The Impact of Managers’ Self-awareness, Positivity and Psychological Ownership on Organizational Citizenship Behavior

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Abstract
One of the most important assets of any organization that may have an effective role to play in achieving a sustainable competitive advantage is organization’s human resources. The usage of new styles of leadership, investment in the field of positive organizational behavior, and developing a sense of ownership are the ways to manage human resources in effective and efficient manner. The consequences of behavior can also point out indirect effects on organizational citizenship behavior and organizational outcomes such as trust, performance and empowerment. This research was conducted in Mobinnet Telecommunication Company1 among 50 senior and middle level managers. The results showed that there is a direct positive relationship between self-awareness and organizational citizenship behavior at 99 percent confidence level. Furthermore, the results indicated that higher level of leaders’ positivity and psychological ownership increase the level of organizational citizenship behavior.

Key Words: Authentic Leadership, Positive Psychology, Psychological Capital, Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

Introduction
The field of leadership has covered much ground in the last hundred years. Researchers in this area have created a great deal of valuable knowledge on leader traits and behaviors, follower characteristics, leader–follower relationships, and situational contingencies of leadership as well as other related topics and there has been growing interest in the field around a new construct, authentic leadership. The creators of this construct contend that the decrease in ethical leadership (e.g., Worldcom, Enron, Martha Stewart) coupled with an increase in societal challenges (e.g., September 11 terrorism, fluctuating stock values, a downturn in the U.S. economy) necessitates the need for positive leadership more so than in any other time (Cooper et al, 2005). As former head of Medtronic, Bill George (2003), succinctly states: “we need leaders who lead with purpose, values, and integrity; leaders who build enduring organizations, motivate their employees to provide superior customer service, and create long-term value for shareholders” (Avolio &Gardner, 2005). A rise in interest in positive forms of leadership is due in part to mounting evidence supporting the central role of positivity in enhancing human well-being and performance at work. For example, initial research (e.g., Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron, & Myrowitz, 2009; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010; Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey, & Oke, 2009) suggests that leaders who

1 The Worldwide Broadband Operator in Iran
possess a variety of positive states or traits, goals, values, and character strengths are able to positively influence followers’ states, behavior, and performance (Walumbwa et al, 2010).

The psychological aspects of ownership have been explored by various disciplines, such as anthropology, psychology, philosophy, marketing, and business management (Wang et al, 2006). Psychological ownership is the psychologically experienced phenomenon in which an employee develops possessive feelings for the target. There are many researches to examine psychological ownership, for example VandeWalle et al. (1995) examined psychological ownership of housing cooperative residents and showed relationships of psychological ownership with commitment and satisfaction to the cooperative and self-perceptions of extra-role behavior. Pendleton et al.’s (1998) study of four U.K. bus companies showed feelings of ownership were related to satisfaction, involvement, integration, commitment, and self-perceived changes in attitudes and work-related behaviors. Finally, Parker, Wall, and Jackson's work on quality management (1997) showed production ownership was linked to concerns for unfinished work (Dyne & Pierce, 2004).

Topics discussed in this article include reviewing the effects of managers’ self-awareness (one of the component of authentic leadership), positivity and psychological capital on leaders’ organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the workplace. This study by using different methods has followed to find how self-awareness, positivity and psychological capital constructs are related to managers’ OCB.

**Authentic Leadership and Psychological Capital and Ownership**

**Authenticity**

Authenticity as a construct dates back to at least the ancient Greeks, as captured by their timeless admonition to “be true to oneself” (Walumbwa et al, 2008; Gardner et al, 2009; Novicevic et al, 2006) or “To thine own self be true” (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Clapp-Smith et al, 2009). Also authenticity implies that “one acts in accord with the true self, expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings” (Michie and Gooty, 2005). As conceptualized within the emerging field of positive psychology (Seligman, 2002), authenticity can be defined as “owning one’s personal experiences, be they thoughts, emotions, needs, preferences, or beliefs, processes captured by the injunction to know oneself” and behaving in accordance with the true self” (Walumbwa et al, 2008).

**Authentic Leadership**

A review of the recent literature focusing on authentic leadership indicates that the definition of authentic leadership has converged around several underlying dimensions. It has emerged as a central component in positive leadership studies since its conceptualization in the late 1970s and theoretical extension as a “root construct in leadership theory” (Clapp-Smith et al, 2009). Luthans and Avolio initially defined authentic leadership “as a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development” (Walumbwa et al, 2008). is a process by which leaders are deeply aware of how they think and behave, of the context in which they operate, and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others’ values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths (Clapp-Smith et al, 2009). The authentic leadership process positively influences self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of both leaders and followers, and it stimulates positive personal growth and self-development (Ilies et al, 2005).

