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ABSTRACT

There are thousands of studies aimed at predicting future behavior. The most outstanding concept in those quests is behavioral intention. However, many researchers fell into misusing those concepts, raising the inaccuracy of the prediction. Many researchers paid no considerable attention to the specific context of their study. This article aims to give the direction to avoid that trap and to straighten out the proper use of the concept of decision, goal intentions, specific intention, implementtation, behavioral expectation, behavioral willingness, and volition. The author also outlines their relevance to a particular behavior.

Keywords:

Decision, goal intention, implementation intention, behavioral expectation, prototype willingness

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Review Article

Decision, intention, expectation, willingness, and volition: Critics and comments

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INTRODUCTION

Let us start with this research title: "*The influence of marketing mix on the decision to choose Silverqueen*." Simply, there is no mistake in this title. Everything looks OK. However, if we try to look into the basic understanding of the decision more profoundly, we will see the reasons for the accusation.

Behavioral intention, the central concept to determine future behavior, is also treated wrongly by many researchers. The scientists (e.g. (Ajzen, 2013; Gibbons, 2020; Gollwitzer, 1999; Heckhausen, 1991) have aware of this problem long ago. They offered a specific concept for a particular behavior, but many researchers missed their massages.

This study aims to echo their call while offering a solution to the remaining problems. This goal is achieved by reviewing the understanding and efficacy of the specific concepts of future behavior proxies and their use. Next, check for gaps that are still open and offer the direction to fulfill them. Lastly, provide suggestions to further research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Decision

Scientists have studied the decision since long ago. Hampshire and Hart (1958) define the decision as a certainty after choosing one option from several options. For a voluntary and deliberate behavior, decision-making needs to go through a decision moment represented by two questions: Do I do it or which one should I choose? After making a decision, the individual can eliminate uncertainty about what he wants to do. At this moment, the individual can state that he intends to do something according to his decision but not necessarily he does it. However, that intention does not continue to an execution automatically. Even after the decision stage, individuals can re-enter the phase of uncertainty. He can also return to the indecision phase after canceling the previous decision (Hampshire and Hart, 1958).

The more updating references (e.g., Alvino & Franco, 2017; Bruch & Feinberg, 2017; Tyburski, 2017) acknowledge this process. They add another attribute, namely the trade-off between perceived gains and losses of each option.

Based on the above argument, the author identifies three decision attributes. First, before making a decision, the decision-makers make a considerable evaluation about whether it is necessary to decide. Second, the consideration is concerned with the pros and cons of each option. Third, the first and the second attributes occur at the moment of uncertainty. In short, the concept of decision is ideal for a high involvement behavior according to Zaichkowski's (1985) concept.

For low involvement products, which are purchased spontaneously or with little consideration, the consumers make no prior decision-making process. They arrive at the choice mindlessly. For example, as an ordinary snack, the purchase of chocolate Silverqueen are commonly impulsive, by which the consumers dominantly are stimulated by their sensation. The consideration of the pros and cons of that behavior is at a minimum level. There is also no significant trade-off consideration between purchase versus not purchase or Silverqueen versus other brands. Therefore, the use of the decision concept in such a situation is not relevant. Consequently, the title reported at the beginning is also wrong. The more proper one is "*The influence of marketing mix on the choice of Silverqueen.*"

Decisions and choice only recognize two levels, deciding (decision) and not deciding (indecision) and choosing or not choosing. The decision to 'marry' or 'not to marry,' for example, is choosing one option between the two. Consequently, one can not measure decision and choice using ordinal or interval scales, such as itemized, Likert, continuous, numeric, and semantic differential scales. One can only use open-ended questions. For example, "What university do you choose?" In closed questions, the scale is dichotomous or multiple choice. Consequently, the data must be nominal.

Behavioral Intention

As stated before, as soon as making a decision, according to Hampshire dan Hart (1958), an individual can express that he intends to do something according to his decision. When he states it consciously, it becomes an intention.

Scientists have discussed behavioral intention for so long because of its prominent role in determining actual behavior. Azjen (2002) loosely defined behavioral intention as an individual's readiness to perform a given behavior. Hampshire and Hart (1958) define it as the degree to which a person has formulated a conscious plan to conduct or not to perform a behavior. In line with these two notions, Hampshire and Hart (1958) further explain that behavioral intention is not just an action that someone will take. They said that to make future actions considered as an intention; first, individuals should know and can declare what they will do. When Mavin sounds to regulate his diet, he knows what it means to control a diet and can communicate or declare his intentions. If he will regulate food intake but does not know the concept of diet management, then he cannot express it. Consequently, his predisposition for dieting is there, but it is not an intention. An action carried out without knowledge or declaration is accidental (acting by accident).

