

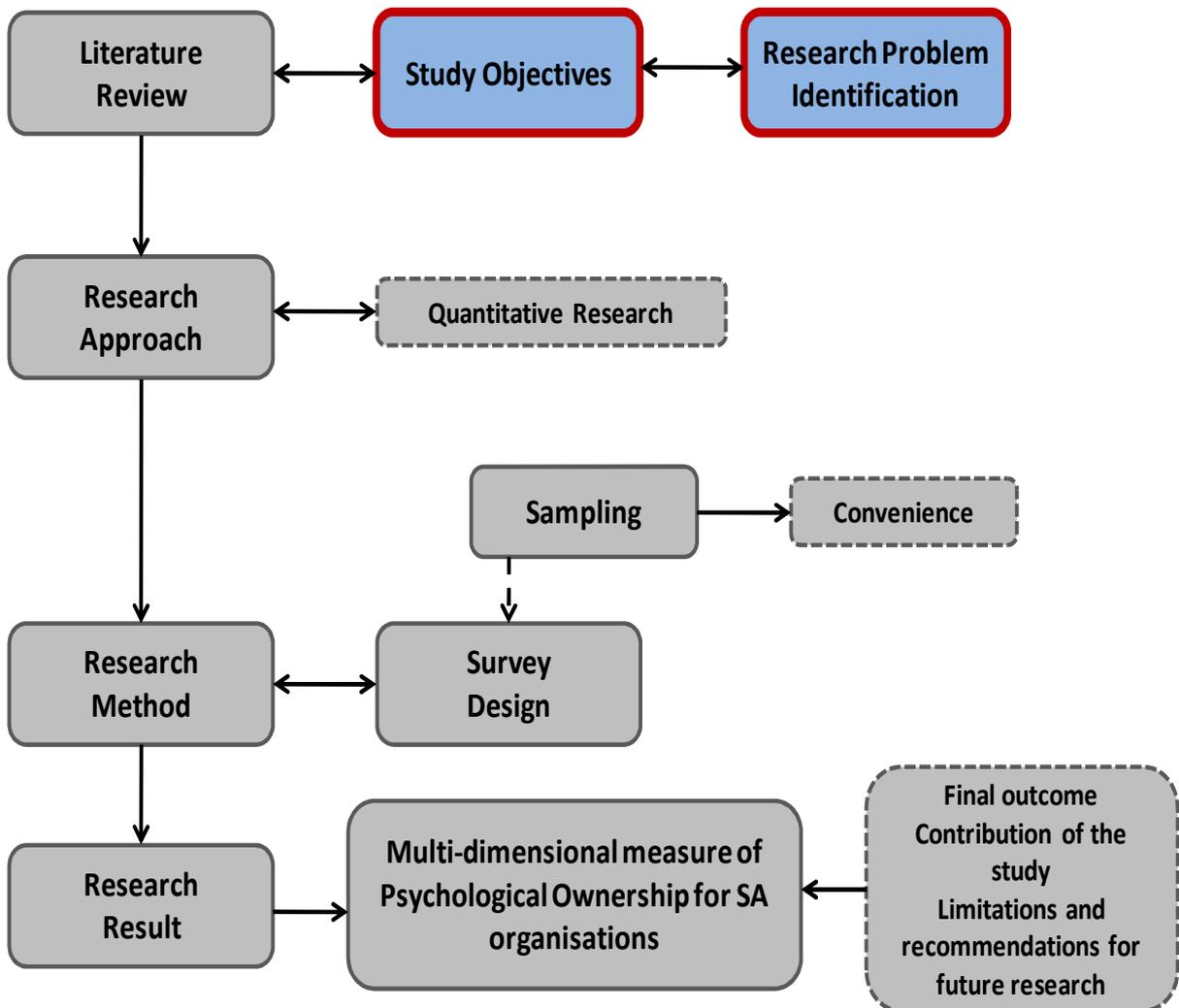
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Research is formalized curiosity. It is poking and prying with a purpose.

- **Zora Neale Hurston**

In this chapter...



1.1 BACKGROUND

Organisations today are striving to become world-class organisations that compete globally (El Toukhy, 1998). In order to achieve this, organisations not only must recruit the top talent, but they need employees who are psychologically connected to their work and the organisation.

