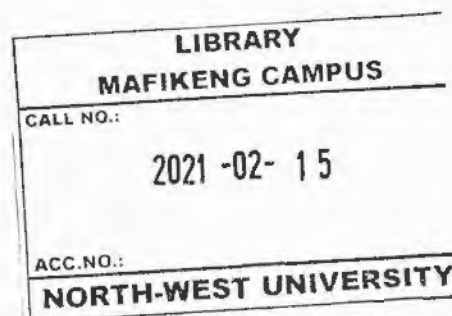


**Determining Psychological Capital in the Department of Community
Safety and Transport Management**

Moleti Evelyn Gaboutloeloe

Student no: 22577947

A research proposal for a mini dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Business Administration in the Faculty of Commerce and Administration
at the
North West University (Mafikeng Campus)

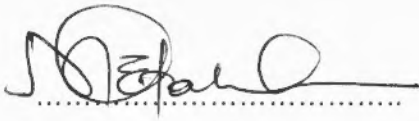


Study Leader: Prof. S. Swanepoel

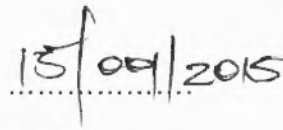
January 2015

DECLARATION

I, Moleti Evelyn Gaboutloeloe, declare that this mini-dissertation is my own unaided work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the Masters Degree in Business Administration (MBA) at the North West University (Mafikeng Campus). It has not been submitted before in any degree or examination at any other university.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Moleti', written over a horizontal dotted line.

Signature

A handwritten date '13/09/2015' in black ink, written over a horizontal dotted line.

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank God Almighty for providing me with the strength and wisdom to complete this study. He is always a loving and caring Father and I am looking forward to many fulfilling years in my life.

I dedicate this hard work to my loving mom, Ms Keeditse Gaboutloeloe. She will always be an inspiration in my life. I love her for the many years of encouragement, love and care that she has given me.

Thanks to Prof. Sonia Swanepoel for her supervision and her patience, understanding, guidance, cooperation and knowledge of the subject of research has been tremendous.

Special thanks goes to my family – my wonderful children Bakang and Wame, my aunt Khumo, my brother, my sisters – and my friends for the support they gave me throughout this study.

Lastly, let me thank my late father for instilling in me the passion for academic achievement from an early age.

**NWU
LIBRARY**

ABSTRACT

Psychological capital is a positive state-like capacity that is defined as an individual's positive psychological state of development and is characterized by "*having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; persevering towards goals and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed and when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success*" (Luthans & Youssef, 2007:3).

The purpose of this study is to determine the level of psychological capital in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management.

There were 500 full-time employees who willingly participated freely in the research. About 38% were between 25 and 35 of age, 35 % between ages of 36 and 45 and 17% between 46 and 55. Of the participants 76% were in non-managerial position and 24% in a supervisory position. Psychological capital was measured with the PCQ-12. The questionnaire comprises four subscales with equal weight: hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism.

Data was analysed using SPSS v 22 statistical analysis programme. The findings of the study revealed that there is a positive and low correlation between efficacy and hope, and a positive and moderate correlation between efficacy and resilience.

Keywords: *Psychological Capital, Positive Organisational Behaviour, Hope, Efficacy, Resilience, Optimism.*

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration	i
Acknowledgements.....	ii
Abstract	iii
Table of Contents	iv
References	vii
Annexures A & B	vii
Abbreviations and Acronyms	viii
List of Tables	ix

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background to the study	1-3
1.2 Problem statement.....	3
1.3 Objective of the problem	4
1.4 Limitation of the study	4
1.5 Ethical consideration	4-5
1.6 Structure of the study.....	5-6

Chapter 2 Literature review

2.1 Introduction	7
2.1.1 Positive Psychology	7
2.1.2 Positive Organisational Behaviour	8
2.1.3 The role of positive emotions in positive psychology.....	8
2.1.4 Psychological Capital	8-10
2.2 Self-efficacy.....	10-11
2.2.1 The Social Cognitive Theory	12-13
2.2.2 Self-efficacy and its importance	13-14
2.2.3 Advantages of self-efficacy.....	15

2.2.4	The characteristics of people with high level of self-efficacy	15-16
2.2.5	How to improve self-efficacy	16-17
2.2.6	Self-esteem	18
2.2.7	Characteristics of people with high self-esteem	18-20
2.2.8	Low self-esteem	20
2.2.9	How to improve self-esteem.....	20-22
2.3	Hope	22-23
2.3.1	The benefits of Hope in the workplace	23-25
2.4	Optimism	25-27
2.4.1	Optimism: a buffer against stress.....	27
2.5	Resilience.....	27-28
2.5.1	Strategies to develop Resilience	28-30
2.5.2	Conceptual convergence between Resiliency and other PsyCap factors	30-31
2.6	Conclusion	31

Chapter 3 Research methodology

3.1	Introduction	32
3.2	Research design	32
3.2.1	Qualitative research	32-33
3.2.2	Descriptive research	33
3.2.3	Correlation research.....	34
3.3	The questionnaire survey method	34
3.3.1	Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires.....	34
3.3.2	Disadvantages of questionnaires	35
3.3.3	Guidelines for designing questionnaires	35
3.3.4	The nature of questionnaires.....	35
3.4	Methods to ensure Validity and Reliability.....	36
3.5	Research	37
3.5.1	Research population	37
3.5.2	Sampling	37

3.5.3	Sampling size.....	37
3.5.4	Sampling process.....	38
3.6	Data collection.....	38
3.7	The Questionnaire.....	38-39
3.8	Sample characteristics.....	40
3.9	Data capturing and analysis.....	41
3.9.1	The Arithmetic Mean.....	41
3.9.2	The Standard Deviation.....	41
3.10	Hypotheses.....	42
3.10.1	Guidelines that can be used to sharpen a hypothesis.....	42
3.11	Conclusion.....	43

Chapter 4 Discussion of findings

4.1	Introduction.....	44
4.2	Demographic characteristics of the participants.....	44
4.3	Descriptive statistics.....	45
4.3.1	The frequency distributions.....	45-46
4.3.2	Frequency distribution of race.....	47
4.3.3	Frequency distribution of position.....	47-50
4.3.4	The relationship between four factors.....	50
4.3.5	The correlation between Efficacy and Hope, Resilience and Optimism.....	50
4.3.6	The correlation between Hope, Resilience and Optimism.....	51
4.3.7	The correlation between Resilience and Optimism.....	51
4.4	Summary.....	51

Chapter 5 Conclusions and recommendations

5.1	Introduction.....	52
5.2	Significance of findings on age, gender and race.....	52-53
5.3	Suggestions for Department of Community Safety and Transport Management.....	53-55
5.4	Recommendation for future research.....	55

5.5 Limitations.....55-56
5.6 Conclusions.....56

REFERENCES.....57-67

ANNEXURES

Annexure A.....68

Annexure B.....69-70



ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

HERO	Hope, Efficacy, Resilience, Optimism
NWU	North West University
POB	Positive Organisational Behaviour
PPC	Positive Psychological Capital
PSA	Public Service Act
PsyCap	Psychological Capital
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Salary level scale.....	32
Table 2	Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires.....	34
Table 3	Sample characteristics.....	40
Table 4	The grouping variables	43
Table 5	Sample.....	45
Table 6	Descriptive statistics	48
Table 7	Pearson correlation matrix	50

LIST OF DIAGRAMS

Figure 1	Frequency distribution of age.....	46
Figure 2	Positively skewed distribution.....	46
Figure 3	Frequency distribution of race.....	47
Figure 4	Frequency distribution of position.....	47
Figure 5	The level of PsyCap in the department.....	49

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background to the study

For decades psychology has been associated mainly with the treatment of mental illness, although other areas of research and applications of this science have existed since its origin. At the end of the twentieth century a new approach, referred to as positive psychology, was introduced by Martin Seligman, then president of the American Psychological Association (Seligman, 1998; Seligman, 2002). *The initiative gained popularity because it broadened the focus of clinical psychology beyond suffering and its direct alleviation.* "Psychology has long ignored human excellence, in part because we lack a crucial starting point: an empirically informed, consensual classification of human virtues" (Dahlsgaard, Peterson & Seligman, 2005:203).

Positive psychology is the scientific study of strengths, well-being, and optimal functioning of people, groups and the institutions that facilitate their development (Seligman, 1998; Duckworth, Steen & Seligman, 2005: 630-631, Gable & Haidt, 2005:104).

"Some people do not just adapt to life, they adapt extraordinarily well. Some adapt so well that they serve as role models of incredible resiliency, perseverance, and fortitude. One of the goals of positive psychology is to understand how those people manage to accomplish such high levels of thriving and flourishing" (Compton, 2005:8).

Researchers have recently scoured the literature to identify positive psychological states that could be measured, developed and managed to improve performance for the individual and the organisation. They were looking for states that were life-enhancing and quantifiable (Lewis, 2011).

According to Fredrickson and Losada, (2005:685), *"human flourishing is optimal functioning characterized by four key components: (a) goodness, indexed by happiness, satisfaction, and superior functioning; (b) generativity, indexed by broadened thought-action repertoires and behavioural flexibility; (c) growth, indexed by gains in enduring*

personal and social resources; and (d) resilience, indexed by survival and growth in the aftermath of adversity".

Luthans and Youssef (2007:3) characterized an individual's positive psychological state of development as *"having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; persevering towards goals and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed and when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success."*

Youssef & Luthans (2010) identified four key components of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) i.e., hope, efficacy, optimism and resilience — sometimes referred to as HERO. Measures of PsyCap can be used to predict performance, satisfaction and absenteeism and be related to organisational commitment and an intention to remain in the organisation.

To date, research supports the four component resources loaded on the higher-order core construct of PsyCap and indicates convergent and discriminant validity with similar positive core constructs such as core self-evaluations and relevant personality traits such as conscientiousness (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). There is also growing evidence that PsyCap is significantly related to desired employee behaviors and negatively to undesired behaviors, attitudes (e.g., satisfaction and commitment), and performance (Avey, Luthans & Youssef, in press; Luthans *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, recent research indicates that PsyCap has implications for combating stress (Avey, Luthans & Youssef, in press), may help in facilitating positive organizational change (Avey, Wernsing & Luthans, 2008), and mediates the relationship between supportive organizational climate and employee performance (Luthans, Norman, Avolio & Avey, 2008).

PsyCap is related to desirable multiple performance outcomes in the workplace, such as reduced employee absenteeism, less cynicism and intentions to quit, and higher job satisfaction, commitment and organisational citizen behaviours (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007).

The development of PsyCap adds value to organisational assets such as financial capital, human capital and social capital. The extended model suggest that individuals with high PsyCap measures have the confidence to take on the task, possess the sustaining belief that they will succeed, can access the motivation to keep going when things get tough or find other ways around problems and when the occasional disappointment inevitably occurs, are able to quickly bounce back, recharged and motivated once more. The promise of PsyCap is that all the people in an organisation can develop a greater ability to access these attributes, given the right development (Lewis, 2011).

Lewis (2011) states that each of the four individual capabilities that makes up PsyCap are associated with good life experiences and outcomes for individuals, suggesting that helping people who didn't have the opportunity to develop these capabilities earlier in life is a morally justifiable endeavour.

1.2. Problem statement

One of the key reasons why employees in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management experience feelings of psychological distress, irritation, resentment, anger and frustration as well as decline in life satisfaction, motivation, and job satisfaction is due to low PsyCap. Studies conducted by Luthans *et al.*, (2007) found that high PsyCap employees performed better than low PsyCap employees. If employees feel that the goodwill in the employment relationship is damaged, then the organisation may experience lower performance, increased turnover, employee litigation, absenteeism and accidents (Isakson, 2006).

Burnout is a psychological response to stressors in the work situation (Leiter & Maslach, 2005) and leads to such undesirable outcomes as diminished job performance, job dissatisfaction, shifting of time spent on work-related activities to non-work activities, lower organizational commitment, and increased absenteeism and turnover intentions (Podsakoff, LePine & LePine, 2007; Yagil, 2006). Importantly, burnout is contagious and crosses over from one individual to another and spreads across the organization (Bakker, Van der Zee, Lewig & Dollard, 2006).

1.3. Objective of the problem

The purpose of this research is to discuss the findings that were made after a review of relevant literature and to conduct a research project to determine the level of PsyCap (HERO) of the employees in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management.

1.4 Limitations of the study

The sample group comprised of 500 permanent employees, employed on salary level 5 to 13, by the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management in Mahikeng (Ngaka Modiri Molema District) area in the North West Province. According to Public Service Act (PSA) the salary level scale of employees in non –managerial positions ranges from salary level 3-8, those in middle management positions ranges from salary level 9-12 and senior managers are from level 13-16.

Some constraints, such as time and lack of sufficient funds, prevented a larger sample size that could be more representative of the total population of the study.

One of the challenges anticipated in the process of data collection was the refusal by management in some Sections/Directorates within the Department to formally participate in the distribution of the questionnaire for completion. No such challenges were experienced, everything went as planned.

1.5 Ethical consideration

In undertaking this study to determine the level of PsyCap of employees in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management, a number of issues were taken into consideration:

- The principle of voluntary participation was followed where respondents within the Department were not forced to participate in the research.
- The respondents were made aware of their rights to safety in terms of the avoidance of any physical harm or mental harm.

- The respondents were given the guarantee of the right to anonymity and confidentiality of the working relationships.
- The respondents have the right to be informed about all the aspects of the research and have the right to expect quality research.

The researcher approached officials in the Department personally and informed them of their rights and emphasised that their participation is voluntary. Those that did not want to participate were not included in the study. The researcher presented a questionnaire to each prospective participant and before completing the questionnaire; the researcher asked the respondents to sign their name on the consent form, indicating that they understand what is expected from them.

Information gathered was accurately and objectively recorded, analysed and interpreted and all participants have access to the findings at no extra costs.

Ethical approval was obtained from the Human Resource Ethical Committee from the North West University (NWU).

