Review of Literature
The topic of the research has been selected after a rigorous search of the review of literature in the area. In light of the empirical findings the problem, aim and hypothesis were framed. Some of the findings are described in the following pages.

**Positive Psychology and Positive Thinking**

Positive thinking is looking at the brighter side of situations, making a person constructive & creative. Positive thinking is related with positive emotions and other constructs such as optimism, hope, joy and wellbeing. McGrath (2004) defined positive thinking as a generic term referring to an overall attitude that is reflected in thinking, behaviour, feeling and speaking. Positive thinking is a mental attitude that admits into the mind; thoughts, words and images that are conducive to growth, expansion and success.

Negative thinking is thoughts that imply criticism or devaluation of self. These thoughts dominate the perception of a depressed person. People who think negatively do not expect things to go as planned therefore anticipating bad outcomes. Their coping with daily stressors becomes dysfunctional and they develop psychological and physical health problems. Historically, psychologists have been solely focused on negative mental states leading to pathology and disorder. The influence of positive thinking, positive emotions on life satisfaction, quality of life and health outcomes was generally neglected.
However the last few years have been marked by renewed interest in positive psychology. Many researchers have examined the beneficial effects of positive thinking, positive feeling, positive emotions and positive behavioural qualities on psychological as well as physical well-being (Fredrickson 2001; Seligman and Csikszentmihaly, 2000; Taylor et al., 1992).

Fredrickson’s broaden and build theory (1998, 2001) of positive emotions suggests that a critical adaptive purpose of positive emotions is to help prepare the individual for future challenges. Following Fredrickson’s model, Lyubomirsky (2005) suggested that people experiencing positive emotions seek to attain new goals (Carver, 2003). Positive thinkers encounter circumstances with optimism and if they encounter stressful situations they appraise it as controllable and use coping strategies that are functional, efficient and problem focused. Positive thinkers feel that life is going well, their goals are being met and resources are adequate (Carver & Scheier, 1998; Cantor et al., 1991).

Positive thinking is related with positive psychology. The phenomena of positive psychology have been found in Greek and Eastern philosophy, the Bible, historical accounts and linguistic origins of words which provide important information about human strengths. Schimmel (2000) echoed that psychologists working on the dimension of positive psychology should explore their roots as exemplified in ancient philosophy and religious writings.
Positive psychology also has its root in humanistic psychology which focuses on uniquely human issues such as self-actualization, hope, love, health, creativity, nature, being, becoming, individuality, and meaning.

Humanistic psychology is well established as the first organized form of positive psychology. It emerged in the 1950s as the third force in psychology in reaction to both behaviourism & psychoanalysis. The discipline included Abraham Maslow, Carl Roger & Rollo May who stressed on a phenomenological view of human experience, seeking to understand human behaviour by conducting qualitative research. It tended to look beyond the medical model of psychology, in order to open up a non-pathologizing view of person.

Recently, American psychologists devoted its millennial issue to the emerging science of positive psychology, positive character and positive institutions (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In their review of different approaches to positive psychology, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi noted that the early incarnations of humanistic psychology lacked a cumulative empirical base and some directions encouraged self-centeredness such as narcissism, egoism and selfishness. The association of humanistic discourse with narcissistic and overly optimistic worldviews is a misreading of humanistic theory. In their response to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000), Bohart and Greening (2001) noted that along with pieces on self-actualization and individual fulfillment, humanistic psychologists have also published papers on a wide
range of social issues such as the promotion of international peace and understanding, awareness of the holocaust, the reduction of violence and the promotion of social welfare and justice for all.

A meta-analysis conducted by Lyubomirsky and King (2005) about the benefits of frequent positive thinking, in terms of positive affect, optimism, happiness, satisfaction with life and other related concepts, found that positive affect engenders success across multiple life domains, including work performance, social relationship, perception of self and others, sociability, activity, physical wellbeing, coping, problem solving, creativity and health.

A number of constructs have been introduced in the coping literature to explain the capacity of some individuals to maintain a positive outlook during negative life circumstances. Optimism (defined as attributional style, Seligman, 1991, or as general positive expectancy, Carver & Scheier, 1991, 2001), extraversion (McCrae & Costa, 1986), sense of coherence (Antonovsky, 1988, 1993), hope (Synder, 2000) and hardness (Maddi & Kobassa, 1991) all refer to general trait that are correlated with positive affect and promote positive thinking during difficult circumstances and all have been related with positive health outcomes (e.g., Maruta, Colligan, Malinchoc, & Offord, 2000; Snyder, 2000). For example, research has demonstrated that optimistic individuals remember potentially threatening health relevant information more than pessimists (Aspinwall, 1998; Aspinwall & Brunhart, 1996). However, they
use humor and positive reframing instead of denial when coping with highly stressful events (Carver et al., 1993). One possibility is that the effects of these constructs on positive moods mediate their relation to physical health outcomes (Segerstorm, 2000). Although, these concepts differ in a variety of ways but their correlations with positive affect are well established (Clark & Watson, 1991). Carver and Scheier did a lot of research on optimists and pessimists. Optimists are quicker to accept a challenge. They engage in more focused, active coping when such efforts are likely to be productive. They are less likely to display signs of disengagement or giving up (Scheier & Carver, 2001). Optimistic women used more adaptive coping strategies and had lower level of perceived stress (Anne, 2007). Scheier and Carver (1985) found that optimistic students coped well with difficult situations during the semester and reported less physical symptoms. Optimistic women who were pregnant were more likely to engage in constructive thinking than the pessimistic ones (Park et al., 1997). Furthermore, constructive thinking also correlated negatively with anxiety and positively correlated with a positive state of mind.

Shiota (2006) observed the effect of positive coping strategies on daily stressors. Dispositional use of positive emotions inducing coping strategy was mostly associated with positive aspects of well-being. Positive emotional granularity (PEG) is the tendency to represent experience of positive emotions with precision and specificity. This exerts an important influence on coping by making the individual more attentive to the situation at hand. Therefore the
person is more likely to scan coping options thoroughly and less likely to respond spontaneously (Tugade & Fredrickson 2004). Positive thinking has been effective during the resettlement stage of the immigration process. Cognitive strategies of positive comparison and optimistic thinking were utilized by the immigrants to change the meaning of resettlement difficulties (Wong and Denial, 2007).

Evidences from a variety of sources show that happy people are more satisfied with their jobs than unhappy people (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000). Positive effect at work has been found to be directly associated with reduced absenteeism (George, 1989). Positive thinkers appear to secure better jobs. In one study employees high in dispositional positive affect had jobs as rated by trained observers that had more autonomy, meaning and variety (Staw, Stutton, & Pelled, 1994). In a meta-analysis of 27 studies of affect and job satisfaction, Connolly & Viswesvaran, concluded that 10%-25% of the variance in job satisfaction was accounted for by measures of dispositional effect. Employees high in dispositional effect receive relatively more favorable evaluations from supervisors and others (Staw et al., 1994). In Staw and colleague’s study, managers of high positive effects employees of three Midwestern organizations gave them higher evaluations for work quality, productivity, dependability and creativity. Staw and Barsade (1993) found that, as rated by objective observers, those high in dispositional positive affect performed better on a manager assessment task. Positive thinkers and happy,
satisfied workers are more likely to be high performers on the job and they are less likely to show absenteeism, turnover, job burnout, and retaliatory behaviours (Donovan, 2000; Locke, 1975).