- **The retention of talent**

According to Hay (2002), in the late 1980s and early 1990s holding onto jobs was a priority as employees were laid off in droves. This changed from 1998 onwards, as employee turnover then increased by 25%. In 2002 the Hay Group surveyed employees working in 330 companies in 50 countries and found that one-third of employees indicated that they intended to resign from their jobs within the following two years.

A report compiled by the Hay Group (2002) notes that employees are increasingly adopting the philosophy that their job security lies in employability, and not in employment. Birt, Wallis and Winternitz (2004) support this statement by Hay and argue that these organisational actions have an unexpected and largely unanticipated outcome, namely a definite shift in power in the employment relationship from employers to employees.

The new power base in the labour market is a group of employees referred to as “talent” (e.g., Paton, 2002) or “knowledge workers” (Stewart, 1997). These employees have sought-after knowledge and skills and as Stewart puts it (1997, p. 68), they carry the “[tools of their trade] between [their] ears”. Retaining this knowledge becomes a matter of retaining these employees, since their leaving means a loss to the organisation in term of its intellectual capital or intangible assets (Birt et al., 2004). Globally, many of the world’s most admired companies acknowledge that they will lose half of their senior executives over the next five years. According to research conducted by Human Capital

at Deloitte among a wide range of companies across all industry sectors in South Africa, the average executive turnover for the period 2007-2008 increased to 13.5% compared with 10.5% in the same period the previous year. This statistic extrapolates to South Africa losing up to 50% of its executives every four to five years (“Rich stay comfortably rich”, 2008).

- **The retention dilemma**

“The retention dilemma” – how to keep your best, most talented staff –creates a major challenge for organisations. Employee turnover, especially in difficult economic times, can drain the lifeblood of an organisation (Hay, 2002). Although some employees might try to sit out a downturn, the best are always employable somewhere else and therefore a so-called “war for talent” is created. Kotzé and Roodt (2005) note that demand for and difficulty in retention of talent are therefore not challenges unique to South African employers. According to them, in South Africa, these challenges are compounded by three additional factors. Firstly, the emigration of skilled people has taken and still is taking place at an astounding rate; for example, according to Grant Thornton’s 2008 International Business Report (IBR) some 32% of respondents who took part in a survey conducted amongst 300 privately held businesses that employ between 100 and 400 staff confirmed that they had seriously considered leaving South Africa permanently (“Third of workers mull emigration”, 2008) Secondly, there is a relative scarcity of specialist and managerial employees due to an over-supply of unskilled labour and an under-supply of skilled labour. Thirdly, the national drive to address employment equity has fuelled the war for talent among people from designated groups.

Consequently, organisations still need to consider how to keep their best people – particularly given the huge cost involved when valuable people depart. Employees leaving the organisation often take with them valuable knowledge and expertise gained through experience. Another turnover impact for the organisation is the fact that long-tenured employees have established close relationships with clients. These relationships are the foundation for a reinforcing cycle of positive interactions between

employees and clients. Staff retention thus has a positive effect on good client relations and eventually profitability (Roland, Rust, Stewart & Pielack, 1996).

In addition to these indirect costs, organisations also face many costs related directly to turnover, including exit interview time and administrative requirements, payment of unused vacation leave, the cost of temporary workers or overtime for co-workers asked to fill in, and training costs. In the retail industry, for example, Shoprite, the largest training provider in South Africa's wholesale and retail sector, conducted no less than 62 208 training interventions during the 2006/2007 period. The upper-end fashion retailer, Truworths, increased its training budget by 44% to R13 million in the 2007 financial year to ensure succession in shortage areas such as store managers, buyers and planners. Some 859 employees were in development programmes at that stage, aimed at preparing them for succession into managerial and supervisory positions. Delisted fashion retail giant Edgars Consolidated Stores (Edcon) has invested millions in staff training and provided 1050 learnerships at a cost of R23.4 million. According to Edcon's Chief Executive for retail operations and former human resources director, "In seven to ten years those people will be the future executives of the company. It's an investment we can't afford not to make" (Monteiro, 2007).