Second, individuals will act intentionally if they have reasons (reasoned action) or specific goals (goal-directed). Therefore, behavioral intention is compatible with goal-directed or reasons-based behavior. For example, Mavin's dieting aims to improve appearance, heart and kidney function, strengthen muscles (approach goals) and reduce the risk of diabetes and high blood pressure (avoidance goals).

The concept of behavioral intention (BI) in the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) uses this perspective. The attitude that functions as the antecedent of BI in both models is the attitude towards behavior (Ab). An individual develops this attitude based on the knowledge about the outcomes that can be achieved (positive outcomes) or avoided (negative outcomes) by doing a behavior. In other words, in the TRA and TPB, a predisposition to behave can be said as an intention if it is reasoned or planned to get predicted outcomes. If one conducts an actual behavior repeatedly, triggered spontaneously, or by chance, the predisposition to behave that precedes it is not a behavioral intention. The author discusses this issue later.

Specific Intention is Required

According to Ajzen (2002), in every research on behavioral intention, behavioral targets need to be specific and meet the elements of Target, Action, Context, and Time (TACT). '*I intend to run outdoors for 30 minutes every day starting tomorrow*' is an example of a specific statement. The action element (A) concerns what you want to do (running in the morning), the target (T) is the intensity of the action (30 minutes), the context (C) relates to where the behavior is carried out (outdoors), and (T) time talks about when it is done (starting tomorrow).

Can non-specific behavior be investigated? The answer is yes. An intention stated as '*I intend to run in the morning*' is also investigatable. Whether the behavior under study is specific or non-specific depends on the information needed. However, keep in mind that behavioral intention aims to predict actual behavior (Ajzen, 2020; Fishman et al.,

2020). The more specific the behavioral intention, the more accurate its ability to predict actual behavior (Ajzen, 2013; Fishman et al., 2020; Pomery et al., 2009). So, if you want to get high accuracy results, the behavior understudy needs to be specific (Ajzen, 2013, 2020).

Measuring Behavioral Intention

In researching behavioral intentions, it is necessary to answer two questions. First, can the respondent declare his intention? Second, is the behavioral intention understudy done intentionally based on reason (reasoned action) or a specific goal to be achieved? If the answer to those questions is yes, the research is open. The previous question about the intention of jogging outdoors for 30 minutes every day starting January 2022 is eligible because it can be declared (a morning run) and has a goal (become healthier and avoid disease).

Table 1 consists of examples of behavioral intention measurement instruments from previous studies. This section displays measurements so far. Before using it, please study the limitations of the behavioral intention concept described below.

As we can see, the researchers use various forms of questions. Indeed, there is no standard question item to measure this construct, even though in 2006 and 2013, Ajzen has tried to provide it (Ajzen, 2020). This absence of standards is understandable because behavior is a specific entity that requires exclusive measurements as long as they are valid and reliable.

Table 1

The Examples of Behavioral Intention Research Instrument

Construct	Question Items	Sources
Intention to smoke	1. Are you planning to smoke next year?	Pomery et al. (2009)
Intention to recycle household waste	1. Next month I intend to recycle household waste	Passafaro et al. (2019)
	2. How solid is your decision to do it?	
Intention to use mobile learning	1. If I had access to mobile learning, I would use it	Chao (2019)
	2. If I had access to mobile learning, I would have used it	
	3. I plan to use mobile learning in the future	
Walk on the treadmill for at least 30 minutes every day in the coming month	1. I intend to walk on a treadmill for at least 30 minutes every day in the coming month	Ajzen (2006)
	2. I will try to walk on the treadmill for at least 30 minutes every day in the coming month	
	3. I plan to walk on the treadmill for at least 30 minutes every day in the coming month	
Intention to use a visual schedule	1. I intend to use a visual schedule.	Fishman et al. (2020)
	2. I will use a visual schedule	
	3. How likely are you to use a visual schedule?	
Eat chocolate containing pralines	1. How many pralines do you expect you to eat next month?	De Pelsmaeker et al. (2017)
	2. I intend to have pralines at home	
	3. I plan to have pralines regularly	

