

A Study on the Impact of Predictors of Psychological Ownership on Turnover Intention among Faculty Members

***Saket Jeswani ** Dr. Sumita Dave**

***Sr. Assistant Professor, Shri Shankaracharya Institute of Technology and Management, Bhilai, India.**

****Professor, Faculty of Management Studies, SSGI, Bhilai, India.**

Abstract

In the light of various theories of psychological ownership as a positive source employees turnover intention, this study investigates the links between promotion focused and preventative focused aspects of psychological ownership and turnover intentions of faculty members of technical educational institutes. A 36-item instrument was generated following a critical review of the literature. Principal component analysis with varimax rotation was used to determine construct validity and Cronbach's coefficient alpha, to determine the scale internal consistency. Data were collected through structured questionnaires. Regression analysis was used to determine the causal relationship between the predictors of psychological ownership and turnover intention. The relationship among predictors of psychological ownership and turnover intention are investigated to determine statistically significant relations. The results demonstrate that Self-efficacy, Association with target, Controlling and Territoriality aspects of psychological ownership has a positive significant impact on turnover intention. The study is expected to contribute to policy makers of technical educational institutes as well as further research work in the associated field. The hypothesis was tested on representative faculty members of technical educational institutes across India.

Keywords: Psychological Ownership, Turnover Intention, Faculty Members and Technical Educational Institutes.

INTRODUCTION:

Both researchers and human resource practitioners agree that the employment relationship is undergoing fundamental changes that have implications for the attraction, motivation and retention of talented employees (Horwitz, Heng, & Quazi, 2003; Roehling, Cavanaugh, Moyhian & Boswell, 2000; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). The employees are difficult to retain due to their inclination towards their own career path than to organizational loyalty; a tendency which results in increased rates of voluntary turnover (Cappelli, 2001). In today's era, retention management has become a popular concept to examine the portfolio of human resource management practices put into place by organizations in order to reduce voluntary turnover rates (e.g. Cappelli, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2001; Steel et al., 2002).

Another concept that has gained much interest for understanding and managing employment relationships is the Psychological Ownership, which refers to employees' subjective interpretations and evaluations of their deal with the organization (Rousseau, 1996; 2001; Turnley & Feldman, 1998). Researchers in this field argue that in order to have effective retention management, the creation of an optimal portfolio of human resource management practices is not sufficient and that it is important to manage employees' expectations relating to these practices. Only in this way HR managers can be confident to create a deal that is mutually understood by both the organization and its employees (Rousseau, 1996). While retention management helps to formulate strategies that are effective in reducing voluntary employee turnover, the psychological ownership focuses on employees' positive attitude towards organization and how these affect their intentions to stay. This implies that retention practices might only turn out successful if they are in line with what employees value and what they take into account when deciding to stay or quit the organization.

This study attempts to apply and empirically extend the concept of psychological ownership on turnover intention of faculty members of technical educational institutes of India and draw inferences regarding its affects in this context.

LITERATURE REVIEW:

Feelings of ownership can develop towards both tangible and intangible entities, serve to shape the individuality (Belk, 1988; Dittmar, 1992) and can affect the attitude and behavior (Isaacs, 1933; O'Toole, 1979). Such feelings can exist with simple association with target (entity) without having any formal or legal claim of ownership (Beggan & Brown, 1994). It is these essential characteristics of possession that are encapsulated in the concept of psychological ownership. Pierce et al. (2001) define psychological ownership as a "state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership (material or immaterial in nature) or a piece of it is 'theirs' (i.e., 'it is MINE!').".

Considering the ubiquitous nature of feelings of possession and ownership, it can be expected that psychological ownership may develop towards any number of different organizational targets, for example, the organization, the job, the work tasks, the work space, work tools or equipment, ideas or suggestions, team members, and so on (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). The intention of present research is to focus on feeling of psychological ownership of faculty members towards both their organization and their job.

A sense of possession (feeling as though an object, entity, or idea is 'MINE' or 'OURS') is the core of psychological ownership (Furby, 1978). Possessive feelings are omnipresent, can refer to tangible or intangible targets (Beaglehole, 1932; James, 1890), and can occur based on legal ownership or in the absence of legal ownership (Wilpert, 1991). Scholars in a wide variety

of fields note the close connection between possessions, feelings of possession, and feelings of ownership.

The psychology of possession demonstrates that people feel positively about tangible and intangible targets of ownership. For example, Beggan (1992) proposed the idea of ‘mere ownership effects’ based on empirical analysis of reactions to perceptions of ownership. Results of this study showed that people evaluated ideas and targets more favorably when they felt a sense of ownership for the target. In other words, feelings of psychological ownership lead to positive attitudes about the entity (Nuttin, 1987). Pierce et al. (2001) argued that psychological ownership satisfies three basic human needs: ‘home’ (having a sense of place), efficacy and effectance, and self-identity. When employees experience psychological ownership, they are able to satisfy these basic needs.

Based on literature pertaining to what constitutes possession and ownership, Pierce et al. (2001) concluded: (1) the feeling of ownership is innately human, (2) psychological ownership can occur toward both tangible and intangible targets (targets), and (3) psychological ownership has important emotional, attitudinal and behavioral effects on those that experience ownership. These conclusions indicates that psychological ownership is an individual factor and serve as a basis for how psychological ownership is defined and its effects are used in this study.

The overall purpose of the study is:

1. To investigate & examine the various predictors of psychological ownership.
2. To explore the relationship between psychological ownership & turnover intentions

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

Employees in the organization able to generate the feeling of psychological ownership due to the certain intrinsic motives like self-efficacy, self-identity, having a place to dwell and likewise. While these motives are universal, it is been anticipated that the process will be different for each employee. This will result in varying likelihood of developing feelings of ownership at different points of time. Different attributes are important for different people and different types of targets are ‘sought’ by employees, as a result. From the perspective of the self-concept, employees may strive to increase feelings of self-worth by attempting to legally or psychologically possess items of greatest importance to them. Ownership is one means to boost self-evaluations and self-esteem; hence, employees are likely to feel ownership over those targets considered to be most important according to their personal values. For example, employees whose perceptions of self-worth are predicated on intellect, or who are part of the culture that value intellect, may seek to feel ownership over targets that reinforce this attribute (e.g., books, pieces of art). Finally, as noted earlier, an individual may legally own some object, but not feel a sense of ownership for it. This condition may exist when the object is not a source of self-efficacy, is not associated with one's self-identify, and/or a place within which to dwell, even though it might have been purchased with hard earned cash.

PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP FOR THE ORGANIZATION:

Psychological ownership is the psychologically experienced phenomenon in which an employee develops possessive feelings for the target. Furby (1978) and Dittmar (1992), Pierce et al (2001) linked feelings of possession with feelings of ownership and defined psychological ownership as the state in which an individual feels that an object (i.e., material or immaterial) is experienced possessively (i.e., it's ‘MINE’ or it is ‘OURS’).