**Emotional Intelligence**

The popularity of the Emotional intelligence during the past decade has led researchers to examine its potency in various areas of human functioning. Thus, it has been found that trait or ability Emotional intelligence are related to life success (Bar-On, 2001), life satisfaction and well-being (Palmer, Donaldson, & Stough, 2002), interpersonal relationships (Fitness, 2001), occupational stress (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002; Slaski & Cartwright, 2002), work success and performance (Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004), leadership (Palmer, Walls, Bergess, & Stough, 2000), etc. In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in how emotional reactions and experiences affect both physical as well as psychological health. For example, it has been claimed that negative emotional states are associated with unhealthy patterns of physiological functioning, whereas positive emotional states are associated with healthier patterns of responding in both cardiovascular activity and immune system (Herbert & Cohen, 1993). Salovey, Rothman, Detweiler, and Steward (2000) discussed extensively the importance of emotional states on physical health. Furthermore, extended research in the field of health psychology has demonstrated the effect of negative mood or unpleasant emotional experiences on a number of habits or behaviours that have been
accused for unhealthy conditions, such as smoking (e.g. Brandon, 1994) and drinking (e.g. Cooper, Frone, Russell & Mudar, 1995). Several studies have also revealed a direct connection between emotional arousal (especially anger) and cardiovascular consequences (Friedman, 1992).

In another study, Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler, and Mayer (1999) reported that individuals who can regulate their emotional states are healthier because they “accurately perceive and appraise their emotional states, know how and when to express their feelings, and can effectively regulate their mood states”. This set of characteristics, dealing with the perception, expression and regulation of moods and emotions suggests that there must be a direct link between emotional intelligence and physical as well as psychological health. Indeed, Taylor (2001) argues that if you are emotionally intelligent then you can cope better with life’s challenges and control our emotions more effectively, both of which contribute to good psychological and physical health.

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is now being considered to be important in organizational factors such as: organizational change (Ferres & Connell, 2004; Singh, 2003); leadership (Ashkanasy, 2002; Dearborn, 2002; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Weymes, 2002); management performance (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002); perceiving occupational stress (Nicklaou & Tsousis, 2002; Oginska-Bulik, 2005); and life satisfaction (Palmer, Donaldson & Stough, 2002). To meet organizational ends (Lord, Klimiski, & Kanfer 2002) it is not uncommon
to use emotions and emotion related thoughts and behaviour as the ingredients in an institutionalized recipe of emotional culture.

Many scholars have theorized that high Emotional Intelligence contributes to success in various aspects of life including work and relationships (Goleman, 1995; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Because Emotional Intelligence theoretically includes the ability to understand and regulate others' as well as one's own emotions, it may be related to both characteristics that build relationships and the quality of those relationships (Schutte et al., 2001).

Furthermore, scholars have theorized that high Emotional Intelligence would lead to greater feelings of emotional well-being (Goleman, 1995; Saarni, 1999; Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Salovey et al., 1995; Schutte et al., 2002). Some empirical evidence that Emotional Intelligence is associated with emotional well-being comes from research indicating that higher Emotional Intelligence is associated with less depression, greater optimism (Schutte et al., 1998) and greater self-esteem (Schutte et al., 2002). Moreover, research found that individuals with higher Emotional Intelligence were better able to maintain a positive mood and self-esteem when faced with a negative state induction (Schutte et al., 2002).

Another study was done by Cavazotte, F., Moreno, V., & Hickmann, M. (2012) to investigate the effects of intelligence, personality traits and EI. Results revealed a relationship between EI and performance.
A study was done by Farh, C. I., Seo, M., & Tesluk, P. E. (2012) the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between EI and job performance by taking into account context of the job. Results showed that EI related more positively to performance under a high managerial work demands context of jobs that require management of diverse individuals, functions, and lines of business, potentially because such job contexts activate and allow high-EI individuals to act in emotionally intelligent ways that facilitate their performance. The results indicate that the relationship between EI and performance is not direct; thus, managers should recognize that selecting emotionally intelligent employees or training employees' EI may not lead to higher performance outcomes in all situations, but investing in the EI of employees working in jobs characterized by high managerial demands may be a good thing to do.

Song et al. (2010) studied the impact of general mental ability (GMA) and Emotional intelligence (EI) on college students' academic and social performance. While GMA and EI both had an influence on academic performance, GMA was found to be a stronger predictor of academic performance than EI. However, only EI, not GMA, was related to the quality of social interactions with peers.

A new study from the University of Haifa shows that within the private sector high levels of emotional intelligence empower positive attitudes towards the workplace; however, the same effect was not found within the public
sector. The study was conducted by Dr. Galit Meisler (2010). It surveyed 809 employees and managers within four organizations: two in the public sector and two in the private sector.

A comparison between the two sectors revealed a higher level of organizational politics in the public sector. Moreover, the political skills of public sector employees were much more developed. Yet, significant differences in employees' emotional intelligence level were not found. The study shows that emotional intelligence has a much greater impact on private sector employees' perceptions and attitudes compared to public sector employees. While no correlation was found between emotional intelligence and perceived organizational politics in the public sector, emotional intelligence was found to reduce perceptions of organizational politics in the private sector.

Moreover, the study found that employees from the public sector were more likely to use forceful influence tactics, regardless of their emotional intelligence level. In the private sector, however, employees with a higher level of emotional intelligence were less likely to use such tactics.

The study also revealed that in the private sector emotional intelligence contributes to forming desirable attitudes towards the organization, such as organizational justice, satisfaction at work and emotional commitment to the organization. High levels of emotional intelligence also reduce negative
attitudes, such as burnout, intentions to leave and the tendency to neglect work. The impact of emotional intelligence in the public sector, on the other hand, was not as strong.

In a study by Nelis et al. (2009), study participants were divided into two groups. One group received an EI training of four group sessions of 2-1/2 hours each. The other group did not receive any training. After the treatment was completed, the training group showed a significant increase in emotion identification and emotion management compared to the control group. Six months later, the training group still had the same improvement on emotion identification and emotion management. The control group showed no change.

Gopalakrishnan and Velayudhan (2006) conducted a study on Emotional Competence among different levels of authority. Emotional Competence of Trainees, Software Engineers, Team Leaders, Consultants and Project Managers were measured. Findings revealed that there was significant difference in Emotional Competence among these groups.

A study done by V. S. Athota, Peter J. O’Connor and C. Jackson investigates the potential role of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in Moral Reasoning (MR) (1999). Results demonstrated support for a proposed model of the relationship between Emotional Intelligence, personality and Moral Reasoning. Specifically, Emotional Intelligence was found to be a significant predictor of four of the Big Five personality dimensions (Extraversion,
Openness, Neuroticism, Agreeableness), which in turn were significant predictors of Moral Reasoning.

Few studies have been conducted that examine Emotional intelligence (EI) in graduate coursework, particularly in the field of educational administration and leadership (Cherniss, 1998; Jaeger, 2001; McDowelle & Bell, 2000). A lack of EI skills leads to ineffective team performance within organizations (Cherniss, 1998; McDowelle & Bell, 2000). In one study, a pretest/posttest experiment was conducted on graduate students. Students were assigned to separate sections of the same course and one section contained EI curriculum. At the end of the semester, gains in EI were measured among the participants of the EI section. (Jaeger, 2001). Such findings have led to proposals for EI training in graduate preparation programs (Jaeger, 2001; McDowelle & Bell, 2000).

Outside of the few studies conducted on the link between graduate preparation programs and EI, research in higher education has focused on the relation between EI and personal characteristics like sex, GPA, and learning disabilities (Bernet, 1996; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Reiff, Hatzes, Bramel, & Gibbon, 2001; Sutarso, 1996; Wells et al., 2000). In a study conducted on EI and sex, college-age participants were asked to self-estimate their EI before completing an EI instrument. Although most participants had some insight into their level of EI, their gender determined how highly they rated themselves. In
comparing self-estimated to actual EI scores, women scored higher than men even though women rated themselves lower in EI overall (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

In a similar study, the Emotional Intelligence Inventory was administered to 138 college students. Once again, women scored higher than their male counterparts. In regards to GPA, however, there was no significant effect (Sutarso, 1996). When students at a two-year college were studied, researchers sought to correlate college grades with EQ. Two student populations (an adult education group and a group of students in a pre-employment center) completed the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). There was no correlation between EQ and GPA, however (Wells et al., 2000).

