CAREER ENGAGEMENT: A FUNCTION OF EMPLOYEE OPTIMISM AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP

Ph.D THESIS

by

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CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in the thesis entitled **"CAREER ENGAGEMENT: A FUNCTION OF EMPLOYEE OPTIMISM AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP"** in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy and submitted in the Department of Management Studies of the Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee is an authentic record of my own work carried out during a period from July, 2016 to July, 2019 under the supervision of Dr. Santosh Rangnekar, Professor, Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee.

The matter presented in this thesis has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other Institute.

(TEENA BHARTI)

This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of my knowledge.

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The Ph. D. Viva-Voce Examination of Ms. Teena Bharti, Research Scholar, has been held on 23-09-2019.

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Signature of Supervisor **Head of the Department**
Dated:_____

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ABSTRACT

The dynamic and turbulent business environment has brought many changes in the socio-economic environment, and it poses a greater challenge to modern organizations in terms of managing their human resources. In the era of knowledge economy, HR is tasked with managing an organization's most treasured asset – its people. HR professionals often need to be recruiters, mentors, and counsellors; as more and more organizations seek to embrace a culture which supports career development. For many of us, a career is primarily a source of financial stability, but it is no secret that an engaged workforce contributes to higher financial returns. In recent years, there has been a lot of research on the perception of having called one's career, or "work that a person perceives as his/ her purpose in life". Over the past decades, people feel accountable for career management due to altercations in career. This change has amplified the need to be more engaged with the proactive career behaviours.

According to Gallup Management, individuals work with similar aims, objectives and insights who willingly joined hands together to attain what individuals cannot accomplish in isolation. However, in any organization that is goal-oriented, workers collaborative efforts in association with their level of interpersonal relationship tend to affect the performance of entire work-group. The need for interpersonal relationship at workplace, therefore, cannot be ignored as they can establish a supportive and innovative climate, influence organizational output by increasing participation and organizational productivity. Past researches have asserted that positive emotions have proven that positivity in employees result in a successful career. Also, a sense of career identity and engagement are important predictors of intentions to stay or leave the profession and career optimism is related to personality and career satisfaction. Additionally, the "India Employee Survey" by HR tech startup Hush highlighted that 22 percent of the employees feel that their productivity is low due to overwork and stress in the manufacturing sector. A survey by Blue Steps, a career management service for executives, reported that the senior executives working in India are more optimistic about their careers as compared to their subordinates. Thus, the current study tries to assess the relationship between interpersonal relationship, employee optimism and career engagement along with the demographic variables, namely gender, age and education level in Indian organizations. The present study also examined the role of demographics in influencing the independent (IV) and dependent variables (DV) of the study. This study also analyzed the moderating role of gender, age and education in career engagement and optimism relationship. The data were collected from 381 employees (junior,

middle and senior-level) of Indian organizations (public and private both) of size more than 500 Crores (Indian currency annual turnover) via simple random sampling method. The hypotheses were tested with the help of t-test, ANOVA, Exploratory factor analysis, Confirmatory factor analysis, and hierarchical regression analysis using SPSS version 24. The results revealed significant demographic differences in the variables under study. Also, the study highlighted that the dimensions of interpersonal relationship as well as optimism were found to be significant predictors of career engagement. Additionally, the results indicated that optimism acted as a mediator between interpersonal relationship and career engagement wherein the demographics moderated the relationship of optimism and career engagement. The strength of the relationship between optimism and career engagement was stronger for male employees at the high level of optimism in comparison to the female employees. The results depicted that middle-aged are more engaged at a higher optimism level as compared to the old- aged and young-age employees. The strength of optimism and career engagement is stronger for employees having high education level than employees having low education level, i.e. diploma and graduate. This research significantly contributes to the Social Cognitive Career Theory and Life Span Development Theory.

Further, the study has certain implications for academicians and managers. The study sheds light on having or developing a positive expectation related to the outcome and provides insights in framing the future, i.e. plan for the professional as well as personal lives. This study recommends that organizations should aid and include the role of optimism as well as social networks to enable employee's getting more engaged with their careers. Practitioners should incorporate strategies to inculcate optimism considering its supreme importance for increasing the engagement level of Indian managers as it comprises of from the capacity component, whether an individual has the resources necessary to meet the challenges that job presents. Lastly, the study has some limitations as well as future research directions.

Keywords: Career engagement, demographics, interpersonal relationship, mediation analysis, moderation analysis, optimism.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

1. ASV = Average Shared Variance
2. ANOVA=Analysis of Variance
3. AVE =Average Variance Extracted
4. CE=Career Engagement
5. CFI =Comparative Fit Index
6. CFA=Confirmatory Factor Analysis
7. CMB=Common-Method Bias
8. CP= Career Planning
9. CR =Construct or Composite Reliability
10. CS= Career Satisfaction
11. CV=Control Variable
12. df= degree of freedom
13. EA= Expressed Affection
14. EC= Expressed Control
15. EI= Expressed Inclusion
16. GFI= Goodness of Fit Index
17. IR =Interpersonal Relationship
18. IV=Independent Variable
19. MSV=Maximum Shared Variance
20. N= Sample Size
21. NFI=Normed fit index
22. NW= Networking
23. PO= Personal Optimism
24. RMSEA=Root mean square error of approximation
25. SD= standard deviation
26. SEO= Self- efficacy optimism
27. TLI=Tucker Lewis index
28. WA= Wanted Affection
29. WC= Wanted Control
30. WI= Wanted Inclusion
31. β =standardized coefficients
32. $\chi 2$ = Chi-Square
33. $\chi 2$/df= Normed Chi-Square

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

The dynamic changes in the contemporary technological, political, cultural and economic environment have led to an immense impact on the world of work. These changes have created a kind of uncertainty in the nature and culture of the workplace; thereby, they have affected both the careers and lives of people. The phenomenon of a secure and continuous lifetime career with one employer or even within one industry is continuously disappearing. This is due to uncertainties created by globalization, technological advancements, changing organizational structure, changing nature of work and increasing the culturally diverse workforce. Hence, these changes have altered the meaning of “career” and “career management”.

A career in the 21st century has now multiple differential dimensions which were unheard previously. The tradition of yesteryears of "one job for life" has disappeared contrary to many traditional career theories. Additionally, the evolution of criteria of multitasking and different role plays in organizations have diluted the concept of specific career designs (Herr, 2001; Inkson, 2004; Blustein, 2006; Renee Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Shapiro et al., 2008; Otto et al., 2010). Further, individuals increasingly need to conceive of "career" differently than those did in the past. Today, "career" is best viewed as an individual's unique sequence or pathway of work roles, and is intimately interconnected with the other characters one has throughout life, such as child, parent, spouse/partner, student, and volunteer.

Additionally, for many of us, career is primarily a source of financial stability, and an individual needs to get away occasionally to relax and enjoy a holiday with family, friends, or even alone (Kim & Ondracek, 2008). But is there a way that companies can make time spent at the workplace as enjoyable as being on holiday? It is no secret that an engaged workforce is expected to contribute to the company's higher financial returns (Lamichhane, 2011). In recent years, there has been a lot of research in the area of career, or "work that a person perceives as his/ her purpose in life" (Hall & Chandler, 2005). The concept of career engagement deals with the relationship of an individual with his/her career.

Further, optimal career engagement focuses on striking the right balance between the challenges and capacity of an individual. Nonetheless, an individual feels underutilized when there is little

challenge for one's available capacity. At the point, when there is an excessive challenge for the accessible capacity/ability, the individual starts to feel overpowered/ overwhelmed, which may lead to full disengagement.

In recent decades, the nature of careers has changed progressively, and individuals are taking charge of the successful and effective management of their careers (Hall, 2002). Further, employment and career counsellors are also interested in engagement as they endeavour to help individuals find the meaning in their work such that they can fully utilize their capacity and skills. This advancement has expanded the need to be engaged with proactive career practices for subjective and objective career behaviors (Thomas et al., 2010). Various measures for distinctive career behaviors such as commitment, networking (Wolff et al., 2011), or career planning (Gould, 1979) already exist. Numerous researchers (Bolles, 2009) have indicated the requirement of individual career planning. Further, private and public organizations are also analyzing the formal career planning programs (Walker, 1978). Though such measures evaluate the diverse behaviors conceptually, existent empirical researches have reflected that they are considerably related. Also, various researchers (Creed et al., 2009; De Vos et al., 2009), highlighted that individuals are regularly engaged concurrently in various proactive career behaviors.

Further, the career theories and past studies do not differentiate between the career behaviors while emphasizing the prominence of proactivity. Therefore, it seems promising to assess the extent of engagement in career behaviors. Hence, career counsellors and researchers seem interested in the evaluation of the general level of active career engagement excluding the specificity of distinct behaviors (for example: between networking and planning). The current situation is further highlighted by recent engagement studies that indicate that 17-27 per cent of the global working population is actively disengaged. The feeling of being actively disengaged expanses from spreading bad word of mouth at the workplace, dissatisfaction, frustration to unproductivity in employees and intention to leave the jobs (AON Hewitt, 2015; Gallup Consulting, 2017). The studies highlight that 17-27 per cent of the global working population may spend one-fourth of their lives by hating their jobs (an estimated 90,000 to 100,000 hours; Tomlinson, 2010).

The dynamic changes have created a gloomy environment which demands the employee's positive attitude towards themselves and surroundings as well. Besides, Tombaugh (2005) elucidated that optimistic leaders are more likely to see problems as challenges. The optimistic

leaders exert greater effort for more extended periods to reach their goals, and seek out to appreciate the positive aspects of difficult situations. At individual-level, optimism seems to influence the work performance. Also, the optimistic explanatory style has been associated with a comprehensive array of positive performance outcomes in academic, work domains and athletic (Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 1986; Peterson & Seligman, 1988). According to Gallup researchers (Kruger & Killham, 2005; Arakawa & Greenberg, 2007), managers significantly impact the engagement and well-being of employees. Further, this results in better organizational performance and explains the role of positive emotions in the managerial world (Fredrickson, 1998; Jain, 2005; Jain et al., 2006). In this context, optimism has been recognized as vital for an individual who is interested in the early development of career and vocational development to offer valuable experience to be future-oriented (Zager, 2013; Marques et al., 2014).

Every organization has a group of people who work together in the light of similar goals, aims, insights and objectives to achieve what individuals cannot succeed in seclusion. Also, the individuals tend to achieve their goals under an effective synchronizing mechanism. Nevertheless, in any goal-oriented organization, workers supportive environment, i.e. IR (Interpersonal relationships) tends to affect the performance of the entire work-group. Henceforth, IR at workplace have a valuable effect on both individual and organizational variables considering that most of the organizations struggle with people problems rather than business problems owing to global new business (Baek et al., 2015). Various researchers (Berman et al., 2002; Crabtree, 2004; Song & Olshfski, 2008) have suggested that valued IR tends to influence the organizational outcomes by providing a supportive and creative climate, increasing institutional participation and organizational productivity, and thus, helping in the reduction the intent to turnover. Furthermore, studies have validated workplace friendships leads to the improvement of employee attitudes such as job commitment, job satisfaction, perceived organizational support and engagement (Riordan & Griffeth, 1995; Zagenczyk et al., 2010). IR progressively develops with good team participation with other members and might deteriorate when any member leaves the group and stops keeping in touch (Cherniss, 1991; Morrision, 2009).

Interpersonal relationships energize an individual interpersonally and lead to motivated engagement in career activities along with life activities. Also, they constitute the regular interaction between co-workers or employees and managers. The relationship is quite natural, reflecting the collegial nature of human beings and tends to develop in the work environment, but sometimes they become the source of tension and frustration. Also, when the need for

belongingness is fulfilled, individuals produces positive emotional responses which are said to drive the achievement behaviors, including their responses to participation, challenges and self-regulation. Although interpersonal relationships with peers and colleagues influence the worker's engagement, it is the nature of their interpersonal relationships that most strongly influenced the worker's career engagement. Under the aegis of positive psychology, the current study may attempt to capture, measure, predict and control the essence of what it means to thrive. Further, the concept of interpersonal relationship, optimism and career engagement has been explored in the western nations, but there is a dearth of literature in the Indian context.

1.2. Need of the Study in Indian Context

An emerging economy like India is considered the site for different cultures and further characterized by the inter-related concept of self. Various characteristics of the interaction between parent and child in India have been used to explain the advancement in the interdependent self. Moreover, studies have clarified the distinct attributional styles of those who have independent and interdependent concepts of self while drawing their non-western samples from the eastern countries like India. Various researchers have classified the East Asian cultures (consisting of India) as collectivistic in comparison to individualistic (Triandis & Suh, 2002).

Unlike western nations, Indians are considered to be highly optimistic as a result of the socio-economic, technological growth and relative stability of the political system (Regmi & Asthana, 1981). The early Vedic philosophies believed in the concept of optimism because people thought that through prayer, magic, and co-operation with and by natural powers or Gods, all the things are possible. As produced by Dr. Varadachari in his book *Indian Philosophy*, the entire period talks about the optimism of man. Also, the book sheds light on the causes of bondage and analysis of action, which led to the discovery of Self or All-Self and Over-self. The author emphasized that a controlled optimism has always been the key premise of Indian thought. Another significant difference between the western countries and the non-western countries (India) is the philosophy and ideologies of the nations.

According to a recent survey conducted by Ipsos MORI across 20 countries in 2014 shows that people in western nations like Belgium, Spain, the US, France, Western Europe and Britain hold hugely negative and pessimistic views as compared to the non-western countries like China, India, Brazil, Turkey, and Russia. Also, India is an emerging economy wherein different cultures amalgamate and are further, categorized by the interdependent self (Mesquita & Karasawa, 2004;

Lee et al., 2011). Although, India is an emerging economy that provides a flourishing market with growth opportunities for foreign multinationals, but scanty literature is available on the positive career planning among youths. As indicated by Forbes (2007), Indians are very optimistic about their upcoming future and the economy at a large scale. Further, Indians as compared to the other countries where individuals tend to be personal optimists and societal pessimists (David, 2007). So, it is like an antidote to the negative outlook of western nations. Henceforth, for a growing economy like India, where more and more jobs are being created and for a demographic of 1.29 billion people, accessibility of negligible studies creates the necessity of studies in the relevant area.

This discussion clarifies the necessity of understanding the concept of interpersonal relationship and optimism in Indian context concerning the individual's career. The emphasis of this study is to analyze the interpersonal relationship, optimism and the roles of those factors in predicting career engagement in Indian context. For the current study, Interpersonal relationship referred to the interpersonal needs namely of Inclusion, Control and Affection, to examine how individuals feel when it comes to inclusion, control, and affection in terms of expressed and wanted behavior. The factors of optimism in the present study are personal optimism and self-efficacy optimism. Also, career engagement was measured by three dimensions, namely career planning, networking and career satisfaction. Both interpersonal relationship and optimism dimensions were taken as predictor variables, while career engagement was considered as the dependent variable.

1.3. Interpersonal Relationship

"As work becomes more complex and collaborative, companies where people work together best have a competitive edge."

Daniel Goleman (2004)

1.3.1. Concept and Definition

The term interpersonal relationship has its genesis in the statement that man is a social animal. The concept gained a lot of attention from the researchers in 1960s wherein the focus was primarily on the process of interpersonal attraction and not on the development of IR as a result of attraction. Various researchers (Sapon-Shevin, 2003; Bharti, 2018) have defined the concept in terms of interaction or close affiliation between two or more individuals. Generally, IR is considered as synonymous to association between two or more individuals that may range from

fleeting to persevering. The basis of interpersonal relations can and might vary from friendship, family relations, relationships with work associates, marriage, neighbourhood, and at places of devotion (temple, churches, etc.). IR deals with the formation and nurturing of the exceptional bond that develops between two or more individuals in the context of the social, cultural and other factors. The nature of the relationships may vary and can be of different types like solidarity, love, friendship, social commitment or regular business interactions (Mao, 2006). Further, human beings are not machines and cannot work for continuous hours in isolation as they have and share feelings considering that working in seclusion leads to anxiety and stress (Velmurugan, 2016). Additionally, relationships are incredibly delicate and should be nurtured with positivity and care (Karau & Williams, 1993).

Further, Maslow's need hierarchy theory (1943) established that belongingness or the social needs act as the foundation of human motivation, considering that the individual needs are fulfilled. Maslow purported that the need to belong, which is one of the five human needs comes after the physiological and safety needs, and further, followed by the other needs such as self-esteem, and self-actualization need. Additionally, the research specified that if the first two needs are unmet, then an individual would be unable to adore or love other individuals completely. Sapon-Shevin (1999) highlighted IR (interpersonal relationship) is a procedure and a trip towards accepting the reality that everyone matters, everyone merits and everyone wishes to be cherished and acknowledged. The previous studies have confirmed that IR is associated with positive outlook, hope or happiness and leads to engagement and self-efficacy which ultimately results in better performance and adjustment (Anderman 2002; Van Ryzin et al., 2009; Nasir et al., 2011; Dahiya & Rangnekar, 2018). In 2008, O'Conner et al., suggested that perception of threat to the social needs would result in circumvention of tasks, anxiety and uncooperative behavior. When individuals work with each other, they usually have different likes, dislikes, tastes and preferences. These differences can be overcome by inculcating positive interpersonal relationships. Also, IR plays a significant role in developing the ability of employees to achieve the positive outcomes considering the complex and multifaceted nature of the managerial tasks (Bamel et al., 2011). The discussion is in lieu with Herzbergs' two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959). The theory emphasized that IR and management may meaningfully add to the employee satisfaction as well as the overall business performance.

1.3.2. Dimensions of Interpersonal Relationship for the Current Study

Schutz (1958) postulated the theory of fundamental interpersonal relationship theory that suggested that human beings have three interpersonal needs, namely the need for inclusion, control, and affection. The researcher used the term interpersonal to specify any interaction of real or imaginary nature that develops among people. Also, the term need was used to describe a psychological condition that reflects that if not met, would lead to a state of anxiety or discomfort. Further, the FIRO-B (fundamental interpersonal relationship orientation-behavior) model defined the interaction of the three interpersonal needs along with two types of behavior, *viz*: wanted and expressed. Furthermore, expressed behavior refers to the behavior that is exhibited by the individuals towards others, whereas wanted behavior refers to the behavior individuals choose to have unveiled towards them by the other individuals. The model provides a method to measure the overall needs (e.g. Total Control needs) along with the total behaviors (e.g. Total Wanted behavior), and provides the total orientation score for the interpersonal relationship (Schnell & Hammer, 1993).

1.3.2.1. Need for Inclusion

Inclusion and involvement have been used interchangeably in the previous researches and is generally defined in the terms of need to belong. Additionally, it is considered as the human tendency of being included, appreciated, and recognized across the different realms of society. The current study explores the expressed and wanted need behaviors as it has been astounded by the researchers that expressed inclusion plays a pivotal role in the development of personality. Expressed need for inclusion deals with the level to which an individual makes an effort to include others in one's activities. It exhibits the extent to which an individual work to get others to include him/her in their events. Also, wanted need for inclusion is the extent that he/she want others to include one in their activities (without him instigating it). Further, the need for inclusion results in encouraging the hidden personality traits of an individual wherein social behavior is reflected in the individual.

1.3.2.2. Need for Control

Inclusion and involvement is generally defined in terms of need to belong and has been used interchangeably in the previous researches. Additionally, it is considered as the human tendency of being included, appreciated, and recognized across the different realms of society. The current study explores the expressed and wanted need behaviors as it has been astounded by the researchers that expressed inclusion plays a pivotal role in the development of personality.

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1.3.2.3. Need for Affection

Affection and connection has been used interchangeably in the previous researches. It is generally used to signify the emotional interaction ties among individuals. The need is divided into two parts, i.e. expressed affection and wanted affection. Expressed affection explains the willingness of an individual to build connections and close affiliations with others. Wanted need for affection explains the warmth and closeness that one needs from the other individuals. Additionally, this deals with how willing an individual is in sharing and listening to others. It further, reflects the act of encouragement to build closeness with others. The difference in the interpersonal needs suggests that some individuals are unapproachable while others being disappointed as other individual doesn't accept the intensity and depth that they need and want. All individuals need to form close affiliations with other people, and at the same time, they do not wish to be overcommitted. Researchers suggested that there was a trade-off between high independence needs and high affiliate needs (Schutz, 1992; Furnham, 2008).

1.4. Optimism

> *"The optimist sees the rose and not its thorns; the pessimist stares at the thorns, oblivious to the rose".*
>
> Kahlil Gibran (1951)

1.4.1. Concept and Definition

As originally forwarded by Aristotle and as long noted by philosophers afterwards, human beings are not merely what they are (reality), but more essentially what they are not yet but can be (potentiality) (Chang, 2001). This idea has been prominently reflected in the subsequent literature of renowned philosophers. It was believed that it is the power of potentiality that determines who and what we are and how we exist in the world. Here the potentiality means that the range of possibilities between the two opposite expectations of good or bad things happening are outstanding.

The original sense of optimism comes from the Latin word *optimum*, meaning 'the best possible'. Leibniz believed it was God who created the universe and described it as "the best of all possible worlds" (Strickland, 2010). The philosophical explanation of the origins and development of optimism is still in progress. All the ideas illuminated above have contributed to our current theoretical understanding of the nature of optimism. Many theorists have discussed optimism in human nature in positive terms. The contemporary branch of psychology, namely positive psychology tends to deal with the virtues and strengths that support communities and individuals to prosper. It seeks to understand the positive emotions such as optimism, joy and contentment. In 1985, Scheier and Carver identified optimism as the cognitive or rational disposition to expect favourable output.

Similarly, Buchanan and Seligman (1995) defined optimism in terms of positive explanatory style, which has its root in the attribution theory. In 2002, Luthans established that the positive and developmental state of humans is characterized by optimism along with the other dimensions, namely, self-efficacy, resilience and hope**.** Srivastava & Angelo (2009) defined optimism as a propensity to anticipate favorable outcomes or results. Further, optimism is defined in a comprehensive way as "a cognitive and a self-serving tendency to expect the positive outcomes and believe that setbacks are only temporary" (Bharti and Rangnekar, 2018 in Press). Optimism may be related to the development and performance of an individual owing to his persistence. It deals with the avenues of how an individual, group or organization flourishes revolving around the objectives. The objectives are the activities, qualities or end-states that individuals perceive as being either alluring or undesirable (Seligman & Schulman, 1992). Additionally, the roots of the construct lie in the theoretical and empirical studies on motivation and how they are expressed in human behavior expectancy model of motivation. The model further explores the motivation underlying human behavior admitting that various researchers have classified optimism, namely, learned optimism (Seligman, 1998), flexible optimism (Peterson, 2000), realistic optimism (Schneider, 2001) and others. The research advocates that optimistic employees tend to achieve objectives qualities or end-states that individuals perceive as being either alluring or undesirable more effectively and efficiently

1.4.2. Dimensions of Optimism for the Current Study

Researchers and theorists (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 2010; Schweizer & Koch, 2001) concluded that optimism analyzes the overall positive expectations of an individual. Further, it is a broader

construct that measures the positive expectations not merely the result of an individual's control but are a result of the situations or external factors (Personal optimism) along with the stable disposition to advance the positive expectations of self-competence or Self- efficacy optimism (Glaesmer et al., 2012).

1.4.2.1. Personal Optimism

Personal optimism is the tendency to take a look at the brilliant side of any circumstance and expect the ideal result from any arrangement of occasions irrespective of the environment (Gavrilov-Jerkovic et al., 2014). Also, Personal optimism (Carver & Scheier, 2014), has been studied with positive effects on motivation, career satisfaction, and wellbeing (Lounsbury et al., 2003; Rasmussen et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2013). Further, it is significantly related to organization citizenship behavior. The reason is that an organization promotes happy employees, which in turn promotes organization citizenship behavior. This dimension helps in understanding the role of external or environmental factors that effects the individual's optimism level.

1.4.2.2. Self- Efficacy Optimism

Optimism is considered as a broader term, comprising of various positive expectations and beliefs or specific expectations of the positive outcome which complement the self- efficacy beliefs. Self-efficacy optimism is defined as the positive expectations that one is competent enough to solve their problems (Gavrilov-Jerkovic et al., 2014). Bandura's (1977) definition of self-efficacy is an individual's perception of his or her own ability to perform specific tasks and solve particular problems). The researchers established that self-efficacy optimism revolves around the competence of an individual and on the personal attainment of goal (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004).

1.5. Career Engagement

1.5.1. Definition and Concept

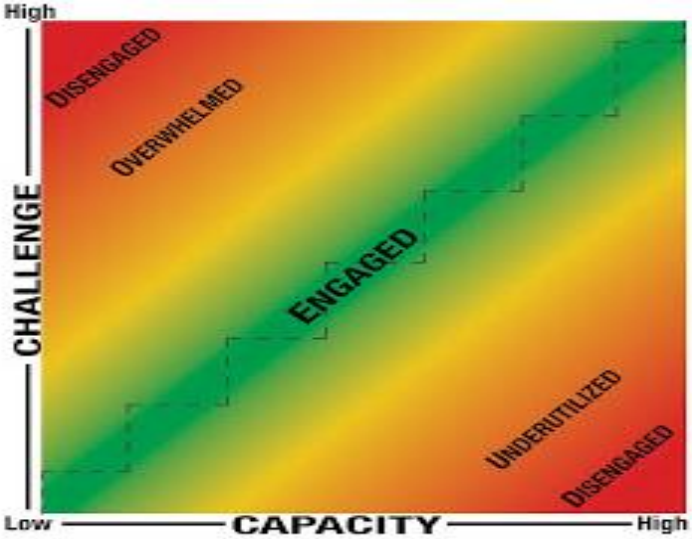
The organizations have shown increasing interest in the construct of engagement, which is defined as the state of being stimulated and attracted by one's job since it first appeared in the literature in the 1990s (Saks, 2006; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). In 2014, Hirschi et al. defined engagement with the career as the degree to which an individual is proactively engaged in developing one's career as articulated by vivid career behaviors. Researches consistently show the role of engagement in organizational success and support that engagement leads to commitment, productivity, and dedication towards their work (Gallup Consulting, 2017; Blessing White, 2011; AON Hewitt, 2012). Career engagement comprises of

behaviors such as environmental career exploration, career planning, voluntary human capital/skill development, career self-exploration, networking, and other positioning behaviors (Hirschi, 2014). Career engagement directly measures the level of engagement of an individual with his or her career. Also, it is not the attitude but the exhibition of specific career behaviors which can further lead to the development of career. As mentioned in the earlier researches, career engagement differs from the existing constructs and offers a whole new criterion in sync with the study conducted by Hirschi et al. (2014). The concept of career engagement is utilized by employers and counsellors for the benefit of employees and organization.

Further, engagement is behavioral and does not imply a state of identity, mind, attitude, aspirations, readiness, and self-management strategies. The studies have revealed that engaged workers are committed, productive, and more than willing to go beyond their required duties (Granberg, 1983). Conversely, the disengaged workers are less likely to be productive, interested, and would do "just enough," and might create negative work environments (Swindall, 2007).

Employment and career counsellors have an increased interest in engagement as they try to help individuals find meaning in their work such that they can fully exhaust their skills. Neault and Pickerell (2008, 2011) developed the career engagement model, as presented in Figure 1.1 to elucidate the active interaction between challenge and capacity. This interaction keeps individuals fully engaged in their work and in turn with their career, which can lead to better performance and increase their productivity (Vygotsky, 1978). Further, the model is used to recognize how individuals become disengaged to plan or strategize to help the organization in utilizing the capacity of the employees that can lead to engaged employees.

Figure 1.1: New model of Career engagement (Neault & Pickerell, 2011)



1.5.2. Dimensions of Career Engagement for the Current Study

1.5.2.1. Career Planning

The concept of career, which has an essential place in present world scenario, has been dealt with its different correlates since the 70s era, because of the new organizational structures and changes in the business life. Currently, the notion and nature of careers have altered considerably. Careers have been considered as a main component of life in the modern times. Traditionally, career was exclusive of professionals or those who advanced through organizational hierarchies, but, in the current era the term "career" has a broader connotation and is commonly considered to be the lifelong sequence of role-related experiences of individuals (Hall, 2002). Furthermore, life of an individual spins around work, and work is a basis of identity and creativity, as well as of access and status to social networks. Therefore, career can be perceived as one of life's expeditions that people can either take the flattened path or opt to navigate (Baruch, 2004). As per Redman and Wilkinson (2001), career lays the solid foundation of abilities and knowledge of the working individuals to accentuate in their professions, work experience assimilated developed and improvised relationships in business over a period of time. One broadly acknowledged definition of career is the unfolding sequence of a person's work experience over time. Further, Hall and Mirvis (1995) highlighted the significance of career planning as the primary step towards the process of career development. Also, Gould (1979) defined career planning (CP) as individuals developing strategies and setting career goals to achieve their aims and objectives.

Recently several researches have recognized the relevance of career planning to understand and predict the career-related behaviors such as occupational choice, satisfaction and engagement. CP is seen as an activity where an individual applies individual control over their profession and participates in educated decisions as to his organization, occupation, occupational assignment, conducting self-assessment and evaluating their career choices and inclination for self-development (Gutteridge et al., 1993; Arora & Rangnekar, 2014). Nevertheless, in spite of the significance put on vocation planning and other profession practices, these professional planning assignments have got slight thought in the experimental and theoretical literature (Crites, 1973).