This connection between possession and feelings of ownership can be intended for the organization (or workplace) as a whole or for specific aspects of the organization such as the group, job, work tools (i.e., a computer or production machine), or work itself. Different targets of ownership can vary depending on the individual and the situation. For example, some employees have psychological ownership for their work and others might have ownership feelings for the overall organization. In this investigation, the paper focuses on the organization as the target of feelings of ownership (psychological ownership for the organization).

When people have a sense of ownership, they experience a connection between themselves and various tangible and intangible “targets” (Dittmar, 1992). The term “target” in the psychological ownership literature is quite broad and refers to whatever the object of attachment represents to an individual or group. These targets may be something as small as a preferred seat in the company cafeteria, or as large as the organization or industry as a whole.

DIMENSIONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP: PROMOTION AND PREVENTION

The basis for examining two unique and independent forms of psychological ownership comes from the work of Higgins’ (1997, 1998) regulatory focus theory. He proposes that individuals have two basic self-regulation systems: promotion and prevention. Kark and Van Dijk (2007) noted that, “individuals who operate primarily within the promotion focus are more concerned with accomplishments and aspirations and show more willingness to take risks,” whereas “individuals who operate primarily within the prevention focus are more concerned with duties and obligations and experience emotions of anxiety and agitation”. According to Higgins (1997, 1998), self-regulation refers to the way individuals select goals. Those who use a promotion-focused approach pursue goals that reflect their hopes and aspirations. On the other hand, those that use prevention goals focus on what to avoid for reducing punishment, sticking with rules and obligations.

Higgins (1997, 1998) argues that both prevention and promotion are needed for human survival and that one approach is not necessarily more desirable than the other. When applied to examining psychological ownership, employees who are more promotion oriented may experience feelings toward targets of ownership that are quite different from those who are prevention oriented. For example, sharing information may lead to change and improvement in organization, a manager possessing promotive psychological ownership with a successfully completed project may share information “he owns” with different groups as he sees improvement in organization as personally fulfilling.

Building on the three recognized dimensions of psychological ownership i.e., belongingness, self-efficacy, and self-identify (Pierce et al., 2001), the concepts of territoriality, association with organization, investing the self, controlling and accountability are posited as additional aspects of psychological ownership. Promotion-oriented psychological ownership includes self-efficacy, accountability, sense of belonging, self-identity, association with organization, investing the self and controlling the target. The domain of territoriality was identified as a dimension of a preventative form of ownership.

SELF-EFFICACY:

Self-efficacy relates to people’s belief that they can successfully implement action and be successful with a specific task (Bandura, 1997). White’s (1959) early conceptualization of ownership and possession argued that one’s feelings of ownership may be inextricably linked to

the individual's need for effectance. Furby (1991) suggested that feelings of ownership emerge even in young children because of the motive to control targets and to be effectant with their application. This freedom to control one's actions is a psychological component that results in feelings of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) and may promote a sense of psychological ownership concerning a particular task, process, and procedure. This self-efficacy component of psychological ownership seems to say, "I need to do this task, I can do it, and I therefore own the responsibility for achieving success."

White (1959) argues that part of the human condition is revealed by the individual's exploration of the environment, which in turn is driven by the effectance motive, that is, the individual's desire to interact effectively with environment. The effectance motive is aroused by differences in the environment and is sustained when one's actions produce further differences. The motive subsides when a situation has been explored to the point that it no longer presents new possibilities. Exploration and the ability to control, one's environment gives rise to feelings of efficacy and pleasures, which stem from "being the cause" and having altered the environment through one's control/actions. In addition to producing intrinsic pleasure, control over the environment may produce extrinsic satisfaction as certain desirable targets are acquired.

Based on the above discussion, the study proposes that due to the innate need for feelings of efficacy and competence, individuals are propelled to explore and manipulate their environment. These person-environment interactions may result in the exercise of control and subsequent feelings of personal efficacy and competence. Through this process, "possessions and self become intimately related" (Furby, 1991).

ACCOUNTABILITY:

Accountability has become a popular concept in business and public policy domains. Accountability is "the implicit or explicit expectation that one may be called on to justify one's beliefs, feelings and actions to others" (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999).

Accountability as a source of psychological ownership is evident in many areas of business as well as society. For example, the owners of any sports teams hold others (coaches, players) accountable for team performance, while they themselves are held accountable by other constituents (media, fans) for the performance of the team. Expectations of the perceived right to hold others accountable and to hold one's self-accountable are consistent with Pierce et al.'s (2003) description of expected rights and responsibilities. Individuals who experience higher feelings of psychological ownership expect to be able to call others accountable for influences on their target of ownership. The expectation of information sharing and permission to influence the direction of the target are consequences of this expected right to hold others accountable. Individuals not only have expected rights about holding others accountable, they have expected responsibilities for the self, sometimes described as a sense of burden sharing. When targets of ownership are seen as an extension of the self, accountability for what happens to and with those targets has implications for what happens to and with the self.

BELONGINGNESS:

The human need for a home or a place to dwell has been articulated over the years by social psychologists (Ardrey, 1966; Duncan, 1981) as a fundamental need that exceeds mere physical concerns and satisfies the pressing psychological need to belong. For example, Ardrey (1966) argued people will take ownership of, and structure their lives around possessions in an effort to satisfy their need for belonging. Feelings of psychological ownership through

attachment to a place or an object, becomes a “home” or place for the individual (Pierce et al., 2001). Beyond belongingness being enhanced by physical possessions, belongingness in terms of psychological ownership in organizations may best be understood as a feeling that one belongs in the organization. When people feel like owners in an organization, their need for belongingness is met by “having a place” in terms of their social and socio-emotional needs being met. The need to belong in a work place may be satisfied by a particular job, work team, work unit, division, organization or industry as a whole.

SELF-IDENTITY:

Self-identity along with social identity is recognized as major parts comprising the self-concept domain. Researchers have noted that groups of people and possessions often act as symbols through which people identify themselves (Belk, 1988; Rousseau, 1998). Specifically, it has been noted that individuals establish, maintain, reproduce and transform their self-identity through interactions with tangible possessions (Dittmar, 1992) and intangibles such as an organization, mission or purpose (Rousseau, 1998). For example, people may define themselves as a sports car driver, a business owner, or an antique collector. These targets of ownership are often used as descriptors of one’s identity. Feelings of psychological ownership over these targets may provide a foundation from which individuals can identify themselves as being unique, thus contributing to their personal identity.

