was done by testing whether a possible mediation effect occurred. MacCallum and Mar (1995), recommend that even if a significant moderation effect is found, a bigger significant mediation effect can be present. Therefore, the variable training is also tested as a mediator for the main effects for all methods. This was done with the Baron and Kenny (1986) method. They present their method in their paper and the following steps need to be taken to test for mediation; (i) first, regressing the mediator on the independent variable, (ii) regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable (iii) regressing the dependent variable on both the independent variable and on the mediator, (iii) a Sobel test should be used to determine the mediation effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Separate coefficients for each equation should be estimated and tested. So, first, it was determined whether the effect of the determinant (attitude towards behavior, subjective norm to perform behavior or perceived behavioral control over behavior) had a significant relation with training (function and education were controlled for). Thereafter,

a hierarchical linear regression was done with intention to use behavior as dependent variable. Model 1, contained the control variables. Model 2, added the effect of the determinants. In model 3 training was added. When the relation between (i) the determinant and training, and (ii) training and intention to use behavior and (iii) the relation between the determinant and intention to use behavior were significant, a Sobel test was done to determine the presence of a mediation effect.

3.4 Checking Assumptions

The statistical technique of multiple regression makes a number of assumptions about the data and when these are violated the results are unreliable (Pallant, 2010). Therefore, the assumptions of the multiple regression are checked before the multiple regressions are conducted. The assumption that are important according to Pallant (2010), and were thus checked are; sample size, multicollinearity and singularity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of residuals. When checking for outliers the Mahalanobis distances values for genogram (>22), contact (>22) and clarify (>.22), appeared above 18.47 for one respondent in these behaviors (the maximum value according to Pallant, 2010). Before running the hierarchical regressions analysis these respondents were excluded from the analysis. This lowered the Mahalanobis distances values to; genogram; 17.15, contact; 18.913 and clarify; 15.348. For contact the Mahalanobis distances value slightly exceeds the critical value, but considering the size of the sample this for this one outlier no correction was made (Pallant, 2010). After checking these assumptions, which show no concerns after excluding respondents with an exceeding Mahalanobis distances value, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was run and with these results the hypotheses were tested.

4. Results

4.1 Sample characteristics

In the following tables (2.1, 2.2 and 2.3) some descriptive statistics of the variables used for the analysis and the correlations between those variables are presented. Table 2.1 presents the values for the variables dealing with the behavior genogram, table 2.2 for the behavior contact and table 2.3 for the behavior clarify. For the control variable education, there are more respondents that finished a MBO (100) education than HBO (76) education. For the control variable function there are 89 personal attendants and first responsible day-care and the rest group consists of 99 respondents. For both control variables the groups (1&0) have enough representatives to conduct reliable analysis. In the total population approximately 5% is cluster manager, 35% is personal attendant or first responsible day care and 60% is attendant home or attendant day-care. In the total population 65% is expected to have finished a MBO education and 35% is expected to have finished HBO education. And more employees in the population did not jet get offered the training, approximately 65%. These values show that the sample is representative for the total population, although

a relatively high number of personal attendants and first responsible day care have filled out the questionnaire.

The mean of subjective norm is relatively low for all behaviors. This means that respondents on average experience little pressure from colleagues to use a genogram, to contact members from the social network and to clarify boundaries and expectations. On the other hand, attitude and perceived behavioral control internal have a relatively high mean in all three tables. Meaning that respondents, on average, have a positive attitude towards using a genogram, contacting members of the social network of the client and clarifying boundaries and expectations, and expect themselves to be able to exert this behavior. For training there are 188 respondents in total. 134 respondents did not attend the training, 11 respondents attended 1-8 hours of training, 18 respondents attended 9-16 hours of training, 14 respondents attended 17-24 hours of training, and 8 respondents attended 25-32 hours of training.

The results of the Pearson correlation analysis show that the independent variables attitude, perceived behavioral control internal and perceived behavioral control time, all have a (significant) positive correlation with intention, which all lie near or between these predicted ranges by the TPB according to Ajzen (2011). In the literature the mean correlations between attitude and intention range from 0.45 to 0.60, the mean correlations between subjective norm and intention range from 0.34 to 0.42; and the mean correlations between perceived behavior control and intention range from .35 to 0.46 (Ajzen, 2011). Remarkable is that the correlations between subjective norm and intention are all very small and not significant, which suggests a negligible relationship between subjective norm and intention (Pallant, 2010). Notable, is that in all three analysis there are significant correlations between the independent variables, for example Attitude shows a positive significant correlation with the variables perceived behavioral control internal and perceived behavioral control time (ranging from .311 to .588). Nevertheless, only a correlation of .7 and higher is concerning (Pallant, 2010).

Table 2.1 descriptive statistics & correlations genogram

	Mean	*S.D.*	*Min*	*Max*	*N*	*Intention genogram*	*Attitude genogram*	*Subjective norm genogram*	*PBC internal genogram*	*PBC time genogram*	*education*	*function*
Intention genogram	3.71	1.59	1	7	175							
Attitude genogram	5.05	1.32	1	7	175	.658**						
Subjective norm genogram	1.89	1.27	1	7	175	-.001	.053					
PBC internal genogram	4.66	1.18	1	7	175	.340**	.311**	-.023				
PBC time genogram	2.64	1.54	1	7	175	.491**	.356**	.035	.262**			
Education	.4318	.50	0	1	176	.230**	.223**	.029	.214**	.186*		
Function	.53	.50	0	1	188	-.024	.185*	.047	.031	.037	-.040	
Training	1.72	1.23	0	1	188	.408***	.259**	-.051	.213**	.268**	.079	-.154*

*Pearson correlation is significant at .05 level, **Pearson correlation is significant at .01 level

Table 2.2 descriptive statistics & correlations contact

	Mean	*S.D.*	*Min.*	*Max.*	*N*	*Intention contact*	*Attitude contact*	*Subjective norm contact*	*PBC internal contact*	*PBC time contact*	*education*	*function*
Intention contact	4.74	1.60	1	7	160							
Attitude contact	5.42	1.19	2	7	160	.633**						
Subjective norm contact	2.30	1.52	1	7	160	-.063	-.044					
PBC internal contact	5.46	1.06	2	7	160	.566**	.588**	-.186*				
PBC time contact	3.18	1.72	1	7	160	.387**	.460**	.145	.315**			
Education	.432	.50	0	1	176	.100	.001	-.051	.030	-.028		
Function	.53	.50	0	1	188	-.025	.046	.030	-.166*	.035	-.040	
Training	1.72	1.23	1	6	188	.236**	.130	-.127	.165*	.079	-.154*	

**Pearson correlation is significant at .01 level, *Pearson correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 2.3 descriptive statistics & correlations clarify

	Mean	*S.D.*	*Min.*	*Max.*	*N*	*Intention clarify*	*Attitude clarify*	*Subjective norm clarify*	*PBC internal clarify*	*PBC time clarify*	*education*	*function*
Intention clarify	4.89	1.36	1	7	129							
Attitude clarify	5.49	1.08	2	7	129	.653**						
Subjectivenorm clarify	2.49	1.43	1	6	129	-.006	-.146					
PBC_internal clarify	4.90	1.03	1	7	129	.571**	.516**	-.228**				
PBC_time clarify	3.28	1.55	1	7	129	.270**	.110	-.002	.253**			
Education	.4318	.50	0	1	176	.113	.163	.026	.235**	.099		
Function	.53	.50	0	1	188	-.038	.050	.026	-.125	.169	-.040	
training	1.72	1.23	0	1	188	.188*	.097	.017	.117	.204*	.079	-.154*

**Pearson correlation is significant at .01 level, *Pearson correlation is significant at .05 level

4.2 Hypothesis tests

The following tables present the results from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for predicting intention genogram (table 3.1), intention contact (table 3.2) and intention to clarify (table 3.3). The hypotheses stated in the theoretical framework were tested with these results. The first model presents the results for the control variables function and education. In the second block the main effects were entered and thereafter in the third model and on, the moderation effects are shown.

4.2.1 Hypothesis tests for intention to use genogram

First, the results for the dependent variable intention to use genogram are discussed. Model 2, the main effects, explain 56% of the variance in intention to use genogram when function and education are controlled for. Hypothesis 1a postulates that attitude is a significant positive predictor of intention to use genogram. Consistent with the hypothesis, the results in table 3.1, model 2 with the main effects, show that b is positive and significant (b= .577, sig p<.001). Hypothesis 2a is not supported. Subjective Norm (pressure of colleagues to use genogram) does not significantly predict the intention to use genogram. Hypothesis 3a proposes a positive effect of perceived behavioral control on intention to use genogram. Perceived behavioral control has two dimensions, internal and time. The results in table 3.1 show that the positive predictor perceived behavioral control internal is marginally significant (b=.105, sig p< .1) and positive predictor perceived behavioral control time was significant at p<.001 (b= .256). Hypothesis 3a is thus supported but only weak support was found for the relation between perceived behavioral control internal and intention to use genogram.

