THE IMPACTS OF SOCIAL SUPPORT TYPES AND SOURCES ON PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP

Anıl BOZ SEMERCİ¹
Azize ERGENELİ²

Abstract
The purpose of this paper is to understand the impact of types and sources of social support on psychological ownership and to attempt to extend the empirical evidence on the predictors of psychological ownership of employees. This study draws on data from employees working in private sector in Turkey. A quantitative research method was used. Drawing on the data of 277 employees, variables’ factorial structures were tested using confirmatory factor analysis and hypotheses were tested with hierarchical regression analysis. The results reveal that the relationship of psychological ownership and social support varies according to types and sources of social support. Given the importance of psychological ownership for businesses, the findings of this study have significant contributions and suggestions for further empirical studies, in addition to its practical value on managers and employees.

Keywords: Social Support, Emotional Support, Appraisal Support, Instrumental Support, Informational Support, Psychological Ownership

Sosyal Destek Türlerinin ve Kaynaklarının Psikolojik Sahiplenme Üzerindeki Etkileri

Özet
Bu çalışmanın amacı, sosyal destek türlerinin ve kaynaklarının psikolojik sahiplenme üzerindeki etkisini anlamak ve psikolojik sahiplenme öncülleri üzerine yapılan ampirik araştırmaları geliştirmektir. Çalışma Türkiye’de özel sektörde çalışan bireylerden veri toplanarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Nicel araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. 277 çalışanın sağladığı veriler doğrultusunda değişkenlerin faktör yapıları belirlenmiş, hipotezler ise regresyon analizi ile analiz edilmiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlar, psikolojik sahiplenme ile sosyal destek arasındaki ilişkinin sosyal destek türlerine ve elde edildiği kaynaklara göre değiştiğini göstermiştir. Psikolojik sahiplenmenin işletmeler için önemi göz önüne alınarak, bu araştırma bulguları, yöneticiler ve çalışanlara yönelik pratik değerleri yanında, ilerleyen zamanlarda yapılacak ampirik çalışmalar için de önemliкатkılara ve önerilere sahiptir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Sosyal Destek, Duygusal Destek, Takdir Desteği, Araçsal Destek, Bilgi Desteği, Psikolojik Sahiplenme

¹ Dr. Öğr. Üyesi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, İİBF, İşletme Bölümü, anilboz@hacettepe.edu.tr
² Prof. Dr., Hacettepe Üniversitesi, İİBF, İşletme Bölümü, dereli@hacettepe.edu.tr
I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of social support to our lives has been recognized clearly. The availability of someone to help and provide support improves individuals’ health and well-being. Viswesvaran, Sanchez, and Fisher’s (1999) meta analyses also suggests that social support reduced the individuals’ stress, reduced perceived stressors, and moderated the stressor–stress relationship. Although there is a considerable amount of studies on social support, there is still a need to understand how support improves health, decreases stress and leads to some other positive outcomes. Social support was generally studied without considering its’ different types and sources (McNicholas, 2002). The use of overall social support is problematic because its perception and prediction can be differently related to multiple types and sources (Malecki & Demaray, 2003). Cohen, and Will’s (1985) review of studies revealed that the % 68.3 of the researches (published between 1980 and 1987) assessed participants’ overall support but they did not evaluate specific supports’ types. However, social support is a perceptual concept and it is related to recipients’ needs and perceptions. Marigold, Cavallo, Holmes, and Wood (2014) indicated that support providers’ good intentions might not be enough for giving effective support. Therefore, the examination of the social support with its components would help to have a more comprehensive understanding.