In addition to targets such as an object, a job, or a work team, individuals may also identify themselves with an organization, mission or purpose (Rousseau, 1998). This is because people have a strong drive to identify with the settings in which they work (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Albert, Ashforth, and Dutton (2000) suggest that by internalizing the organizational identity as a definition of the self, the individual gains a sense of meaningfulness and connectedness. Thus, individuals may feel a sense of psychological ownership over a target at multiple levels to the extent that it appeals to and affirms their values and self-identity. Since people are expressive and search for opportunities to establish their self-identity, the need for self-identity can be considered a potential component of psychological ownership.

ASSOCIATION WITH ORGANIZATION:

James (1980) suggested that through a living relationship with targets, individuals come to develop feelings of ownership for those targets. Supporting the notion that feelings of ownership emerge from a lived relationship, Beaglehole (1932) too argued that by knowing the target (person or place) intimately, it becomes part of the self. For example, a gardener, after a certain time, feels that the garden belongs to him. People come to find themselves psychologically tied to things as a result of their active participation or association with those things. Sartre (1943) and Furby (1978b) have also suggested that there is an associational aspect to ownership. Something can be mine, in my feelings, by virtue of my being associated and familiar with it. Consistent with the above, Beggan and Brown (1994) and Rudmin and Berry (1987) suggested that through the process of association we come to know targets. The more information possessed about the target of ownership the more intimate becomes the connection between the individual and that target.

According to James (1890), a part of our feelings about what is ours stems from living close to, getting to know, and experiencing things around us. Thus, the more information possessed about the target of ownership, the more things are felt thoroughly and deeply and in the process the self becomes attached to (one with) the object. Along the same lines, Beggan and

Brown's (1994) research found that individuals tend to frame issues of ownership as a function of an association between themselves and the object.

Rudmin and Berry (1987) suggested that attachment provides part of the meaning of ownership and that attachment enhance familiarity and knowledge. Thus, psychological ownership reflects an intimate relationship of the owner with the target.

INVESTING THE SELF:

Locke (1690) argued that we own our labor and ourselves, and therefore, we are likely to feel that we own that which we create, shape, or produce. Through our labor, we not only invest our time and physical effort but also our psychic energy into the product of that labor. Sartre (1943) even suggested that buying an object was simply another form of creating an object. The most apparent and perhaps the most powerful means by which an individual invests him/herself into an object is to create it. Creation involves investing time, energy, and even one's values and identity. "Things" are attached to the person who created them because they are his/her product, they derive their being and form from his/her efforts; hence, the individual who has created them owns them in much the same way as he/she owns him/herself (Durkheim, 1957). The investment of an individual's self into targets causes the self to become one with the object and to develop feelings of ownership towards that object (Rochberg-Halton, 1980). This sense of ownership can develop between workers and their machines, their work, and the products of their labor (Beaglehole, 1932). In other words, individuals may feel ownership for the products they create through scholarly pursuit (academics), organizations they found (entrepreneurs), or bills they draft (politicians). The investment of the self allows an individual to see their reflection in the target and feel their own effort in its existence.

CONTROLLING:

Control exercised over a target eventually gives rise to feelings of ownership for that target (Furby, 1976a; McClelland, 1951; Rochberg-Halton, 1980; Sartre, 1943). In her control model of ownership, Furby (1978a) argues that the greater the amount of control a person can exercise over certain targets, the more they will be psychologically experienced as part of the self. McClelland (1951) developed the idea that much like parts of the body and control over them, material targets that can be controlled come to be regarded as part of the self. Prelinger (1959) provided support for the proposed relationship between self and control over targets. Specifically, he found that targets over which the respondent had control, could manipulate, or targets by which individual could be affected, were more likely to be perceived as parts of the self. Similar findings have been provided by Dixon and Street (1957).

Control also was found to be a core feature of ownership by Rudmin and Berry (1987). They found that ownership means the ability to use and to control the use of targets. Those targets over which individuals exercise the most control are the ones most likely to be perceived as theirs.

TERRITORIALITY:

Indeed, Brown et al. (2005) argued that ownership and self-identity are so interrelated that people engage in territorial behaviors, such as marking or defending their territory as a way to identify and defend possessions as an extension of themselves. Brown et al. (2005) have noted that "Organizational members can and do become territorial over physical spaces, ideas, roles,

relationships, and other potential possessions in organizations”. When individuals form bonds of ownership over targets in the organization including physical, informational or social targets, they may seek to mark those possessions as belonging exclusively to themselves. In addition, if individuals anticipate infringement on their targets of ownership, they may engage in protective territoriality to maintain levels of ownership and to communicate ownership to potential threats and the social unit as a whole. In developing a theoretical foundation of territoriality, Brown et al. (2005) explicitly focused on the concept of territoriality as being behavioral and propose that “the stronger an individual’s psychological ownership of an object, the greater the likelihood he or she will engage in territorial behaviors”. However, in light of Pierce et al.’s (2001) argument that psychological ownership is a cognitive-affective construct, this study leans heavily on cognitive aspects (versus behavioral displays) of territoriality as a more preventative form of psychological ownership.

TURNOVER INTENTION:

Many researchers argue that the psychological contract plays an important role in helping to define and understand the contemporary employment relationship (Rousseau, 2001; Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003; Turnley & Feldman, 1998). Psychological contracts consist of individuals’ beliefs regarding the terms and conditions of the exchange agreement between themselves and their organizations (Rousseau, 1996). They emerge when individuals believe that their organization has promised to provide them with certain inducements in return for the contributions they make to the organization (Turnley & Feldman, 2000).

The growing body of literature on the psychological contract reflects accumulating evidence for its influence on diverse work-related outcomes. These studies show that employees evaluate the inducements they receive from their organization in view of previously made promises and that this evaluation leads to a feeling of psychological contract fulfillment or breach (Turnley & Feldman, 1998). In turn, a feeling of contract breach has a negative impact on employees’ willingness to contribute to the organization and on their intentions to stay with the organization (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Robinson, 1996; Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1998; 2000). Other studies have found a positive correlation with actual turnover (e.g. Guzzo, Noonan & Elron, 1994; Robinson, 1996). Together these results suggest that the psychological contract is a construct of both scientific and practical importance and that it is especially relevant for HR managers concerned with the retention of their employees.

