

The Interconnection of Business and Partnership

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Introduction

A business partnership connects two or more people who agree to carry on an enterprise and share its results. The relationship is built through contract, but it is also shaped by partnership law, fiduciary duties, tax rules, agency principles, and the parties' conduct. The original essay raises an important practical question: what happens when one participant wants to leave or transfer an economic interest? Its discussion, however, repeatedly uses corporate terms such as shareholders, shares, boards, and company buybacks as though they automatically apply to an ordinary partnership. They do not (Kraakman et al., 2017).

A partner may own a partnership interest, while a shareholder owns shares in a corporation. A corporation has a separate legal personality and usually acts through directors and officers. A general partnership may arise without a formal board and, in some jurisdictions, without a written agreement. The correct answer to any transfer question depends on the legal form, governing law, and partnership agreement. This essay explains the interconnection of business and partnership while presenting a framework rather than jurisdiction-specific legal advice.

How a Partnership Is Formed

A partnership is generally formed when persons associate as co-owners of a business for profit. The parties may sign a detailed agreement, but their conduct can sometimes create a partnership even if they never use that label. Sharing gross revenue alone may be insufficient, while sharing profits can be evidence of partnership subject to exceptions (Uniform Partnership Act, 1997).

Formation should begin with a written agreement because memory and informal expectations become unreliable when money, workload, or relationships change. The agreement identifies the business, contributions, ownership percentages, management authority, profit allocation, dispute procedures, restrictions on transfer, and exit rules. Registration, licensing, tax identification, and regulatory approval may also be required.

Contributions and Ownership

Partners can contribute cash, equipment, intellectual property, customer relationships, real estate, or

labor. The value of noncash contributions should be recorded. A person who contributes full-time work and no cash may reasonably expect an ownership interest, but the agreement must state how that interest vests and what happens if the person leaves early.

Ownership percentage does not always determine every economic result. Partners may agree to allocate profits and losses differently, subject to tax and legal restrictions. Capital accounts record contributions, distributions, and allocated results. Confusion arises when partners treat money withdrawn from the business as salary, profit distribution, loan repayment, or return of capital without documenting which category applies.

Management and Agency

In a general partnership, each partner may have authority to bind the business in transactions carried out in the ordinary course. This agency power is one reason trust matters. A contract signed by one partner can create obligations for all even when the other partners did not personally approve it, unless the third party knew that authority was restricted (Uniform Partnership Act, 1997).

The agreement can allocate responsibilities and require approval for major decisions. Routine purchasing may be delegated to one partner, while borrowing, admitting a new partner, selling substantial assets, changing the business, or guaranteeing another person's debt may require unanimous or supermajority consent. Internal restrictions should be communicated to banks, suppliers, and other relevant parties where necessary.

Fiduciary Duties

Partners ordinarily owe duties of loyalty and care. Loyalty includes accounting for partnership opportunities and property, avoiding undisclosed conflicts, and not competing improperly with the partnership. Care generally requires avoiding grossly negligent, reckless, intentional, or unlawful conduct, though standards vary. Partners also owe duties of good faith and fair dealing in performing the agreement (Uniform Partnership Act, 1997).

These duties do not mean that every disagreement is misconduct. Partners can negotiate their own interests, request information, oppose a proposal, or plan a lawful exit. Problems arise when one person secretly diverts customers, hides revenue, uses business assets personally, or manipulates valuation for private advantage.

Partnership Property and Personal Property

Assets acquired by the partnership belong to the partnership under applicable law, not to individual partners in proportionate physical pieces. A partner cannot normally take a vehicle, machine,

customer account, or bank balance merely because the partner owns a percentage of the enterprise. The partner has rights in the partnership relationship and economic distributions.

Ownership records should identify whether property was contributed, sold, or leased to the business. If a partner permits the enterprise to use a personally owned building, the lease should be documented. Otherwise, dissolution can produce disputes over whether the property was a partnership asset.

Partnership Interest Versus Corporate Shares

The original essay asks whether a “shareholder” can sell shares. In an ordinary partnership, the more precise term is partner and partnership interest. That interest has at least two dimensions: economic rights to distributions and governance or membership rights. Many partnership statutes permit a partner to transfer the economic component without automatically making the buyer a partner.

The buyer of a transferable economic interest may receive distributions that would otherwise go to the transferring partner but may not gain voting rights, management authority, access to confidential information, or power to bind the firm. Full admission as a partner often requires consent of the existing partners because partnership involves a personal agency and fiduciary relationship. This protects members from being forced into business with an unknown third party.

Restrictions on Transfer

A partnership agreement can impose reasonable transfer restrictions. Common provisions prohibit transfer without consent, give the partnership or other partners a right of first refusal, limit transfers to family or affiliated entities, or trigger a buyout when a partner attempts to transfer.

The agreement should state the process clearly. A partner might deliver written notice describing the proposed buyer, price, terms, and intended transfer date. Existing partners then receive a fixed period to match the offer. Restrictions should not create an impossible trap in which a person can never exit and can never obtain fair value.

Voluntary Withdrawal

A partner may wish to leave because of retirement, illness, disagreement, relocation, financial need, or a new opportunity. The legal effect depends on whether the partnership is for a definite term or particular undertaking and whether the agreement permits withdrawal. Leaving in violation of the agreement may create damages even if the person has power to dissociate.

Written notice is important, but an “official letter to the board” is not a universal legal requirement.