In model 3 training was brought in the model as a main effect. A significant F Change was found, which means that model 3 ads significant value compared to model 2. This model predicts 57% of the variance in intention to use genogram. A positive significant effect of training on intention to use genogram was found (b=1.75, sig p<.01). Which is consistent with the first step in the expectation described for hypothesis 4.1a, 4.2a and 4.3a. These described a rise in intention to use behavior as well as a rise in the determinant of intention to use behavior. Notable is that in model 3 the value of perceived behavioral control internal is no longer significant. Following, Model 4-7 show no significant improvement in F change, which means that the moderators don't contribute significantly to the model. Hypothesis 4.1a, 4.2a and 4.3 are not supported for the behavior genogram because no significant results were found for the interaction effect of training on the relation between attitude and intention to use genogram, subjective norm and intention to use genogram, and perceived behavioral control and intention to use genogram.

4.2.1.1 Additional explorative analysis

In model 3, the control variable function appeared to have a significant negative direct effect on intention to use genogram (b= -.123, sig p< .5). This finding is not as expected and will be further elaborated on in the discussion section.

As explained in section 3.3 analytical approach, it was advised by MacCallum and Mar (1995), to additionally check for mediation effects when an interaction effect was expected, regardless the results on this interaction effect. Thus, Training was checked as a mediator on the relation between the determinants of intention according to the TPB and intention to use genogram.

Attitude towards genogram was found to have a significant positive effect on training (b=.206, sig= .015). Training and attitude towards genogram both have a positive significant effect on the intention to use genogram (see model 3, in table 3.1). For a mediation of training on the relation attitude towards genogram and intention to use genogram weak support as found with the Sobel test (S= 1.931, P-value sig .0534). The strength of the relationship between attitude towards behavior and intention to use behavior was still significant but did declined when training was added to the model, so a partial mediation is evident.

Perceived behavioral control time was found to have a significant positive effect on training (b=.180, sig= .027). Training and perceived behavioral control time both have a positive significant effect on the intention to use genogram (see model 3, in table 3.1). The Sobel test also weakly supported a mediation of training on the relation perceived behavioral control time over genogram and intention to use genogram (S= 1.804, P-value sig. 0.0715). The strength of the relationship between perceived behavioral control time over behavior and intention to use behavior was still significant but did declined, so a partial mediation is evident. The other relations no Sobel test was done because the values of the variables from the regression did not provide support for a possible mediation (in the first three steps described in the analytical approach section).

Table 3.1: Hierarchical regression predicting intention to use *genogram*

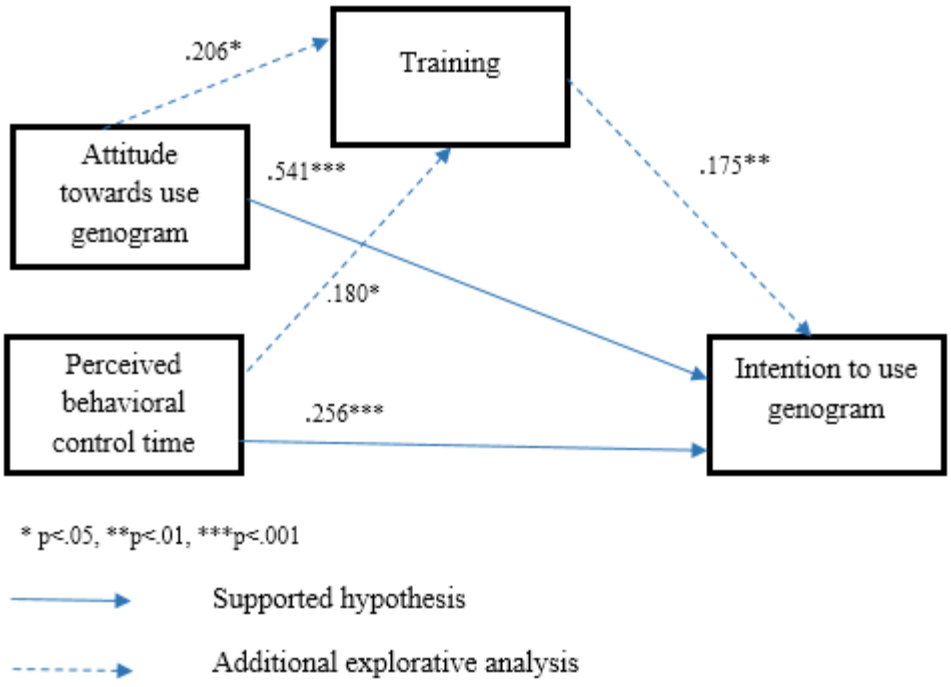
	(1)	*(2)*	*(3)*	*(4)*	*(5)*	*(6)*	*7)*
Control variables							
Function	-.022	-.158**	-.123*	-.122*	-.124*	-.123*	-.116*
	(.774)	(.004)	(.033)	(.026)	(.024)	(.025)	(.036)
Education	.244**	.013	.018	.023	.016	.015	.016
	(.004)	(823)	(753)	(.669)	(.768)	(.783)	(.769)
Independent variables							
Attitude		.577***	541***	.548***	.544***	.541***	.542***
		(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)
Subjective norm		.022	.031	.027	.030	.033	.036
		(.679)	(.572)	(.607)	(.563)	(.531)	(.494)
PBC internal		.105 †	.086	.084	.083	.087	.087
		(.068)	(.149)	(.134)	(.147)	(.127)	(.123)
PBC time		.256***	.225***	.244***	.223***	.224***	.218
		(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)
Main effect training							
training			.175**	.139	.176**	.172**	.153*
			(.004)	(.026)	(.002)	(.003)	(.011)
Moderators							
Attitude x training				.077			
				(.186)			
Subjective norm x training					-.022		
					(.674)		
PBC internal x training						.16	
						(.762)	
PBC time x training							.066
							(.244)
Model statistics							
R²	.051	.561	.566	.591	.587	.586	.590
Model F	3.921*	30.184***	28.536***	27.805***	27.325***	27.299***	27.684***
	(.015)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)
F change	4.297*	45.216***	9.626**	1.768	.178	.092	1.368
	(.015)	(.000)	(.002)	(.186)	(.674)	(.762)	(.244)
ΔR²	.051	.510	.026	.005	.000	.000	.004

Model 1; N=188, model 2-7; N=174
Dependent variable: Intention to use genogram
Values reported in the table are the unstandardized coefficient values
† p<.1, * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

4.2.1.2 Visualization results behavior use genogram

The results on the behavior use genogram are summarized in the visualization below, figure 2.1. Attitude towards use genogram and perceived behavioral control time were found to have a positive direct effect on intention to use genogram. Perceived behavioral control internal lost its significant direct effect when training was added to the model. A direct effect of training was found. In the additional explorative analysis training appeared to be significant mediator for the relation between attitude towards genogram and intention to use genogram, and perceived behavioral control time and intention to use genogram.

Figure 2.1; visualization results hypothesis test for the behavior use genogram



4.2.2 Hypothesis tests for intention to contact

Second, the results for the intention to contact are discussed. Model 2, the main effects, explain 45% of the variance in intention to contact when function and education are controlled for. Hypothesis 1b postulate that attitude is a significant positive predictor of intention to contact. Consistent with this hypothesis, the results in table 3.2, model 2, show that b is positive and significant (b= .453, sig p<.000). Hypothesis 2b is not supported. Subjective norm (pressure of colleagues to contact) does not significantly predict the intention to contact. Hypothesis 3b proposes a positive effect of PBC on intention to contact. Perceived behavioral control has two dimensions, internal and time. The results in table 3.2 show that the positive predictor of intention to contact; perceived behavioral control internal is significant (b=.232, sig p< .01) and perceived behavioral control time was not significant. Hypothesis 3b is therefore partially supported, only for the dimension internal a significant result was found, no support was found for the second dimension, time.

In model 3 training was brought into the model as a main effect. A significant F change was found, which means that training, as a main effect, contributes to the model and 49 % of the variance in intention to contact was explained by this model. The direct effect of training is positive and significant (b=.129, sig p<.05). Which is consistent with the first step in the expectation described for hypothesis 4.1b, 4.2b and 4.3b. These described a rise in intention to use behavior as well as a rise in the determinant of intention to

use behavior. Following, Model 4 shows a negative interaction effect of training on the relation between attitude towards contact and intention to contact (b= -.875, sig p<.01, centered b= -.150, sig p<.01. Thus, a significant interaction effect of training on attitude to contact and intention to contact is found, but it is not positive as expected. Training does have a positive relation on intention to contact, but the strength of positive relation of attitude towards contact and intention to contact decreases when the moderator is added to the model. Hypothesis 4.2b and 4.3b are not supported for the behavior contact, as no significant results were found for the interaction effect of training on the relation between subjective norm and intention to contact, and perceived behavioral control and intention to contact (model 5-7).