Existing research indicates that employees are rather pessimistic about the extent to which their organization lives up to its promises. For example, Turnley & Feldman (1998) found that approximately twenty-five percent of their sample of employees felt that they had received less (or much less) than they had been promised. This was most strongly the case for promises relating to job security, amount of input into important decisions, opportunities for advancement, health care benefits, and responsibility and power. Robinson et al. (1994) found that fifty-five percent of their sample reported contract violations by their employer two years after organizational entry. Content analysis showed that these violations most frequently concerned training and development, compensation, and promotion. Together, this empirical work demonstrates that psychological contract violation is relatively common and that this could explain the difficulties organizations are currently experiencing in retaining their employees. Since the psychological contract encompasses employees’ subjective interpretations and evaluations of their employment deal, the retention factors discussed in the practitioner and

scientific literature will only turn out to be effective for employee retention, if they are in line with employees' subjective views and expectations.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS:

H₁: Self-efficacy has a significant impact on Turnover Intention. The feeling of self-efficacy may promote a sense of psychological ownership (Bandura, 1997). This hypothesis is intended to study the influence of self-efficacy of faculty members over their intentions to quit or stay in the organization.

H₂: Accountability has a significant impact on Turnover Intention. Individuals who experience higher feelings of psychological ownership expect to be able to call others to accountable for influences on their target of ownership (Pierce et al.'s, 2003). This hypothesis is intended to study the influence of accountability of faculty members over their intentions to quit or stay in the organization.

H₃: Sense of belonging has a significant impact on Turnover Intention. Ardrey (1966) argued people will take ownership of and structure their lives around possessions in an effort to satisfy their need for belonging. This hypothesis is intended to study the influence of sense of belonging of faculty members over their intentions to quit or stay in the organization.

H₄: Self-identity has a significant impact on Turnover Intention. Specifically, it has been noted that individuals establish, maintain, reproduce and transform their self-identity through interactions with tangible possessions (Dittmar, 1992) and intangibles such as an organization, mission or purpose (Rousseau, 1998). This hypothesis is intended to study the influence of self-identity of faculty members over their intentions to quit or stay in the organization.

H₅: Association with organization has a significant impact on Turnover Intention. James (1980) suggested that through a living relationship with targets, individuals come to develop feelings of ownership for those targets. Supporting Beggan and Brown (1994) and Rudmin and Berry (1987) suggested that through the process of association we come to know targets. The more information possessed about the target of ownership the more intimate becomes the connection between the individual and that target. This hypothesis is intended to study the influence of association with organization of faculty members over their intentions to quit or stay in the organization.

H₆: Investing the self has a significant impact on Turnover Intention. The investment of an individual's self into targets causes the self to become one with the object and to develop feelings of ownership towards that object (Rochberg-Halton, 1980). This hypothesis is intended to study the influence of investing the self of faculty members over their intentions to quit or stay in the organization.

H₇: Controlling has a significant impact on Turnover Intention. Control exercised over a target eventually gives rise to feelings of ownership for that target (Furby, 1976; McClelland, 1951; Rochberg-Halton, 1980; Sartre, 1943). This hypothesis is intended to study the influence of controlling of faculty members over their intentions to quit or stay in the organization.

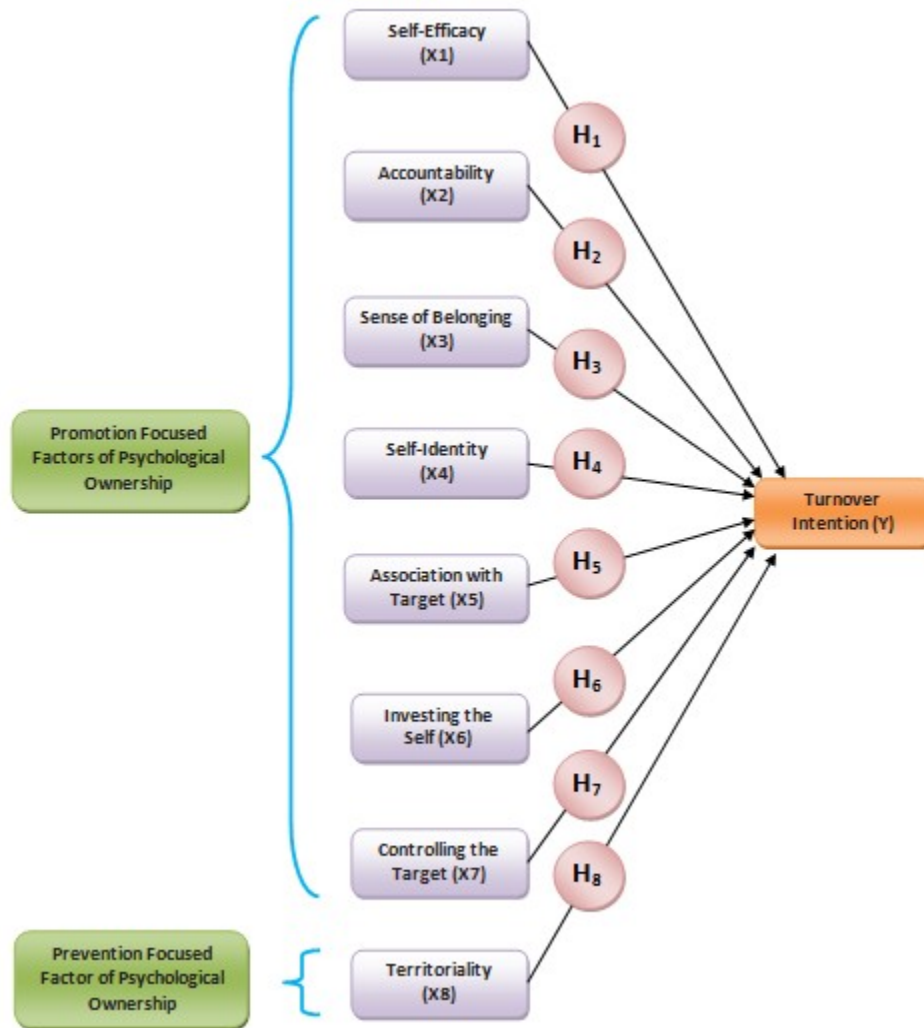
H₈: Territoriality has a significant impact on Turnover Intention. The stronger an individual's psychological ownership for a target, the greater the likelihood to engage in territorial behaviors. (Brown et al., 2005). This hypothesis is intended to study the influence of territoriality of faculty members over their intentions to quit or stay in the organization.

MODEL OF THE STUDY:

The purpose of this study is to investigate the links between promotion focused and preventative focused aspect of psychological ownership and turnover intentions of faculty members of technical educational institutes of India. The study focus on determining the various parameters of the psychological ownership those most significantly influence their decisions to quit or stay. In addition, the study sought to describe the importance of retaining efficient faculties and developing strategies to enhance their retention practices.

There are eight predictors of psychological ownership, denoting the seven factors of promotion focused and one factor of preventive focused psychological ownership, which have a direct relationship on turnover intention among the faculty members. A Psychological Ownership – Turnover Intention Model is generated on the basis of literature review for the purpose to check the extent of psychological ownership feeling and its probable relationship with the decision to quit or stay as shown in fig 1.