The discussion of social support in business literature was increased after the expansion of job demand-control model, developed by Karasek (1979). The first version of the job demand-control model was focusing on two dimensions of work environment, which are demand and control. Job demand refers to the workload, task difficulty and time pressure whereas job control states individuals’ ability to control his/her work activities. In the 1980s the model was improved by adding social dimension of work-life, which is social support, into the model (Johnson, Ellen & Hall, 1988; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Many researchers reported the role of social support on psychological well-being (Maton, 1988), physical (Johnson, Ellen & Hall, 1988), mental health (Zapf, Kornz & Kulla, 2008), life satisfaction (Akm, 2008) and job-related outcomes (Lim, 1996) such as job satisfaction, burnout (Russell, Altmaier & Van Velzen, 1987) job stress (Özdevecioğlu, 2014; Woodhead, Northrop & Edelstein, 2014) and performance (Lee, Lin, Chen & Huang, 2017).

Although there are many researches in international literature, the studies carried out in Turkey are generally focused on social support from family or private life perspective rather than work life. Loneliness (Çeçen, 2008; Duru, 2008; Yıldırım, 2000), child-based issues including disability (Coşkun & Akkaş, 2009; Duygun & Sezgin, 2003; Kaner, 2004) or academic achievement (Gençdoğan, 2006; Yıldırım & Ergene, 2003; Yıldırım, Gençtanırırüm, Yalçın & Baydan, 2008) are the most studied subjects in social support literature. Furthermore, it is important to notice that the measurement of social support in many of these studies was using a summary score not a multiple assessments. Therefore, the limited studies on social support point out that, more extensive studies are required particularly in Turkey’s work-life context.

The current study aims to investigate the impacts of social support’s different types and sources on psychological ownership of employees. More specifically, the employees’ perceptions of emotional, appraisal, informational and instrumental support that they received from their managers and co-workers were examined by considering their impacts on psychological ownership. This study contributes to both psychology and organizational behavior literature in several ways. First, by focusing on the psychological ownership, as positive organizational behavior component, this research moves beyond the health and stress issues in social support literature. Second, this study complements previous researches by
II. LITERATURE REVIEW & HYPOTHESIS

Social support is an external resource that helps individuals in coping with stressful situations. Cobb (1976, p. 300) defined social support as “the individuals’ perceptions that he or she is cared for, loved, valued and beliefs of the existence and availability of people on whom he or she can rely on.” Sarason, and Sarason (1982) defined as material or moral help provided to the individual who is under stress. Perceived social support can be defined as an individual’s subjective judgment or beliefs on the existence of various types of support that can be received during help of needs. Perceived social support is different from received social support, which refers to actual support received. A central premise of this article is perceived social support.

Social support is considered in two categories as structural and functional. Structural support describes the existence and number of relationship that people have to receive support. Support can be provided from spouse, family, friends, colleagues or supervisors. Functional support, on the other hand, refers to the extent to which these relationships provide particular functions (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Most authors agree that social support is multi-functional. These functions are categorized into different groups by different authors. House (1981) demonstrated these functional supports as emotional, appraisal, instrumental and informational support. Emotional support refers to the needs of being loved, cared, valued and accepted. Appraisal support is giving evaluative feedbacks to others. Instrumental support consists of resources such as providing materials, or financial help to him/her. Informational support includes providing information or advice. Cohen, and Wills (1985) distinguished these functions as emotional, instrumental, informational and widespread support, which is related to social companionship. Cobb (1976) categorized as emotional, esteem and network support, whereas Kahn, and Antonucci (1980) grouped as negative affect reduction, affirmation and aid. Although there is an overlap among these categorizations, House’s (1981) support functions were used in many studies more often (Himle, Jayaratne, Thyness, 1991; Malecki & Demaray, 2003; Rueger et al., 2016; Uchino et al., 1995). Therefore, in current study, the functional aspects of social support will be evaluated as emotional, appraisal, instrumental and informational support.

Researches in the area of social support also revealed that it has an undeniable role in the business-related outcomes. Bradley, and Cartwright (2002) indicated that perceived social support is a significant indicator of nurses’ job satisfaction and job stress. AbuAlRub (2004) has reported that perceived social support from co-workers increased the level of job performance and decreased the job stress. Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayan, and Schwartz (2002) have also revealed the negative associations of support with burnout and positive ones with productivity and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Turunç, and Çelik (2010) have stated that perceived organizational support positively affects organizational identification. Although there are some studies on business related outcomes of social support, its influence on particularly organizational behavior components is limited.

