Introduction

"The only thing that is constant is change."

Heraclitus (a Greek philosopher)

The world around us is changing at an exponential rate. This change is so phenomenal that in future one would look back and say that today the world was just crawling. The disruption faced by business is leading to shift of the global growth from North to East and South. India has 7.98 % share of world GDP based on purchasing power parity and is considered to be one of the growth engines (International Monetary Fund, 2019). How does one navigate and thrive in this fast-paced disruptive world? What are the qualities that are and would be required to manage and thrive in this change? What are those special states or qualities which would help people bloom and flourish? The focus area of this study was organizations. The study explored whether there were any qualities which made the employees in organizations not just manage but prosper in current turbulent times.

The turbulence experienced in the environment around is referred to as VUCA world. VUCA as an acronym was developed by US army in 1990s to depict radically different military threats that arose when conditions were volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous. It very much applies to business environment today. An example of *Volatility* is the fluctuating prices of oil which in turn affected industries such as hydrocarbon sector, air travel and many more. Also, sometimes disruptive changes in the market affected the future of a business and the market itself! A recent example was the fluctuation in the Indian rupee. Suddenly, Indian companies which were exporting became more attractive but India being an oil importer, inflation got affected due to petrol and diesel prices. This was only one example of the volatility which has become the hallmark of the business scenario. The impact of such changes cannot be isolated.

Since the world is interconnected 24 by seven, an event in one part of the world may affect other interconnected parts and variables. The impact of trade war between United States and China can be felt in the rising opportunities for Indian business. Hence world is no longer a predictable place which can be managed by short and long-term plans. The free flow of information connected to different challenges and scenarios becomes critical to process. Thus, the *uncertainty* connected to different changes is very high.

In addition to market changes, technological changes are enabling us to explore uncharted areas. There are no precedents existing in these areas hence business faces the unknown. A business which used to give a very steady return becomes irrelevant in face of new technology. It may have to reinvent itself or perish! Some examples of businesses which could not face the changing technology are typewriters in face of personal computers, color TVs in face of LCD and now LED TVs. It is said that Steve Jobs and Apple have affected three different industries i.e. music industry, photography and of course, computing! Dr. Dieter Zetsche, MD of Daimler Benz was predicting in 2017 that their competitors were not other car companies! They would be companies using the electrical drive and thus an emission free driving. They would be companies who do not own a single car! It could be Uber which is just a software application. They would be companies which are creating self-driving vehicles. In the future the autonomous car can give one the option of being at work or relaxing or be entertained while one is on the road (Zetsche, 2017).

The *complexity* that the world is facing will be exponential. How different organizations will face these and upcoming newer challenge is *ambiguous*. Organizations will have to experiment and learn new lessons and apply them on the run. Hence a company like Mercedes

Benz which is a pioneer in mobility is now helping customers not to own cars of their own but brings them to a shared platform.

Given these challenges, the hard currencies of information, strategy and systemic modeling will not work. The new currencies will be flexibility, adaptability and the capacity for renewal. And if organizations have to respond in an agile manner, they will have to bank on employees who are flexible, innovative and ready to try new things.

Since the challenges require some special capabilities, the present study looked at the relatively newer concept of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and a way to develop it using the experiential learning methodology in the present-day employees. The concept has its roots in the humanistic psychology in early fifties and then the positive psychology movement spearheaded by Dr. Martin Seligman, Dr. Ellen Langer, Dr Mihalyi Czikzentmihalyi, Dr. Ed Diener and others as will be explained below.

To understand the thriving in face of challenges, the researchers used the lens of positive psychology. When the discipline of Psychology was found there were three over reaching goals. Psychology was to try to repair damage, it was to prevent problems, and also build strengths in people (Pawelski, 2016; Luthans, 2002). But the goal of repairing damage and preventing problems became the focus of the research and practice of Psychology. Clinical psychologists focused on different pathologies. Social psychologists focused on biases, delusions in human behavior. Thus, over the years, society in general and research funding sources in particular had promoted concern for what was wrong with people. This strong attention in research and practice to psychological problems and weaknesses led to psychology being perceived as a profession which looks at the human being as a passive victim of unconscious psychological pulls of id, ego or superego (the psychanalytic school) or the product of conditioned stimuli (the behaviorist

school). The traditional model of Psychology due to this focus has undermined the role of positive, fulfilling aspects of being human that deserved attention. The present study focuses on building strength in people using the fourth wave i.e. positive psychology, which gathered movement at the beginning of this century.

1.1 Theoretical Framework

In order to move ahead in a field, it is important to look backwards, to assess where one is coming from. The theoretical framework given below shares the researcher's perception of evolution of positive psychology as a field.

1.1.1 Positive Psychology Movement

The positive psychology movement has been a reaction to the fixation that psychology has had with the negative, pathological aspects of human functioning and behaving. Positive psychology emerged because not enough attention was being given to the strengths, the positive characteristics of people that make life worth living. A few years ago, caught up in this negative approach themselves, a small but now rapidly growing group of research psychologists led by Ex - American Psychological Association President Martin Seligman began to realize that an important positive approach, building on strengths, was being badly neglected. Seligman (1999) is generally recognized to be the main proselytizer-the spearhead of today's positive psychology movement. Initially, his studies were concerned with what is wrong with people, human frailties and weaknesses (e.g., his much-acclaimed model of learned helplessness). But his focus changed to identifying and nurturing people's strongest qualities, what they own and are best at, and helping them find niches in which they can best live out these strengths (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This was the beginning of the positive psychology movement as one understands it today. The purpose is to shift at least some of the emphasis away from just the

worst things in life to the study and understanding of some of the best things in life. The positive psychologist's mission is to build theoretical understanding and use scientific methodology to discover and promote the factors that allow individuals, groups, organizations, and communities to thrive and prosper. Positive psychology does not seek to replace traditional psychology, but rather to reframe psychological research, pedagogy, and therapy to accept "that goodness and excellence are as authentic as disease, disorder and, and distress. . . [and to give] as much focus on strengths as on weaknesses, as much interest in building the best things in life as in repairing the worst, and as much attention to fulfilling the lives of healthy people as to healing the wounds of the distressed" (Peterson, 2006).

Humanistic psychology and positive psychology

The reorientation of Psychology builds in part on humanistic psychology (Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1951). Humanistic Psychology is many a times considered *the third force* in Psychology. Maslow upbraided psychology for its "pessimistic, negative and limited conception" of humans. He felt that psychology dwelt more on the human frailties than upon human strengths; that it had thoroughly explored the sins while neglecting the virtues. Psychology had seen life in terms of an individual making desperate attempts to avoid pain rather than in taking active steps to gain pleasure and happiness. Where is the psychology, Maslow asked, that takes account of gaiety, exuberance, love and wellbeing to the same extent that it deals with misery, conflict, shame and hostility? Psychology "has voluntarily restricted itself to only half of its rightful jurisdiction and that too the darker, meaner half" (Maslow, 1954) . Maslow attempted to supply the other half of the picture, the brighter, better half, and to give a portrait of the whole person. (Hall, Lindzey, & Campbell, 1998). In order to develop a complete and comprehensive science of the human person, he did a study of self actualizing individuals.

Carl Rogers also identified himself with the humanistic orientation. Humanistic view opposes what it regards as the bleak pessimism and despair inherent in the psychoanalytic view of humans on the one hand and the robot conception of humans portrayed in behaviorism on the other hand. Humanistic psychology is more hopeful and optimistic about humans. It believes that the person, any person, contains within him – or herself the potentiality for healthy and productive growth. Hence theorists like Abraham Maslow and Karen Horney have been assigned the role of *grandparents of Positive Psychology* (Ben Shahar, 2006). Positive psychology also moves beyond humanistic psychology by relying on rigorous social scientific methodology to test its theories.

Early Positive Psychology

Although Dr. Martin Seligman is considered to be the principal evangelist of positive psychology, there were other researchers working in this area before its christening. The paradigm shift was only named as Positive Psychology later, but researchers like Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi and Ed Diener had been working on concepts like flow and subjective well-being much before that. Dr Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi worked on the concept of *flow* in early 1990s. It is a theory of optimal experience based on the concept of *flow*. *Flow* is a psychological state called as an *optimal experience* which occurs when a person's body or mind is stretched to the limits in a voluntary effort to accomplish something difficult and worthwhile. It is not made up of passive, receptive or relaxing times. It is something that an individual *makes* happen. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) described how human beings in different area of life can create flow. He showed how athletes using their body can express joy through movement. How mental flow gets generated through remembering poetry, solving crosswords, using the lost art of conversation and writing create a sense of what is happening around us.Thus the mind becomes

an instrument of creating flow. He also described how one's work can be a source of flow describing people from Alpine villages who merge their work with leisure and experience flow in their daily routine. Even enjoying solitude and other people can be sources of flow.