Figure 1: Psychological Ownership – Turnover Intention Model



INDEPENDENT & DEPENDENT VARIABLES

An appropriate instrument is required for survey in order to conduct the study properly. This instrument needs some base and background. Table I depicts the Independent & Dependent Variables.

Independent Variables	Source	Dependent Variable
Self-Efficacy	Beggan, 1991; Furby, 1978; White, 1959; Bandura, 1997	Turnover Intention
Accountability	Lerner & Tetlock, 1999	
Sense of Belonging	Ardrey, 1966; Mehta and Belk, 1991	
Self-Identity	Dittmar, 1992; Rousseau, 1998	
Association with the Target	Sartre (1969)	
Investing the Self	Sartre, 1969; Csikszentmihalyi & Rochberg- Halton, 1981	
Controlling the Target	Csikszentmihalyi & Rochberg- Halton, 1980; Dixon & Street, 1957; Sartre, 1969; Tuan, 1980; White, 1959.	
Territoriality	Brown et al., 2005	

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT:

The above study helps in developing the survey instrument. The various components of factors have been identified and included in the survey. Table 2 depicts the research instruments.

Variable	Scale	Source
Turnover Intention (Z)	Satisfaction with present job	Staying or Leaving Index (SLI) - Bluedorn (1982)
	Thinking about quitting	
	Intention to quit present job	
Self-Efficacy (X1)	View challenging problems as tasks to master	Bandura A. (1994)
	Develop deeper interest in the activities	
	Form a stronger sense of commitment	
	Recover quickly from setbacks	
Accountability (X2)	Seek out information	Dianne Schilling (2009)
	Own problems and circumstances	
	Admit mistake	
	Contribution to organizational objectives	
	Extra Task	
Sense of Belonging (X3)	Others accountability	Somers' Belongingness Scale (Somers 1999)
	Esteem	
	Connectedness	
	Efficacy	
	Involvement	

Self-Identity (X4)	Confidence	Erwin Identity Scale (Erwin, 1979)
	Sexual identity	
	Conceptions about body	
Association with Organization (X5)	Knowing the organization	Beaglehole (1932)
	Active participation	
	Information possessed about the organization	
Investing the Self (X6)	Effort in organization existence	Locke (1690), Beaglehole (1932)
	Creation	
	Responsibility	
Controlling (X7)	Defining own job responsibilities	Russell A. Matthews, Wendy Michelle Diaz and Steven G. Cole (2003)
	Paid leave of absence	
	Goal setting	
	Setting own working standards	
	Provide reviews of superiors	
Territoriality (X8)	Constructing Territories	Graham B, Thomas B.I. & Sandra L. R. (2005)
	Communicating Territories	
	Maintaining Territories	
	Restoring Territories	
	Psychologically valuing the territory	

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:

The conclusive design was applied in this study to describe the characteristics of faculty members and to find out the relationship between predictors of psychological ownership and their intention to leave or stay. Non-probability convenience sampling method was adopted. The sample comprised 462 faculty members of technical educational institutes of India. The India was divided into 5 zones viz. East, West, North, South & Central. Various popular states of all the 5 zones were chosen for data collection. The data was collected from faculty members including Assistant Professors, Associate Professors and Professors.

PROCEDURE:

PHASE 1 - PILOT STUDY:

The first stage of the instrument testing process was a pilot study conducted by sampling one data set ($n_1 = 60$) from faculty members of technical educational institutes of India. Fifty one faculties completed the questionnaire giving a response rate of 85 per cent. The purpose of the pilot study was to:

1. Verify the choice of data collection instrument in relation to the purpose of the study;
2. Ensure the reliability and validity of the instruments used;
3. Undertake preliminary analysis of data.

Reliability analysis revealed a Cronbach's alpha of 0.86 (Table 3). Although the size of the pilot study sample ($n_2 = 51$) limited the strength of reliability testing, there was no indication that the instrument was not rigorous and would not be appropriate for the main study.

Table 3: Reliability Statistics for Pilot Study ($n_2 = 51$)	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.865	36

PHASE 2 – MAIN STUDY:

The data was collected physically and self administered survey (Questionnaire) through email. The questions were asked on seven point likert scale from the respondents. The questionnaire consisted of three sections i.e. turnover intention and predictors of psychological ownership. Turnover intention was the dependent variable. Finally, the third section asked was about the respondents' demographic characteristics. To increase the response rate, the employees were informed regarding the research objective and confidentiality. The response rate was 92% (462/500) targeting sample size of 100 from each zone of India. ($n_3 = 462$)

MEASURES:

Based on the theoretical framework presented above, a new measure of psychological ownership was developed. Both deductive and inductive processes were used for item generation (Hinkin; 1995, 1998). Item generation was initiated with the following steps: (1) a comprehensive review of the literature on psychological ownership, turnover intention and related terms, and (2) discussions with faculty members of various technical institutes. From the review of literature and group discussions, the seven theory-driven domains determined to best constitute the dimensions of promotion-oriented psychological ownership included self-efficacy, accountability, sense of belonging, self-identity, association with the organization, investing the self and controlling. The domain territoriality was identified as a dimension of a preventative form of ownership.

In the next step, 55 items were generated representing the eight theory-driven predictors of psychological ownership. Then the guidelines of Stanton, Sinar, Balzer, and Smith (2002) for item reduction were followed. Specifically, item reduction is often done on the basis of maximizing internal consistency. Accordingly, the scale's internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) was maintained by selecting items based on reliability with each item removed, and the corrected item-total correlations. These items were included in the final measure of psychological ownership. Finally a 36 item instrument were generated and administered for data collection for both the promotion-oriented and preventive-oriented ownership scales.

The instruments were prepared keeping in mind the faculty members of technical educational institutes of India. The survey questionnaire with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used.

VALIDITY & RELIABILITY OF INSTRUMENTS:

Turnover Intention was measured using three item turnover intention scale, adapted from the Bluedorns (1982) Staying or Leaving Index (SLI) for this study to measure turnover intention among faculty members. The Cronbach alpha was 0.81. Self-Efficacy was measured on the basis of four items Self-Efficacy Measurement Scale adopted from Bandura A. (1994). The Cronbach alpha was 0.615. Accountability was measured on the basis of six items of accountability adopted from Dianne Schilling (2009). The Cronbach alpha was 0.857. Sense of Belonging was measured on the basis of four items adopted from Somers' Belongingness Scale (Somers 1999).