Psychological ownership is one of the psychologically experienced phenomenon in organizational behavior literature. It is defined as a feeling of possession in the absence of legal ownership. Psychological ownership can be toward tangible or intangible objects and can occur in the existence or absence of lawful possession. While psychological ownership is considering the multiple types and sources of social support. Last but not least, the sample of this study extends the discussions on work-life indicators of developing countries by also examining different cultural values. The following section represents the literature review related to the present study variables. This is followed by a methodology, results and discussion sections.
a individual-based concept, lawful possession has formal basis (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). The idea of psychological ownership in the organizational literature has received increasing attention from scholars. Van Dyne, and Pierce (2004) stated psychological ownership as the predictor of employees’ positive attitudes and behaviors toward organization. Beggan (1992), and Nuttin (1987) have also suggested that psychological ownership leads to a more favorable evaluation of target. Avey, Avolio, Crossley, and Luthans (2009) has also indicated that psychological ownership leads to the feelings of ‘mine’, which is also related to self-concept. Individuals who feel psychological ownership towards the tangible or intangible object would feel that object as part of his/her self-concept. Consistently with the self-concept and favorable evaluation, individuals’ psychological ownership also encourages them to improve and protect the target, which is called sense of responsibility (Avey et al., 2009; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Ucar, 2016). It is important to note that favorable attitudes and behaviors, self-concept and sense of responsibility are not the predictors or consequences of psychological ownership, but rather they help to understand the reasons behind the psychological ownerships (O’driscoll, Pierce & Coghlan, 2006).

There are many researches focused on antecedents and consequences of psychological ownership in an organizational context. In international literature organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organization-based self-esteem, performance, organizational citizenship, extra role behavior (Vandewalle, Van Dyne & Kostova, 1995; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004), intention to stay and increased adaptation to organizational changes (Pare et al., 2006) are some of the studied organizational variables as consequences of psychological ownership (Mayhew, Ashkanasy, Bramble & Gardner, 2007). Furthermore, some studies revealed the indirect negative impact of psychological ownership on workplace deviance and burnout (Avey et al., 2009; Kaur, Sambasivan & Kumar, 2013). Besides the employees, customers’ psychological ownership toward an organization was also studied by Asatryan, and Oh (2008) with the relationship intention, word of mouth, intention to pay more and competitive resistance as consequences of psychological ownership.

Despite the availability of studies on consequences of psychological ownership, the researches on predictors are rare (Ötken, 2015). Leadership styles, job design, organizational climate and personality characteristics are some of the studied antecedents of psychological ownership. According to social exchange theory, developed by Homans (1961), Blau (1967), and Emerson (1976), social behaviors occurred as a result of social interactions. Organizations represent forums for these interactions and lead employees’ responses. Social exchange theory derived from economic exchange theory, but is generally used to explain organization-employee interactions. Individuals, as rational decision-makers, want to maximize positive experiences/rewards and minimize negative ones/losses. The positive experiences increase the positive behaviors of employees. The positive experiences that employees will have also studied with need theories. Need theories suggest that individuals have certain physical and psychological needs and they are driven to behave in ways that will satisfy these needs (Alderfer, 1969; Maslow, 1943; Murray, 1938). Types of social support are defined in terms of the resources that meet needs (Jacobson, 1986). Support system consists of formal and informal relationships and groups that provide different types of resources in order to meet individuals’ needs. As explained before, these resources could be emotional, cognitive and material (Caplan, 1974). While in some situations, emotional support may be useful, in some others cognitive or material may be needed. Jacobson (1986) has stated that different steps of stress process require different support types. For example, in crisis individuals may need to have emotional support to be sure on that others are able and willing to help in the struggle to regain equilibrium. However, in transition step they may need informational and appraisal support in order to understand the meaning of the change. Therefore, different types of support will serve differently in increasing resources and satisfying needs.
Derived from all these social exchanges and need theories, the below hypotheses about the relationships of perceived types of social support and psychological ownership were proposed,

\[ H_1: \text{Emotional support from both managers and co-workers will be positively related to psychological ownership of employees.} \]

\[ H_2: \text{Appraisal support from both managers and co-workers will be positively related to psychological ownership of employees.} \]

\[ H_3: \text{Instrumental support from both managers and co-workers will be positively related to psychological ownership of employees.} \]

\[ H_4: \text{Informational support from both managers and co-workers will be positively related to psychological ownership of employees.} \]