Diener (1984) worked on the concept of subjective well-being. It involves evaluating one's current standing in the world. It involves how one finds happiness in life and how one appreciates or savours life. It is defined as a blend of one's life satisfaction and positive affect (Diener & Diener, 1996). As the definition shows, from Diener's perspective subjective wellbeing and happiness are synonymous. These studies have taken a person's subjective report of one's life satisfaction at face value. Also, these studies assume that people across different cultures would be comfortable in making subjective assessments and they would be frank about it. One would assume that wealth would be a significant predictor of subjective well-being. But this relationship is not so straight forward. Financial status – correlated to satisfaction for students in poor nations. In happiness wealthy nations had an advantage as opposed to poor nations. But, within a nation, once the income is above the poverty line, the increases in income is not highly correlated with well-being. Also, there is a strong relationship between income and well-being among the impoverished but the relationship peters out as the income levels increase.

Subjective well-being definitions have also undergone a change. Early researchers like Diener treated happiness and subjective well-being as synonymous. Many scholars called it the *hedonic* perspective. Thus, emerged the distinction between the hedonic and eudemonic perspective of happiness. According to *eudemonic* perspective happiness is not only living a pleasurable life. It should be a life worth living. It involved focusing on *meaning* in life. In the Indian psychology too, there is a distinction between Shreya and Preya (Chinmayananda, 2017).

Preya is associated with pleasure and shreya is associated with what is leading to growth and maturity of the individual.

The definition of happiness changed from pleasure and satisfaction to life meaning. Hence from happiness theory, it was called *authentic happiness* theory. A model of happiness proposed that happiness is influenced by three major factors. These are a genetically determined set point, circumstantial factors and the intentional effort that an individual undertakes to feel happy. Activities like looking after oneself by exercising in the morning, carving out time to work on at least one important project during the day or counting one's blessings at the end of the day can present one with the best opportunities to increase happiness in a sustainable manner (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005). To the study of happiness was added the dimension of authenticity. The theory of authentic happiness is that happiness can be analysed using three different elements: positive emotion, engagement and meaning. These elements are taken for their own sake, not as a means to an end. Positive emotions are what one feels. Examples could be joy, rapture, pleasure, warmth, comfort and the like. Engagement is being in flow; being one with the activity, time stopping and loss of self-consciousness is being in flow. But there were some flaws inherent in the above theory. These were related to connotations to the word happiness. It brings to mind being cheerful always. The authentic happiness theory aims at increasing life satisfaction which essentially measures cheerful mood. Also, the three elements of the theory do not exhaust all things that people choose to do for their own sake. Hence the wellbeing theory was proposed (Seligman, 2011). To understand the changes in focus area of positive psychology, see Figure 1-1

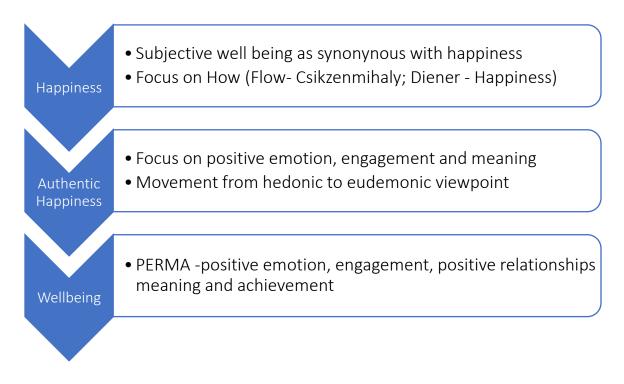


Figure 1-1 The Change in focus in Positive Psychology

Well-being theory in Positive Psychology

The well-being theory has five building blocks. These are **P**ositive emotion, **E**ngagement, **M**eaning, **P**ositive relationships and **A**ccomplishment. The acronym **PERMA** helps in remembering it. Each of the blocks has to contribute to well-being, is pursued for its own sake and is defined and measured independently of the other blocks. Let us look at each of them. *Positive emotion* is the first element in well-being theory as well as the authentic happiness theory. The difference is that under the authentic happiness theory it was the goal of the entire theory. But under the well-being theory it is one of the factors of the element of positive emotion. Positive emotions broaden and build psychological resources that one can call on later in life. *Engagement* a subjective factor again like positive emotion, it is only in retrospect is a person able to report being engaged. *Meaning* is belonging to something beyond one's self.

Societal institutions like family, religion, service to the larger brotherhood empower an individual with a sense of meaning. *Accomplishment* is an element which inspires an individual to achieve for its own sake. Sometimes people expend effort to gain mastery over the environment around them. The last element that is positive relationships is probably the most important component of well- being theory. Human beings are essentially social beings and their achievements are amplified through their relationships. Most of the times the enjoyment is shared with other people around them. They are the best antidote to the ups and downs of life.

Broaden and Build theory

Before the advent of twenty-first century psychologists used to study negative emotions like sadness, anger or anxiety. Positive emotions were considered to be too frivolous to be studied. Contrary to this trend, Barbara Fredrickson studied emotions like gratitude, contentment and love. The reason for studying negative emotions is that they are so visible and distinguishable. On the other hand, positive emotions like joy and amusement are slightly difficult to distinguish. Their emotional expressions are also not distinct. The model used in explaining negative emotions is that negative emotions have a survival value. i.e. these emotions have evolved to counter life threatening challenges. Negative emotions also narrow the thought action repertoires so that the individual survives the challenge. Positive emotions cannot be explained so easily they do not appear to be very useful and the bodily changes are not so specific. The role of positive emotions was explained by the Broaden and Build theory. In this the framework used to understand the negative emotions was discarded. The value of positive emotions lay in increasing personal growth and development. Positive emotions led to developing resilience which would help the individual in later times. Fredrickson (2003) discovered that although positive emotions' impact was momentary, they helped to build

endurance and long-term personal resources. Positive emotions changed how people thought and how people behaved. The Broaden and Build model demonstrated that people who experienced positive emotions, chose a global configuration versus a local configuration. It led to discovery of novel ideas, actions and social bonds. Though this broadened mindset was short lived, it had an enduring impact (Fredrickson, 2003). The downstream effect of these positive emotions was creative thinking.

The broaden and build model was built on the pioneering research performed by Dr. Isen. Her research proved that when one experiences positive emotions one tends to help other people (Levin & Isen, 1975), one is more flexible in one's thinking and also one tends to come up with more solutions to problems presented (Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987). In a study which involved the 2001 9/11 attacks, the participants were interviewed in early months of 2001 to study their resilience and optimism. They were again interviewed after the terrorist attacks. Along with sadness, anger and fear the more resilient people also felt grateful which in turn buffered them from feeling depressed. The horrific incident also brought out some positive learning and an optimistic outlook. Other studies also found that positive emotions undid the physiological impact of negative emotions. The positive affect and broadened thinking mutually enhanced each other leading to an "upward spiral" of growth and thinking leading to flourishing of the individual. This model gave us an explanation for robust impact of positive emotional experiences. It was this optimistic viewpoint of human beings that found resonance in Positive Organizational Scholarship and positive organizational behavior.

1.1.2 Positive Organizational Scholarship

Positive Organizational Scholarship (POS) was another area that explained flourishing in organizational context. It is an umbrella concept. It recognized the untapped potential of people

at an individual level, at a group level, at the unit level and at the organizational level. Optimal human functioning is an indicator of flourishing at an individual level. Creativity, innovation, growth and resilience of employees indicate group and organizational level flourishing. (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005). POS studies performance in an above normal or positively deviant range. POS also focuses on the development of individual as well as collective strength that represent forms of individual and collective excellence. POS focuses attention on the generative dynamics in organizations. It focuses on factors that lead to development of human strengths, foster resiliency in employees and enable healing and restoration and cultivate extraordinary individual and organizational performance. It also emphasizes what elevates individuals and organizations, what is life giving experience and what is inspiring. The four domains under it are

- (1) Positive lens
- (2) Extraordinarily positive outcomes
- (3) Affirmative bias that fosters resourcefulness
- (4) Focus on best of human conditions for its own sake rather than as means towards an end

The difference between PsyCap, the focus of study for this research and POB and POS is umbrella nature of the concept of POS and its focus on team level as well as organizational level. POB focuses on *state* like qualities whereas POS seeks to understand and explain human excellence.