The Cronbach alpha was 0.891. Self-Identity was measured on three item scale adopted from Erwin Identity Scale (Erwin, 1979) to measure self identity among faculty members. The Cronbach alpha was 0.65. Association with Organization was measured on three items scale adopted from Beaglehole (1932) to measure faculties association with the organization. The Cronbach alpha was 0.705. Investing the Self was measured on three item scale adopted from Locke (1690), Beaglehole (1932). The Cronbach alpha was 0.934. Controlling was measured on 5 item scale adopted from Russell A. Matthews, Wendy Michelle Diaz and Steven G. Cole (2003). The Cronbach alpha was 0.707. Territoriality was measured on 5 items scale adopted from Graham B, Thomas B.I. & Sandra L. R. (2005). The Cronbach alpha was 0.737. Overall the internal consistency for all the 36 item was checked and the Cronbach alpha was 0.905 (Table 4).

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.905	36

DATA ANALYSIS & INTERPRETATION:

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Version 17) was used to facilitate analysis. The psychometric properties of the instrument were analyzed using principal component analysis with varimax rotation to determine construct validity and Cronbach’s coefficient alpha to determine the scale’s internal consistency reliability. Finally, the regression analysis was conducted to determine the impact of eight predictors of psychological ownership on turnover intention (table 5 to 7). The value of R Square is 0.653 i.e. 65% which reveals that data collected is reliable as shown in table 5.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.8081	0.65314	0.647001	0.271
a. Predictors: (Constant), X1, X2, X3, X4, X5, X6, X7, X8				
b. Dependent Variable: Y				

Table 6 reveals that Psychological ownership has a significant impact on Turnover Intention of faculty members as F value (106.39) is greater than Fcrit (1.96).

	df	SS	MS	F	Fcrit	Significance F
Regression	8	133.71	16.7138	106.39	1.9588 8	6.59E-99
Residual	45 2	71.0087	0.1571			
Total	46 0	204.718				

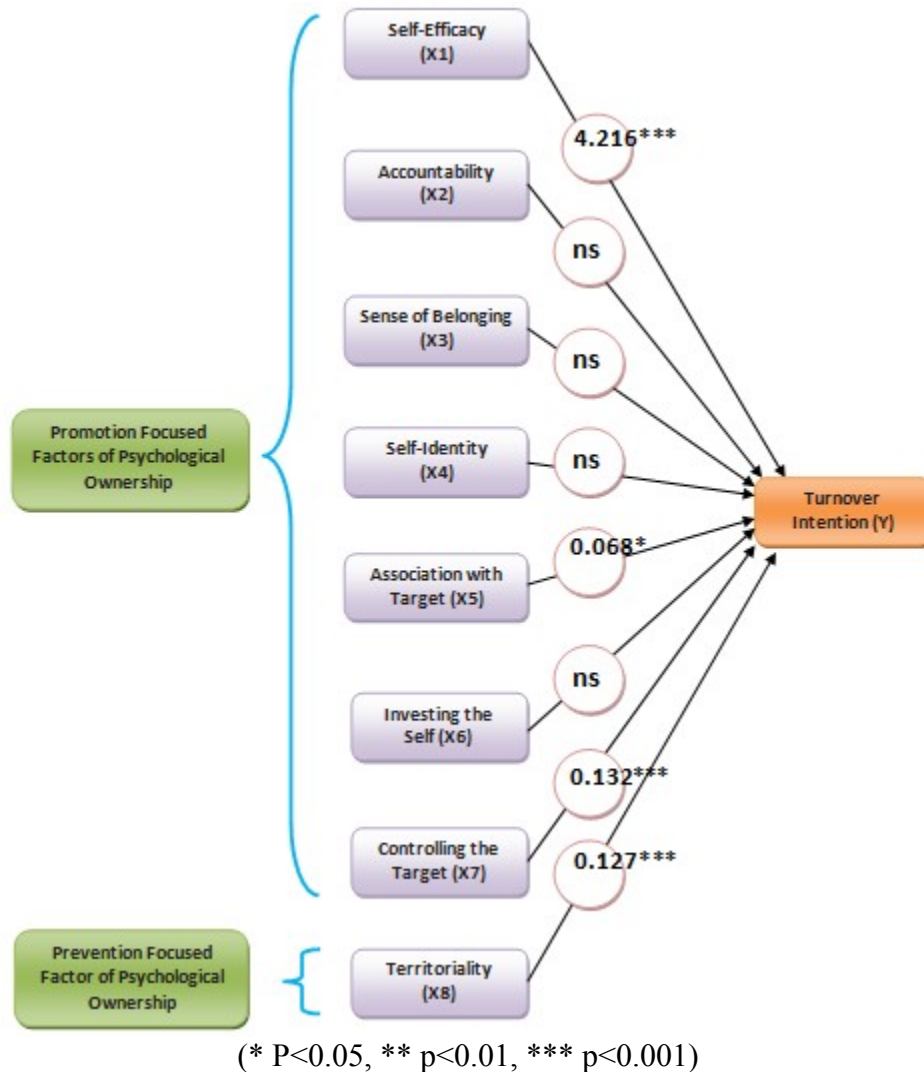
a. Predictors: (Constant), X8, X4, X7, X1, X3, X6, X5, X2
b. Dependent Variable: Y

Among all the eight predictors of psychological ownership only four predictors viz. Self-efficacy (X1), Association with Target (X5), Controlling (X7) and Territoriality (X8) has significant impact on turnover intention with p values 1.30239E-51, 0.048812722, 3.85251E-05 and 0.000752553 ($p < 0.05$) respectively as shown in table 7. Therefore research hypothesis H₁, H₅, H₇ and H₈ is accepted for four predictors of psychological ownership viz. Self-efficacy (X1), Association with Target (X5), Controlling (X7) and Territoriality (X8), whereas null hypothesis (H₀) is accepted for other four predictors viz. Accountability(X2), Sense of Belonging(X3), Self-Identity(X4) and Investing the Self(X6) i.e H₂, H₃, H₄ and H₆ are rejected.

Model		β Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value
Constant	Intercept	- 0.00095934 3	0.03658437 9	-0.02622	0.979091235
X1	14.5	4.21648850 1	0.24439262 2	17.2529 3	1.30239E-51
X2	4.5	0.03769519 5	0.0443056	0.8508	0.395331058
X3	3.5	0.03836565 4	0.03160017 1	1.21409 6	0.22534488
X4	4	0.02058459 4	0.03529606 4	0.58319 8	0.560050887
X5	8	0.06842959 3	0.03751629 6	1.9824	0.048812722
X6	7	0.00401391 7	0.03369209 3	0.11913 5	0.905221099
X7	7	0.13245497 6	0.03186034 5	4.15736	3.85251E-05
X8	7	0.12741477 6	0.03755390 6	3.39285	0.000752553
a. Dependent Variable: Y					

Hence, the study proves that three predictors (Self-efficacy, Association with Target, Controlling) of promotion focused aspect and the only preventive focused aspect of psychological ownership (Territoriality) has a significant impact on turnover intention of faculty members to the extent of β Coefficients as shown in fig. 2. Other predictors seem to have no significant impact on the decision to quit or stay in the institute. Therefore, management of the technical educational institutes needs to focus only on those predictors of psychological ownership which has a significant impact on turnover intention i.e. Self-efficacy, Association with Target, Controlling and Territoriality to enhance the retention of faculty members.