**Optimism**

Research in optimism is a burgeoning field. There have been more studies on optimism in the last seven years than in the previous twenty. Reviewing the field of research on optimism, one is at first struck by the overwhelming number of positive outcomes associated with optimism and then by the widespread propensity that humans have for optimism or for a positive bias in their outlook on life and their self-assessment.

Psychologists classify the population as largely optimistic by their measurements i.e. Segerstrom (2006) claims some 80% of people are classified as optimistic, and Seligman (1990) claims 60% of people are somewhat
optimistic. Optimism has been highlighted as being an important evolutionary part of survival. In his book *Optimism: the Biology of Hope*, Tiger (1979) argued that it is one of our most defining and adaptive characteristics.

**Carver and Scheier - Dispositional Optimism**

Charles Carver and Michael Scheier coined the term ‘dispositional optimism’ to describe their approach – the global expectation that good things will be plentiful in the future and bad things scarce. They argued that optimism is associated with, and leads to, securing positive outcomes whereas pessimism is associated with greater negative outcomes (Scheier and Carver 1992, Scheier, Carver and Bridges 2001). For example, in studies of young adults, optimism has been found to be associated with greater life satisfaction (Chang, Maydeu-Olivares & D’Zurilla, 1997) whereas pessimism has been found to be associated with greater depressive symptoms (Chang et al 1997). Carver and Scheier see optimism as dispositional. They have found that optimists report fewer physical symptoms, better health habits and better coping strategies. Even among a group who had experienced the bad outcome of being diagnosed with breast cancer (Carver et al 1997) found that optimistic personality types experienced less distress, engaged in more active coping and were less likely to engage in avoidance or denial strategies.

**Explanatory Style**

Arising from Seligman’s famous “learned helplessness” research in the 70s and 80s, i.e. the reaction of giving up when faced with the belief that
whatever you do does not matter, was the related concept of “explanatory style”. This was developed from the analysis and patterns of how people explained events that happened to them. Seligman developed this analysis into the field of optimism with several other colleagues. He authored the books *Learned Optimism* and later *The Optimistic Child* to highlight the relationship between optimism and pessimism and certain styles of explanatory style. Seligman claimed in the former book, “An optimistic explanatory style stops helplessness, whereas pessimistic explanatory style spreads helplessness”. Seligman developed attributional retraining to help people “learn optimism”.

According to this perspective, those who explain away bad events with internal (caused by themselves), stable (will continue to occur) and global (will happen in other spheres of life) causes are described as pessimistic whilst those who favor external, unstable and specific causes are described as optimistic (Buchanan & Seligman, 1995).

The theory was devised in the context of learned helplessness and, as such, it may rely too heavily on the notion that the absence of pessimism creates optimism. The application of “learned optimism” focuses on reducing helplessness/depression through the cognitive therapy models developed by Beck (1967, 1979) and Ellis (Ellis and Harper, 1975). These cognitive behavioural techniques may not actually be teaching people “optimism”, but instead may just be reducing pessimism. Peterson, himself a proponent of
exploratory style, warns that “Research on optimism (i.e. optimistic explanatory style) will not be as substantial if it remains closely tied to helplessness theory.” (Peterson, 2006)

Seligman’s work with the Penn Resiliency Programme, and the programme outlined in his books, *Learned Optimism* and *The Optimistic Child* suggested optimism can be learned, but whether this was learning optimism or reducing pessimism is a point to consider. The programme was based on Beck and Ellis’s cognitive behavioural techniques devised to conquer depression. The concept of psychological immunity to depression is an exciting concept. However, the learned optimism programme as it stands may be more focused on stopping pessimism than enhancing optimism which is its own and different skill. Furthermore, in the specific area of learning optimism amongst children, there have been eleven replications, of which eight replicated the results, whilst three found no effects. Whilst the results are impressive in the studies that work (depression significantly reduced in children taught the optimism program) and with no boosters the optimistic child program prevents depression for two years.

However, by the third year the prevention effects fade (Gillham and Reivich et al, 1995). Segerstrom’s recent work, highlighted in her book *Breaking Murphy’s Law* (2006), demonstrates the connection between optimists and their investment in goal setting and perseverance in attainment.
Segerstrom argues that learning strategies that create the benefits associated with optimists are achievable. She cites evidence that shows that optimistic people pursue their goals more doggedly, leading them to build resources through goal pursuit or effective coping with stress. Segerstrom (2006) seems dismissive of the link between explanatory style and learning optimism “Although this trait and dispositional optimism share the optimism label they are actually fairly unrelated to each other.”

Other research has proven that optimism has a dark side too and that there are potential pitfalls to an optimistic personality. Robins and John (1997) have found that optimistic illusions of performance are more likely to be associated with narcissism than mental health. This research challenges the notion that optimism as a precursor for a happy and successful life is a given. This area of research shows examples where optimism has proven to have poor outcomes. Another angle has been in “quantifying” optimism, proving the hypothesis that too much of a supposed good thing can be bad for you. In his studies of unrealistic optimism, Weinstein (1989, 1984, Weinstein and Kliein, 1996) has proved evidence of the harmful effects of optimistic biases in risk perception related to a host of health hazards. Those who underestimate the risk, take less action. For example, Weinstein, Lyons, Sandman, and Cuite (1998) found that those who underestimated the risk of radon in their homes were less likely than others to engage in risk detection and risk reduction behaviours.
The last decade has brought research that is more sophisticated in terms of its preciseness in measurement. There is now a general acceptance that optimism is separate from extraversion and neuroticism and positive effect. Carver and Scheier conclude that neuroticism is the most interesting and may hold sub-points connected to optimism and pessimism which they encourage researchers to analyze. The evidence strongly supports the notion that optimism is a strong predictor for positive outcomes even when controlling for mood, affect and other personality dimensions. More studies show positive outcomes than not and no studies to date have shown pessimism as a predictor for healthy outcomes related to physical health.

Research is encouraging that, whilst optimism may be dispositional, it can indeed be learned. It has less inherited aspects than some of the other dispositional traits and as such is responsive to interventions. Segerstrom asserts her thesis in her book *Breaking Murphy’s Law*, “The thesis of this book is that optimists are happy and healthy not because of who they are but because of how they act”. Optimism is more what we do than what we are, and thereby can be learned. This has exciting implications for application and interventions.

Work by Tiger (1979) suggested that optimism is prevalent because it has adaptive utility. A substantial body of research now supports this but confirms that optimism is not without risk. In order to gain a better
understanding of optimism, it is important to consider the different types of optimism that researchers consider today.

- **Dispositional optimism** is defined as a global expectation that more good (desirable) things than bad (undesirable) will happen in the future (Scheier and Carver, 1985). As a personality trait, it is presumed to be stable with little scope for change and is alternatively described as big optimism (Peterson, 2000).

- The term ‘unrealistic’ in **unrealistic optimism** (Weinstein, 1989) describes the objective mismatch between the expectations of dispositional optimism and actuarial evidence about probability of life events occurring. It also refers to the presumed non-congruence between the inevitability of adversity and the anticipation of experiencing life as more good than bad. The question is whether it is irrational to view adversity as anything other than bad. If adversity is perceived as unpleasant at the time but sufficiently replete with opportunity for personal growth and learning as to be beneficial overall, this element of non-congruence between actuality and expectation is reduced or disappears.

- **Optimism as attributional style** views optimism as a style of reasoning about cause (Buchanan & Seligman, 1995). Optimists attribute good events with permanence (likely to recur), pervasiveness (the ‘goodness’
will extend to other future events) and internality (I caused it and can cause it again). Bad events are, by contrast, regarded as impermanent, non-pervasive and due to causes external to the self.