However, several authors have expressed concerns about defining authentic leadership as encompassing the positive psychological capacities of confidence, hope, optimism, and resilience. Drawing on the Michael Kernis’s (2003) conception of authenticity, Ilies et al. (2005) proposed a more focused four-component model of authentic leadership that included self-awareness, unbiased processing, authentic behavior/acting.
and authentic relational orientation (Walumbwa et al., 2008, Ilies et al., 2005, Endrissat et al., 2007). Shamir and Eilam described authentic leadership behaviour as “primarily motivated by components of the self-concept such as values and identities, rather than by calculations or expected benefits” (Shamir & Eilam, 2005; Sosik et al., 2009). They defined authentic leaders as people who have the following attributes: (a) “the role of the leader is a central component of their self-concept, (b) they have achieved a high level of self-resolution or self-concept clarity, (c) their goals are self-concordant, and (d) their behavior is self-expressive” (Walumbwa et al., 2008). The authentic leader is confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, moral/ethical, future-oriented, and gives priority to developing associates to be leaders. The authentic leader is true to him/herself and the exhibited behavior positively transforms or develops associates into leaders themselves (Ilies et al., 2005). Authentic leaders are leading followers toward a higher purpose and helping to promote their health. Authentic leaders provide a supportive and positive environment where positive mood is nurtured. The authentic leader influences followers through unconditional trust on the part of the follower, positive emotions, and a commitment to foster self-determination and growth in their followers (Macik-Frey et al., 2008). Also Bill George has been described authentic leaders as a person who brings people together around a shared mission and values and empowers them to lead, in order to serve their customers while creating value for all their stakeholders (George, 2003). Walumbwa et al. define authentic leadership as a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Authentic Leadership Components

A review of the available literature has highlighted the components that most researchers and academics cite in discussing authentic leadership. These components are self-awareness, self-regulation, relational transparency, balanced processing (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Endrissat et al., 2007; Norman et al., 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2010; Gardner et al., 2009, Change & Diddams, 2009).

Self-awareness

Self-awareness ‘refers to one’s awareness of, and trust in, one’s own personal characteristics, values, motives, feelings, and cognitions. Self-awareness includes knowledge of one’s inherent contradictory self-aspects and the role of these contradictions in influencing one’s thoughts, feelings, actions and behaviors’ (Ilies et al., 2005). Self-awareness has been described as an emerging process by which leaders come to understand their unique capabilities, knowledge and experience (Avolio and Gardner, 2005) and is particularly linked with self-reflection as a key mechanism through which leaders achieve clarity with regard to their core values and mental models (Gardner et al., 2005).

Balanced Processing

Related to the concept of self-awareness is balanced, or unbiased processing. While engaging in the self-reflective process of gaining self-awareness, either through internal introspection or external evaluations, authentic leaders do not distort, exaggerate or ignore information that has been collected (Kernis, 2003), but rather pay equal attention to both positive and negative interpretations about themselves and their leadership style (Gardner et al., 2005). Balanced processing has been described as ‘the heart of personal integrity and character’, thereby significantly influencing a leader’s decision making and strategic actions (Ilies et al., 2005).

Self-regulation (Moral/Ethics or Internalized Moral Perspective)

Self-regulation is the process through which authentic leaders align their values with their intentions and actions. This process includes making one’s motives, goals and values completely transparent to followers,
leading by example and demonstrating consistency between espoused theories and theories-in-use (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). Key to this concept is that the regulatory system is internally driven, not a reaction to external forces or expectations. Furthermore, self-regulation is distinct from concepts such as self-monitoring or impression management, which can encompass purposively distorted communications and therefore lead to inauthentic dialogue. Rather, self-regulation involves establishing congruence between one’s internal standards and anticipated outcomes (Gardner et al., 2005) and the discipline to convert core values into consistent actions (George, 2003).

As such, authentic leaders, possessing self-regulatory capabilities will say what they mean and mean what they say, thereby managing tensions and confronting conflicts between their personal values and organizational responsibilities. Authentic leaders act according to their own true selves and model norms of authenticity by remaining consistent in their actions (Mazutis & Slawinski, 2008).