1.5.2.2. Networking

Networking is defined as the building and nurturing of the professional as well as personal relationships to create a system of contact, information, and support which has been considered as vital for a successful career and success at personal level (Whiting & De Janasz, 2004). Also,

networking has been considered a complex skill that requires explicit practice and training for all but the few naturally talented (de Janasz & Forret, 2008). Earlier studies have established the importance of developing networks (formal and informal) that help individuals in gaining promotions (Cannings & Montmarquette, 1991). The studies (Fuller & Marler, 2009) showed that proactive personality is positively related to networking behaviors which in turn leads to diverse career behaviors. Furthermore, networking has been considered as an important part of proactive career behavior which leads to objective and subjective career behaviors/success (Hirschi & Jaensch., 2013; Taber & Blankemeyer, 2015).

1.5.2.3. Career Satisfaction (CS)

Career satisfaction (CS) is generally viewed from an internal perspective, as being judged by an employee and is an internally defined career success outcome (Greenhaus et al., 1987). The concept of career satisfaction has been seen through different lenses by various researchers and has been defined differently. In 1986, Gattiker and Larwood defined career satisfaction as a reflection of an individual's values and preferences for the level of pay, challenge, or security that may affect an individual's assessment of his/her career accomplishments. CS has become an imperative issue at the workplace as individual success leads to organizational success and results in more committed and motivated employees. Additionally, the meaningful accomplishments of the employee results in joy, creativity an engagement at work (Amabile & Kramer, 2011). Career researches were previously dominated by the objective measures of career success (pay, promotion, etc.), but recently the focus has been shifted to subjective career success (career satisfaction). The shift indicates that objective measures of career success is rather deficient as individuals also value the subjective variables like new skill development, challenge, creativity, engagement, work-life balance and the purpose or meaningfulness of work (Heslin, 2005). CS measures the level to which individuals believe their career progress is consistent with their goals, objectives, preferences and values (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001; Heslin, 2003; Feldman & Ng, 2007; Rottinghaus & Miller, 2013). The term CS echoes the sum total of an individual's feelings about their job over a considerably long period of time (Erdogan et al., 2004; Lounsbury et al., 2008).

1.6. Problem Statement

The existing literature as covered in chapter 2 of the study, has manifestly reflected the importance of career engagement in an individual's life; however, the question of—how to stimulate and develop career engagement is still less explored especially in the manufacturing sector. The distinguished scholars in the field of organization behavior have targeted the variable

to gather information around the antecedent's enrichment that are causing major barrier towards the way to smooth evolution of research and practice in the area of engagement (Wong et al., 2017). Further, Thomas et al. (2010) listed examining the predictors of career engagement as a vital future research agenda, which could provide scholars with the tools to foster enriched employees. Additionally, most of the literature around the predictors of career engagement has come from the individualistic nations (primarily developed) such as USA, Germany and other developed economies, with pintsized literature about its predictors in other settings (Macey & Schneider, 2008). The survey conducted by YouGov in collaboration with Mint in 2019 highlighted that young adults differ in terms of career behaviors. Also, the Indian labour market iterated the persistent gender imbalances wherein men find it easier to plan their career as compared to females. Further, Confidence Index Q3 by executive search firm Michael Page indicated that the current workplace sentiment differs with respect to their optimism level and has led to increased uncertainty at workplace that has changed the relationship landscape of employees ultimately affecting their career behaviors.

Additionally, the "India Employee Survey" by HR tech startup Hush highlighted that 22 percent of the employees feel that their productivity is low due to overwork and stress in the manufacturing sector. Green Jr et al. (2004) highlighted that employees face a lot of stress in the manufacturing sector as compared to the other sectors because of lack of support system at workplace. The senior executives working in India are more optimistic about their careers as compared to their counterparts (Survey by Blue Steps, a career management service for executives). Mazerall (1994) sufficed that this could be attributed to the globalization, as well as technological growth along with the workplace environment i.e. that affect the career aspirations of individuals. Undoubtedly, Indian organizations are not unmarked by the intensified global competition, and restructuring. Thus, the present Indian business environment is known for its complexity and unpredictability (Singh et al., 2018).

Furthermore, engagement and unique cultural setting has been considered as one of the most important issue which a business firm face these days wherein 87 percent of organizations cite culture and engagement as one of their top challenges, and 50 percent call the problem "very important." In this direction, it can be stated that one size doesn't fit all when it comes to the factors affecting the employee's level of career engagement (Zikic & Saks, 2009). According to the best of the author's knowledge, the above-discussed gaps create a need to answer this unexplored area as not much literature is available pertaining to the demographical differences

and the importance of variables. Henceforth, it becomes crucial to determine what drives career engagement in the India setting, considering the incredible growth of Indian economy. Hence, the researchers have generous motivation to outspread career engagement and its relationship with optimism, interpersonal relationship and the demographic dimensions (age, gender and education level) that shape the individual personality.

1.7. Rationale of the Study

The literature suggests that it is imperative for the managers and the management to get acquainted with the factors that lead to engagement of career. The current study extends the understanding of the antecedents of career engagement (CE) by analyzing the predicting capacity of IR and optimism. This further enhances the extant theoretical pool of CE. Interpersonal relationships, as discussed earlier, have a significant impact on the manager's behavior and performance in organizations. Due to its importance, IR has always been the centre of attention for the scholars and academicians, but the literature is rather silent on the association of IR on CE (Wong et al., 2017). Moreover, IR studies have not addressed the topic of positive thinking and engagement interactively. The current research strives to enrich the literature of IR in the current globalized environment. Precisely, the study tends to enrich the extant IR literature to describe its effect on CE in the Indian context. Persistently, optimism, as deliberated previously, is a vital factor that guides the attitude of employees at the workplace and creates a sense of belongingness. Optimism has been recognized as an important factor from the point of view of an individual who is interested in the early development of career and vocation to offer constructive experience in order to be future-oriented (Zagenczyk et al., 2010; Marques et al., 2014). This phenomenon virtually leads to engagement of career in employee. Despite the escalating expanse of literature that has addressed the issue of scanty literature of the concept of optimism, not much research has been done to elucidate the association of optimism and CE. Henceforth, the study also attempts to develop the avenues of research in this direction. Additionally, the concept of career engagement has been unexplored in comparison to the other concepts of management (Bharti and Rangnekar, 2019). India being an emerging economy depends on its workforce, and therefore, the Indian organizations are paying considerable attention towards improving the positive outlook of employees in order to achieve greater productivity. Also, it is clear that there is a dearth of research considering IR, optimism and CE. Hence, the present study adds to the hitherto deficit literature and helps in "closing the gap". Finally, the current study also studies the role of individualistic variables (age, gender and educational level) in IR, optimism and CE. The research undertaking the individualistic variables

would advance the concept of Person-organization fit and in turn, boost the organizational performance and productivity. Hence, there is a need to fill the gaps such that a better understanding can be developed in order to improve the employee's productivity and performance.

1.8. Scope of the Study

The current study concentrates on the following issues:

1. The pivotal points of the research are the managerial level employees (both male and female; senior, middle and junior) working in the public and private sector organizations located at the northern, central and western part of the country.
2. The current study considers the dimensions of interpersonal relationship, namely, inclusion, control & affection in terms of expressed and wanted behavior in Indian organizations.
3. The study analyzes the optimism level of employees having dimensions, namely, personal optimism and self-efficacy optimism in Indian organizations.
4. Consequently, the current study explores the career planning, networking and career satisfaction level that contributes to the employee's career engagement in Indian organizations.
5. Further, the study aimed to test the relationship function of interpersonal relationship and optimism on CE in Indian organizations in Indian organizations.

1.9. Research Questions

This study postulates that the constructs of IR (interpersonal relationship) and optimism predicts CE. The research questions are as follows:

- Does interpersonal relationship perception vary with attitudinal/demographic variables (gender, age and education) in Indian organizations?
- Does employee optimism vary with attitudinal/demographic variables (gender, age and education) in Indian organizations?
- Does career engagement vary with attitudinal/demographic variables (gender, age and education) in Indian organizations?
- Does interpersonal relationship predict career engagement in Indian organizations?
- Does employee optimism predict career engagement in Indian organizations?
- Does employee optimism mediate the relationship between interpersonal relationship and career engagement in Indian organizations?

- Does interpersonal relationship mediate the relationship between optimism and CE in Indian organizations?
- Do the demographic variables (gender, age and education) moderate the relationship of optimism and CE in Indian organizations?

1.10. Theoretical Framework of the Study

1.10.1. SCCT (Social Cognitive Career Theory)

The Social Cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) which forms the foundation of SCCT (Social cognitive career theory) emphasizing the significance of cognitive or rational, self-directing and motivational procedures that augment the vital apprehensions of conditioning as well as learning. The theory is based on the premise through which

(a) Interest in the academic and career develops

(b) Interest to promote the correlates of career choices/development

(c) People accomplish variable levels of persistence and performance in their education as well as career quests (Lent et al., 2002).

Further, the theory emphasizes on three cognitive mechanisms which focuses on the outcome expectations, self-efficacy beliefs and goals.

The theory takes into account the individual inputs as they base their actions on self-perceptions of efficacy in risky situations. Together social learning theory (SLT) and SCCT identify the significance of individual differences, which have been referred to as person inputs in social cognitive career theory (Lent & Brown, 2013). The theory highlights the role of social relations in the efficacy of an individual as it reduces the anxiety and reduces negative emotions indirectly by curtailing of relationships and buffer the stressors. Additionally, the individual differences are the personal dispositions, for example, self-efficacy, self-esteem, optimism and gender. These characteristics are anticipated to affect a person's competency beliefs, outlook expectations and ultimately, their actions, accomplishments or the way they behave. There is an emphasis within SCCT on the means by which individuals exercise personal agency or the agentic traits such as independence, activity, confidence or positive attitude which contribute to career (Abele, 2003; Montford & Goldsmith, 2016). The current study aims to investigate the influence of individual inputs (such as optimism, education and gender) on the career correlates. Traditionally, career theories have been valuable partly as they have intensified the measures and methods of identifying the various options with which individuals would be satisfied and successful in the

present-times and over the foreseeable future, although the sequential frame for "future" has likely become more modest in recent years. At last, the theory takes a dig into the classification of the career barrier research focussing on the interpersonal barriers and attitudinal barriers (relations at work, work and experience etc.).

1.10.2. Life Span Development Theory

Life- span theorists and researchers that individuals tend to develop throughout the entire course of life as each period has its own developmental challenges. Baltes et al. (1998) suggested that development does not cease when the adulthood is attained. Also, lifespan is multifaceted in nature, and developmental changes involves an essential aspect of human action along with the momentum of personal development over the lifespan (Baltes, 1987). The theory of lifespan development suggests that intra-individual variability concerning the traits and characteristics develop throughout the lifespan. Further, lifespan is led by the variable environment and culture, which helps in shaping the intra-individual personality traits like optimism, hope and efficacy etc. throughout the life. The theory emphasises on the cognitive, emotive and societal development of an individual by embracing the developmental stages over an entire lifespan.

The theory is based on the premise that development is not completed at adulthood and extends across the entire life. This further indicates that lifelong adaptations occur pertaining to the differences in gender contrary to the traditional concept of development (Wohlwill, 1973). Additionally, there is a developmental agenda across the life span that contributes to the past, present and future focussing on the mechanisms and processes of mind and behavior namely the concept of identity, self or the memory. This is unique to every individual, whether male or female further exhibiting that development is continuous and takes place across the entire lifespan (Weinert & Perner, 1996). The theory also highlights the biological differences which shape the social role (aka gender roles- male or female) focussing upon the individual development (Nesselroads, 1990) that empowers them to live their lives to avoid undesirable outcomes. Also, lifespan development theory explains the inclusive cultural view of human development wherein the culture predominantly illustrates the gender along with the cultural roles that define what one can do and one cannot based on the physical anatomy (Baltes et al., 2006).

Further, it specifies a definite position or role being played by a particular gender, be it male or female. Gender has been fabricated from subjective and cultural connotations that continuously keep on changing, contingent on the place and time (Street et al., 1995). The meanings and

definitions being used by the society are known as gender stereotypes and are the individualities that are usually supposed to be distinctive either of men or women. Thus, the agentic trait such as optimism could get altered owing to the various roles being played by a particular gender (Crawford, 1995). Consequently, the variable of gender could affect the relationship or strength of direction between age and the cognition variables like optimism, efficacy and others.

1.11. Organization of the Study

The study has been organised into six chapters as under:

Chapter One: Introduction details the concept and definition of interpersonal relationship, optimism and career engagement. It also discusses the rationale and scope of the study.

Chapter Two: Literature Review reviews the extensive literature available and presents the theoretical and empirical researches that have been conducted on the interpersonal relationship, optimism and career engagement. The literature on Indian studies pertaining to the variables has been discussed separately. The conceptual model of the study is also proposed in this section.

Chapter Three: The Research Methodology chapter integrates research design concerns along with the research objectives and hypotheses development for the current study. It also explains the constructs of the study and the reliability and validity of the constructs. Additionally, the demographic factors have been presented in the chapter.

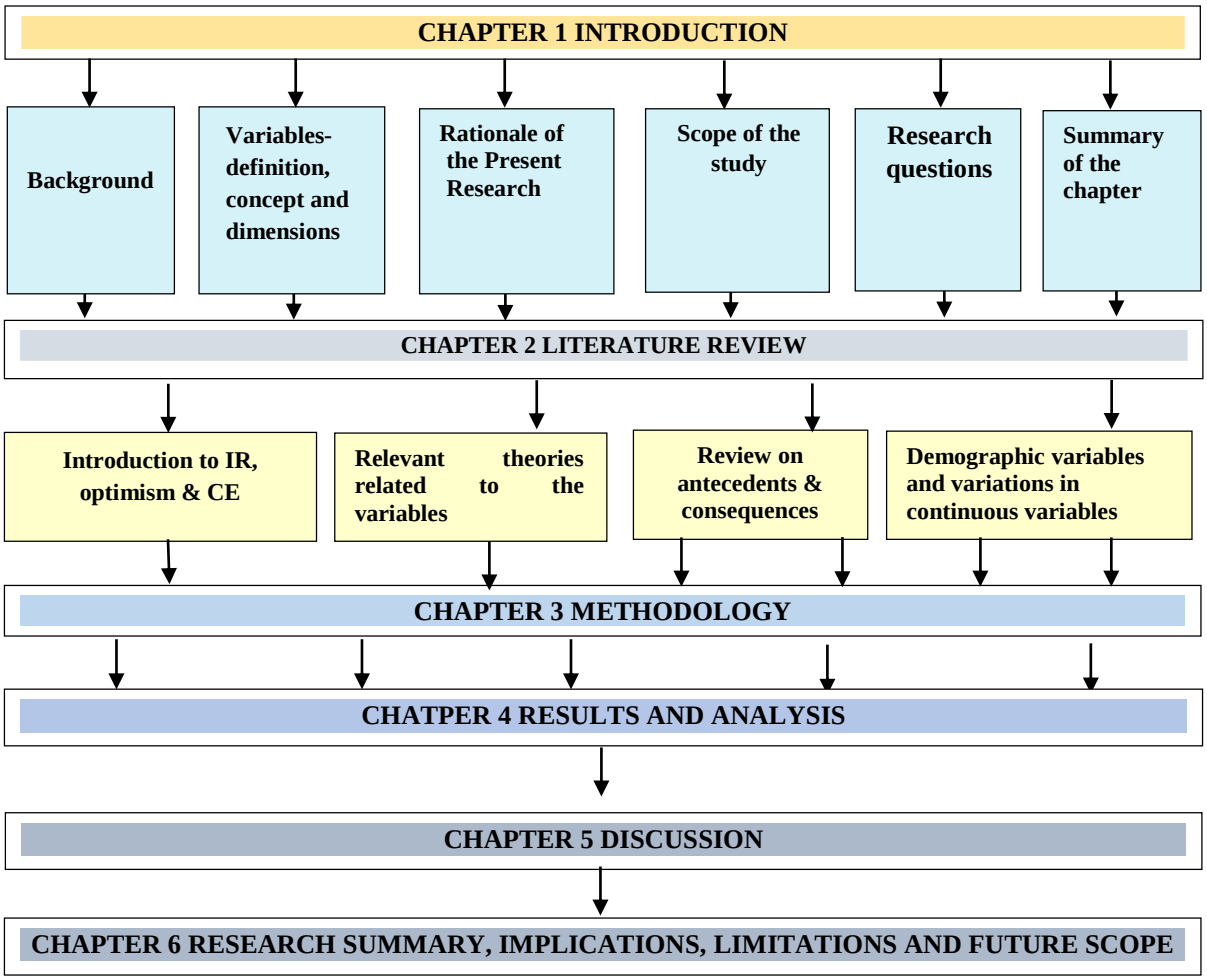
Chapter Four: Analysis and Results cover the techniques used to test the hypotheses of the research such as t-test, ANOVA, EFA (exploratory factor analysis), CFA (confirmatory factor analysis), and hierarchical regression analysis. The psychometric properties of the scales have been tested in the Indian context. Results of analysis procedures are also presented and explained.

Chapter Five: Discussion elaborates the findings of the study and the interpretation of the results.

Chapter Six: Research Summary, Implications, Limitations and Scope of the study have been discussed which opens avenues for future research.

At last, a flow diagram that depicts the organization of the complete thesis has been presented which provides an outline of the study as depicted in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2: Organization of the Study



1.11. Summary of the Chapter

The current chapter broadly covered the concepts under study namely interpersonal relationship (IR), optimism and career engagement (CE). Further, the variables have been explored and the sub-dimensions have been highlighted a) the interpersonal relationship- needs for inclusion, need for control and need for affection in terms of expressed behavior and wanted behavior. Furthermore, optimism which deals with the positive outlook has been discussed along with the dimensions namely personal optimism and self- efficacy optimism. The concept of career engagement (CE) was defined along with the sub-dimensions of career planning, networking and career satisfaction. The chapter discusses the rationale, scope and organization of the study. Also, the research questions for the study were also framed. The study aims to assess IR, optimism and CE of the executives working in Indian organizations and to analyze the relationship between them. All sections presented in this chapter have been further discussed in detail in the subsequent chapters of the thesis.

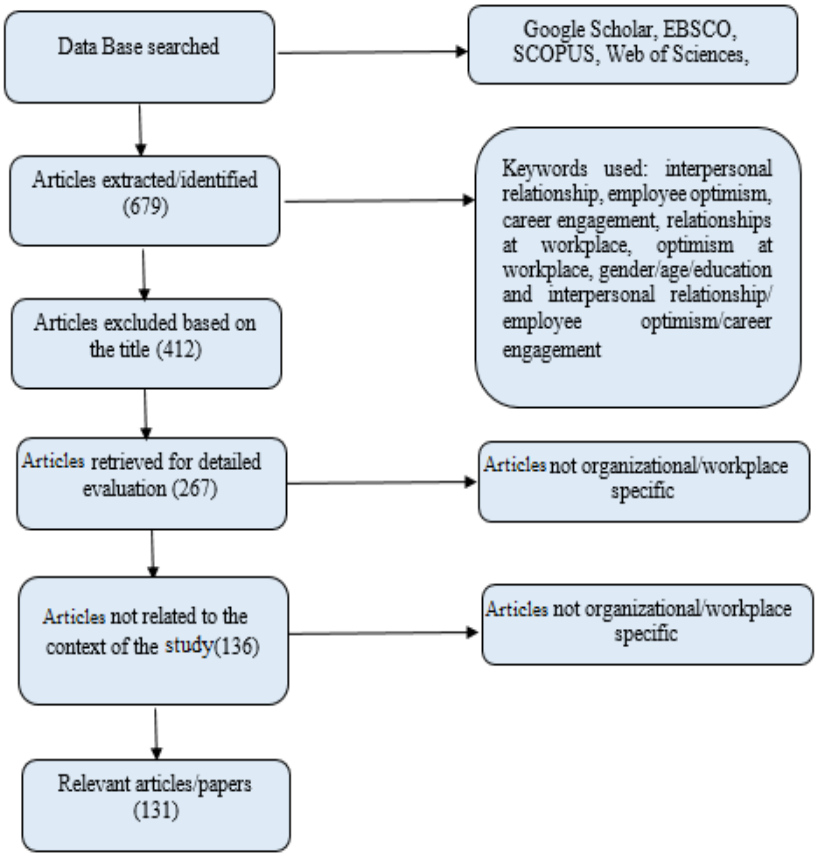
Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The last chapter gave a brief introduction of interpersonal relationships, optimism and career engagement. The systematic literature review has been followed in the current study as depicted in Figure 2.1. In order to attain the aforesaid objective, four leading academic databases including Web of Science, Scopus, Science Direct and EBSCOS were reconnoitred to recognise the articles on the variables under study. Articles were acknowledged in the "title of the article, article abstract, and keywords" section of the said databases. After applying the "exclusion and inclusion" criteria, a total of 131 articles were found relevant to the current study. In continuation with the same, the current chapter discusses the extant literature around each of the independent and dependent variables. Divided into four sections, the first section of the chapter includes the various related dimensions of interpersonal relationship. The findings of the extant studies on optimism have been explored in the second section. The third section covers the career engagement dimensions and their outcomes, followed by a summary presented towards the end of the chapter.

Figure 2.1: Process of Literature Review



2.2. Interpersonal Relationship

2.2.1. Brief Background

The concept of "relationship" came into existence circa 1950. According to the etymology dictionary the word relationship came into being in 1640's having connotation of "sense or state of being related". It was further not applied "specifically to romantic or sexual relationships" until 1944. In the beginning of 1960's, interpersonal relationship was primarily used synonymous to the process of interpersonal attraction. The research corresponds to the studies done by sociologist on mate selection in 1930s and 1940s (Burgess & Cottrell, 1939). Later on, in the 1980s, the concept turned to listing of deep sentiments and phenomena that occur within an interpersonal relationships, and started focussing upon the social context. The concept started taking a dig into P (person) and O (other) attachment, focussing on the internal (like cognition, mental health, stress, and depression) and external processes (like family cohesiveness, work satisfaction, career satisfaction and financial strain).

The most notable definition came in 1983, Kelley defined a close relationship as one that is strong, frequent, and with diverse interdependence that lasts over a considerable period of time. Further, the definitions mostly revolve around three components, namely dependence, need fulfilment and emotional attachment. Rogers (1959) suggested that relationships act as a therapy to represent the quality and depth of a good relationship. Also, psychological contact is the minimum requirement for the given label relationship. According to a study conducted by Duck (2007), relationships are based on feelings and emotions which occur in the realm of day-to-day life. Imamoğlu and Imamoğlu (2010) defined relationship as the behavior experienced and mutual interaction between two or more that persist owing to their basic needs. The concept of interpersonal relationship has evolved with time but the definition revolves around the notion of emotions as exhibited in Table 2.1. Further, they have been considered synonymous to social associations, connections, or affiliations between two or more people.

Table 2.1 exhibits the evolution of construct of interpersonal relationship which needs specific consideration and measurement. Form inception till now the concept has followed a trajectory from a linear and rigid view to more subjective and dynamic view. Despite the progress, the concept still needs consideration, highlighting the need for developing a more crisp and comprehensive definition.

Table2.1: Evolution of definition of Interpersonal Relationship.

Year and Author	Focus
Earlier 17th century (Etymology dictionary)	"Relationship is defined as a sense or state of being related to someone."
1939, Burgess and Cortell	"A feeling of attraction which corresponds to development of an attitude towards one another comprising of cognition, feelings, and behaviors and can be positive and/or negative in nature."
1954, Maslow (Theory of Human Motivation)	"Used the term social needs which are defined as a sense of belonging."
1958, Schutz (FIRO)	"Defined in terms of three needs namely inclusion, control and affection and behavior i.e. expressed and control behavior."
1979, Tajfel (Social identity theory)	"Defined in terms of identification with the human social selves focussing on the intergroup behavior."
1983, Levinger (Attachment model)	"It is a dynamic process which comprises of 5 stages namely acquaintanceship, build-up stage, continuation, deterioration and ending stage."
1992, Baldwin (Relational schema)	"It is a mental representations which they tend to form about themselves and others."
1995, Baumeister and Leary (The need to Belong)	"It is a non-aversive, frequent and a continuous relational bond."
2007- Till now, Duck	"It is a mixture of feelings and emotions. It is a close, passionate and strong association between two or more people and is dynamic in nature."

2.2.2. Relevant Theories

2.2.2.1. Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory

Abraham Maslow (1943) proposed the hierarchy of needs in his paper "A theory of human motivation". The theory was fully expressed in the book entitled "Motivation and personality" which was published in 1954. The study proposed that the first four basic layers of the hierarchical pyramid are the deficiency needs (d-needs) namely the physiological, safety, social/love/ belongingness and esteem needs. Social needs includes the need to belong and acceptance, need to love and be loved. The research further added that if the d-needs are not met then the individual feels tensed, anxious and depressed without reflecting at a physical level. This absence of such type of needs can adversely affect the individual's ability to form and endure emotionally stable relationships. It primarily deals with the behavior we want to receive from others.

2.2.2.2. FIRO Theory

William Schutz in 1958 propounded a theory of interpersonal relationships, namely FIRO theory, which dealt with the interactions among people. It is a well-established theory of relational or interpersonal necessities that claims to reason for both why and what of an individual's activities toward other individuals. The theory is based on the foundation that people need people in general (Bharti & Rangnekar, 2018). The theory indicates that primarily there are three needs for human existence: need for inclusion/belongingness, need for affection and need for control which was further extended to the magnitude of behavior namely expressed and wanted. The expressed behavior implies exhibiting whatever is being manifested in the motivational state. Further, it depicts how comfortable an individual is in the presence of others while exhibiting his/her behavior. On the other hand, Wanted behavior indicates how an individual without instigating the others want them to exhibit their behaviors towards us.

2.2.2.3. Social Exchange Theory (SET)

In 1964, Blau propounded that people enter into relationships which comprise exchange of socio-emotional as well as economic resources. The resources are traded under the system of balance exchange applying the law of reciprocity (Wayne et al., 1997). Subsequently, the researchers have increasingly implemented the SET to explain the theoretical foundation of employer-employee relations (Bambacas & Kulik, 2013). The theory of social exchange is based on the cooperation wherein the parties involved get mutually benefited (Tanova & Holtom, 2008; Martin & Frost, 2011). Further, there is an undetermined obligation between the two parties wherein the involved parties have expectations of future return. This explains why reciprocity or the loyalty to pay back to another person has become the best-known exchange rules in SET. Moreover, the roots of the theory lie in the trust, and implicit obligations that exist between the employees who relish complementary treatments and benefits in their organizations and the organizations tend to feel obligated towards the employees (Martin & Cobigo, 2011). Also, the expectations and exchange norms get developed over a period of time that are fulfilling in nature among the fellow workers explaining the workplace relationships and behavior (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

2.2.2.4. Levinger's Theory of Attachment

In 1983, Levinger proclaimed that interpersonal relationship is dynamic in nature subject to continuous change. Also, it is a process which has the following stages:

1. **Acquaintanceship-** It is the default stage of any relationship**.** Getting to be noticeably familiar relies upon past connections, physical nearness, early introductions, and an assortment of different variables.
2. **Build-up-** Amid the development stage, the two individuals included have an expanded level of trust and solace with each other.
3. **Continuation-** In this stage, there's an extending of trust and responsibility regarding the relationship, and a comparing increment in the measure of impact both individuals can result in.
4. **Deterioration-** Regardless of its negative essence, disintegration is regularly a characteristic and fundamental period of expert connections.
5. **Ending –**As with disintegration, there is no compelling reason to give the End stage's meanings a perception to impact your impression of this period of connections. It is greatly improbable that you will stay in contact with everybody you meet all through your whole expert vocation. Thus, end will be a characteristic stride in a number of your working environment connections.

The study emphasized that interpersonal relationships have their origin in the milieu of cultural, social and other inspirations which might vary from family, marriage, friendship, workplace relations, localities and others.