- **Comparative optimism** (Radcliffe and Klein, 2002) introduces relativity of expectation of good outcomes for the self-compared with a similar other.

- **Situational optimism** refers to the general expectations of a good outcome in a specific context.

- **Strategic optimism** (Ruthig et al., 2007) is a domain specific denial of risk based on a belief in having control.

- **Realistic optimism** is defined by Sneider (2001) with reference to Dregandpre (2000) as the ‘tendency to maintain a positive outlook within the constraints of the available measurable phenomena situated in the physical and social world'. Realism refers to the relationship between available knowledge and understanding at any given moment, possible choices and chosen actions.

- **Optimism bias** refers to the way knowledge evaluation has been shown to be skewed in predictable, positive and self-serving ways. More weight is given to information if it favors the self or it supports a desired conclusion (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Optimism helps people remember and recall personally relevant health related information (Abele and
Gendolla, 2007). People given identical descriptions or statistics will weight information differently when used to describe something they want (e.g. the tablet might cure them) or something they do not (e.g. the tablet might cause side-effects). The strength of this effect is not constant. Positive affect increases optimism bias, although motivation theory would predict the opposite (Chambers and Windschitl, 2004). In situations of limited opportunity to evaluate knowledge due to time pressure or lack of information, evaluations are based on affect (Lench and Ditto, 2008).

Optimism itself is not clean cut but is instead possessed in varying degrees (Peterson, 2000). He describes optimism as a ‘velcro construct, to which everything sticks’ (Peterson, 2000). Optimism is associated with specific coping styles, goal framing and positive affect. Optimists exhibit attention to positive information and show active engagement, positive reframing and problem solving type behaviours (Carr, 2004). Pessimists give more attention to negative information, and show passivity, denial and avoidance. However, most people operate in the middle ground and display a mixture of styles. Optimists tend towards goal commitment, where the aim is to achieve the end result, (Zang, Fishbach & Dhar, 2007) rather than goal pursuit, where the objective is to have a go. Goal commitment requires achieving the end result, so optimists persevere.
Seligman investigated attributional style optimism and success in sales insurance. He identified the top quartile of attributional style optimists amongst applicants for jobs as life insurance salesmen (extreme optimists) and found those selected on this basis performed much better and stayed in the job for longer than salesmen selected using standard industry tests. The same mechanism drives athletic performance (Seligman, 1992; Gordon, 2007) both in individuals and team sports. Attributional style optimists improve their times after being told they completed a slightly slow time trial whereas pessimists show a marked deterioration. Team performance can be predicted based on assessment of the attributional style optimism of team members and coaches. The key to performance was perseverance in the face of failure, a product of attributing bad events to one-off, non-pervasive external causes as optimists do.

A study of new venture performance (Hmieleski, 2007) examined the relationship between dispositional optimism and experience on the performance of entrepreneurial managers. Optimists were found to be more effective in stable environments and pessimists in dynamically unstable environments. Optimists base more of their decisions on previous experience and existing information allowing quick efficient decisions which are safe when the business background is well understood. This leads us into the downside of optimism. In an uncertain or rapidly changing business situation, the optimist’s relative inattention to detail, failure to seek new information and selective inattention to unpromising data can lead to poorly informed decisions.
Optimism bias is identified as one of two causes of a chronic inability to accurately anticipate costs of big projects, a major problem for governments and companies for over 70 years e.g. consistent under-anticipation of costs for rail projects and roads (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Inaccuracies consistently show a significant non-normal distribution suggesting bias rather than poor data. Inspired by Kahneman’s 2003 Nobel Prize winning work on decision making under uncertainty, Flyvbjerg looked for explanations and identified two causes. One was optimism bias in information assessment, causing real but unintentional errors of judgment. The errors are predictable, shared by experts and lay people and remain compelling even when people are made aware. Similar factors affect personal finance decisions.

Yang, Markoczy and Qi (2006) investigated the curious phenomenon that many people consistently pick credit card options which are disadvantageous for them. People often choose cards with a low annual fee and high APR, despite the fact that they regularly fail to clear their balances and pay much more than if they had a higher fee, lower APR card. These are the optimists. The high fee is an immediate but solvable problem (opt for the smaller fee) and the more distant possible failure to pay off the balance thus incurring interest, is an event they believe will not happen.

Harmful risk taking has long been assumed to be a danger of optimism and there is some evidence to support this. Optimism is associated with
rationalizing beliefs, like for example that lung cancer risk is mainly genetic, most cases of it are generally cured and smoking for a long time without disease developing means they are less likely to be affected (Dillard, McCaul & Klein, 2006). The high general optimism of children, especially boys, seems to be a contributory factor to accidental injury which is the leading cause of death in childhood (Little, 2006). Optimism seems to be prevalent because it helps much more than it harms and further understanding has tremendous potential for improving the human condition. However, reading the literature makes it clear that for every question answered at least one new one is raised, not least the possibility that optimism itself may affect the validity of research.

Self-Efficacy

Two decades have now passed since Bandura (1977) first introduced the construct of Self-efficacy with the seminal publication of "Self-efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioural Change." A decade later, Bandura (1986) situated the construct within a social cognitive theory of human behaviour that diverged from the prevalent cognitivism of the day and embedded cognitive development within a socio-structural network of influences. More recently, Bandura (1997) published Self-efficacy: The Exercise of Control, in which he further situated self-efficacy within a theory of personal and collective agency that operates in concert with other socio-cognitive factors in regulating human well-being and attainment. In this volume, Bandura also addressed the major facets of agency -- the nature and
structure of self-efficacy beliefs, their origins and effects, the processes through which such self-beliefs operate, and the modes by which they can be created and strengthened. In addition, Bandura reviewed a vast body of research on each of these aspects of agency in diverse applications of the theory.

During these two decades, the tenets of the Self-efficacy component of social cognitive theory have been widely tested in varied disciplines and settings and have received support from a growing body of findings from diverse fields. Self-efficacy beliefs have been found related to clinical problems such as phobias (Bandura, 1983), addiction (Marlatt, Baer, & Quigley, 1995), depression (Davis & Yates, 1982), social skills (Moe & Zeiss, 1982), assertiveness (Lee, 1983, 1984); to stress in a variety of contexts (Jerusalem & Mittag, 1995); to smoking behaviour (Garcia, Schmitz, & Doerfler, 1990); to pain control (Manning & Wright, 1983); to health (O'Leary, 1985); and to athletic performance (Barling & Abel, 1983; Lee, 1982).

Self-efficacy beliefs have also received increasing attention in educational research, primarily in studies of academic motivation and of self-regulation (Pintrich & Schunk, 1995). In this arena, self-efficacy researchers have focused on three areas. Researchers in the first area have explored the link between efficacy beliefs and college major and career choices, particularly in science and mathematics (Lent & Hackett, 1987). This line of inquiry has important implications for counseling and vocational psychology theory and
practice, given that findings have provided insights into the career development of young men and women and can be used to develop career intervention strategies. Findings from the second area suggest that the efficacy beliefs of teachers are related to their instructional practices and to various student outcomes (Ashton & Webb, 1986). In the third area, researchers have reported that students' self-efficacy beliefs are correlated with other motivation constructs and with students' academic performances and achievement. Constructs in these studies have included attributions, goal setting; modeling, problem solving, test and domain-specific anxiety, reward contingencies, self-regulation, social comparisons, strategy training, other self-beliefs and expectancy constructs, and varied academic performances across domains.

Self-efficacy's broad application across various domains of behaviour has accounted for its popularity in contemporary motivation research (Graham & Weiner, 1996). Now that two decades have passed, the time seems propitious to assess the direction that this bourgeoning line of inquiry has taken in academic contexts.