Replacement costs include advertising, head-hunter and selection fees. Training costs, both formal and informal, add to the overall burden (Mitchell, Holtom & Lee, 2001). Losing good employees is also costly in terms of the impact it has on the organisation's morale. Those employees that remain can often feel demotivated or disheartened, resulting in a drop in productivity and job satisfaction. If staff members witness the new job opportunities being snapped up by their colleagues, they could also follow suit (Hay, 2002).

- **The war for talent**

Kotzé and Roodt (2005), suggest that employers are left with two options in order to succeed in the war of talent: The first option is to become and remain an "employer of

choice”, which will attract and retain people with the required profile (Cappelli, 2000); and the second option is to develop, retain and efficiently utilise the employer’s existing talent pool. This will also be the option preferred by the current study. Rossi (2000) also suggests that the best method of filling important vacancies in organisations is to ensure that current qualified employees remain a part of the organisation. Current employees are, after all, a known factor. They are familiar with the internal workings of the organisation. These employees have established the formal and informal networks that are necessary to help them remain productive within the organisation’s context and they have been trained in the use of many of the methods and systems used by the organisation.

In the effort to win this war for talent, organisations have shifted their attention to determining the variables that impact favourably on the retention of talent. Gupta-Sunderji (2004) suggests that to understand the factors underlying employee retention, it is important to go back to the work of Frederick Herzberg in 1968. Herzberg identified intrinsic factors in employee motivation such as achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, growth, responsibility, and advancement; and extrinsic factors such as supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, salary, status, and security.

- **Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards**

Previous research (Bernthal & Wellins, 2001; Cappelli, 2000) found a variety of intrinsic and extrinsic factors, with studies placing differential importance on these. A study done by Towers Perrin (as cited in *HR Focus*, 2003), for example, lays emphasis on extrinsic rewards, such as performance-based pay. Similarly, Stewart (1997) focused retention suggestions on extrinsic factors, such as incentive pay and gain-sharing bonuses, and employee stock ownership.

In contrast, Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2002) report that, despite the significance of extrinsic variables such as compensation in retaining talent, intrinsic factors such as

having good supervisors, significant and challenging work, and development opportunities were regarded as more important. According to a study based on 745 employee responses to a retention survey done by Bernthal & Wellins (2001), the following retention factors were rated as very important by employees: quality of relationship with the supervisor or manager; ability to balance work and home life; level of co-operation with co-workers; clear understanding of work objectives; level of challenging work and autonomy – the freedom to direct work. Jamrog (2004, p. 11) states, “The best people are not motivated by and do not stay for the money alone. They stay because they are engaged and challenged by work that makes them better at what they do. They want to work for more than just the pay check.”

Bruce Whitfield, in an article entitled “Hunting for black executives” (2007), observes that many South African companies struggle to retain upwardly mobile black talent because companies, under the pressure to transform, are prepared to pay large salaries to attract the right skills. However, although Human Resource directors acknowledge the importance of competitive salaries when it comes to attracting staff, they realise that “it’s not all about the money”. Pay is a satisfier, but it is the organisation and the work environment that engages and retain.

Meyer and Allen (1997) and Michand (2001) observe that organisations focusing on intrinsically important variables are considered to benefit by provoking greater affective commitment amongst talent. This is illustrated in behaviours and attitudes such as a strong belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation, a willingness to apply effort for the benefit of the organisation, and a desire to remain with the organisation. Birt et al. (2004) reported that organisations with high levels of employee commitment outperformed those with low levels of commitment by 200%. Rankin (2000) proposes that focusing on intrinsic variables with the intention of increasing commitment amongst talent seems to make good business sense.

A study focusing on a group of 115 employees at a South African financial services institution was conducted by Birt et al. (2004). They found that both intrinsic and

extrinsic variables were rated as crucial or fairly important to employees. This finding is in accordance with those of non-South African studies, which have highlighted both intrinsic and extrinsic variables (Cappelli, 2000). According to Birt et al., the five most important variables that emerged from their study were those of “challenging and meaningful work”, “advancement opportunities”, “high manager integrity and quality”, “empowerment and responsibility”, and “new opportunities/challenges”. All these variables are intrinsic in nature. This focus on intrinsic variables indicates that the constant provision of these variables by the organisation is also considered crucial to decisions on whether to leave. Although the organisation may not be able to completely control the employees’ decisions on whether to leave by manipulating these variables, focusing on them may still have a considerable influence. These variables have been found to improve an employee’s level of affective commitment, which has been postulated to increase retention, specifically amongst high-performing employees (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

These results will also support an organisational focus on satisfaction: Meyer and Allen (1997) have declared that personal fulfilment is the main process whereby affective commitment develops; hence, if the organisation conveys a supportive and just environment where individual contribution is valued, work experiences will be especially fulfilling.