Table 1

(CONTINUED)

Construct	Question Items	Sources
Intention to use the e-book application	1. I am willing to download the e-book application program	Tsai (2012)
	2. I want to use e-books to get information	
	3. I want to use the services provided by the e-book application	
	4. I want to use the information provided by the e-book	
Exercising in a green environment (Green Exercise)	1. I hope to do Green Exercise	Flowers et al. (2017)
	2. I want to do Green Exercise	
	3. My probability of doing Green Exercise is . . . (Very Unlikely to Very Likely)	
	4. I plan to do Green Exercise	
	5. I intend to do Green Exercise	
Students' intention to become entrepreneurs	1. I am ready to do anything to become an entrepreneur	Solesvick et al. (2012)
	2. My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur.	
	3. I am determined to make a business venture in the future	
	4. I am seriously thinking about starting a company	
	5. I intend to start a company someday	
	6. I intend to start a company within five years after graduation	

Note: The measurements shown in this table have not considered the behavioral intention category. Before using it, please read first the limitations of the commonly used concept of behavioral intention, which are explained below.

Limitations of the Concept of Behavioral Intentions

As a concept, behavioral intention aims to predict actual behavior (Ajzen, 2020; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Various studies (e.g., (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Sheeran et al., 2003; Sniehotta et al., 2014; Wood et al., 2016) state that the ability of intention to predict behavior ranges from low, moderate, to high, depending on the type of studied behavior. Gibbons (2020) reported that the construct fails to explain 70% to 80% of the actual behavioral variance in the health sector.

The main issue related to this problem is the methodological factor. The **first** is the element of stability. Behavioral intentions can vary depending on attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, as described in the Theory of Planned Behavior model (Ajzen, 1991, 2020). Intentions may or may not be stable. Conner et al. (2000) found that intention determination was more vital for health checks (Study 1) and maintaining a low-fat diet (Study 2) when within one year, intentions were relatively stable compared to unstable. These results convey that the stability of intentions needs to be taken into account by researchers.

Second is the time interval between the measurement of intention and behavior. Although it varies according to the respondent's behavior and age, when the measurement interval between the two is more than a few months, the relationship between behavioral intention and actual behavior weakens (Sheeran & Orbell, 1998).

The **third** is excluding emotions (Gibbons, 2020; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). When asked to describe intentions to take the vaccination, researchers may not consider the

anxiety experienced by participants, which might prevent them from taking vaccinations (Gibbons, 2020). Likewise, the disappointment and excitement that the individual anticipates will be encountered if he fails or succeeds in achieving the goal, called emotional anticipation (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), is not considered by the researchers. Other variables in this issue are the proponents' and opponents' anticipated emotions (Simamora, 2021).

Fourth, the concept of behavioral intention has a low ability to predict behavior with positive or negative social values (social desirability). In such behavior, there is a tendency where a person performs actions that are not following his intentions (Vesely & Klöckner, 2020). In donating, for example, a person may not intend to contribute, but he does so because the act is considered good (high social desirability). On the other hand, a person may not do an action even though he wants to do it because the act of not donating is considered flawed (low social desirability) by the social environment. For example, suppose a person falls in love with a girl and intends to marry her. However, due to different religions, they finally failed to match.

Fifth, according to Gibbons et al. (2020), the concept of behavioral intention does not anticipate the existence of individuals in the social environment (social involvement). Smoking cigarettes, for example, is considered a behavior that creates a bad image for the perpetrator. Individuals can experience the social anxiety of smokers if they get labeled as smokers (Armenta et al., 2015). All normal-minded students will admit that smoking is a bad thing. When asked, of course, they will say they have no intention or intention to do so. However, who can guarantee that they will not smoke if they hang out with their smoking friends? A teenager will find it difficult to refuse an offer to smoke from his friends who smoke in the name of prestige and solidarity. The bandwagon can also appear in binge drinking among teenagers.

Sixth, Gibbons (2020) notes that behavioral complexity can reduce the accuracy of behavioral intention to predict behavior. Sometimes the behavior is not simple but in series. Take, for example publishing an article in a journal. The steps are: finding a topic or title, collecting material, reading material, writing articles, submitting articles, revising articles, and finally, publishing articles. Someone intends to publish an article in a journal in 2022. Even if one of the steps mentioned above fails, for example, being unable to answer the reviewer's questions, the intention to publish the article can stop.