1.1.3 Positive Organizational Behavior

Using the Positive Psychology movement as the foundation, Luthans (2002) defined Positive Organizational Behaviour (POB) as the study and application of positively oriented

human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace. Just like Psychology, Organizational Behavior was concerned with correcting the flaws in employees, be it in their motivation, communication, leadership or teams. OB specialists were more concerned with correcting the managerial and employees' dysfunctions and flaws at the workplace. A competency dictionary would identify the competencies required for a position and then a variety of methods would be used to fill the gap between the competencies needed for a position and the current level of competency of the position holder. Representative examples would include the search for better ways to motivate and lead marginal, inert employees; correct deficient styles, skills and abilities; improve dysfunctional attitudes and behaviors such as resistance to change; and more effectively manage conflict and cope with stress and burnout. 'Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) hoped to correct this trend. It followed the lead of the field of positive psychology, which was driven by theory and research focusing on people's strengths and psychological capabilities. In the same way, POB took a proactive positive approach on OB. Luthans (2002) provided an understanding of how to take a positive approach and proposed to build on employee strengths. He proposed that in order to do this, OB must draw from its own strengths and take a theory and research-driven approach that can then be translated, applied, and sustained for effective practice. He chose to follow the lead taken by the theory-and researchbased positive psychology movement and call this new approach positive organizational behavior or simply POB. Luthans (2002) defined POB as the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace. Such a definition of POB would seem to incorporate many existing OB concepts from the domains of attitudes,

personality, motivation, and leadership. However, in that article he further clarified that it is not old wine in a new POB bottle. The criterion of relative uniqueness is that of being measurable and making a demonstrated contribution to performance improvement. These two would require theory and research and thus clearly differentiate POB from the positively oriented personaldevelopment best-sellers. Finally, the criterion of being developmental required the POB constructs to be potentially state-like and thus ruled out the more fixed, trait-like personality, attitudinal, and motivational variables traditionally associated with OB. To best meet these operationally defined inclusion criteria for POB, Luthans (2002) used the resource strengths and psychological capacities of confidence (self-efficacy), hope, optimism, subjective well-being (happiness), and emotional intelligence (or the acronym CHOSE). In addition, to differentiate from other positive approaches reported in both the academic and practitioner literatures, the following criteria were set for including constructs in this definition of positive organizational behavior:

(a) grounded in theory and research;

(b) valid measurement;

(c) relatively unique to the field of organizational behavior;

(d) state-like and hence open to development and change as opposed to a fixed trait;

(e) have a positive impact on work-related individual-level performance and satisfaction (Luthans, 2002; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007).

In this literature review one observes that Psychology had included a balanced viewpoint of the human being, but somewhere along the way, the exigencies of war, poverty, mental health made Psychology focus more on the psychological frailties of human beings. In the last two decades this has undergone a change and human beings are now being viewed as a bundle of

limitless possibilities. The potential for achieving a high standard in personal effectiveness through distinct capacities is available in people. The common theme that binds these varied aspects is that all these are headed towards building personal resources in order to increase wellbeing of human beings. This study is an attempt to develop such individual personal resources that can lead to enhancement of employees' performance effectiveness. One such resource is Psychological capital (PsyCap).

1.1.4 Psychological Capital

Using these criteria, the positive psychological constructs that were determined to meet the inclusion criteria included hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy, and when combined, represent what has been termed *psychological capital* or *PsyCap* (Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). Thus, PsyCap is a multidimensional construct.

PsyCap has been placed as an integrated psychological resource using Hobfoll's (2002) definition of a psychological resource. PsyCap theory development indicates that the four dimensions possess a common underlying positive agent like capacity, that is, individuals high in PsyCap tend to be more determined, expend more effort, expect success, maneuver obstacles more effectively, and bounce back from setbacks more readily (Luthans F. , Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). Besides conceptual support, there is also empirical evidence that the four constructs when combined into PsyCap form a core factor. Using a competing measurement models analysis, PsyCap has been found to be best measured as a second-order factor, whereas each dimension (efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience) loads onto an overall core factor (PsyCap).

PsyCap is an intangible asset. When globalization took off in 1990s, the competitive advantage lay in cost leadership, differentiating one's product from one's competitors and

pursuit of a specific strategy (Porter, 2004). To achieve it, an organization would tap the knowledge base of their employees or search for a talent pool which knows the ways to achieve a competitive advantage. Thus the "human capital" i.e. the knowledge and skills of employees became very significant. In some cases, employees' strategic position in their personal or professional network was important. This would tap the "social capital" of employees. But whether to deploy this human or social capital or for that matter any of the talents for the organization's benefit, lay in the hands of the employee. The employee has free will of thought and action.

Another aspect of human and social capital is that the knowledge and connections that employees may possess today may not be valuable tomorrow. "Knowledge cannot be taken away from anyone except by obsolescence" (Kalam & Tiwari, 1999). The knowledge development and acquisition required in a field is so rapid that it can lead to obsolescence. Thus, the employee and the organization are chasing a moving target needing dynamic capabilities. The confidence to learn new things, plan and achieve goals not yet achieved required for competitive advantage needs PsyCap. PsyCap augments the human and the social capital. PsyCap can also be a support in developing one's self or realizing one's potential.

1.1.4.1 Self-Efficacy as a positive psychological strength

Self-efficacy has been argued to best meet the inclusion criteria for PsyCap (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). Leading self-efficacy theorist and researcher Albert Bandura strongly emphasized that self-efficacy is the most pervasive and important of the psychological mechanisms for positivity. He declared, "Unless people believe that they can produce desired effects and forestall undesired ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act. Whatever other factors may operate as motivators, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the power to produce desired results." Self-efficacy represents a positive belief (not ability per se nor

outcome expectancy) and was defined for the workplace by Stajkovic and Luthans (1998, p. 66) as "the employee's conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context." These accepted definitions deal with efficacy for accomplishing a specific task. An example of this state-like efficacy would be a systems design specialist who may have a high sense of self-efficacy about finding a suitable system to solve a client's problem but a low sense of self-efficacy about presenting the new system to the client or the CIO.

In results from a comprehensive meta-analysis, self-efficacy was found to have a strong positive relationship with work-related performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Bandura, 2000; Bandura & Locke, 2003) In some studies, the use of self-efficacy has been broadened beyond a single task to the work domain. Employees may be more or less efficacious in the work domain such as a group of more specific tasks. As Bandura (1998, p. 53) has concluded, "Comparative studies show that domain linked measures of perceived efficacy are good predictors of motivation and action." Although this broadens the conceptualization of very specific task efficacy, it does not extend across domains or to all of life such as is portrayed by generalized self-efficacy (Sherer, et al., 1982). As applied to the higher-order construct of PsyCap, the researchers base their argument on Bandura's (1998, p. 53) position that, "The efficacy belief system is not an omnibus trait."

1.1.4.2 Optimism as a positive psychological strength

Optimism is commonly used in everyday language, but in positive psychology it has a very specific meaning with theory and research addressing this positive construct. Drawing from attribution theory, Seligman (1998) defined optimists as those who made internal, stable, and global attributions regarding positive events (e.g., task accomplishment) and those who attributed

external, unstable, and specific reasons for negative events (e.g., a missed deadline). Therefore, optimism as a facet of PsyCap is associated with a positive outcome outlook or attribution of events, which includes positive emotions and motivation and has the caveat of being realistic (Luthans, 2002). As used here, optimism is not just an unrestrained process without realistic evaluation. Realistic optimism includes an evaluation of what one can and cannot accomplish in a particular situation and hence adds to one's efficacy and hope. As Peterson (2000) notes, realistic optimism is very dynamic and changeable and is considered state-like.

1.1.4.3 Hope as a positive psychological strength

Hope too is widely used in everyday language, but as examined here is most closely associated with the theory and research of positive psychologist C. Rick Snyder. Snyder and colleagues' hope theory (Snyder, et al., 1996; Snyder, 2002) is widely recognized in clinical and positive psychology and has considerable research support. Snyder and his colleagues have specifically defined hope as a "positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (1) agency (goal directed energy) and (2) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, et al., 1996). Thus, hope can be viewed as consisting of three distinct but complementary components: agency (will-power), pathways (way-power), and goals. The agency component of hope has been called the will to accomplish a specific task or goal (Snyder, et al., 1996). Thus, agency includes the motivation or goal-directed energy to succeed at a given task in a specific context. The pathway component is viewed as being the means to accomplish a task or goal. Thus, a pathway is considered to be the way to accomplish a task or goal. Together, they form the will and the way to accomplish a given task or goal. Snyder and colleagues' theory and research suggest having one component by itself is not sufficient. To possess hope as defined

and operationalized, one must have both the will to succeed in a given task, as well as a viable means, or a way to accomplish that task.

In clinical and positive psychology, hope has been clearly linked to academic and athletic success (Snyder, 2002; Snyder, 2000) but only recently has it been analyzed in the workplace. In preliminary research in the workplace, hope was found to be related to Chinese factory workers' supervisory rated performance (Luthans F. , Avolio, Walumbwa, & Li, 2005), unit financial performance and employee satisfaction and retention (Peterson & Luthans, 2003) and employee performance, satisfaction, happiness, and commitment (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Some specific practical guidelines drawn from Snyder's work that were applicable to developing and managing hope in the workplace include:

- obtain goal acceptance and commitment through participation and involvement;
- determine specific stretch goals;
- clarify goals and use a stepping method to break down complex, long-term strategies into sub-steps;
- develop specific alternate and contingency pathways (e.g., action plans) to goals;
- develop the skill of regoaling, which is recognizing the futility of persistence in the face of absolute goal blockage (i.e., avoid false hope); and
- conduct mental rehearsals of important upcoming events.