Rankin (2000) recommends that retention strategies should treat employees as if they were clients. The fact that intrinsic variables proved most important in the study conducted by Birt et al. (2004) confirms this statement. According to Rankin, treating employees as if they were clients will increase the success of such strategies, as they express the organisation’s interest in the well-being and development of its members, which can be achieved through recognising and rewarding personal goals, developing employees’ strengths and providing them with appropriate opportunities and the discretion to solve problems and meet challenges.

From the above it is clear that something is missing in the retention strategy of organisations that has not yet been addressed and if so, what is this missing element and how does it reflect in the South African organisations?

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

In their study of HR practices and other organisational characteristics that impact organisational commitment, Fiorito, Bozeman, Young and Meurs (2007) reported mixed results. According to them, these mixed findings may result from so-called “omitted variables”. They suggest thus that psychological ownership may be one of those variables that might predict organisational commitment. Is it possible that “psychological ownership” could be the missing element that can enhance commitment and therefore play a major role in the retention of talent?

- **Proof of previous studies**

Previous research publications suggest that the psychology of possession can play a major role in the relationship between individual employees and their organisations. In the development of a model of employee ownership, Pierce, Rubenfeld and Morgan (1991) proposed that employee ownership leads to social-psychological and behavioural outcomes. However, in her study of employee attitudes of 37 ESOP (Employee Stock Ownership Plan) companies, Klein (1987) found no significant relationship between the percentage of stock owned by the ESOP employee and job satisfaction and commitment. Pendleton, Wilson, and Wright (1998) found that most shareholders do not appear to have a strong sense of ownership and a belief that nothing has changed in the organisation as a result of employee ownership. Dunn, Richardson and Dewe (1991), in a longitudinal study found little difference in the attitudes of owners and non-owners. In one of his two case-study firms, Kruse (1984) found evidence of lower levels of commitment over time. Long (1982) found a significant decrease in employee satisfaction following the conversion to employee ownership.

- **What do these studies imply?**

These findings are extremely suggestive since, if ownership remains unchanged between the two points of investigation, some mediating and/ or extraneous variable is operating other than ownership *per se* that must be driving attitudinal change. Pierce et al. (1991) identify an intervening variable, “psychological ownership” that could play a role between the presence of share ownership and employee commitment.

In later work, Pierce, Kostova & Dirks (2001, 2003), drawing on work from sociology, philosophy, human development and psychology formally introduced a theory of psychological ownership in organisations that defined psychological ownership as separate and distinct from legal/equity ownership of the organisation. According to Kubzansky and Druskat (as cited in Pierce et al., 2001), the psychological sense of ownership may be an integral part of the individual employee’s relationship with the organisation. Ownership, as an attitudinal state, becomes attached to issues that organisational members feel worthy of attentional investment (Pratt & Dutton, 2000). Therefore, Pierce et al. suggest that if ESOP employees feel a greater sense of ownership, commitment to the organisation is likely to increase. If, on the other hand, they do not experience psychological ownership, the level of organisational commitment is likely to remain unchanged, whatever the level of share ownership.

Brown (1989) suggests that the presence of psychological ownership among organisational members can have a positive effect on organisational effectiveness.

- **What needs to be done?**

It is thus important to have a closer look at this mediating and/ or extraneous variable, called psychological ownership and how it could be measured since it is associated with positive behavioural and social-psychological consequences. Up to now, only two measurements of psychological ownership were developed but they had several limitations.