4.2.2.1 Additional explorative analysis

Last, training was checked as a mediator on the relations between the determinants according to the TPB and the intention to contact. For all the relations no Sobel test was done because in the first step of the analysis (as described in the analytical approach section) the values of the variables from the regression did not provide support for a possible mediation effects.

Table 3.2: Hierarchical regression predicting intention to contact

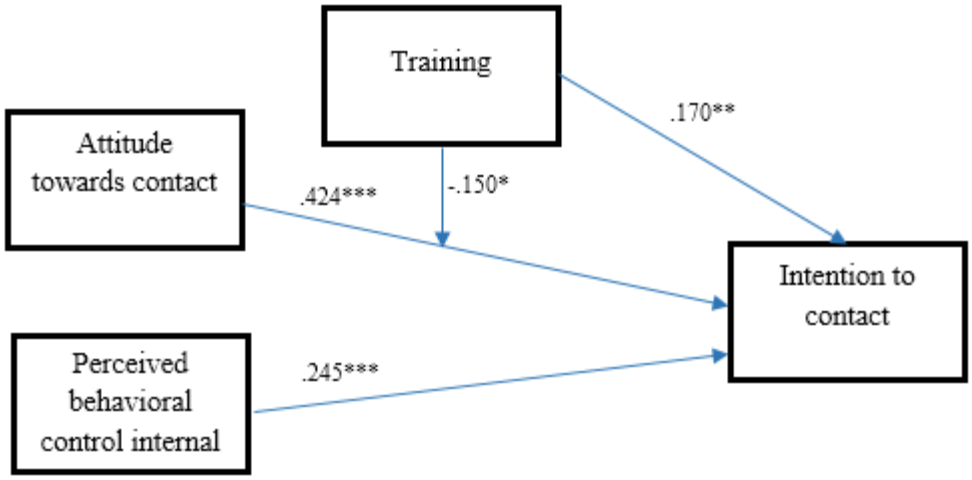
	(1)	*(2)*	*(3)*	*(4)*	*(5)*	*(6)*	*(7)*
Control variabele							
Function	-.012	.003	.022	.027	.023	.029	.025
	(.885)	(.962)	(.722)	(.659)	(.722)	(.648)	(.690)
Education	.091	.087	.079	.068	.079	.082	.080
	(.276)	(.155)	(.196)	(.258)	(.198)	(.175)	(.193)
Independent variables							
Attitude contact		.453***	.442***	.424***	.442***	.433***	.447***
		(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)
Subjective norm contact		-.019	.000	-.004	.000	.003	.003
		(.771)	(.995)	(.945)	(.998)	(.964)	(.963)
PBC internal contact		.232**	.238**	.254***	.238**	.257**	.238***
		(.006)	(.004)	(.002)	(.004)	(.002)	(.004)
PBC time contact		.111	.090	.072	.090	.084	.086
		(.116)	(.205)	(.299)	(.207)	(.235)	(.228)
Main effect							
Training			.129*	.170**	.129*	.152*	.121 †
			(.043)	(.009)	(.050)	(.020)	(.064)
Moderators							
Attitude x training				-.150*			
				(.018)			
Subjective norm x training					.001		
					(.984)		
PBC internal x training						-.098	
						(.119)	
PBC time x training							.032
							(.623)
Model statistics							
R²	.008	.476	.491	.511	.491	.500	.492
Model F	.615	21.330***	19.295***	18.180***	16.763***	17.366888	16.822***
	(.542)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)
F change	.615	31.430	4.189*	5.771	0.00	2.456	.243
	(.542)	(.000)	(.043)	(.018)	(.984)	(.119)	(.623)
ΔR²	.008	.467	.015	.020	.000	.009	.001

Model 1; N=188, model 2-7; N=159
Dependent variable: Intention to contact
Values reported in the table are the unstandardized coefficient values
† p<.1, * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

4.2.2.2 Visualization results behavior contact

The results on hypothesis test of the behavior contact are summarized in the visualization below, figure 2.2. Attitude towards contact and perceived behavioral control internal were found to have a positive direct effect on intention to contact. After adding training to the model a direct effect of training was found. Training was also found to be a significant moderator for the relation between attitude towards contact and intention to contact.

Figure 2.2; visualization results hypothesis test for the behavior contact



* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

4.2.3 Hypothesis tests for intention to clarify

Third, the results for the intention to clarify are discussed. Model 2, the main effects, explain 51% of the variance in intention to clarify when function and education are controlled for. Hypothesis 1c postulates that attitude is a significant positive predictor of intention to clarify. Consistent with the hypothesis, the results in table 3.3, model 2, show that the relation between attitude and intention to clarify is positive and significant (b= .508, sig p<.000). Hypothesis 2c is also supported. Subjective norm (pressure of colleagues to clarify) significantly predicts the intention to clarify (b= .172, sig= p<.01). Hypothesis 3c proposes a positive effect of perceived behavioral control on intention to clarify. Again two dimensions are of importance, perceived behavioral control internal and perceived behavioral control time. The results in table 3.3 show that the predictor perceived behavioral control internal is significant (b=.353, sig p< .001) and predictor perceived behavioral control time was also significant (b=.163, sig=p<.05). Hypothesis 3c is thus supported for both dimensions.

In model 3 training is added the p change value was not significant. That means that model 3 did not significantly contribute to the model opposed to model 2. No main effect of training on the intention to clarify was found. Hypothesis 4.1c, 4.2c and 4.3c postulate a significant positive interaction effect of training on the determinants of intention to clarify according to the TPB. Only in model 5 a significant interaction effect was found. This interaction effect of training on the relationship between subjective norm and intention to clarify is not positive as predicted in hypothesis 4.2c, but negative (b=-.336, sig p<.05, centered b=-.126, sig p<.05). Training does not have a positive relation on intention to clarify, and the strength of the positive relation of subjective norm and intention to clarify decreases when the moderator

is added to the model. For the other interaction effects no significant results were found, thus no support was found for the hypothesis 4.1c and 4.3c.

2.1.3.1 Additional explorative analysis

Last, training was checked as a mediator on the relations between the determinants according to the TPB and the intention to clarify. For all the relations no Sobel test was done because in the first step of the analysis (as described in the analytical approach section) the values of the variables from the regression did not provide support for a possible mediation effects.

Table 3.3: Hierarchical regression predicting intention to clarify

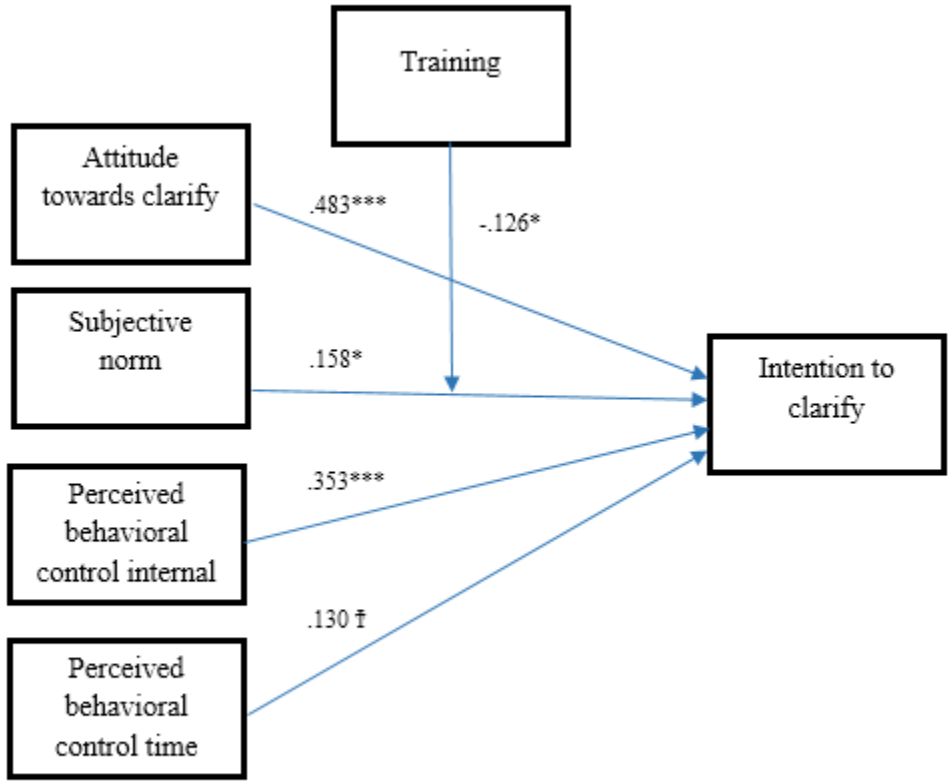
	(1)	*(2)*	*(3)*	*(4)*	*(5)*	*(6)*	*(7)*
Control variables							
Function	-.028	-.066	-.052	-.028	-.044	-.051	-.052
	(.759)	(.309)	(.431)	(.759)	(.500)	(.441)	(.432)
Education	.120	-.098	-.100	.120	-.087	-.102	-.097
	(.198)	(.137)	(.128)	(.198)	(.185)	(.125)	(.150)
Independent variables							
Attitude clarify		.508***	.501***	.503***	.483***	.496***	.501***
		(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)
Subjective norm clarify		.172**	.170**	.172*	.158*	.169*	.171**
		(.009)	(.010)	(.011)	(.016)	(.011)	(.010)
PBC internal clariy		.353***	.353***	.355***	.353***	.358***	.352***
		(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)
PBC time clarify		.163*	.147*	.146*	.130 †	.147*	.150*
		(.015)	(.031)	(.033)	(.054)	(.031)	(.030)
Main effect							
Training			.071	.067	.085	.074	.064
			(.279)	(.316)	(.188)	(.266)	(.348)
Moderators							
Attitude x training				.015			
				(.820)			
Subjective norm x training					-.126 *		
					(.047)		
PBC internal x training						-.023	
						(.726)	
PBC time x training							.021
							(.748)
Model statistics							
R²	.015	.567	.572	.572	.587	.572	.572
Model F	.907	24.447***	21.158***	18.362***	19.525***	18.383***	18.377***
	(.407)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)
F change	.907	35.675***	1.184	.052	4.037*	.123	.103
	(.407)	(.000)	(.279)	(.820)	(.047)	(.726)	(.748)
ΔR²	.015	.552	.005	.000	.015	.000	.000