1.6 Structure of the study

Chapter 1 – Introduction: provides an introductory discussion of the research problem.

Chapter 2 – Literature review: provides an overview of the existing literature on psychological capital and its components.

Chapter 3 – Research methodology: provides an overview of the research method, design and description of participants used in the dissertation as well as the instruments used to evaluate the level of PsyCap in a workplace. The chapter includes the research approach and describes the data collecting and methods of analysis used.

Chapter 4 – Discussion of findings: discusses the research findings in detail by showing how the research question has been answered and how these findings contribute to the study.

Chapter 5 – Conclusions and recommendations: contains specific conclusions and recommendations that were deduced from the literature review and research findings.

At the end of the dissertation references and a set of annexures will be included that contain the questionnaires used to collect primary data for this study.

CHAPTER 2 Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews some of the relevant literature and the focus of the chapter is on the four factors of psychological capital; i.e. self-efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism.

2.1.1 Positive Psychology

Gable & Haidt (2005: 104) defined positive psychology as *"the study of the conditions and processes that contribute to the flourishing or optimal functioning of people, groups and institutions"*.

"Positive psychology is the scientific study of positive experiences and positive individual traits, and the institutions that facilitate their development" (Duckworth et al., 2005: 630). *"In short, positive psychology is a view within scientific psychology that aims to achieve a balanced and empirically grounded body of research on human nature and social relations. In particular, positive psychology says that more work is needed in the areas of virtues, character strengths, and the social, psychological, and biological factors that enable human beings to flourish"* (Keyes & Haidt, 2003: 4).

Positive social science assumes that human goodness and excellence are as authentic as disease, disorder, and distress (Peterson, 2004). *"Positive psychology is an umbrella term for theories and research about what makes life most worth living"* (Park, Peterson & Seligman, 2004:603). Strength of character and positive experiences such as a satisfied life are among the central concerns of positive psychology (Park et al., 2004).

2.1.2 Positive Organisational Behaviour

Luthans (2002b: 59) first defined positive organizational behaviour (POB) as *"the study 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"*.

Luthans (2002a, 2002b) initially applied ideas emanating from positive psychology to the workplace in his conceptualization of POB, and soon thereafter refined his ideas into the more specific PsyCap (Luthans, Luthans & Luthans, 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans *et al.*, 2007). By definition POB is reconcilable with positive psychology, because both concepts emphasize the study of human strengths and virtues, with the aim of understanding and facilitating positive developmental outcomes (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). POB is intended to focus on a positive approach to developing and managing human resources in the modern work environment (Luthans *et al.*, 2007).

According to Luthans (2002a, 2002b) and Luthans and Youssef (2007), POB can be managed successfully to ensure an improvement in employees' performance. Furthermore, the principle contribution of POB lies in the fact that it is generative and contributes to optimal functioning (Luthans *et al.*, 2004); in the sense that the application of positive psychology in the workplace, as POB, emphasizes the significance of a positive approach (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

POB and PsyCap are rooted in the positive psychology movement which places emphasis on the concepts of strengths, virtues, excellence, thriving, happiness, flourishing, resilience, flow and optimal functioning (Donaldson & Ko, 2010).

2.1.3 The role of positive emotions in positive psychology

- Positive emotions broaden our thought action repertoires.
- Positive emotions undo negative emotions.
- Positive emotions enhance resilience.
- Positive emotions build psychological repertoire.
- Positive emotions can trigger an upward developmental spiral (Fredrickson, 2001).

2.1.4 Psychological Capital

Furnham, (2008:52) defines PsyCap as *"the study of factors and processes that lead to positive emotions, virtuous behaviours and optimal performance in individuals and groups."*

Luthans *et al.*, (2007:3) defined PsyCap as one's "*positive psychological state of development that is characterized by (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive expectation (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success.*"

PsyCap is a core construct of POB (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). It is proposed as an important composite construct that can assist in addressing human capital issues in organisations. PsyCap consists of four psychological resource capacities, namely, hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy (Luthans *et al.*, 2004). PsyCap places emphasis on the positive nature and strengths of employees and the role this has on fuelling employees' growth and performance (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa & Li, 2005). The psychological dimensions of PsyCap have been linked to overall workplace attitudes and performance (Luthans *et al.*, 2007) such as higher job satisfaction, work happiness and citizenship (Avey *et al.*, 2008; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Youssef and Luthans (2007) maintain that the relationship between PsyCap and work engagement and organisational commitment have been supported empirically in various organisational contexts.

The concept of PsyCap, as well as each construct included in it, may have some stability over time, but they are expected to not be as stable as personality traits and other core evaluations, and are therefore state-like and open to change and development. As previously stated, research by Bandura (1997), Snyder, Sympson, Ybasco, Borders, Babyak and Higgins (1996), Carver and Scheier (2005), Seligman (1998), Masten and Reed (2002), Wagnild and Young (1993) as well as Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman & Combs (2006) have proven that hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience can be developed.

Various studies have demonstrated the impact of PsyCap on job performance during the last few years Luthans, *et al.*, (2007), Luthans *et al.*, 2008; Luthans *et al.*, (2005), Youssef & Luthans, (2007). It was also found by Luthans *et al.*, (2006) as well as

Luthans, *et al.*, (2007) that Psychap, in its combination of these four factors have a synergistic effect.

The PsyCap constructs of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience will be presented in brief below.

2.2 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers *"to the extent to which a person believes that he/she can organize and effectively execute actions to produce given attainments"* (Bandura, 2001). Self-efficacy beliefs influence an individual's level of motivation, as reflected in how much effort he/she will exert in an endeavor, and how long he/she will persevere in the face of obstacles. The higher the instated perceived self-efficacy, the longer individuals persevere on difficult and unsolvable problems before they quit.

Therefore, individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy will put forth a high degree of effort in order to meet their commitments, and attribute failure to things which are in their control, rather than blaming external factors. Self-efficacy has been linked theoretically and empirically with managerial and entrepreneurial phenomena (Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud, 2000; Markman & Baron, 2003). It is defined *"as a positive way of coping with danger or distress. In organizational aspect, it is defined as an ability to recuperate from stress, conflict, failure, change or increase in responsibility."* Attribution refers simply to how people explain the cause of another's or their own behaviour. It is the cognitive process by which people draw conclusions about the factors that influence or make sense of one's behaviour.

Confidence (self-efficacy) is defined in the Positive Psychological Capital (PPC) model as *"believing in one's ability to mobilize cognitive resources to obtain specific outcomes"* (Luthans & Youssef, 2004:152). Such beliefs are said to be *"the most important determinants of the behaviours people choose to engage in and how much they persevere in their efforts in the face of obstacles and challenges"* (Maddux, 2002: 277).

Those with high levels of efficacy will perceive challenges as surmountable, given sufficient competencies and effort (Avey, *et al.*, 2009). Self-efficacy is a high-order

construct of PsyCap (Luthans *et al.*, 2007). This positive psychological resource capacity of confidence, which is a state, can be developed. It is described as an enthusiastic and independent concept, being linked closely with work-related performance (Luthans *et al.*, 2004). Self-efficacy has also been shown to be related to the socialisation and retention of new employees (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo & Tucker, 2007); as well as being related to organisational commitment and turnover intentions of existing staff (Harris & Cameron, 2005). In a South African study, Rothmann (2003) found that positive psychological constructs such as self-efficacy could have a mediating effect on occupational stress, burnout and work engagement.

The concept of self-efficacy lies at the centre of Bandura's social cognitive theory which emphasizes the role of observational learning and social experience in the development of personality. The main concept in social cognitive theory is that an individual's actions and reactions, including social behaviours and cognitive processes, in almost every situation are influenced by the actions that individual has observed in others. Because self-efficacy is developed from external experiences and self-perception and is influential in determining the outcome of many events, it is an important aspect of social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy represents the personal perception of external social factors (Bandura, 1997).

According to Bandura's theory, people with high self-efficacy believe they can perform well and are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided (Bandura, 2001).

Bandura (2001) explained that an individual's perception of self-efficacy influences the following:

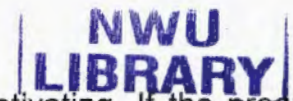
- whether a behaviour will be initiated,
- how much effort will be expended, and
- whether behaviour will be continued in the face of obstacles.

2.2.1 The Social Cognitive Theory

The social cognitive theory is composed of four processes of goal realization: self-observation, self-evaluation, self-reaction and self-efficacy. These components are interrelated, each having an effect on motivation and goal attainment (Redmond, 2010).

- **Self-observation**– Observing oneself can inform and motivate. It can be used to assess one's progress toward goal attainment as well as motivate behavioural changes. There are two important factors with regards to self-observation: regularity and proximity. Regularity means the behaviour should be continually observed, whereas proximity means the behaviour should be observed while it occurs, or shortly after. Alone, self-observation is insufficient because motivation depends on one's expectations of outcomes and efficacy (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001).
- **Self-evaluation**– Self-evaluation compares an individual's current performance with a desired performance or goal. It is affected by the standards set and the importance of the goals. Goals must be specific and important; therefore, goals such as, do your best are vague and will not motivate. Schunk and Zimmerman (1994) state that specific goals specify the amount of effort required for success and boost self-efficacy because progress is easy to gauge. If one has little regard for his goal, he will not evaluate performance.

People gain satisfaction when they achieve goals that they value. When individuals achieve these valued goals, they are more likely to continue to exert a high level of effort, since sub-standard performance will no longer provide satisfaction (Bandura, 1989).



- **Self-reaction**– Reactions to one's performance can be motivating. If the progress made is deemed acceptable, then one will have a feeling of self-efficacy with regard to continuing, and will be motivated towards the achievement of their goal. A negative self-evaluation might also be motivating in that one may desire to work harder provided that they consider the goal to be valuable. Self-reaction also allows a person to re-evaluate their goals in conjunction with their attainments (Bandura, 1989).

- **Self-efficacy**– One’s belief in the likelihood of goal completion can be motivating in itself (Van der Bijl & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002). *"Self-efficacy refers to people's judgements about their capability to perform particular tasks. Task-related self-efficacy increases the effort and persistence towards challenging tasks; therefore, increasing the likelihood that they will be completed"* (Barling & Beattie, 1983). Such beliefs are said to be *"the most important determinants of the behaviours people choose to engage in and how much they persevere in their efforts in the face of obstacles and challenges"*, (Maddux, 2002: 77).

2.2.2 Self -efficacy and its importance

According to Bandura (2001) self-efficacy is a person's judgment about being able to perform a particular activity. Unlike self-esteem, which reflects how students feel about their worth or value, self-efficacy reflects how confident students are about performing specific tasks. High self-efficacy in one area may not coincide with high self-efficacy in another area. However, having high self-efficacy does not necessarily mean that students believe they will be successful. While self-efficacy indicates how strongly students believe they have the skills to do well, they may believe other factors will keep them from succeeding.

Bandura (2001) also stressed that the easiest way to display moral development would be via the consideration of multiple factors, be they social, cognitive, or environmental. The relationship between the aforementioned three factors provides even more insight into the complex concept that is morality. Further development in social cognitive theory posits that learning will most likely occur if there is a close identification between the observer and the model and if the observer also has a good deal of self-efficacy (Bandura, 2001).

Self-efficacy beliefs play a major role in a number of common psychological problems, as well as in successful interventions for these problems. Low self-efficacy expectancies are an important feature of depression (Bandura, 1997). Depressed people usually believe they are less capable than other people of behaving effectively in many

important areas of life. Dysfunctional anxiety and avoidant behavior are often the direct result of low self-efficacy expectancies for managing threatening situations (Bandura, 1997; Williams, 1995).

Self-efficacy beliefs function as an important set of proximal determinants of human motivation, affect, and action which operate on action through motivational, cognitive, and affective intervening processes. Identification allows the observer to feel a one-to-one connection with the individual being imitated and will be more likely to achieve those imitations if the observer feels that they have the ability to follow through with the imitated action (Bandura, 2001).

People who possess high self-efficacy have a tendency to learn and achieve more than those with low self-efficacy, *"even when actual ability levels are the same"* (Ormrod, 2008:137). Self-efficacy can greatly impact how people feel, think, behave, and motivate themselves. People who have a heightened sense of self-efficacy have the following attributes.

- They see challenging problems as tasks to be mastered, rather than threats to be avoided.
- They develop greater intrinsic interest and focus in their activities.
- They set challenging goals and demonstrate a stronger sense of commitment to them.
- They quickly recover their self-efficacy following setbacks and disappointments (Bandura, 1994).

Bandura (1994) stated that people who have a low sense of self-efficacy experiences the following attributes.

- They avoid difficult tasks and view them as personal threats.
- They have a weak commitment to their goals and believe that difficult tasks and situations are beyond their capabilities.
- They dwell on personal failings and negative outcomes, rather than how to succeed.
- They quickly lose faith in their personal abilities and easily develop depression and stress (Bandura, 1994).

2.2.3 Advantages of self-efficacy

- High levels of self-efficacy enhance one's accomplishments and feelings of personal well being.
- Self-efficacy helps one to remain calm when approaching challenging tasks.
- Building self-efficacy in multiple areas increases one's confidence in mastering new domains (Ormrod, 2008).
- High self-efficacy increases one's willingness to experiment with new ideas.
- Self-efficacy encourages one to set higher expectations for future performances.
- High self-efficacy increases one's persistence and focus on a given task beyond previous levels (Ormrod, 2008).

2.2.4 The characteristics of people with high level of self-efficacy

a) **Self-confidence**

One of the most obvious characteristics of high self-efficacy is self-confidence. They approach tasks or situations with a sense of their ability to be successful. This self-confidence tends to lead to more experience which increases their ability which leads to greater self-confidence. This positive cycle lends itself to increasing self-efficacy even further (Frank, 2011). People who possess high self-efficacy have a tendency to learn and achieve more than those with low self-efficacy, *"even when actual ability levels are the same"* (Ormrod, 2008:137).