- **Current measurements of psychological ownership**

Pierce, Van Dyne and Cummings (as cited in VandeWalle Van Dyne & Kostova, 1995) developed and validated a five-item instrument for the measurement of psychological ownership. In this instrument, psychological ownership was operationalised with a set of items measuring the attitude of feeling ownership of the company, such as “this is **my** company,” and “I sense that this company is **our** organisation” (VandeWalle et al., 1995, p. 215). Each item was measured by making use of a seven-point Likert scale. VandeWalle et al. found a Cronbach alpha of .89 for this measure in their sample consisting of 797 respondents. This survey was conducted utilising residents of university-affiliated housing cooperatives in a major upper-midwestern metropolitan area in the United States. A limitation of this study is that psychological ownership was measured by utilising only a five-item instrument. Since psychological ownership is a multi-dimensional construct (Avey et al., 2009) this five-item instrument seemingly lacks the ability to grasp the comprehensiveness that represents psychological ownership.

Building on the three recognised dimensions of psychological ownership: *self-efficacy*, *self-identity* and *having a place* (belonging) of Pierce et al. (2001), Avey and colleagues (2009) posited two additional concepts of psychological ownership, *territoriality* and *accountability*, and developed a five-dimensional measure of psychological ownership. Avey et al. also distinguish between two forms of psychological ownership: *promotion-orientated* and *prevention-orientated* psychological ownership. Promotion-orientated psychological ownership consists of four theory-driven components: self-efficacy, sense of belonging, self-identity with the target, and accountability. Territoriality was identified as a dimension of a preventative form of psychological ownership.

This measurement consisted of 16 items (three items for each of the four components for the promotion-orientated psychological ownership scales, and four items for the feelings of territoriality (prevention-orientated psychological ownership). Each item was measured by making use of a six-point rating scale. Internal reliabilities for the components ranged between .73 and .92. The primary sample for this study comprised

a heterogeneous sample of 316 working adults in the United States (US) from a wide cross-section of organisations.

According to Avey et al. (2009), a limitation of their study may be the comprehensiveness of the dimensions used to represent psychological ownership. They therefore suggest future theory-building and research that may demonstrate a link between psychological ownership and other related concepts.

Another limitation of the instrument developed by Avey et al. (2009) is that only three items each measured four of the five dimensions. Idaszak, Bottom and Drasgow (1988) proposed that an instrument should comprise at least four to six items per scale because this would increase the likelihood that a factor analysis would accurately reflect the true underlying structure of the item pool. According to them, sampling fluctuations seem to play an unacceptably prominent role in samples of several hundred individuals when only three items are used to assess each scale. Garson (2002) supports this by stating that four or more indicators per latent variable are needed. He further notes that alpha coefficients might be lower when there are fewer items in the scale or factor.

- **The South African challenge**

Different perceptions

Individuals as such face increasingly complex challenges in constructing and maintaining their identities. In a world where employees are prone to working longer hours, under inflexible arrangements, within several different organisations, and in multiple jobs or careers, it is more and more challenging for them to create and maintain a positive identity (Robberts & Dutton, 2009). A further challenge is for the individual to adapt to the multi-cultural organisation which has resulted from the implementation of affirmative action as a compensatory measure for previous deprivation in South Africa (Watkins, 1995). Multi-cultural work teams raise questions regarding similarities and differences between the meanings that different groups give to different constructs. For

example, in their study, Janse van Rensburg and Roodt (2005) found that Coloured/Indian/Asian employees are more positive in terms of their perceptions of employment equity, than African employees, and that White employees are the least positive in terms of their perceptions of employment equity. They further found that perceptions of employment equity and black economic empowerment have strong bearing on people's beliefs, values and needs and predicted organisation-related commitment. In another South African study, Urban (2006) found differences in the mean values between Indian, Black and White respondents with regard to their general self-efficacy. The levels of self-efficacy of Indians are at the highest level, followed by Blacks and then Whites at the lowest level. From this it is clear that different cultural groups have different perceptions with regard to different constructs. Therefore, it is important to investigate employees' perceptions of psychological ownership within the South African context

Psychometric testing

Legislation in South Africa severely controls the classification, possession, control and use of psychological tests and other instruments relating to work-related individual assessments (Mauer, 2000). Section 8 of the Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998, stipulates that only scientifically validated tools may be used to test or assess individuals, and that these tools must be fairly applied to all individuals. The presence of unjustified unfairness or bias in any measurement tool prohibits its use. Stringent Employment Equity legislation prohibits unfair assessment, ranking, classification or profiling of any individual.