1.1.4.4 Resilience as a positive psychological strength

Applied to the workplace, resilience is defined as the "positive psychological capacity to rebound, to 'bounce back' from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure, or even positive change, progress and increased responsibility" (Luthans, 2002, p. 702). Empirical studies have shown that positive emotions enhance resilience in the face of negative events, which reflect its state-

like quality (Tugade, Fredrickson, & Barrett, 2004). Clinical psychologists also note that resilience can increase and even grow when the individual returns to levels above homeostasis after an adverse event (Richardson, 2002). In short, individuals may actually become more resilient to an adverse situation each time they effectively bounce back from a previous setback. Such positive reactions have been found in studies of emotions to have upward spiraling effects (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002). Resilience is defined as an innate energy or motivating life force present to varying degrees in every individual, exemplified by the presence of particular traits or characteristics that, through application of dynamic processes, enable an individual to cope with, recover from, and grow as a result of stress or adversity. Literature from a wide variety of fields, including physics, medicine, theology, philosophy, psychology, and spirituality, was reviewed to build an overview of existing knowledge and evolving theories on the subject of resilience and further the understanding of resilience as an innate personal resource. Conclusion was that innate resilience can be developed or enhanced through cognitive transformational practices, education, and environmental support. Such processes may have use in ameliorating the effects of workplace stress.

1.1.5 Indian view related to PsyCap

The study of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) would be incomplete and probably amenable to conceptual deficiencies, if no mention is made of the indigenous view, in this case, the Indian view of what is Psychological Capital (PsyCap) in the present context. It is also important to understand the components of PsyCap from the Indian perspective because spirituality is built into the Indian psyche without understanding which 'it is virtually impossible to comprehend Indian psychological make-up, society, and culture' (Roland,1988:294; quoted in Sinha, 2008).

Although the concept of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) is primarily a western one, coined by Luthans, its components are not completely new to the Indian cultural ethos. The components of PsyCap i.e. confidence, optimism, hope and resilience and their applied or practical aspects have been considered by the traditional Indian approach. To the best of the researcher's knowledge there is no single treatise on the subject of PsyCap per se in traditional Indian literature; however ideas related, directly or indirectly, to PsyCap can be gleaned from Indian scriptures and other philosophical and spiritual literature depicting Indian thought. Sources of these concepts are available in the epics, Ramayan and Mahabharat, in the Bhagwad Geeta, and Upanishads to cite some of the well-known works depicting traditional Indian thought. Sources are also available in the interpretation of these scriptures by the revered exponents of the Indian thoughts, such as Swami Vivekananda, Swami Chinmayananda, and Reverend Pandurang Shastri Athavale. Because of the rather diffuse nature of the presentation of the different concepts of PsyCap in these writings, a brief summary of the Indian thought supporting PsyCap components portrayed in the traditional Indian (Hindu) writings will be attempted after describing each component of PsyCap.

1.1.5.1 Indian perspective on Self efficacy.

When we are looking at self efficacy from the Indian context, we are looking at it from the domain point of view. To do that we need an equivalent word in Sanskrit. The word Aatmashraddha comes close to belief or conviction i.e. self efficacy. To go through life steadily and surmount all its obstacles, what is required is Aatmashraddha, a belief in self. In the words of Swami Vivekananda, "We must have faith in ourselves first, before having faith in God." In his speech on our real nature, Swami Vivekananda has said,

"Men and women are taught from childhood that they are weak and sinners. Teach them that they are all glorious children of immortality, even those who are the weakest in manifestation. Let positive, strong, helpful thought enter into their brains from very childhood. Lay yourselves open to these thoughts, and not to weakening and paralyzing ones. Say to your own minds, "I am the Atman. I am the Infinite." Let it ring day and night in your minds like a song, and at the point of death declare, "I am the Atman." That is the Truth; the infinite strength of the world is yours. Drive out the superstition that has covered your minds. Let us be brave. Know the truth and practice the truth. The goal may be distant, but awake, arise, and stop not till the goal is reached." (Vivekananda Vedanta network, 2003-2017).

The knowledge of the Atman (Self) which is our true nature is the basis of all human endeavour and achievement. With this end in view, in Bhagwad Gita Sri Krishna shows Arjuna the way to the realization of his true self, leaving Arjuna to apply that knowledge and the faith derived there from to the solution of his many problems. The Lord instills self efficacy in Arjun by using the following shloka,

उध्धरेदात्मनात्मानं नात्मानमवसादयेत् I

आत्मैव हयात्मनो बन्धुरात्मैव रिपुरात्मनः II ६,५ II

meaning: Let a man lift himself by his own Self alone, and let him not lower himself; for, this Self alone is the friend of oneself, and this Self is the enemy of oneself.

According to the researcher this verse places the onus of activity on the individual. As the exhortation is from the Lord himself, it is a source of self efficacy of the individual, instilling in him the belief that an individual himself/herself is "his/her best friend" and can achieve what s/he deems fit.

1.1.5.2 Indian perspective on Optimism.

In the Indian context, the doctrine of *karma* gets interwoven with attributions that are made to events that happen to individuals. "Karma" literally means "deed" or "act", and more broadly names the universal principle of cause and effect, action and reaction, which Hindus believe governs all consciousness (Sivasubramium, 1997). Karma is not fate or destiny for we act with what can be described as a conditioned free will creating our own destinies. According to the Vedas, if we sow goodness, we will reap goodness; if we sow evil, we will reap evil. Karma refers to the totality of our actions and their concomitant reactions in this and previous lives, all of which determine our future. The conquest of karma lies in intelligent action and dispassionate reaction. The doctrine of Karma thus dictates that our conduct has an inevitable impact. The impact is visible and may follow immediately or in next life. Sri Krishna in Bhagvad Gita assures that,

योगक्षेम वहामि अहं II ९, २२ II

Meaning: To those men who worship Me alone, thinking of no other, to those ever selfcontrolled, I secure for them that which is not already possessed (YOGA) by them, and preserve for them what they already possess (KSHEMA).

Interpretation: Now, considering it as a tip for the men in the market-place, sweating and toiling in the world, the very same stanza yields a code of secret instructions by which they can assure for themselves complete success in their worldly life. In any undertaking, if a man is capable of pouring out his self-willed thought (sankalpa) constantly and with a singleness-of-purpose, he is sure to succeed. But unfortunately, the ordinary man is not capable of successfully keeping his thoughts in one channel of thinking. Therefore, his goal seems to be ever receding and flickering. His determination to achieve a particular goal ever changes, since his goal itself

seems to be ever-changing. To such a man of haphazard determination, no progress is ever possible in any line of undertaking. (Chinmayananda, 1992)

In fact, the assurance by Sri Krishna is to the extent that,

कर्मण्येवाधिकारस्ते मा फलेष्कदाचन I

मा कर्मफलहेत्र्भूर्मा ते संयोग्सत्वकर्मणी II २, ४७ II

Meaning: "Thy right is to work only; but never to its fruits; let not the fruit of action be thy motive, nor let they attachment be to inaction."

Interpretation: The stanza gives the four injunctions guiding us to be true workers. A real *Karma Yogin* is one who understands: (a) that his concern is with action alone; (b) that he has no concern with results; (c) that he should not entertain the motive of gaining a fixed fruit for a given action; and (d) that these ideas do not mean that he should sit back courting inaction. In short, the advice is to make the worker release himself from all his mental pre-occupations, and thus through work make him live in the joy and ecstasy of inspired self-forgetfulness. The work itself is his reward; he gets himself drunk with the joy and satisfaction of a noble work done. The work is the means; the Higher Self-experience alone is the Goal-Divine. (Chinmayananda, 1992)

Once the goal for one's activity is decided by an individual, the person should not be worrying about whether one will achieve the results that are expected. This self doubt will weaken the effort that one is placing in the work. Thus one should focus on the work itself, taking it finally to the level of excellence to the level of yoga: योग: कर्मस् कौशलम्

1.1.5.3 Indian perspective on Hope.

The way – power has been examined in Gita in the third chapter (Shloka 3) as,

लोके\$स्मिन्दविविधा निष्ठा पूर प्रोक्ता मयानघ |

ज्ञानयोगेन सांख्यानां कर्मयोगेन योगिनाम् ॥ ३,३॥

Meaning: In this world there is a two-fold path, as I said before, O sinless one; the 'Pathof-Knowledge' of the SANKHYANS and the 'Path-of-Action' of the YOGINS.

Interpretation: Krishna clearly explains here that the two-fold path of Self-development was prescribed for the world-the 'Path-of-Knowledge' to the MEDITATIVE, and the 'Path-of-Action' to the ACTIVE. It is added that this classification and careful prescription for the two different types of men has been in existence from the very beginning of creation (Chinmayananda, 1992). Thus even to achieve the ultimate there is more than one path, hence in order to achieve material goals there can be different paths.

1.1.1.1 Indian perspective on Resilience.

In the Bhagwad Gita, a description of an individual possessing a resilient state is a "satvik" person, described below.