Since its conception, self-efficacy has been applied to different contexts (Bandura, 1977, 1982, 1997). Bandura has pointed out that self-efficacy is related to better health, better self-development and greater social integration. In the work context, for example, Speir & Frese (1997) studied generalized self-efficacy, showing that self-efficacy functions as a mediator in the
relationship between control and initiative when the latter is concurrent, and as a moderator when the personal initiative (PI) is retrospective.

A study has been done by Dr. Nita Gupta and Esha Sawhney (2009) to explore perceived occupational self-efficacy among Government and Private Sector executives. Results have revealed that as compared to male executives female executives have perceived more confidence and personal effectiveness. No other significant differences were obtained on other dimensions of self-efficacy.

Each employee in an organization has a certain perception of his or her ability to perform a given task. An employee’s confidence in his or her ability to perform a task can influence the employee’s performance (Bandura, 1977, 1982). The concept of Self-efficacy, or an individual’s belief in his or her ability to perform a task (Gist & Mitchell, 1992), has long been of interest to researchers in cognitive psychology and management (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy plays a large role in personal agency or the actions an individual selects to perform. Self-efficacy also is a direct antecedent to the likelihood of attempting an action and a direct antecedent to performance (Bandura, 1991).

An employee’s Self-efficacy has been linked to performance (Harrison, Rainer, Hochwarter, & Thompson, 1997), sales volume (Bagozzi, 1978), hope, optimism (Carifio & Rhodes, 2002), burnout (Salanova, Peiro, & Schaufeli, 2002) and other employee outcomes. However, tests of the self-
efficacy performance relationship in actual job settings remain limited (Harrison et al., 1997).

Bandura (2001) suggests that there has been a paradigm shift in the way that human decision and control is viewed in the literature. He suggests that psychology is beginning to understand that human agency plays a larger role in human behaviour than previously considered. Accordingly, if human decisions are based more on an individual’s perceptions than on rewards and punishments as previously considered (Kreitner & Luthans, 1984), Self-efficacy can play a large role in determining how effectively and efficiently an employee completes his or her work. If an employee has high levels of Self-efficacy, it is likely that the employee will perform at a higher level. Also this Self-efficacy is based partially on the information the employee has about the task to be performed and the employee’s ability to handle problems as they arise (Bandura, 2001).

If a manager engages an employee in problem-solving oriented communication, the employee will likely learn through the problem solving process. As the employee learns how to better handle problems as they arise with transactions, the employee will likely feel that he or she is better able to perform the tasks required by the job. Additionally, as an employee receives information from the manager concerning the work to be completed, this information will help the employee’s confidence in his or her ability to
perform the task. Therefore, it is here suggested that relational coordination efforts by a manager (information sharing and problem-solving oriented communication) will positively correlate with an employee’s level of task specific self-efficacy.

A recent meta-analysis of research findings regarding the relationship between Self-efficacy and Work performance reviewed 114 studies and found a 28% gain in task performance due to self-efficacy (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). This gain in task performance far exceeds the estimated gain from goal setting (10.39%), feedback interventions (13.6%), and organizational behaviour modification (17%). This suggests that organizational managers can improve the performance of their employees in an efficient and relatively inexpensive manner by enhancing employees’ personal efficacy beliefs.

**Emotional Intelligence and Optimism**

Research Shows Optimistic Employees Earn Higher Performance Scores. In a multi-national corporation NextiraOne in Italy, emotional intelligence scores were compared to scores in the company’s performance management system. Emotional intelligence proved to significantly predict job success and in particular the competency of Optimism was most highly predictive. This suggests that Emotional intelligence and particularly Optimism are important assets for career success.
A study was done by Augusto-Landa, José; Pulido-Martos, Manuel; Lopez-Zafra, Esther (2011) to examine the associations between perceived emotional intelligence, dispositional optimism/pessimism and psychological well-being. Results show positive relationships between clarity and emotional regulation and the psychological well-being components. With regard to dispositional optimism versus pessimism, positive relationships were found between optimism and psychological well-being dimensions and negative relationships between pessimism and dimensions of psychological well-being.

A study was done by Natalio Extremera, Auxiliadora Dura´n and Lourdes Rey (2007) to examine the relationships between perceived emotional intelligence and dispositional optimism/pessimism and psychological adjustment (perceived stress and life satisfaction). The study was done on a sample of 498 adolescents (202 males and 296 females). The results suggest that adolescents with high perceptions of emotional abilities (in particular, high clarity and repair) generally show higher life satisfaction and lower perceived stress. Moreover, to some degree, this effect might be considered as independent from their own optimistic or pessimistic dispositions.

**Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy**

Empirical research investigating the relationship between Emotional intelligence and Self-efficacy suggests that emotional intelligence is an important factor that contributes in the development of self-efficacy beliefs
among individuals. For instance, in his social cognitive theory Bandura (1997) argued that self-awareness, self-regulation, and control of emotions (all considered to be constituents of emotional intelligence) are critical in the development of self-efficacy perceptions. In addition, in a study that focused on the development process of self-efficacy Gundlach, Martinko, and Douglas (2003) argued that emotional intelligence, through its influence on the causal reasoning process and emotions involved in reacting to important workplace outcomes, has an impact in the development of self-efficacy among the individuals.

In a study Adeoye, Hammed (2010) investigated the impact of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy training on academic achievement in English Language of students in Senior Secondary Schools. There was a significant main effect of treatment on students' academic achievement in English language (F (2,269) = 364.447, P<0.05). Students exposed to Emotional intelligence training (x=42.81) performed better in the English language achievement test than those in the Self-efficacy training group (x=33.88) and those in the Control group (x=27.89). Though Emotional intelligence and Self-efficacy trainings tremendously enhanced the performance of the students in English Language, Emotional intelligence training had a more significant impact on students' academic achievement. It was recommended that students' academic achievement should be enhanced with the use of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy training.
A study was done by SAMUEL O. SALAMI (2010) to examine how Emotional intelligence, Self-efficacy and psychological well-being contribute to students’ behaviours and attitudes. This research indicated the need to emphasize positive psychology in improving the positive elements in students proactively rather than retroactively trying to solve problems that emerge in order to improve the quality of higher education.

A study was done by Lan Snell and Lesley White (2010) to investigate the role of self-efficacy (SE) and emotional intelligence (EI) on perceived quality and adherence. The findings suggest that self-efficacy and emotional intelligence moderate the relative strength of quality perceptions and also support a direct link between these variables and adherence.

A study was done by Neerpal Rathi and Renu Rastogi (2009) to explore the relationship among Emotional Intelligence (EI), occupational self-efficacy and organizational commitment. Data were collected from 120 employees working in various organizations in India. A positive and significant correlation is observed between Emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy (p< 0.01), whereas a positive relationship (not significant) is observed between Emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. Moreover, a low positive association is found between occupational self-efficacy and organizational commitment. The research implies that Emotional intelligence and occupational self-efficacy are related with a variety of organizationally desirable outcomes.
A study was done by Adeyemo, D. A. and Adeleye, A. T. (2008) to investigate Emotional intelligence, Religiosity and Self-efficacy as predictors of psychological well-being among secondary school adolescents. The results indicated that the three independent variables as a block were effective in predicting psychological well-being of adolescents. On the basis of the finding, it was suggested that teachers should endeavor to teach rudiments of emotional intelligence to the students while school counselors and psychologists should develop programs to foster emotional intelligence and self-efficacy.

In a study, conducted on Chinese secondary school teachers, Chan (2004) observed a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. In another study, carried out on a sample of teachers, Salami (2007) observed a positive association between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. Further, in their research Sinha and Jain (2004) found that assertiveness and positive self-concept and reality awareness (both considered dimensions of emotional intelligence) positively predicted personal effectiveness of individuals.