The above legislation creates opportunities for the development of psychological instruments that are appropriate for all cultural groups. It appears that the necessity for instruments that meet the requirements of Employment Equity legislation cannot be detached from the needs that evolve from the diverse South African social context. According to Claassen (1997), when psychologists construct psychological evaluation instruments in South Africa, they must always take into consideration the social and

cultural diversity present in the historical and contemporary contexts of the socio-economic and political environments particular to this country.

In South Africa, measuring instruments are in general adopted directly from overseas (Foxcroft, 1997). These imported instruments have largely been in English, and even the adaptations of these instruments still tend to ignore the fundamental cultural differences in South Africa. The same question asked in different cultural settings, for example, will yield different answers (Retief, 1992). Studies have been undertaken in South Africa to determine the construct validity of various imported instruments. Examples are Litwin and Stringer's Organisational Climate Questionnaire (Olckers, Buys & Zeeman, 2007); the Multi-dimensional Emotional Empathy Scale developed by Caruso and Mayer (Olckers, Buys & Grobler, 2010); the Socialisation questionnaire developed by Chao, O'Leary-Kelley, Wolf, Klein & Gardner (Madurai, Olckers & Buys, 2008); and the Revised Job Diagnostic survey of Hackman & Oldham (Buys, Olckers & Schaap, 2007). These studies have revealed that these instruments are not appropriate for use in the South African context.

From the above, it is clear that there is a need for the development of a multi-dimensional measure of psychological ownership for the diverse South African context.

1.3 STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to develop a measurement instrument for psychological ownership in a South African context. Previous studies as shown above have not succeeded in compiling a comprehensive measure. There is always the risk of packing old wine in new bottles and this paper will show that psychological ownership is not a new title and neither an umbrella term whereby existing norms have been grouped.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this study is as follows:

Development of a multi-dimensional measure of psychological ownership for South African organisations.

In order to achieve the primary objective, several secondary objectives need to be met.

The secondary objectives of this study are:

- To determine what is meant by the construct psychological ownership
- To understand why it is necessary to measure psychological ownership
- To identify the factors that influence and define psychological ownership
- To build on the five-dimensional theory-driven instrument of Avey et al. (2009) to suit the South African context
- To outline the research and steps that are necessary to develop an instrument that will be valid and reliable for South African organisations
- To establish the construct equivalence of this measure for different South African culture groups.

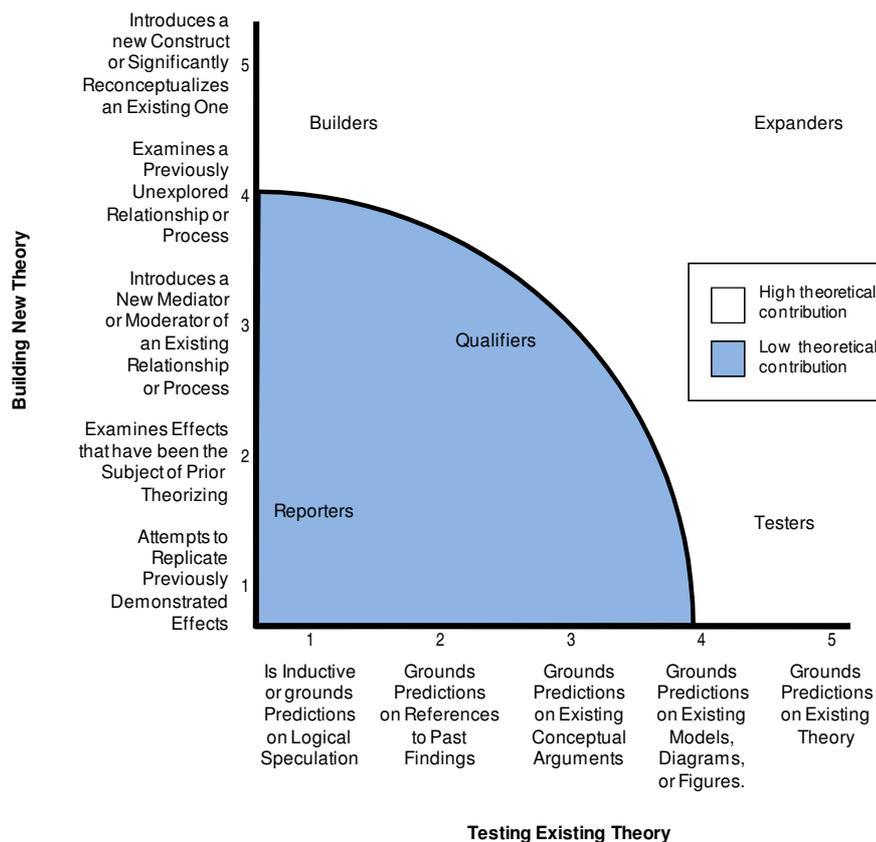
1.5 IMPORTANCE AND BENEFITS OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007) have created a taxonomy that can be used to capture the many facets of an empirical study's theoretical contribution. Their taxonomy includes two dimensions: (1) the extent to which the empirical study builds new theory and (2) the extent to which the empirical study tests existing theory. They suggest that an empirical study can offer a valuable theoretical contribution by being strong in theory building, strong in theory testing, or strong in both. Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan thus conceptualise theory building as the degree to which the empirical study clarifies or