With these limitations, experts try to find solutions by proposing alternative concepts. There are four alternative constructs presented, namely implementation intention (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2018; Bieleke et al., 2021; Gollwitzer, 1999; Heckhausen, 1991), behavioral expectations (Armitage et al., 2015; Gibbons, 2020; Gibbons et al., 2020), behavioral willingness (Gibbons, 2020; Gibbons et al., 2020; Pomery et al., 2009), and a prototype willingness model (Gibbons et al., 2020).

Implementation Intention

Golwitzer (1999) describes two types of behavioral intentions (behavioral intentions). The first is goal intention, namely the desire, intent, or plan to achieve a goal (goals). For example: "I want to lose 10 kg" or "I want to shop online through Tokopedia." Second, implementation intention is defined as an 'if-then' plan that connects situational aspects

in the form of a reasonable opportunity to act or a critical moment that encourages action (if) with a response (then) that is considered effective in achieving the desired goal or result. In the original, Golwitzer (1999) states: "… if-then plans that link situational cues (i.e., good opportunities to act, critical moments) with responses that are effective in attaining goals or desired outcomes" (p. 493). The above goal intentions work in various ways. In Table 2, the implementation intention presented is only one of the ways to implement goal intention.

Table 2

Examples of Goal Intention and Implementation Intention

Goal Intention	Implementation Intention
I intend to shop through an online shop via Tokopedia	In the next month, if I decide to buy the product I want to buy online, I want to shop through Tokopedia
I mean to eat healthy food	If I have decided to have lunch at a restaurant, when I check the menu book, I will choose low-calorie foods
I intend to exercise more intensively	If the weather is favorable and the body condition is fit, I have decided to run at least 30 minutes every morning
I intend to recommend this laptop brand that I use to other potential buyers	If friends ask about a good laptop or they are looking for a laptop to buy, then I will recommend this laptop that I use

Implementation determines when, where, and how a person generates thoughts, feelings, or actions, which help individuals achieve goals (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2018; Bieleke et al., 2021; Gollwitzer, 1999). When a person has made a decision and is sure about when, where, and how to take action, he has reached the volition stage (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2018); Bagozzi, 2010; Liljenström, 2021). In addition to situational factors, one needs the motivation to trigger a change in goal-intention to implementation intention (Baumgartner & Pieters, 2008). Implementation intention can predict actual behavior more accurately than goal intention (Ajzen et al., 2009; Bieleke et al., 2021).

Goal intention versus Implementation Intention

Blieke et al. (2021) state that the researchers need should also consider the existence of goals. Knowledge about the consequences of wrong choices is also necessary. If there are no consequences, goal intention is more potent than implementation intention. If the consequences are present but not substantial, both have equal power. However, if the consequences are significant, for example, choosing the wrong university, implementation intention is more appropriate.

An implementation intention is better when the situation is difficult to predict (novel) or easy to change (volatile) (Carrera et al., 2018; Gollwitzer, 1999). For example, if the weather is unstable, this question is better: "If the weather is sunny next Sunday morning and it doesn't rain, I will run in the park."

Implementation intention works better when someone encounters a demand to predict unplanned behavior (Blieke et al., 2021). Buying Silverqueen is a random behavior. Goal intention: I intend to buy Silverqueen. Implementation intention: "If you

go to a mini-market, and see that there are chocolate products on the shelf, if you have the money to buy them, how likely are you to buy Silverqueen?" According to Blieke et al. (2021), the second question is better to predict actual behavior.

Bieleke et al. (2021) also consider the consequences of wrong choices. If there are no consequences, goal intention is more substantial than implementation intention. If the consequences are present but not severe, both have equal power. However, if the consequences are immense, for example, choosing the wrong university, implementation intention is more appropriate.

Behavioral Expectations

Behavioral intention is the degree to which a person has formulated a conscious plan to perform or not to perform a behavior. It is the individual's perceived likelihood of committing an act (Davis & Warshaw, 1992; Warshaw & Davis, 1985).

The intention is part of the planned behavior indicated by predictable outcomes (Ajzen, 1991, 2020). Many behaviors are unplanned and for no reasonable reason (e.g., smoking). There are also those whose results are unpredictable, for example, adjusting a diet to lose weight (Armitage et al., 2015). For this type, behavioral intentions are not effective at predicting actual behavior. A more effective concept is behavioral expectation.