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Sample and Procedure

The sample consisted of 277 employees randomly recruited from 19 randomly selected banking, tourism, and medical companies in Ankara, Turkey. The population is all employees in these companies, which is approximately 500 people. Krejcie, and Morgan (1970) population and sample size table was used to determine the sample size. At 95% confidence level, the calculation gives minimum sample size as 217. Simple random sampling was used in order to select the study sample. Businesses are distributed as follows: 63.15 % from banking, 21.05 % from tourism and 15.78 % from medical sectors. In the data collection procedure, human resources directors of businesses were contacted via email or phone. The purpose of the study and the purely academic aim of this research were explained. The possibility of sharing the results was also offered. Also, participants were informed of the purpose of the study and an assurance of confidentiality. The questionnaire forms were distributed to participants via e-mail or sealed envelopes. Of the 520 questionnaires distributed, 282 were returned with a response rate of 54.23 %. The data obtained from 5 employees were not included in the analysis because of the 40 % and above missing values on some of the items. Finally, the usable responses were obtained from 277 white-collar employees. The mean age of the participants was 42.1 and average job tenure in current organization was 1.94 year. Of these 58.84 % were male and 41.16 % were female. Participants were employees of different production and service branches in Turkey such as bank, insurance, consulting, tourism, transportation, agriculture, and catering.

B. Measurement

The self-reported questionnaire contains nineteen questions designed to measure perceived social support types, psychological ownership, and demographics. The sufficiency of sample size is measured by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test which is above 0.5 (Field, 2013) for social support (0.62) and psychological ownership (0.69) scales.

Social support was measured with the scale developed by Himle, Jayaratne, and Thyness (1991). The scale consists of eight items, four related to co-workers and four to managers. The statements were adopted into Turkish using collaborative translation technique in order to ensure the conceptual equivalence of the items. Two bilingual researchers translated scale independently and one graduate psychology and one graduate business administration students examined which translation better reflected the meaning of the items. Each of these items was measured on a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The coefficient alpha reliabilities of the scale were calculated in two steps. First, the types of support as emotional support (α = .78), appraisal support (α = .72) instrumental
support (α = .79) and informational support (α = .79) were considered. Then the coefficient alpha scores of managers’ (α = .81), and co-workers (α = .80) support were calculated. In both calculations the alpha scores were in acceptable range.

*Psychological ownership* was measured with the scale developed by Van Dyne and Pierce (2004). The scale translated to Turkish by Alp (2007), validity and reliability assessment was conducted by Ötken (2015). The responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Higher scores indicate greater psychological ownership toward organization. The scale consists of seven items and all items combine in one-factor. The coefficient alpha reliabilities of the scale was satisfactory, α = .89.

*Demographics* as gender, age, job tenure and industry of the business were also included in the survey. Age and job tenure were measured in years.

**IV. RESULTS**

Prior to the hypothesis testing, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed in order to examine factor structure and verify the distinctiveness of the study variables. Fit indices were chosen following recommendations by Hu and Bentler (1998). Four well-known fit indices were used for evaluation: chi-square, comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardized root mean residual (SRMR). First 5-factor model was developed in which all variables (emotional, appraisal, instrumental, informational social supports and psychological ownership) were assumed to be independent. For each support types of co-workers’ and managers’ supports were considered together. That is, two items related to emotional support (from co-workers and managers) are considered as emotional support items. The CFA results revealed that 5-factor model fit the data adequately (χ²/df = 1.98; CFI=0.90; SRMR= 0.05; RMSEA= 0.06). The standardized factor loadings of the items’ were above the 0.40 and loaded significantly on their underlying factors. These findings represent factor analytic evidence for the construct validity. After all, the composite psychological ownership variable was obtained by taking the average of the related items.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables

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<td>12. Psychological ownership</td>
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<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
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<td><strong>SD</strong></td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.86</td>
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Note: N = 277
* p< .05, ** p< .001.
To test the hypotheses, hierarchical regression analysis was performed. Table 2 indicates the results of hierarchical regression analysis.