**Transparency**

Lastly, relational transparency encompasses all of the earlier capabilities in the act of open and truthful self-disclosure (Ilies et al., 2005). In addition to being self-aware, balanced and congruent in one’s goals, motives, values, identities and emotions, authentic leaders are also transparent in revealing these expressions to their followers (Mazutis & Slawinski, 2008). Disclosing one’s true self to one’s followers builds trust and intimacy, fostering teamwork and cooperation (Gardner et al., 2005). Furthermore, relational transparency requires the willingness to hold oneself open for inspection and feedback, thereby also being an essential component in the learning process (Mazutis & Slawinski, 2008).

In summary, authentic leadership, as a construct, is multidimensional and multilevel (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). Luthans and Avolio (2003) argue that authentic leadership behavior ‘should cascade from the very top of organizations down to the newest employee’ and that this cascading process is rooted and reinforced by the culture of the organization. Authentic leaders therefore are those who exhibit the capabilities of self-awareness; balanced processing, self-regulation and relational transparency and foster the same positive self-development in other organizational members (Mazutis & Slawinski, 2008).

**Positive Psychological Capital**

Psychological capital represents an individual’s positive psychological state of development that is characterized by four psychological resources: efficacy (confidence to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks), hope (one’s ability to persevere toward a goal), optimism (a positive expectation about succeeding now and in the future), and resilience (being able to sustain and bounce back to attain success when beset by problems and adversity) which is described in following (Luthans, Youssef and Avolio, 2007; Walumbwa et al., 2010; Avey et al, 2009; Luthans et al, 2008; Norman et al, 2010; Luthans, Norman et al, 2008; Luthans, Avolio et al, 2007 & Luthans, Avey et al, 2008).

**Efficacy** is based on Bandura’s (1997) social cognitive theory. Applied to the workplace, it is defined as “an individual’s conviction about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action necessary to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (Avey et al, 2009; Luthans, Avolio et al, 2007; Luthans et al, 2008; Luthans, Avey et al, 2008; Luthans et al, 2004 & Norman et al, 2010). Research has shown that the efficacy has a direct and significant relationship with job attitudes, leadership effectiveness, decision making and creativity (Simarasl et al, 2008).

**Hope** is commonly used in everyday language and Snyder et al. (1991) define it precisely as “a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-oriented energy) and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)” (Luthans, Avolio et al, 2007; Avey et al, 2009; Luthans et al, 2008; Luthans et al, 2004 & Norman et al, 2010). In other words, hope consists of both willpower and “waypower” thinking (Avey et al, 2009). Willpower is the expectancy and motivation individuals have for
attaining a desired goal. Pathways complement this willpower by providing psychological resources that help find multiple alternative pathways to the goal. This alternative pathways thinking helps individuals achieve goals despite the presence of obstacles (Luthans, Avey et al, 2008; Luthans, Norman et al, 2008, Jensen & Luthans, 2006).

**Optimism** is the closest structure in the positive psychology than others (Simaras et al, 1389). Seligman (1998) defines optimists as those who make internal, stable, and global attributions regarding positive events same as task accomplishment and those who attribute external, unstable, and specific reasons for negative events like a missed deadline (Luthnas, Avolio et al, 2007). Also his definition (2002) draws from attribution theory in terms of two crucial dimensions of one’s explanatory style of good and bad events: permanence and pervasiveness. Specifically, optimists interpret bad events as being only temporary “I’m exhausted”, while pessimists interpret bad events as being permanent “I’m all washed up”. The opposite is true for good events, for which the optimist makes a permanent attribution “I’m talented” and the pessimist a temporary attribution “I tried very hard on this one” (Luthans et al, 2004). The optimism is a general expectation that, good things happen more than bad things in the future (Simaras et al, 1389). Carver and Scheier (2002) offer complementary work with distinct theoretical underpinnings utilizing an expectancy framework noting, “optimists are people who expect good things to happen to them; pessimists are people who expect bad things to happen to them” (Luthans et al, 2008).

**Resiliency** represents coping and adaptation in the face of significant adversity or risk and has been adapted to the workplace by Luthans as the “positive psychological capacity to rebound, to ‘bounce back’ from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure, or even positive change, progress and increased responsibility” (Avey et al, 2009; Norman et al, 2010; Luthans, Norman et al, 2008). According to Coutu (2002), the common themes/profiles of resilient people are now recognized to be (a) a staunch acceptance of reality, (b) a deep belief, often buttressed by strongly held values, that life is meaningful, and (c) an uncanny ability to improvise and adapt to significant change (Luthans et al, 2004). Research indicates that resilient individuals are better equipped to deal with the stressors in a constantly changing workplace environment, as they are open to new experiences, are flexible to changing demands, and show more emotional stability when faced with adversity (Avey et al, 2009).