Many partnerships have no board. Notice should be delivered in the manner specified by the agreement and should state the proposed date. The remaining partners then determine whether the business will continue and whether a buyout is required.

Dissociation and Dissolution

Dissociation means that a person ceases to be a partner. Dissolution means that the partnership enters a winding-up process. The two are not always the same. Modern partnership statutes commonly allow the business to continue after a partner leaves, particularly when the agreement or remaining partners provide for continuation (Uniform Partnership Act, 1997).

The original claim that selling to a third party “automatically ends the business” is therefore too broad. An unauthorized transfer may breach the agreement or transfer only economic rights. Dissolution may occur after specified events, unanimous agreement, expiration of a term, illegality, judicial order, or circumstances defined by law and contract.

Buy-Sell Agreements

A buy-sell provision creates a planned exit mechanism. Triggering events can include death, disability, retirement, bankruptcy, divorce, loss of professional license, termination of employment, deadlock, or attempted transfer. The provision identifies who must or may purchase the interest and how payment will be funded.

Without a buy-sell agreement, partners may argue when they are already under emotional and financial pressure. The remaining business may lack cash to purchase the interest, while the departing partner may need immediate payment. Life or disability insurance can fund certain events, but policy ownership and proceeds require careful planning.

Valuation of a Partnership Interest

Closely held business interests do not have a daily quoted market price. Valuation may use asset value, earnings, cash flow, comparable transactions, or a negotiated formula. The correct method depends on whether the business is asset-intensive, professional, growing, distressed, or dependent on one person.

The agreement should define the valuation date, standard of value, treatment of debt, goodwill, discounts, and appraiser selection. A fixed value written years earlier becomes unreliable unless updated. A formula based only on book value may exclude valuable goodwill. A neutral valuation process is usually safer than allowing the buyer or seller alone to set the price.

Payment Terms and Business Continuity

Even a fair valuation can harm the enterprise if the full amount must be paid immediately. Installments, security, interest, and setoff provisions can balance the departing partner's right to value with the business's need for working capital. The agreement may also address release from guarantees, return of property, customer transition, confidentiality, and non-solicitation.

A departing partner should not assume that leaving the partnership automatically removes liability for existing obligations. Banks and landlords may require formal releases. Public filings and notice to customers or suppliers may be necessary to prevent continued apparent authority.

Death, Disability, and Family Transfers

If a partner dies, the estate may inherit economic value but not automatically become a managing partner. The remaining partners may buy the interest under the agreement. This distinction protects both the family and the business: the family receives compensation without being forced to operate a company it does not understand, and the remaining partners avoid involuntary management with heirs.

Disability provisions should define duration and evidence. Temporary absence should not automatically trigger a forced sale, while permanent inability to perform essential duties may require redistribution of work and a buyout. Fairness requires attention to both ownership and employment because a partner can hold an interest even when no longer working in the business.

Disputes and Deadlock

Partnership conflict commonly arises over effort, compensation, spending, strategy, information, or personal relationships. Agreements can require negotiation, mediation, arbitration, or court proceedings. A deadlock clause may allow a neutral adviser, rotating casting vote, buy-sell mechanism, or sale of the enterprise.

Some "shotgun" clauses allow one partner to name a price at which the other must either buy or sell. These can discourage unfair pricing when parties have equal resources, but they can be oppressive when one partner has much greater access to capital. A clause that appears symmetrical on paper may not be fair in practice.

Partnership, Limited Partnership, LLP, and

Corporation

Legal form affects liability. General partners may face personal liability for partnership obligations. A limited partnership separates general and limited partners, while a limited liability partnership can protect partners from specified liabilities depending on jurisdiction. A corporation generally provides limited liability and transferable shares but requires corporate governance and formal separation.

Entrepreneurs should choose deliberately rather than call every joint business a partnership. Tax treatment, professional rules, capital needs, investor expectations, and liability risks differ. Changing form later may create tax and contractual consequences.

A Practical Exit Procedure

A sound procedure begins by reading the governing agreement and identifying the legal form. The departing participant should provide notice, disclose any proposed third-party transaction, and obtain financial information. The parties should determine whether economic rights or full membership are being transferred, apply consent and first-refusal provisions, obtain a valuation, agree payment terms, address guarantees and taxes, and document the closing.

Independent legal and tax advice is appropriate because the same words can have different consequences across jurisdictions. The objective is not to make exit impossible. It is to preserve continuity, protect creditors and other partners, and give the departing person fair value.

Conclusion

Business and partnership are interconnected through contract, agency, fiduciary duty, ownership, and shared risk. A partner's interest is not automatically the same as corporate shares, and an ordinary partnership may have no board. Transferring economic rights does not necessarily admit a new partner or dissolve the firm. A carefully drafted agreement should regulate authority, transfers, withdrawal, valuation, payment, death, disability, and disputes. When these matters are addressed before conflict occurs, partnership becomes a flexible structure for cooperation rather than a relationship held together only by personal trust (Armour et al., n.d.).

References

National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws. *Uniform Partnership Act (1997), as Amended*.

Kraakman, Reinier, et al. *The Anatomy of Corporate Law: A Comparative and Functional Approach*. 3rd ed., Oxford University Press, 2017.

Armour, John, Henry Hansmann, and Reinier Kraakman. "What Is Corporate Law?" in *The Anatomy of Corporate Law*.