**Table 2. Results of the regression analyses**

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Variables</th>
<th>Psychological ownership</th>
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Note: N = 277
* p< .05, ** p< .001.

The types and sources of social support revealed different impacts on psychological ownership. The appraisal, instrumental and informational supports obtained from managers were found significant in predictions of psychological ownership ($\beta = 0.19, p< 0.01$; $\beta = 0.17, p< 0.01$; $\beta = 0.18, p< 0.01$) respectively. On the other hand, while emotional, instrumental and informational supports were found significant predictors of psychological ownership ($\beta = 0.17, p< 0.01$; $\beta = 0.14, p< 0.05$; $\beta = 0.12, p< 0.05$), appraisal support of co-workers was not. Statistically, there were significant instances of direct effects of instrumental and informational support obtained from both managers and co-workers. However, the impact of emotional and appraisal support was differently related to sources of these supports. No significant relationships were found between demographics and psychological ownership.

**V. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION**

This study aims to investigate the impacts of types and sources of social support on psychological ownership. In the first hypothesis it is proposed that emotional support from both managers and co-workers is positively related to psychological ownership of employees. Our findings revealed that while co-workers’ emotional support was found significant on psychological ownership ($\beta = 0.17, p< 0.01$), one that was provided by managers ($\beta = 0.09, p> 0.05$) was not. This finding partially supports the first hypothesis (H₁). Stronger employees’ perceptions on being loved, cared, valued and accepted by their co-workers would increase their feeling of possession toward their organizations. It may also helps to build friendly working atmosphere, which leads to favorable attitudes and behaviours.

Another finding of the current study was related to appraisal support, which is proposed in second hypothesis (H₂). The findings revealed that managers’ appraisal support had a significant impact on employees’ psychological ownership ($\beta = 0.20, p< 0.01$), but co-workers’ appraisal support did not have ($\beta = 0.10, p> 0.05$), which is also partially support H₂. The results on both emotional and appraisal support can be explained by expectations of employees and the cultural background of Turkey. According to Hofstede’s (1980) cultural dimensions, Turkey is a country with high power distance. Although Daller and Yıldız (2006) have indicated that because of the political changes, Turkey’s power distance is changing and getting closer to Western cultures, their findings revealed that there are still high power
distance perceptions in business world. Furthermore, many researches (Chen et al., 2014; Erben & Güneşer, 2008; Ötken & Cenkci, 2012) revealed that paternalistic leadership has an important impact in work life and Turkey scored very high in paternalistic values (Aycan et al., 2000). Paternalistic leadership includes both autocratic and benevolent behaviors. Díliber (1967) found that Turkish leaders as authoritarian. Fikret-Pasa, Kabasakal, and Bodur (2001) indicated that “tacit influence that leader has due to the large power distance characteristics of the culture” imply a granted authority. Kabasakal, and Bodur (2002, 2004) have also revealed the categorization of Turkish organizations as paternalistic, centralized and limited delegation. With all these perceptions of high power distance and autocratic values, employees’ expectations about their managers might be more related to evaluative feedbacks, not emotional ones. It seems that the implicit benevolent behaviors of managers might decrease relative importance of emotional support in direct relationships with psychological ownership. In other respects, co-workers’ emotional, instrumental and informational supports were all found meaningful by employees and have a significantly positive impact on psychological ownership.