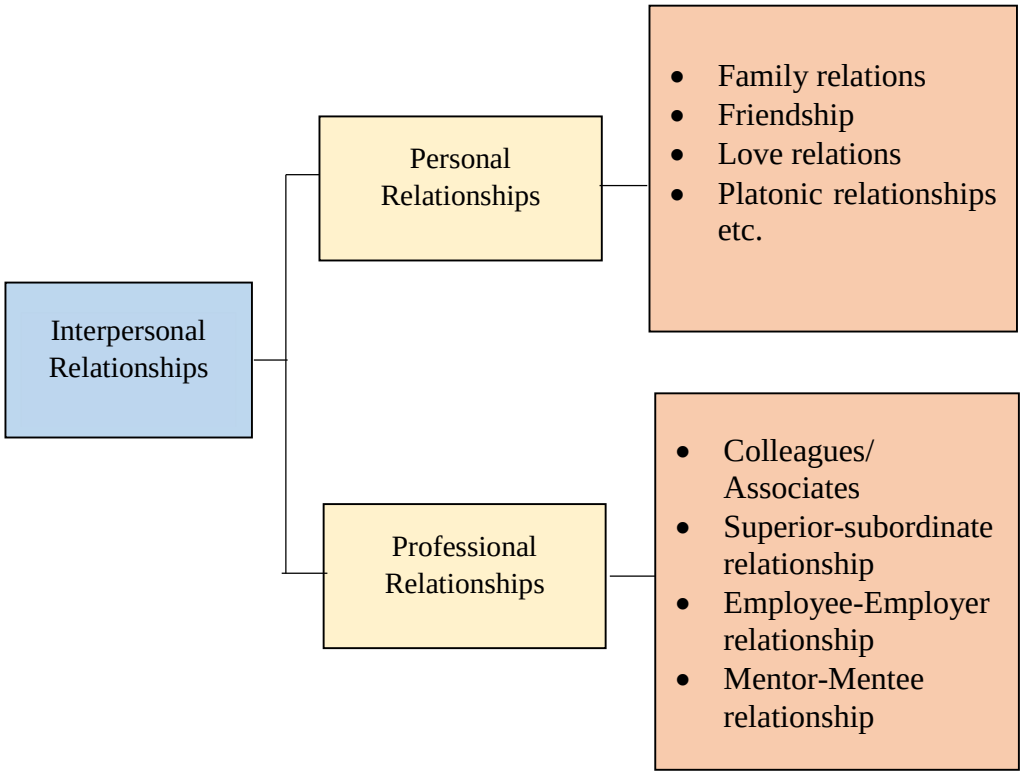
2.2.2.5. Theory of Belongingness

According to Baumeister and Leary (1995) humans have an innate need both to affiliate – that is, to seek the company of others – and to develop and maintain a number of positive, long lasting and substantial interpersonal relations. The need is satisfied by developing regular interactions with persistent caring. The need can be as strong and compelling as the need for food and existence. This came to be known as the theory of belongingness or Belongingness hypothesis.

2.2.3. Types of Interpersonal Relationship

Previous researches in the above-mentioned domain suggested that at a broader level there are two types of relationships, namely the personal relationships and the professional relationships (Lipton & Nelson, 1980). Berscheid and Regan (2016) highlighted the context and added to the classification as depicted in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: Types of Interpersonal Relationship



Source: - Berscheid and Regan (2016)

The IRs have been broadly classified into two namely the personal relationships and the professional relationships which have described as under in brief:

a) **Personal Relationships:** These types of relationships indicate a close affiliation between two or more individuals formed by interactions and emotional bonds. They can be classified into the following:
   i) Family relations
   ii) Friendship
   iii) Love relations
   iv) Platonic relationships (the spiritual or emotional relationship between two)

b) **Professional relationships-** This type of relationships are formed when individuals are engaged in some profession. Also, these types of relationships are solely for the purpose of getting the work done. They also encompass the personal relationships at work that are formed at the workplace for the social reasons which lead to the fulfilment of social needs indicating an improvement in the workplace satisfaction (increased by 96 percent) and do

not affect the job (Krueger & Killham, 2007). Professional relations can be of the following nature:

i) Colleagues/ Associates
ii) Superior-subordinate relationship
iii) Employee-Employer relationship
iv) Mentor-Mentee relationship

2.2.4. Antecedents of Interpersonal Relationship

There is a little empirical research on the various factors that leads to the development of interpersonal relationship at the workplace, and it is likely to recognise a number of prospective antecedents (Hodson, 1997). In order to have a clear understanding of the possible antecedents, the literature review was conducted which provided useful insights. Leader-member exchange (Ellemers et al., 2004; Tse et al, 2013); organizational support (Oladunmoye, 2017); Trust (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Robert et al., 2009; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003); positive work-environment (Kristnesen et al., 2004; Idowu Abe & Mason, 2016; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015); personality (Kalish & Robins, 2006; Van Vianen & De Dreu, 2001; Furnham, 2008; Llies et al., 2009; Klein et al., 2004; Xia & Gay, 2009); communication (Marsden & Gorman, 2001), and emotional intelligence (Jordan & Troth, 2004) acted as the predictors of interpersonal relationship in the recent research studies. Also, Loneliness (Lam & Lau, 2012) and mobbing (da Silva João & Saldanha Portelada, 2016) share a negative relationship with interpersonal relationship. Further, Table 2.2 depicts the various antecedents of interpersonal relationship at work.

Table 2.2 ***Antecedents of Interpersonal Relationship***

Antecedents	Relationship	Author and Year
LMX	Positive	Winstead et al., 1995; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ellemers et al., 2004; Herman et al., 2012
Organizational support	Positive	Oladunmoye, 2017
Emotional intelligence	Positive	Jordan & Troth, 2004; Soleimani & Einolahzadeh, 2017
Trust	Positive	Liden et al., 1997; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003; Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Robert et al., 2009
Loneliness	Negative	Lam & Lau, 2012
Mobbing	Negative	da Silva João & Saldanha Portelada, 2016

Antecedents	Relationship	Author and Year
Personality	Positive	Barrick et al., 1998; Van Vianen & De Dreu, 2001; Furnham, 2008; Klein et al., 2004; Kalish & Robins, 2006; Llies et al., 2009; Xia & Gay, 2009
Communication	Positive	Duck, 1994; Marsden & Gorman, 2001
Positive work environment	Positive	Theorell et al., 1990; Kristnesen et al., 2004;Dulebohn et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015; Idowu et al., 2016

2.2.5. Consequences of Interpersonal Relationship

Previous literature has identified many outcome variables of interpersonal relationship. The concept has a positive relationship with various variables like behavioral engagement/ commitment (Chiaburu et al., 2013, Top & Gider, 2013); performance (Rich et al., 2010; Christian et al., 2011; Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Weseler & Niessen, 2016; Jha, 2017); Worker's morale (Nasir & Bashir, 2012); citizenship (Cohen & Keren, 2008; Zagenczyk et al., 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013); emotional support and well-being (Diener et al., 2002; Rueger et al., 2010; Snyder et al., 2015); Job satisfaction/employee satisfaction (Bedeian, 2007; Watt & Piotrowski, 2008; Bokhorst et al., 2010; Dimotakis et al., 2011; Abugre, 2012; Kuo et al., 2015; Weseler & Niessen, 2016;) and effectiveness (Ojha, 2014; Velmurugan, 2016). Further, the concept has a negative relationship with cynicism (Graham et al., 2008; Bodie et al., 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013); burnout/mental strain (Bakker et al., 2009; Snyder, 2012); and turnover intentions/ Intention to leave (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012, Oladunmoye, 2017). The overview of the consequences of interpersonal relationship has been represented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 ***Consequences of Interpersonal Relationship***

Consequence	Nature of relationship	Author and Year
Behavioral engagement/ Commitment	Positive	Chiaburu et al., 2013; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Pati & Kumar, 2011; Top & Gider, 2013
Performance	Positive	Rich et al., 2010; Christian et al., 2011; Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Weseler & Niessen, 2016; Jha, 2017
Psychological safety	Positive	Kahn, 1990; Carmelli et al., 2009; Carmelli & Gittell, 2009
Cynicism	Negative	Bodie et al., 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013
Burnout/ Mental strain	Negative	Schaufeli, 2003; Snyder et al., 2012; Bakker et al., 2009;
Turnover intentions/ Intention to leave	Negative	Triandis, 1980; Tzeng, 2002; Moen et al., 2011; Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012, Harhara et al., 2015; Oladunmoye, 2017

Consequence	Nature of relationship	Author and Year
Citizenship	Positive	Cardona et al., 2004; Cohen & Keren, 2008; Zagenczyk et al., 2008; Chiaburu et al., 2013
productivity	Positive	Lott & Lott, 1965; Davis & Landa, 1999
emotional support and well-being	Positive	Good, 2000; Segrin & Taylor, 2007; Grant et al., 2007; Rueger et al., 2010
Job satisfaction/ employee satisfaction	Positive	Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Bedeian, 2007; Watt & Piotrowski, 2008; Bokhorst et al., 2010; Dimotakis et al., 2011; Abugre, 2012; Weseler & Niessen, 2016;
Worker Morale	Positive	Mainiero, 1989; Powell & Mainiero, 1990; Powell & Foley, 1993; Nasir and Bashir, 2012
Effectiveness	Positive	Chelune et al., 1980; Velmurugan, 2016; Omunakwe et al., 2018

Also, Table 2.4 represents some of the crucial studies focussing upon the concept of interpersonal relationship across cross-cultures. This further, helps in developing a better understanding of the variable in the current scenario.

Table 2.4: ***Related literature focussing upon Interpersonal Relationship***

Author and Year	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Herman et al., 2008	Team climate and Interpersonal relationships	The study seeks to develop a multi-level model to advance research on interpersonal relationship and team climate (IR and TC)	Questionnaire, ANOVA, Hierarchical linear Modelling (HLM)	36 managers (84% women, 16% Men) and 347 (89% women, 11% men)	The results established that high quality of leader-member exchange is strongly associated with IR owing to the presence of affective climate.	The Leadership Quaterly
Levett-Jones, 2009	Staff- Student relationships, belongingness and learning	The study explored the relationship between belongingness and learning	Semi-structure interviews	18 third year students	The findings revealed that lack of belongingness resulted in diminished confidence, capacity to learn and stress.	Journal of Advanced Nursing
Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009	Trust, connectivity and Thriving	The research examined the relationship of trust, connectivity and Thriving with innovative behaviors at work	Structured questionnaire , SEM, Mediation modelling	172 (51% female, 49% male)	The study suggested that connectivity mediates the relationship between trust and thriving, thriving mediates the relationship between trust and innovative behavior.	Journal of Creative Behavior
Lin, 2010	Job position (JP), job attributes (JA) and workplace friendship	The study explores the relationship between JP, JA and Workplace friendship	Questionnaire, ANOVA, hierarchical regression	539- Taiwan and 511- Mainland china	The study revealed that superiors have better workplace relationships owing to particular job attributes indicating an edge of Taiwan over Mainland china.	Journal of Technology Management in China

Author and Year	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Dimotakis et al., 2011	Workplace interactions, affective states and employee well being	The study examines the interpersonal interactions on affective states and well- being.	Observation method, hierarchical Linear Modelling	60 employees (380 days observation)	The study confirmed that affective states (positive and negative affect) mediated the relationship between interpersonal interactions and Job satisfaction.	Journal of Organizational Behavior
Teo et al., 2013	Social Interaction and Depression	The study analyzed the social relationship and the level of depression depicting the mental health.	Multivariable Logistic regression	Cohort of 4642 Americans (age=25-75)	The study established that poor quality of relationship results in depression.	PLOS one
Van Droogenbroeck et al., 2014	IR, Burnout and workload	The research studies the relationship of Burnout, IR and workload at work.	Questionnaire and SEM	1878 Flemish teachers 45 years of age or older	The study suggested that excessive workload and diminishing interpersonal relationship at work leads to burnout	Teaching and Teacher education
Hansen et al., 2014	Interpersonal leadership and Employee engagement (EE)	The study seeks to examine the association of interpersonal leadership and employee engagement in lieu with job tension commitment.	Web- based survey and CFA	451 full time employees	The study suggested organizational identification mediates the relationship between IL and engagement/ commitment. Also, engagement mediates the relationship between job tension and identification.	Journal of Managerial Psychology
Patricia, 2015	Improving IR at work	The study analyzed the IR at work and related outcomes.	Secondary data analysis	Literature Review (48 papers)	The study substantiated that IR impacts the personality, attitude and work related outcomes.	Journal of Research & Method in Education

Author and Year	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Abe & Mason, 2016	Individual IR and Work performance	The study tries to determine the relationship between supervisors and subordinate for it contributes to organizational and individual level in retail.	Questionnaire, Correlation and Regression	167 supervisors and 144 subordinate workers	The study established that there is a strong relationship between IR and Employee performance in South African retail sector.	Problems and Perspectives in Management
Oladunmoye, 2017	Perceived Organizational support (POS), IR and Employee Turnover	The study analyzes the relation of POS, IR and turnover among employees.	Questionnaire, Correlation and Regression	248 employees	The study suggested that POS and IR effects the intention of turnover and therefore frequent switching of workers from one section to other should be promoted to increase IR.	International Journal of Information, Business and Management
Gonzalez et al., 2018	Community and Workplace Relationships	The study investigates the community spill over at workplace.	Online survey, Mediation analysis	2025 accounting professionals	The study submitted that family and friendship relationships affect the workplace attachment and are significantly related to turnover.	Journal of Business Psychology

2.2.6. Interpersonal Relationship studies in Indian Context

According to the best of the author's knowledge, there is a dearth of literature on the interpersonal relationship (IR) in the Indian context. Ghasemian and Kumar (2018) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between IR and job stress of 60 state government employees working in the Bangalore region of India. The study exhibited that there is no relationship between IR and Job stress in employees working under the state government. Further, the study supports that IR at the workplace results in better individual and organizational outcomes. Jha (2017) analyzed the impact of Superior-subordinate relationship, and Innovation climate over psychological empowerment. The study established that relationships and social support helps in cultivating an innovative culture which ultimately results in psychologically empowered employees. The results indicated that the managers and team- leaders need to create a healthy environment where interpersonal interaction should be promoted resulting in better mental health. Mitra and Chatterjee (2016) investigated the differences between the interpersonal relationship needs of the public and private sector employees working in Kolkata. The study established that private sector employees have stronger interpersonal needs in comparison to public sector employees. Another study was conducted on 52 runaway youths in India and the study analyzed the interpersonal relationship of the youths in the cultural context namely collectivistic and individualistic culture. While observing the youths, the study revealed that collectivist youths interpersonal relationships were privileged over the discourse of individualism in runaway boys (Raval, 2012).

Chandrasekar (2011) analyzed the role of the workplace environment and its relationship with organizational performance. The sample consisted of 2000 employees working in the public sector organizations. The study emphasized that interpersonal relationships, job assignment, environment shift, overtime, emotional factors impact the employee attitude and in turn the organizational performance.

Sowmya and Panchanatham (2011) undertook the study to find the various factors that influence job satisfaction in banking sector employees. The data was collected from 100 government employees. The study established that behavior, work environment and IR meticulously qualify as important factors that impact the job satisfaction of employees.

2.3. Optimism

2.3.1. Brief Background

Aristotle and other philosophers forwarded that human beings have a lot of potential wherein the potentiality reflects the two sides of the coin named expectation (Chang, 2001). Afterward,

several famous philosophers, including Hume (1711-1776), Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel (1770-1831), and Nietzsche (1844-1900) all contributed to the development of the psychological concept of optimism (Domino & Conway, 2001). Later on, well-known poet, Khalil Gibran (1951) added that "the optimist sees the rose and not its thorns" explaining the philosophical angle of the concept. While many differential psychologists were busy exploring optimism as an individual trait others addressed the concept as generalized human nature (Peterson, 2000).

Tiger (1979) has defined optimism as "an attitude or mood associated with an expectation about the social or material future – one which the evaluator regards as socially desirable, to his [or her] advantage or pleasure". Also, Gavrilov-Jerkovic et al. (2014) defined optimism as the general expectation of a positive outcome without emphasizing on the agent who controls the outcome. Additionally, optimism is a generalized expectation that an individual would experience good outcomes in the future course of life (Gillham, 2000). Therefore, optimism is observed as an affective, cognitive and motivational construct (Peterson, 2000). Further, optimism is defined in a comprehensive way as "a cognitive and a self-serving tendency to expect the positive outcomes and believe that setbacks are only temporary" (Bharti and Rangnekar, in Press). During the past few decades, the psychological trait of optimism has earned an expanding measure of enthusiasm from researchers and various examinations have now demonstrated that positive thinking is related with critical advantages. The earlier research literature on the causes and consequences of optimism has reflected that having an optimistic attitude is related to wide range of positive outcomes (Saks, 2006; 2011) which has led to the recognition of this construct at a scientific level. Consequently, the cultivation of the positivity has become one of the vital ways to improvise the well- being of individuals (Carver et al., 2003). The concept of optimism has evolved with time but the definition revolves around the notion of positive expectancy as exhibited in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 presents the evolution of the construct of a psychological construct called optimism which needs due consideration and measurement. From the beginning till now, the concept has followed a line of trajectory from a linear and rigid view to more idiosyncratic and vigorous view. In spite of the progress, the notion still demands consideration accentuating the need for evolving a more al dente and inclusive definition.

Table2.5: ***Evolution of definition of Optimism***

Year and Author	Focus
1979, Tiger	"An attitude or mood associated with an expectation about the social or material future one which the evaluator regards as socially desirable, to his [or her] advantage or pleasure.
1987, Scheier & Carver	"An individual difference trait describing an individual's outlook toward expectancies of good versus bad outcomes."
1991, Seligman	"An explanatory style and the habitual way in which people explain their life events."
1993, Scheier & Carver	"A broad and general expectancy."
1995, Buchanan et al.	"A style of reasoning about cause."
2000, Gillham	"A generalized expectation that an individual would experience good outcomes in the future course of life."
2001, Higgins & Bhatt	"A self- serving tendency to explain the positive events with internal-controllable causes and to explain negative events with external- uncontrollable causes."
2010, Carver & Scheier	"It is a variable that reflects individual differences in generalized favorable expectancies about one's future."
2010, Seckinger et al.	"A tendency to believe, expect or hope that things will turn out well despite current excruciating experience."
2010, Carver et al.	"An individual trait that reflects the extent to which people possess future favourable expectancies.
2014, Gavrilov-Jerkovic et al.	A general expectation of positive outcome without emphasizing on the agent who controls the outcome."

2.3.2. Relevant Theories

2.3.2.1. Theory of Explanatory Style

The theory of Explanatory style refers to a psychological attribute and indicates the way an individual explains the events/experiences i.e. in a positive or a negative manner (Maier & Seligman, 1976). Seligman (1998) added the attributional or explanatory style to the theory of learned helplessness. Also, the theory explains the three components namely personal, permanent and pervasive. The personal component attributes the event to internal or external sources whereas permanent component refers to the causes that are stable or unstable across time. Further, the pervasive component covers the global or local nature of the causes that leads to a particular event. The theory sees optimism as a personality trait or an individualistic trait that characterises that more good things will happen than bad things (Carver & Scheier, 2002). The theory has led to new insights into cognitive–behavioral approach believes that it is often the person's habitual

way of looking at experience and determines how they explain an event they have experienced and influences their cognitive (optimistic/pessimistic) expectation of future events.

2.3.2.2. Theory of Dispositional Optimism

According to the theory of dispositional optimism, being optimistic means having favourable generalized expectations and continuing goal-pursuit for the future (Scheier & Carver, 1992). An optimist tends to expect favourable outcomes, which would result in more positive feelings and affections (Scheier & Carver, 1993). It refers to the global expectations that good things will be in abundance in the future and bad things are not in abundance. Scheier and Carver emphasised that optimism is related and leads to expecting positive outcomes exhibiting that optimistic personality have a greater coping mechanism and feels less distressed. The optimistic individuals are less likely to engage in denial strategies and avoidance of a situation.

2.3.2.3. Life Span Development Theory

Life- span theorists and researchers that individuals tend to develop throughout the entire course of life as each period has its own developmental challenges. Baltes et al. (1998) suggested that development does not cease when adulthood is attained. Also, life-span is multifaceted in nature and developmental changes involve an essential aspect of human action along with the momentum of personal development over the lifespan (Baltes, 1987). The theory of lifespan development suggests that intra-individual variability concerning the traits and characteristics develop throughout the lifespan. Further, lifespan is led by the variable environment and culture, which helps in shaping the intra-individual personality traits like optimism, hope, and efficacy etc. throughout the life. The theory emphasises on the cognitive, emotive, and societal development of an individual by embracing the developmental stages over an entire lifespan. The theory is based on the premise that development is not completed at adulthood and extends across the entire life.

2.3.3 Antecedents of Optimism

Despite a wealth of research focussing on optimism, extant literature fails to present a comprehensive insight of the concept. The researchers suggest that optimism is a positive construct and the nature of the outcome is similar across various cultures. Further, optimism has been studied with various constructs and to develop better insights and therefore, it was required to perform a literature review. The concept has been studied with personality (Peterson & Chang, 2003; Judge et al., 2009; Wrosch et al., 2017); Individual performance (Medlin & Green Jr.,

2009); role ambiguity and role clarity (Crosno et al., 2009); feedback (Scheier & Carver, 2003); interpersonal relationships (Zellars et al., 2000; Brissette et al., 2002; Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Srivastava & Angelo, 2009); trust (Beheshtifar, 2013; Stander et al., 2015; Uslaner, 2008), justice (Kool & Dierendonck, 2012), empowerment (Saavedra & Kwun, 2000; Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003; Spreitzer, 2008) and others. Also, Table 2.6 represents the various antecedents that leads to the development and inculcation of an optimistic nature in an individual.

Table 2.6: ***Antecedents of Optimism***

Antecedents	Relationship type	Author and year
Personality	Positive	Judge et al., 2009; Peterson & Chang, 2003; Wrosch et al., 2017
Individual performance	Positive	Medlin & Green Jr., 2009
Role ambiguity	Negative	Crosno et al., 2009
Role clarity	Positive	Crosno et al., 2009
Feedback	Positive	Scheier and Carver, 2003
Interpersonal relationships	Positive	Zellars & Perrewé, 2000; Brissette et al., 2002; Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Srivastava & Angelo, 2009; bharti & Rangnekar, 2018
Justice	Positive	Kool & Dierendonck, 2012
Empowerment		Saavedra & Kwun, 2000; Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003; Spreitzer, 2008; Tombaugh et al., 2011
Trust	Positive	Beheshtifar, 2013; Stander et al., 2015

2.3.4. Consequences of Optimism

Positive psychology research submits that optimism has the potential for a strong, affirmative influence in the workplace (Luthans, 2002). The concept has a positive relationship with performance (Luthans et al., 2008; Kluemper et al., 2009); work motivation (Rego et al. 2010); employee engagement (Medlin & Green Jr., 2009; Prasanna & Swarnalatha, 2018); job, career and work satisfaction (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Fisher, 2010; Seligman, 2011; Zhang et al., 2014); psychological and physical well-being (Carver & Scheier, 2017; Veld & Alfes, 2017; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017); personal resources (Van Wingerden et al., 2017; Gilbert et al., 2018;) and OCB (Luthans et al., 2007; Ugwu & Igbende, 2017). Also, the concept has a negative relationship with burnout (Crosno et al., 2009; Hojat et al., 2015; Chang & Chan, 2015; Marcionetti et al., 2018) and stress (Baumgartner et al., 2018). Further, Table 2.7 presents the various consequence of optimism.

Table 2.7: ***Consequences of Optimism***

Consequences	Relationship type	Author and year
Performance	Positive	Nes & Segerstrom, 2006; Luthans et al., 2008; Kluemper et al., 2009
Work motivation	Positive	Scheier & Carver, 1993; Rego et al., 2010
Employee engagement	Positive	Medlin & Green Jr., 2009; Prasanna & Swarnalatha, 2018
Organizational commitment	Positive	Kluemper et al., 2009; Rego et al., 2010; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Shahnawaz & Jafri, 2009
Job, Work and career satisfaction	Positive	Seligman, 1991; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Luthans et al., 2007; Kluemper et al., 2009; Fisher, 2010; Seligman, 2011; Zhang et al., 2014
Coping behavior	Positive	Schwarzer, 2000; Nes & Segerstrom, 2006
Stress	Negative	Crosno et al., 2009; Snyman & Loh, 2015; Allen, 2017; Baumgartner et al., 2018
Burnout	Negative	Crosno et al., 2009; Hojat et al., 2015; Chang & Chan, 2015; Marcionetti et al., 2018
Anxiety and anxiety disorders	Negative	Coneo et al., 2017
Goal attainment	Positive	Haworth & Levy, 2001; Briones et al., 2007; Schwarz, 2007; Rand et al., 2011; Ionescu, 2017; Callina et al., 2017
Personal resources (formal status, leadership, and social status, as contacts and possessions)	Positive	Fredrickson, 2003; Segerstrom, 2007; Van Wingerden et al., 2017; Gilbert et al., 2018
OCB	Positive	Luthans et al., 2007; Ugwu, 2012; Ugwu & Igbende, 2017
Psychological and physical well-being	Positive	Seligman, 2002; Wright et al., 2007; Terril et al., 2010; Bouchard et al., 2017; Carver & Scheier, 2017; Veld & Alfes, 2017; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017
Happiness	Positive	Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Fisher, 2010; Smith et al., 2013; Dar & Wani, 2017
Creativity	Positive	Chang & Farrehi, 2001; Seligman, 2011; Segerstrom et al., 2017; Rego et al., 2018

Table 2.8 presents an overview of some noteworthy literature on the concept of optimism during the last decade. This further, helps in developing a better understanding of the variable in the current scenario.

Table 2.8: ***Related literature focussing upon Optimism***

Year and Author	**Variables under study**	**Objective of the study**	**Collection of Data and analysis**	**Sample size and population**	**Findings of the study**	Journal
Luthans et al., 2008	Optimism and performance	The study investigates the relationship between optimism and performance.	Questionnaire, ANOVA	78 nurses	The findings established that high positivity measured by optimism resulted in more commitment towards the workplace and greater customer/ patient satisfaction. Also, optimism results in higher rated performance outcomes.	Journal of Health Organization and Management
Medlin & Green Jr., 2009	Goal setting, engagement, optimism and performance	The study analysis the relationship between engagement, goal setting, optimism and performance.	Questionnaire, Structural equation modelling	426 full- and part-time Employees	The study supported that Goal setting positively impacts employee engagement which is positively related with individual performance,	Industrial Management & Data Systems
Crosno et al., 2009	Optimism, JP (job performance), burnout and role clarity.	The study investigates the concept of optimism as an internal construct that strengthens the coping mechanism in boundary spanners.	Online survey, Structural equation modelling	209 (52% male and 48% female)	The study established that optimism acts as both antecedent and mediator. Also, optimism mediates the relationship of role ambiguity and performance indicating its relevance in coping with the stressors.	Journal of service research
Munyon et al., 2010	Optimism, OCB (organizational citizenship behavior) and Job satisfaction (JS)	The study examines the relationship between optimism, OCB and JS	Questionnaire, Moderation analysis	155 (63% female and 37% male)	The study suggested that optimism place an interactive role and moderates the relationship between OCB and JS	Journal of management

Year and Author	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Pereira Lopes et al., 2011	Optimism and pessimism	The study investigates the paradoxical nature of optimists and pessimists.	Questionnaire, ANOVA, cluster analysis	343employee	The study demarcates the explicit knowledge which can be utilised by incorporating both the sides of the coin/ paradoxical nature of optimist and pessimist.	Management Research
Ugwu, 2012	Organizational virtuousness (OV), optimism and work engagement	The study analysis the predicting nature of OV and optimism with work engagement	Questionnaire, Hierarchical regression analysis	222 (127 males and 95 females)	The study established that virtuousness in organizations and optimism leads to work engagement and ultimately success in Nigerian work settings.	Asian journal of social sciences and Humanities
Kool & Dierendonck, 2012	Servant leadership, Commitment to change, optimism, and justice	The study explores the mediating role of justice and optimism on servant leadership-commitment to change relationship.	Questionnaire, SEM		The study revealed that servant leadership contributes to optimism, justice and commitment to change. Also, the study established a combination between task-oriented and people- oriented approach.	Journal of Organizational change management
Akhtar et al., 2013	Self- efficacy, optimism and organizational commitment (OC)	The study examined the role of PV such as self-efficacy and optimism in OC among bank employees.	Questionnaire, Correlation and Multiple hierarchical regression	150 employees (75 private, 75public)	The study established that self-efficacy predicts the organizational commitment in potentially qualified employees. On the contrary, optimism does not predicts OC.	International Journal of Research Studies in Psychology
Zhang et al., 2014	Job insecurity, JS, optimism and person-supervisor deep level similarity	The study analyzed the relationship between optimism, Job insecurity, JS and person- supervisor deep level similarity	Questionnaire, Moderation analysis	368 employees	The study established that optimism leads to job satisfaction and negative relationship with job insecurity. Also, Person- supervisor deep level similarity predicts job satisfaction.	Career Development International

Year and Author	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Paolillo et al., 2015	OJ (organizational justice), commitment to change and optimism	The study examines the role of OJ and optimism in commitment to change.	Questionnaire, Correlation and regression, Mediation analysis	122 employees	The study substantiated the mediating role of optimism between OJ and the commitment to change in Italian employees.	Journal of Organizational change management
Stoilkovska et al., 2015	Psychological contract and optimism-pessimism	The study explores the relationship between psychological contract and optimism- pessimism in employees.	Questionnaire, hierarchical regression	181 students	The study established that optimism and pessimism of employees predicts the beliefs about employer inducements.	Journal of Business Research
Strauss et al., 2015	Hope, Task adaptivity and optimism	The study investigates the relationship between Hope, Task adaptivity and optimism.	Questionnaire, CFA	299 insurance employee	The study revealed that optimism and hope predicts employee performance. Also, hope has a significant relationship with task adaptivity.	Journal of Business Psychology
Badran & Youssef-Morgan, 2015	PsyCap, hope and JS	The study explores the relationship between PsyCap, hope and JS.	Questionnaire, CFA	451 employees	The results revealed that optimism is least significantly related to JS as compared to hope, resilience and efficacy.	Journal of Managerial psychology
Grevenstein et al., 2016	Sense of coherence (SOC), resilience, optimism and self-compassion	The study investigates the relationship between SOC, optimism, resilience and self- compassion.	Questionnaire, SEM	208 employee	The findings supported that optimism acts as mediators in SOC- self-compassion. Further, SOC predicts resilience in employees. SOC came out to be the strongest health- related predictor in employees.	Personality and Individual Differences

Year and Author	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Kovács et al., 2017	Optimism nd well-being	The study investigates the relationship between well-being and optimism.	Online survey, CFA	459 employees	The study explores the individual explanatory style and its effect on well-being of the employees. It was the first application of MQ test (explanatory style questionnaire).	Studia Psychologica
Wlodarczyk, 2017	Optimism, Hope and subjective well-being	The study explores the relationship between Optimism, Hope and subjective well-being.	Questionnaire, Regression analysis	222 myocardial survivors	The study established that optimism and hope predicted subjective health. Further, social support or interpersonal relationship and problem solving attitude were significantly related with hope and optimism.	Journal of Health Psychology
Ugwu & Igbende, 2017	Work centrality, emotional intelligence (EI), employee optimism and OCB	The study investigates the relationship between wok centrality, EI, optimism and OCB.	Questionnaire, Hierarchical Regression analysis	175 employees	The study confirmed that optimism, centrality and emotional intelligence significantly predicts OCB.	
Wu & Chen, 2018	Collective PsyCap, organizational commitment, shared leadership and creativity	The study examines the relationship between Collective PsyCap, organizational commitment, shared leadership and creativity.	Questionnaire, CFA	267 employees	The study propounded that shared leadership leads to increase in the level of optimism among employees which facilitates creativity and organizational commitment.	Journal of Hospitality Management

Year and Author	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Lu et al., 2018	Optimism, self-efficacy and work-engagement	The study seeks to find the relationship of how engagement is related to optimism and self-efficacy.	Questionnaire, Hierarchical regression analysis	707 employees	The study suggested that follower self- efficacy leads to optimism and work engagement.	Journal of Business Research
Gukiina et al., 2018	Institutional identification, OCB and OV (organizational virtuousness)	The study aims to expand the social exchange theory demonstrating the effect of Institutional identification and organizational virtuousness along with the mediating role OV.	Questionnaire, Mediation analysis	384 hospitality employee	The study established that the relationship of institutional identification (centrality, Private regard, Public regard, bonding, and belongingness) and OCB is being mediated by OV (compassion, forgiveness and optimism).	Singaporean Journal of Business Economics and Management studies
A Megeirhi et al., 2018	PsyCap, Authentic leadership and negative outcomes	The study explores the relationship between PsCap, authentic leadership and negative outcomes at workplace.	Questionnaire, Moderation analysis	331 employee	The study authenticated the role of PsyCap as a moderator on authentic leadership and negative outcomes (workplace incivility).	Economic Research

2.3.5. Studies on Optimism in Indian Context

According to the best of the author's knowledge, there is a deficiency of literature on the construct of optimism in the Indian context. Yet, few studies have explored the concept with different variables in the Indian setting. Sharma and Sharma (2015) conducted a study on 373 managers working in private and public manufacturing and service sector in India. The study revealed that work engagement mediates the relationship between the gender equity, LOC (locus of control) and optimism reflecting the well-being of an individual. Additionally, Mitra (2015) analyzed the sample of 110 adult individuals for the correlates of well-being and established that well-being of an individual is positively correlated with the constructs of cognitive emotions like optimism, faith and hope. Another study conducted by Mehrotra et al. (2012) supported that optimism acts as a determinant of health and well-being of an individual.