Model 1; N=188, model 2-7; N=128
Dependent variable: Intention to clarify
Values reported in the table are the unstandardized coefficient values
† p<.1, * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

4.2.3.2 Visualization results behavior clarify

The results on hypothesis test of the behavior clarify are summarized in the visualization below, figure 2.2. Attitude towards contact, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control internal and perceived behavioral control time were found to have a positive direct effect on intention to contact. Training was found to be a moderator for the relation between subjective norm and intention to clarify.

Figure 2.3; visualization results hypothesis test for the behavior clarify



† p<.1, * p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

4.2.4 Hypothesis tests for all three methods

Table 4.0 summarizes the results presented above. First, the main effects; Hypothesis 1 was supported for all behaviors studied in this research. Hypothesis 2 was only supported for the behavior clarify (hypothesis 2c). The relation between perceived behavioral control internal and intention to use behavior is positive and significant all behaviors, although weak for the intention to use genogram. The relation between perceived behavioral control time is positive and significant for two of studied behaviors, intention to use genogram, and intention to clarify. Hypothesis 3a and 3c are fully supported, hypothesis 3b is only supported for perceived behavioral control internal. Second, the moderation effects; Hypothesis 4.1 is supported only for

the intention to contact (hypothesis 4.1b) Hypothesis 4.2 is supported for behavior clarify (hypothesis 4.2c). For all other interaction effects no significant result were found. With further analysis of the results weak supported for training to be a mediator for the relations between attitude towards genogram and intention to use genogram and perceived behavioral control (time) and intention to use genogram was found.

Table 4.0; summary results

	Intention to use genogram (a)	***Intention to contact (b)***	***Intention to clarify (c)***
Main effects			
Hypothesis 1	Supported	Supported	Supported
Hypothesis 2	X	X	Supported
Hypothesis 3 (PBC internal)	X	Supported	Supported
Hypothesis 3 (PBC time)	Supported	X	Supported
Training	Supported	Supported	X
Moderations effects			
Hypothesis 4.1	X	Supported	X
Hypothesis 4.2	X	X	Supported
Hypothesis 4.3 (PBC internal)	X	X	X
Hypothesis 4.4 (PBC time)	X	X	X

5. Conclusion and Discussion

5.1 Theoretical implications

The results of this research contribute to the current understanding of the TPB in an organizational change context. Empirical support for the use of the TPB in an organizational change setting was found. This is consistent with the results of earlier studies on various human behaviors (see Armitage & Conner, 2001; Sutton, 1998, both meta-analyses on the effectiveness of the TPB) and also with the few studies on the TPB conducted in an organizational change setting (Greaves et al., 2013; Jimmieson et al., 2008). In this research one or even two of the three basic determinants of intention did not carry statistically significant weight in the prediction of intention for some of the studied behaviors. It is important to mention that this should not be seen as evidence against the TPB in organizational change settings (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2004), as some researchers argue (e.g. Ogden, 2003). The founders of the TPB have noted repeatedly that the relative importance of attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control is expected to vary from behavior to behavior and population to population (e.g. Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein; 2004; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). The three determinants of intention should be sufficient to predict behavioral intentions, but only two, or sometimes only even one of the determinants may be necessary in any given situation (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2004, 2010). In this research multiple behaviors have been studied amongst the same population, thereby, this research empirically supports the notion that the importance of the determinants of intention differ across types of behaviors, but all three are of significant importance for at least one of the studied behaviors in this research. This means that insignificant results for one of the determinants in this study only indicates that for this particular behavior, this determinant, is not an important consideration in the formation of intention of employees (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2004). Nevertheless, not all TPB determinants of intention to use behavior being significant predictors for each of the behaviors deserves some further attention. This also applies to the differential strengths of the explanatory relationships found.

5.1.1 Main findings on Attitude towards behavior

Total support was found for the first hypothesis. Attitude towards behavior is positively related to the intention to use behavior. The total variance explained in intention to use behavior ranges from b=.453-.577. These results are consistent with earlier findings of the use of the TPB to measure intentions in various behavioral fields (Armitage & Conner 2001; Sutton, 1998) and earlier studies done on the use of the TPB in the organizational change setting (Greaves et al., 2013; Jimmieson et al., 2008). For all three behaviors, attitude had the highest unique contribution to the variance explained in intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting. Thereby, this research contributes to the readiness for change literature in supporting the view that favorable and positive views about organizational changes, and the extent to which

employees believe that such changes are profitable and have positive consequences, lead to positive changes in intention to use behavior of employees (Jimmieson et al., 2008). It also supports the notion of Rafferty et al. (2013), who argue that the most critical factor in successfully implementing a change in organizations is an employee's attitude towards the change.

5.1.2 Main findings on Subjective norm to perform behavior

The research findings on the relation between subjective norm and intention to use behavior contributed to both the literature on the TPB and the literature on organizational change. In this research the notion that change mangers should benefit from the social network present in organizations as a tool for creating power bases and alliances that inform and influence one another to create shared meaning during times of change (Fant et al., 2002; Jimmieson et al., 2008; Tenkansi & Chesmore, 2003), is supported for only one of the behaviors but rejected for the others. For intention to clarify, subjective norm was found to be a significant predictor and had the lowest unique contribution to the variance explained in intention. For the intention to use genogram and intention to contact, subjective norm was found to not significantly predict intention. These last results are consistent with numerous studies that have highlighted the failure of subjective norm to predict intentions (see Armitage & Conner, 2001; Sutton, 1998), but it is inconsistent with earlier studies on use of the TPB in organizational change settings (Greaves et al., 2013; Jimmieson et al, 2008). In the research of Jimmieson et al. (2008) subjective norm even presented itself as the strongest predictor in intention to engage in change-supportive behaviors. They propose that in relationships where there is potential for reward and punishment based on job performance, subjective norm is a strong and independent predictor of intention to engage in certain behavior at work (Jimmieson et al., 2008). This might actually be an explanation for subjective norm to be a significant predictor for the intention to clarify as opposed to the other behaviors studied in this research. The use of the behavior to clarify directly effects multiple parties like the social network of the client, the client and an employee's colleagues (Beneken genaamd Kolmer, 2007). This influence can be positive when it is done well, and negative if an employee fails to clarify expectations and boundaries. Rewards, such as compliments from the social network and colleagues, and punishments, for example comments to their manager, might thus be given to the employee that uses this behavior. This, according to Jimmieson et al. (2008), enhances the relation between subjective norm and intention to use behavior. For the other two behaviors, use genogram and contact, the effect on other parties is considerably smaller and the possible fear of punishment and ability to get rewarded is lower. The results in this research suggest that the influence on colleagues when an employee performs a behavior and the possibility to get rewarded or punished afterwards, might be an important factor in explaining the relation (or absence of the relation) between subjective norm and intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting.

Also, as mentioned before numerous studies have highlighted the failure of subjective norm to predict intentions (e.g. Armitage & Conner, 2001). Some authors even call it the weakest component in the TPB (see Armitage & Conner, 2001). Fishbein (2010) states a possible reason; subjective norm, as referred to in the current study, might not be enough to predict intention to use behavior. He distinguishes between two types of subjective norms; injunctive norms, and descriptive norms (Fishbein, 2010). In this study subjective norm referred to as what he calls injunctive norms, whereas descriptive norms refer to perceptions that others are, or are not, performing the behavior in question (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). It is argued that if most others are performing a certain behavior, employees might well assume that it is a sensible thing to do under the circumstances, which is especially found to be true if those others are seen as specialists (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). A person may learn whether the behavior has favorable or unfavorable outcomes, like rewards and/or punishments, or may learn to overcome barriers to perform the behavior by copying colleagues (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). This distinction between injunctive and descriptive norms has received support in various studies (see Manning, 2009; Rivis & Sheeran, 2003). This distinction might be important, especially in the organizational change setting. Firstly, injunctive norms include in the definition that *important* others assert social pressure. It can be questioned as to how important employees perceive their colleagues. Which might influence an employee's subjective norm to perform behavior. Secondly, employees might perceive less pressure from colleagues when they themselves don't perform the behavior, even when they all should. The value of the opinion of a colleague that fails to use the behavior itself, might become low if not irrelevant to that employee. Thus, it seems that subjective norm is an important predictor in some types of behavior, but not for others in an organizational change setting. To fully understand the relationship between subjective norm and intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting both injunctive as well as descriptive norms are argued to be an important consideration.