Measuring Behavioral Expectations

'How likely, I expect, how much, and how possible,' and other variations are the words to measure behavioral expectation. Their use should match the behavior. See the questions in Table 3 as examples.

Table 3
Behavioral Expectation Measurements

Items	Source
I hope to do Green Exercise	Flowers et al. (2017)
My probability of doing Green Exercise is . . . (Very Unlikely to Very Likely)	
How many pralines do you expect you to eat next month?	De Pelsmaeker et al. (2017)
How likely are you to use a visual schedule?	Fishman et al. (2020)
How likely is it that you will drink alcohol next Sunday?	Armitage et al. (2015)
I expect to use the system in the next <n> months	Venkatesh et al. (2008)
I will use the system in the next <n> months	
I am likely to use the system in the next <n> months	
I am going to use the system in the next	

Behavioral Expectation versus Behavioral Intention

Armitage et al. (2015) found that it was more predictive of predicting behaviors that were occasional and unplanned (e.g., drinking alcohol) and whose outcome was uncertain (e.g., losing weight).

What if the behavior is planned or reasoned? The author proposes two studies to answer that question. Venkatesh et al. (2008) found that behavioral intention is more

robust to explain actual behavior in terms of duration of use concerning the use of computerized systems. On the other hand, behavioral expectation can better predict actual behavior concerning frequency and intensity of use.

For evidence-based practice in teaching, (Fishman et al., 2020) found that behavioral intention was more potent than behavioral expectation. Interestingly, this study shows that when behavioral intention and behavioral expectation are combined, their ability to explain actual behavior is better than behavioral intention and expectation working alone.

These two studies explain; first, behavioral expectations better explain unplanned or unreasonable behavior. Second, even if the action is justified, such as using a computerized system and managing a diet to lose weight, behavioral expectations are better if the outcome is unpredictable.

Prototype Willingness Model

Gibbons et al. (1998) also use 'if-then' logic to predict health risk behaviors. They put it in the prototype willingness model (PWM) model. Initially, this model predicts health risk behavior among adolescents. The story is as follows. These risky behaviors include taking drugs, getting pregnant out of wedlock, smoking, consuming alcohol, etc.

The key concept in the model is the prototype, which is defined as an individual picture of what kind of person a person performs a behavior. In the original, Gibbons et al. (2020:518) states: "Prototypes are the images individuals have of the type of person who engages in a behavior." This construct consists of two dimensions, namely similarity (similarity of self-image with people who do a hostile act) and favorability (sense of likes and dislikes with the intended negative self-image).

Some researchers use prototype constructs to predict prototype willingness (Figure 1); others use both dimensions (Figure 2). Prototype measurements generally use the same style. Research on cannabis use from Lewis et al. (2017) uses an instrument whose translation is as follows:

> "Think about the typical boy or girl your age who uses marijuana. How much do you think the following words describe your image of these people?"

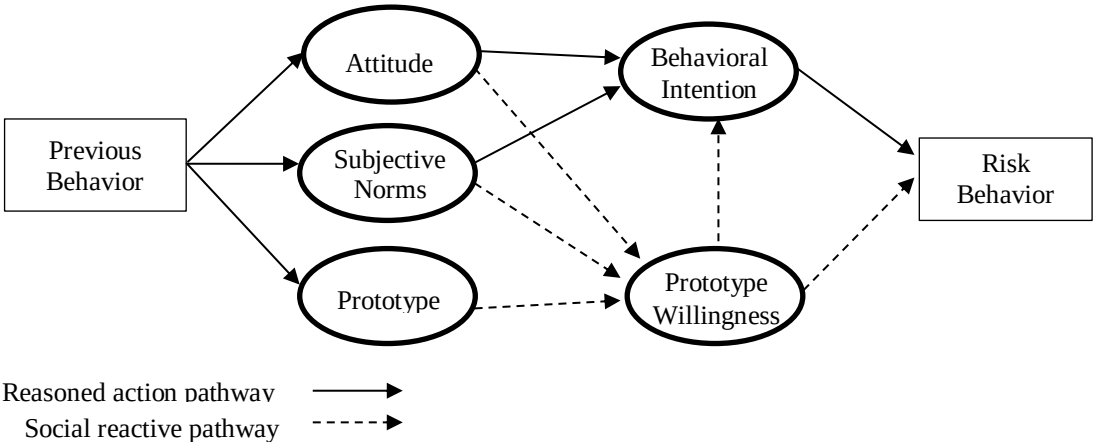
Wise	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Fool
Popular	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Detached
Interesting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Boring
Childish	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Adult
Careful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Careless