Our other findings related to third (H3) and fourth (H4) hypotheses indicated that informational and instrumental support from both co-workers and managers predict psychological ownership of employees positively. These results revealed that instrumental and informational supports are crucial for employees. Informational support refers to providing information or advice, whereas instrumental support contains sources (such as time, money or any other materials). Their positive impact on psychological ownership might be due to the nature of working and managerial functions. Employees need information and some other sources in order to perform their tasks. Managers plan, organize, lead and control employees. More specifically, managers allocate sources and provide information and feedback to employees to make them working more efficient and effective. In addition, perceiving these feedback and information from other employees might make working easier and help to motivate each employees, which is also affect psychological ownership positively.

After all, our findings disclose that while employees’ perceptions on informational and instrumental support provided by both managers and co-workers lead positive psychological ownership, the impacts of emotional and appraisal support changed according to the sources. These findings offer several valuable contributions and practical implications. In particular, it extends existing research on social support and psychological ownership and also provides several practical implications for organizations.

A. Contribution to literature

The empirical investigation on types and sources of social support advances our current understanding on perception of support. First, consistently with previous researches, social support was found positively related to psychological ownership (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Ötken, 2015). However, the impact of social support was changed according to type and source of this support, which is also expand the findings of Ötken (2015). Although Ötken (2015) has studied the prediction role of organizational support on psychological ownership, organizational support was examined by job-related and emotional support and there was not any distinguish related to sources. The examination of support sources, as managers and co-workers, would help to build more detailed framework in support literature.

Second, the examination of psychological ownership with the different social support types from different sources helps to extend related literature. Psychological ownership was studied with many other perceptional variables such as work environment, organizational justice, leadership styles, job design (demand-control) or engagement. However, studies related to support and ownership in business world are rare particularly in national literature.
Last but not least, this research extended the social support approach of Himle, Jayaratne, and Thyness (1991), and Yürür, and Sarıkaya (2011) by examining the types and sources of social support together.

**B. Practical implications**

The findings of this study also provide several practical implications for organizations. Social support is a crucial component that has both direct and indirect roles on the organizational outcomes. Providing and improving work arrangements and rights such as childcare opportunities, parental leave rights and other beneficial implications would also help to develop employees’ psychological capital.

Although emotional support was not found as a significant predictor of psychological ownership, the changing cultural values and perceptions on power distances would affect employees’ expectations over years. As indicated by Schaufeli and Taris (2014) encouraging managers to provide trust, love between them and employees, supportive work conditions and positive organizational climate might help to decrease negative outcomes and increase psychological ownership.

Organizations should also pay attention to the employee-co-workers relationships. Employees’ knowledge hiding behaviors are becoming a common issue for organizations. It was expected that the knowledge hiding among employees would decrease the long-term performance of groups and organizations (Connelly, Zweig, Webster & Trougakos, 2012). Establishing an effective reward system in order to encourage knowledge sharing would help to develop employees’ human, psychological and social capital.

**C. Limitations and suggestions for further studies**

Although the present study provided comprehensive findings, they should be interpreted in light of research limitations. First, as the data obtained from one source, there might be a common method bias problem. To reduce this potential method bias, confirmatory factor analysis and Harman’s test were performed. Although the results indicated that common method bias is not a serious problem in this study, future studies may obtain data from different sources, which helps to validate self-reported data. Second, it is noteworthy to consider that the diverse sample from different cultures might increase the generalizability of the findings. The cultural background of individuals may play an important role particularly in perception of social support diversity and where it is provided.

The third limitation concerns the cross-sectional design of this study, which does not allow proposing and testing the causality. Further experimental or longitudinal researches would enable researchers to control other influential variables and to explore the direct impact of social support at the intra-individual level. Finally, the direct effects of social support can be tested with other work-related variables (such as job performance, work-family conflict, organizational commitment, turnover intention) and/or the buffering impact of different types and sources of perceived social support can be also considered with these variables.

As a result, besides all limitations, this research would be helpful to understand the perceptions of employees toward different types and sources of social support and their prediction roles for psychological ownership. Moreover, the demonstration of the impacts of social support in detailed hopefully increase the awareness on this subject and draws more attention to the employees perceptions related to social support and other work-life based outcomes.
References