**Psychological Capital**

Ownership (the state of being an owner and having the right of possession) is found in almost all societies. When people have a sense of ownership, they experience a connection between themselves and various tangible and intangible “targets” (Avey et al, 2009).

“Psychological ownership” was stated as the state in which individuals feel an object or a piece of one object as “theirs” (Wang et al, 2006; Chi & Han, 2008; Pierce et al, 2001; Pierce et al, 2004; Pierce et al, 2009; McIntyre et al, 2009). Pierce et al. (2001) further elaborated ownership as “the feeling of possessiveness and of being psychologically tied to an object” (Wang et al, 2006; Md-Sidin et al, 2010) and reflects “an individual’s awareness, thoughts, and beliefs regarding the target of ownership” (Avey et al, 2009; Pierce et al, 2001; Md-Sidin et al, 2010).

Higgins proposes that individuals have two basic self-regulation systems: promotion and prevention. Kark and Van Dijk (2007, p. 502) 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 (Avey et al, 2009).
Brown et al. (2005) recently suggested that territorial behavior is an outcome of psychological ownership. Specifically, they define territoriality “as an individual’s behavioral expression of his or her feelings of ownership toward a physical or social object”. They argue that there are several categories of territorial behavior, such as: behaviors used to communicate the boundaries of one’s territory to others, behaviors employed to maintain an attachment to an object, and behaviors that defend that toward which feelings of ownership have developed. It is suggested that the “marking” of objects (e.g., the personalization of space) is a way of exercising control which contributes to one’s attachment to an object and experienced psychological ownership. It is through such behaviors that an individual can come to feel psychic security and home, and the discovery of one’s self in the marked object (Pierce et al, 2001; Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Pierce et al, 2009).

Thus, promotion-oriented psychological ownership is a multi-dimensional construct composed of the following four content domains: self-efficacy, accountability, sense of belonging, and self-identity.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy relates to people’s belief they can successfully implement action and be successful with a specific task. 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 objects. This freedom to control one’s actions is a psychological component that results in feelings of self-efficacy 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.”

Accountability

Accountability is “the implicit or explicit expectation that one may be called on to justify one’s beliefs, feelings and actions to others”. Accountability can be considered to be a component of psychological ownership primarily through two mechanisms: (1) the expected right to hold others accountable and (2) the expectation for one’s self to be held accountable.

Belongingness

The human need for a home or a place to dwell has been articulated over the years by social psychologists as a fundamental need that exceeds mere physical concerns and satisfies the pressing psychological need to belong. 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 workplace may be satisfied by a particular job, work team, work unit, division, organization or industry as a whole.

Self-identity

Groups of people and possessions often act as symbols through which people identify themselves. Specifically, it has been noted that individuals establish, maintain, reproduce and transform their self-identity through interactions with tangible possessions and intangibles such as an organization, mission or purpose. In addition to targets such as objects, a job, or a work team, individuals may identify with an organization, mission or purpose. This is because people have a strong drive to identify with the settings in which they work (Avey et al, 2009).
Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organ (1988) defined OCB as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Kim et al, 2011; Peng & Chiu, 2010; Krijukova et al, 2009; Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010; Raub, 2008; Walz & Niehoff, 2000; Wang & Wong, 2011; Bove et al, 2009). He elaborated that OCB can maximize the efficiency and productivity of both the employees and the organization that ultimately will contribute to the effective functioning of an organization. Later Organ (1988) identified five OCB dimensions namely altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, conscientiousness and sportsmanship.

Altruism: Altruism primarily concerns with the helping approach of the members of the organization. It includes behavior that covers help for coworkers who have heavy work load and/or to orient new people about job tasks voluntarily or even when not asked.

Conscientiousness: The next dimension of OCB relates to conscientiousness. The elements leading to conscientiousness behavior include obeying rules, following timely breaks, punctuality etc.

Sportsmanship: Sportsmanship is identified as next important dimension of OCB. It is the willingness to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining and refraining from activities such as complaining and petty grievances.

Civic Virtue: Another significant dimension that relates to OCB is civic virtue. It is the behavior on the part of individuals indicating that they responsibly participate and rationally show concern about the life of the organization. Participating in important functions/meetings, helping in organizing get-together, attending voluntary functions etc. are some behaviors that reflect the presence of civic virtue.