2.4. Career Engagement

2.4.1. Brief Background

The word career has been derived from the Latin word "carrus" which symbolizes a wagon or a short gallop by the horse. Later on, career meant an incessant course of action, and towards the twentieth century, it meant an individual's professional life. Further, Hall (1986) defined career as a sequence of related activities and work experiences that an individual experiences during the course of his life. Coupland (2004) elaborated that career refers to the experience gained by an individual from professional studies and behaviors throughout the life. Over a period of time, the construct has emerged from career to career engagement and is in the initial phase of the development. Whereas the concept of career is justly straightforward in terms of both research and practice, the term career engagement may be aptly confused with the terms like job engagement, employee engagement, personal engagement or role engagement (Memon et al., 2013; Carasco-Saul et al., 2015). To demarcate the boundary, Neault and Pickerell (2011) defined career engagement as the current emotional and cognitive connection to one's career; it is a state in which one is focused, energized, and able to derive pleasure from activities linked to work and other life roles. Also, Hirschi (2011) described the concept as the degree to which an individual is engaged with the career behaviors. Additionally, career engagement refers not to the attitude but to the career behaviors that an individual demonstrates to enhance the career development (Hirschi et al., 2014). The concept of career engagement is relatively new, and the literature is rather silent on the same. Further, the definition revolves around the notion of engagement and career with respect to the different roles in an individual's life as compared to the work

environment which was the key context in engagement related to job, employee, work etc. Table 2.9 presents the evolution of the definition of career engagement.

Table2.9: ***Evolution of definition of Career Engagement***

Year and Author	Focus
2011, Neault & Pickerell	"The current emotional and cognitive connection to one's career; it is a state in which one is focused, energized, and able to derive pleasure from activities linked to work and other life roles."
2011, Hirschi	"The degree to which an individual is engaged with the career behaviors."
2014, Hirschi et al.	"The general degree to which an individual engages in adapting behaviors."

2.4.2. Relevant Theories

2.4.2.1. SCCT

Bandura (1986) gave the Social Cognitive theory which forms the foundation of SCCT (Social cognitive career theory) emphasizing the significance of rational or cognitive, self-directing and motivational procedures that enhance the fundamental concerns of conditioning and learning. It was developed with three objectives to understand the progression of the following through which

(a) Interest in the academic and career develops

(b) Interest to promote the variables related with career choices

(c) People accomplish variable levels of persistence and performance in their educational as well as career quests (Lent & Brown, 1996).

Further, the theory emphasizes on three cognitive mechanisms which focuses on the outcome expectations, self-efficacy beliefs and goals (Lent & Brown, 2013). Together social learning theory (SLT) and SCCT identify the significance of individual differences, which have been referred to as person inputs in Social Cognitive Career theory. The individual differences are the personal dispositions, for example, self-esteem, optimism, self-efficacy and gender. These characteristics are anticipated to affect a person's competency beliefs, outlook expectations and ultimately their actions, accomplishments or the way they behave. There is an emphasis within SCCT on the means by which individuals exercise personal agency or the agentic traits such as independence, activity, confidence or positive attitude which contributes to career (Abele, 2003; Rosette & Tost, 2010).

2.4.3. Antecedents of Career Engagement

Career engagement is an emerging construct and, therefore the currently available literature on is rather scanty indicating that it has not been extensively explored. Demographics (Gattiker and Larwood, 1988; Van der Horst et al., 2017; Grant-Vallone et al., 2017); Career decision- making (Hartung et al., 2008; Hirschi, 2011); Work-life balance (Mcmurray et al., 2000, Keeton et al., 2007); interpersonal relations like friends, family and other relations (Luyckx et al., 2008; Vondraceck et al., 2010); denial and acceptance (Smith et al., 2012) and optimism (Avey et al., 2009; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Smith et al., 2012) have a predicting relationship with career engagement. Additionally, Age (Van der Horst et al., 2017) has a negative relationship with career engagement. Table 2.10 presents the various antecedents of the concept.

Table 2.10: ***Antecedents of Career Engagement***

Antecedents	Nature of relationship	Author and Year
Emotional resilience	Positive	Smith et al., 2012; Keeton et al., 2007
Personal accomplishment and personality	Positive	Keeton et al., 2007; Hirschi et al., 2014
Self- efficacy	Positive	Hirschi et al., 2014
Interpersonal relations (friends, family and others)	Positive	Luyckx et al., 2008; Vondraceck et al., 2010; Hirschi et al., 2011
Work-life balance	Positive	Mcmurray et a., 2000, Keeton et al., 2007
Career decision- making		Blustein et al., 1989; Hartung et al., 2008; Hirschi et al., 2011
Demographics (gender, age, education, marital status and income)	Positive Negative (age)	Van der Horst et al., 2017; Grant-Vallone et al., 2017
Organization characteristics (size, type of organization, region and industry sector)	Positive	Judge et al., 1994;Valentine et al., 2011
Career orientation	Positive	Hall, 2004; Hall & Chandler, 2005
Optimism	Positive	Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Avey et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2012
Denial and acceptance	Positive	Smith et al., 2012
Motivation	Positive	Hirschi et al., 2014

2.4.4. Consequences of Career Engagement

Though, the literature is rather silent on the concept of career engagement, but few studies have revealed that there is a positive relationship with other variables like career satisfaction (Hirschi et al., 2014); performance (Martínez-León et al., 2018); loyalty (Aryal, 2014); organizational commitment (Martínez-León et al., 2018) and negative relationship with burnout (Keeton et al., 2007). Table 2.11 highlights the consequences of the concept of career engagement.

Table 2.11: ***Consequences of Career Engagement***

Consequence	Nature of relationship	Author and Year
Career development	Positive	Hirschi et al., 2014
Burnout	Negative	Keeton et al., 2007
Performance	Positive	Martínez-León et al., 2018
Organizational commitment	Positive	Lips & Lawson, 2008; Martínez-León et al., 2018
Loyalty	Positive	Murrell et al., 1996

Further, Table 2.12 highlights some of the important research work in the field of career engagement as it is relatively a new concept and there is a dearth of literature in the same segment.

Table 2.12: ***Related literature focussing upon Career Engagement***

Year and Author	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Shanafelt et al., 2009	Burnout and CS (career satisfaction)	The study aims to investigate the relationship of burnout and career satisfaction.	Online survey, logistic analysis	7905 employees	The study revealed that burnout acts as a predictor to career satisfaction in employees. Further, burnout effects the level of engagement in employees.	Annals of Surgery
Rogers et al., 2011	Personality, Career planning, Career exploration, support and Career expectations	The study undergoes a longitudinal examination of career planning using SCCT theory (social cognitive career theory).	Questionnaire. Multiple regression	631 college students	The study revealed that career development is a complex which needs planning, career choice and careful execution of the steps. Further, personality affects the career attitudes (career planning, career support and career exploration).	Journal of Adolescence
Hirschi et al., 2011	Engagement, career preparation, social support, personality, choice decidedness	The study explores the relationship between engagement and its outcome in planning their career along with personality and social support.	Longitudinal panel study	349 students	The study examined the role of career planning in decisiveness along with the mediating variables i.e. engagement. Social- support leads to more engagement. Career planning leads to career decision- making which leads to career development.	Journal of adolescence
Smith et al., 2012	Individual differences, Glass ceilings, career behaviors, engagement, well- being	The study analysis Individual differences, Glass ceilings, career behaviors,, engagement, career success, happiness and well- being.	Questionnaire, Hierarchical regression analysis	258 employee	The study explored the glass ceiling beliefs (denial, resilience, acceptance and resignation) for the first time. Also, resilience reported as most optimistic about the career success as compared to denial and acceptance being less pessimistic about it. It established that glass ceilings predicts subjective career.	Career Development International

Year and Author	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Upadyaya & Salmela-Aro, 2015	Career engagement, career satisfaction	The study explores the relationship between career engagement and satisfaction.	Questionnaire, SEM	837 students	The study established that high motivation is closely related with career engagement. Also, the transitions might change the level of satisfaction which effects the engagement level.	Journal of Vocational behavior
Hirschi & Jaensch, 2015	Narcissism, self-efficacy, Career success and career engagement	The study explores the mediating role of career engagement, occupational self-efficacy on relationship of career success and Narcissism.	Questionnaire, Multiple mediation (Hayes PROCESS)	634 employees	The study suggested an indirect relationship between narcissism and career success via self-efficacy and career engagement. Further, career satisfaction was taken as an outcome signifying the subjective nature of career.	Personality and Individual Difference
Nilforooshan & Salimi, 2016	Career adaptability, personality and career engagement (CE)	The current study examined the relationship between Career adaptability, personality and career engagement.	Questionnaire SEM	201 students	The study revealed that personality and career engagement relationship is mediated by career adaptability. Also, activity and CE are partially mediated while neuroticism and CE relationship is being fully mediated by career adaptability.	Journal of Vocational Behavior
Xie et al., 2016	Calling, Career adaptability, work engagement and career satisfaction	The study investigates the relationship of career adaptability as a mediating variable between calling and work engagement as well as subjective career success i.e. career satisfaction.	Questionnaire, Hierarchical regression and PROCESS	832 employees	The study established that calling- work engagement relationship is mediated by career adaptability. Also, Calling is indirectly and directly related to career satisfaction.	Journal of Vocational Behavior

Year and Author	Variables under study	Objective of the study	Collection of Data and analysis	Sample size and population	Findings of the study	Journal
Garcia-Sierra et al., 2017	Engagement	The study explores the concept of engagement qualitatively.	Interview, Longitudinal study, Qualitative analysis	15 nurses	The study supported that engagement is comprised of energy at work/ vigour, dedication, the work environment (autonomy) and conciliation.	Enfermeria Clinica
Martínez-León et al., 2018	Work conditions, personal factors, cultural factors an CS	The study examines the relationship of personal factors, cultural factors, work conditions and CS.	Questionnaire, Hierarchical regression analysis	846 employees	The study established that work, personal and cultural factors leads to career satisfaction which increases the performance of employees and results in organizational commitment.	Journal of Engineering and Technology Management
Hagmaier et al., 2018	CS and LS(Life satisfaction)	The study investigates the relationship between career satisfaction and life satisfaction.	Observation method, Longitudinal study, SEM	517 employees	The study confirmed the relationship between CS and LS. Further, the study tested the top-down model and showed that work centrality acts as the moderator between LS and CS.	Journal of Managerial Psychology

2.4.5. Career Engagement studies in Indian Context

The concept of career engagement has recently catch the attention of the academic scholars and is therefore an emerging topic. To the best of the author's knowledge, very little research has been done in the concerned field. Rastogi et al. (2018) conducted a study on the employees working in hotel industry (small and medium sized hotels based in Delhi, India) and explored the relationship of psychological and material resources with career satisfaction. The results indicated that the presence of rewards and appreciation for the work done helps in inflating the self-esteem of the employees which results in the engaged workforce and career satisfaction.

Chaudhary et al. (2012) assessed the relationship between self-efficacy and engagement levels of the business executives of public and private sector manufacturing and service organizations in India. The study highlighted that the workforce endorsed with higher levels of self- efficacy tend to remain more engaged as compared to the others. Further, HRD (human resource development) climate plays a significant role in enhancing the engagement among the employees.

2.5. Demographic variables and related variations

2.5.1. Variations due to Gender

Despite women's advancements in the workplace, gender differences persist in terms of career success. Spurk et al. (2015) established that gender differences exist in the professional networks that affect the subjective career success. Santilli et al. (2017) highlighted that males and females differ in terms of the implications of career behaviors. Forret and Doughrety (2004) highlighted that males benefit more in terms of career variables (like career planning) as compared to females. Gutek et al. (1991) suggested that women, on the average, place less emphasis as compared to men on the job-related outcomes. Further, McDonald (2011) suggested that females have fewer networks as compared to male that resulted in less benefits in term of compensation and career-related outcomes. Also, women are more positive and affirmative about their careers in the initial years but later the focus shifts on family. For example, in balancing their work and family roles, women tend to assign fixed priorities to their family responsibilities that are independent of work demands, whereas men tend to employ a compensatory approach and are more likely to trade off family responsibilities against work responsibilities (Tenbrunsel et al., 1995). Additionally, Ackah and Heaton (2004) and Son and Lin (2012) suggested that females attribute career success to external factors like social support, whereas males preferably attribute success to their self-efficacy and ambition. Researchers (Winstead & Morganson, 2009) suggested that gender affects the relationship at workplace and establishes that day-to-day interactions affects the relationships, leader/ member relationships, career paths and the jobs they seek in their life. Also, owing to the

cultural and societal expectations plus the parental responsibilities, females are more engrossed with the family-related matters whereas males put their job in first place, leading to role differences. Further, it specifies a definite position or role being played by the gender, male or female. The differences in networking behavior and benefits have been attributed to the agentic-communal dimension of social roles (Clarke, 2011). To add on, SCCT emphasizes the importance of examining gender differences that may exist across the career correlates for males and females as a result of gender role socialization. Further, researchers (Van Emmerik et al., 2006) exhibited that males and females differ in terms of optimism and career variables like career planning, career exploration and career decision making. Buyukgoze-Kavas (2016) asserted that males scored higher on measures of greater sense of optimism for the future, while females attributed more in terms of better career choices. Additionally, Corr and Mutinelli (2017) established that females scored higher on career-related dispositions like career planning, career adaptability and optimism adapting to a continuously changing working environment and exploiting changes to succeed. Loudon (2017) further, added that in the dynamic scenario, flexibility in the gender/societal roles is associated with a higher sense of career success among female employees in the globalized economy.

2.5.2. Variations due to Age

The variations in terms of age in the cognitive and psychological processes along with career and job philosophy in individuals has been the focus of many studies (Birditt & Fingerman, 2003; Davidson et al., 2007; You et al., 2009; Palgi et al., 2011). Herzberg et al. (2006) reflected that age difference affects the optimism and pessimism related to one's career as well as well-being related variables. Additionally, Cabras and Mondo (2018) highlighted that age affects the optimism level, future career decision-making and coping strategies. Further, You et al. (2009) revealed that older Americans are more optimistic relative to older Chinese. According to the theory of lifespan development, ongoing interactions between the individual and her/his surroundings or environment lead indeed to changes or adjustments. Furthermore, according to early socialisation theory, lifespan shapes an individual's perception, attitude, values and behaviors (Danziger & Eden, 2007). Various studies (for e.g.: Smith et al., 2012; 2014) have been conducted in western and individualistic nations which depicted that individuals differ in terms of relationships with others as well as individualistic traits like optimism which gets reflected in their behaviors. Further, India is going through the demographical transition that many other countries have already experienced, except on a far larger scale. In Japan and China, for example, the generations now in their 50s and 60s have lifted the countries to middle-income

status and away from poverty. A vast ocean of sub-continental millennials will have to do the same for India, yet this generation is supposedly in their 20s only (Andrade & Westover, 2018). According to Burns and Seligman (1989), aging individuals have an ability to maintain self-views in changing times or environment, and a sense of reality appears to develop referring to chronological age and the differential change in age which affects the social networks and optimism. Therefore, it can be assumed that the age differences in the perceptions can cause significant variations in the workplace behavior.

2.5.3. Variations due to Education

Previous researchers (Kao & Tienda, 1995; Brooks & Goldstein, 2001; Parker, 2006) suggest that education determines the cognitive and social processes in an individual. The researchers indicate that education is a broader term and often guides the thoughts, movements, actions and decision as well. Further, the process of learning or 'knowing more and more' is constantly under transition that leads to radical alterations in the behavior. Kim (2005) supported that education attainment is a collective process instead of an individualistic one in which an individual access different kind of social capital that facilitates their career. The study highlighted that educational differences leads to fewer networks (Krypel & Henderson-King, 2010). Burger and Naude (2019) suggested that different educational backgrounds affect the academic and career success of individuals in a sample of South-African individuals. Further, the educational goals affect the level of commitment and psychological energy devoted to the career (Altbach et al., 2009). According to McLennan et al. (2017), individual education is significantly associated with self-efficacy that affects the commitment, optimism and career behaviors like career adaptability. Ebenahi et al. (2016) added that individuals with higher education in Nigeria reflect more career adaptability along with career intelligence in a globalised economy. Tolentino et al. (2014) established that higher education affects the learning goal orientation, proactive personality and career optimism that results in effective career management. Further, Higgins et al. (2010) indicated that higher level of education is associated with an individual's developmental networks in terms of psychosocial support that strongly determines his/her career path. Also, the studies have reflected that education leads to constant learning and development that may be both immediate and remote (Mcllveen et al., 2013). The concept is primarily based on the premise of increasing one's knowledge that leads to awareness and better decision making.

Hence, keeping the above discussion in mind the following hypotheses have been drawn:

Hypothesis 1a: Male and Female employees perceive IR (interpersonal relationship) differently.

Hypothesis 1b: Young, middle-age and old age employees perceive IR differently.
Hypothesis 1c: Employees with different Educational level perceive IR differently.

Hypothesis 2a: Male and Female employees perceive optimism differently.
Hypothesis 2b: Young, middle- age, and old age employees perceive optimism differently.
Hypothesis 2c: Employees with different Educational level perceive optimism differently.

Hypothesis 3a: Male and Female employees perceive CE differently.
Hypothesis 3b: Young, middle-age and old age employees perceive CE differently.
Hypothesis 3c: Employees with different Educational level perceive CE differently.

2.6. Relationship between the Variables

2.6.1. Interpersonal Relationship and Career Engagement

The present research considers Schutz's (1958) conceptualization for understanding interpersonal behavior (expressed and wanted) under the three categories of needs i.e. need for inclusion, need for control and need for affection. The current study argues that in the Indian context, the interpersonal relationships will influence the career engagement of Indian employees which determines the relationship between IR and career engagement. Warshawsky et al. (2014) examined the relationship of IR, work behavior and engagement in 290 nurse managers working in 44 states of North Carolina. The study revealed that by creating a supporting and motivating environment, the workforce tends to be more engaged with their work and henceforth, a career which leads to increased performance.

Reich & Herschcovis (2011) performed another study by analyzing the role of interpersonal relationship in the career-related outcomes. The study analyzed the western European and North American sample and established that relationships at workplace appear to be revolutionary such that it helps in increasing the self-esteem, which results in work-related and career-related outcomes. According to Ren and Chadee (2017), the development of positive relations or guanxi context in china results in fostering career networking behaviors which predicts the career behaviors in a culturally diverse workplace.

2.6.1.1. Need for Inclusion and Career Engagement

The need for inclusion has been synonymously used for the need to belong. Kundu and Mor (2017) reflected that individuals differ in the behavior as they climb the career ladder. Also, every

individual varies in terms of the need for inclusion and the comfort associated that foster success in their work environment. Furnham (2008) advocated that the expressed need for inclusion refers to the individual's feeling of self-worth i.e. a need to feel worthwhile. Researchers (Siegel et al., 2001; 2010) established that individuals with greater expressed need for inclusion (depicting the aspect of social interaction) added to the general warmth which affects the teamwork and influences career development. In 2015, Ditchburn and Brook established that individuals with wanted and expressed need for inclusion were significantly higher in interaction and career adjustment. Additionally, the individuals with higher expressed need for inclusion adapt to the job change, role change and responsibilities associated with the job contrary to the individuals with higher wanted need for inclusion. Venkatesh and Tolani (2016) specified that individuals vary in terms of the wanted and expressed needs for inclusion that affect their work environment along with the team performance and career development. Further, Harms (2017) added expressed need for inclusion is significantly associated with career planning, leadership and team building.

Hypothesis 4a: Expressed need for inclusion is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).
Hypothesis 4b: Wanted need for inclusion is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

2.6.1.2. Need for Control and Career Engagement

In 2005, MacDonald and Arthur investigated the association between the employee need for control and career management. The study analysed the sample of repatriates and highlighted that the expressed as well as the wanted need for control is associated with long-term career goals. Also, the study reflected that the control needs are associated with the expectations, skill acquisition, and work performance. Additionally, the excessive needs for control (expressed) are associated with job burnout (Espeland, 2006; Plomp et al., 2016). Aryee et al. (1994) added that a greater need for control influences the job discretion and career success. Feldman and Bolino (2000) sufficed that the psychological need for control and need for achievement are associated with skill utilization, future career plans, as well as the well-being of an individual. As highlighted by the previous researchers (Fugate & Kinicki, 2008; Cendales-Ayala et al., 2017), the individuals differ in need for control (expressed or wanted) and report less job stress as they believe that they have flexibility, greater autonomy and exhibit different career behavior. Further, London et al. 2019 established that the expressed need for control surpasses the other needs and

is highly associated with career behaviors like career motivation as well as the performance of the individual. Therefore, we hypothesise that

Hypothesis 4c: Expressed need for control is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).
Hypothesis 4d: Wanted need for control is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

2.6.1.3. Need for Affection and Career Engagement

Schutz (1958) highlighted that there is a need to maintain a balance between the self and the other individuals in terms of affection. The need for affection specifies the varying degree of intensity depending upon the relationship between individuals acting as the proverbial glue. Also, the needs for affection, whether expressed or wanted, reflects the loyalty for the organization that results in career behaviors (Koh et al, 2017). Parameswari (2015) suggested that the need for affection and need for guidance determined the goals, decision-making, as well as the individual career path. Also, the need for affection has been associated with job-related outcomes, managerial raise and better salary (Allen et al., 2004), career mobility (Scandura, 1992) and others. Solaja (2015), further, established that the individuals with greater expressed need for affection exhibit greater job satisfaction. Also, the need for affection often influence the changes related to one's career plan (Culpin et al., 2015). In 2009, You et al. suggested that individuals with expressed need for affection exhibits higher performance as compared to wanted need for affection, in turn, affecting career satisfaction and productivity. Further, Wei et al. (2010) reflected that expressed needs for affection reflects the social skills and the networking ability individuals need to navigate the organizations successfully. Shabbir et al. (2014) established that the altruistic need for affection results in confident networking that leads to career success and satisfaction. Thus, based on the above literature, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 4e: Expressed need for affection is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).
Hypothesis 4f: Wanted need for affection is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

2.6.2. Optimism and Career Engagement

Career engagement is the cognitive and emotional connection to one's career and measures the general degree of engagement in self-directed career management behaviors (Hirschi et al., 2014). In this context, the expectation that good things will happen (Chang et al., 2009) leads to an emotionally charged and individual orientation towards the future (Kristiansen, 2014; Hitlin & Kirkpatrick Johnson, 2015) which further makes optimism relevant to life outcomes, performance and career. This pertains to one's prevalent expectations across different situations, particularly with the attainment of the personal goals (Seligman et al. 1991; Carver & Scheier, 2002; Wrosch et al., 2003).

The present research takes into account Gavrilov-Jerković et al.'s (2014) conceptualization for understanding optimism under the two categories of personal optimism and self-efficacy optimism. The current study argues that in the Indian context, self- efficacy optimism, which characterizes an individual having belief in his capability i.e. belief that an individual can successfully accomplish a goal (Ford, 1992) will influence the career engagement of Indian Managers. This further subsumes the Scheier and Carver's (1993) concept of optimism that indicates that the outcomes are matters of direct apprehension to the individual. This further enhances the base that self- efficacy optimism is considerably related with the performance in diverse situations resulting in motivation which leads to achievement orientation (Schweizer & Koch, 2001).

Similarly, in a study conducted by Schweizer and Koch (2001) personal optimism was closely related to life satisfaction and ultimately the psychological well- being. Further, Personal Optimism which focuses upon the personal expectations that the outcome will be positive has been found to be related with adjustment and adaptation (Chang & Sanna, 2003; Ben- Zur, 2003). Also, Personal optimism which signifies the positive outlooks which are not essentially the result of personal beliefs or control but can also be the result of external factors and good luck (Gavrilov-Jerković et al., 2014). Therefore, it's quite reasonable to assume its significant role in the engagement of an individual with his career. Hence, the hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 5a: Personal optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

Hypothesis 5b: Self-efficacy optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

2.6.3. Interpersonal Relationship, Optimism and Career Engagement

Based on the theoretical underpinnings and vast literature, researchers argued that the relationship between interpersonal relationship, optimism and career engagement could be studied from different lenses, i.e. social, cognitive and conative or behavioural. Lent et al., 2002 and Lent and Brown (2013) exhibited that SCCT theory (Social Cognitive Career Theory) provides a contextual model of career development wherein social factors such as ethnicity, age, culture, and gender affect career beliefs and outcome expectations/optimism as a cognitive construct, which in turn determine the individual behaviour as in career behaviours (career interests, goals, and ultimately career behavior). Further, Lent et al. (2016) established and explored the interpersonal/social aspect of individual optimism extending SCCT to the context of career and academic development. Also, Ambriz (2016) established that SCCT examines how the cognitive-personal variables (e.g. optimism, outcome expectations, and goals), social factors (e.g., oppression and socialization), and overt behaviors (e.g., career decisions) interact via feedback loops that can either promote or impede career development processes (i.e., interests, choice, and performance). Additionally, the Life Span Development theory emphasises on the cognitive, emotive, and societal development of an individual by embracing the developmental stages over an entire lifespan. The theory is based on the premise that development is not completed at adulthood and extends across the entire life and is led by the variable environment and culture, which helps in shaping the intra-individual personality traits like optimism, hope, and efficacy etc. throughout the life.

The researchers (Brissette et al., 2002; Pham et al., 2019) suggested that an optimist vigorously pursue interpersonal relationships indicating more friends and community gatherings, thus, reflecting the social angle. The optimistic individuals tend to see their social environment in a favourable manner and therefore, considered more supportive as compared to the counterparts (Vollman et al., 2011). Also, various researchers (Räikkönen et al., 1999; Carver & Scheier, 2014) supported that people respond more positively to relations with optimists than to others. It thus, appears that optimism could lead to long-term accumulation of both social ties and inclusivity. Weinstein (1982) argued that in close relationships, both self-assured people and their accomplices appreciate more noteworthy relationship fulfilment, and optimistic people's connections are at lower danger of separating. Further, individuals with optimistic outlooks are socially rejected less often and are better liked by others; have less negative interpersonal interactions; have enduring friendships; and experience lesser social isolation or estrangement

and concern. The level of optimism affects the quality of support given and received in close relationships.