5.1.3 Main findings on Perceived behavioral control over behavior

In perceived behavioral control, a distinction was made between internal factors and the external factor time. Support was found for the hypothesis that perceived behavioral control internal is positively related to the intention to contact and clarify. The total variance explained in intention was b=.245 and b=.353. The main effect of perceived behavioral control internal on intention to use genogram was significant at first, but this significant effect disappeared when training, as a main effect was added to the model. The supportive findings of the hypothesis are consistent with numerous studies on human behavior with the TPB (see Armitage & Conner, 2001; Sutton, 1998), and is also consistent with the few studies on the TPB in the organizational change setting (Greaves et al., 2013; Jimmieson et al., 2008). Also, support was found for the hypothesis that perceived behavioral control time is positively related to the intention to use

genogram and clarify (no support was found for the intention to contact). These results contribute to the organizational change literature that suggests that perceptions of control are influential in helping people to cope and adjust during times of change (Jimmieson et al., 2008). The findings support the view that employees that perceive high control over a behavior are less likely to doubt the efficacy of their attempts to use that behavior, and have less difficulties to adjusting in general (Terry & Jimmieson, 2003). Therefore employees with high perceived behavioral control indeed have a higher intention to use change supportive behavior. Though it is interesting that not for all behaviors studied in this research the same results were found. This suggests that the relation between perceived behavioral control and intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting might be dependent on the type of behavior that employees are asked to perform, and for some behaviors internal factors are more important than external factors and vice versa.

In the literature a discussion can be found on the distinction between internal and external control factors that influence the intention to use behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Armitage and Conner (2001), argue that low reliability of the perceived behavioral control scale reflects a failure to separate two facets of perceived behavioral control, which is supported for this research. Some control factors are internal to the individual like skills and willpower and other are located externally like actions of other people and time pressure (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Researchers have argued that a distinctions between these two types of control factors needs to be made for the concept perceived behavioral control (Armitage & Connor, 2001; Armitage, Conner & Willetts, 1999). Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), disagree, and state that perceived behavioral control as one construct can hold internal and external control factors. In the current research time was the only external factor taken into account. Nevertheless, the results of this research show that this distinction was useful in understanding employee behavior which might be an indication of this distinction being important in an organizational change setting.

Another contribution of the results on perceived behavioral control time to the literature on proactive change behavior in organizations. Multiple studies show that time pressure is positively correlated with employees in showing proactive behavior towards organizational change (e.g. Noefer, Stegmaier, Molter, Sonntag, 2009; Ohly, Sonnentag & Pluntke, 2006; Sonnentag & Spychala, 2012). However, this research shows an opposite result. For two of the three behaviors studied in this research, employees that perceived to have more time to exert the behavior, the intention to use that behavior was higher. It is not entirely unlikely to find this effect. In the theory of planned behavior it is suggested that any issue with internal or external control may contribute the intention to use behavior (Fisbein & Ajzen, 2010) Thereby, it is argued that time pressure has negative effects on an employee's decision-making and psychological health (Sattler & Gelbrich 2014). When an employee perceives that they do have the time to perform a behavior, they do not

have to deal with these time pressure related problems, in an already stressful organizational change situation (Terry & Jimmieson, 2003).

5.1.4 Main findings on Training

This research also contributes to the literature on employee training and its effect on employee behavior. In this research training was added to the TPB model as a potential interaction effect on the relation between attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control and the intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting. It was proposed that the values of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control as well as the intention to use behavior would be higher for employees that attended the training, than for employees who did not. No support was found for this hypotheses. For the intention to use genogram, and the intention to contact, training was found to have a positive direct effect, which supported the first part of the proposition. These results supports the notion that training can be an effective way to change behavior of employees in an organizational change setting (Häfner & Stock, 2010; Ji et al., 2012; Orpen, 1994). Nevertheless, the second part of the proposition, that attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control would become higher when employees attended a training is not supported for any of the relations studied. No support was found for a positive effect of training on employee's attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control, which is inconsistent with multiple studies on these subjects (Ehrhardt et al., 2011; Liang et al., 2013; McDonalds 2004; Orpen 1994; Sarkis et al., 2010) Training was only found to be a moderator for the relation between attitude towards contact and intention to contact, and for the relation between subjective norm and intention to clarify. These effects were both negative instead of the proposed positive moderating effects. Possible explanations for this unexpected findings are given below.

Firstly, a possible explanation for the lower attitude towards contact for employees that attended the training might be that those employees used the contact behavior, and observed the consequences. Past behavior has been previously suggested as a good predictor for attitude towards behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). When contacting people form the social network of the client who are not involved in the lives of their client jet, both positive and negative results can occur (Beneken genaamd Kolmer, 2007). It is expected that the initiative reaction of the people that is reached out to will mostly be negative at first, and the positive results can be gained in the long term (Beneken genaamd Kolmer, 2007). If the results of seeking this contact by employees are perceived negative, this might negatively influence the overall attitude towards contact (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Secondly, the possible explanation for subjective norm to clarify to be lower for the employees that attended a training as opposed to the employees that didn't might be due to your gained experience trough training. Employees perceive higher subjective norm if others that exert pressure to perform the behavior are seen as experts on this behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen,

2010). When employees attended a training, they might perceive themselves just as much as an expert as their colleagues which might lower the subjective norm values.

The lack of support for the relation between training and attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control also contributes to the literature on employee training and behavior. An explanation for the findings in this research can be found in the literature on knowledge sharing. Employees are able to share beliefs and knowledge they have gained in the training and thereby influence the beliefs and knowledge of other employees (Yang & Wu, 2008). One of reasons for the lack of support for the effects of training on attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control in organizational change context might be due to the ability of employees who attended the training, to influence the employees who did not attend the training. The employees that attended the training might have shared information, and beliefs about, or showed how to use one of the behaviors studied in this research with their colleagues. This effect might especially be important to consider in an organizational change context because employees daily work together were they find themselves in situations in which the new behaviors can be used. This effect is shown in a study on the effectiveness of employee training on self-directed behavior (Stewart, Carson & Cardy, 1996). They showed that after a training the ones that attended the training and the control group both showed higher values for self-directed behavior, which was an indication of knowledge sharing of employees that did attend that training, with the ones who didn't (Stewart et al., 1996).

5.1.5 Secondary findings

Two secondary findings should be considered. Firstly, the unexpected negative main effect of function on the intention to use genogram (b= -.123, sig p< .5). This result suggests that for personal attendants and first responsible day-care, the intention to use genogram was lower than for the other employees (cluster managers, attendants home and attendants day-care). It was argued that the functions personal attendants and first responsible day-care would have higher intention to use genogram because they are expected to have higher feeling of responsibility to use the behavior and have prior experience in dealing with the social network of the client. The negative result however contradict these statements. An explanation for this result might be that the prior experience in the contact with the social network of the client results in that personal attendants and first responsible day-care have their own way of doing things. And as they say; "old habits die hard." This research contributes to the literature in showing that it might be important to control for function type when the TPB is tested in organizational change settings.

Secondly, when performing additional explorative analysis on the possible mediating effect of training it was found that training was a mediator for the relation between attitude towards genogram and perceived behavioral control time on intention to use genogram of employees. The results showed that both mediation effects were partial, and weakly significant (p< .1). These results imply that part of the relation of attitude

towards use genogram and perceived behavioral control time and intention to use genogram can be explained through the concept of training in an organizational change setting. These results were not confirmed for the other behaviors studied in this research.

5.2 Limitations and future research

This study has several limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. First, the reliance on self-report measures from employees obtained at one single point in time might be problematic, as it can result in spuriously high relationships, and lower reliability of the data (Jimmieson et al., 2008; Ogden, 2003). Nevertheless, in this research the assumption of multicollinearity is checked and no concerns were found. Though, data gained by self-report measures can be biased by social desirability what makes them a threat to the validity and reliability of the models (Armitage & Conner, 2001). This notion should not be taken lightly, but Ajzen and Fishbein (2004), show that often self-reports are quite accurate, and that biases occur more for some behavioral domains, than for others that are highly sensitive such as drunk-driving and drug use. The behaviors studied in this research are not particularly sensitive for employees, and the respondents completed the questionnaire anonymously, which decreases the possibility of biases on self-report measures (Ajzen & Fisbein, 2004; Greaves et al., 2013). Also Greaves et al. (2013) argue that if the concept in the research are sufficiently defined, as they were in the current research, self-report biases may not be as big of an issue. However, these biases may have influenced the results and future researchers should be aware of these problems, and are advised to try and take accurate multiple measures wherever possible (Armitage & Conner, 2001).