According to Bandura (1994) Employees who are high in self-efficacy are thought to be more confident and therefore will persist in their efforts when learning a new task even when encountering a problem. Williams and Williams (2010:210) note that *"individuals with high levels of self-efficacy approach difficult tasks as challenges to master rather than as threats to be avoided"*.

b) **Accurate self-evaluation**

Individuals with high self-efficacy tend to be able to accurately evaluate their performance. They are neither overly-critical nor overly positive, but are able to

examine themselves realistically in order to pursue self-improvement (Frank, 2011).

c) Willingness to take risks

Those with high self-efficacy are willing to take risks because they understand that taking calculated risks increases the chances of success. As they are not fearful of failure or mistakes, reasonable risks can only increase self-efficacy (Frank, 2011). People with high self-efficacy are more likely to respond with renewed effort (expectancy) when feedback shows that they are not reaching their goals by developing more successful strategies (Smith & Hitt, 2005).

d) Sense of accomplishment

Generally those with high self-efficacy feel a sense of accomplishment because they are often more successful due to the willingness to take risk and to pursue interests. Even if they fail or make mistakes they feel a sense of accomplishment because they view mistakes as opportunities to improve themselves (Frank, 2011). High self-efficacy individuals set higher goals for themselves (Redmond, 2010).

2.2.5 How to improve self-efficacy

a) Develop skill set

The most important way to improve self-efficacy is to develop the skill set you need to be effective. If you are having trouble being successful in your work, identify your areas of deficit and determine what you need to do to improve. Ask others to honestly evaluate your skills and to give specific advice regarding improvement. Once you know what you need to do, then you need to do it again and again until you feel competent. That's how competence develops. People aren't born with competence; they have to learn and practice in order to become competent (Frank, 2011). According to Bandura (2001) self-efficacy is the belief

of an individual about themselves whether they have mastered a particular skill or not.

b) Modeling

One way to learn the necessary skills is to observe others. You can observe successful completion of tasks to learn how to achieve success. When you observe others being rewarded for their performance or successful completion of a task, you are more likely to be able to model yourself after their behaviour (Frank, 2011). Modeling does not limit to only live demonstrations but also verbal and written behaviour can act as indirect forms of modeling (Bandura, 2001).

c) Focus on specifics

To improve self-efficacy, it is best to focus on specifics. If someone gives you general feedback especially if it is negative you are less able to make changes than if someone can provide specific feedback. For instance, if you want a child to learn how to do dishes you don't say "*These dishes aren't clean,*" instead you say "Let me show you how to load the dishwasher to get the best results" (Frank, 2011). According to social cognitive theory, teachers can provide helpful instructions that help the students form effective goals which can lead to a better learning (Bandura, 2001).

d) Reinforcement

The more behaviour is reinforced, the more likely it will continue. If you want to improve your self-efficacy, then focus on what you do well and reinforce it by giving yourself specific praise (Frank, 2011). Assisting children in developing their self-efficacy is vital and can be done by means of positive reinforcement and positive role modeling. Positive reinforcement and positive role-modeling help children learn more effectively and be more productive in their tasks. Aiding adults to develop high levels of self-efficacy is equally as important by helping them to become more productive in their surroundings, reduces stress, and has great potential to increase happiness (Ormrod, 2008).

2.2.6 Self-esteem

Self-esteem according to Dalton (2006:210) “*focuses on believing in one’s value system and one’s ability to achieve (self-efficacy).*” People who have a low self-esteem blame others for their problems to over-indulge in food, alcohol and drugs; stay dependent on others for their financial security.

Self-esteem and self-efficacy are often thought of as being synonymous, however they vary greatly. Self-efficacy differs from self-esteem in that it’s a judgment of specific capabilities rather than a general feeling of self-worth (Beck, 2008). For example, an employee may have low self-efficacy for training a new employee, but this will not cause any negative feelings of perceived self-worth. Even though the two concepts are different, they are connected.

2.2.7 The characteristics of people with high self-esteem

Individuals with low self-esteem may have some of the following qualities as well, but those with high self-esteem have these characteristics in abundance and with consistency:

a) Responsibility

Since individuals with high self-esteem can accept themselves completely they are able to take responsibility for themselves and the consequences of their actions without being excessively critical of themselves. Therefore, they are readily able to acknowledge mistakes and accept limitations (Frank, 2011).

b) Goal commitment

Those with high self-esteem tend to have a strong sense of purpose and are committed to goals in life. In addition, they tend to be persistent in achieving these goals as they commitment does not fluctuate based on success or failure. As active participants in life they tend to strive for excellence not for perfection (Frank, 2011). People with high self-esteem set challenging goals and demonstrate a stronger sense of commitment to them (Bandura, 1994). When one possesses high self-efficacy, one is more likely to choose tasks one

believes one will succeed at, set and focus on higher goals, persevere, even in the face of adversity, and learn and achieve more than those without high self-efficacy (Ormrod, 2008).

c) Genuineness

People with high self-esteem can be honest with themselves and others both emotionally and intellectually. As they aren't fearful of others truly knowing them, they tend to be genuine in their interactions with others (Frank, 2011).

d) Forgiving

High self-esteem tends to correspond with tolerance and acceptance of limitations. As a result, people who have high self-esteem are forgiving of themselves and others (Frank, 2011).

e) Internal values

Individuals with high self-esteem tend to have internally-based values rather than externally-based values. In other words, they have a strong identity based on chosen values rather than values they believe due to the demands or expectations of others. This type of identity is usually considered an "achieved identity" in which a person has analyzed their beliefs and values to decide the set of internal principles or values to which they will adhere (Frank, 2011).

f) Positivity

People with high self-esteem are positive with an appreciative and grateful attitude towards life. They can freely praise themselves and others and tend to look for the positive aspects of life and not dwell on the negative (Frank, 2001).

Positive reinforcement and positive role-modeling help people learn more effectively and be more productive in their tasks. Aiding adults to develop high levels of self-efficacy is equally as important by helping them to become more productive in their surroundings, reduces stress, and has great potential to increase happiness (Fitton, 2008).

g) Self-improvement

Generally, there is a strong tendency to strive towards self-improvement among those with high self-esteem. As they don't view the need for self-improvement as

a negative quality they are able to examine themselves uncritically. In addition, they can ask for help as needed because they don't view the need for help as shameful or negative (Frank, 2011). Others have significant influence on one's self-esteem by providing praise and positive assurance regarding the possibility of success (Ormrod, 2008).

2.2.8 Low self-esteem

People with low self-esteem are more troubled by failure and tend to exaggerate events as being negative. For example, they often interpret non critical comments as critical. They are more likely to experience social anxiety and low levels of interpersonal confidence. This in turn makes social interaction with others difficult as they feel *"awkward, shy, conspicuous, and unable to adequately express themselves when interacting with others"* (Rosenberg & Owen, 2001: 409).

Low self-esteem has been shown to be correlated with a number of negative outcomes, such as depression (Silverstone & Salsali, 2003). People who have low self-esteem quickly lose faith in their personal abilities and easily develop depression and stress (Bandura, 1994).

Guindon (2002) also listed the characteristics that best describe people with low self-esteem as follows: withdrawn, shy, quiet, insecure, underachieving, negative (attitude), unhappy, socially inept, angry, unmotivated, depressed, dependent, follower, poor self-image, non-risk-taker, lacks self-confidence and poor communication skills (Guindon, 2002). Furthermore, low self-esteem individuals tend to be pessimistic towards people and groups within society.

2.2.9 How to improve self-esteem

a) Eliminate negative self-talk

First and foremost, people with low self-esteem need to eliminate harmful self-talk. The negative labels and frequent self-criticism can only cause further damage. Eliminating negative self-talk doesn't mean you can't recognize and address problems, but it means to be careful about how you talk to yourself and

to not be self-destructive (Frank, 2011). *“Long before psychology came around, God said your thoughts determine your feelings and your feelings determine your actions. If you want to change your life, you have to control the way you think”* (Warren, 2014).

b) Recognize strengths

Those with low self-esteem tend to focus on their weaknesses rather than focusing on their strengths sometimes claiming that there isn't anything positive they can say about themselves. That is unlikely to be true. It is important to pay attention to strengths and to appreciate the strengths no matter how small they may seem. Once you recognize the strengths you need to reinforce the strengths through frequent focus on them (Frank, 2011).

c) Recognize self-worth

It is important to recognize that you are a unique human being and have worth. Recognize that you deserve to take care of yourself and set limits. You deserve respect and to be treated well. Again, you need to frequently reinforce this idea by continuing to focus on your self-worth (Frank, 2011). People with a good and healthy self-esteem are able to feel good about themselves for who they are, appreciate their own worth, and take pride in their abilities and accomplishments (Copeland, 2006).

d) Accept mistakes

Recognize that mistakes and flaws are part of the human condition. They don't make you less than others. Instead, you are like everyone else. You have flaws and you make mistakes. The more actively you are involved in life, the more mistakes you will make. But being actively involved allows you more opportunity for success as well. Accept yourself-flaws and all (Frank, 2011). They also acknowledge that while they're not perfect and have faults, those faults don't play an overwhelming or irrationally large role in their lives or their own self-image (Copeland, 2006).

e) Accept rejection

The more you can believe that everyone doesn't have to like you, the less you need to feel bad or be ashamed of your imperfections. No one can be liked by

everyone! It is an impossible task. However, the person with low self-esteem often feels a failure if someone is disapproving or rejecting. Instead, congratulate yourself if someone doesn't like you because you are being a genuine person (Frank, 2011).

2.3 Hope

Hope, in its everyday context, is an expectation of good in the future. Because of its potential links to psychosocial well-being, hope as a trait has attracted increasing attention from researchers since the early 1990's (Brouwer, Meijer, Weekers & Baneke, 2008; Valle, Huebner & Suldo, 2006).

There is a growing body of evidence supporting the notion that hopes drives adaptive behaviour. Like other traits, hope begins developing early in life. Pathways thinking comes first as the infant learns the temporal relations between his/her actions and outcomes. Then, as the understanding of self-emerges, the recognition of self as an agent can develop. Hope beliefs are then strengthened by personal experience. High hope people are better equipped to find means to overcome difficulties (pathways), and the confidence to exercise coping strategies (agency).

The PPC model describes hope as "*having the willpower and pathways to attain one's goals*" (Luthans & Youssef, 2004: 152). This definition is derived from Snyder, Irving & Anderson (1991) who determined hope to be a motivational state whereby two elements, namely agency and pathways interact. In the first instance, goal-directed determination is both the presence of goals or objectives and the desire to attain them implying an effect on or relationship to motivation. In the second instance, the element of planning to achieve the goals is the ability to conceive a strategy for attaining those goals or objectives.

Hope enables individuals to be motivated to attain success with the task at hand by looking for the best pathway (Avey *et al.*, 2008). Hope has made a significant contribution to positive PsyCap and has demonstrated importance in the workplace (Duggleby, Cooper & Penz, (2009); Luthans & Jensen, 2002). For instance, researchers discovered that hope predicted job performance beyond cognitive ability and self-

efficacy (Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron & Myrowitz, 2009). Moreover, Youssef and Luthans (2007) found that it had a positive effect on employee satisfaction, organisational commitment and work happiness. Hope also protects an individual's perceptions of vulnerability, uncontrollability and unpredictability (Snyder, 2002).

Peterson & Luthans (2003) suggests that managers with higher levels of hope have correspondingly higher rates of work unit performance as well as increased retention rates and more satisfied employees. There also appears to be a connection between hope and job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

2.3.1 The benefits of Hope in the Workplace

a) For Organisations

The benefits of a hopeful company are summarized by Adams, Snyder, Rand, Sigmon and Pulvers (2002) as follows:

- Hopeful companies are profitable, hope is anchored to concrete goals, the company CEO's reported that sharing ownership of goals between management and employees seemed to increase creativity and pride in their companies. Thus all employees are aware of what must be done in order to bring clients the best experience possible.
- CEO's do not run dictatorships; instead work hard to create trust, respect and genuine affection among their employees.
- Innovative approach is a key to recruiting and keeping good employees. Innovations for employees included casual attire, group outings and traditions, and team performance-based awards. The actual form of the innovation mattered less, however, than did the managers showing respect and care about employee job performance as well as their personal lives. All hold high the goal of strong communication, all companies constantly work at creating and maintaining an environment in which independent thought and discourse are encouraged (Adams *et al.*, 2002).
- Employees are given the opportunity to communicate across various levels of the corporation and to be creative in problem-solving. They have demonstrated

that actively investing in employees is a key goal for financial success, and this “*investment*” apparently takes the form of caring about the employees in and out of the office.

- The positive and hopeful cultures at these companies make people want to go to work and perform well. Value and integrity also appear to be important in creating a hopeful workplace.
- Secrets are discouraged, and some of these companies even eliminated the doors separating offices.
- They pay close attention to their hiring processes, they are protective of their corporate cultures, and they do not allow anyone to undermine the work atmospheres that they have nurtured (Adams *et al.*, 2002).
- Employees are given opportunities and authority to make decisions and mistakes. These are workplaces of growth and happiness that are built on foundations of hope (Adams *et al.*, 2002).

b) For Staff and Clients

Luthans and Jensen (2005) found that hope was highly correlated with both self-efficacy and optimism in a study of nurses and workplace outcomes. In addition, Norman, Luthans and Luthans (2005) found that hope was significantly related to both optimism and resiliency in Chinese factory workers. Self-efficacy, optimism and resiliency are qualities that are sought after in all aspects of life and especially in the workplace. We also know that stress cannot be removed from life, but our desire to respond to the stress factors with “eustress” versus “distress”. Studies showed that eustress can be differentiated from distress, and that hope is a good indicator of the state of active engagement in work commonly associated with eustress (Simmons & Nelson, 2001).