Figure 2: Result of Hypothesis Test (H_1 to H_8)



RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

The study set out to develop a theory-driven multi-dimensional measure of psychological ownership that included the full breadth of the construct including promotion-focused aspects as well as a prevention focused aspect of psychological ownership. The rationale and foundation for examining this multi-dimensional construct from the perspective of a promotion and prevention motivational perspective was supported by Higgins’ (1997, 1998) regulatory focus theory of motivation. This basic motivational framework was used as a point of departure for examining the composition of what may potentially be a core positively-oriented characteristic of human behavior called psychological ownership.

The results from this empirical investigation may have significant implications for how positive organizational behavior conceives psychological ownership. Specifically, the extent to which one feels like an owner over a target will be reflected in whether the faculty member satisfies the need for efficacy, feels association with the institute, controlling and maintaining the territoriality. The results hopefully suggest that these four aspects may represent what constitutes a theoretically broadened and enriched understanding of psychological ownership in relation to faculty members of technical educational institutes of India.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION:

The primary objective of the study was to investigate & examine the various predictors of psychological ownership by undergoing exhaustive literature review and to draw an outline of conceptual research for further empirical testing to predicate relationships between feelings of ownership and employees intention to quit or stay.

In this competitive world, technical educational institutes require satisfied and committed faculties to generate value for the institution. But the question is why should faculties invest more in the firm than they are paid to do? As turbulent environments and changing expectations regarding employment lead to shorter tenure with institutes. Reallocation of ownership rights is an alternative, particularly among highly skilled faculty members. Employers prefer to share ownership rights with certain faculty member over others, based on their competence, marketability and potential. Bundling ownership rights with financial information, participation in decision making and other supporting practices can enhance the productivity through creating employment relationships based upon high trust and shared psychological contracts between employer and faculty. But is it practically possible? So, what is the alternative? Without reallocating the ownership rights, psychological ownership can be generated among faculties towards their institutes with the help of formulating strategies focusing on individual's self-efficacy, association with the organization, controlling and territoriality.

SUGGESTIONS:

SELF-EFFICACY:

People with a strong sense of self-efficacy view challenging problems as tasks to be mastered, develop deeper interest in the activities in which they participate, form a stronger sense of commitment to their interests and activities and recover quickly from setbacks and disappointments. Institutions need to help the faculties to develop a strong sense of self-efficacy in order to enhance the feeling of psychological ownership which further help faculties to retain in the institution.

Performing a task successfully strengthens our sense of self-efficacy. However, failing to adequately deal with a task or challenge can undermine and weaken self-efficacy. Therefore, the most effective way of developing a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences. Witnessing other people successfully completing a task is another important source of self-efficacy. (Bandura, 1994). Faculties could be persuaded to belief that they have the skills and capabilities to succeed. Consider a time when someone said something positive and encouraging that helped you achieve a goal. Getting verbal encouragement from others helps people overcome self-doubt and instead focus on giving their best effort to the task at hand.

ASSOCIATION WITH ORGANIZATION:

According to Beggan & Brown (1994), association has been considered ample to produce feelings of ownership. Therefore, it can be deduced that those individuals who experience feelings of ownership would want to maintain their association with the organization because of unfavorable consequences if this connection is broken. Faculties as well as institutions must focus on knowing the organization and increased active participation between the faculty and institution, helps to enhance the faculties association with the institution.

CONTROLLING:

Institution must work on providing more and more controlling powers to the faculty members on various aspects like defining own job responsibilities, goal setting and setting own working standards in turn facilitating the concept of “Employee Empowerment”. Encouraging and gradually developing the culture of empowerment in the institute will lead to better understanding of psychological ownership and hence faculty retention.

TERRITORIALITY:

Territoriality of physical space has been shown to engender a sense of belonging to social groups (Altman, 1975; Lewis, 1979), which in an organizational context may result in reduced turnover and increased performance. Moreover, in organizations where territoriality is entrenched and pervasive, members may—for fear of infringing on another’s territory—be reluctant to venture into certain areas, take on new roles, or collaborate with particular colleagues. Hence, it should be encouraged as well as facilitated by the management of the institutes, so that faculty members can have their own territory to work, which leads to high performance and lower turnover.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH:

For the future, development processes and applications for psychological ownership need to be given focused attention. Just as the positive resource of psychological capital development has been recently demonstrated (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006; Luthans et al., 2007), the identified components of the positive form of psychological ownership (i.e., Self-Efficacy, Association with Organization, Controlling, and Territoriality) may also be developed in carefully designed and executed training interventions. There are a number of future directions for research investigating psychological ownership in organizations. In order to develop an integrative theory of psychological ownership, future research should address individual factors that may influence the development of psychological ownership. In addition, research to validate the construct of psychological ownership considering various other aspects should continue.

REFERENCES

1. Albert, S., Ashforth, B. E., & Dutton, J. E. (2000). Organizational identity and identification: Charting new waters and building new bridges. *Academy of Management Review*, 25, 13–17.
2. Altman, I. 1975. *Environment and social behavior: Privacy, personal space, territory, and crowding*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
3. Ardrey, R. (1966). *The territorial imperative: A personal inquiry into the animal origins of property and nations*. New York: Dell.
4. Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 20-39.
5. Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
6. Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior*, 4. New York: Academic Press, pp. 71-81.
7. Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.