supplements existing theory or introduces relationships and constructs that serve as the foundations for new theory. On the other hand, they conceptualise theory testing as the degree to which existing theory is applied in an empirical study as a means of grounding a specific set of a priori hypotheses. Using “testing theory” and “building theory”, Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan classify empirical contributions into five discrete categories, which they refer to as *reporters*, *testers*, *qualifiers*, *builders* and *expanders*. They regard builders, testers, and expanders to be higher in their theoretical contribution, whereas reporters and qualifiers tend to be lower in their theoretical contribution.

The taxonomy of Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007) is illustrated in the following figure:

Figure 1.1: A taxonomy of theoretical contributions for empirical studies



Source: Adapted from Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007, p.1283)

Using the above model of Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan (2007), this study will contribute on a theoretical level as follows:

- The current study will expand on the theoretical dimensional theory driven measurement of psychological ownership developed by Avey et al. (2009).
- The new measure will focus on the measurement of psychological ownership for South African organisations.

From a practical perspective, the following contributions will be made:

- A measure will be developed which can be used as a diagnostic tool to determine how positive organisational behaviour conceives psychological ownership. If psychological ownership can be measured, invested in, and developed, it can be managed for performance impact and competitive advantage.
- Psychological ownership will make a difference because it leads to employee attitudes (commitment, satisfaction, organisation-based self-esteem) and discretionary behaviours (such as organisational citizenship) that are critical for work effectiveness.
- Individuals high in organisational ownership may be more inclined to exhibit behaviours that serve to promote the welfare of the organisation more broadly. This may include activities such as serving on committees that deal with organisational issues, assuming leadership functions within the organisation, and taking on tasks that benefit the organisation even though they may have no advantage in terms of the individual's specific job.

Creating a sense of ownership among employees for the organisation has the potential to increase staff retention. The retention dilemma creates a major challenge for

organisations as was earlier mentioned. Employee turnover, particularly in tough economic times severely drains the intellectual capital of the organisation (Hay, 2002).

1.6 DELIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

1.6.1 Delimitations

Firstly, the current study will focus on psychological ownership and not on legal ownership. Pierce et al. (2003) declare that psychological ownership is distinguished from legal ownership. Etzioni (1991) states that property and ownership are both real and both psychologically experienced, as they exist in the “mind.” Although these two concepts are related, legal and psychological ownership differ in substantial ways. Psychological ownership can exist in the absence of legal ownership, and vice versa.

Secondly, the study will focus on the positive aspects of psychological ownership. In certain situations and in conjunction with certain intense character traits, psychological ownership may produce behaviour such as reluctance to delegate authority and share information, obstructing of participative management, teamwork and cooperation, and even sabotage of organisational goals. It may also lead such employees themselves to feel frustration, stress and alienation, and to suffer physically and psychologically.