Within hope theory, job stress would be conceptualized as resulting from impeded goal pursuits. As barriers to goals remain in place, feelings of stress give way to negative emotions. However, high-hope people relative to low-hope people are less likely to view obstacles as stressful. In addition, the high-hope people in comparison to the low-hope people reduce stress by initiating and sustaining thoughts and actions in the face of goal blockages. This process

reflects what others have referred to as a coping mechanism. Hence, hopeful employees are more productive and happier, and it is likely that their companies also will be more profitable (Adams *et.al*, 2002).

Workplaces are seeking ways to actively engage their employees. Although positive effect, meaningfulness, and hope are conceptually distinct, these three constructs have the ability to represent an aspect of engagement, one of the primary indicators of the eustress response (Simmons, Nelson, & Neal, 2001).

2.4 Optimism

If self-efficacy is a state of self-belief and hope is a state of mind, then optimism is a state of explanation. How we explain things to ourselves reflects the degree to which we are pessimistic or optimistic.

As defined by Carver and Scheier (2002: 231), "*optimists are people who expect good things to happen to them; pessimists are people who expect bad things to happen to them*" In addition to this positive expectation, optimism is also depicted as an explanatory style whereby positive events are attributed to personal and permanent characteristics by the individual, and negative events are attributed to external, temporary factors of the situation. Thus, optimists feel success can be replicated and controlled. However, in order for this optimism to be effective, it must be realistic (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

The PPC model considers optimism an "*explanatory style that attributes positive events to internal, permanent and pervasive causes, and negative events to external, temporary, and situation-specific ones*" (Luthans & Youssef, 2004: 153). It draws on the definition employed by Seligman (2002) who described two dimensions of optimism in terms of the degree of permanence one perceives in a variable (optimists will see a negative event as temporary, and a positive event as permanent), and pervasiveness (optimists will see a negative cause, for example, as specific to an event and not to all events, and will see a positive cause in the reverse fashion). Optimism appears also to be future-focussed, whereby the optimist is more likely to anticipate that future events will be positive in nature, regardless of present circumstances. Together, the elements

of optimism combine to impact upon performance; Martin-Krumm, Sarrazin, Peterson and Famose (2003) report, for example, that participants with an optimistic explanatory style improved in performance on a test after a failure feedback, while those with a pessimistic style did not.

Optimism in the workplace involves not only an expectancy of positive outcomes, but also explaining them in a manner coherent with such outcomes. Leading others with optimism means dealing with the chaos of uncertainty by formulating a successful expectation despite the uncertainty. Life is full of uncertainty and that's as true of the workplace as it is of any aspect of life. Optimistic leaders have a strong perceived sense of self-efficacy; they believe in their teams as well. Uncertainty for the pessimist can lead to "*paralysis of analysis*" where the individual is so worried about the uncertain details that there is more fear than courage. The optimist, on the other hand, takes charge and creates success out of uncertainty (Ehrenreich, 2009).

Being overly optimistic about positive outcomes or refusing to accept factors beyond one's control can lead people to take unnecessary risks and to be unable to heed warnings of impending danger or failure. Similar to self-efficacy and hope, optimism is created, motivated, and developed in relation to the pursuit of personally valuable goals.

However, optimism adds an external dimension to what self-efficacy and hope primarily explain through an internalized, agentic perspective (Bandura & Locke, 2003). For example, the sources of an optimist's positive expectancies that promote a favorable view of the future may be the self, others, or external factors. Similarly, an optimist's interpretation of negative events primarily relies on externalizing and distancing himself or herself from failures. Moreover, unlike self-efficacy, which is domain specific, optimism utilizes generalized attributions, and unlike hope, optimism does not account for the pathways created and utilized for goal accomplishment (Luthans & Jensen, 2002).

In addition, although self-efficacy and hope are primarily cognitive in nature, optimism incorporates cognitive, emotional, and motivational components (Peterson, 2000; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Finally, the discriminant validity of self-efficacy,

hope, and optimism has been supported through several empirical studies (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Carifio & Rhodes, 2002).

Optimism has been associated with a broad range of positive outcomes, including physical and psychological health, well-being, coping, and recovery (Seligman, 2002).

2.4.1 Optimism: a buffer against stress

Furnham (2008) highlighted that optimists are hopeful in their outlook on life, interpret a wide range of situations in a positive light and tend to expect favourable outcomes and results. Pessimists by contrast, interpret many situations negatively and expect unfavourable outcomes and results. Optimists concentrate on coping with problems by focusing on making and enacting specific plans to deal with sources of stress. In addition, they seek social support, the advice and help of friends and others, and refrain from engaging in other activities until current problems are solved and stress is reduced.

2.5 Resilience

The fourth PsyCap capability is resilience. Resilience is the ability to rebound from setbacks, to recover the ability to function effectively.

Luthans (2002a:702) defines resiliency as "*the capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, failure, or even positive events, progress, and increased responsibility.*" In this regard, resilient people move on in life after having had a stressful experience or event such as personal adversity, conflict and or failure. Therefore, resilience highlights the strength of the individual and his or her coping resources to successfully resolve and or manage testing situations (Baumgardner & Crothers, 2010).

Resilience "*refers to a class of phenomena characterized by patterns of positive adaptation in the context of significant adversity or risk,*" which enables individuals to bounce back quickly and effectively from adverse events (Masten & Reed, 2002: 75). Resilience is the difference between those who recover well after adversity and those who remain devastated and unable to move ahead.

Resilience in the PPC model is defined as *“having the capacity to bounce back from adversity, failure or even positive, but seemingly overwhelming changes such as increased responsibility”* (Luthans & Youssef, 2004: 154). Of all the component affect states that comprise PPC, resilience has been given the least attention in organisational literature. Earlier work however, particularly in the area of child psychology, suggests that resilience is a phenomenon resulting from responses of normal human adaptation and is *“characterized by good outcomes in spite of serious threats to adaptation or development”*, (Masten, 2001: 228).

Unlike traditional conceptualizations of resiliency as an extraordinary capacity that can only be observed and admired in highly unique individuals, the positive psychology and POB perspective on resilience is that it is a learnable capacity that can be developed in the most ordinary of people (Masten, 2001; Masten & Reed, 2002) and measured as a state-like characteristic (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, in press; Wagnild & Young, 1993).

Resilient people are adaptable; resilience is developed through repeated exposure to gradually increasing difficulties from which people learn in a productive way. Positive psychology has embraced resiliency as a prime example of what is right and good about people. For example, Masten and Reed (2002: 75) define resiliency as *“a class of positive adaptation in the context of significant adversity or risk”*.

2.5.1 Strategies to develop resilience

a) Asset-focused strategies

This approach to developing resilience is about building up both a person's actual resourcefulness and their self-perception of their resourcefulness. The kind of things we are thinking of as resources include skills, knowledge, experience, wisdom, thinking tools, networks and emotional awareness.

Many organisational programmes such as training, mentors, development programmes, projects and job rotation are geared towards increasing people's resourcefulness (Lewis, 2011).

b) Risk-focused strategies

Lewis (2011) refers to risk-focused strategies as the development and implementation of active management to reduce the risk of failure or to improve the speed effectiveness of recovery from failure.



c) Process-focused strategies

This term refers to a different facet of resilience, one that enhances the use of the asset base. Lewis (2011:156) defines process-focused strategies as *"the ability to pull together assets and risk reduction strategies when facing a challenge or threatening situation such as the ability to assess and regulate your own mental or physical state"*. It refers to the ability to keep your head and keep thinking in the face of a challenging situation.

PsyCap pulls these different positive states together in a way that helps leaders in learning and developments, specialists and human resources specialists focus on developmental activity that will increase the capability of individuals and the workforce as a whole. It has been suggested that self-efficacy may have a mediating effect on resilience (Masten & Reed, 2002). For example, in clinical research, a high correlation has been found between the assets (i.e., the competences) of clients and their resilience (Masten & Reed, 2002). Employees who have confidence in performing their job well (i.e. have high efficacy) will also likely have higher resilience.

The risk asset and process-focussed strategies are all specific application steps that can be taken in anticipation of negative events. An example of a risk asset strategy would be the contingency planning that Morgan Stanley undertook after the first terrorist attack on the World Trade Centre in 1993 (Coutu, 2002). The company held numerous fire drills, created multiple back-up locations in case of another terrorist attack and educated employees about what to do and how to evacuate in an emergency. Out of the thousands of employees that worked in the second tower on September 11, 2001, Morgan Stanley lost only seven people. Although the event is now somewhat forgotten, such examples of organisational contingency planning can prepare employees for difficult times, but it is still

important to develop resilience at the individual-level that will be used in reaction to adverse challenges (Coutu, 2002).

2.5.2 Conceptual convergence between Resiliency and other PsyCap factors

a) How Resilience differs from Hope

Resilience is the capacity of an individual to respond and even prosper from negative or positive stressful circumstances; whereas hope is defined in positive psychology as the factor persevering towards goals, and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals in order to succeed (Luthans *et al.*, in press).

The way power (pathways) dimension of hope resembles resilience in that flexibility is an important component of both, but a key differentiator is that neither the will power or way power dimensions of hope encompasses the reaction to a disruptive event that triggers the resilience process (Bonanno, 2004).

b) How Resilience differs from Optimism

Optimism is less closely related to resilience than hope and is defined as “*a generalised expectancy that one will experience good outcomes in life, which will lead to persistence in goal-striving*” (Scheier & Carver, 1985) and as a factor of PsyCap, a positive attribution about succeeding now and in future (Luthans *et al.*, in press).

Optimists generally take personal responsibility for the positive outcomes in life, while deflecting responsibility for negative events through an optimistic explanatory style (Peterson, 2000). Specifically, resilient individuals are better prepared than optimists to overcome adversity because an optimist, with their positive attribution style, may not delve into the true meaning of adversity and simply brush it off.

c) **How Resilience differs from Efficacy**

Self-efficacy is defined in the Positive Psychological Capital (PPC) model as “believing in one’s ability to mobilize cognitive resources to obtain specific outcomes” (Luthans & Youssef, 2004: 152).

“Self-efficacy refers to people’s judgements about their capability to perform particular tasks. Task-related self-efficacy increases the effort and persistence towards challenging tasks; therefore, increasing the likelihood that they will be completed” (Barling & Beattie, 1983). Resilience is what allows people to keep trying and to restore their self-efficacy even after it has been challenged and predicted to decrease due to a setback (Luthans *et al.*, in press; Youssef & Luthans, 2005).

2.6 Conclusion

On the surface and as used in everyday language, hope, resiliency, optimism, and efficacy seem very similar and interchangeable. However, the positive psychology literature (e.g., Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder & Lopez, 2002) and POB (e.g., Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Luthans, Youssef *et al.*, 2007) has clearly differentiated these positive capacities and empirically based analyses have found discriminant validity among them (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Carifio & Rhodes, 2002; Luthans, Avolio *et al.*, 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 Introduction

The primary objective of this research is to measure and analyse the level of PsyCap in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management.

The secondary objective of this research is to analyse and determine the significance of differences between groups in five categories of biographical characteristics, namely: age, gender, race, qualification and position.

3.2 Research design

Burns and Grove (2003:195) define research design as “a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings”. Polit, Beck & Hungler (2001:167) define a research design as “the researcher’s overall for answering the research question or testing the research hypothesis”.

This study focuses on the opinion of employees, employed on the salary level of 5 to 13, in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management. Qualitative and correlation research designs were used to conduct this study with the aim to determine the PsyCap of the employees.

The salary level scale of employees employed by PSA is listed below as follows:

Table 1

From salary level 3-8	Non- managerial positions
From salary level 9-12	middle management positions
From salary level 13-16	senior management positions

3.2.1 Qualitative research

Burns and Grove (2003:19) describe a qualitative approach as “a systematic subjective approach used to describe life experiences and situations to give them meaning”.

Holloway and Wheeler (2002:30) refer to qualitative research as “a form of social

enquiry that focuses on the way people interpret and make sense of their experience and the world in which they live." Researchers use the qualitative approach to explore the behaviour, perspectives, experiences and feelings of people and emphasise the understanding of these elements.

Qualitative research is a tool with which researchers can examine the context of existing gestalt or sedimented views. The concept of gestalt is closely related to holism. The view proposes that knowledge about a particular phenomenon is organised into a cluster of linked ideas or gestalt (Burns & Grove, 2003). A theory is a cluster of linked ideas that explain a phenomenon. The purpose of a qualitative research approach is to form new gestalts in order to generate new theories.

It is important that the researcher be open to new perceptions (new gestalts) being formed from information received during the research process (Burns & Grove, 2003). Qualitative research identifies the characteristics and the significance of human experiences as described by participants and interpreted by the researcher at various levels of abstractions.

3.2.2 Descriptive research

Descriptive research is a study designed to depict the participants in an accurate way. It is all about describing people who take part in the study. According to Burns and Grove (2003: 201), descriptive research *"is designed to provide a picture of a situation as it naturally happens"*. It may be used to justify current practice and make judgment and also to develop theories.

A descriptive design is used to obtain more information about characteristics within a particular field of study (Burns & Grove, 2009). Descriptive statistic provides statistical summaries and the purpose of this statistics is to give an overall, coherent and straight forward picture of a large amount of data (Struwig and Stread, 2004). Russo (2003) states that the main aim of descriptive statistics techniques is to extract useful information from unorganized data. For the purpose of this study, descriptive research design will be used.

3.2.3 Correlation research

Correlation research is when the researcher deliberately seeks to examine links or relationships between variables without introducing an intervention.

In correlation research, the goal is to describe the strength of the relationship between two or more events or characteristics. The more strongly the two events are correlated, the more effectively we can predict one event from the other (Vernoy & Kyle, 2003).

3.3 The questionnaire survey method

Questionnaires are considered an appropriate method of research if the 'individual' is the unit of analysis. Questionnaires often provide unique ways of ascertaining attitudes, opinions, perceptions and reports of individual behaviour (Booyens, 2003: 129).

Gibson, Donnelly, Ivancevich & Konopaske (2003: 506) defined a questionnaire "as a set of written or electronically (e-survey) prepared questions asking about attitudes, opinions, demographic characteristics, preferences, and other information".

3.3.1 Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires

Table 2: Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires according to Gibson *et al.* (2003: 506).