Furthermore, this research being measured at one single point in time may also have consequences for the reliability and validity of the results. Values of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control for employees can change over time, and the results can be affected by current events (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). It is agreed upon with Jimmieson et al. (2008) that it is important for future research to try and find temporal relationships between the TPB variables as employees may change their view of the behavior in a change setting over the course of time. The effect of training is also measured at one point in time and no measure was included on time passed before the employees that attended the training filled out the questionnaire. It might be possible that the influence of training is higher when employees just had the training, and lowers when time passes. The intention to use behavior might be stimulated by the training at first, but no permanent increase in intention to use behavior might be achieved. The opposite is also a possibility. The results of training to show, employees may need some time to let the information and knowledge sink in. To overcome these issues and give more insight in the relation between intention to use behavior and its determinants in an organizational change setting future research is advised to: first, try and

collect data form the same respondents at multiple points in time, and second, time passed between employees attending the training and filling out the questionnaire should be taken into consideration.

Furthermore, it is argued by Ogden (2003) that for employees that are unfamiliar with the behavior studied the answers to questions in the TPB questionnaire might create new cognitions, or change existing ones, which influences the reliability of the answers. Nonetheless, Ajzen and Fishbein (2004) argue that there always is a chance of measurement instruments influencing the respondent, it might be an issue in this particular study. Two groups are compared, the first group attended a training and are thus expected to understand the behaviors studied in this research, or at least have heard of the behavior before filling out the questionnaire. The second group did not attend a training and it is possible that these employees did not even heard of the behaviors studied in this research before filled in the questionnaire. To lower the effects of this problem, a short explanation of the behavior was given and employees in this study were asked whether they had an understanding of the behavior in question before answering the questions on that behavior. If they reported that they had a low understanding of that behavior respondents were excluded from the results. Still it can be expected that someone who attended a training on the use of the behavior in question has a better understanding of the behavior and cognitions are less easily changed by the questions in the questionnaire. Future research is advised to consider these influences, and where possible use multiple measures to determine an employee's attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control and intentions.

Some limitations to the measurement of the concepts in this research are also important to consider. Firstly, for some of the concepts, attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control time the mean was relatively high, or relatively low. The concepts were measured on a scale from 1-7 and that the mean result on attitudes varied across the studied behaviors from 5.05-5.49, subjective norm from 1.8-2.49 and perceived behavioral control time from 264. -3.28. This means that employees in this organization in general had a relatively high attitude towards behavior, perceived a relatively low pressure from their colleagues to perform behavior and perceived they had relatively little time to exert these behaviors. This is of consideration while interpreting the results because little can be concluded about employees having low attitudes towards behavior, perceive high subjective norm, and feel they have a lot of time to exert the behavior as only limited respondents on these scores were included. For these determinants future research should gain further insight.

Secondly, as explained in the section on theoretical implications, it might be beneficial for the measurement of perceived behavioral control to make a distinction between internal and external factors. It is advised to broaden the understanding of internal and external factors that are of importance for the development of

intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting. The only external factor included in this research was whether employees perceived that they had enough time to use the behavior. Future research is advised to further analyze the relation between time (pressure) and the intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting, because the outcomes of this research contradict findings on the literature of time pressure as explained in the theoretical implication section.

Thirdly, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control time was measured with one single item. This not only lowers the reliability of these measures, it might also be an explanation for the insignificant results of subjective norm as predictor for intention to use genogram and to contact. Armitage and Conner (2001), conclude that subjective norm was the TPB's most weak determinant in multiple studies, but found that the explanation for this poor performance of subjective norm can often be found in single items measures as opposed to multi-item scales. Because of this finding of Armitage and Conner (2001), and the inconclusive results on the relation of subjective norm with the intention to use behavior in the organizational change setting future research is advised to use reliable multi-item scales to broaden the understanding of this concept in the organizational change setting and beyond. Clearly, further research on this determinant according to the TPB is necessary, especially in the organizational change setting, because inconclusive results are found between earlier literature and the current research. For future study it is suggested that subjective norm will be taken into account with multiple items to form a scale, distinguished between injunctive and descriptive norms and to take into account the possible influence the behavior has on colleagues to get a better understanding of subjective norms and the relation with intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting.

However multiple studies have shown that the intention to use behavior is a reliable indicator for behavior (See Armitage & Conner, 2001), it is important to note that in this particular research the use of actual use in behavior in an organizational change setting is not taken into account. Future research should overcome this shortcoming and focus on testing the complete TPB model, including actual behavior in this organizational change field of research. Thereby, a future direction is to determine the behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs that define attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control for employees in organizational change setting. Currently little is known about the beliefs that define an employee's attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control in a change setting (Rafferty et al., 2013). Greaves et al. (2013) was the first to address this issue and demonstrates the importance of investigating the antecedent beliefs of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. These type of research broadens the understanding of the TPB in an organizational change setting from not only to whether attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control are important predictors of intention but also why this is so (Greaves et al., 2013). Future research is urged to also focus on the why question.

This insight might contribute even further to organizational change literature, and will help managers to define the organizational change interventions to raise the intention of behaviors to use behavior favorable for the organizational change (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

Last, in general it is called upon scholars to conduct research in the field of organizational change settings with the TPB and the effectiveness of employee training when implementing organizational change. Little research has been done in this field and results are contradicting, and not comprehensive, highlighting the importance of attention from scholars to these issues. Not only should the understanding of the mechanisms in this field of study be of importance to scholars. Also, the prevalence and cost of organizational change implies that the success of change initiatives is a major concern for organizations, and therefore, researchers have a responsibility to offer insights as to how managers can improve management of change in their organization (Jimmieson et al., 2008).

5.3 Practical implications

The practical goal of this research was to offer more insight for change management in how to implement organizational changes when they involve a change in employee behavior. This research offers some important practical implications for these change managers. Firstly, this research suggests that it is important for change managers to consider the attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control of their employees when they want to increase the chance of success of their change implementation. The findings of this research suggest that the TPB is a useful tool in understanding and predicting employee behavior in organizational change settings. Generally, the TPB proposes that changes in the intention to use behavior, requires changes in attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). This research shows however that it is important to seek the determinants that are an important considerations for employees in the intention to use the preferred behavior. This results indicate that for the same population, other determinants can be of this importance depending on the kind of behavioral change intended. The TPB can be used as a tool to establish these determinants of importance for the employees and behavior in question. Following managers could focus on improving these determinants, lower resistance to change, and increase employees intention to use the preferred behavior. In this research attitudes was the strongest predictor in intention for all types of behavior, which might suggest that attitudes are the most important consideration for the intention to use behavior in an organizational change setting.

Managers that want to change behavior of their employees are advised to address the determinant that has the strongest relationship with intention to use behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Nevertheless, when the average scores of employees on this determinant are very high, little can be gained by changing beliefs that influence this particular determinant of intention (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). For example, in the current

research managers that need to implement the use of genogram, are advised to focus first on raising employee's perceived time to use a genogram. Attitudes towards behaviors have proven to be the most important consideration in the formation of intention to use genogram, but employee's attitudes are relatively high one average (5.05). Therefore, probably more can be gained in changing beliefs of employees that they have little time to use a genogram from which the mean score is 2.6. After identifying the determinant that has to be addressed the relevant beliefs that form this determinant need to be identified. Both the strength of beliefs and the evaluation of the outcome of beliefs can be changed (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). In the literature little is known about how to effectively change these beliefs of employees but one of the suggestions is persuasive communication, which can differ from one-on-one encounters to employee trainings (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

Another practical implication for change managers follows. Effectiveness of trainings that are given to employees when they intent to change behavior is not guaranteed. In this research training did have a positive direct effect on the intention to use genogram and the intention to contact. For these behaviors the training was thus effective in increasing the intention of employees to use the preferred behavior. Nevertheless, no increase in intention to clarify was found, suggesting that training did not effectively contribute to the intention to use this behavior for employees. Effectiveness of employee training might thus be depending on the type of behavior that is the focus of the change. Employee trainings that are given in organizational changes to enhance the implementation process are often very expensive and time consuming (Miller, 1990). The importance of this training to be effective is thus high for organizations, because both the success of the change and a financial investment are at stake. Change managers are advised to address the effectiveness of employee training and this research suggests that the TPB might be a useful tool in doing so. This study argues that intention as well as attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control should be an important consideration in training. Nevertheless, for a training to be effective in changing an employee's behavior it should focus on increasing only those determinants that are of important consideration for employees for the type of behavior preferred.