Optimism and Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy, Optimism and Social support have been consistently related to health and functioning. In the study done by Evangelos C. Karademas (2006) a specific hypothesis was tested: self-efficacy expectations, as a representation of a capable self and perceived social support, as a representation
of a helpful world, shape optimism which is an outcome expectation. Optimism in turn predicts satisfaction with life and depressive symptoms. Satisfaction with life and depressive symptomatology both served as indicators of well-being. According to only model that provided fit to the data, optimism partially mediates the relation of self-efficacy and perceived social support to well-being. Optimism was predicted by daily emotional support and self-efficacy. Research done on II year university student supports the result who were doing part time job they were examined, the effects of academic Self-Efficiency & Optimism on students’ academic performance, stress, health commitment and work performance. Academic Self-Efficacy and Optimism were strongly related to performance, adjustment and work environment. This research was conducted by Chemers Martin M Hu Li- tza Garcia Ben F (2011).

A study was done by Nina Oginska-Bulik (2005). The purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of experienced job stress and personal and social resources (e.g., sense of coherence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, dispositional optimism and social support) on health outcomes in employees of uniformed professions. The results of the study confirmed a significant role of personal and social resources and perceived social support in particular in reducing job stress and preventing negative health outcomes in the study group of workers of uniformed professions.
Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Emotional Intelligence has recently received more attention through claims of its ability to predict successful individuals (Cote & Miners, 2006). Research evidence demonstrates a significant relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and OCBs (e.g., Cote & Miners 2006; Jain, 2003; Singh, 2006; Sitter, 2004; Solan, 2008; Yaghoubi, Mashinchi, & Hadi, 2011). EI and OCBs have been identified as significant predictors of well-functioning individuals and organizations (Jain, 2009). Emotional intelligence had positive influence on OCB directed at the organization, but not for the OCB directed at individuals (Cote & Miners, 2006). Solan (2008) has also found evidence of the linkages between EI and OCB. Though, the relationship was not very strong. Yaghoubi, Mashinchi, and Hadi (2011) have also observed that emotional intelligence had positive impact on the OCB of followers. Similar results were also observed by Sitter (2004) who has found that leader’s EI had positive impact on employees’ performance of citizenship behaviour.

OCB will have positive relationship with EI. The reason may be that it enables employees to comprehend their co-workers’ feelings and to respond better than employees with low EI because of their ability to easily shift from negative to positive moods (Abraham, 1999). Staw, Sutton, & Pelled (1994) has linked EI with altruistic behaviour (one form of OCB) and suggested the following explanation. First, being in a good mood is reinforcing, and displaying altruism is rewarding in the sense that it enables employees to also
maintain this state of mind. Second, people in good moods may be more socially interactive. Third, when employees are more satisfied (having positive emotional reactions to the job) they are more likely to be engaged in helpful behaviour. Similarly, EI would help in keeping the positive attitude towards the organization and people even under adverse conditions.

Noorlaila Hj Yunus (2012) had done a study to examine the influence of emotional intelligence and leader-member exchange (LMX) on organizational citizenship behaviour. The result shows that other’s emotion appraisal and regulation of emotion has a positive influence on altruism and civic virtue. Another study was done by Soleyman Iranzadeh and Morteza Khodakhah Amlashi (2012) with the goal to study managers' emotional intelligence and its role in improving organizational citizenship behaviour of staffs in Eastern Azerbaijan State Water and Waste Water Company. The results showed that there is a meaningful correlation between managers' emotional intelligence and staffs' organizational citizenship behaviour and also between self-awareness skills, self-control, self-stimulation, social consciousness and managers' social skills and staffs' organizational citizenship behaviour.

A study was done by Ajay K. Jain (2012) to examine the moderating impact of impression management motive on the relationship of emotional intelligence (EI) and Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs). Results indicated the significant negative impact of impression management motive
on the relationship of EI and OCBs. However, EI and impression management had predicted OCBs positively.

A study was done by Anees Janee Ali, Ahmed M. Eljadi and Mahiswaran S. (2011) to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence’s dimensions of employees working in service companies located in Penang and their organizational citizenship behaviours as perceived by their current supervisors in organization and to examine whether job control moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence’s dimensions and organizational citizenship behaviour’s dimensions. Results indicated that the appraisal, expression, and regulation of emotions in oneself is the most important dimension for all OCB’s dimension except for conscientiousness, it was found that the appraisal, expression and regulation of emotions in others is the most important dimension. Also, it was found that job control only moderated the relationship between emotional intelligence’s dimensions and helping behaviour dimension.

Yashotha Ramachandran; Peter J. Jordan; Ashlea C. Troth and Sandra A. Lawrence (2011) had done a study to examine the impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on Emotional Labour (EL) and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) in the Malaysian service industry. Results revealed that EL partially mediated the relationship between EI and OCB.
A study was done by Habibollah Salarzehi, Nour Mohammad Yaghoubi, Maryam Naroei and Liem Gai Sin (2011) to examine the relationship of Emotional Intelligence (EI) with Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). The result shows that there is strong statistical relation between EI and OCB. It was also found that conscientiousness and altruism are the variables from OCB which have strong relation to EI.

Yaghoubi, Esmaeil, Ahmadzadeh Mashinchi, Sina and Abdollahi, Hadi (2010) had done a study to examine the relationship of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) with emotional intelligence (EI) of the followers. Emotional intelligence was significantly correlated to conscientiousness, civic virtue, and altruistic behaviours of followers. The method suggested by Barron and Kenny (1986) was used to test mediation of organizational citizenship behaviour between emotional intelligence, but nothing significant was found.

A study was done by Justine K. James, A. Velayudhan and S. Gayatridevi (2010) to assess the relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behaviour and Emotional Intelligence of the corporate executives. The results indicated that Organizational Citizenship Behaviour is positively correlated with Emotional Intelligence. There was a significant difference between Executives with Higher and Lower Authority in Civic-Virtue, Courtesy, Self-confidence, Personal Fulfillment, Empathy, Anxiety and Stress and Assertiveness.
A study was done by Shaiful Annuar Khalid, Kamsol Mohamed Kassim, Mohammad Ismail, Ahmad Nizan Md Noor, Norshimah Abdul Rahman and Rozihana Shekh Zain (2009) to examine the influence of personal factors, emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behaviours on deviant behaviours. The findings of this study indicated that sportsmanship and emotional intelligence significantly and negatively associated with deviant behaviours. Results also indicate that male students and those with lower academic achievement had significantly higher level of deviant behaviours.

Burcu Ilgin, Semra Güney, Azize Ergeneli and Özge Tayfur (2009) had done a study to assess the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behaviours and the moderating effects of gender on this relationship. The results showed that EI and each of its dimensions are positively and significantly related to OCBs. No evidence was found about the impact of gender on EI. However, it was determined that gender moderates the relationship between EI and OCBs. In addition, gender also moderates each of the dimensions’ relationship with OCBs, except for “use of emotion”.

A study was done Atika Modassir and Tripti Singh (2007) to examine the relationship of emotional intelligence (EI) with transformational leadership (TL) and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) of the followers. The results indicated that EI of leaders enhances the OCB of followers. However, EI of the leader may not be the only factor determining the perception of TL.
A study was done by Charbonneau D and Nicol AA. (2002) to assess the Emotional intelligence and prosocial behaviours in adolescents. Ratings of emotional intelligence significantly correlated with scores on two of the five organizational citizenship behaviour factors: Altruism ($r = .25, p < .01$) and Civic virtue ($r = .24, p < .01$). The girls scored somewhat, but not significantly, higher than the boys on Emotional Intelligence, Altruism, Conscientiousness and Civic virtue, an observation which might be explored further.