Advantages	Disadvantages
Inexpensive to administer	Difficult to design
Information is easy to tabulate	Information is difficult to interpret
Confidentiality is maintained	Impersonal approach
No expertise to administer	Low response rate
	Can't ask for clarity

3.3.2 Disadvantages of questionnaires

According to Struwig and Stead (2004), the disadvantages of this method are that, the absence of the researcher could be a limitation when the questionnaires are completed in that the researcher is not present to explain what exact information is required. Emotions and sentiments are also difficult to express in writing. Again, many subjects fail to answer questions completely honestly; instead they give the researcher the answer they think he or she wants to hear. Also, some subjects may regard questionnaires as unimportant to answer; as a result they may answer the questions haphazardly and without the necessary enthusiasm and seriousness.

Regardless of the disadvantages, it is evident that questionnaires remain a valuable instrument in any research. It is practical that it plays a vital role in research methodology and overcomes the problem of contact between researcher and subject.

3.3.3 Guidelines for designing questionnaires

Struwig and Stead (2004) proposed the following guidelines for designing, wording and rephrasing questions:

- a) The questions should be divided into logical sections.
- b) Instructions should be precise and clear.
- c) Personal or sensitive questions should be posted last.
- d) Start with general questions and then pose specific questions.

3.3.4 The nature of questionnaire

A questionnaire is a list of questions on a specific topic which is compiled by a researcher and on which information is required. Through the application of a questionnaire one can ask questions about behaviours, opinions, knowledge and biographical information i.e. demographics such as age, education, etc. (Van der Walt, Ingley & Diack, 2002).

3.4 Methods to ensure Validity and Reliability

Measures will be taken to ensure that the questionnaire meets the requirements for validity and reliability.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) -program is used to carry out statistical analysis regarding reliability and validity of the measuring instruments, descriptive statistics, t-tests, analysis of variance, correlation coefficients, predictive bias and multiple regression analyses.

Validity and reliability are justifiable in research although qualitative researchers use different procedures to establish validity and reliability. Internal validity is important in qualitative research, as researchers are able to demonstrate the reality of the participants through detailed description of the discussion.

De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2008:160) define validity *“as the degree to which the measuring process measures the variables it states to measure”*. Reliability refers to the steadiness of the measurement and this that the variable is measured will produce the exact measurements if measured under the same conditions each time.

Cozby (2004) mentioned two types of validity: face validity which deals with the reflection of the content being measured; and criterion-oriented validity where scores are used to measure the behaviour. Cozby (2004) differentiated four behavioural groups under criterion-oriented validity as follows:

- Predictive validity – scores that measure predictable behaviour.
- Concurrent validity – people and groups known to differ on the constructs score differently on measure.
- Convergent Validity – scores on the measure are related to the measures of the same score.
- Discriminant validity – scores on the measure are not related to other measures that are theoretically different.

3.5 Research

The research population, sample, sampling size, and procedure will be discussed.

3.5.1 Research population

According to Burns and Grove (2003: 43) a "*population includes all elements that meet certain criteria for inclusion in a study.*"

The purpose of this study is to determine the level of psychological capital in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management. Of the participants, 76% were in non-management position and 24% in a supervisory position.

3.5.2 Sampling

Sampling is a process used in statistical analysis in which a predetermined number of observations will be taken from a larger population. The methodology used to sample from a larger population will depend on the type of analysis being performed, but will include simple random sampling, systematic sampling and observational sampling.

Polit *et al.*, (2001:234) define a sample as "*a proportion of a population.*" The sample was chosen from employees employed at the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management in Mafikeng (Ngaka Modiri Molema District and Provincial Office), North West Province. A carefully selected sample can provide data representative of the population from which it is drawn.

3.5.3 Sampling size

Holloway and Wheeler (2002) assert that sample size does not influence the importance or quality of the study and note that there are no guidelines in determining sample size in qualitative research. Qualitative researchers do not normally know the number of people in the research beforehand; the sample may change in size and type during research. Employees within Ngaka Modiri Molema District were chosen as a sample size of the study.

3.5.4 Sampling process

Burns and Grove (2003:31) refer to sampling “as a process of selecting a group of people, events or behaviour with which to conduct a study.” Polit *et al.*, (2001) confirm that in sampling a portion that represents the whole population is selected. Sampling is closely related to generalisability of the findings. In this study the sampling was non-probable and purposive.

According to Parahoo (1997), in non-probability sampling researchers use their judgment to select the subjects to be included in the study based on their knowledge of the phenomenon.

The prerequisite for an employee’s participation as a respondent in this study was that he/she must have worked for at least a year in the Department, whereas a supervisor must have been with the Department for more than three years. Combinations of purposive and simple random sampling techniques were used to select samples. This was to ensure that target groups within a population are adequately represented in the sample.

3.6 Data Collection

Data gathering is the precise, systematic gathering of information relevant to the research sub-problems, using methods such as interviews, participant observation, focus group discussion, narratives and case histories (Burns & Grove, 2003).

Data for the study was collected from 500 full-time employees at district and provincial level in Mafikeng area. Employees were given assurance of confidentiality. The collection of data took place at provincial and district level within the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management.

3.7 The Questionnaire

According to Luthans *et al.*, (2007), PsyCap was founded on theoretical frameworks that have been widely recognized (e.g. social cognitive theory, Bandura, 1986; hope theory, Snyder, 2000). The four scales that were included in the development phase of the

instrument were selected based on sound reliability and validity evidence, clear relevance to the workplace and being measures of state-like constructs (Luthans *et al.*, 2007). Based on these criteria, the following four scales were included: hope (Snyder, *et al.*, 1996), resilience (Wagnild & Young, 1993), optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1985) and self-efficacy (Parker, 1998) (Luthans, *et al.*, 2007).

Internal consistency for the PCQ on the four samples reported in Luthans *et al.*, (2007) ranged from 0.72 to 0.80 for hope, 0.66 to 0.72 for resilience, 0.75 to 0.85 for self-efficacy and 0.69 to 0.79 for optimism. The results of a series of higher-order confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) (also cross-validated on another sample) provided strong evidence for the higher-order factor structure for the overall PsyCap measure.

To assess the level of PsyCap in the Department, the recently developed and psychometrically analysed 12 item PsyCap Questionnaire (PCQ) was used (Luthans *et al.*, 2007). The PCQ has demonstrated reliability and construct validity (Luthans, 2007). This questionnaire was validated by using the confirmatory factor analysis across multiple samples (Luthans *et al.*, 2007)

A standardised questionnaire available from the Mind Garden website, www.mindgarden.co.za was used for the purpose of measuring the level of PsyCap in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management. The questionnaire comprises four subscales with equal weight: hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism. Each of these subscales consists of four items with response options from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

The researcher distributed a questionnaire to each participant, the questionnaire included questions regarding gender, age, race, level of education as well as the six scales measuring hope, self-efficacy, optimism and resilience (See Annexure A & B).

3.8 Sample Characteristics

A total number of 500 respondents were randomly selected from 1300 permanent employees employed by the Department of Community Safety & Transport Management. All the participants completed and returned the questionnaire. 178 employees are based at Ngaka Modiri Molema District and 322 are based at the Provincial Office in Mahikeng. According to Hinkin (1995) a minimum of 150 respondents is needed to conduct the study and validate the items, which means that 500 is an acceptable size.

Table 3: Sample Characteristics

	N	%	\bar{x}
ALL RESPONDENTS	500	100	-
AGE	500	S=9.5	39.5
GENDER			
1. Male	286	57	-
2. Female	214	43	-
RACE			
1. African	378	75.6	-
2. Coloured	68	13.6	-
3. White	45	9.0	-
4. Others	9	1.8	-
QUALIFICATION			
1. Matric or equivalent	245	49.0	-
2. National Diploma/Bachelors degree	168	33.6	-
3. Postgraduate qualification	87	17.4	-
POSITION			
1. Senior management	43	8.6	-
2. Middle management/Supervisory	80	16,0	-
3. Technical specialist	83	16.6	-
4. Administrative/Sales	164	32.8	-
5. Operational/Production/Routine	130	26,0	-

3.9 Data capturing and analysis

Data was captured by making use of the SPSS program. The complete database was transferred and analysed by using the SPSS v 22 statistical analysis programme.

Data analysis means “to organise, provide structure and elicit meaning” (Polit *et al.*, 2001: 383). Data will be analysed by using descriptive and correlation methods. The results will be depicted and discussed in chapter four.

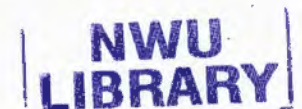
3.9.1 The arithmetic mean

Luthans & Youssef (2004:152) state that the mean “*is the measure of central tendency that is most commonly used and is known as the average value.*” The mean is calculated by adding all the scores together and then dividing the sum by the total number of scores (Burns & Grove, 2007). Arithmetic mean is calculated as the sum of all observed scores divided by the total number of observations. The mean summarises all data used to calculate it, if a value in a distribution changes then this change will affect the mean (Russo, 2003).

3.9.2 The standard deviation

Maltby, Day and Williams (2007:58) describe the standard deviation “*as a descriptive statistic that measures variability and is always associated with the mean*”. According to Burns and Grove (2007), the standard deviation provides the researcher with an indication of the average deviation of a score from the mean in that specific sample and provides a measure of dispersion.

3.10 Hypotheses



A hypothesis is a tentative statement about the expected statement of the relationship between two or more variables. The hypothesis is tentative because its accuracy should be tested empirically. It can be supported by a set of established facts, it can be a rough prediction backed by some tentative theory or set of studies (Temane, 2009).

There are major types of hypothesis, viz. the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis. The null hypothesis is a hypothesis of “*no difference*”. It simply states that

“there is no difference between variable A and variable B. Ho is usually used to represent this hypothesis.

The alternative hypothesis on the other hand predicts some differences between two variables either specifically or not (H1). When a non-specific difference is predicted, it is called the alternative. For example, non-self-efficacy is defined in the Positive Psychological Capital (PPC) model as “*believing in one’s ability to mobilize cognitive resources to obtain specific outcomes*” (Luthans & Youssef, 2004: 152) directional hypothesis.

3.10.1 Guidelines that can be used to sharpen a hypothesis

- a) A hypothesis should predict a particular relationship between two or more variables.
- b) A hypothesis should be stated clearly and unambiguously, usually in the form of a declarative sentence.
- c) A hypothesis must be specific.
- d) A hypothesis should be testable with available techniques (i.e., it should be possible to collect data to test it).
- e) A hypothesis must have empirical referents.

The following table reflects the grouping variables that were used for this purpose:

Table 4: Grouping variables

BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS	GROUPS	
	X	Y
1. Age	Under 35	35 and older
2. Years in labour market	Under 10	10 and more
3. Sex	Male	Female
5. Position	Non-Managerial	Managerial
6. Qualification	Up to Gr. 12 or equivalent	Higher than Gr. 12

3.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter described the research method. The purpose of a research design is to maximize valid answers to a research question. This is achieved by using a descriptive and correlation approach. Questionnaires were distributed to employees as a means to collect data. The researcher analysed data by using a descriptive method and also ensured that the data was trustworthy.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides discussion of findings with the objective of measuring the level of PsyCap factors: namely, hope, self-efficacy, optimism and resilience.

Findings about the demographics of study participants, descriptive and correlation statistics are presented in Table 4.

4.2 Demographic characteristics of the participants

Data for the study was collected from 500 full-time employees from the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management at district and provincial level in Mafikeng area. Employees were given assurance of confidentiality. About 38% of the respondents were between 25 and 35 years of age, 35% between the ages of 36 and 45 and 17% between the ages 46 and 55 and the remaining 10% were older than 56 years of age.

Educational level of both groups varied, about 49% of the respondents had high school education, 34% had graduated from National Diploma and 17% had post graduate qualifications.

Of the participants, 76% were in non-managerial position and 24% in a supervisory position. Most of the respondents have worked for the Department for more than 5 years as the minimum requirement was 1 year. About 33% of the respondents are married, 53% are single and 14% are divorced and there were more males (57%) than females (43) who participated in the study.