मुक्तसs:गोऽनहंवादी धुत्यूत्साह समन्वितः ।

सिद्धयसिद्धयोर्निर्विकार:कर्तासात्विक उच्यते ॥ १८ , २६ ॥

Translation: "An agent who is free from attachment, non-egoistic endowed with firmness and enthusiasm, and unaffected by success or failure, is called *satvic* (pure)."

Interpretation: A *satvic* `actor' is one who is free from attachment to any of his kith and kin (*mukta sangah*), and non-egoistic (*anahamvadin*). He is one who has no clinging attachment to the things and beings around as he has no such false belief that the world outside will bring to him a desirable fulfilment of his existence. He sincerely feels that he has not done anything spectacular even when he has actually done the greatest good to mankind, because he surrenders his egocentric individuality to the Lord through his perfect attachment with the Infinite.

When such an individual-- who has destroyed in himself his ego-sense and the consequent sense of attachment- works in the worldly fields of activities, he ever acts with firm resolution (dhriti) and extreme zeal (utsaha). The term dhriti means `fortitude'-- the subtle faculty in man that makes him strive continuously towards a determined goal. When obstacles come on his way, it is his faculty of dhriti that discovers for him more and more courage and enthusiasm to face them all and to continue striving towards the same determined goal. This persevering tendency to push oneself on to the work until one reaches the halls of success, unmindful of the obstacles that one might meet with on the path, is called dhriti. And *utsaha* means untiring self-application with a dynamic enthusiasm on the path of achievement while pursuing success. Lastly, a *satvic* `actor' is one who ever strives unperturbed both in success and failure.

PsyCap is relatively fresh but theoretically robust notion, with a great promise and research potential. There is support in the literature that PsyCap is potentially an important human resource asset for any business organization. Given the growing body of knowledge on the subject, it is pertinent to undertake more research on it, as well as performing real-time testing to explore the practical implications of the construct for organizations.

Both theory-building and prior research on hope, resilience, optimism, and efficacy supports that they are developable. As examples, Bandura (1997) has demonstrated strategies to increase self-efficacy. Snyder (2000) provides evidence that hope is developable and published the state–hope scale (Snyder, et al., 1996). Although known for their earlier work on dispositional optimism, Scheier and Carver (2011) have discussed strategies to develop optimism, and Shifren and Hooker (1995) have demonstrated its situational measurement. Seligman (1998) features "learned optimism" in his widely recognized book by this title and offers evidence to support its development. Masten and Reed (2002) likewise discuss successful

strategies for resilience-based developmental interventions, and Wagnild and Young (1993) have developed a state-like measure of it. Each of these contributions in the positive psychology literature have supported that these four constructs can be developed. There is also some preliminary evidence that when these four constructs are combined into a higher-order construct it can be considered state-like and hence may be developable (Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008; Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006).

Hence the present study analyzes /tests the relationship between PsyCap and different workplace behaviors and workplace attitudes in India. The scope of the study also encompasses the question whether PsyCap components viz. PsyCap Efficacy, PsyCap Hope, PsyCap Optimism and PsyCap Resilience are developable or not. Also, it was studied whether the increased PsyCap would affect the workplace behaviors and emotions.

1.2 Workplace Behaviors

Workplace behaviors which were studied were organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive workplace behaviors. Workplace emotions studied were work engagement and emotional labor.

Let us look at each of them in detail.

1.2.1 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

When asked to remember people who have contributed to their growth in an organization, an individual can think of many who have done their jobs conscientiously, helped them become familiar with their role as a newcomer and encouraged them to solve the problems faced. Such acts though not formally recognized by the performance management system, help the organization become more effective. Katz (1964) was an early theorist who said that 'innovative and spontaneous behaviors' were essential for organizational effectiveness. These acts have been

studied in greater detail particularly after the 1980s. Researchers have used different terminologies like contextual performance (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997), prosocial organizational behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), extra-role behavior and soldier effectiveness (Borman, Motowidlo, Rose, & Hanser, 1986) for this kind of behavior. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)s are defined as intentional employee behaviors which are not part of the job/role assigned to an individual, are performed voluntarily, i.e. they are discretionary and are intended to help employees in the organization or they establish conscientiousness in sustenance of the organization (Organ, 1988). Later research acknowledges that it is considered by supervisors or managers during performance appraisals (Organ, 1997; King, George, & Hebl, 2005).

1.2.1.1.1 Facets of OCB

For this study, the researcher has used the three faceted model of OCB. These are helping, sportsmanship and civic virtues. Helping includes elements of altruism, courtesy, peacekeeping and some elements of cheerleading. The term *helping* was introduced because all the above terms although conceptually valid, made things difficult to understand for a practitioner or a manager (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997) . Helping behaviors are many a times taken for granted, but they are essential and can be related to organizational performance. Organ (1988) has broadly characterized OCB into four characteristics. These are altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and courtesy. *Altruism* involves helping another individual with an organizationally relevant task or a problem. *Conscientiousness* is doing one's duties well beyond the prescribed requirements.

Sportsmanship is the willingness to bear small inconveniences without protest or fuss so that the organizational task gets done smoothly and overall the organizational energy is

conserved. It involves mature behavior on part of the employee who does not whine or complain to the supervisor for small or petty issues. Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) extend this rather narrow definition of sportsmanship to include being positive when things do not go their way, not getting offended by others in case they do not follow their suggestions and not taking refutation of their ideas personally. Essentially it involves giving the organizational or the group's interest a priority over personal interest. *Courtesy* is the understanding that employee exhibits towards preventing others' problems and respecting others' needs. This helps in preventing other employees' problems.

Civic virtue is a form of promotive behavior, that can range from being affiliative to being challenging. They are prosocial behaviors with the underlying intent of making positive contributions to the organization. It is this intent that separates them from the self-serving affiliative and influencing behaviors. The continuum on one end is made up of behaviors which are associated with gathering information, are affiliative, solidify and preserve relationships, overtly cooperative and are uncontroversial. The other end of the continuum are behaviors associated with exercising influence. These behaviors are change oriented and are challenging the status quo. They involve giving constructive suggestions for change and focus on task performance so that high standards of excellence are displayed by the organization (Graham & Van Dyne, 2006). It involves being responsible, being constructively involved and participation in issues confronting the group and organization.

1.2.1.1.2 Antecedents of OCB

What are the factors which lead to an employee performing an OCB? Broadly, the antecedents can be divided into four categories. These are individual (employee) characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics and specific leader behaviors (Podsakoff,

MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Individual characteristics could be attitudinal, dispositional, could be related to role perceptions, could be related to employee abilities and individual differences or it could be due to demographic variables.

As far as task characteristics go, task scope, task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks incentivize the employee to perform OCBs.

Some organizational characteristics like degree of formalization (lesser is better), flexibility, advisory or staff support, cohesiveness of the work group and spatial distance amongst the employees has been found to encourage OCBs.

Leader behaviors that have been studied which make an impact on OCB can come under the transformational leadership behaviors, transactional leadership behaviors like contingent reward behaviors and path-goal theory based leadership like supportiveness have been shown to encourage OCBs.

1.2.1.1.3 Impact of OCB

Though studies on OCBs have been done since 1980's there is an increased interest in the concept. The reason is that social and emotional intelligences have been shown to give an edge to organizations otherwise equal in resources. Hence, if the social machinery of the organization works smoothly and efficiently with least amount of friction, the organization would be rewarded with enhanced productivity.

The following areas would get impacted by OCBs performed by the employees and that in turn enhances the organizational effectiveness according to Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997). When an experienced employee helps out a newly joined employee in explaining the practices and norms followed it makes this newcomer reach the performance level faster and frees up the organizational resources which would be needed to induct him/her in their role. Also, this kind of

help leads to spreading of 'best practices' in the organizations leading to enhanced *co-worker productivity*. When civic virtues like attending meetings are practiced and authentic feedback is shared by the employees in the interest of the organization, it helps the organization improve.

OCBs help the organization *free up productive resources* and increase *managerial productivity*. When co-workers are courteous, help each other, they avoid creating problems for their team leading to smooth functioning of the organization. A conscientious employee invites delegation and reduced supervision, leading to reduction of resources to manage maintenance functions in a team or department. Sportsmanship displayed by employees help the organization get over petty matters faster and lead to high morale and cohesiveness amongst the employees. Simple courtesies avoid intergroup conflicts too.

OCBs support *coordination* amongst different segments of the organization. Employees 'touching base' with the affected members, actively participating in meetings etc lead to lesser friction due to systemic challenges. This also leads to reduction of problems at work or smoothening of organizational systems increasing organizational effectiveness

OCBs aid a lot in *talent retention*. Helping behaviors of employees along with high morale also lead to a sense of belongingness which attracts and retains employees. Sporting behaviors like not complaining about trivial matters, sets an example in other employees inspiring a sense of loyalty and commitment.

The talent retention helps in maintaining the *stability of organizational performance*. Picking up the slack of burdened or absent employees leads to a stable or high output. OCBs also help in *managing change* for the organization. When employees who are in the boundary spanning roles share the information, they pick up from the market, they forewarn the organization about the changes happening in the marketplace. When required, sportsmanship of

learning new skills or taking on additional or new responsibilities helps enhance an

organization's capacity to manage change.