**Optimism and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour**

A study was done by Penelope Pope Messick (2012) to examine the relationships among enabling school structures, academic optimism and organizational citizenship behaviours. Correlational analysis demonstrated a positive significant relationship between enabling school structures and organizational citizenship behaviours. Also, enabling school structures were positively correlated to academic optimism. Likewise, a positive relationship was indicated between academic optimism and organizational citizenship behaviours. Moreover, regression analysis revealed that academic optimism partially mediated the relationship between enabling school structures and organizational citizenship behaviours.

A study was done by Guido Alessandri, Michele Vecchione, John Tisak, Giuseppina Deiana, Simona Caria and Gian Vittorio Caprara (2012). In Study 1 ($n= 203$), positive orientation predicted in-role job performance over
the effects of its lower-order components (self-esteem, optimism, and life satisfaction), the Big Five, and positive affectivity. In Study 2 \((n=372)\), positive orientation predicted extra-role performance (Organizational Citizenship Behaviours), beyond the effects due to its lower-order components, the Big Five, and positive affectivity. In Study 3 \((n=311)\), a brief self-reported measure of positive orientation predicted in-role job performance above Core Self-Evaluations and the conscientiousness trait.

A study was done by Wagner, Charles A. and DiPaola, Michael F. (2011). The purpose of this study is to build on an emergent research base for academic optimism by testing the construct and its relationship to student achievement and organizational citizenship behaviours in schools in a sample of public high schools. The three dimensions of academic optimism were shown to correlate significantly with student achievement even when controlling for student family background. The findings in this study also confirm that academic optimism and organizational citizenship behaviours in schools are strongly correlated. Measuring teachers' beliefs and perceptions about themselves, their colleagues and their schools can provide important insights into the school's collective belief about instruction, learning and student achievement and help principals improve the quality of schools' learning contexts.

Timothy P. Munyon, Wayne A. Hochwarter, Pamela L. Perrewé and Gerald R. Ferris (2010) had done a study to investigate the interactive
relationship between optimism and OCB on job satisfaction in a series of three independent samples, examining moderated polynomial relationships. Based on self-regulation and self-perception theories, the authors hypothesized that optimism would moderate the relationship between OCB and job satisfaction, demonstrating a linear relationship for those high in optimism and a nonlinear relationship (i.e., assuming an inverted U-shaped form) for those low in optimism. Consistent results were found across all three studies, providing support for the hypothesized moderated polynomial OCB-optimism relationship.

Carolyn M. Youssef and Fred Luthans (2007) had done two studies to assess Positive Organizational Behaviour in the Workplace: The Impact of Hope, Optimism, and Resilience. Drawing from the foundation of positive psychology and the recently emerging positive organizational behaviour, two studies (N = 1,032 and N = 232) test hypotheses on the impact that the selected positive psychological resource capacities of hope, optimism, and resilience have on desired work-related employee outcomes. These outcomes include performance (self-reported in Study 1 and organizational performance appraisals in Study 2), job satisfaction, work happiness, and organizational commitment. The findings generally support that employees' positive psychological resource capacities relate to, and contribute unique variance to, the outcomes. However, hope, and, to a lesser extent, optimism and resilience,
do differentially contribute to the various outcomes. Utility analysis supports the practical implications of the study results.

Phalgu Niranjana and Biswajeet Pattanayak (2005) had done a research to study the dynamics of organizational citizenship behaviour, learned optimism and organizational ethos across types of organizations (service and manufacturing), hierarchical positions (executive and non-executive) and gender (male and female) of the employees; to examine the functional relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour, learned optimism and organizational ethos; and to ascertain the relative importance of learned optimism, organizational ethos and its eight dimensions in determining organizational citizenship behaviour. There is a significant difference between the independent variables, i.e., types of organizations, hierarchical positions and gender of the employees, on organizational citizenship behaviour, organizational ethos and learned optimism. Further, the result shows that learned optimism, confrontation and pro-action influence organizational citizenship behaviour significantly.

**Self-Efficacy and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour**

A study was done by Chen Ch and Kao Rh. (2011) to investigate the influences of motivational work characteristics (knowledge-oriented) and social work characteristics (socially and contextually oriented) of work-design model on the police officers’ organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), by
using first-line police officers in Taiwan as the research objects. The study showed not only that knowledge characteristic will influence the self-efficacy of a police officer and that self-efficacy can in turn influence individual police officers’ OCB, but also the contextual effect of social characteristics, contextual characteristics, and collective efficacy on self-efficacy and individuals' OCB. Additionally, there was a cross level moderating effect from contextual characteristics on the relationship between knowledge characteristics and self-efficacy and the relationship between self-efficacy and the individuals' OCB.

A study was done by Han S. J. (2010) to identify the predictors of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) among hospital nurses. The mean score of OCB was 4.82, self-efficacy was 4.65, and social support was 4.56. The OCB was statistically significant according to position (t=-1.97, p=.049). The OCB was positively correlated with self-efficacy (r=.558, p<.001) and social support (r=.245, p<.001). The self-efficacy and social support explained 33.0% of the variance for OCB. The findings suggest that developing programs to improve self-efficacy and social support might be useful.

Dussault M. (2006) had done a study to investigate the relationship between teachers' instructional efficacy and their organizational citizenship behaviour. Analysis yielded positive and significant correlations (r ranging from .19 and .34, p<.01) between teachers' personal teaching efficacy and organizational citizenship behaviours such as altruism, courtesy,
conscientiousness, and civic virtue. General teaching efficacy was only related to sportsmanship ($r=.15, p <.01$).

**Emotional Intelligence and Quality of Work Life**

Emotional intelligence plays an important role in the quality of work life. Research studies during the past 25 years about factors that contribute to success in workplace have resulted in identifying factors that are related to workplace intelligence. These studies used quantified data on performance from myriad organizations and industries and have contributed to the knowledge base in emotional intelligence (Lynn, 2002). Emotions contain vital information that helps us “to be better at what we do” (Wolfe & Caruso, 2004). Analyses of studies of about 500 organizations worldwide, reviewed by Goleman (1998) “point to the paramount place of emotional intelligence in excellence on the job—in virtually any job”. He points out that those with the highest emotional intelligence measure rise to the top in the organizations and become leaders. Another important finding from these studies is about star employees. Star employees possess more Emotional intelligence than other employees. Interestingly, Emotional intelligence mattered twice as much as technical and analytic skill for them.

Different jobs call for different types of Emotional intelligence. For example, success in sales requires the empathic ability to identify the mood of the customer and the interpersonal skill to decide when to pitch a product and
when to keep quiet. By comparison, success in painting or professional tennis requires a more individual form of self-discipline and motivation. Thus Emotional intelligence affects just about everything you do at work. “Even when you work in a solitary setting, how well you work has a lot to do with how well you discipline and motivate yourself” (Goleman, as cited in Murray, 1998).

Emotional intelligence may contribute to work performance (as reflected in salary, salary increase, and company rank) by enabling people to nurture positive relationships at work, work effectively in teams, and build social capital. Work performance often depends on the support, advice and other resources provided by others (Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001). Emotional intelligence may also contribute to work performance by enabling people to regulate their emotions so as to cope effectively with stress, perform well under pressure and adjust to organizational change.

Interpersonal facilitation pertains to interpersonally oriented behaviours that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Emotional intelligence may contribute to the quality of people’s relationships at work because emotions serve communicative and social functions, conveying information about thoughts and intentions and helping to coordinate social encounters (Keltner & Haidt, 2001). Emotion-related abilities should help people choose the best course of action when
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navigating social encounters. For example, the ability to decode facial expressions of emotion can help one to evaluate how other people respond to one’s words and actions, yielding important information for adjusting one’s behaviour (Nowicki & Duke, 2001). The ability to use emotions to guide thinking can help one to consider both emotions and technical information when evaluating an interpersonal problem. The ability to manage emotions should help individuals experience and express emotions that contribute to favorable social encounters, in part through emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994).