Table 5: Sample Characteristics

	N	%
ALL RESPONDENTS	500	100
AGE	500	S=9.5
GENDER		
1. Male	286	57
2. Female	214	43
RACE		
1. African	378	75.6
2. Coloured	68	13.6
3. White	45	9.0
4. Others	9	1.8
QUALIFICATION	245	49.0
1. Matric or equivalent	168	33.6
2. National Diploma/Bachelors degree	87	17.4
3. Post-graduate qualification		
POSITION		
1. Senior management	43	8.6
2. Middle management/Supervisory	80	16.0
3. Technical specialist	83	16.6
4. Administrative/Sales	164	32.8
5. Operational/Production/Routine	130	26.0

4.3 Descriptive statistics

4.3.1 The frequency distributions

The frequency distribution in regard to age is depicted in Table 5

Figure 1: Frequency distribution of Age

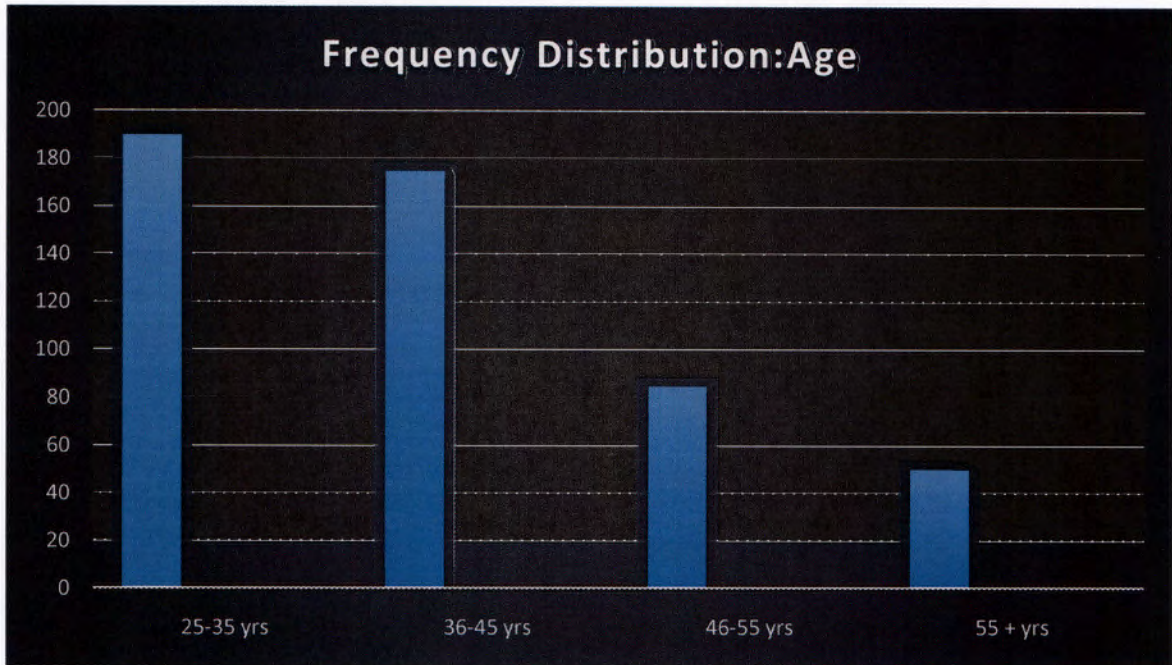
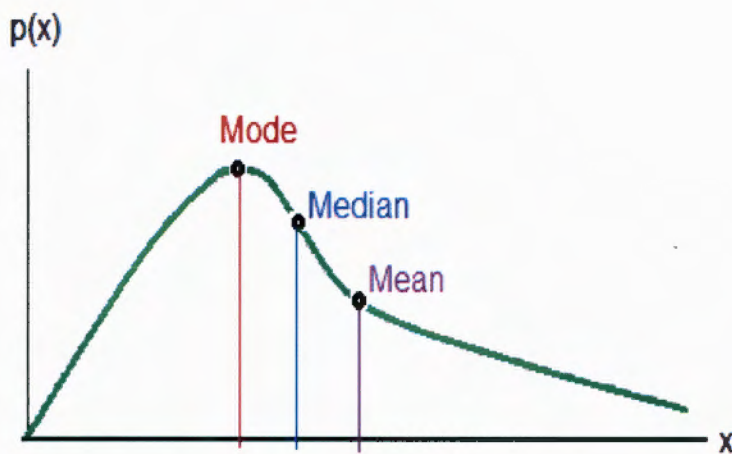


Table 5 shows information about the sample that was taken and the majority of the respondents participated in the study ranges between 25 and 45 years of age. It is therefore, necessary to do a further analysis for recording purposes.

The diagram below simply shows how the population was distributed in table 5.

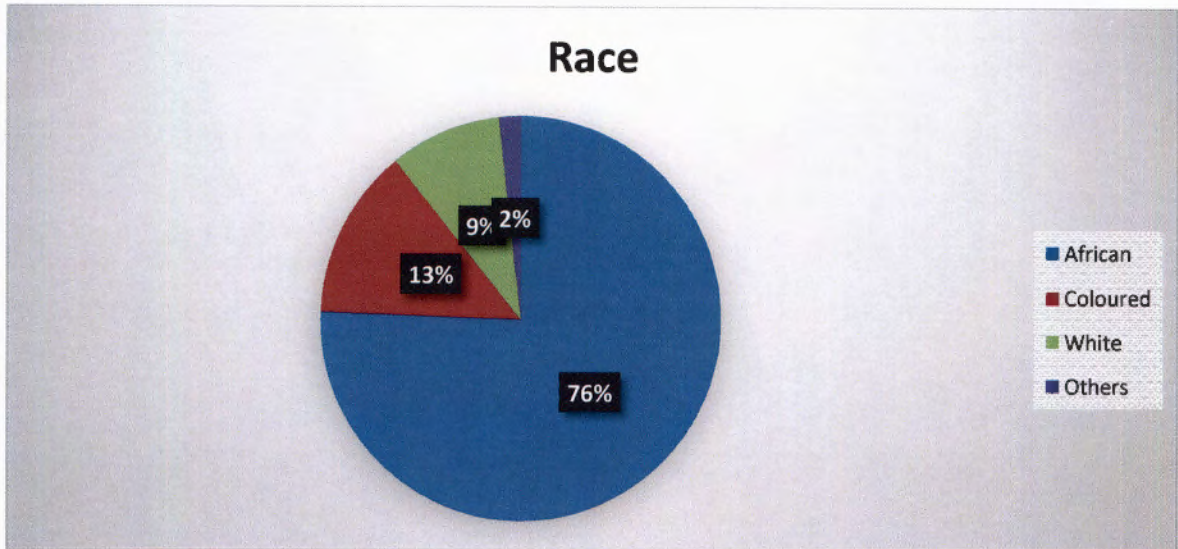
Figure 2: Positively skewed distribution



4.3.2 Frequency distribution of race

The frequency distribution in regard to race is depicted in Table 6

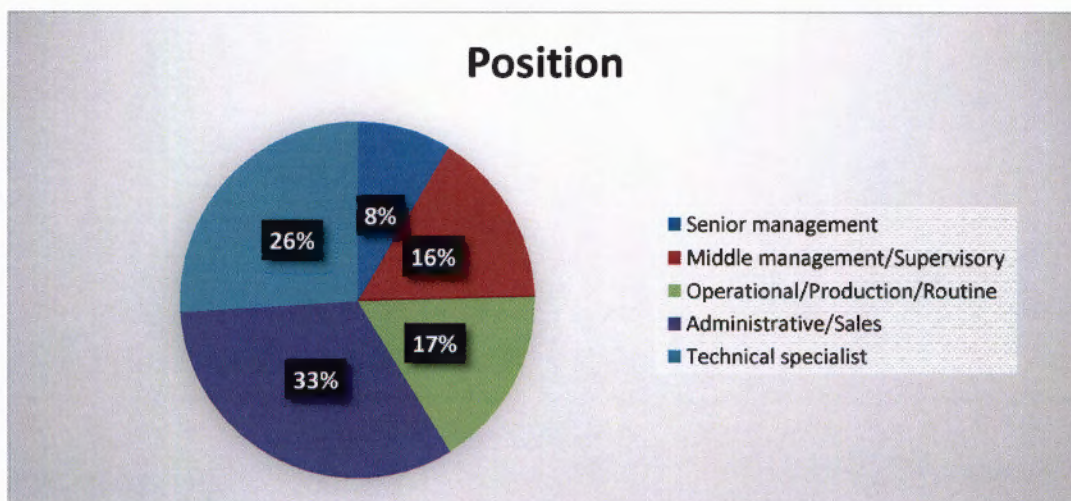
Figure 3: Frequency distribution of race



According to information depicted in Table 6, the majority of respondents participated in the study are Africans with 76%, followed by coloured with 13%, whites is only 9% and 2% represented by others.

4.3.3 Frequency distribution of position

Figure 4: Frequency distribution in regard of position



According to information in Table 7, majority of employees participated in the study falls within the non –managerial positions makes a total number of 76% and the remaining total of 24% are in a supervisory position.

Descriptive statistics was used as a way to examine the mean, standard deviation and other information in the raw data needed to determine the level of PsyCap in a workplace.

The results of the descriptive data for factors of PsyCap, as indicated by the respondents, is summarised in Table 6.

Table 6: Descriptive data

	N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev	Variance
Efficacy	500	13.00	5.00	18.00	13.1480	2.60455	6.784
Hope	500	11.00	7.00	18.00	15.1660	2.47603	6.131
Resilience	500	13.00	5.00	18.00	12.7880	2.47048	6.103
Optimism	500	12.00	6.00	18.00	11.4860	2.83794	8.054

(SPSS statistical analyses used n=500).

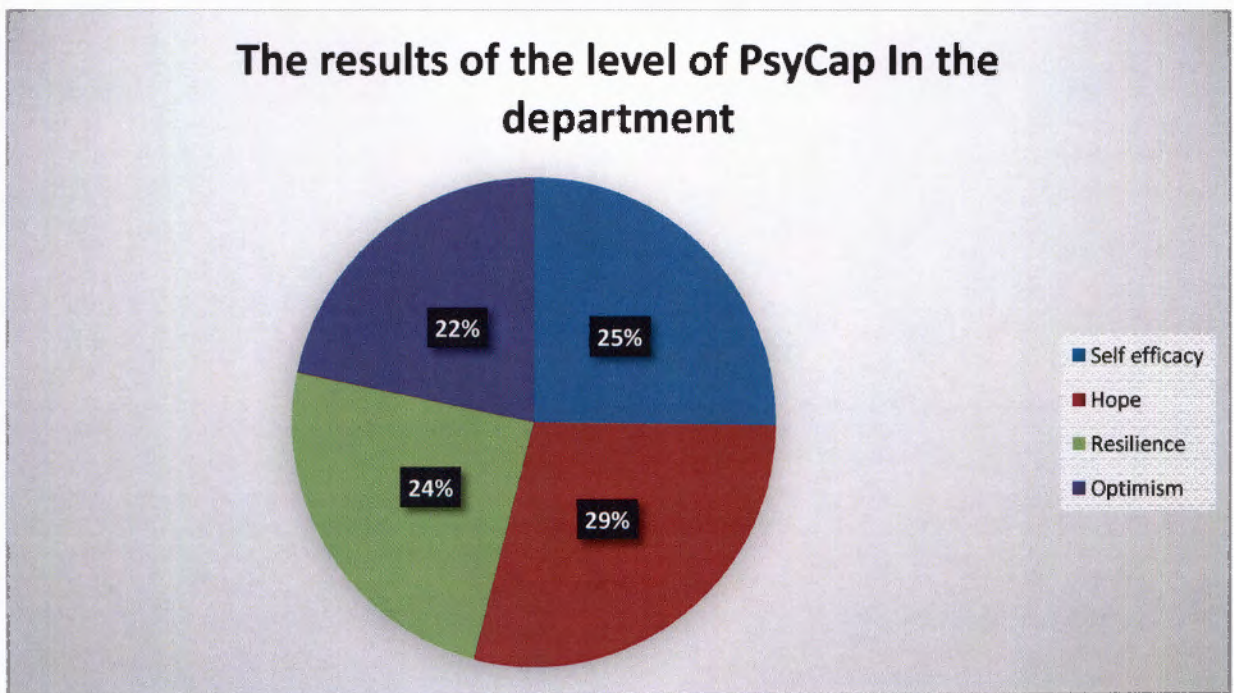
Range is the difference between the maximum and minimum observation of the population as depicted in Table 8. The standard deviation is the best measure of dispersion because it incorporates every data value of a data set. Mean plays an important role on standard deviation because the further away the observations are from the mean, the larger standard deviation and variance will be.

Minimum is known as the minimum score rated by an individual population. This is calculated by taking the total score of each question under each factor of the PsyCap. Maximum is known as the maximum score rated by an individual population.

Measures of centrality consist of mean, mode, and median. Mean-is hardly used and it does not incorporate all the observation on the datasets. Median captures the situation better but it does not take the outliers in account.

Mean is highly used to measure the centrality as it takes all the values into account even though it is easily influenced by outliers. Therefore mean is chosen amongst the other two measure of centrality.

Figure 5: The level of PsyCap in the department



Statistical procedures were performed on a personal computer using SPSS. The mean and standard deviation of numerical values were calculated for all the four factors of PsyCap (HERO).

An average of the items for each dimension was calculated in Table 9 to get the scores and according to the analysis results, averages of 25% of employees are strongly confident in representing their work area in meetings with management.

About 29% of employees see themselves as successful at work and can think of many ways to reach their current work goals. 24 % take stressful things at work in their stride and 22% are optimistic and always look on the bright side of things regarding their job.

4.3.4 The relationship between four factors of PsyCap i.e. Efficacy, Hope, Resilience and Optimism

In this section, the correlation analysis conducted was based on the research questionnaire. The level of PsyCap in a workplace was investigated using two-tailed Pearson correlation analysis as follows:

Table 7: Pearson correlation matrix

	Efficacy	Hope	Resilience	Optimism
Efficacy		0.231**	0.517**	0.143**
Hope	0.231**		0.196**	0.005
Resilience	0.517**	0.196**		0.112*
Optimism	0.143**	0.005	0.112*	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level of significance (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level of significance (2-tailed).



4.3.5 The correlation between Efficacy and Hope, Resilience and Optimism

- The r-value is given as 0.231 indicating that there is a positive and low correlation between Efficacy and Hope.
- The table also indicate the positive and moderate (0.517) correlation between Efficacy and Resilience. Lastly, a positive and low (0.143) correlation between Efficacy and Optimism is reported from the table.
- Statistically significant results prove that indeed there is a correlation between efficacy and all other variables (hope, resilience and optimism).

4.3.6 The correlation between Hope, Resilience and Optimism

- The results in Table 6 shows that the correlation between Hope and Resilience is positive and low (0.196), also the correlation is proven to be significant at both 0.01 and 0.05 levels of significance. But, the correlation between hope and optimism is almost non-existent with the r-value (0.005) almost approaching close to zero.

4.3.7 The correlation between Resilience and Optimism

- The table reflects the positive and low (0.112) correlation between Resilience and Optimism. Substantiating this is the fact that the variable is statistically significant at 0.05 level of significant.

4.4 SUMMARY

The research results were reported and interpreted in this chapter. Data was analysed and discussed. Chapter five will focus on a consolidated discussion of the reported results, with the reference to relevant literature.

Limitations of this study will then be noted and recommendations for future research will be proposed.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This research has been structured in five chapters in order to realise the objective of this study. References to, and comparisons with the relevant literature of previous research will also be presented. This chapter concludes with recommendations for future research.

Chapter one covered an overview of the problem. The main objective of this research was to determine the level of PsyCap (HERO) of employees in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management.