Thirdly, the study will be limited to the South African population, specifically individuals employed in the targeted organisations. As such, individuals from other countries will be excluded and findings could probably not be generalised. The researcher hopes, however, that data will be largely representative of the different cultural groups in South Africa.

1.6.2 Assumptions

The researcher makes a number of assumptions with regard to some aspects of the proposed study:

- The researcher assumes that participants will respond to the survey in an honest and correct way and that they will be motivated to complete the questionnaire.
- The researcher assumes that the statistical packages and programs that will be employed for data analysis are professional tools that will provide the researcher with accurate statistical results.
- The researcher assumes that the sample of employees from various organisations will be sufficiently representative of the South African population.
- The assumption is made that studies done by previous scholars that will be used as part of the literature review of this study, were done in an ethical and professional way and that interpretations and conclusions made by them are correct.

1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

This study involves a number of key concepts that need to be defined. The manner in which these key terms are defined for the purpose of this study is set out in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Definition of key terms

| Key term | Definition |
|--|--|
| Ownership | Ownership is multidimensional in nature and operates both as a formal (objective) and a psychologically experienced phenomenon (Pierce et al. 1991) |
| Psychological ownership | A state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership (material or immaterial in nature) or piece of it is “theirs” (i.e. “It is MINE!”) and it exists in the absence of legal ownership (Pierce et al., 2001) |
| Efficacy and effectance | This means that is important for an individual to be in control (Furby, 1978) |
| Self-identity | This can be called coming to know oneself, expressing the self to others, and maintaining continuity in the self (Belk, 1988) |
| Having a place (belonging) | This motive arises from the need to have a certain own area, “a home”. This includes both actual places and objects (Pierce et al., 2001) |
| Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB) | This is the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychologically orientated practices that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace (Luthans, 2002) |
| Autonomy | This literally refers to “regulation by the self” (Ryan & Deci, 2006) |
| Accountability | The implicit or explicit expectation that one may be called on to justify one’s beliefs, feelings and actions to others (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999) |

| Key term | Definition |
|---|--|
| Self-determination theory (SDT) | This holds that people from all cultures share basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Chirkov, Ryan, Kim & Kaplan, 2003) |
| Extra-role citizenship behaviour | Discretionary behaviour that is not formally rewarded by the organisation but contributes to the organisation's well-being, is voluntary and intended to be positive in nature (VandeWalle et al., 1995) |
| In-role behaviour | Behaviour that is required or expected by members by the organisation and that is heavily influenced by organisational structural contingencies (VandeWalle et al., 1995) |
| Multi-dimensional construct | A construct consisting of a number of interrelated attributes or dimensions (Law, Wang & Mobley, 1998) |

In this study, several abbreviations have been used. The abbreviations and their meaning are listed in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Abbreviations

| Abbreviation | Meaning |
|--------------|-----------------------------------|
| POB | Positive Organisational Behaviour |
| SDT | Self-determination theory |
| EFA | Exploratory Factor Analysis |
| CFA | Confirmatory Factor Analysis |
| PCA | Principal-component analysis |
| FA | Factor analysis |

1.8 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

The study is divided in the following chapters, as displayed in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3: Chapter outline

| Chapter | Heading | Content of chapter |
|---------|--------------|---|
| 1 | Introduction | This chapter sets out the background of the study, problem statement, purpose statement, research objectives, importance and benefits of the study. |

| | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|--|
| 2 | Literature study | This chapter will describe, contextualise and discuss the concept of psychological ownership. This will include the distinctiveness and different forms of psychological ownership, reasons for its existence and the routes through which psychological ownership emerges. The chapter will consider factors that influence psychological ownership. An integrated motivational that could be applied for explaining the state of psychological ownership will be presented. It will be argued that psychological ownership is a multi-dimensional construct. The role that psychological ownership has to play in staff retention will be discussed. |
| 3 | Research methodology and methods used | This chapter will explain the research methodology and strategy that will be followed in the study. |
| 4 | Results and findings of the research | This chapter will present the results and findings of the research. |
| 5 | Conclusion and Recommendations | This chapter will make concluding remarks about the research process and findings. It will discuss the achievement of the research objectives, and the contribution of the research from a theoretical, methodological and practical point of view. It will consider the limitations of the study and make recommendations for future research. |