5.4 Conclusion

To sustain competitive advantage, health care organizations are continually faced with the need to change their structures, objectives, processes and technologies (Kwahk & Lee, 2006). The implementation of these changes can be crucial for an organizations survival, however success of change initiatives is not guaranteed (Jimmieson et al., 2008; Kwahk & Lee, 2006). One of the reasons for failure of change initiatives in organizations is the resistance of employees to change their behavior according to the intended change (Kwahk & Lee, 2006). Currently, there is no dominant theoretical model or theory found in the literature to help organizations with the understanding and prediction of behavior of employees in an organizational

change context. In this study it is argued that the TPB is a practical and all-round model that has the potential to function as a tool for understanding employee behavior in organizational change settings. The TPB is used to understand all kinds of human behavior but few studies were found that used the TPB in an organizational change setting (Greaves et al., 2013; Jimmieson et al., 2008). These few studies found some support for the TPB to be used in organizational change settings but all agree that further research, such as the current study, are needed to broaden the theoretical foundation for the use of the TPB as an instrument to understand and predict employee behavior in these settings (Greaves et al., 2013; Jimmieson et al., 2008).

The goal of this research was two-fold, firstly, this study intended to broaden the theoretical and empirical foundation for the use of the TPB as an instrument to understand and predict employee behavior in the organizational change setting. The model was tested for three different types of behavior "use genogram", "contact" and "clarify" in a large health care organization. This study used the TPB to understand and predict the behavior of employees in an organizational change setting. That is, research was done to the extent the determinants of intention to use behavior according to the TPB; (i) attitude towards behavior, (ii) subjective norm to perform behavior, and (iii) perceived behavioral control over behavior are related to the intention to use behavior. The current study provided empirical evidence supporting this theoretical notion. In particular it was found that the models on the main effects explained 48%-57% of the variance in intention to use behavior. All determinants have presented itself as important considerations for employees to use behavior favorable for organizational change. The contributions of the determinants however differed across the types of behavior studied in this research. Attitude towards behavior appeared to be the strongest predictor of intention to use behavior for all behaviors studied in this research. Subjective norm and perceived behavioral control were significant predictors for some types of behavior, but insignificant for others. The theoretical and empirical foundation for the use of the TPB in organizational change settings is thus broadened with this research although future research is needed to broaden the understanding of the relationships even further.

The second goal of this research was to give more insight in the relation between training and the intention to use behavior by employees. Training was brought into the model as a possible moderator on the relations between attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control and the intention to use behavior. This study provides some empirical evidence for training as a negative moderator in the TPB model. However more support was found for training as a positive main effect on intention to use behavior. No support was found for a positive effect of training on an employee's attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. By including training to the TPB model the explained percentages in the variance of intention to use behavior raised to 49-59%. In particular it was found that for one of the behaviors training was a significant moderator for the relation between attitude toward behavior and intention to use behavior. Also,

it was found that for one of the behaviors training was a significant moderator for the relation between subjective norm to perform behavior and the intention to use behavior. Further elaboration on the results identified training as a significant (weak sig $p < .1$) mediator for one of the behaviors studied in this research. To be specific, training was a partial mediator for the relationship between attitude towards behavior and intention to use that behavior and for the relation between attitude and the relation between perceived behavior control time over behavior and intention to use that behavior. The results of this research show that the TPB has high potential to be used as a relevant tool in determining the effectiveness of employee training in an organizational change setting, but future research is necessary to elaborate on the findings.

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Appendix

Appendix A; Questionnaire

Beste medewerker van Amarant Groep,

Familiezorg/ Samen Zorgen is één van de pijlers van Amarant Groep voor aankomende jaren. De methode Familiezorg moet de verbinding tussen het sociale netwerk, de cliënt en de professional versterken. Het doel van Familiezorg is het verrijken van het leven van de cliënt en het verduidelijken en vaststellen van verwachtingen bij alle betrokken partijen.

Ik ben student aan de universiteit van Tilburg en stagiaire bij Amarant Groep. Voor mijn stage maak ik deel uit van de Projectgroep Samen Zorgen die de Methode Familiezorg gaat invoeren in het nieuwe RVE Specialistische Zorg VG (huidige RVE 2 En RVE 6) onder de naam project Samen Zorgen. In RVE 1, RVE 3 en RVE 8 wordt al een tijdje met succes gewerkt met deze methode.

Hierdoor heb ik ervoor gekozen mijn afstudeeronderzoek te houden over familiezorg. De resultaten van het onderzoek zullen direct in de projectgroep gebruikt worden en jouw mening is essentieel om het project goed uit te kunnen rollen. Hierbij wil ik jou en jouw collega's vragen om de vragenlijst in te vullen en naar eerlijkheid antwoord te geven op de vragen. Dit onderzoek gaat om jouw mening. Antwoorden zijn niet goed of fout en de gegevens worden anoniem verwerkt. Het maakt voor het invullen van de vragenlijst niet uit of je al wel of nog geen training/cursus familiezorg hebt gevolgd.

Het invullen van de vragenlijst duurt ongeveer 10-15 minuten en je zou mij door het invullen van de vragenlijst helpen met afstuderen en de projectgroep met het inzicht in jullie mening en kijk op de methode familiezorg. Ik hoop dat je de tijd kunt missen!
Om de vragenlijst te starten, klik op onderstaande link:
https://qtrial2014az1.az1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_5bfEen8uX1gKGCF

Bij voorbaat hartelijk dank voor het invullen van de vragenlijst.

Met vriendelijke groet,

Deel 1

In het eerste deel van de vragenlijst worden vragen gesteld over u en uw werk bij Amarant groep.

1. Wat is uw leeftijd?
    - Jonger dan 18
    - 19-28 jaar oud
    - 29-38 jaar oud
    - 39-48 jaar oud
    - Ouder dan 58

2. In welk RVE bent u werkzaam?
    - RVE 1
    - RVE 2
    - RVE 3
    - RVE 6
    - RVE 8
    - Anders namelijk;

3. In welke functie bent u werkzaam binnen amarant?
    - Clustermanager
    - Persoonlijk begeleider
    - Begeleider wonen
    - Begeleider dagbesteding
    - Eerste verantwoordelijke dagbesteding
    - Stagiaire
    - Anders namelijk;

4. Wat is uw hoogst genoten opleiding?
    - Ik ben stagiaire
    - MBO niveau 2
    - MBO niveau 3
    - MBO niveau 4
    - MBO niveau 5
    - HBO
    - WO
    - Anders namelijk;

5. Wat voor contract heeft u momenteel bij Amarant groep?
    - Tijdelijk
    - Vast
    - Ik ben stagiaire

6. Hoeveel uur per week bent u werkzaam bij Amarant groep volgens uw contract?
    - Minder dan 4 uur per week
    - 4-10 uur per week
    - 11-20 uur per week
    - 21-30 uur per week
    - 31-40 uur per week
    - Meer dan 40 uur per week

7. Bent u bekend met de methode Familiezorg?

Volledig onbekend						Volledig bekend
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. Heeft u een training of cursus Familiezorg gevolgd?
    - Ja
    - Nee

(Respondenten die nee hebben geantwoord gaan automatisch door naar deel 2)

9. Hoeveel uur training heeft u gevolgd?
    - Minder dan 1 uur
    - 1-8 uur
    - 9-16 uur
    - 17-24 uur
    - 25-32 uur
    - Meer dan 32 uur

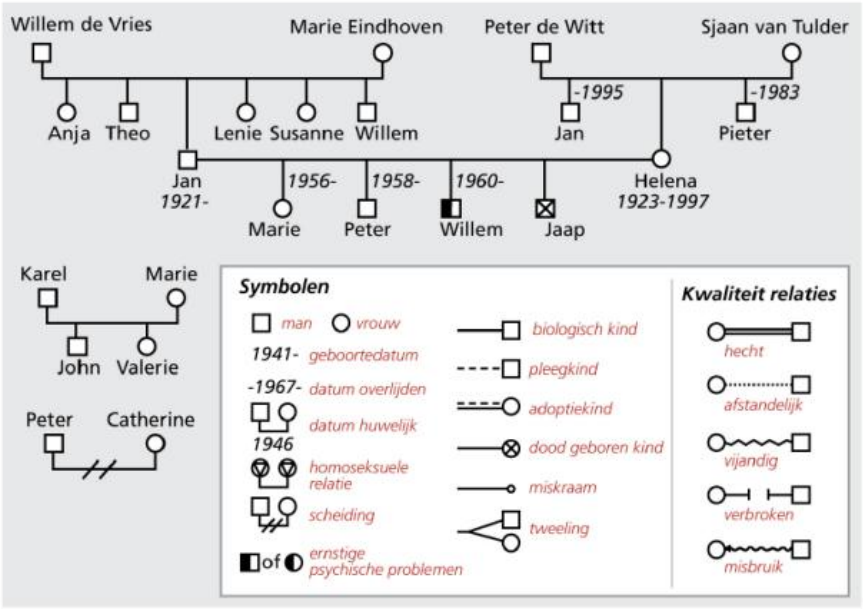
Deel 2

In het tweede deel van de vragenlijst worden vragen gesteld over technieken uit de Methode Familiezorg en uw mening over het gebruiken van deze technieken in de praktijk. Allereerst wordt er een toelichting gegeven op de technieken waarover u bevraagd zult worden. Hierna kunt u de bijbehorende vragen invullen.