The perpetrator is subject to an image or prototype that is not good in the community, but this is not the case (prototype conducive) to certain social groups. For example, in most schools in Indonesia, a student smoking among other students is considered normal. So, when asked whether he intends to smoke, it is implausible that a student will express 'intention .'However, who guarantees they will not smoke when they gather with their smoking friends? The PWM predicts this possibility. In addition to smoking, the PWM also predicts various risky behavior accurately, such as drinking

alcohol among non-drinkers (Lewis et al., 2017) and American adolescents (Armenta et al., 2015), unprotected sexual activity, crossing indiscriminately (pedestrian violation) (Demir et al., 2019), and smoking marijuana (Lewis et al., 2017).

Figure 1

Prototype Willingness Model



Source: Demir, B., Özkan, T., & Demir, S. (2019). Pedestrian violations: Reasoned or socially reactive? Comparing theory of planned behavior and prototype willingness model. Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour, 60, 560–572.

The PWM model (Figure 1) provides two pathways to risky behavior: reasoned action and reactive social pathways. Various studies (e.g., Demir et al., 2019; Pomery et al., 2009) show that the willingness prototype path is stronger than the reasoned action path, especially for inexperienced consumers. We can understand that, for this group, action has a higher tendency as a social reaction than an act carried out for a reason. However, if the individual has substantial experience, the portion of behavioral intention as a reasoned action is higher than the prototype of willingness. Pomery et al. (2009) found that willingness prototypes were more effective than behavioral intention in predicting smoking behavior for nonsmokers and predicting truancy behavior for the inexperienced segment compared to those who were accustomed to truancy.

Volition

In the first (indecision), second (decision moment), and third (specific intention) stages, there is still nobody movement towards action. For example, an individual makes the following statement: "I want to get married" (goal intention, first step), "I decide to marry on May 14, 2022" (decision), and "I will marry May 14, 2022" (specific intention), are events that still occur in my minds or speeches. If he has started getting married, for example, by visiting the spouses' family to make a detailed wedding plan, then that person has entered the execution process. He is in the volitional stages now. He has shown a sign of commitment.

Volition is a certainty and commitment made through cognitive processes that a person will carry out his decisions and plans. People who have entered this stage have shown the signs toward carrying out the behavior. For example, a Medanese who plans

to register at UGM, has bought a plane ticket to Yogyakarta, prepared the necessary files and supplies.

Adam and Male (1992) added that an individual had shown a sign of bodily movement to be called a volition stage. In other words, an intention has been manifested into action. If one is not sure to get the pursued outcomes or goals, he enters the process of trying (Adams & Mele, 1992; Bagozzi, 1993).

According to Baumgartner and Pieters (2008), volition processes is part of goal-striving. When one achieves goals, he ends goal-striving. If he has not attained goals, goal-striving can be continued, revised, postponed, or abandoned. Can volition change? Yes, but the change will occur if the previous decision changes (Liljenström, 2021). One of the reasons to reverse a decision is the loss of motivation (Baumgartner & Pieters, 2008).

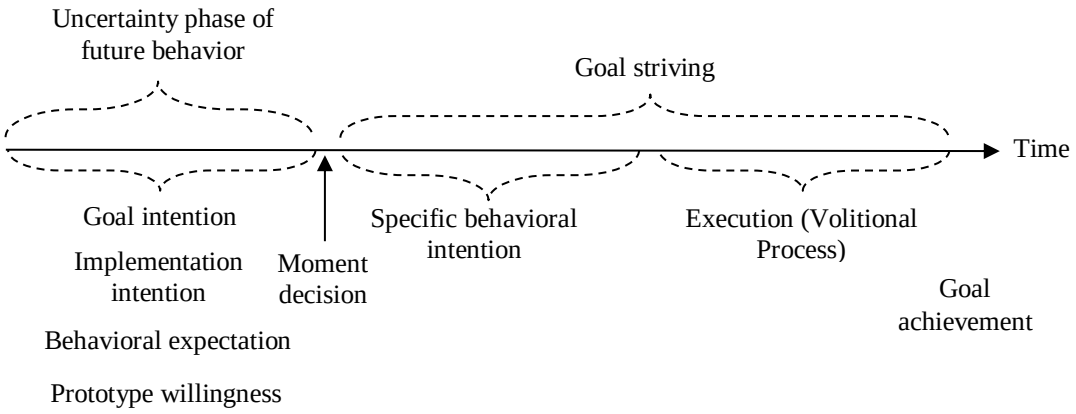
As a construct, the fate of volition is still debated, ignored, and problematic (Adams & Mele, 1992; Bagozzi, 1993). Although some experts (e.g., Adams & Mele, 1992; Bagozzi, 1993) tried to formulate it, research on volition is still underdeveloped. Well-known behavioral models, such as the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), and Prototype Willingness Model (Gibbons et al., 2020), do not involve volition as a component. Therefore, this study brings no discussion on the measurement of volition.