Another important consequence of OCB is the managerial evaluation of performance.

Though originally OCB definition identified those behaviors which were not part of the

employees' job description, due to various reasons listed in Fig 1-2 he/she is likely to rate an

employee displaying OCB more favorably.

Potential Reasons for Positive managerial assessment	Norms of fairness or reciprocity e.g. if an OCB has supported a manager, he would rate the employee as a fair gesture
	If a manager implicitly believes that OCB and organizational performance are related (Implicit performance theory)
	Schema of a "good employee" gets triggered when a manager observes an employee performing OCB
	Behavioral distinctiveness of an observed OCB
	Attributional Process of attributing an OCB to internal, stable cause
	Illusory correlations due to rater bias like undersampling, engulfing, insufficient concreteness of the scale

Figure 1-2 Why does an employee exhibiting OCB get a positive rating?

An important point to be noted related to OCBs is the agreeableness of OCBs to the organization. A book review of Organ's (1988) book finds the concept ideologically favoring the organization (Bies, 1989). In case the behavior displayed by the employee (e.g. whistleblowing) may not be in the interest of the current management but of the organization's long-term survival, would it be called OCB or not? This is a question which many organization behavior specialists are grappling with.

1.2.1.2 PsyCap and OCB

Studies have found that PsyCap is positively related to desirable employee behaviors (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011). One such desirable behavior is OCB. One can surmise that those high in PsyCap visualize good things to happen to them (optimism), believe that they can be instrumental in their own and others' success (efficacy and optimism) and are impervious to hindrances (resilience). Whether a cause and effect relationship can be established between PsyCap and OCB is a matter of future research.

1.2.2 Counterproductive Workplace Behavior

Do employees always work in the interest of the organization? Or are there times when an employee indulges in behaviors which are harmful to colleagues, bosses or the organization itself? When the behavior of an employee harms or intends to harm an organization or its members, it is called as counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (Spector & Fox, 2002). It has also been called to date, revenge (Bies & Tripp, 1998), antisocial behavior in organizations (Giacalone, 1997), organizational retaliatory behaviors (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996), organization motivated aggression (O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996), organizational delinquency (Hogan & Hogan, 1989). The umbrella term covers all the behaviors performed by employees which are not in the legitimate interest of the organization. These are acts which are volitional and not unintentional. The acts intend to harm either the organization or its stakeholders (e.g. users, colleagues, superiors, etc). The most common CWBs are taking extended breaks, gossiping about coworkers, being late for work without permission or complaining about their employer to others. CWB also includes abusive behaviors, aggression (verbal or physical), slowing down work deliberately, sabotage, theft and withdrawal in the form

of refusal to cooperate, absence, being late or turnover (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). These may be directed towards either the organization in general or towards peers or superiors i.e. other people. Behaviors which are directed toward other individuals in organizations (e.g. blaming colleagues, spreading rumors) are called interpersonal deviance. Behaviors which are directed towards the organization (e.g leaving early, wasting resources) are called organizational deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

1.2.2.1 Antecedents of CWB

What leads to employees indulging in CWBs? Is it any way connected to their personality? Is it due to environmental factors or is it due to due to personal characteristics? Or is due to different situations that arise in a working professional's environment? Three situational causes of CWB are *norms* prevalent in the organizations, *stress* induced CWB and *injustice*. Norms are standards of behavior in social situations. In order to fit in with a group, people behave in ways which match the norms of the group. Norms become an important situational antecedent of CWB when CWB is considered typical or common behavior within an organization. Punching in late is a CWB_ but if everyone does it_ a newly joined employee does not take the trouble to be in time.

Another school of thought emphasizes the emotions felt when employee experiences stress as the source of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005). When an employee *perceives* that an environmental condition is stressful, he or she feels anxious, angry or dissatisfied. This is likely to lead to CWB. The moderators in this model are personality traits like negative affectivity, anger, anxiety, narcissism and locus of control. The stressor emotion model of CWB (Penney & Spector, 2008) explains how an event in the environment which induces negative emotion leads to CWB. The stressful events could be situational constraints, skirmishes at work, role related

issues, etc. During such a situation, if an employee attributes a hostile intention to the agent of the event, a stressful situation is created. Personality variables like negative affectivity (Watson & Clark, 1984) i.e. predisposition to experience negative emotion exacerbates the situation. The negative moods experienced by such an individual lead to a downward spiral of perceiving the world as stressful and worsen the situation. Thus, negative emotions play a pivotal role between perceived event and CWB.

Another personality trait that affects CWB is trait anger. Trait anger Events that provoked anger also led to verbal and physical aggression. When the cause of anger is from a higher status group, individuals are more likely to indulge in withdrawal or revengeful CWBs (Fitness, 2000).

Injustice from the perspective of CWB

Sometimes employees are treated unjustly by the people within the organization or by the organization. The wronged employee/s may react to this unfair treatment by engaging in CWB.

Personality and CWB

One environmental characteristic that has been found significantly affecting CWB is job stress (Salami, 2010; Penney & Spector, 2005). Job stressors like workload, leadership problems, interpersonal conflict, workplace incivility lead to co-worker targeted aggression. Situational constraints like working conditions, inadequate resources interfere with task performance building up frustration amongst employees. This leads to employee either reducing their inputs thus trying to right the wrong done to them or indulge in CWBs to reduce the perceived distributive injustice (Salami, 2010). In case the employee blames an individual for these challenges then the CWBs are targeted towards the person responsible for unfair distribution (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999).

Another characteristic affecting CWB is negative affectivity. It is one of the most commonly studied personality variables in the context of CWB.

Bennett and Robinson's two factor Model

Bennett and Robinson have proposed classifying CWB based on the target of CWB. Organizational CWB represents behaviors that are targeted to the organization and not at specific individuals. Typically, such behaviors include wasting time, talking negatively about the organization to others or being late.

1.2.2.2 Impact of CWB

Edward Snowden, a former contract employee of Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and National Security Agency (NSA) of United States in 2013, disclosed classified information to the *Guardian* and the *Washington Post*. Though Snowden's example is an extreme example which led to discussion of right to privacy the world over, one is able make out the ramification of employees indulging in CWB. When they do, it reduces the productivity of the organization as some resources may be misused or underused. If the employee indulges in acts like theft of property or material either raw material or finished goods, the organizations input costs go up leading to reduced efficiency. It can also mean increased insurance cost. Such behaviors of a few employees can lead to lower morale, absenteeism and sometimes even turnover of other employees.

The next outcome variable used in this study is work engagement, a positive workplace emotion.

1.3 Workplace Emotions

Initially emotions were not considered to be a significant aspect of work. But from the time when emotional intelligence started getting importance, they became an aspect of work that

needed to be studied. Recognizing that an employee is not just a pair of hands but also has a heart and mind recognizes that "human beings" are working for an organization. Emotions can be source of competitive advantage or they can pull an employee down. This study looked at one of each of these.

1.3.1 Work Engagement

Work engagement is considered to be one of the highest kinds of employee attributes. When engaged in one's work deeply, an employee becomes one with what she/he is doing and for some time at least the outside reality ceases to exist. The concept was introduced by Kahn (1990) describing it as 'harnessing one's self at work thus expressing one's self physically, cognitively and emotionally in work roles (Kahn, 1992). Work engagement involves the employee emotionally. It is considered as a manifestation of the psychological presence of the employee. Some theorists consider it as antithesis of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). An employee suffering from burnout is exhausted, cynical and unable to concentrate on his or her work. In contrast, an engaged employee is devoting energy and identifies strongly with his or her work. It entails a behavioral aspect (vigor), emotional aspect (dedication) and a cognitive aspect (absorption) of work.

Differentiating Work Engagement.

Many a times work engagement is confused with other concepts like employee engagement, extra-role behavior, personal initiative, organizational commitment, job involvement, job satisfaction, positive affectivity, flow and workaholism. Hence it is important to differentiate amongst these concepts.

Work Engagement is sometimes used interchangeably with Employee Engagement, but both these are distinct. Employee engagement introduced by Gallup in 1990s also includes the

employee's relationship with the organization. On the other hand, work engagement refers to the employee's relationship with his or her *work*.

Extra-role behavior is the additional, voluntary effort undertaken by an employee and an engaged employee may go out of his way for some tasks. If one limits work engagement to these behaviors only, one would miss out on the *'different'* behaviors like creative problem solving that engaged employees display. Personal initiative consists of self starting behavior, proactivity and persistence (Frese & Fay, 2001). These are connected to the vigor component of the broader concept of work engagement. Job involvement is the degree to which a person identifies with his work (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). This sense of identity is related to work engagement but it is not sufficient to define work engagement. Organizational commitment is the strength of identification and involvement that an individual has with his or her organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). In contrast, work engagement is the identification with *work* itself.