Courtesy: Courtesy dimension of OCB includes discretionary behavior of individuals that is aimed at preventing work-related problems with others. Assessing and doing what is best for the patients as well as for the employees will help in strengthening courtesy dimension (Chahal & Mehta, 2010).

OCB increased collaboration and productivity management; it decreased the need to allocate scarce resources to conserve resources and reduced the control and supervision of daily tasks. Also it released the resources to achieve goals, facilitated activities between team members and working groups. Through making more pleasant working environment, it enables organizations to attract and retain competent staff and by reducing the variability in the performance of work units, improved organizational performance and the ability to adapt to environmental changes.

OCB is closely associated with authentic leadership, psychological capital and scenes of ownership and belongingness because organizations cannot compensate the lack of organizational citizenship behavior with existing motivational mechanisms in them and individuals showed such behavior based on their personal experience. If people feel that their needs are met with a sense of psychological ownership, show greater accountability from themself. In addition by development of psychological capital component, (self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resiliency) especially among managers, organizations are enabled to get extra-role behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior. Managers and leaders play an important role in productivity and effectiveness because they are role-model for their employees and their improvement in attitudes and behaviors have a direct impact on employees’ attitudes. Another important point in this regard is focusing on the sense of psychological ownership because it leads to active behaviors which promote belongingness to organization and it supports common organizational and personal goals. Furthermore, when people feel that their organizations pay attention to their needs, they try to compensate with active and positive participation. So it’s important that we test these hypotheses in Iranian organization so below hypotheses is defined:
Hypothesis 1. The leaders’ self-awareness has a direct and significant relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 2. The leaders’ positivity has a direct and significant relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 3. The leaders’ psychological ownership has a direct and significant relationship with organizational citizenship behaviour.

Also according to theoretical background and literature review, the following conceptual model can be presented which is basis for hypothesis.

Method

Participants

50 Senior and middle level managers of Mobinnet Telecommunication Company (the worldwide broadband Operator) in Iran participated in this study. The participants were informed that they were part of a research project and the anonymity of their data was warranted.

80% of participants were male and 20% were female. 26% of managers were less than 30 years old, 68% between 30 to 40 years old and others was greater than 40. Concerning professional education, 62% had bachelor degree and others had master degree. According to work experiences, 68% of managers have been working for the company for one year and other more than one year. The company’s age is 3 years.
Instrument

Authentic Leadership

All variables used in the analyses were measured with standard questionnaires. We used authentic leadership questionnaire by Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa (ALQ, Version 1.0 Rater, 2007) to compromise four scales of this theory. Questions number 1 to 5 were used for transparency which a sample item is “My Leader says exactly what he or she means”. Questions number 6 to 9 for moral/ethics with sample item “My Leader demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions”, number 10 to 12 for balanced processing with sample item “My Leader solicits views that challenge his or her deeply held positions” and 13 to 16 for self-awareness with sample item “My Leader seeks feedback to improve interactions with others”. The answering format for both of these questions ranged from 1 (“not at all”) to 5 (“frequently, if not always”). The reliability for items was α= 0.81 for transparency, α= 0.87 for moral/ethics, α= 0.84 for balanced processing, α= 0.81 for self-awareness and α= 0.85 for authentic leadership.

Psychological Capital

To assess positive psychological capital, we used 12 Item Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire (Luthans, Avolio, Norman and Avey, 2007, Version 1, Other Raterer). Questions number 1 to 3 were used for efficacy which a sample item is “This leader is confident in representing his organization”. Questions number 4 to 6 for hope with sample item “If this leader should find himself in a jam at work, he could think of many ways to get out of it”, number 7 to 9 for resiliency with sample item “At this time, this leader is meeting the work goals that he has set for himself.” and 10 to 12 for optimism with sample item “This leader can get through difficult times at work because he’s experienced difficulty before”. The answering format for both of these questions ranged from 1 (“not at all”) to 5 (“frequently, if not always”). The reliability for items was α= 0.79 for efficacy, α= 0.85 for hope, α= 0.80 for resiliency, α= 0.84 for optimism and α= 0.83 for PsyCap.

 Psychological Ownership

We used Psychological Ownership 16 items questionnaire (Avey and Avolio, 2007). The answering format for both of these questions ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The reliability was 0.84.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

A 16-item self-report scale adapted by Lee and Allen (2002) was used to measure OCB. Sample items include ‘Attend functions that are not required, but that help the organizational image’ and ‘Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.’ The reliability was 0.84.