According to the Expectancy-value (EV) framework as discussed earlier, optimists carry an attitude which established that every conflict can be resolved (Carver & Scheier, 2002). Further, an individual would instead participate in constructive, flexible and cooperative problem-solving behaviors. Previous studies established that positive expectations about close relations can predict forthcoming interactions and satisfaction with a relationship (McNulty & Karney, 2004). There are also several studies documenting that individuals reveal relative optimism about their chances of avoiding conflict and having a happy relationship (Lin & Raghubir, 2005). Limited research has been done in this area and the most appropriate study related to optimism and relationship expectations is done by Lin & Raghubir (2005). It is recommended that unrealistic positive thinking about relationship achievement is an all-inclusive phenomenon.

Weinstein (1980) argued that unrealistic optimism is an all-inclusive inquired concept: individuals believe that great things will probably happen to them than to others, and awful things will probably transpire. A subset of positive thinking research has explored results in the context of relationship. The studies demonstrated that people with hopeful outlook are well preferred by others and are socially included in comparison to non- optimistic individuals have less antagonistic societal cooperation; have enduring fellowships; and practice lesser social distance and nervousness. In sentimental connections, both hopeful people and their accomplices appreciate more prominent relationship fulfilment, and positive thinkers' connections are at lower danger of separating. Optimism has been related to perceived support among loving couples, air crash rescue workers and students transitioning to college (Srivastava & Angelo, 2009). It appears that, if optimism is a common tendency to presume positive outcomes, perceived support is a more accurate indicator of optimism in which one presumes a particular optimistic outcome (interpersonal support) in a close relationship. Another way that optimism can prompt positive social results is through real social support, both offered and gotten by confident people. Optimism is a socially esteemed quality, and therefore, confident people have a tendency to be very much enjoyed by others and have more informal relations (Reis & Sprecher, 2009).

Additionally, in vocational psychology, the attitude and traits have been used to understand a person’s life and predicting individual’s job position and future adjustment in turn leads to favourable career outcomes (Mccrae & Costa, 2008). Savickas (2009) advocated the sentiment

that individuals with a broad view on the future exhibit more optimism or positive outlook, increased motivation for life planning and greater awareness about career. In 2011, Duffy et al. established that optimism or higher the positive outlook in life, the more an individual plans the course of his career. Further, Super and Hall (1978) added that planning for career enables an individual to cultivate career goals and to concentrate on their search events to search for an occupation and organization in line with the defined aims.

Further, Pickerell (2013) analysed a sample of 35 Canadian career development practitioners wherein their engagement with the career was analyzed. The findings revealed that optimism acts as a single best predictor of career success. Moreover, the study revealed optimism level has a mediating role between relations at workplace and in career engagement of employee. In 2013, Duffy et al.highlighted that optimism significantly mediats the relationship between motivation and career decision-making. Yu et al. (2015) reflected that dispositional optimism has a mediating relationship with career commitment and job satisfaction. Mcllveen and Perera (2016) reflected that optimism mediates the effect of personality and teacher's career engagement. Additonally, Karademas (2006) established that optimism acts as a mediator in the relationship between interpersonal relationship, self-efficacy and well-being of individuals. Zhang et al. (2014) tested the mediating effect of dispositional optimism and sufficed that optimism mediates the relationship between career behaviors such as career satisfaction and individual well-being. Yamada (2011) tried to explore the mediating role of social networks synonymous to interpersonal relations between optimism and cognition in breast cancer survivors and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma survivors. The study revealed that social support does not mediate (Reid-Arndt et al., 2010). Therefore, on the basis of the above literature it can be identified that optimism has been studied in relation to interpersonal relationship in various settings i.e. co-worker, marriage, students etc. and relatively less with career. Also, there is a dearth of literature available in the South-Asian context especially in the Indian setting. Hence we, hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 6: Optimism mediates the relationship between IR and CE.

Hypothesis 7: IR mediates the relationship between optimism and CE.

2.6.4. Gender as a Moderator

Researchers have rigorously investigated the individual aspirations from different perspectives of gender-related variations. A common observation which emerged from the previous studies analysing the role of gender in managerial contexts is that men are more task- oriented or goal-oriented (agentic in nature) and women are more relationship-communal oriented (Babin &

Boles, 1998). According to Becker (1964), theory of human capital has suggested that gender differences in the occupational or vocational aspirations originate from the family itself. Also, the human capital theory recommended that a more educated individual is expected to obtain greater outcomes (Ballout, 2007).

Also, the theory of 'early socialisation' features these dissimilarities to value alignments, which is assumed through the process of early socialisation. This theory contends that regardless of the social changes, a primary social category i.e. gender shapes the individual's perceptions, values, career-related attitudes and behaviors (Danziger & Eden, 2007; Ferree & Hall, 1996). Moreover, gender is also frequently being identified as a key moderator in organization behavior studies (Moutinho & Goode, 1995). BarNir et al. (2011) highlighted that gender being a qualitative variable affects the relationship between self-efficacy, optimism and career intentions. Further, females proactively planned for a specific career choice. Also, Hetty Van Emmerik et al. (2006) found some moderating effects of gender on the relationship between networking and intrinsic career success (e.g. size of the advice network, emotional intensity, and stability of the relationship). Another study conducted by Duffy et al. (2015) suggested that gender moderated the relationship between career adaptivity, self-efficacy and career development. Further, there exists an ongoing interaction with the gender and the career exploration reflecting that career development is a continuous cycle of growth, exploration, management, engagement, and disengagement (Savickas, 2012). Hall and Richter (1990) have supported that understanding gender dissimilarities in careers is significant, as various individuals owing to the generational shift tend to prioritize their personal lives. Generally, studies have supported that males tend to exhibit a positive attitude when it comes to career related behaviors (Eagly et al., 2000). Also, studies have established that male gender role has been seen as beneficial to professional career as it is easier for them to pursue their career owing to societal expectations (Sieverding & Evers, 2013).

2.6.5. Age as a Moderator

Past studies of optimism have focussed upon adolescence, childhood and older adults which reflected inconsistent outcomes (Chen at al., 2016; Luo et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2017). A study conducted by Lenning (2000) established that optimism increases with age i.e. between 55 to 99 yrs. Yet another study (Isaacowitz, 2005) suggested that optimism does not get affected if the covariates are being controlled. Bertolino et al. (2010) highlighted that age act as a significant moderator for career span and optimism in Canadian employees. Gunkel et al. (2011) investigated

the moderating role of age in business students and established that older students are more likely to plan their career in advance and are more optimism about it. Further, Mäkikangas and Kinnunen (2004) highlighted that age did not act as a significant moderator for self-esteem and well-being of individuals. Further, Ishak et al. (2011) analysed the moderating role of age and highlighted that age moderated the relationship between personality traits and career behaviors. Also, researchers (Palgi et al., 2011) indicated that age is unrelated to optimism in case of China. You et al. (2009) revealed that older Americans are more optimistic as compared to older Chinese; thus, indicating the moderating role of age on optimism.

In 1993, Allen and Meyer highlighted the moderating role of age between organizational commitment and career stage. Further, Teuscher (2009) reflected employees perceive that age affects the reward potentials as well as career and therefore are less able to develop a self-concept of subjective age. The age reflects the idea of change, development and positions or career as related to the occupation (Hall & Schneider, 1972).

2.6.6. Educational Level as a Moderator

Researchers (Boehm et al., 2015) have recognised the importance of educational level and established that it is significantly associated with the positive thinking or optimism level of an individual. Also, optimism was robustly associated with the educational degree that an individual has more optimism and positive affect in life. Sav (2011) highlighted that various factors have an interaction effect such as age, family, personal characteristics, gender and abilities, legal factors, economic factors, social factors and the impact of educational institutions that is reflected in terms of career behaviors. Kim et al. (2017) established that education acts as a moderator and affects the relationship between career self-efficacy, career engagement and career decision making. In 2014, Tolentino et al. established that educational has a mediating role between career optimism and career proactiveness highlighting that individuals with higher education reported higher career adaptability and optimism. Another study conducted by Peters et al. (2017) established that education significantly moderates the relationship between happiness and depression in a sample of 206 chronic musculoskeletal pain and compared it with an internet-based cognitive-behavioral program. The results asserted that patients with higher education level benefitted more from the positive psychology intermediation than from the cognitive-behavioral program (Sirois et al., 2015). Though, the academicians have been trying to explore the importance of education level, still there are only few studies available and therefore, the current study tries to explore the moderating role of education level.

After reviewing the literature on the moderating role of the demographic variables the following hypotheses have been drawn:

Hypothesis 8 a: Gender moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.

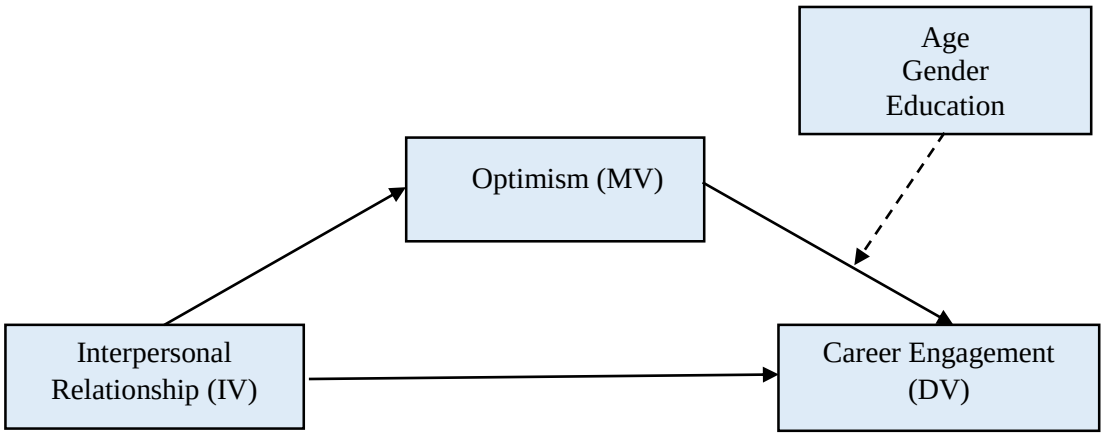
Hypothesis 8 b: Age moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.

Hypothesis 8 c: Educational level moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.

2.7. Proposed Model

As evident in the survey of extant literature as well based on the above discussed hypothesized inter-relationships among the different variables, the overall research model of the given study has been depicted in Figure 2.3 below. In the diagram optimism acts as the mediating variable while age, gender and education acts as the moderator**.**

Figure 2.3: Proposed Research Model



Note: IV (Independent Variable) = Interpersonal Relationship, DV (Dependent Variable)=Career Engagement, MV (Mediating variable)=Optimism, Moderating variable= age, gender and education.

2.8. Summary of the Chapter

The chapter covered the inclusive literature review on the variables which have been focussed in the current study namely interpersonal relationship, optimism and career engagement. All relevant and accessible literature on concerned variables has been reviewed. Further, past studies focussing upon the variables and their antecedents and consequences have been presented. However, there was a dearth of research on the dimensions of the variables along with the relationships, especially in the Indian context, which encouraged us to undertake research on

them. Also, the present study also strives for examining the variations, if any, occurred in the continuous variables due to demographic variables (gender, education and age). Considering all the facts that have been put forward, the present study is a novel effort to fill the empirical and theoretical gaps of the field.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The earlier section of the study deliberated the premises of career engagement (CE) which is satisfying the multiple career behaviors and achieving the expected outcomes as a consequence of interpersonal relationship (IR) and optimism. The review of literature has facilitated us in recognizing the dimensions of the study variables. The CE (career planning, networking and career satisfaction) has been studied as an outcome of IR (interpersonal relationship= inclusion, control and affection) and optimism (personal optimism and self-efficacy optimism). All the discussed researches have unveiled a need to examine the theoretical assumptions in the Indian context. The current chapter summarises the research design adopted for the current study, the participants, data collection measures and procedures, techniques and methodology of data analysis used to conduct the present study.

3.2. Objectives of the Study

The study aimed to analyze the level of CE along with IR (interpersonal relationships) and optimism of employees in select Indian organizations. Also, the study aims to analyze the predicting nature of IR and optimism in CE. Furthermore, the study reviews the difference in IR, optimism and CE for the demographic traits like age and gender. The objectives of the study are:-

1. To analyze the level of IR prevailing in Indian organizations with respect to the demographic variables i.e. gender, age and educational level.
2. To analyze the level of optimism prevailing in Indian organizations with respect to the demographic variables i.e. gender, age and educational level.
3. To analyze the level of CE prevailing in Indian organizations with respect to the demographic variables i.e. gender, age and educational level.
4. To understand the relationship between IR and CE dimensions in Indian organizations.
5. To understand the relationship between optimism and CE dimensions in Indian organizations.
6. To understand the mediating role of optimism on the relationship of IR and CE in Indian organizations.
7. To understand the mediating role of IR on the relationship of optimism and CE in Indian organizations.

8. To understand the moderating role of demographic variables (gender, age and educational level) on the relationship of optimism and CE in Indian organizations.

3.2.1 Exploring Objective 1

Table 3.1 ***Objective 1***

Aim	Hypothesis	Test Applied
To analyze the role of gender on IR.	Hypothesis 1a: Male and Female employees perceive IR differently	T test- Independent sample
To analyze the role of age on IR.	Hypothesis 1b: Young, middle- age and old age employees perceive IR differently.	One way ANOVA (analysis of variance)
To analyze the role of educational level on IR.	Hypothesis 1c: Employees with different Educational level perceive IR differently.	One way ANOVA (analysis of variance)

3.2.2 Exploring Objective 2

Table 3.2 ***Objective 2***

Aim	Hypothesis	Test Applied
To analyze the role of gender on optimism.	Hypothesis 2a: Male and Female employees perceive optimism differently	T test- Independent sample
To analyze the role of age on optimism.	Hypothesis 2b: Young, middle- age and old age employees perceive optimism differently.	One way ANOVA (analysis of variance)
To analyze the role of educational level on optimism.	Hypothesis 2c: Employees with different Educational level perceive optimism differently.	One way ANOVA (analysis of variance)

3.2.3 Exploring Objective 3

Table 3.3 ***Objective 3***

Aim	Hypothesis	Test Applied
To analyze the role of gender on CE.	Hypothesis 3a: Male and Female employees perceive CE differently	T test- Independent sample
To analyze the role of age on CE.	Hypothesis 3b: Young, middle- age and old age employees perceive CE differently.	One way ANOVA (analysis of variance)
To analyze the role of educational level on CE.	Hypothesis 3c: Employees with different Educational level perceive CE differently.	One way ANOVA (analysis of variance)

3.2.4 Exploring Objective 4

Table 3.4 *Objective 4*

Aim	Hypothesis	Test Applied
To understand the role of expressed and need for inclusion on CE.	Hypothesis 4a: Expressed need for inclusion is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). Hypothesis 4 b: Wanted need for inclusion is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Multiple Hierarchical regression technique
To understand the role of expressed and wanted need for control on CE.	Hypothesis 4 c: Expressed need for control is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). Hypothesis 4 d: Wanted need for control is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	
To understand the role of expressed and wanted need for affection on CE.	Hypothesis 4 e: Expressed need for affection is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). Hypothesis 4 f: Wanted need for affection is positively related to CE (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	

3.2.5 Exploring Objective 5

Table 3.5 *Objective 5*

Aim	Hypothesis	Test Applied
To understand the role of personal optimism on CE.	Hypothesis 5a: Personal optimism is related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Multiple Hierarchical regression technique
To understand the role of self-efficacy optimism on CE.	Hypothesis 5b: Self-efficacy optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	

3.2.6 Exploring Objective 6

Table 3.6 *Objective 6*

Aim	Hypothesis	Test Applied
To understand the mediating role of optimism on the relationship of IR and CE.	Hypothesis 6: Optimism mediates the relationship between IR and CE.	Mediation Analysis (Baron and Kenny approach)

In the current study Figure 3.1 depicts the direct and mediation model (based on Baron and Kenny approach (1986)) of the proposed hypothesis.

3.2.6 Exploring Objective 7

Table 3.7 *Objective 7*

Aim	Hypothesis	Test Applied
To understand the mediating role of IR on the relationship of optimism and CE.	Hypothesis 7: IR mediates the relationship between optimism and CE.	Mediation Analysis (Baron and Kenny approach)

In the current study Figure 3.2 depicts the direct and mediated model (based on Baron and Kenny approach (1986)) of the proposed hypothesis.

Figure 3.1 Direct and Mediated path diagram of Interpersonal Relationship and Career Engagement via Optimism.

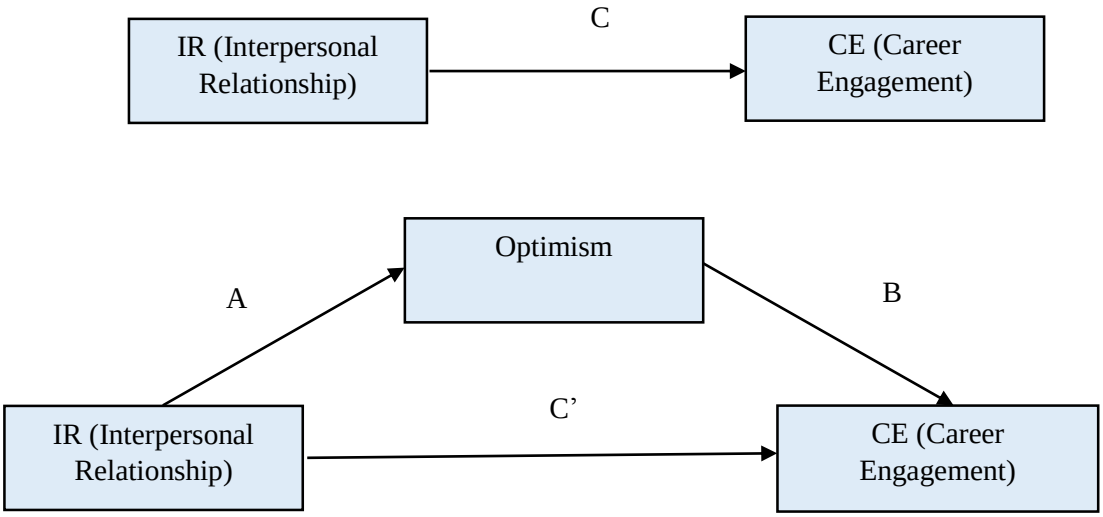
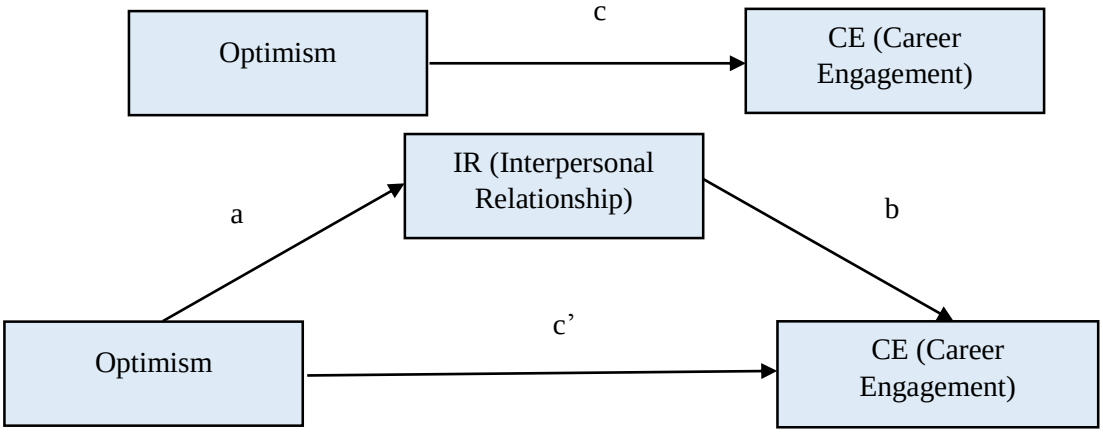


Figure 3.2 Direct and Mediated path diagram of Optimism and Career Engagement via Interpersonal Relationship



3.2.8 Exploring Objective 8

Table 3.8 *Objective 8*

Aim	Hypothesis	Test Applied
To understand the moderating role of gender on the relationship of optimism and CE.	Hypothesis 8a: Gender moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.	Hierarchical regression technique
To understand the moderating role of age on the relationship of optimism and CE.	Hypothesis 8b: Age moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.	
To understand the moderating role of educational level on the relationship of optimism and CE.	Hypothesis 8c: Educational level moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.	

3.3. Population and Sample Design of the Study

The population for the current study was employees (junior, middle and senior level) of Indian organizations (public and private both) of size more than 500 Crores (Indian currency annual turnover). The data was collected via means of self-reported questionnaire via means of simple random sampling. Simple random sampling is popularly known as fair sampling technique and helps in reducing the bias involved in a sample as compared to other sampling methods involved. The respondents from six organizations (three private and three public) that met the mentioned criterion were included in the present study. Also, the study used a cross-sectional and a mixed research design (descriptive and exploratory). Further, the study involved females and male gender employees working in the public and private organizations of western, northern and central region of India. Out of the total 485 questionnaires that were administered personally; 400 were returned. Finally, a sample set of 381 was found suitable for further analysis after undergoing the preliminary screening. The total acceptance rate was 78.55 percent. The sample size was in lieu with the guidelines proposed by Hair et al. (2013) indicates that a minimum sample size should be at least five times the number of observations to be analyzed and more appropriate is ten times the number of observations. Furthermore, Table 3.10 exhibits the demographic profile of the respondents.

Table 3.10: ***Demographic details***

Demographics (N=381)	Numbers	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	258	67.72
Female	123	32.28
Age (in years)		
Less than 30 (young)	136	35.70
31-40 (middle –age)	140	36.75
More that 40 (old)	105	27.55
Education Level		
Diploma holders	127	33.33
Graduate	149	39.12
Post Graduate & above	105	27.55
Hierarchical Level		
Junior Level	149	39.10
Middle Level	128	33.60
Senior Level	104	27.30
Work Experience		
Less than 10 yrs	176	46.19
10-20 yrs	152	39.89
Above 20 years	53	13.92
Organization sector		
Public	257	67.46
Private	124	32.54

Source: Author's own

The mean work experience of the respondents was 11 years. Further, the sample was dominated by males (67.22 percent) and females represented only 32.28 percent. Also, the employees were divided into three age groups namely young employees (35.70 percent), middle-age employees (36.75 percent) and old age employees (27.55 percent). Majority of the respondents held junior level in the organization (39.10 percent), followed by middle level (33.60 percent) and then the senior level of hierarchy (27.30 percent). Majority of our participants were from public sector organizations (67.45 percent) and rest from private sector organizations (32.55 percent). The employees of the organization were divided into different work-experience ranging from less than 10 years, 10-20 years and above 20 years. Further, the contribution differed as under: 46.19 percent (less than 10 years), 39.89 percent (10-20 years), 13.92 percent (above 20 years).

The designations of the participants include "Assistant Managers," "Senior Executives," "Project Managers," "System Analyst," "Production Managers, "Business Analyst," " Deputy General Managers, "General Managers," "HR managers," "Senior Engineers," "Assistant Engineers,"

"Test Engineers," "Assistant Manager–HR," "Key Account Manager," "Customer Service Representative," "Manager Sales," "Marketing Managers," and "Area Sales Manager".

3.4. Instrument for the Data Collection

The current study used a self-administered questionnaire to collect the data from the respondents. The questionnaire had demographic details along with 72 items representing the three scales of IR, optimism and CE.

3.4.1 Demographic Details

The demographic details section consist of gender, age, educational level, hierarchical level, work experience and type of organization. The responses were taken on categorical scales. The gender was measured on a 2-point scale with Male denoted by 1 and female by 2. Measurement of age was done by 3 point scale where 1 represented young age employees (Less than 30 years), 2 represented middle-age (31-40 yrs) and old age employees (more than 40). Educational level was measured with a 3 point scale where 1 denoted diploma, 2 graduate and 3 by PG & above. Also, work experience was measured with a 3 point scale wherein 1 indicated less than 10 years, 2 represented 10- 20 years and 3 denoted Above 30 years of experience. Also, the type of organization sector was measured using a 2-point scale with public sector organizations represented by 1 and private organizations represented by 2. Hierarchical level was measured on a 3-point scale with junior level represented by 1, middle-level represented by 2 and senior level represented by 3.

3.4.2 Interpersonal Relationship

The interpersonal relationship was assessed by using FIRO-B scale of 54 items adapted from the scale developed by Schutz (1958) which is readily available for use on NCSU **(**www4.ncsu.edu). The sample items are: "I try to be with people", "I let other people decide what to do at workplace" and "I tend to join social organizations when I have an opportunity at workplace" The scale covers three dimensions: Inclusion (expressed and wanted) - 18 items, control (expressed and wanted) - 18 items and affection (expressed and wanted) - 18 items. Participants responded to items on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Usually) to 7 (Never).

3.4.3 Optimism

An adapted version of 9 item scale where the subscales of personal optimism contains 4 items and self-efficacy optimism consists of 5 items was adapted from the shorter version of personal

optimism and self- efficacy optimism scale (Gavrilov- Jerkovic et al., 2014) based on the Personal Optimism and Social Optimism-Extended scale (Schweizer & Koch, 2001) to assess the concerned variable. The responses on the scale items were tapped using the seven-point Likert Scale that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The sample item of the questionnaire is "I do not worry about my future at workplace", "I can think of something positive in the future at workplace".

3.4.4. Career Engagement

Career engagement was measured by adopting a 9 items scale which was developed by Hirschi et al. in 2014. This construct defines the degree to which an individual is proactively developing the career as articulated by diverse career behaviors. To accomplish the objectives of the current study, the sample items included "I undertook things to achieve my career goals". The items were grouped into three factors (3 items each), i.e. career planning, networking and career satisfaction. Further, the participant's responses were documented on a 7-point Likert scale where 7 depicted "strongly agree" and 1 depicted "strongly disagree".

3.5. Procedure and Scoring

The questionnaires (filled-in 400) were analyzed for missing data as the study was dealing with multivariate data. Those questionnaires with missing data were removed from the study. After the process, the sample size was reduced to 381. Further, the data was checked for normality (whether the data is normally distributed) by calculating the skewness and Kurtosis coefficients which lie within the acceptable range of ±1 standard deviation. The procedure shown that the data variables in study were skewed (negatively and positively), but the outliers were within acceptable range, hence, not found to be of significant threat to the normality of the data. Additionally, Cronbach alpha (α= reliability coefficient) and composite reliability (CR) were determined to measure the internal consistency of the instruments. The study used AVE (Average variance extracted); MSV (Maximum shared variance); and ASV (Average shared value) for analysing the validity (Hair et al., 2010). In order to check for non-multi-collinearity (where the correlations among the independent variables are strong), VIF (Variance Inflation Factor: quantifies the severity of multi-collinearity) values were calculated (the values should remain below 10).

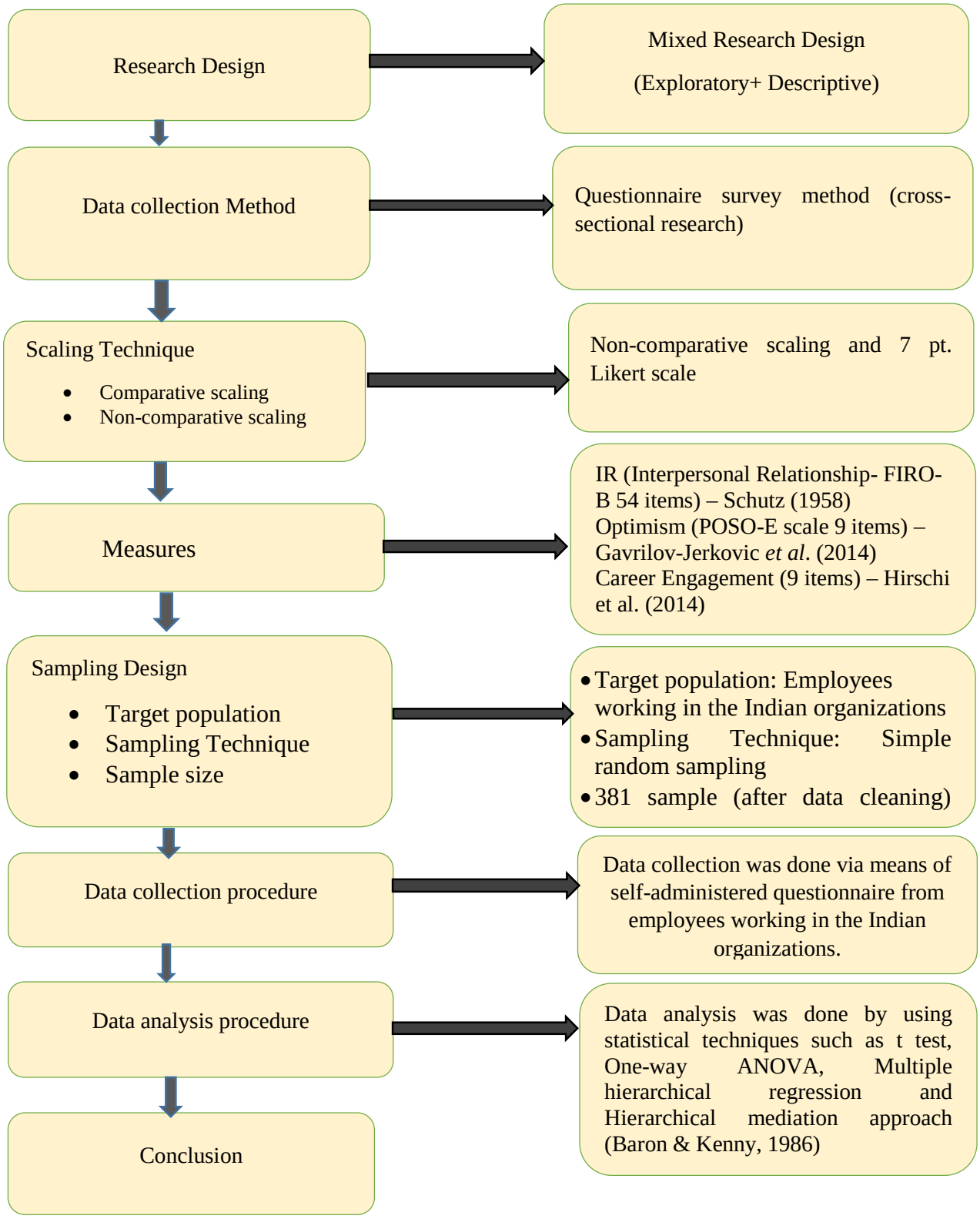
3.6. Data Analysis Approach

After establishing the suitability of the data set, the descriptive statistics like mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients were determined. Further, factor analysis i.e. EFA (exploratory factor analysis) and CFA (confirmatory factor analysis) was performed to attain the factor structure and fitness of the obtained pattern on the relevant sample respectively. Next to this, the hypotheses of the study were tested. For hypothesis 1 to 3, T-test and one way ANOVA were used. Subsequently, multiple hierarchical regression technique was used to test hypothesis 4 and 5. And finally, mediation analysis (Baron and Kenny, 1986) approach and hierarchical regression was used to test the hypotheses 6, 7, 8 and 9 of the study. The detailed explanations of the results are given in chapter 4. The current study used SPSS and AMOS version 24 for data analysis.