In chapter two, the literature was reviewed with the aim of obtaining background and knowledge about the research topic. PsyCap (HERO) was discussed in detail in this chapter.

Chapter three provided an overview of the research methods, research design, descriptive and correlation research and the instrument used to evaluate the level of PsyCap in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management.

Chapter four was about the discussions and analysis of the research findings related to the research questions.

In chapter five the conclusions and recommendations, based on the research findings, are provided.

5.2 Significance of findings on age, gender and race

With reference to age of respondents, there were no significant differences in how different age groups can influence the level of PsyCap in a workplace; the majority of respondents in this study were young ranges between 25 and 45 years of age, therefore age was not a significant factor. There is no significant differences in the way people from different gender can be influenced by the level of PsyCap in a workplace. Previous

studies indicated that men and women often become motivated to leave their jobs for different reasons (Donnelly and Quirin, 2006).

Race can be a significant factor because according to the mean scores, the majority of employees participated in the research is Africans. Most African employee's level of PsyCap is moderate as compared to the Whites. White people's level of PsyCap is high, they may possess confidence in their analytic and decision making skills inherited from the privileges they had in the past. With regard to positions, the majority of employees participated are in a non-managerial position. Previous studies conducted indicated that employees who are not happy in their workplace can resort to legal action (Ehlers, 2007).

5.3 Suggestions for the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management

Studies that were previously conducted indicated that employees who display higher levels of hope, efficacy, resilient and optimism were found to be more satisfied and committed to their work than those who display a low level of PsyCap (Luthans *et al.*, 2007).

Findings showed that policies are in place, but they are not properly implemented. They only exist to be used on certain individuals and this contributed in reducing the morale of the employees as they considered that they are not being treated fairly. There was an outcry that "some people" are untouchable in a workplace, do as they wish and no disciplinary steps are taken against them. Hard working employees also raised a concern that they don't get incentives for job well done, but that this only goes to the selected "few" people.

According to Lewis (2011) each of the four individual capabilities that makes up PsyCap are associated with good life experiences and outcomes for individual, suggesting that helping people who didn't have the opportunity to develop these capabilities earlier in life is a morality justifiable endeavour.

For the Department to achieve its objective, it has to keep on ensuring that the PsyCap level amongst employees is developed on a continuous basis. If this exercise is not monitored, the Department may experience lower performance, greater turnover and increased absenteeism. More programmes have to be conducted to boost the morale of the employees., Management must provide a conducive work environment, promote employee participation, listen to opinions of employees, encourage team building, and provide resources to develop each employee in line with their departmental objectives, strategies and policies.

As employees spend most of their time at a workplace it is crucial for managers for not ignoring the human factor in general (and PsyCap in particular) in their quest for long-term survival and excellence in the service of their organisations. Positive relationships not only feel good, they are good for us at a deep and fundamental level. Positive relationships also have good effects for us at work, being linked to increased career mobility, access to mentoring and other organisational resources, power and influence and the creation of social capital (Cameron, 2008). Being in positive relationships at work and elsewhere is fundamentally good for us as individuals and for the organisation (Lewis, 2011).

To facilitate efficiency and positive well-being amongst employees, it is recommended that organisations invest in the development of PsyCap (Avey, Luthans & Youssef, 2010). A study by Luthans *et al.*, (2006) found that human resource interventions aimed at developing the state-like construct of PsyCap can be facilitated by means of training sessions.



Research and consulting by the Gallup Organisation also supports the importance of positive, strength-based organizational cultures and human resource practices (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Wagner & Harter, 2006). For example, factors such as effective selection and placement practices that capitalize on employees' talents, clear and aligned goals and expectations, social support and recognition, and opportunities for growth, development, and self-actualization have been found to significantly contribute to employee engagement, customer satisfaction,

and ultimately organisational profitability and growth (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003).

The development of organisational interventions may increase employees' personal resources which will, in turn, increase their PsyCap levels and facilitate increased employee wellness, work engagement and organisational commitment (Luthans *et al.*, 2006). The development of PsyCap and positive employee attitudes and behaviours are expected to contribute to positive work-related outcomes (Donaldson & Ko, 2010).

The purpose of this research was to determine the level of PsyCap (HERO) in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management and to investigate the significance of differences and similarities between groups of different age, position and race.

The research findings will benefit all parties in the Department and pave the way for intervention programmes to develop the PsyCap of employees in organisations, which will then lead to them being more productive workers.

5.4 Recommendation for Future Research

Future research should focus on other organisational attitudes and variables such as positive output and also check the level of PsyCap across different generations.

The study's finding on PsyCap and organisational commitment is a starting point for future research. The results showed evidence of the reliability and validity of the PCQ-12 in the South African context. However, given the limitation of the current sample, further studies should be conducted using the PCQ-24.

5.5 Limitations

In this study the researcher determined the level of PsyCap in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management. There were several limitations to this study that could have affected the results. Although the statistical significance was found with 500 participants, it may still be difficult to generalise the results. Future

studies can overcome the limitations of the generalisation of the findings by using a larger sample size across different contexts. In order to increase the external validity of this study, future research should contain a more diverse set of participants. Further research should involve a nationwide survey covering samples from the whole population of the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management in all the 9 Provinces in South Africa.

5.6 Conclusions

The overall aim of this study was to determine the relationship between four components of PsyCap in the Department of Community Safety and Transport Management. The results of this research provide evidence that hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience are all positive personal traits which positively contribute to one's emotional state.

The moderate significant relationships which emerged between hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience is an indication that individuals who have a high level of either one (or more) of the four constructs included in PsyCap, is likely also to have a high or low level of the other PsyCap constructs as well.

Research has shown that psychological resource capacities do have a positive impact on work-related outcomes such as work engagement and organisational commitment (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). The different dimensions of PsyCap have been shown to have a positive correlation with organisational commitment (Luthans *et al.*, 2008). Empirical research has found that organisational commitment is correlated with hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy (Sinha, Talwar & Rajpal, 2002; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Buys and Rothmann (2010) reported a positive correlation between organisational commitment and work engagement, concluding that engaged employees had better social functioning and affective commitment. Researchers have also presented evidence that work engagement and organisational commitment have a complementary relationship (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Macey & Schneider, 2008).

References

1. Adams, V., Snyder, C.R., Rand, K., Sigmon, D. & Pulvers, K.M. (2002). Hope in the workplace. In R. Giacolone, & C. Jurkiewicz (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace spirituality and organizational performance* (pp. 367–377). New York: Sharpe.
2. Avey, J.B., Luthans, F. & Jensen, S.M. (2009). Psychological capital: a positive resource for combating employee stress and turnover. *Human Resource Management*, 48(5): 677–693. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20294>
3. Avey, J.B., Luthans, F. & Youssef, C.M. (2010). The additive value of positive psychological capital in predicting work attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 36(2): 430–452. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920630832996>
4. Avey, J.B., Luthans, F. & Youssef, C.M. (in press). The additive value of positive psychological capital in predicting work attitude and behaviours. *Journal of management*.
5. Avey, J.B., Wernsing, T.S. & Luthans, F. (2008). Can positive employees help positive organizational change? Impact of psychological capital and emotions on relevant attitudes and behaviors. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 44(1): 48–70. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0021886307311470>
6. Bakker, A.B., Van der Zee, K.I., Lewig, K.A. & Dollard, M.F. (2006). The relationship between the Big Five personality factors and burnout: A study among volunteer counselors. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 146(1): 31–50.
7. Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
8. Bandura, A. (1989). A social cognitive theory of action. In J. P. Forgas & M. J. Innes (Eds.), *Recent advances in social psychology: An international perspective* (127-138). North Holland: Elsevier.
9. Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V.S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior*, 4. New York: Academic Press, 71–81.
10. Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise control*. New York: Freeman.
11. Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52 (1): 1–26. doi: 10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.
12. Bandura, A. & Locke, E. (2003). Negative self-efficacy and goal effects revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88: 87–99.

13. Barling, J. & Beattie, R. (1983). Self-efficacy beliefs and sales performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 5: 41–51.
14. Bauer, T.N., Bodner, T., Erdogan, B., Truxillo, D.M. & Tucker, J.S. (2007). Newcomer adjustment during organizational socialization: A meta-analytic review of antecedents, outcomes, and methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3): 707–721. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.3.707>, PMID: 17484552
15. Baumgardner, S.R. & Crothers, M.K. (2010). *Positive Psychology*. New Jersey: Pearson Education.
16. Beck, M. (2008). If at First You Don't Succeed, You're in Excellent Company. *The Wall Street Journal*, April p 1.
17. Bonanno, G.A. (2004). Loss, trauma and human resilience: Have we underestimated the human capacity to thrive after extremely aversive events? *American Psychology*, 59(1): 20–28.
18. Booyens, K. (2003). *The nature and extent of child and youth misbehaviour in South Africa. A holistic view*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
19. Brouwer, D., Meijer, R.R., Weekers, A.M. and Baneke, J.J. (2008). "On the dimensionality of the dispositional hope scale", *Psychological Assessment*, 20 (3), 310–315. doi:10.1037/1040-3590.20.3.310
20. Bryant, F.B. & Cvengros, J.A. (2004). Distinguishing hope and optimism. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 23: 273–302.
21. Buckingham, M., & Clifton, D. (2001). *Now, discover your strengths*. New York: Free Press.
22. Buckingham, M., & Coffman, C. (1999). *First, break all the rules. What the world's greatest managers do differently*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
23. Burns, N. & Grove, S.K. (2009). *The practice of nursing research: Appraisal, synthesis, and generation of evidence*. 6th ed. Saunders Elsevier, St. Louis.
24. Burns, S.N. & Grove, S.K. (2003). *Understanding nursing research. Building an evidence-based practice*. Elsevier Health Sciences.
25. Burns, N. & Grove, S. (2007). *Understanding nursing research: building an evidence-based practice*. 4th ed. St. Louis, MO: Saunders Elsevier.

26. Buys, C. & Rothmann, S. (2010). Burnout and engagement of reformed church ministers. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology/SA Tydskrif vir Bedryfsielkunde*, 36(1): Art. #825, 11 pages. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v36i1.82>
27. Cameron, K. (2008). *Positive Leadership: Strategies for Extraordinary Performance*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
28. Carifio, J. & Rhodes, L. (2002). Construct validities and the empirical relationships between optimism, hope, self-efficacy, and locus of control. *Work*, 19: 125–136.
29. Carver, C.S. & Scheier, M.F. (2002). Optimism. In C.R. Snyder & S.J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 231–243). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
30. Carver, C.S. & Scheier, M.S. (2005). Optimism. In C.R. Snyder & S.J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology*, (231–243). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
31. Compton, W.C. (2005). *An introduction to positive psychology*. Belmont, CA: Thompson-Wadsworth.
32. Copeland, M. (2006). Tips for Building Self-Esteem. *Psych Central*. Retrieved from <http://psychcentral.com/lib/blueprints-for-building-self-esteem/000293>
33. Coutu, D.L. (2002). How resilience works. *Harvard Business Review*, 46–55.
34. Cozby, P.C. (2004). *Methods in Behavioural Research*. 8th ed. McGraw-Hill.
35. Dahlsgaard, K., Peterson, C. & Seligman, M.E.P. (2005). Shared virtue: The convergence of valued human strengths across culture and history. *Review of General Psychology*, 9(3): 203–213. doi:10.1037/1089-2680.9.3.203.
36. Dalton, N.W. (2006). *Self Management*. 2nd edition.
37. De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delpont, C.S.L. (2008). *Research at grass roots*. 3rd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
38. Demerouti, E., Bakker, A.B., Nachreiner, F. & Schaufeli, W.B. (2001), "The job demands resources model of burnout", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3): 499–512.
39. Donaldson, S.I. & Ko, I. (2010). Positive organizational psychology, behaviour, and scholarship: A review of the emerging literature and evidence base. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 5(3): 177–191. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17439761003790930>
40. Donnelly, D. & Quirin, J. (2006). An extension of Lee and Mitchell's unfolding model of voluntary turnover. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*. 2:57-77.

41. Duckworth, A. L., Steen, T. A. & Seligman, M.E.P. (2005). Positive psychology in clinical practice. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, 1: 629–51. doi:10.1146/annurev.clinpsy.1.102803.144154.
42. Duggleby, W., Cooper, D. & Penz, K. (2009). Hope, self-efficacy, spiritual well-being and job satisfaction. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 65 (11): 2376–2385. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.13652648.2009.05094.x>, PMID:19737323
43. Ehlers, L.I. (2007). Labour relations systems, practice and procedures. Pretoria: EAMS Publishing.
44. Ehrenreich, B. (2009). *Bright-sided: how the relentless promotion of positive thinking has undermined America*. New York: Metropolitan Books.
45. Fitton, E. (2008). Self-efficacy. Funderstanding. Retrieved April 18, 2010, from <http://www.funderstanding.com/content/self-efficacy>.
46. Frank, PH.D, M. (2011). *The pillars of the self concept: Self-esteem and self-efficacy*. Retrieved from <http://www.excelatlife.com/articles/selfesteem.htm>.
47. Fredrickson, B.L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions [Special issue]. *American Psychologist*, 56(3): 218–226. doi:10.1037/0003–066X.56.3.218.
48. Fredrickson, B.L. & Losada, M.F. (2005). Positive affect and the complex dynamics of human flourishing. *The American psychologist*, 60(7), 678–86. doi:10.1037/0003–066X.60.7.678.
49. Furnham, A. (2008). 50 Psychology ideas you really need to know. London. Quercus Publishing Plc.
50. Gable, S.L., & Haidt, J. (2005). What (and why) is Positive Psychology? *Review of General Psychology*, 9(92):103–110.
51. Gibson, J.L., Donnelly, J.H., Ivancevich, J.M. & Konopaske, R. (2003). *Organizations Behaviour Structure Processes*. 11th ed. McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
52. Guindon, M.H. (2002). Toward Accountability in the Use of the Self-Esteem Construct. *Journal of Counselling & Development*, 80(2): 204–214.
53. Harris, G.E. & Cameron, J.E. (2005). Multiple dimensions of organizational identification and commitment as predictors of turnover intentions and psychological well-being.