Job satisfaction is a 'positive emotional state' due to a positive appraisal of one's job (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction arises from satiation (contentment, calmness, serenity) with one's job whereas work engagement is with activation of behaviors (alertness, excitement, enthusiasm). Positive affectivity is a context free dispositional trait and work engagement can be considered as a domain specific psychological state. This can be seen in the overlap in Positive Affectivity scale of the PANAS items (e.g. alert (absorption), enthusiastic (dedication), inspired (dedication), proud (dedication) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Csikzentmihalyi (1990) in his book flow describes a theory of optimal experience where the individual experiences a feeling of mastery, effortless concentration, a deep sense of enjoyment and being challenged. Being fully absorbed in the work, one does come close to this feeling of flow but flow experiences are not limited to only work related experiences and they

could be *short term* peak experiences. Workaholism is an uncontrollable deep need to work at the cost of one's health and happiness. In contrast, engaged employees work because they find work challenging and fun (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010).

1.3.1.1.1 Theoretical background of Work Engagement

Work Engagement as a concept has base in two theoretical constructs. One positions work engagement as the antithesis of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). This is grounded in the Job Demands Resources (JD - R) Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The other posits it as a state representing fulfillment of psychological needs like autonomy, relatedness and competence which lead to personal growth and well being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Evidence shows that both these theoretical perspectives are compatible (Timms & Brough, 2013).

Let us look at how each one explains the variance ins the work engagement of the employees. Research has shown that the psycho-social environments experienced by the employees at workplace has an important impact on the mental well being of the workforce (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Work engagement is the culmination of two types of factors which operate in the work environment: Job demands placed on the employee and the resources available to the employee to reach the work goals. The physical, mental, social and/ or organizational characteristics of the job that demand a continued physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills are the job demands which may differ from profession to profession. These may lead to physical and/or psychological costs. The demands could be high work pressure, an unfavorable physical environment like working at high temperature in a rubber processing plant, and/or emotionally demanding interactions with clients. Though not always negative, they may lead to stress when meeting them requires great effort on part of the

employee. Job resources refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that support an employee to reach their desired work goals. These resources may reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs but are not limited to only that. They also stimulate personal growth, learning, and development and are important in their own right. The demands get tempered by the presence of resources.

The other theoretical perspective on Work engagement has its roots in the selfdetermination theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The SDT explains how high- quality viable motivation and volitional engagement affects performance as well as wellness in organizations and work engagement is one of the wellness indicators of the organization. According to SDT, work motivation can be thought of as a continuum with externally regulated motivation on one end to intrinsic motivation on the other (See Fig 1-3 **Error! Reference source not found.**). But these motivations have different types of catalysts, concomitants and outcomes.



Figure 1-3 The Extrinsic Motivation Continuum as per SDT

Extrinsic motivation is when an activity is done to gain a consequence whether tangible or not. These behaviors are thus instrumental behaviors. As shown in Fig.1-3 it is continuum. Controlled motivation is when an employee is controlled by either power or rewards which are dependent on performance. It is powerful in gaining improvements in specific behaviors. But it narrows down the employee's efforts and the gains produced are short term. It may also affect their future performance and work engagement. The next level of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation. This involves performance based on the approval or disapproval from their leaders and accordingly jobs are performed. Introjected behavior is affected by self-esteem, involvement of the ego, guilt and wanting status and recognition. The next level is identified regulation. The individual has identified why their work is valuable and important and hence are performing work roles and behaviors accordingly. This rationale helps them to more autonomously self-regulated. It also gives them the flexibility of selecting and sustaining their behavior and activities. The last level is the integrated regulation of behaviors when people assimilate and integrate their identifications. It is the most developed and volitional form of extrinsic motivation. Without integration there is a potential for conflict among different identities (e.g., one's identity as a job holder may clash with one's identity as a family member). When this identification is integrated, people are able to be purposefully engaged in their work without internal conflicts. Intrinsic motivation is the kind of motivation where the employee indulges in the activity for the sheer joy of indulging in the behavior. The reward from the activity is the spontaneous experiences and the joy which the activity produces.

According to SDT, employees having more autonomous motivation display greater persistence, performance quality and well being over time. Wherever the employee's manager or leader are themselves autonomous and display support for his or her need for autonomy,

employees are deeply engaged in their work. (Van den Broeck, De Cuyper, De Witte, & Vansteenkiste, 2010). This is not limited only to individualistic western cultures only (Ryan & Deci, 2001)

1.3.1.2 PsyCap and Work Engagement

The relationship between PsyCap and WE is ambiguous. Some studies have correlated both. In some studies PsyCap has been used as a moderator. Hence the current study assumes that there is no relationship and explores it further.

1.3.2 Emotional Labor

With the advent of the service industry, the people and their emotions to be used as a commodity came into play. It was just not enough that the service be provided to the customer, but the service should be provided with a *smile*. This is reflected in numerous advertorials where the passenger comfort or patient wellness or customer delight is incomplete without an ever-smiling frontline service provider. When one's work-role demands that a certain set of emotions have to be displayed for achieving organizational goals, the concept of emotional labor (EL) comes in. EL is the act of expressing organizationally desired emotions during a service transaction.

It was brought into the limelight with Hochschild's (1983) *The Managed Heart*. In it, Hothschild talks about how the flight attendants are trained as freshers to make their smiles as their biggest asset. Mann's (1999) *Hiding what we feel, faking what we don't: Understanding the role of your emotions at work* EL began to be studied by the academicians and practitioners both particularly in the twentyfirst century.

Reena Patel's *Working the Night Shift: Women in India's Call Centre Industry* (2010) describes although from a gendered perspective how the women employees undertake a cheerful

and positive demeanor and accent to cater to primarily European and American market customers. The present study also included a sample from a Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) unit but the sample consisted of employees who provided support to the callers. They belonged to the Accounts receivables department. EL is affected by following factors:

- Frequency of appropriate emotional display
- Attentiveness required to display rules
- Variety of emotions required for the display
- Emotional dissonance generated

EL is experienced by the employee because there is planning, control and skill required to regulate and display appropriate emotions. To do so, an employee's self gets invested in it. As part of an occupational role like that of a customer service executive, the job holder not only has to solve the issue the customer has raised, but deliver the solution with an appropriate emotion. The job holder is expected to express organizationally desirable emotions irrespective of felt emotions.

The job holder may have to feign or hide emotions, which may cause an emotional strain. Faking of the unfelt emotion is labeled as surface acting (SA). The term was coined by Hochschild (1983) who used the dramaturgical perspective of the customer or the patient as the audience, the job holder as the actor and the occupational role as a stage. She distinguished between two forms of EL, i.e. SA and deep acting (DA). SA is when the employee regulates their emotional expression. The person simply acts as though the desired emotion is really felt (e.g. smiling to an annoying patient). SA is careful presentation of verbal and non-verbal cues which are appropriate to the work role. In surface acting an employee acts as if the required or

appropriate emotion is really felt. The employees modify and control their emotions to meet work demands (Grandey, 2003; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2003)

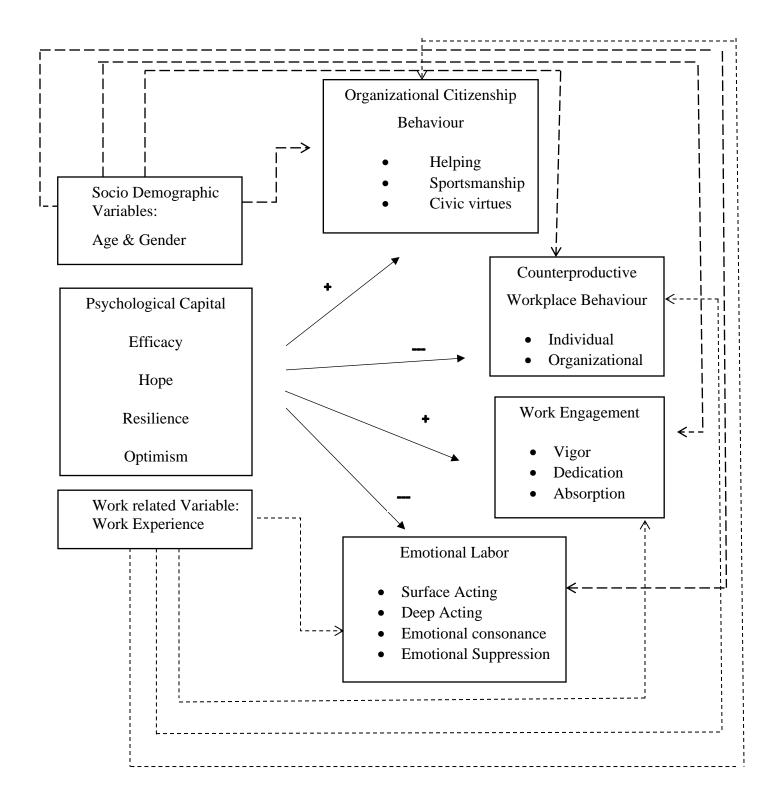
DA is when the employee tries his or her best to experience and feel the emotions required. These are induced feelings through thinking about a situation which is appropriate to the situation. The employee actually tries to experience the emotion he or she is supposed to convey in the interaction. DA is defined as regulating one's emotions in order to produce specific emotions. (Näring, Briët, & Brouwers, 2007). Deep acting involves effort to change one's feelings to be compatible with emotional requirements (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) or about the extent of using reappraisal or refocusing to improve moods in difficult interpersonal exchanges (Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004).