DISCUSSION

Consumer predisposition to behave involves goal intention, implementation intention, behavioral expectation, prototype willingness, and specific behavioral intention. The five first constructs are in the uncertainty phase using the Hampshire and (Hart, 1958) time frame. The last one, specific behavioral intention, is in the certainty phase. This construct and volitional process are part of goal striving.

Figure 2

Goal Intention, Decision, Implementation Intention, Behavioral Execution, and Goal Achievement



Based on the previous experts' opinions, the author stresses the use of the right concept for the proper context (Figure 2). As an overview, if the individual has not decided to perform or reperform a behavior (uncertainty phase), the appropriate concept

is goal intention, implementation intention (Golwitzer, 1999; Gollwitzer & Sheeran, 2006), behavioral expectations (Davis & Warshaw, 1992), and prototype willingness (Gibbons, 2020). We can use specific behavioral intention if the decision is there, as specified by Ajzen (2002; 2013). Regarding goal-directed behavior, when someone has started to move to achieve a goal, we can use volition, also called effort or trying (Bagozzi, 1999).

Behavioral models, such as the TRA, TPB, MGB, and PWM, still use behavioral intention as a mediating variable towards actual behavior. Behavioral intention is only suitable to represent goal intention, specific behavioral intention, and implementation intention. The other two constructs, behavioral expectations and prototype willingness require their models.

Can we hope for a construct to cover them all? Fishman et al. (2020) studied evidence-based practice (EBP) use in teaching. They found that behavioral intention (I plan to use EBP), goal intention (I want to you EBP), and behavioral expectation (I expect to use EBP) predict the actual use of EBP better when they are combined than separated. These findings open up two new thoughts. First, are behavioral intentions, behavioral expectations, and goal intentions better combined than separated? This question is interesting for further research.

Suppose the results confirm the Fishman et al.' (2020) findings. The next question is, what is the name of the construct that can represent the three? The use of behavioral intention, addressed as a specific intention (Azjen 2002, 2013), as the general concept for the three is certainly not appropriate anymore. For further discussion, the author suggests the ‘predisposition to behave,' which reflects the individual's tendency to take or not take action, as a general concept for the three.

If this new concept is successful, it is possible to build a model that fits it. However, this step does not mean paving the way for the emergence of a general theory of behavior. Learning from previous studies, the road in that direction is difficult because every behavior is specific. Thus, the proposed new concept is also for particular types of behavior. Future researchers are encouraged to verify this possibility.

CONCLUSION

We need to use the specific concept to predict future typical behavior better. In more detail, this study's conclusions are as follows:

1. Suppose individuals do not yet have a decision. They can express the desire to do (example: I want to buy a piano) or re-do a behavior (example: I want to visit McDonald's again someday), or achieve a goal (I want to be a good pianist). In that case, we can use general or goal intention, especially if the risk of wrong decision and additional benefits of right decision are not serious.
2. When there is no decision yet, but there is a conditional wish (example: If I need a taxi, I will use the Blue Bird taxi), accompanied by a crucial risk of wrong decision or additional benefits of right decision, then implementation intention can work.
3. If the goal is challenging to achieve or the behavior is difficult to perform or the outcomes are not certain (lose weight), then the behavioral expectation is preferable.
4. If the behavior is physically, morally, and socially risky (for example, cheating on exams), the prototype willingness is better.

5. If one has made a detailed decision (for example, taking a consumer behavior class every Monday from 10.00-13.00 o'clock), specific intentions, which fulfill Azjen's (2002) particular elements, are preferable.

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