54. Harter, J., Schmidt, F., & Hayes, T. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87: 268-279.
55. Harter, J., Schmidt, F., & Keyes, C. (2003). Well-being in the workplace and its relationship to business outcomes: A review of the Gallup studies. In C. Keyes & J. Haidt (eds.), *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived* : 205-224. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
56. Hinkin, T.R. (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organisations, *Journal of Management*. 21, 967-988.
57. Holloway, I. & Wheeler, S. (2002). *Qualitative Research in Nursing*. 2nd ed: Blackwell Science.
58. Isakson, K. (2006). *Psychological contracts across employment situation (Psychones)*. Stockholm: National Institute for Working Life.
59. Keyes, C.L.M. & Haidt, J. (Eds.). (2003). *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well lived*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
60. Krueger, N., Reilly, M.D. & Carsrud, A.L. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15(5), 411–432. doi:10.1016/S0883- 9026(98) 00033-3.
61. Larson, M. & Luthans, F. (2006). Potential added value of psychological capital in predicting work attitudes. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 13(2): 75–92. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/10717919070130020601>
62. Leiter, M.P. & Maslach, C. (2005). *Banishing Burnout: Six Strategies for Improving Your Relationship with Work*. John Wiley and Sons, San Francisco, CA.
63. Lewis, S. (2011). *Positive Psychology at work: How positive leadership and appreciative inquiry create inspiring organizations*. John Wiley and Sons, Blackwell Publishing.
64. Luthans, F. (2002a). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23: 695–706. doi:10.1002/job.165

65. Luthans, F. (2002b). Positive organizational behavior: Developing and managing psychological strengths. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16(1): 57–72. doi:10.5465/AME.2002.6640181
66. Luthans, F., Avey, J.B., Avolio, B.J., Norman, S.M. & Combs, G.M. (2006). Psychological capital development: toward a micro-intervention. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 27: 387–393. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.373>
67. Luthans, F., Avolio, B.J., Avey, J.B. & Norman, S.M. (2007). Psychological Capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 60: 541–572.
68. Luthans, F., Avolio, B., Walumbwa, F. & Li, W. (2005). The psychological capital of Chinese workers: exploring the relationship with performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 1(2): 247–269. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1740-8784.2005.00011.x>
69. Luthans, F. & Jensen, S.M. (2002). Hope: A new positive strength for human resource development. *Human Resource Development Review*, 1(3): 304–322. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1534484302013003>.
70. Luthans, F. & Jensen, S.M. (2005). The linkage between psychological capital and commitment to organizational mission: A study of nurses. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 35(6): 304–310.
71. Luthans, F., Luthans, K.W., & Luthans, B.C. (2004). Positive Psychological Capital: Beyond human and social capital. *Business Horizons*, 47(1): 45–50. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2003.11.007>
72. Luthans, F., Norman, S.M., Avolio, B.J. & Avey, J.B. (2008). The mediating role of psychological capital in the supportive organizational climate-employee performance relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 29(2): 219–238. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.507>
73. Luthans, F. & Youssef, C.M. (2004). Human, social, and now positive psychological capital management: investing in people for competitive advantage. *Organizational Dynamics*, 33: 143–160. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2004.01.003>
74. Luthans, F. & Youssef, C.M. (2007). Emerging positive organizational behaviour. *Journal of Management*, 33(3): 321–349. doi:10.1177/0149206307300814

75. Luthans, F., Youseff, C.M. & Avolio, B.J. (2007). *Psychological Capital: Developing the Human Competitive Edge*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
76. Luthans, F., Youseff, C.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1993). *Psychological Capital*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
77. Macey, W.H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of work engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1: 3–30. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-9434.2007.0002.x>
78. Maddux, J.E. (2002). Self-efficacy: The power of believing you can. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 277–287). New York: Oxford University Press.
79. Maltby, J., Day, L. & Williams, G. (2007). *Introduction to statistics for nurses*. Harlow: Pearson Education.
80. Markman, G.D. & Baron, R.A. (2003). Person-entrepreneurship fit: Why some people are more successful entrepreneurs than others. *Human Resource Management Review*, 13 (2): 281–301. doi:10.16/S1053-4822 (03)00018-4
81. Martin-Krumm, C.P., Sarrazin, P.G., Peterson, C. & Famose, J.-P. (2003). Explanatory style and resilience after sports failure. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35(7): 1685–1695.
82. Masten, A.S. (2001). Ordinary magic: Resilience process in development. *American Psychologist*: 227–239.
83. Masten, A.S. & Reed, M.G.J. (2002). Resilience in development. In C. R. Snyder & S. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 74–88). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
84. Norman, S., Luthans, B. & Luthans, K. (2005). The Proposed Contagion Effect of Hopeful Leaders on the Resiliency of Employees and Organizations. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 12(2): 55.
85. Ormrod, J.E. (2008). *Human learning* 5th ed. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Education Inc.
86. Parahoo, K. (1997). *Nursing research: Principles, process and issues*. London: MacMillan Press.

87. Park, N., Peterson, C. & Seligman, M.E.P. (2004). Strengths of character and well-being: A closer look at hope and modesty [Special issue]. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 23(5): 628–634. doi:10.1521/jscp.23.5.628.50749
88. Parker, S. (1998). Enhancing role-breath self- efficacy: The roles of job enrichment and other organizational interventions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83:835–852. doi:10.1177/0149206308329961
89. Peterson, C. (2000). The future of optimism. *An American Psychologist*, 55: 68–78.
90. Peterson, C. (2004). Positive social science. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 591(1): 186–201. doi:10.1177/0002716203260100
91. Peterson, S. & Luthans, F. (2003). The positive impact and development of hopeful leaders. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 24(1): 26–31. doi:10.1002/hrm.20294
92. Peterson, S.J., Walumbwa, F.O., Byron, K. & Myrowitz, J. (2009). CEO Positive Psychological traits, transformational leadership and firm performance in high-technology start-up and established firms. *Journal of Management*, 35(2): 348–368. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206307312512>
93. Podsakoff, N.P., LePine, J.A. & LePine, M.A. (2007). Differential challenge stressor-hindrance stressor relationships with job attitudes, turnover intentions, turnover, and withdrawal behavior: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(2): 227–239. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.438
94. Polit, D.F., Beck, C.T. & Hungler, B.P. (2001). *Essentials of Nursing Research; Methods, Appraisal and Utilisation*. 5th ed. Philadelphia: Lippicott Williams & Wilkins.
95. Redmond, B.F. (2010). Self Efficacy Theory: Do I think that I can succeed in my work? Work Attitudes and Motivation. The Pennsylvania State University; World Campus. <https://cms.psu.edu>.
96. Rosenberg, M. & Owens, T.J. (2001). Low self-esteem people: A collective portrait. In T.J. Owens. S. Stryker & N. Goodmanm (Eds.), *Extending self-esteem theory and research* (pp. 400–436). New York: Cambridge University Press.
97. Rothmann, S. (2003). Burnout and engagement: a South African perspective. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology/SA Tydskrif vir Bedryfsielkunde*, 29(4): 16–25.
98. Russo, D. (2003). *Statistic for the Behavioural Sciences*. New York: Psychology Press.

99. Scheier, M.F., & Carver, C.S (1985). Optimism, coping and health: Assessment and implications of generalized outcome expectancies. *Health Psychology*, 4: 219–247.
100. Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, J. B. (1994). *Self-regulation of learning and performance: issues and educational applications*. New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group. Retrieved from <http://books.google.com/books?id=IZZsd75ere4C&lpg=PR1&dq=>
101. Seligman, M.E.P. (1998). *Learned optimism*. New York: Pocket Books.
102. Seligman, M.E.P. 2002. *Authentic happiness*. New York: Free Press.
103. Seligman, M.E.P. & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, 55: 5–14. doi:10.1002/job.507
104. Silverstone, P.H. & Salsali, M. (2003). Low self-esteem and psychiatric patients: Part I— The relationship between low self-esteem and psychiatric diagnosis. *Annals of General Psychiatry*, 2(1): 2.
105. Simmons, B.L. & Nelson, D.L. (2001). Eustress at work: the relationship between hope and health in hospital nurses. *Health care management review*, 26 (4): 7–18.
106. Simmons, B.L., Nelson, D.L. & Neal, L.J. (2001). A comparison of the positive and negative work attitudes of home health care and hospital nurses. *Health Care Management Review*, 26(3): 63–74.
107. Smith, K., & Hitt, M. A. (2005). *Great minds in management: The process of theory development*. New York: Oxford. Retrieved from
108. Sinha, S. P. Talwar, T. & Rajpal, R. (2002). Correlational study of organizational commitment, self-efficacy and psychological barriers to technological change. *Psychologia*, 45(3): 176–183. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2117/psysoc.2002.176>
109. Snyder, C. (2000) *Handbook of Hope*. San Diego: Academic Press.
110. Snyder, C.R. (2002). Hope theory: rainbows in the mind. *Psychological Inquiry*, 13(4): 249–275. <http://dx.doi/10.1207/S15327965PL11304-01>
111. Snyder, C. R., Irving, L. M., & Anderson, J. R. (1991). Hope and health. In C. R. Snyder (Ed.), *Handbook of social and clinical psychology* (295–305). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
112. Snyder, C. R., & Lopez, S. (2002). *Handbook of positive psychology*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

113. Snyder, C.R., Sympson, S., Ybasco, F., Borders, T., Babyak, M. & Higgins, R. (1996). Development and validation of the state hope scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70: 321–335.
114. Smith, K., & Hitt, M. A. (2005). *Great minds in management: The process of theory development*. New York: Oxford.
115. Struwig, F.W. & Stead, G.B. (2004). *Planning, designing, and reporting research*. 3rd ed. Pearson.
116. Temane, M. (2009). *Business Research Methods & Statistics*: North West University.
117. Valle, M.F., Huebner, E.S. & Suldo, S.M. (2006). Analysis of hope as a psychological strength. *Journal of School of Psychology*, 44 (5): 393–406. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2006.03.005
118. Van der Bijl, J. J., & Shortridge-Baggett, L. M. (2002). The theory and measurement of the self-efficacy construct. In E. A. Lentz & L. M. Shortridge-Baggett (Eds.), *Self-efficacy in nursing: Research and measurement perspectives* (pp. 9-28). New York: Springer. Retrieved from http://books.google.com/books?id=J6ujWyh_4_gC
119. Van der Walt, N.T., Ingley, C.B. & Diack, G. (2002). Corporate Governance: Implications of Ownership, Performance Requirements and Strategy, *Journal of Change Management*.
120. Vernoy, M.W. & Kyle, D. (2003). *Behavioral Statistics in Action*. 3rd ed. McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
121. Wagner, R., & Harter, J. K. (2006). 12: The elements of great managing New York: Gallup Press.
122. Wagnild, G.M. & Young, H.M. (1993). Development and psychometric evaluation of the resiliency scale. *Journal of nursing management* 1(2):165–178. doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2011.03.006
123. Warren, R. (2014). Eliminate Negative Self-Talk.
124. Williams, S. L. (1995). Self-efficacy, anxiety, and phobic disorders. In J. E. Maddux, (Ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research and application* (69-107). New York: Plenum.

125. Williams, T., & Williams, K. (2010). Self-efficacy and performance in mathematics: Reciprocal determinism in 33 nations. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(2), 453-466. doi:10.1037/a0017271
126. www.mindgarden.co.za
127. Yagil, D. (2006). "The relationship of service provider power motivation, empowerment and burnout to customer satisfaction." *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 17*(3): 258–70.
128. Youssef, C.M. & Luthans, F. (2005). Resiliency development of organisations, leaders & employees: Multi-level theory building for sustained performance. In W. Gardner, B.J. Avolio & F.O. Walumbwa (Eds.), *Authentic leadership theory and practice. Origins, effects and development*. Oxford, UK: Elsevier.
129. Youssef, C.M. & Luthans, F. (2007). Positive Organisational Behaviour in a workplace: The impact of hope, optimism and resilience. *Journal of Management, 33*:774–800.
130. Youssef, C.M. & Luthans, F. (2010). Positive psychological capital in the workplace: Where we are and where we need to go. In K. Sheldon, T. Kashdan & M. Steger (Eds). *Designing positive psychology: Taking stock and moving forward*. (351–364) New York: Oxford University Press.
131. Zimmerman, B., & Schunk, D. (2001). *Self-Regulated Learning and Academic Achievement*. (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Annexure A

Demographic Questions The following questions concern your position and other personal information. Completion of this information is voluntary and its confidentiality is assured. No individual data will be reported.

1. What is your Gender?

Male

Female

2. What is your Job Title? _____

3 (a) How long have you worked for the current Department?

_____ Years _____ Months

3 (b) How long have you worked for your current position?

_____ Years _____ Months

4. How long is your previous work experience on the same position?

_____ Years _____ Months

5. What is your Age Group?

Under 26

46-55

26-35

56 to 65

36-45

6. What is your highest level of Education?

Matric

Certificate

Diploma/Bachelor's degree

Post Graduate degree

7. What is your marital status?

Married

Single

Other _____

ANNEXURE B

PsyCap Questionnaire (PCQ)

Below are statements about you with which you may agree or disagree.

Using the following scales, indicate your level of agreement or disagreement.

1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat disagree	4 Somewhat agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly agree
----------------------------------	----------------------	----------------------------------	-------------------------------	-------------------	-------------------------------

Efficacy: Items 1-3, Hope: Items 4-6, Resilience: 7-9, Optimism: 10-12

1. I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

2. I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

3. I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

4. If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

5. Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

6. I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

7. I can be "on my own" so to speak at work if I have to.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

8. I usually take stressful things at work in stride.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

9. I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

10. When things are uncertain for me at work I usually expect the best.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

11. I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

12. I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

=====**Thank you for your co-operation!!**=====