8. Beaglehole, E. (1932). *Property: A study in social psychology*. New York: Macmillan.
9. Beggan, J. K. (1992). On the social nature of nonsocial perception: the mere ownership effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62, 229–237.
10. Beggan, J. K., & Brown, E. M. (1994). Association as a psychological justification for ownership. *Journal of Psychology*, 128, 365-379.
11. Belk, R. W. (1988). Possession and the extended self. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 15, 139-168.
12. Bluedorn AC (1982). “A unified model of turnover from organizations”, *Hum. Relations*, 35: 13-153.
13. Brown, G., Lawrence, T.B., Robinson, S.L. (2005). Territoriality in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 30: 577-594.
14. Cappelli, P. (2001). A market-driven approach to retaining talent. *Harvard Business Review on finding and keeping the best people* (pp. 27-50). Boston : Harvard Business School Press.
15. Coyle-Shapiro, J. A.-M. (2002). A psychological contract perspective on organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(8), 927-946.
16. Csikszentmihalyi, M. & Rochberg-Halton, E. (1981). *The meaning of things: Domestic symbols and the self*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
17. Dianne Schilling (2009), “The Power of Accountability”, *Human Resource Management*, 39(4), 305-320.
<http://www.womensmedia.com/grow/184-the-power-of-accountability.html>
18. Dittmar, H. (1992). *The social psychology of material possessions: To have is to be*. Hemel Hempstead, England: St Martin’s Press.
19. Dixon, J. C., & Street, J. W. (1957). The distinction between self and not-self in children and adolescents. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 127, 157-162.
20. Duncan, N. G. (1981). Home ownership and social theory. In S. Duncan (Ed.), *Housing and identity: Crosscultural perspectives* (pp. 98–134). New York: Holmes & Meier.
21. Durkheim, E. (1957). *Professional ethics and civil morals*. Translated by C. Brookfield. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, Ltd.
22. Erwin, T. D. (1979). The validation of the Erwin Identity Scale. (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Iowa, 1978). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 39, 4818A.
23. Furby, L. (1978). Possession in humans: an exploratory study of its meaning and motivation. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 6, 49–65.
24. Furby, L. (1978a). Possessions: Toward a theory of their meaning and function throughout the life cycle. In P. B. Baltes (Ed.), *Life Span Development and Behavior* (1, pp. 297-336). New York: Academic Press.
25. Furby, L. (1978b). Possession in humans: An exploratory study of its meaning and motivation. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 6(1), 49-65.
26. Furby, L. (1991). Understanding the psychology of possession and ownership: A personal memoir and an appraisal of our progress. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 6, 457–463.
27. Graham B, Thomas B.I. & Sandra L. R. (2005). Territoriality in Organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 30, No. 3, 577–594.
28. Guzzo, R. A., Noonan, K. A., & Elron, E. (1994). Expatriate managers and the psychological contract. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(4), 617-626.
29. Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist*, 52, 1280–1300.

30. Higgins, E. T. (1998). Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*, Vol. 30, (1–46). New York: Academic Press.
31. Hinkin, T. R. (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management*, 21, 967–988.
32. Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1, 104–121.
33. Horwitz, F. M., Heng, C. T., & Quazi, H. A. (2003). Finders, keepers? Attracting, motivating and retaining knowledge workers. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 13(4), 23-44.
34. Isaacs, S. S. (1933). *Social development in young children: A study of beginnings*. London, UK: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
35. James, W. (1890). *Principles of psychology*. New York: Macmillan.
36. Kark, R., & Van Dijk, D. (2007). Motivation to lead, motivation to follow: The role of the self regulatory focus in leadership processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 32, 500–528.
37. Lerner, J. S., & Tetlock, P. E. (1999). Accounting for the effects of accountability. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125, 255–275.
38. Lewis, C. A. 1979. Comment: Healing in the urban environment. *Journal of the Institute of American Planners*, 45: 330–338.
39. Locke, J. (1690). *Two treatises of government*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
40. Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., Norman, S. M., & Combs, G. M. (2006). Psychological capital development: Toward a micro-intervention. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27, 387–393.
41. Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
42. McClelland, D. (1951). *Personality*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
43. Mehta, R., & Belk, R. (1991). Artifacts, identity and transition: Favorite possessions of Indians and Indian immigrants to the U.S. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17, 398–411.
44. Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B.C., & Lee, T. W. (2001). How to keep your best employees: Developing an effective retention policy. *Academy of Management Executive*, 15(4), 96-109.
45. Nuttin, J. M. Jr. (1987). Affective consequences of mere ownership: the name letter effect in twelve European languages. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 17, 381–402.
46. O’Toole, J. (1979). The uneven record of employee ownership. *Harvard Business Review*, 57, 185-197.
47. Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. (2001). Toward a theory of psychological ownership in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 26, 298-310.
48. Pierce, J.L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K.T. (2003). The state of psychological ownership: Integrating and extending a century of research. *Review of General Psychology*, 7, 84-107.
49. Prelinger, E. (1959). Extension and structure of the self. *The Journal of Psychology*, 47, 13-23.
50. Robinson, S. L. (1996). Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41, 574-599.
51. Robinson, S. L., Kraatz, M. S., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Changing obligations and the psychological contract: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(1), 137-152.

52. Rochberg-Halton, E. (1980). Cultural signs and urban adaptation: The meaning of cherished household possessions. Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago. Dissertation Abstracts International, 40(8-A), 4754-4755.
53. Roehling, M. V., Cavanaugh, M. A., Moynihan, L. M., & Boswell, W. (2000). The nature of the new employment relationship : A content analysis of the practitioner and academic literatures.
54. Rousseau, D. M. (1996). Changing the deal while keeping the people. *Academy of Management Executive*, 10(1), 50-58.
55. Rousseau, D. M. (1998). Why workers still identify with organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19, 217-233.
56. Rousseau, D. M. (2001). The idiosyncratic deal: Flexibility versus fairness? *Organizational Dynamics*, 29(4), 260-273.
57. Rudmin, F. W., & Berry, J. W. (1987). Semantics of ownership: A free-recall study of property. *The Psychological Record*, 37, 257-268.
58. Russell A. Matthews, Wendy Michelle Diaz and Steven G. Cole (2003). The organizational empowerment scale. *Personnel Review*, Vol. 32 No. 3, pp. 297-318
59. Sartre, J. P. (1943/1969). *Being and nothingness: A phenomenological essay on ontology*. New York: Philosophical Library/London: Methuen.
60. Shore, L. M., & Coyle-Shapiro, J. A.-M. (2003). Editorial. New developments in the employee organization relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 443-450.
61. Somers, M. (1999). Development and preliminary validation of a measure of belongingness. Unpublished PhD, Temple University, Philadelphia.
62. Stanton, J. M., Sinar, E. F., Balzer, W. K., & Smith, P. C. (2002). Issues and strategies for reducing the length of self report scales. *Personnel Psychology*, 55, 167–194.
63. Steel, R. P., Griffeth, R. W., & Hom, P. W. (2002). Practical retention policy for the practical manager. *Academy of Management Executive*, 18(2), 149-169.
64. Tuan, Y. (1984). *Dominance and affection: The making of pets*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
65. Turnley, W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (1998). Psychological contract violation during corporate restructuring. *Human Resource Management*, 37(1), 71-83.
66. Turnley, W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2000). Re-examining the effects of psychological contract violations: unmet expectations and job dissatisfaction as mediators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 25-42.
67. Van Dyne, L., & Pierce, J. L. (2004). Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: Three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 439-459.
68. White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review*, 66, 297–330.
69. Wilpert, B. (1991). Property, ownership, and participation: on the growing contradictions between legal and psychological concepts. In R. Russell, & V. Rus (Eds.), *International handbook of participation in organizations: For the study of organizational democracy, co-operation, and self management* (Vol. 2, pp. 149–164). New York: Oxford University Press.