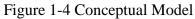
Two other components of EL were also added while studying EL. These were Emotional consonance and emotional suppression. Sometimes due to motivational factors or good moods the employee finds it easy to feel and display the required emotions. This would be emotional consonance. In order to pretend to show the required emotion, sometimes the employee suppresses felt emotions. This is called emotional suppression.

1.4 Conceptual Framework of the study

PsyCap has been shown to have a significant impact on work outcomes. It was theorized that a high PsyCap employee shall have to expend less emotional labor and would be highly engaged in their work. There have been studies which have supported that personal resources like PsyCap are important predictors of work engagement. (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). For the engaged workers PsyCap helps them to influence their work environment and manage their work engagement. Hur, Rhee, & Ahn (2016) have shown that High PsyCap service employees are able to work more through deep acting rather than surface

acting dimension of emotional labor, leading to lesser emotional exhaustion in turn affecting the turnover intention. PsyCap affects Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Suifan, 2016) in turn improving the organizational climate, thereby coming closer to the ideal proposed by Sinha, J.B.P. (2008) of a Work-centric nurturant organization. Because of the detrimental effects of the counterproductive work behaviors on organizations and employees, it is important to better understand the factors that influence these behaviors. Though a number of studies have been done, the present environment and the challenges faced by different organizations provides researchers with never before opportunities to make the most of the still untapped potential of PsyCap. Hence the following model has been visualized.





1.5 Rationale of the study

Much has changed in the last few years in the organizational context. The pace of change has increased exponentially. In order to manage and flourish in these challenging times, organizations will have to reinvent themselves. To do so, the key resource for this will be its people. It is now possible to buy technology, R&D, know-how, and get easy access to capital, making the quality of people the only differentiator. If PsyCap can proved to be the differentiator amongst employees or it can be developed in employees, and then employees will in its true sense be the "assets" of the company. Mr. Narayana Murthy, Chief Mentor at Infosys is often quoted as saying "*Our assets walk out of the door each evening*." For employee being truly the "asset" to be demonstrable, a study like this is needed, particularly in the Indian context.

Usually positive psychology interventions have been tested on clinical and student population (Meyers, Woerkro, & Bakker, 2012). In order to understand how the intervention applies and affects behavior in working population in organizations, this study focuses on employees working organizations. Usually workplace behaviors are studied from the paradigm of deficiency, paradigm of solving problems related to the work. But this study brings in an intervention which supports flourishing of employees in the workplace. Promoting healthy workplace behaviors is an area which has not been explored widely. Hence PsyCap has been used as a personal resource, which if developed can contribute to a vibrant workplace. The study explores whether PsyCap can make a significant contribution to people's behavior and workplace emotions.

Also, studies have been done using micro-intervention for development of PsyCap (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006; Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008), a detailed module to develop PsyCap is not available. It is also vital to empirically test and

validate an intervention module that would increase such an important personal resource i.e. PsyCap.

It was also important to see the long-term impact of imparting such a module. It can act as a reservoir of energy for employees to manage challenges. Does an increase in PsyCap lead to reduction of Counterproductive Work behaviors and increased Organization Citizenship Behaviors over time? Does it lead to reduction of emotional labor and increases the work engagement of employees over a long-term period? Answer to these questions will enhance the knowledge available in the field of organizational behavior and organization effectiveness in particular. PsyCap is shown to enhance workplace behaviors and emotions but most studies have been cross sectional. The present study observes the development of PsyCap using a focused intervention. Also, as per the researchers' knowledge, a longitudinal study in Indian organizations has not been attempted. This would also help explore the functioning of Indian organizations.

Another facet that has been studied is whether there are sector specific differences in PsyCap. Personal resources required to perform work roles which involve considerable emotional labor may be higher. This study would help in understanding the impact of higher personal resources like PsyCap. Do certain sectors like consultancy services and healthcare attract and require employees with higher PsyCap since they need to work with people directly. The study also explored whether different resources are effective in different industrial sectors. Different personal resources can be differentially useful for different sectors. The study also assumed that employees of different sectors may have different needs which will enhance or affect their workplace behaviors. Thus these employee needs coupled with sectoral requirements can make demands for different personal resources more meaningful and thus impact the efficiency of employees. The study also explored whether

PsyCap, workplace behaviors and workplace attitudes differ significantly across different sectors.

1.6 Objectives of the study

- 1. To develop an intervention module to enhance psychological capital and testify this module's effectiveness.
- To study whether improving Psychological Capital (PsyCap) would help reduce negative workplace behavior i.e. Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB), Emotional Labor (EL) and enhance positive workplace behavior i.e. enhance Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) and Work Engagement (WE).
- 3. To understand the relationship among dimensions of PsyCap and workplace behaviors and emotions (both positive and negative) i.e. OCB, CWB, WE and EL.
- To study if there are any differences in PsyCap, OCB, CWB, WE and EL of employees from different sectors.
- To explore the differential relationships among PsyCap dimensions and workplace behaviors and emotions across sectors.

In the backdrop of the review of literature, different sectors and the objectives the following hypotheses are conceptualized to be testified in the thesis.

1.7 Hypotheses

H 1 Psychological Capital dimensions (efficacy, hope, resilience, optimism) will affect Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) positively.

H 2 Psychological Capital dimensions will affect Counterproductive Work Behaviors(CWB) dimensions negatively.

H 3 Psychological Capital dimensions will affect Work Engagement (WE) dimensions positively.

H 4 Psychological Capital dimensions will affect Emotional Labor (EL) dimensions negatively.

H 5 Employees with high PsyCap will differ from employees with Low PsyCap on organizational citizenship behavior positvely.

H 6 Employees with high PsyCap will differ from employees with Low PsyCap in counterproductive workplace behavior negatively.

H 7 Employees with high PsyCap will differ from Employees with Low PsyCap in work engagement positively.

H 8 Employees with high PsyCap will differ from Employees with Low PsyCap in emotional labor negatively.

H 9 There will be a significant difference in the post intervention and follow up PsyCap scores of employees undergoing the PsyCap Development Intervention (experimental group) and the Non-related (control group) Intervention.

H 10 The experimental and the control group will differ significantly on the post intervention and follow up scores of organizational citizenship behaviors.

H 11 The experimental and the control group will differ significantly on post intervention and follow up scores of counterproductive workplace behaviors.

H 12 The experimental and the control group will differ significantly on the post intervention and follow up scores of Work Engagement.

H 13 The experimental and the control group will differ significantly on post intervention and follow up scores of Emotional Labor.

H 14 There would not be any significant difference in PsyCap across different age groups.H 14a There would not be any significant difference in Organizational citizenship behavior scores and its facets' scores across different age groups.

H 14b There would not be any significant difference in counterproductive workplace behaviors scores across different age groups.

H 14c There would not be any significant difference in work engagement scores across different age groups.

H 14d There would not be any significant difference in emotional labor scores across different age groups.

H 15 There would not be any significant difference in PsyCap scores across employees with different work experience.

H 15 a There would not be any significant difference in organizational citizenship behavior scores across employees with different work experience.

H 15 b There would not be any significant difference in counterproductive workplace behaviors scores across employees with different work experience.

H 15 c There would not be any significant difference in work engagement scores across employees with different work experience.

H 15 d There would not be any significant difference in emotional labor scores across employees with different work experience.

H 16 There would not be any significant difference amongst males and females in PsyCap scores.

H 16 a There would not be any significant difference amongst males and females in organizational citizenship behavior scores.

H 16 b There would not be any significant difference amongst males and females in counterproductive workplace behavior scores.

H 16 c There would not be any significant difference amongst males and females in work engagement scores.

H 16 d There would not be any significant difference amongst males and females in emotional labor scores.

H 17 There would not be any significant difference in PsyCap scores of employees from different sectors.

H 17 a There would not be any significant difference in OCB scores of employees from different sectors.

H 17 b There would not be any significant difference in CWB scores of employees from different sectors.

H 17 c There would not be any significant difference in WE scores of employees from different sectors.

H 17 d There would not be any significant difference in EL scores of employees from different sectors.

H 18 There would not be any significant relationship between OCB scores and CWB scores of employees.

H 19 There would not be any significant relationship between OCB scores and WE scores of employees.

H 20 There would not be any significant relationship between OCB scores and EL scores of employees.

H 21 There would not be any significant relationship between CWB scores and WE scores of employees.

H 22 There would not be any significant relationship between CWB scores and EL scores of employees.

H 23 There would not be any significant relationship between WE scores and EL scores of employees.