Results

Before analyzing the results obtained, we assessed the normality of the data. Normality was assessed by examining skewness and kurtosis values and kolmogorov-smirnov test for each variable included in the study. Without exception, all study variables were found to be well within acceptable values between +1 and -1 for both skewness and kurtosis. Also significant level values based on kolmogorov-smirnov test were greater than 0.05 so homogeneity of variance assumption was met.

Testing of Hypotheses

The Pearson correlations among the research variables are presented in Table 1. Considering the correlation coefficient and significant numbers in the below table, we can express that there is a significant relationship
between self-awareness, PsyCap components and psychological ownership with organizational citizenship behavior. Totally, result of the Pearson correlation test showed that there is a significant relation between self-awareness and OCB coefficient 0.558 (significance level of 0.000). Also there is a significant relation between PsyCap, Psychological ownership and OCB with coefficient 0.726 and 0.499 (significance level of 0.000). It’s considerable that there is no relation between prevention (one of psychological ownership components) with OCB which are adjusted with Dyne and Pierce (2004), Avey et al (2008) and Walumbwa et al (2010) researches.

Table 1 Pearson correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Self-awareness</th>
<th>Self-efficacy</th>
<th>Hope</th>
<th>Resiliency</th>
<th>Optimistic</th>
<th>PsyCap</th>
<th>Prevention (Psychological Ownership)</th>
<th>Promotion (Psychological Ownership)</th>
<th>Psychological Ownership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>0.558</td>
<td>0.392</td>
<td>0.644</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td>0.555</td>
<td>0.726</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.470</td>
<td>0.499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance Level</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.005**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.655</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p<0.01

Furthermore, in order to investigate the effect of self-awareness, PsyCap and psychological ownership as independent variables on dependent variables of OCB, regression analysis was used to confirm hypothesis 1, 2 and 3.

Hypothesis 1, 2 and 3 which predicted that self-awareness, positivity and psychological ownership would be positively associated with leaders’ OCB, were supported. Table 2 shows the regression of independent variable with OCB. As hypothesized, the beta coefficient for OCB was significant and positive except Prevention which supported by other researches.

Table 2 Results of Regression Analysis (H1, H2 and H3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>1.003</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>6.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td>0.580</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.558</td>
<td>4.656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PsyCap (Positivity)</td>
<td>0.932</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>3.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevention</td>
<td>-0.020</td>
<td>-0.046</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
<td>-0.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>0.477</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.470</td>
<td>3.690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Ownership</td>
<td>0.685</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.503</td>
<td>3.921</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on what is discussed in table 1 and 2, we can conclude that higher level of self-awareness, positivity and psychological ownership in leaders has been occurred a higher level of organizational citizenship behavior so all hypothesizes were supported.
Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to examine how self-awareness, positivity and psychological ownership impacted participants' level of organization citizenship behavior. Our results support that the level of self-awareness exhibited by the leader and the leader's level of positive psychological capacity and ownership had direct impact on their OCB. All study hypotheses were supported with departments' leaders that were represented as being higher in positive psychological capacity, ownership and awareness being rated as more effective than leaders in any other condition. The results of this study support the findings of Dune and Pierce (2004), Avey et al (2008) and Walumbwa et al (2010). In total, the study results contribute evidence regarding the important role of positive psychological capacity, ownership and awareness of leaders to show more extra-role behavior so they can encourage their followers to better performance which facilitate achieving to organization’ goals.

One limitation of this study is that self-awareness, PsyCap and psychological ownership are new subject in Iran and there are a few researches on it. The more focus was on PsyCap and job outcomes such as job satisfaction and commitment (Simarasl et al, 2010).

Also only questionnaire was used as an instrument and there aren’t any in-depth interviews with leaders on these topics. Third limitation is opposition of many departments’ head to do the survey on their area to have more samples to compare the result and archiving to stronger findings.

At the end, this study proposed and tested a model that evaluated three newest and important concepts in context of organizational management and behavior – self-awareness, psychological Capital and psychological ownership- for enhancing the OCB in the organization. It constructed that positive attitude and behavior of leaders has an effective role in showing extra-role behaviors and how they subordinates act in the organization. The findings shed light on the importance of specific leaders’ behaviors for creating trust on followers and enhancing their performance. It’s suggested that researchers and practitioner in Iran and other countries started working on AL, PsyCap and Psychological Ownership to develop them and expand these fields as it is a need for third millennium.

References