3.7. Chapter Summary

The current chapter presented the overview of the research methodology of the study as depicted in Figure 3.3. The study's nature is explanatory (seeks to find the reasons as scanty research is available on the subject), descriptive (focusing on the "what" of the research subject) and hypotheses testing (assumptions to be tested). Initially, literature review and research objectives drawn became the basis of drawing the proposed hypotheses. Henceforth, properties of the sample, instruments used for data collection, methods used for data collection were also discussed. In the end, chapter covered various research methodologies and techniques used in the study for the process of data analysis.

Figure 3.3: An overview of the research methodology used in this study



Chapter 4
ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

The chapter aims to analyze the relation of career engagement with employee optimism and interpersonal relationship. Also, the results have been presented in the following section. The study uses various statistical tools namely correlation, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and hierarchical regression technique to measure the variables as well as the relationship among the variables under study. The study began with the preliminary testing of data i.e. the normality, multi-collinearity, reliability and validity of the scales were also tested. Further, the hypotheses testing was performed to achieve the objectives.

4.2. Screening, Normality, Multicollinearity and Common-Method Bias Assessment

The normality tests were performed in order to check the multiple responses, the case of missing values and the distribution of data. Out of the total 485 questionnaires that were administered personally; 400 questionnaires were returned. Finally, a sample set of 381 was found suitable for further analysis after undergoing the preliminary screening and subsequent analysis. The total acceptance rate was 78.55 percent. Further, the study tested the data for normality as based on the assumption that the data follows a normal distribution or a Gaussian distribution (after Johann Karl Gauss, 1777–1855); that is, it is assumed that the populations from which the samples are taken are normally distributed (Driscoll et al., 2000; Ghasemi & Zahedias, 2012). Also, if the assumption of normality is violated, inference and interpretation may not be valid and reliable and it would result in drawing inaccurate and inconsistent conclusions about the reality (Field, 2009, Oztuna et al., 2006). The coefficients of normality (Skewness and Kurtosis) were divided by their standard errors (SE) and the result lied between -1.96 to +1.96, thereby signifying the normality of data (Field et al., 2012). Further, the study applied Shapiro-Wilk test (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965) which was earlier presumed to be for smaller sample (n less than 50), but later on considered as the most powerful test to confirm normality of the data for any n between $3 \leq n \leq 5000$ (Royston, 1992; Mendes & Pala, 2003; Razali & Wah, 2011). The tests revealed that the significance *p*-values for all the variables under study were above (.05) significance level indicating the data set to be normal. The statistics, standard errors (SE) related to skewness and kurtosis and Shapiro-Wilk's level of significance for normality has been displayed in Table 4.1 below. After checking the normality of the data, the next step was to examine whether there is similarity between the IVs (independent variable: interpersonal relationship (IR) and optimism), it is required to conduct test of multicollinearity. The similarities between the IVs will result in a very strong correlation.

Additionally, multicollinearity test was done to avoid the partial effect of independent variables on the dependent variables. Consequently, variance inflation factor (VIF) values were calculated to test the multicollinearity of the data. The results presented in Table 4.2 indicate that the obtained VIF values are lower than 5 (IR = 3.531; optimism = 2.133 career engagement = 2.513), and no tolerance values are below 0.10. So, meeting the criterion given by (Kutner et al., 2004), these results indicate that multicollinearity is not a problem in the data as presented in Table 4.2.

The study collected data via self-administered questionnaires, therefore it is important to check for common-method bias in the current study (Chang et al., 2010). The study used Harman single factor test to check the common-method variance as indicated by Podsakoff et al. (2003). The test allowed the items to load on a single factor and the extracted factor was fixed to one in the Principal Component Analysis. The result indicated 32 percent variance which is lesser than the minimum threshold i.e. 50 percent; thereby reflecting that there was an absence of common-method variance.

Table 4.1: ***Skewness, Kurtosis and Shapiro-Wilk test***

Variable	**Skewness**		**Kurtosis**		**S-W test**
N=381	statistics	SE	statistics	SE	*p value*
Interpersonal relationship (IR)	-.132	.129	-.382	.237	.098
Optimism	.238	.129	-.413	.237	.172
Career engagement (CE)	.287	.129	-.149	.237	.261

Table 4.2: ***Results of Variation Inflation Factor (Non- multicollinearity)***

Variable	**Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)**	**Tolerance**
Interpersonal Relationship	3.011	0.332
Optimism	2.331	0.429
Career engagement	2.876	0.347

4.3. Evaluating the Psychometric Properties

4.3.1. Validating FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relationship Orientation-Behavior) Scale in Indian Sub-Continent Setting

The current study used SPSS Version 24 to check the factor structure of the questionnaire in Indian setting by executing EFA (Exploratory Factor Analysis) with Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The purpose of using PCA is based on the foundation that it reduces the attributes from a large number of variables to a smaller number of factors and does not assume the dependent variable. In other words, it is a data compression technique that helps in the

dimension reduction as indicated in Table 4.3. Further, confirmatory factor analysis along with maximum likelihood estimation was used to establish the factorial validity of the 54 item scale of interpersonal relationship i.e. FIRO-B scale given by Schutz in 1958 (Anderson et al., 2010). Four models were tested (six-factor, one-factor, two-factor and three-factor) to establish the factorial validity of the construct as presented in Table 4.4. The attained solution was in sync with the proposed six factor model. The solution highlighted the six factor model for variables namely (1) Expressed inclusion, (2) wanted inclusion (3) expressed control, (4) wanted control, (5)) expressed affection and (6) wanted affection. The obtained factors were Needs of inclusion (15 items), needs of control (13 items) and needs of affection. (13 items) wherein 13 items were dropped due to redundancy and lower loadings. Further, the loadings on each of the sub-components were above 0.717 (Hair et al., 2010). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) to measure the reliability of the instrument for the factors of the interpersonal relationship were EI=0.839, WI=0.813, EC=.912, WC=0.835, EA=0.929, and WA=0.915.The factor structure is provided in Table 4.3. The factor loadings of the FIRO-B scale ranged from .763 to .923.

The Table 4.3 indicated AVE=.682>ASV=.194, AVE=.682>MSV=.308 for expressed need of inclusion; AVE=.689>ASV=.321; AVE=.689>MSV=.231 for wanted need for inclusion; AVE=0.697>MSV=0.353; AVE=.697>ASV=0.217 for expressed need of control; AVE= .534>MSV=.191 for wanted need for control; AVE=0.514>MSV=0.396; AVE=0.514> ASV=0.341 for expressed need of affection and AVE= .685> MSV=.319; AVE=.685>ASV=.218 for wanted need for affection. Table 4.3 reflected that the average variance extracted was lesser than composite reliability scores for the factors and the convergent validity of the instrument was established. All the important values regarding the reliability of the six-factor model are displayed in the Table 4.3. Hence, the discriminant validity is established i.e. when the values of MSV and ASV are lower than the values of AVE (Hair et al., 2010; Anderson et al., 2010).

As a result of CFA, the six-factor model (expressed and wanted need of inclusion, expressed and wanted need of control and expressed and wanted need of affection) demonstrates a superior fit to the observed covariance matrix, χ^2/df=1.176; NFI=.983; TLI=.996; CFI=.998; RMSEA=.021 with standardised factor loadings (.718 to .929, p<0.01), as compared to the three-factor, two-factor and one-factor alternative models (as indicated in Table 4.4). Hence, the six-factor model reported an overall good fit and is retained in the study.

Table 4.3: ***Factor structure of Interpersonal Relationship Scale (FIRO-B)***

Construct	Items of the questionnaire	Factor Loadings	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Expressed Need of Inclusion						
	I try to be with people at workplace.	.763	0.937	0.682	0.308	0.194
	I join social groups at workplace.	.859				
	I tend to join social organizations when I have an opportunity at workplace.	.849				
	I try to be included in informal social activities at workplace.	.866				
	I try to include other people in my plans at workplace.	.797				
	I try to have people around me at workplace.	.815				
	When people are doing things together, I tend to join them at workplace.	.827				
	I try to avoid being alone at workplace.	.808				
	I try to participate in group activities at workplace.	.848				
Wanted Need of Inclusion						
	I like people to invite me to things at workplace.	.818	0.931	0.689	0.321	0.231
	I like people to include me in their activities at workplace.	.839				
	I like people to ask me to participate in their discussions at workplace.	.845				
	I like people to invite me to participate in their activities at workplace.	.847				
	I like people to invite me to things at workplace.	.892				
	I like people to invite me to join in their activities at workplace.	.818				
	I like people to invite me to participate in their activities at workplace.	.912				
Expressed Need of control						
	I try to influence strongly the actions of other people at workplace.	.915	0.941	0.697	0.343	0.217
	I try to take charge of things when I am with people at workplace.	.892				
	I try to have other people do things the way I want them done at workplace.	.868				
	I try to be the dominant person when I am with people at workplace.	.872				
	I try to have other people do things I want done at workplace.	.897				

Construct	Items of the questionnaire	Factor Loadings	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
	I try to influence strongly other people's action at workplace.	.826				
	I try to take charge of things when I am with people at workplace.	.856				
	I take charge of things when I am with people at workplace.	.912				
Wanted Need of control	I let other people decide what to do at workplace.	.741	0.891	0.534	0.381	0.191
	I let other people control my actions at workplace.	.809				
	I let other people take charge of things at workplace.	.818				
	I let other people strongly influence my actions at workplace.	.821				
	I am easily led by people at workplace.	.827				
Expressed Need of Affection	I try to have close relationships with people at workplace.	.719	0.876	0.514	0.396	0.341
	I try to have close personal relationships with people at workplace.	.812				
	I try to get close and personal with people at workplace.	.739				
	I try to be friendly to people at workplace.	.779				
	My personal relationships with people are cold and distant at workplace.	.792				
	I try to have close relationships with people at workplace.	.721				
	I act cool and distant with people.	.718				
Wanted Need of Affection	I like people to act close and personal with me at workplace.	.737	0.914	0.685	0.319	0.218
	I like people to act cool and distant towards me at workplace.	.819				
	I like people to act friendly towards me at workplace.	.923				
	I like people to act close towards me at workplace.	.886				
	I like people to act close and personal with me at workplace.	.827				
	I like people to act distant towards me at workplace.	.814				

Note: CR - Construct or Composite Reliability; AVE - Average Variance Extracted; MSV - Maximum Shared Variance; ASV - Average Shared Variance
Significance at*p<0.05, **p<0.01 and ***p<0.001.

Table 4.4: ***Results of confirmatory factor analysis for Interpersonal Relationship***

Model	χ^2/df (<3)	GFI (≥ 0.80)	NFI (≥ 0.90)	TLI(≥ 0.90)	CFI(≥ 0.90)	RMSEA (≤ 0.08)
Six Factor Model (X1)	1.176	0.879	.983	.996	.998	.021
One Factor Model (X2)	7.623	0.576	.901	.846	.913	.137
Two Factor Model (X3)	5.833	0.612	.915	.879	.927	.128
Three Factor Model (X4)	12.628	0.835	.787	.756	.798	.178

Note:- N=381, X1=expressed inclusion, wanted inclusion, expressed control, wanted control, expressed affection and wanted affection; X2= Expressed inclusion; X3= expressed inclusion and wanted inclusion; X4= expressed inclusion, wanted inclusion and expressed affection; NFI- Normed fit index; TLI- Tucker Lewis index; CFI- Comparative fit index and RMSEA- Root mean square error of approximation.

4.3.2. Validating Optimism scale in Indian Sub-Continent Setting

The factor structure of the questionnaire was tested by performing the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with PCA using IBM SPSS version 24. Further, all the items of the shorter version of personal optimism were adapted and each construct was retained at an Eigenvalue of more than 1.0. (Hair et al., 2003). Further, the loadings on each of the sub-components were above 0.717. The study used Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) to measure the reliability of the instrument. The values of coefficient of reliability for the factors of optimism were: 0.814 for personal optimism (4 items), and 0.898 for self- efficacy optimism (5 items). The factor analysis results have been displayed in Table 4.5. Also, the original scale had four items in one of the factors and five in the second factor. Furthermore, the results represented in Table 4.6 indicated backing the adaption of the original scale with no additional modifications. Moreover, it is clearly visible from the Table 4.5 that all the nine items are crucial for increasing the reliability of the measure; hence, no item was deleted for improvising the instrument's reliability. The results supported that the values were above the nominal range of Cronbach's alpha i.e. .60 (Nunnally, 1994; Fornell & Larcker, 1981), stating a contrast to the other studies wherein accepting a value more closer to 0.1 established the reliability of instrument (Foley et al., 2004; Ojha, 2016). The Cronbach's alpha for the shorter version of personal optimism and self- efficacy optimism scale (total 9 items) was found to be 0.814 and 0.898, which established that the measure is consistent.

Additionally, the construct validity was measured by analysing the convergent and discriminant validity of the scale. In case of convergent validity, the sub- factors reported AVE > 0.5, which is considered to be good. Table 4.5 indicated all MSV and ASV values, which should ideally remain less than AVE (i.e. Maximum Shared Value < Average Variance Extracted and Average Shared Value < Average Variance Extracted). As per Hair et al. (2012), the value of composite

reliability (CR) is more than the value of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) indicates the convergent validity.

The theoretical models, two-factor model (X1) and one- factor model (X2) were evaluated with maximum likelihood procedure by applying CFA using SPSS AMOS 24. The first model, which consisted of 2 factors based on the theory of personal optimism and self-efficacy optimism (Gavrilov- Jerkovic et al., 2014). The results indicated that X1 (two factor model) established a good fit. Carmines and Mclver (1981) stated that the value of χ^2/df lower than 3.00 has been considered acceptable and appropriate for a model fit. Referring to the Table 4.6, the results presented that X1 (two-factor model) establishes a good fit indices $\chi^2/df = 1.471$, GFI= 0.947, NFI = 0.959, TLI = 0.990, CFI = 0.968 and RMSEA = 0.039, while X2 with one-factor of optimism i.e. Personal optimism reported $\chi^2/df = 4.732$, GFI=0.717, NFI = 0.819, TLI = 0.899, CFI = 0.898 and RMSEA = 0.167. Thus, X2 reported a poor fit and overall X1 (Two factor model) has a good model fit.

Table 4.5: ***Factor structure of Employee Optimism Scale***

Construct	Items	Factor Loadings	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Personal Optimism	I am facing my future in an optimistic way at workplace.	.765	0.921	0.697	0.321	0.131
	I can think of something positive in the future at workplace.	.821				
	I do not worry about my future at workplace.	.811				
	It often seems to me that everything is bright in future at workplace.	.845				
Self-Efficacy Optimism	For each problem I will find a solution at workplace.	.827	0.935	0.743	0.332	0.123
	In difficult situations I will find a way at workplace.	.797				
	I master difficult problems at workplace.	.795				
	I can master difficulties at workplace.	.827				
	I always find a solution to a problem at workplace.	.911				

Note: N= 381; CR= Construct or Composite Reliability; AVE= Average Variance Extracted; ASV= Average Shared Variance; MSV= Maximum Shared Variance; Significance at**p*<0.05, ***p*<0.01 and ****p*<0.001.

Table 4.6: ***Results of confirmatory factor analysis for Employee Optimism scale***

S. no	Details	$\chi 2/df$	GFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
1	**Two-factor Model (X1)**	1.471	0.947	0.959	0.990	0.968	0.039
2	**One- factor model (X2)**	4.732	0.717	0.819	0.899	0.898	0.167

Note: N=381, X1= Personal optimism and self- efficacy optimism, X2= Personal optimism, RMSEA= root mean square error of approximation; CFI= comparative fit index; TLI=Tucker-Lewis Index, NFI= normed fit index, GFI= goodness of fit index, $\chi 2$ =chi- square, df= degree of freedom.

4.3.3. Validating Career Engagement scale in Indian Sub-Continent Setting

The factor structure of the questionnaire was tested by performing the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with PCA using IBM SPSS version 24. The study revealed a three-factor model as the superior fit for the construct of career engagement (Table 4.7). Also, all the items of the career engagement scale were adapted and each construct was retained at an Eigenvalue of more than 1.0. The results indicated that career engagement is composed of three sub-constructs namely career planning, networking and career satisfaction. Further, the loadings on each of the sub-components were above 0.717 (Hair et al., 2015).

The study used Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) to measure the reliability of the instrument. The values of coefficient of reliability for the factors of career engagement were: 0.913 for career planning (3 items), 0.857 for networking (3 items) and 0.891 for career satisfaction. The factor analysis results are being displayed in Table 4.7. Also, the original scale was uni-dimensional in nature but the factor analysis indicated the existence of three sub-dimensions (refer Table 4.8). The results supported that the values were above the nominal range of Cronbach's alpha i.e. .60 (Nunnally, 1994; Fornell & Larcker, 1981), stating a contrast to the other studies wherein accepting a value more closer to 0.1 established the reliability of instrument. The Cronbach's alpha for the career planning (3 items), networking (3 items) and career satisfaction scale (3 items) was found to be 0.913, 0.857 and 0.891 respectively, which established the consistency of the tool.

The construct validity was measured by analysing the convergent and discriminant validity of the scale. In case of convergent validity, the sub- factors reported AVE > 0.5, which is considered to be good. Table 4.7 indicated all MSV and ASV values, which should ideally remain less than AVE (Maximum Shared Value < Average Variance Extracted and Average Shared Value < Average Variance Extracted). As per Hair et al. (2012), the value of composite reliability (CR) is more than the value of average variance extracted (AVE) indicates the convergent validity. The factor structure of career engagement was determined by performing the CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis). The theoretical models, three- factor (X1), two factor models (X2), one- factor model (X3) were evaluated with maximum likelihood procedure by applying CFA using SPSS AMOS 24. The results indicated that X1 (three factor model) established a good fit. Referring to the Table 4.8, the results presented that X1 (three-factor model) establishes a good fit indices $\chi^2/df = 1.478$, GFI= 0.967, NFI = 0.939, TLI = 0.988, CFI = 0.989 and RMSEA = 0.048, while X2 with one-factor of career engagement i.e. career planning reported $\chi^2/df = 4.712$, GFI=0.737, NFI = 0.849, TLI = 0.889, CFI = 0.899 and RMSEA = 0.097 and X3 with two-factor of career

engagement i.e. career planning and networking $\chi^2/df = 4.312$, GFI=0.787, NFI = 0.879, TLI = 0.912, CFI = 0.845 and RMSEA = 0.167. Thus, X2 and X3 reported a poor fit and overall X1 (Three factor model) has a good model fit. The researchers like Carmines and Mclver (1981) highlighted that the value lower than 3.00 for χ^2/df (normed chi square) has been considered acceptable and appropriate for a model fit. Also, the researchers (Hu & Bentler 1999) highlighted that the threshold value for the CFI, NFI, TLI above 0.90 and the cut off value for GFI above 0.90 is considered good.

4.4. Descriptive Statistics: The Dependent and Independent Variables

The descriptive statistics like mean, standard deviation and correlation coefficients of various constructs are depicted in the Table 4.9. This section examines the correlation between the sub-dimensions of the variables under study i.e. interpersonal relationship, optimism and career engagement. The results depict that there is a positive and significant correlation between the dimensions of interpersonal relationship, optimism and career engagement. The sub-scales revealed that highest correlations was between career satisfaction and wanted control (r=.53**, p<0.01) and the lowest was between career planning and wanted affection (r=.07*, p<0.05). Further, descriptive statistics at comprehensive level for interpersonal relationship, employee optimism and happiness has also been computed indicating that all the variables had a positive correlation with career engagement as depicted in Table 4.10. Interpersonal relationship and optimism (r =0.387, $p < 0.01$), optimism and career engagement (r =0.453, $p < 0.01$) and career engagement and interpersonal relationship (r =0.375, $p < 0.01$). The reliability coefficients (α) are displayed in parentheses and appears in bold italics on the diagonal of correlation matrix.

Table 4.7: ***Factor Structure of Career Engagement Scale***

Construct	Items	Factor Loadings	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Career Planning	I actively sought to design my professional future	.713	0.919	0.695	0.327	0.135
	I undertook things to achieve the career goals	.779				
	I developed plans and goals for my future career.	.815				
Networking	I collected information about employers, professional development opportunities or the job market in my desired area	.849	0.917	0.771	0.371	0.157
	I established or maintained contacts with people who can help me professionally.	.881				
	I voluntarily participated in further education, training or other events to support my career network.	.893				
Career Satisfaction	My career choice is associated with personal values, interests, abilities and weaknesses	.791	0.935	0.743	0.312	0.129
	The development of my career is according to the goals and objective.	.783				
	I assumed the duties or positions that helped me professionally.	.827				

Note: N= 381; CR= Construct or Composite Reliability; AVE= Average Variance Extracted; ASV= Average Shared Variance; MSV= Maximum Shared Variance; Significance at*p<0.05, **p<0.01 and ***p<0.001.

Table 4.8: ***Results of confirmatory factor analysis Career Engagement scale***

S. No.	Details	$\chi 2/df$	GFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
1	Three-factor Model (X1)	1.478	0.967	0.939	0.988	0.989	0.048
2	Two-factor Model (X2)	1.712	0.787	0.879	0.899	0.841	0.097
3	One- factor model (X3)	4.312	0.787	0.879	0.912	0.845	0.167

Note: N= 381 X1= career planning, networking, career satisfaction, X2= career planning with networking, X3= career planning, $\chi 2$ =chi- square; df= degree of freedom; GFI= goodness of fit index, NFI= normed fit index, TLI=Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI= comparative fit index; RMSEA= root mean square error of approximation.

Table 4.9: ***Mean, Standard deviation, Correlation between the sub-dimensions of the variables***

Variables	Mean	SD	EI	WI	EC	WC	EA	WA	PO	SEO	CP	NW	CS
1.EI	4.15	.96	***(0.839)***										
2.WI	4.19	1.04	.46**	***(0.813)***									
3.EC	4.49	1.12	.23**	.33**	***(0.912)***								
4.WC	4.95	1.31	.35**	.14**	.32**	***(0.835)***							
5.EA	4.44	.98	.30**	.29**	.16**	.27**	***(0.929)***						
6.WA	4.54	1.16	.30**	.27**	.19**	.27**	.18**	***(0.915)***					
7.PO	4.92	1.74	.47**	.39**	.21**	.43**	.13*	.25**	***(0.814)***				
8.SEO	4.74	1.11	.42**	.28**	.48**	.15**	.35**	.11*	.34**	***(0.898)***			
9.CP	5.03	1.19	.47**	.41**	.24**	.46**	.25**	.07*	.29**	.27**	***(0.913)***		
10.NW	4.85	1.21	.48**	.42**	.28**	.48**	.15**	.35**	.18*	.34**	.29**	***(0.857)***	
11.CS	5.47	1.02	.50**	.47**	.53**	.43**	.42*	.32**	.14**	.36**	.24**	.25**	**(.891)**

Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01, N=381, SD= standard deviation, EI= Expressed Inclusion, WI= Wanted Inclusion, EC= Expressed Control, WC= Wanted Control, EA= Expressed Affection, WA= Wanted Affection, PO= Personal Optimism, SEO= Self- efficacy optimism, CP= Career Planning, NW= Networking and CS= Career Satisfaction.

Table 4.10: ***Inter-correlations between all the constructs under study***

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3
Interpersonal Relationship	4.37	1.117	(.915)		
Optimism	4.84	.98	0.378	(.898)	
Career engagement	4.65	1.03	0.375	0.453	(.937)

Note=381, SD= standard deviation, Correlations are Significant at P < 0.01.

4.5. Testing the Objectives

4.5.1. Analysing Objective 1

The first objective of the study intends to analyze the level of IR prevailing in Indian organizations with respect to the demographic variables i.e. gender, age and educational level. Based on the premise three hypotheses have been formulated i.e. 1a, 1b and 1c. The study used various methods to test the hypotheses as under.

4.5.1.1. Hypothesis 1a

Hypothesis 1a proposed that male and female employees perceive IR (Interpersonal Relationship) differently. The study used Independent sample t-test in order to test the hypothesis. The results obtained after the analysis have been depicted in Table 4.11. The test results portray the absence of any significant difference in male and female employees for expressed need for control (t (379) = 2.897, p = 0.721 (p > 0.05)); wanted need for control (t (379) = 0.437, p=0.071 (p>0.05)) and wanted affection (t (379) =0.571, p=0.412 (p>0.05)). Nevertheless, the results indicated a significant difference for expressed inclusion (t (379)= 1.975, p=0.001 (p<0.05)) with female employees having higher mean score in comparison to the male employees; wanted inclusion (t (379)=1.719, p =0.015 (p<0.05)) with male having higher mean score compared to female; expressed affection (t (379)=1.547, p= 0.037 (p<0.05)) with female employees having higher mean score in comparison to male. Therefore, hypothesis 1a of the study was partially supported.

Table 4.11: ***Results of Independent sample t test (Gender as Independent Variable, IR/Interpersonal Relationship as Dependent Variable)***

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	t value	df	p value
EI	Male	258	3.83	0.62	0.04	1.975	379	0.001
	Female	123	3.97	0.81	0.09			
WI	Male	258	3.27	0.87	0.05	1.719	379	0.015
	Female	123	3.06	0.71	0.08			
EC	Male	258	4.29	0.61	0.03	2.897	379	0.721
	Female	123	4.32	0.62	0.07			
WC	Male	258	3.86	0.59	0.04	0.437	379	0.071
	Female	123	3.43	0.66	0.07			
EA	Male	258	4.01	0.66	0.04	1.547	379	0.037
	Female	123	4.49	0.80	0.09			
WA	Male	258	4.05	0.97	0.04	0.571	379	0.412
	Female	123	3.98	0.54	0.06			

Note: *p<0.05; SD= Standard deviation; SE= Standard Error; df= Degree of freedom; EI= Expressed Inclusion, WI= Wanted Inclusion, EC= Expressed Control, WC= Wanted Control, EA= Expressed Affection, WA= Wanted Affection.

4.5.1.2. Hypothesis 1b

Hypothesis 1b asserted that Young, middle- age and older employees perceive IR differently. The study used one-way ANOVA to test hypothesis 1 (b). The results have been depicted in Table 4.12 that reflected that the interpersonal relationship dimensions vary according to the age of the employees. IR dimensions including expressed inclusion ($F(2, 375)=3.768$, $p < .05$), wanted inclusion ($F(2, 375)= 2.437$, $p<.05$), expressed control ($F(2, 375)= 4.589$, $p < .05$) and expressed affection ($F(2, 375)= 4.905$, $p < .05$) tend to vary with age. Additionally, no significant difference was observed for the other two dimensions of interpersonal relationship i.e. wanted control ($F(2, 375) = 2.100$, $p > .05$) and wanted affection ($F(2, 375) =.332$, $p > .05$). Further, ANOVA was followed by Tukey's HSD (honestly significant difference) test in post hoc analyzes to reveal the significant differences associated with age in interpersonal relationship dimensions (Tukey, 1949). The results indicated that expressed inclusion was higher in young-age employees as compared to the old age employees-young age employees having higher mean as compared to the old age employees, whereas the middle-age employees had higher mean as compared to the old age and young-age for wanted inclusion. Further, middle age employees reflected higher mean score than old age employees for expressed control and young-age employees had higher mean than the old age employees for expressed affection. Thus, the results did not offer full support to hypothesis 1 (b). Hence, hypothesis 1 (b) is partially supported.