Despite important exceptions (Parrott, 1993), people are usually motivated to seek pleasant feelings and avoid unpleasant emotions. The ability to manage emotions can help people nurture positive affect, avoid being overwhelmed by negative affect, and cope with stress (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Other emotional abilities, such as perceiving and understanding emotions, also contribute indirectly to the quality of emotional experience by helping people to identify and interpret cues that inform self-regulatory action. Therefore emotional intelligence should contribute to positive affect and attitudes at work.

A very recent and excellent review of the Emotional intelligence literature (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000) demonstrates clearly that Emotional intelligence impacts on work success. Work success was defined in this review
as advancement in one’s work organization. Another research by Celeste M Brotheridg and Alicia A Grandey (2008) on emotional labor and self-efficacy, at work place the findings suggests emotional intelligence and self-efficacy are significantly related to deep level regulation and heightened sense of personal accomplishment suggesting positive benefits to the aspects of work life.

**Optimism and Quality of Work/Personal Life**

At this point it is important to understand that being optimistic or pessimistic matters a lot specifically the mental and physical health of the employees which contributes to the quality of work life. The psychosocial constructs of optimism and pessimism have been under study for several decades. Optimism is associated with more active coping strategies, lower levels of psychological distress, health-enhancing behaviour, higher immune functioning, better health outcomes and even lower mortality. On the other hand, pessimism has been shown to have prophylactic effects in certain circumstances. In particular, pessimism can insulate people from the psychological consequences of failure, including anxiety, depression, and diminished self-esteem. Thus, the impact of optimism and pessimism is potentially enormous yet still very unclear.

The construct of health-related quality of life is one variable that has been linked to optimism/pessimism in past research. In one study, researchers found that, even when health status was controlled, pessimists had significantly
worse health-related quality of life (HRQOL) scores than optimists or so-called "realists". In that study, pessimists were those who expected disproportionately negative outcomes associated with their Hepatitis C diagnosis, optimists were those who expected few negative outcomes associated with their Hepatitis C diagnosis, and realists were those who had a fairly accurate perception of the impact Hepatitis C was going to have on their lives. Optimists' HRQOL scores in this study mirrored the scores of the general U.S. population, even though the population being studied (chronic hepatitis C patients) has been shown to have significantly lower Quality of life than the general population.

Wrosch and Scheier evidenced two variables capable of influencing quality of life: optimism and adaptation of purpose. Both in fact exert a fundamental role in adaptive management of critical circumstances in life and of goals to reach. There is evidence that optimistic people present a higher quality of life compared to those with low levels of optimism or even pessimists. It has been demonstrated that in the presence of severe pathological conditions, optimistic patients adapt better to stressful situations compared to pessimists, with positive repercussions on their quality of life. For example, in a sample of patients who underwent an aortic-coronary bypass, optimism was significantly and positively associated with quality of life in the six months following the operation. The optimistic patients in fact presented a more rapid clinical improvement during the period of
hospitalization and a quicker return to daily routine after discharge from hospital. Analogous results are reported in samples of patients with other pathologies. In patients affected with epilepsy, Pais-Ribeiro et al. found that optimists showed an improved perception of their physical and mental state of health and reported higher quality of life compared to pessimists. Kung et al. examined the relation between optimism-pessimism and quality of life in patients with cancer of the neck, head or thyroid. In all the subjects, optimism was associated with better quality of life in both the scales of the physical and mental components of the MMPI (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory), in six of the eight subscales of the SF-12 (12-item Short Form Health Survey) and of the SF-36 (36-item Short Form Health Survey).

**Self-Efficacy and Quality of Work Life**

Research has found that self-efficacy positively predicts job attitudes (Saks 1995), training proficiency, and job performance (Luthans and Stajkovic 1998) and it acts as a buffer ameliorating the negative effects of work stressors on employees’ psychological well-being (Bliese and Jex 1999). At the group level of analysis, collective efficacy has been conceptualized as being analogous to self-efficacy (Bandura 1997; Brass et al. 1995). Collective efficacy is defined as a group’s shared beliefs in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments (Bandura 1997). Similar to the research on self-efficacy, studies on collective efficacy have shown that it positively predicts group motivation
and performance (e.g., Gully, et al. (1996)) and as a buffer of stressor strain relations (Bliese and Jex 1999). Thus, efficacy beliefs at both the individual level (self-efficacy) and group level (collective efficacy) are related to important individual and organizational outcomes (like students from school or employees in any organization).

A study was done by Gabriele Prati, Luca Pietrantoni and Elvira Cicognani (2010) to investigate whether self-efficacy moderates the relationship between stress appraisal and professional quality of life. Multiple regression analyses indicated that the relationship between stress appraisal and professional quality of life was significant only among rescue workers with low levels of self-efficacy but not among those with higher levels of self-efficacy. These results confirmed the expectations based on Social Cognitive Theory that self-efficacy buffers the impact of perceived stressful encounters on professional quality of life. Results suggest the usefulness of interventions aimed at increasing rescue workers' psychosocial skills.

Research done by Louis, Karen Seashore (2010) on effects of teacher's Quality of Work life in secondary school on commitment and sense of Efficacy. Research explores how teachers Quality of work life contributes to their commitments to work and sense of Efficacy in 8 schools, presents a model that ties work place characteristics to important behaviour, attitude and psychological characteristics effecting teaching classroom and a survey data
suggests that quality of work Life measures are strongly associated with teacher commitment and self-efficacy. Another research by Join Sciiaubroeck (2009) reveals that work self-efficacy & optimistic nature promotes healthy work environment, better mental state, Supervisory relationship and management skills.

A study was done by Irandokht Asadi Sadeghi Azar, Promila Vasudeva and Abdolghani Abdollahi M. (2006) to Examine the interrelationship between quality of life, hardiness, self-efficacy and self-esteem among working (professional and non-professional) and non-working married women. Results revealed significant positive interrelationship between quality of life, hardiness, self-efficacy and self-esteem in the whole sample, within the subgroups of professional and non-professional employed and unemployed women. Obtained pearson r values revealed significant negative relationship between employment and the above variables in women. It indicated that women with higher quality of life score rank also higher on hardiness, self-efficacy, and self-esteem and vice versa.

Research done by Gale Robinson-smith Ph.D. R.N. Mark V. Johnston Ph.D and Judith Allen Ed. D, RN (2005) on self-care, Self-efficiency, Quality of work life and depression after stroke. Results revealed that self-care, Self-efficiency increase after stroke and were strongly correlated with Quality of work life and Depression at both 1 and 6 months after stoke. Functional
independence measures and quality of work life increased over time, while Depression decreased. Family and clinicians may encourage stroke patient's self-confidence & self-efficacy behaviours.

Study done by Gale Robinson-Smith (2002) to investigate Self-efficacy and quality of life after stroke suggests that patient’s quality of life and recovery for stroke survivors are enhanced when self-care self-efficacy is high. In caring for post stroke patients, neuroscience nurses must identify interventions that can improve quality of life and reduce depression while considering varying levels of functional independence. Rather than being unplanned, self-efficacy strategies should be part of a care plan that is tailored to each patient.

A study was done by Shiow-Luan Tsay and Marilyn Healstead (2002) to examine relationships among self-care self-efficacy, depression and quality of life in 160 patients receiving hemodialysis. Results indicate that self-care self-efficacy and depression are the significant predictors of quality of life after controlling for the effect of age. Self-care self-efficacy explains 47.5% of the variance ($\beta=0.52$, $p<0.001$) and depression ($\beta=-0.29$, $p<0.001$) explains an additional 5.5% of variance in quality of life.