"Opstellen van een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten"

Je stelt een genogram van het sociale netwerk op om inzicht te krijgen in de achtergrond van de cliënten. Wanneer er in de vragenlijst gesproken wordt over het sociale netwerk van cliënten wordt dit bedoeld in de breedste zin van het woord, denk aan gezinsleden maar ook overige familieleden, buren, kennissen en andere personen die een belangrijke rol hebben gespeeld in het leven van de cliënt. Een voorbeeld van een genogram van het expertisecentrum Familiezorg volgt hieronder.

Een voorbeeld van een genogram: Genogram van Jan de Vries



10. Het is voor mij duidelijk wat bedoeld wordt met **"opstellen van het genogram."**

Geheel Onduidelijk						Geheel duidelijk
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

(Respondenten die bij vraag 10 1 of 2 hebben geantwoord gaan automatisch door naar vraag 28)

Hieronder volgen vragen over het opstellen van een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten. Een antwoord is niet goed of fout. Het gaat om uw mening.

11. Mijn algemene indruk van het opstellen een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten is:

Negatief						Positief
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. Het opstellen van een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten vind ik

Overbodig						Behulpzaam
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. Het opstellen van een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten vind ik:

Onprettig (voor mij)						Prettig (voor mij)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Het opstellen van een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten vind ik:

Niet van toegevoegde waarde						Wel van toegevoegde waarde
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. Ik denk dat mijn collega's vinden dat ik het genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Wel zou moeten opstellen						Niet zou moeten opstellen
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. Ik voel druk vanuit mijn collega's om een genogrma van het sociale netwerk van cliënten op te stellen

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. Ik voel me vrij om zelf te kiezen of ik een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten opstel

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. Mijn leidinggevende wil dat ik een genogram opstel van het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. Ik voel mij in staat om het genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten op te stellen

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20. Ik heb er geen vertrouwen in dat ik een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten kan opstellen

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. Ik vind het opstellen van een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Makkelijk						Moeilijk
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22. De beslissing om een genogram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten op te stellen ligt buiten mijn controle

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23. Ik weet niet voldoende over het opstellen van een gengram van het sociale netwerk van cliënten om het goed te kunnen doen

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. Ik heb genoeg tijd om een genogram van het sociale netwerk van de cliënten op te stellen

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25. Ik wil een genogram opstellen van het sociale netwerk van de cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

26. Ik ben van plan om een genogram op te stellen van het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

27. Als ik zorg heb over 8 cliënten, verwacht ik dat een ik een genogram opstel van het sociale netwerk van het volgende aantal cliënten

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Hieronder volgen de vragen over het contact opnemen met het sociale netwerk van de cliënten. Een antwoord is niet goed of fout. Het gaat om uw mening.

"contact opnemen met belangrijke personen uit het sociale netwerk van de cliënt"

Neem contact op met belangrijke personen uit het sociale netwerk van de cliënt om deze te betrekken bij de zorg van de cliënt. Hiermee worden alle belangrijke personen in het sociale netwerk van de cliënt bedoeld. Ook personen die belangrijk zijn voor de cliënt, maar waar op dit moment nog geen contact is (met u of andere professionals vanuit Amarant Groep). Na verdieping in de cliënt kan het naar voren komen dat een buurvrouw, zus of lerares een belangrijk persoon is geweest, neemt u dan contact op met deze personen?

28. Het is voor mij duidelijk wat bedoeld wordt met **"contact opnemen met belangrijke personen uit het sociale netwerk van de client"**

Geheel Onduidelijk						Geheel duidelijk
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

(Respondenten 1 of 2 hebben geantwoord gaan automatisch door naar vraag 46)

Hieronder volgen vragen over het contact opnemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten. Een antwoord is niet goed of fout. Het gaat om uw mening.

29. Mijn algemene indruk van contact opnemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten is:

Negatief						Positief
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

30. Het contact opnemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten vind ik

Overbodig						Behulpzaam
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

31. Het contact opnemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten vind ik:

Onprettig (voor mij)						Prettig (voor mij)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

32. Het contact opnemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten vind ik:

Niet van toegevoegde waarde						Wel van toegevoegde waarde
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ik denk dat mijn collega's vinden dat ik met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Wel contact zou moeten opnemen						Geen contact zou moeten opnemen
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

33. Ik voel druk vanuit mijn collega's om contact op te nemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

34. Ik voel me vrij om zelf te kiezen of ik contact opneem met het sociale netwerk van de cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

35. Mijn leidinggevende wil dat ik contact opneem met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ik voel mij in staat om contact op te nemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

36. Ik heb er geen vertrouwen in dat ik contact op kan nemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

37. Ik vind het contact opnemen met sociale netwerk van de cliënten

Makkelijk						Moeilijk
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

38. De beslissing om contact op te nemen met het sociale netwerk van de cliënten ligt buiten mijn controle

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

39. Ik weet niet voldoende over het contact opnemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten om het goed te kunnen doen

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

40. Ik heb genoeg tijd om contact op te nemen met het sociale netwerk van de cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

41. Ik wil contact opnemen met het sociale netwerk van de cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

42. Ik ben van plan om contact op te nemen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Als ik zorg heb over 8 cliënten, verwacht ik dat een ik contact opneem met het sociale netwerk van het volgende aantal cliënten

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Hieronder volgen de vragen over het verhelderen van verwachtingen en grenzen met het sociale netwerk van de cliënten. Een antwoord is niet goed of fout. Het gaat om uw mening.

“verwachtingen en grenzen verhelderen”

Open communicatie gebruiken binnen de zorgtriade om verwachtingen en grenzen van de cliënt, het sociale netwerk van de cliënt en de professional (medewerker) uit te spreken en te verhelderen. Hiermee wordt bedoeld dat u open communicatie gebruikt, om uw verwachtingen en grenzen uit te spreken én de verwachtingen en grenzen van het sociale netwerk. Deze verwachtingen en grenzen worden gedocumenteerd en aangehaald waar nodig.

43. Het is voor mij duidelijk wat bedoeld wordt met **"verhelderen van verwachtingen en grenzen"**

Geheel Onduidelijk						Geheel duidelijk
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

((Respondenten 1 of 2 hebben geantwoord gaan automatisch door naar vraag 64.)

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44. Mijn algemene indruk van verwachtingen en grenzen verhelderen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten is:

negatief						positief
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

45. Het verhelderen van verwachtingen en grenzen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten vind ik

Overbodig						Behulpzaam
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

46. Het verhelderen van verwachtingen en grenzen van cliënten vind ik:

Onprettig (voor mij)						Prettig (voor mij)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

47. Het verhelderen van verwachtingen en grenzen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten vind ik:

Niet van toegevoegde waarde						Wel van toegevoegde waarde
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

48. Ik denk dat mijn collega's vinden dat ik met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Grenzen en verwachtingen wel zou moeten verhelderen						Grenzen en verwachtingen niet zou moeten verhelderen
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

49. Ik voel druk vanuit mijn collega's om verwachtingen en grenzen te verhelderen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

50. Ik voel me vrij om zelf te kiezen of ik verwachtingen en grenzen verhelder met het sociale netwerk van de cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

51. Mijn leidinggevende wil dat ik verwachtingen en grenzen verhelder met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

52. Ik voel mij in staat om verwachtingen en grenzen te verhelderen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

53. Ik heb er geen vertrouwen in dat ik verwachtingen en grenzen kan verhelderen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

54. Ik vind het verhelderen van verwachtingen en grenzen met sociale netwerk van de cliënten

Makkelijk						Moeilijk
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

55. De beslissing om verwachtingen en grenzen te verhelderen met het sociale netwerk van de cliënten ligt buiten mijn controle

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

56. Ik weet niet voldoende van het verhelderen van verwachtingen en grenzen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten om het goed te kunnen doen

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

57. Ik heb genoeg tijd om verwachtingen en grenzen te verhelderen met het sociale netwerk van de cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

58. Ik wil verwachtingen en grenzen verhelderen het sociale netwerk van de cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

59. Ik ben van plan om verwachtingen en grenzen te verhelderen met het sociale netwerk van cliënten

Geheel mee oneens						Geheel mee eens
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

60. Als ik zorg heb over 8 cliënten, verwacht ik dat een ik verwachtingen en grenzen verhelder met het sociale netwerk van het volgende aantal cliënten

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

61. Heeft u nog op- of aanmerkingen bij de vragenlijst die u zojuist heeft ingevuld?

Bedankt voor het invullen van de vragenlijst. Door de vragenlijst in te vullen helpt u mij met afstuderen en voor het project Samen Zorgen (familiezorg) is uw mening erg belangrijk.