4.5.1.3. Hypothesis 1c

Hypothesis 1c assumed that employees with different educational level perceive IR differently. The current hypothesis was tested by using one way ANOVA, which compared the mean scores of interpersonal relationship dimensions of the employees at different educational levels in the organization. Table 4.13 shows the results of ANOVA analysis. ANOVA with the help of Post–hoc test show significant difference across the different educational levels for expressed inclusion ($F(2, 375)=3.318$, $p=0.021$ ($p<0.05$)) with significant difference between the employees having diploma and the employees having a PG degree and above. It indicated that employees having a employees having a diploma course have higher mean as compared to the employees having a PG degree and above; wanted control ($F(2, 375)=3.913$, $p=0.020$ ($p<0.05$)) with significant difference between employees having graduate degree and a PG degree & above, and having a higher mean as compared to diploma holders; expressed affection ($F(2, 375)=3.428$, $p=0.031$ ($p<0.05$)) with significant difference between the employees having diploma and the employees having a PG degree and above i.e. having higher mean as compared to employees having diploma. Further, other interpersonal relationship dimensions did not report any significant

difference between the employees having different educational qualification. Therefore, hypothesis 1c of the current study stands partially accepted.

Table 4.12: ***Results of ANOVA (Age as Independent Variable and Interpersonal Relationship as Dependent Variable)***

Dimensions	Level	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	F value	Df	p value
EI	Young	136	4.01	1.05	0.08	3.768	378	0.003
	Middle-age	140	3.97	1.12	0.06			
	Old age	105	4.17	1.35	0.11			
WI	Young	136	3.98	0.98	0.09	2.437	378	0.001
	Middle-age	140	4.05	1.12	0.07			
	Old age	105	4.03	1.03	0.11			
EC	Young	136	4.03	1.05	0.08	3.768	378	0.003
	Middle-age	140	3.95	1.12	0.06			
	Old age	105	4.11	1.35	0.11			
WC	Young	136	3.89	1.01	0.07	2.100	378	0.124
	Middle-age	140	4.01	1.35	0.09			
	Old age	105	4.13	1.43	0.13			
EA	Young	136	3.95	.98	0.09	4.905	378	0.008
	Middle-age	140	4.03	1.07	0.12			
	Old age	105	3.98	1.15	0.13			
WA	Young	136	3.97	1.01	0.06	.332	378	0.717
	Middle-age	140	3.93	1.19	0.07			
	Old age	105	3.98	1.27	0.06			

Note: SD= Standard deviation; Standard Error; df= Degree of freedom; *p<0.05; EI= Expressed Inclusion, WI= Wanted Inclusion, EC= Expressed Control, WC= Wanted Control, EA= Expressed Affection, WA= Wanted Affection.

Table 4.13: ***One way ANOVA (Educational level as Independent Variable, Interpersonal Relationship as Dependent Variable)***

Dimensions	Level	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	F value	df	p value
EI	Diploma	127	3.71	0.98	0.08	3.318	378	0.021
	Graduate	149	3.85	1.12	0.07			
	PG & above	105	3.98	1.15	0.15			
WI	Diploma	127	3.44	0.95	0.07	0.007	378	0.913
	Graduate	149	3.44	1.117	0.04			
	PG & above	105	3.44	1.23	0.09			

Dimensions	Level	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	F value	df	p value
EC	Diploma	127	3.89	0.97	0.08	0.431	378	0.544
	Graduate	149	3.91	0.98	0.05			
	PG & above	105	3.97	1.02	0.07			
WC	Diploma	127	3.97	0.93	0.09	3.913	378	0.020
	Graduate	149	4.01	0.97	0.05			
	PG & above	105	4.12	1.03	0.07			
EA	Diploma	127	4.01	0.65	0.06	3.428	378	0.031
	Graduate	149	3.93	0.51	0.03			
	PG & above	105	4.15	0.55	0.07			
WA	Diploma	127	3.97	0.98	0.09	0.497	378	0.621
	Graduate	149	4.02	1.01	0.13			
	PG & above	105	3.98	1.075	0.10			

Note: SE= Standard Error; df= Degree of freedom; SD= Standard deviation; *p<0.05; EI= Expressed Inclusion, WI= Wanted Inclusion, EC= Expressed Control, WC= Wanted Control, EA= Expressed Affection, WA= Wanted Affection.

4.5.2. Analysing Objective 2

The second objective of the study intends to analyze the level of optimism prevailing in Indian organizations with respect to the demographic variables i.e. age, educational level and gender. Based on the premise three hypotheses have been formulated i.e. 2a, 2b and 2c. The study used various methods to test the hypotheses as under.

4.5.2.1. Hypothesis 2a

Hypothesis 2a assumed that male and female employees perceive optimism differently. The current study used Independent sample t-test to test the hypothesis. The results indicated that there is a significant difference in the mean scores of male and female employees for personal optimism (t (379) =-2.719, p=0.029 (p<0.05)) with male having higher mean than females. Similarly, self-efficacy optimism (t (379) = -0.618, p=0.016 (p<0.05)) reflected that males have higher mean than females. Therefore, hypothesis 2a of the current study was supported as depicted in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: ***Independent Sample t test (Gender as Independent Variable, Optimism as Dependent Variable)***

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	t value	df	p value
PO	Male	258	4.09	0.97	0.08	2.719	379	0.029
	Female	123	3.98	0.99	0.05			
SEO	Male	258	4.01	0.90	0.07	-0.618	379	0.016
	Female	123	3.97	1.02	0.05			

Note: SD= Standard deviation; Standard Error; df= Degree of freedom; *p<0.05; PO= Personal Optimism, SEO= Self-efficacy Optimism.

4.5.2.2. Hypothesis 2b

Hypothesis 2b assumed that Young, middle- age and older employees perceive optimism differently. The above hypothesis was tested by using one way ANOVA analysis that compared the mean scores of employee optimism in different age brackets. Further, the study applied post hoc analysis using Tukey HSD test was conducted as ANOVA doesn't mention the difference among the different set. Table 4.15 shows the results of the test conducted. The results depicted ANOVA and post hoc Tukey test results that reflected the presence of significant difference between the mean scores across personal optimism (F(2, 375)= 4.857, p=0.007(p<0.05)) with significant difference between young and middle-age and middle and old age employees. Also, significant difference was noted between the mean scores across self-efficacy optimism (F (2, 375) = 7.614, p=0.003 (p<0.05)). The results indicated that self-efficacy optimism was varying between young and middle-age employees and between middle-age and old age employees. Further, in both dimensions middle age employees have higher mean as compared to the young and old age employees. Therefore, hypothesis 2c of the study was supported.

Table 4.15: ***One way ANOVA (Age as Independent Variable, Optimism Dimensions as Dependent Variable)***

Dimensions	Level	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	F value	df	p value
PO	Young	136	3.97	1.15	0.08	4.857	378	0.007
	Middle-age	140	4.17	1.21	0.06			
	Old age	105	4.01	1.35	0.11			
SEO	Young	136	3.98	0.98	0.09	7.614	378	0.003
	Middle-age	140	4.05	1.12	0.07			
	Old age	105	4.03	1.03	0.11			

Note: SD= Standard deviation; Standard Error; df= Degree of freedom; *p<0.05; PO Personal Optimism, SEO= Self-efficacy Optimism.

4.5.2.3. Hypothesis 2c

Hypothesis 2c assumed that employees with different educational level perceive optimism differently. The above hypothesis was tested by using one way ANOVA analysis, which compared the mean scores of dimensions optimism in the employees at different educational levels. Table 4.16 shows the results of the ANOVA. The results revealed that significant difference exists in employees with respect to the dimensions of optimism i.e. personal optimism (F(2,375)= 7.318, p=.001 (p<.05)) and self-efficacy optimism (F(2, 375)=5.137, p=0.003 (p<0.05)). The result of posthoc analysis Tukey HSD test reflected that personal optimism was varying between the employees having diploma and the employees having a PG degree and above. It indicated that employees having a diploma course have higher mean as compared to the

employees having a PG degree and above. Also, there is a significant difference in the mean scores of employees having diploma and bachelor degree and employees having a bachelor degree and PG & above degree courses. Therefore, hypothesis 2c of the current study stands accepted.

Table 4.16: ***One way ANOVA (Educational level as Independent Variable, Optimism as Dependent Variable)***

Dimensions	Level	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	F value	df	p value
PO	Diploma	127	4.45	1.05	0.11	7.318	378	0.001
	Graduate	149	4.15	1.12	0.13			
	PG & above	105	3.98	1.15	0.15			
SEO	Diploma	127	3.79	0.95	0.07	5.137	378	0.003
	Graduate	149	4.03	1.17	0.06			
	PG & above	105	4.11	1.23	0.09			

Note: SE= Standard Error; df= Degree of freedom; SD= Standard deviation; *p<0.05; Personal Optimism, SEO= Self-efficacy Optimism.

4.5.3. Analysing Objective 3

The third objective of the current study intends to analyze the level of CE prevailing in Indian organizations with respect to the demographic variables i.e. gender, age, and educational level. Based on the premise three hypotheses have been formulated i.e. 3a, 3b and 3c. The study used various methods to test the hypotheses as under.

4.5.3.1. Hypothesis 3a

The hypothesis assumed that male and female employees perceive CE differently. The above hypothesis was tested by using t-statistics. The results indicated that there is a significant difference in the mean scores of male and female employees for career planning (t (379) = 2.822, p=0.021 (p<0.05)) with male having higher mean than females. Further, networking (t (379) = 2.415, p=0.017 (p<0.05)) with male having higher mean than females. Furthermore, a significant difference was found between males and females with respect to career satisfaction, (t (379) = 3.715, p=0.021 (p<0.05)) with females having higher mean as compared to the male employees. Therefore, hypothesis 3a of the current study was supported as depicted in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: ***Independent Sample t test (Gender as Independent Variable, CE dimensions as Dependent Variable)***

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Df	Sig.
CP	Males	258	4.15	.998	2.822	379	.013
	Females	123	3.96	1.12			
NW	Males	258	4.45	1.19	2.415	379	.005
	Females	123	4.34	1.32			
CS	Males	258	3.93	.97	3.715	379	.021
	Females	123	4.42	1.21			

Note: N = 381; SD= Standard deviation; Standard Error; df= Degree of freedom; *p<0.05; CP= Career Planning, NW= Networking; CS= Career Satisfaction; CE= Career Engagement.

4.5.3.2. Hypothesis 3b

Hypothesis 3b assumed that young, middle- age and older employees perceive CE differently. The above hypothesis was tested by using one way ANOVA analysis that compared the mean scores of employee optimism in different age brackets. Table 4.18 depicted ANOVA and post hoc Tukey test results that reflected the presence of significant difference between the mean scores across career planning (F(2, 375)= 3.157, p=0.008 (p<0.05)) with significant difference between young and old age employees. Also, significant difference was noted between the mean scores across networking (F(2, 375)= 7.614, p=0.004 (p<0.05)). Further, the results suggested that there is a significant difference between the means of young and old age employees with respect to career satisfaction (F(2, 375)= 3.459, p=0.026 (p<0.05)). Therefore, hypothesis 3b of the study stands supported.

Table 4.18: One way ANOVA (Age as Independent Variable, CE dimensions as Dependent Variable)

Dimensions	Level	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	F value	df	p value
CP	Young	136	4.19	1.15	0.08	3.157	378	0.008
	Middle-age	140	4.12	1.21	0.06			
	Old age	105	4.09	1.35	0.11			
NW	Young	136	4.21	0.98	0.09	7.614	378	0.004
	Middle-age	140	4.13	1.12	0.07			
	Old age	105	3.98	1.03	0.11			
CS	Young	136	4.01	1.13	.09	31.459	378	0.026
	Middle-age	140	4.13	1.05	.11			
	Old age	105	4.19	1.19	.13			

Note: SD= Standard deviation; Standard Error; df= Degree of freedom; *p<0.05; CP= Career Planning, NW= Networking; CS= Career Satisfaction; CE= Career Engagement.

4.5.3.3. Hypothesis 3c

Hypothesis 3c assumed that employees with different educational level perceive CE differently. ANOVA was used to compare the mean scores of dimensions of career engagement (career planning, networking and career satisfaction) in the employees at different educational levels. Table 4.19 shows the results of the ANOVA. The results revealed that significant difference exists in employees with respect to the dimensions of optimism i.e. career planning ($F(2,375)= 3.429$, $p=.040$ ($p<.05$)) and career satisfaction ($F(2, 375)=2.581$, $p=0.025$ ($p<0.05$)). The Post–hoc analysis Tukey's HSD test was performed to confirm that significant difference across the different educational levels. The result reflected that career planning was varying between the employees having diploma degree and the employees having a PG degree and above. It indicated that employees having a diploma course have smaller mean as compared to the employees having a PG degree and above. Also, there is a significant difference in the mean scores of employees having diploma and bachelor degree and employees having a bachelor degree and PG & above degree courses with respect to career satisfaction. Further, a significant difference was observed between the mean scores across education between diploma and PG degree & above courses for networking ($F (2, 375)=3.817$, $p=0.013$ ($p<0.05$)). Additionally, therefore, hypothesis 3c of the current study stands accepted.

Table 4.19: ***One way ANOVA (Educational level as Independent Variable, CE dimensions as Dependent Variable)***

Dimensions	Level	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	F value	df	p value
CP	Diploma	127	3.57	0.97	0.11	3.429	378	0.040
	Graduate	149	3.93	1.02	0.13			
	PG & above	105	3.45	1.13	0.15			
NW	Diploma	127	3.93	0.99	0.07	3.817	378	0.013
	Graduate	149	4.03	1.07	0.06			
	PG & above	105	4.17	1.13	0.09			
CS	Diploma	127	4.01	0.951	0.08	2.587	378	0.025
	Graduate	149	4.07	1.01	0.09			
	PG & above	105	4.23	1.05	0.11			

Note: SE= Standard Error; df= Degree of freedom; SD= Standard deviation; *p<0.05; CP= Career Planning, NW= Networking; CS= Career Satisfaction; CE= Career Engagement.

4.5.4. Analysing Objective 4

The fourth objective of the study aims to understand the relationship between IR and CE dimensions in Indian organizations. The following hypotheses are being tested to accomplish the fourth objective of the study:

Hypothesis 4a: Expressed need for inclusion is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

Hypothesis 4b: Wanted need for inclusion is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

Hypothesis 4c: Expressed need for control is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

Hypothesis 4d: Wanted need for control is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

Hypothesis 4e: Expressed need for affection is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

Hypothesis 4f: Wanted need for affection is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

For analysing the above mentioned hypothesis associated with the fourth objective, the current study applied hierarchical regression technique wherein IR dimensions were the independent variable and CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction) as the outcome variable. The study controlled the effects of gender, age, and educational level during the analysis stage in order to control their probable effects.

The study applied step-wise hierarchical regression wherein the control variables were entered in the first step (block 1). In the second step the six dimensions of IR were entered (block 2). The above steps were then repeated to test the effect of IR dimensions on CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). The results of the analysis are being presented in Table 4.20.

The results depicted in Table 4.20 indicates that EI was found to be a stronger predictor of CE i.e. career planning ($\beta=.107,\ p<.05$), networking ($\beta=.119,\ p<.05$) and career satisfaction ($\beta=.135,\ p<.05$). This supported hypothesis 4a. Further, EC indicated that it acts as a strong predictor of career planning ($\beta=.115,\ p<.05$) and networking ($\beta=.129,\ p<.01$) providing partial support to hypothesis 4c. Furthermore, EA acted as a strong predictor of networking ($\beta=.121,\ p<.05$) and career satisfaction ($\beta=.137,\ p<.05$) providing partial support to 4e. Thus, the above results indicated that expressed inclusion acted as a strong predictor for the dimensions of CE

(career planning, networking and career satisfaction) and therefore, provided full support to 4a. Also, expressed control and affection predicted the dimension of career engagement i.e. EC (CP & networking) and EA (networking & CS) indicating a partial support to hypothesis 4c and 4e. However, the other dimensions of IR i.e. wanted inclusion, wanted control and wanted affection were not reflected as the significant predictors of CE (career planning, networking, career satisfaction). The results suggested that the six dimensions led to 13.3 percent variance in career planning, 11.5 percent in networking and 7.3 percent in career satisfaction. Consequently, hypothesis 4b, 4d and 4f could not be supported.

Table 4.20: Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Interpersonal Relationship dimensions to predict Career Engagement dimensions

Variables	Career Planning		Networking		Career Satisfaction	
	Step 1 β	**Step 2** β	**Step 1** β	**Step 2** β	**Step 1** β	**Step 2** β
Step1:Control Variables[a]						
Age	-.039	-.048	-.024	-.029	.031	.035
Gender	.050*	.031	.020*	.047	.051	.053
Educational level	.157	.165	.096	.093	.113	.123
Step 2: Independent variables						
EI		.107**		.119**		.135**
WI		.013		.021		.024
EC		.115*		.129**		.037
WC		.014		.059		-.027
EA		.083		.121**		.137**
WA		.051		.079		.013
R^2	.030	.133*.	.023*	.115**	.021*	.073**
Adjusted R^2	.036*	131**	.022	.113*	.010	.072*
Δ R^2		103**		.092**		.052**

Note: N=381, ***p*<0.01, **p*<0.05; β=standardized coefficients, [a]control variables were retained in the subsequent steps of 2, EI= Expressed Inclusion, WI= Wanted Inclusion, EC= Expressed Control, WC= Wanted Control, EA= Expressed Affection, WA= Wanted Affection.

4.5.5. Analysing Objective 5

The fifth objective of the study aims to analyze the relationship between optimism and CE in Indian organizations. Based on the above objective the following hypotheses has been drawn:

Hypothesis 5a: Personal optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

Hypothesis 5b: Self-efficacy optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).

For analysing the above hypothesis the current study applied stepwise hierarchical technique wherein the dimensions of optimism were the independent variable and CE (career planning, networking and career satisfaction) as the outcome variable. The study controlled the effects of gender, age, and educational level during the analysis stage in order to control their probable effects. The study applied step-wise hierarchical regression wherein the control variables were entered in the first step (block 1). In the second step the six dimensions of IR were entered (block 2). The above steps were then repeated to test the effect of IR dimensions on CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). The results have been depicted in Table 4.21. Personal optimism was found to significantly predict career planning (β = .093, p < .01) and networking (β = .125, p < .05). Additionally, self-efficacy optimism significantly predicted the dimensions of career engagement i.e. career planning (β = .237, p < .05), networking (β = .215, p < .05) and career satisfaction (β = .117, p < .01). This indicates that hypothesis 5a is partially accepted and hypothesis 5b is fully supported as indicated in the results. Using the above mentioned results, this can be abridged that personal optimism only predicts the career planning and networking in the employees working in organizations whereas self-efficacy predicts all the dimensions of career engagement. The results suggested that the two dimensions led to 12.8 percent variance in career planning, 20.9 percent in networking and 18.1 percent in career satisfaction.

Table 4.21: ***Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Optimism dimensions to predict Career Engagement dimensions***

	Career Planning		**Networking**		**Career Satisfaction**	
Variables	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**
	β	β	β	β	β	β
Step1: Control Variables[a]						
Age	.031	.045	.023	.037	.033	.025
Gender	.007	.031	.020*	.047	-.039	.043
Educational level	.038	.065	.069	.053	.013	.027
Step 2: Independent variable						
PO		.093*		.125**		.051
SEO		.237**		.215**		.117*
R^2	.026*	.128**	.037	.209*	.009	.181**
Adjusted R^2	.025	.126*	.029	.205*.	.010	.182*
Δ R^2		.102**		.172**.		.172*

Note: N=381, **p<0.01, *p<0.05; β=standardized coefficients, PO= personal optimism, SEO= self-efficacy optimism, [a]control variables were retained in the subsequent steps of 2.

4.5.6 Analysing Objective 6

Objective 6 of the current study aims to understand the mediating role of optimism on the relationship of IR and CE in Indian organizations. Based on the above objective the following hypothesis has been drawn that states that optimism mediates the relationship between IR and CE (Figure 4.1). The present study utilised the mediation analysis proposed by Baron and Kenny approach (1986) to test the mediating effect. The procedure tests whether the independent variable (IV= IR) is related to the dependent variable (DV) i.e. CE. Next, whether the independent variable (IR) correlates to the mediating variable (MV) i.e. optimism and the mediating variable (optimism) is related to the dependent variable (CE). And finally, the mediation analysis is performed wherein the control variables are inserted in block 1 while IR (the predictor/ independent variable) and the mediating variable (MV) is inserted in block 2. The results further reflected that the relationship of IV and the DV would no longer remain significant as in the case of full mediation or would significantly reduce as evident in the case of partial mediation, when controlled by the mediating variable. The analysis has been completed by carrying out three different regression analyzes and the results are depicted in Table 4.22.

The control variables (gender, age and educational level) were entered in step 1 in Block 1. Further, the direct effect of IR (interpersonal relationship) on CE was tested in block 2. The results of the analysis indicated a significant and positive relationship between the two variable (β=.437, p<0.01). The similar steps were followed to test the direct effect of IR on optimism was tested and the results depicted a significant relationship between the two (β=.373, p<0.01) as represented in Table 4.23. Further, the indirect effect of IR on CE via the mediating variable i.e. optimism was tested using hierarchical regression technique as depicted in Table 4. 23. The result indicated that IR and optimism (combined) accounted for 29.8 percent variance (R^2 =.298, adjusted R^2=0.297; p<.01). The results indicated a significant and positive influence of Optimism on CE (β=.287, p<0.01). Also, the study revealed that IR still had a significant relationship with CE (β=.391, p<0.05), but the value reduced significantly from β=.437 to β=.391. Further, Mackinnon et al. (2002) suggested that sobel test was more powerful and intuitive. Results supported significant indirect effect [standardized indirect effect (a*b) = 0.063; Sobel SE= 0.023; Z=2.158; *p*= 0.023; *p*<0.05] and also standardized indirect effect i.e. portion of IR (interpersonal relationship) on CE (career engagement) due to optimism was 13.96% [portion of (X → Y due to M) = (c-c')/c). Hence, the test confirmed that optimism significantly weakened the relationship between IR and CE suggesting that optimism as a mediating variable significantly explained the career engagement of employees that is being predicted by IR with the help of mediating variable

i.e. Optimism (refer Table 4.23 and Figure 4.1). Consequently, Hypothesis 6 was partially supported.

Table 4.22: ***Hierarchical Regression Analysis for direct relationship between Interpersonal Relationship, Optimism and Career Engagement***

	Career Engagement (β)		Optimism (β)	
Variables	**Model 1**	**Model 2**	**Model 1**	**Model 2**
Step 1: Control Variables				
Age	-.029	-.037	-.021	-.029
Gender	.051*	.032	.023*	.045
Educational level	.037	.164	.093	.091
Step 2: Independent Variable				
Interpersonal Relationship		.437**		.373**
F- value	18.916	24.923**	16.967	19.326**
R^2	.017	.026	.020	.130
Adjusted R^2	.026	.093	.029	.183
Δ R^2	-	.092**	.130	.181**

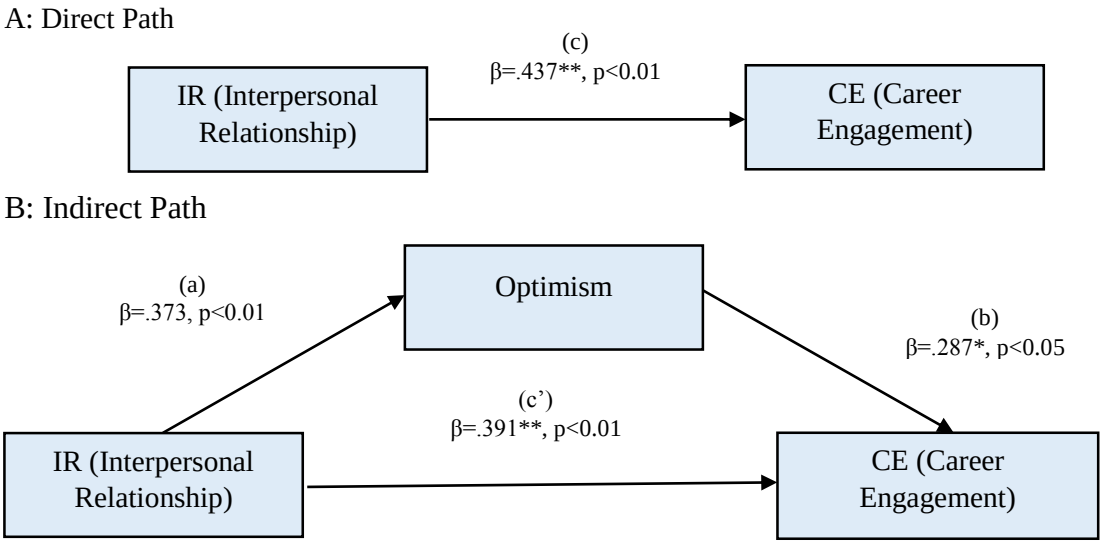
Note: *N=381*; beta values represent standardized coefficients, * *p* <.05. ** *p* <.01, [a]control variables were retained in the subsequent steps of 2.

Table 4.23: ***Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Mediating effect (IR= Independent Variable, Optimism= Mediating Variable and CE= Dependent Variable)***

	Career Engagement (β)	
Variables	**Model 1**	**Model 2**
Step 1: Control Variables[a]		
Age	.210*	.147
Gender	.151*	.121
Educational level	.137	.104
Step 2: Independent Variable		
Interpersonal Relationship		.391**
Optimism		.287*.
F- value	21.316	31.923**
R^2	.091	.298
Adjusted R^2	.093	.297
Δ R^2	-	.207**

Note. N=381; * *p* <.05. ** *p* <.01, beta values represent standardized coefficients, IV represents independent variable, [a]control variables were retained in the subsequent steps of 2, IR=interpersonal relationship, CE= career engagement.

Figure 4.1 Standardised coefficient in Direct and Mediated path diagram of IR and CE via Optimism (results of mediation analysis).



Note: * *p* <.05. ** *p* <.01

4.5.7. Analysing Objective 7

Objective 7 of the current study aims to understand the mediating role of IR on the relationship of optimism and CE in Indian organizations. Baron and Kenny approach (1986) was utilised to test the mediating effect of IR (mediating variable) in optimism-career engagement relationship.

In the present study, the control variables (gender, age and educational level) were entered in step 1 in block 1. Further, the direct effect of optimism on CE accounted for 22.6 percent variance (**Δ**F (1, 436) = 37.133; adjusted R^2=0.223, R^2=0.226, β=.391, p<0.01) was tested in block 2. The results for the direct effect of optimism on IR depicted an insignificant relationship between the two (β=.007, t=3.478, p<0.01) as represented in Table 4.24. The study does not support the bidirectional nature of relationship indicating an insignificant mediating role of IR in the optimism-career engagement relationship. Hence, the analysis could not be taken further with the last step of mediation process. Consequently, Hypothesis 7 was not supported.

Table 4.24: ***Hierarchical Regression Analysis for direct relationship between Optimism, Interpersonal Relationship and Career Engagement***

Variables	Career Engagement (β)		Interpersonal Relationship (β)	
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 1**	**Model 2**
Step 1: Control Variables[a]				
Age	.179*	.107	.221	.129
Gender	.151*	.132	.023*	.045
Educational level	.237*	.164	.193	.091
Step 2: Independent Variable				
Optimism		.391**		.007
ΔF- value	15.916	37.133**	10.017	11.306
R^2	.117	.226	.002	.130
Adjusted R^2	.106	.223	.001	.007
Δ R^2	-	.109**	-	.006

Note: *N=381*; beta values represent standardized coefficients, * *p* <.05. ** *p* <.01, [a]control variables were retained in the subsequent steps of 2.

4.5.8. Analysing Objective 8

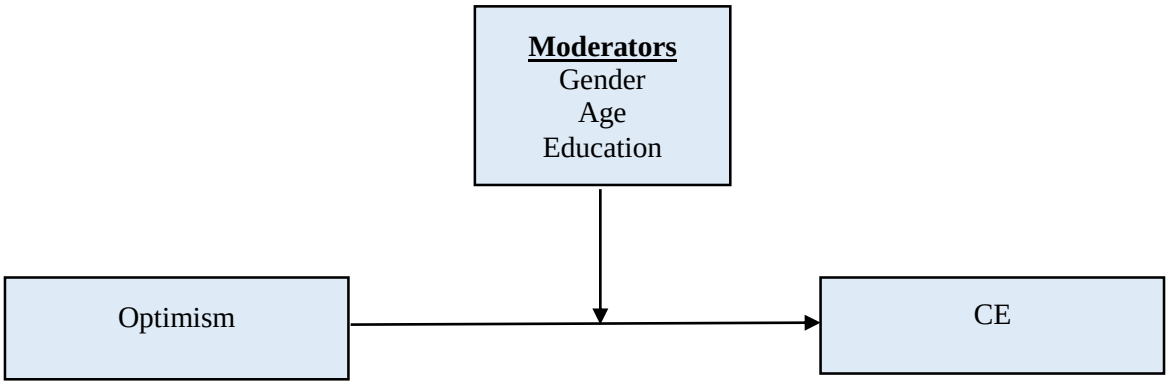
The eighth objective of the current study is to understand the moderating role of demographic variables (gender, age and educational level) on the relationship of optimism and CE in Indian organizations (Figure 4.2). The researchers suggested that moderation changes the strength or direction of relationship between the variables. The above mentioned notion was tested by the hypotheses 8a, 8b and 8c in the present study. The moderating effect was analyzed with the hierarchical moderated regression technique in the current study consistent with the recent studies (Kisamore et al., 2014). Also, age and education level was treated as a continuous variable in alignment with the guidelines provided by Jose (2013) while gender (male & female) was dummy coded as 0 and 1 for the current study.

Hypothesis 8 a: Gender moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.

Hypothesis 8 b: Age moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.

Hypothesis 8 c: Educational level moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.

Figure 4.2: Moderated path between optimism and CE (Career engagement)



4.5.8.1. Hypothesis 8a

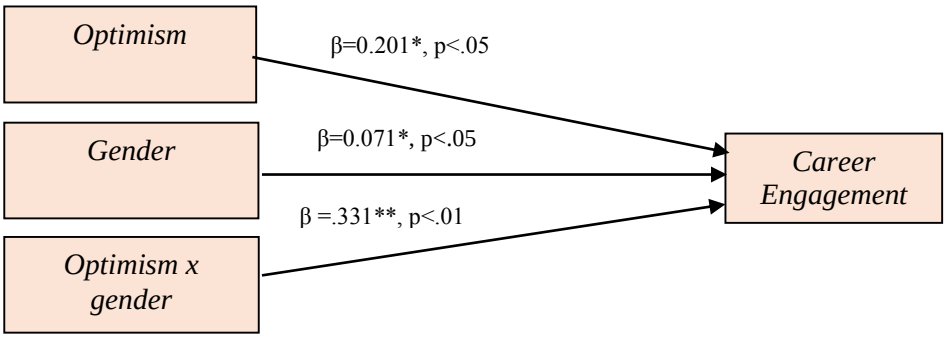
To evaluate the hypothesis, the control variables were entered in block 1 in the first step which was subsequently followed by the second step wherein the main effects were entered in block 2, optimism (β=0.293, t=3.578, p<0.05) and gender (β=0.027, t=2.187, p<0.05) that explained a significant variance in CE i.e. 25.7 percent (ΔF (2, 351) = 62.513 adjusted R^2=0.239; ΔR^2=0.134, $p \leqslant 0.01$). Further, after the entry of control variables and the main effect, the interaction term of Optimism *X* Gender was entered in block 3 that explained a significant proportion of variance in CE i.e. 37.3 percent (ΔF (1, 475) = 7.937; ΔR^2=0.114, adjusted R^2 =.373, $p \leqslant 0.01$) adding to a total of 11.4 percent variance as depicted in Table 4.25 and presented in Figure 4.3. Also, Figure 4.4 shows a difference in the slopes of optimism and CE based on the gender i.e. male and female as reflected after conducting the slope difference test. Following the procedure recommended by Aiken and West (1991) a plot was obtained with the help of prediction of criterion variable at low and high level of optimism (±1 standard deviation of mean; Dawson, 2014). Looking at the Figure 4.4 it is apparent that impact of optimism on CE though significant for male and female employees; however, it was stronger for male employees at the high level of optimism in comparison to the female employees. Furthermore, pair wise slope difference test confirmed that relationship between optimism and career engagament was significant between male and female employees (t-value for slope difference= 2.201, p<0.05). Therefore, hypothesis 8(a) was supported with these empirical evidences that as the gender changes from female to male the strength of relationship between optimism and career engagement also increases.

Table 4.25: ***Moderating effect of gender on Optimism-Career Engagement relationship: Hierarchical moderated regression model***

Variables	Career Engagement (DV)		
Predictors	**Step 1 (β)**	**Step 2 (β)**	**Step 3 (β)**
Step 1 (CV)			
Age	.061*	.051	.057
Educational level	.033	.042	.039
Step 2 (IV)			
Optimism		0.293*	0.201*
Gender		.027*	0.071*
Step 3			
Optimism x gender			.331**
ΔF Value	4.827*	62.513**	7.937**
Sig F Value	0.000	0.000	0.000
R^2	0.123	0.257**	0.371
Adjusted R^2	0.125	0.376	0.373
ΔR^2	-	0.134	0.114

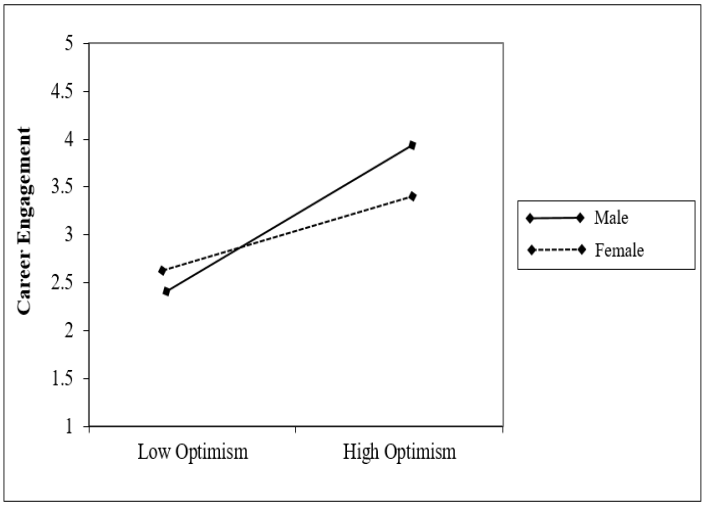
Notes: N=381. *p=0.05; **p=0.01, *β* = standardized beta coefficients; CV= control variable, IV= independent variable, DV= dependent variable.

Figure 4.3: Standardised path coefficient in moderating effect of gender on Optimism-Career Engagement relationship (results of moderation analysis)



Note: *p=0.05; **p=0.0, *β* = standardized beta coefficients are reported, independent variable=optimism, moderating variable=gender, dependent variable=career engagement.

Figure 4.4. Moderating effect of gender on Optimism-Career Engagement relationship



4.5.8.2. Hypothesis 8b

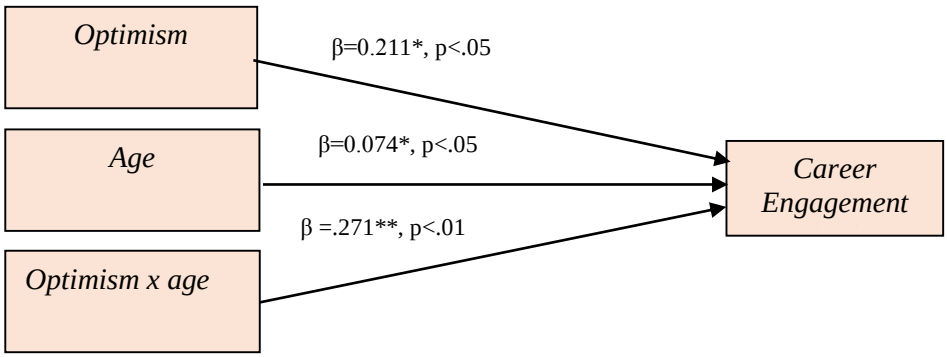
Hypothesis 8b assumed to analyze the moderating role of age. Step 1 of the analysis covered the interaction of the control variables followed by the second step i.e. main effects (optimism) that explained a significance variance in CE and accounted for 10.6 percent (β=0.219, *t*=3.728 p ⩽ 0.05) and age ((β=0.067, t=2.918, p ⩽ 0.05) were entered in block 2 and significantly reflected a variance of 22.9 percent (ΔF (2,351)=55.717; adjusted R^2=0.228; ΔR^2=0.116, p ⩽ 0.01) . Further, after the entry of control variables and the main effect, the interaction term of Optimism *X* Age was entered in block 3 that explained a significant proportion of variance in CE (ΔF (1, 475)=9.312; adjusted R^2=0.334; ΔR^2=0.106, p ⩽ 0.01) reflecting 10.6 per cent variance as depicted in Table 4.26 and Figure 4.5 (Aiken et al., 1991). Further, using the unstandardised coefficients, a plot for two levels of optimism (main effect) at 1 SD above and 1 SD below the mean of age (see Figure 4.6). Further, the slope difference supported young vs. middle (*t*= 2.315, *p*<0.05), middle vs. old age (*t*= 2.372, *p*<0.05) and young vs. old age (*t*= 2.213, *p*<0.05). The figure depicts that the relationship between optimism and career engagement is stronger for middle-aged as compared to the old-aged and young-age employees. Thus, supporting the hypothesis 8b.

Table 4.26: Moderating effect of age on Optimism-Career Engagement relationship: Hierarchical moderated regression model

Variables	Career Engagement (DV)		
Predictors	**Step 1 (β)**	**Step 2 (β)**	**Step 3 (β)**
Step 1 (CV)			
Gender	.041*	.109	-.035
Educational level	.037	.048	.049
Step 2 (IV)			
Optimism		0.219*	0.211*
Age		0.067*	0.074*
Step 3			
Optimism x age			.271**
F Value	7.517*	55.717**	9.312**
Sig F Value	0.000	0.000	0.000
R^2	0.113	0.229*	0.335
Adjusted R^2	0.112	0.228	0.334
ΔR^2	-	0.116*	0.106**

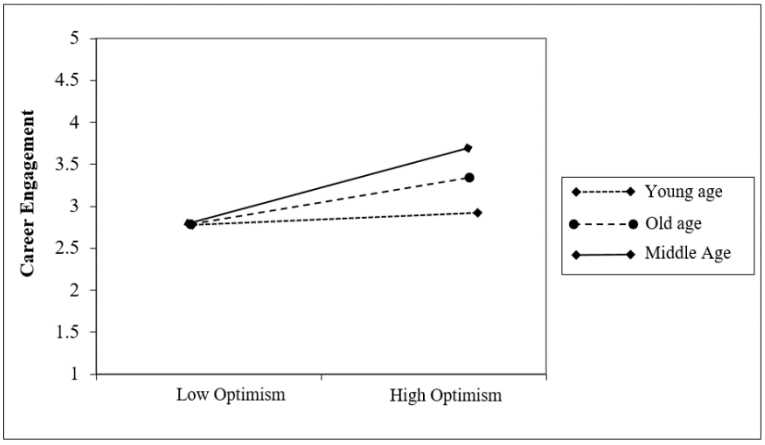
Notes: N=381. *p=0.05; **p=0.01, β = standardized beta coefficients CV= control variable, IV= independent variable, DV= dependent variable.

Figure 4.5: Standardised path coefficient in moderating effect of age on Optimism-Career Engagement relationship (results of moderation analysis)



Note: *p=0.05; **p=0.0, β = standardized beta coefficients are reported, independent variable=Optimism, moderating variable=Age, dependent variable=Career Engagement.

Figure 4.6. **Moderating effect of age on Optimism-Career Engagement relationship**



4.5.8.3. Hypothesis 8c

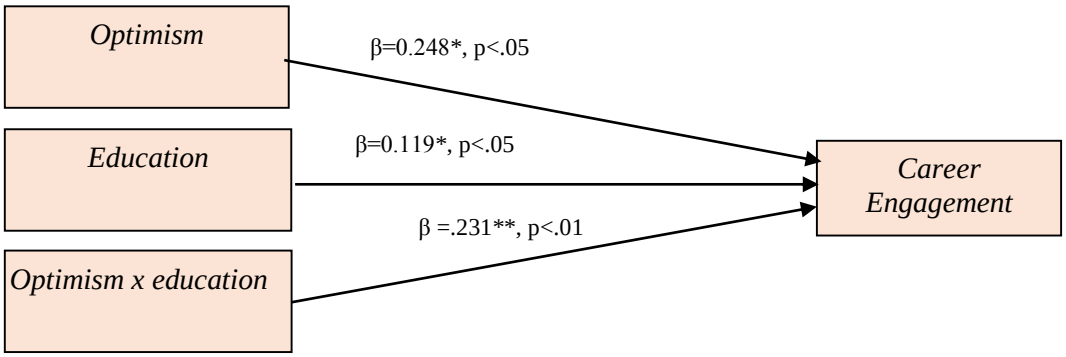
Hypothesis 8c assumed to analyze the moderating role of educational level. Step 1 of the analysis covered the interaction of the control variables accounting for 13.3 percent variance. The first step was followed by the second step i.e. main effects of optimism (β=0.229, t=3.172, p<0.05) and education level (β=0.097, t=2.551, p<0.01) were entered in block 2 reflecting a significant variance of 22.9 percent (ΔF (2, 351) = 52.513; adjusted R^2=0.225; ΔR^2= 0.096; p <0.05). Further, after the entry of control variables and the main effect, the interaction term of Optimism *X* education was entered in block 3 that explained a significant proportion of variance in CE accounting for 34.3 percent (ΔF (1,475) = 5.318; adjusted R^2=0.311; ΔR^2=0.114, p ⩽ 0.05, 13 per cent variance) adding a total of 11.4 percent in the variance explained. Additionally, the beta value of optimism on career engagement reduced but the interaction term provided greater predictive value. This led to the acceptance of 8c in line with the previous studies as depicted in Table 4.27 and Figure 4.7 (Aiken et al., 1991). Further, using the unstandardised coefficients, a plot for the impact of optimism (main effect) at 1 SD above and 1 SD below the mean of education level as depicted in Figure 4.8 (McClelland & Judd, 1993). The image depicts that the relationship between optimism and career engagement is stronger for employees having high education level i.e. PG & above than employees having graduation and diploma level of education. The pair-wise slope difference test established that the optimism-CE relationship is significant between diploma vs. graduation (t= 2.121, p<0.05), graduate vs. PG & above (t= 2.301, p<0.05) and diploma vs. (t=2.359, p<0.05). Consequently supporting hypothesis 8c.

Table 4.27: Moderating effect of education on Optimism-Career Engagement relationship: Hierarchical moderated regression model

Variables	Career Engagement (DV)		
Predictors	**Step 1 (β)**	**Step 2 (β)**	**Step 3 (β)**
Step 1 (CV)			
Age	.029	.028	.045
Gender	.027	.058	.043
Step 2 (IV)			
Optimism		0.201*	0.248*
Education level		0.097*	0.119*
Step 3			
Optimism x education			0.231*
F Value	7.827*	52.513**	5.318*
Sig F Value	0.000	0.000	0.000
R^2	0.133	0.229**	0.343
Adjusted R^2	0.131	0.225	0.311
ΔR^2	-	0.096*	0.114*

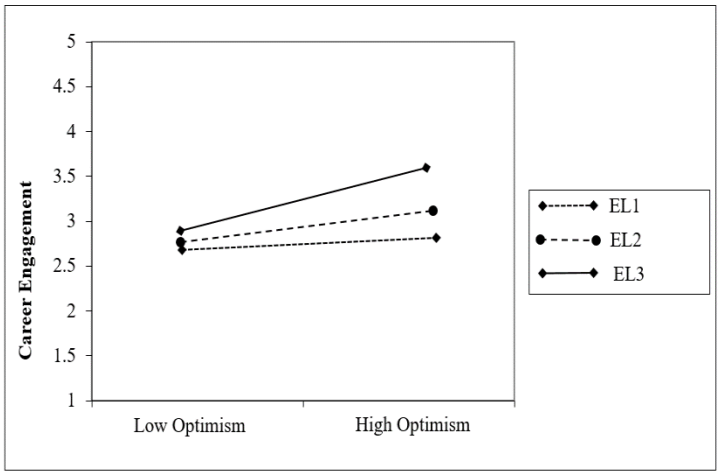
Notes: N=381. *p=0.05; **p=0.01, CV= control variable, IV= independent variable, DV= dependent variable.

Figure 4.7: Standardised path coefficient in moderating effect of education on optimism-career engagement relationship



Note: *p=0.05; **p=0.0, *β* = standardized beta coefficients are reported, independent variable= Optimism, moderating variable=Education level, dependent variable=Career Engagement.

Figure 4.8. Moderating effect of education on Optimism-Career Engagement relationship



Note: EL indicates the Education level

4.6. Chapter Summary

The current chapter presented the analysis and findings of the study hypotheses. The analysis has been discussed in a detailed manner as per the objectives of the present study using the application of the inferential statistics techniques of t-test, one way ANOVA and regression analysis. Additionally, the details of data preparation and missing data treatment, common-method bias (CMB) assessment, and validation of the instruments were provided. Further, the relationship among the variables were also tested using correlation and regression techniques as presented in the chapter. Also, the mediation and moderation analysis have been performed using hierarchical regression. Table 4.28 represents the summary of the chapter.

Table 4.28: *Summary of the Results*

S. No.	Hypotheses	Results
1	Hypothesis 1a: Male and Female employees perceive IR differently	Partially supported
2	Hypothesis 1b: Young, middle- age and old age employees perceive IR differently.	Partially supported
3	Hypothesis 1c: Employees with different Educational level perceive IR differently.	Partially supported
4	Hypothesis 2a: Male and Female employees perceive optimism differently	Supported
5	Hypothesis 2b: Young, middle- age and old age employees perceive optimism differently.	Supported
6	Hypothesis 2c: Employees with different Educational level perceive optimism differently.	Supported
7	Hypothesis 3a: Male and Female employees perceive CE differently.	Supported
8	Hypothesis 3b: Young, middle- age and old age employees perceive CE differently.	Supported
9	Hypothesis 3c: Employees with different Educational level perceive CE differently.	Supported

S. No.	Hypotheses	Results
10	Hypothesis 4 a: Expressed need for inclusion is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Supported
11	Hypothesis 4 b: Wanted need for inclusion is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Not supported
12	Hypothesis 4 c: Expressed need for control is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Partially supported
13	Hypothesis 4 d: Wanted need for control is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Not supported
14	Hypothesis 4 e: Expressed need for affection is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Partially supported
15	Hypothesis 4 f: Wanted need for affection is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Not supported
16	Hypothesis 5a: Personal optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Partially supported
17	Hypothesis 5b: Self-efficacy optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction).	Supported
18	Hypothesis 6: Optimism mediates the relationship between IR and CE.	Partially supported
19	Hypothesis 7: IR mediates the relationship between optimism and CE.	Not supported
20	Hypothesis 8 a: Gender moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.	Supported
21	Hypothesis 8 b: Age moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.	Supported
22	Hypothesis 8 c: Educational level moderates the relationship of optimism and CE.	Supported

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

The current study aims to analyze the relationship of interpersonal relationship and employee optimism with career engagement. The research was undertaken on the premise that positive psychology plays an essential role at workplace. The study also aims to continue research in the field of optimism and the influence of positive attitude in a workplace setting in Indian sub-continent. Prior studies suggested that less evidence is available in the Asian nations concerning the agentic traits like optimism. Also, not much research is available exploring the linkage of interpersonal relationship and optimism with career variables like career engagement. Positive psychology urges to revisit the functioning of human life to find out "what works, what is improving" in the people (Sheldon & King, 2001; Luthans, 2002), and to employ strength-based approach towards the problems of human life. The field focuses on the use of positive assets of people, i.e. skills and capacities of individuals to enhance their potential and resolve issues on personal as well work front (Fineman, 2006; Luthans et al., 2007). The study builds on the foundation that optimism is relatively a new and less explored concept in OB (organization behavior) in the context of Indian sub-continent (Sinha et al., 2010; Pandey & Gupta, 2013). Considering the above gaps the current research takes a dig into the association between the variables i.e. interpersonal relationship, optimism and career engagement. Also, the extant literature on the variables support the role of demographics like gender, age and education keeping in mind the reality that India is all set to become the youngest country by 2020 with around 64 percent of its population falling under the working age bracket (The Hindu, 2013). India is set to experience the dynamic transformation (Pisedtasalasai & Gunasekarage, 2007), however, the question of being a burden or asset remains unanswered. As discussed earlier, the research questions related to the objectives of the study were accomplished by using various statistical techniques like descriptive statistics, correlation, t-test, one-way ANOVA and multiple regression analysis. The current chapter discusses the research findings.

5.2. Accomplishment of Objectives of the study

5.2.1. Accomplishment of Objective 1

The first objective of the study was to analyze the level of IR prevailing in Indian organizations with respect to the demographic variables i.e. gender, age and educational level. The study

undertook all the dimensions that constitute IR (interpersonal relationship) and were assessed using the demographics.

5.2.1.1 Interpersonal Relationship and Gender

While determining the relationship between expressed inclusion and gender, the analysis achieved significant results. The results highlighted that female employees have higher mean (M=3.97) score as compared to male (M=3.83) employees for expressed inclusion. The result is in lieu with the previous studies (Walton & Cohen, 2007; Tellhed et al., 2017; Bharti & Rangnekar, 2018) wherein the need of belongingness or inclusion has been defined as the fundamental need of humans. According to the researchers (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Cockshaw & Shochet, 2010; Holt-Lunstad et al., 2015) living in groups or feeling included is essential for survival in human history and has shaped much of our psychology/psychological behavior. Further, individuals that express or expect to belong tend to develop strong gender in-group favouritism and often develop being stronger in personal as well as career context (Rudman & Glick, 2008). Also, Sanghi (2007) and Walton et al (2017) highlighted that females have an ability to make more friends as compared to males emphasizing the gender differences in self-concepts. A University of Michigan study reflected that individuals who feel a greater sense of belonging or feels included function psychologically better as compared to the other individuals and perceive less conflict and more support from others. But, the social support circle is small for females (Guimond et al. 2013). According to a survey conducted by Hagerty et al. (1996) female feel more included and expresses more need for inclusion as compared to males emphasising that females experience the effects of inclusion or non-inclusion more than males. This was further supported by Mellor et al. (2008) and Aggarwal et al. (2007; 2012) reflecting that need for inclusion is a subjective state and is associated with the psychological well-being. The individuals who express more inclusion often suffer less from loneliness as in the individualistic nations. According to Schoenfield et al. (2012) women are more adept in expressing the feeling of belongingness as compared to males and are more accommodating owing to the traits of females i.e. nurturing and affiliating.

In terms of wanted inclusion, males (M=3.27) scored a higher mean in comparison to females (M=3.06). The results highlight the difference in the emotions and is quite crucial as females are increasingly entering into work domains. The research reflected that scientifically males tend to use only one side of their brain which is predominantly the left side (Paulmann & Pell, 2011). The left side differs from the right in the manner that it is particularly related to logical, rational and analytic thinking while the latter is associated with creativity, emotions and the processes are

considered as irregular and roundabout (Borod, 1992; Shamsi et al., 2018; Gainotti, 2018). Further, various researchers (Jakupcak et al., 2005; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Thomas et al., 2017) emphasised that males tend to express less the needs of belongingness as they relate it with their masculinity. Also, in a patriarchal society like India men have been primarily discouraged and stereotyped from their childhood and have been taught that expressing the needs of inclusion is less masculine. Additionally, the societal expectations in a culturally and male dominated country like India, have taught men not to display any emotions. The research also advocated that though there exists small but significant differences in the way males and females express their emotions, males want others to express their emotions (Liben & Bigler, 2002; Chaplin, 2016).

In addition, expressed affection differed with gender wherein male (M=4.01) and female (M=4.49) reflected significant ($p<.05$) mean difference in the current study. This could be owing to the reasons that affection is considered to be feminine and is highly associated with females. Affection is often about the virtues that makes a woman feel appreciated. This is in lieu with the previous researches (Caroll et al., 1985) wherein researchers supported that females are more affectionate as compared to males. This is being supported by the evidence that females behavior must be studied in social context and females are psychologically wired to be expressive and affectionate. Also, the interaction dyads form the foundation of the organization and the workplace environment resulting in stability (Jensen & Rauer, 2016; Rani & Asija, 2017). This can also be supported with the reality that the "oxytocin" hormone and neurotransmitter that is transported from the pituitary gland is often responsible for the increased affection. It primarily fine-tunes the brains' social instincts and involves revealing the dependence on the other individual in order to connect with each other (Generous et al., 2017; Leurssen et al., 2017).

The results for need of control both expressed and wanted reflected insignificant ($p>.05$ for both) results indicating that gender differences do not exist in the above case. This is not in sync with the previous researchers who highlighted that some individuals have a need to control or influence others i.e. having a natural urge to take charge of things as in a group or a team (Sprague, 2016). Researches have highlighted that discovering the individuals who are motivated by the need for control would encourage them to take charge and set goals, share opinions and responsibilities while appreciating the talents and skills of the team members (Liddell & Slocum, 1976; Harms, 2017). The above results reflects that, in the case of manufacturing sector, the individuals have less control needs as would be the case in different sector. Additionally, individuals who are least motivated are often valuable in their own right for the team. They turn

out to be more agreeable and trustworthy in a team (Mitra & Chatterjee, 2016). Further, wanted affection reflected insignificant mean differences (male=4.05 and females=3.98; p>.05) results with gender in the present study. The results are in contrast to the previous researches, wherein researchers suggested that males are often dominated by the wanted needs as compared to females who tend to express more. The research suggests that at workplace the idea of communication and relationship is primarily dominated by the psychological needs that produce motives in relation to satisfaction or other outcome related variables. The wanted needs are a part of needs gratification theory indicating that people use various media to fulfill those needs (McCracken, 2018). Previous researches have supported that need for affection is often related with low dogmatism and males perform better on formal operations as compared to females on the logical tasks (Sousa et al., 2018). Further, in the present times, wherein gender equality and equal work and equal pay are the prime slogans in the organizations, that are working with each other and synchronising in order to achieve the common goal leaves less space for wanted affection as it comes mutually and naturally to everyone (Dhar, 2001; Bhargava & Baral, 2009). In the manufacturing sector settings, the employees work for a common goal and work in common to achieve their objectives thus, leaving no significant room for wanted behaviors.

5.2.1.2 Interpersonal Relationship and Age

Further, while investigating the relationship of age and the dimensions of interpersonal relationship it was highlighted that age effects IR partially. The results indicated that expressed inclusion (Mean; young=4.01, middle-age=3.97 and old age=4.17), wanted inclusion (Mean; young=3.98, middle-age=4.05 and old age=4.03), expressed control (Mean; young=4.03, middle-age=3.95 and old age=4.11), and expressed affection (Mean; young=3.95, middle-age=4.03 and old age=3.98), tend to significantly (p<.05) vary with the increasing age of employees. Also, the results were insignificant (p>.05) for wanted control (Mean; young=3.89, middle-age=4.01 and old age=4.13), and wanted affection (Mean; young=3.97, middle-age=3.93 and old age=3.98). The research indicated that expressed inclusion was higher in young-age employees as compared to the old age employees-young age employees having higher mean as compared to the old age employees whereas the middle-age employees had higher mean as compared to the old age and young age for wanted inclusion. Further, middle age employees reflected higher mean score than old age employees for expressed control and young-age employees had higher mean than the old age employees for expressed affection. Previous literature provides some support on this finding i.e. the behavioral needs such as wanted and expressed vary with the growing age (Graham et al., 2008; Jauhari & Singh, 2013). Further, researchers highlighted that the intensity of needs such as

need for inclusion (expressed or wanted), or expressed control and expressed affection vary with the age (Kashdan et al., 2009; Soloff & Chiappetta, 2018). They also suggested that individuals are very high in energy and attitude when they are young and tend to express themselves. Whereas the scenario changes the moment they surpass the bracket of 30, as they are not alone or individual anymore and have families and others in their life. This argument clearly supports the results of the study.

The results are also supported by the reality that the emotions are very malleable as the main emotional components (Kaur & Sinha, 1992; Jain & Sinha, 2005) of your character are being processed for its final shape, when an individual starts getting old. It's not that the emotions are less intense but the elasticity of the emotions and its influence when an individual is young gets affected from anything. When one gets old the emotions are not the same anymore and the individual gains more wisdom, get clearer and gains the maturity of when to show an emotion and when to hide it. Also, such an individual is not susceptible to any force easily because now the emotions are fully baked as the case of wanted control needs and wanted affection (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). Additionally, Volkova & Bachrach (2015) highlighted that older individuals in traditional societies tend to express more of the positive emotions as compared to the younger individuals.

5.2.1.3 Interpersonal Relationship and Education

The results sufficed that the interpersonal dimensions namely expressed inclusion (Mean; diploma=3.71, graduate=3.85, PG & above=3.98), expressed affection (Mean; diploma=4.01, graduate=3.93, PG & above=4.15), and wanted control (Mean; diploma=3.97, graduate=4.01, PG & above=4.12), significantly ($p<.05$) vary with the education level of employees. Also, wanted inclusion, expressed control and wanted affection reflected insignificant ($p>.05$) results. The results are in support with the previous studies (Verma, 2007; 2009; Siegel et al., 2015) that highlighted that there exists a positive relationship between emotional expressions or interpersonal relations and knowledge or education. Researchers (Coll & Eames 2000; Braunstein & Loken, 2004; Park et al., 2009) have well documented the role of learning and education in the development of interpersonal relations at the workplace. In 1989, Wilson highlighted that the participation of individuals in education programs helped in clarifying their career goals. Further, this helped in developing workplace skills, were better academically, greater knowledge of careers and greater confidence in themselves that led to the development of the social relations. Also, educated individuals develop better work skills and social skills that

are not typically present in other individuals (Mariani, 1997; Connell et al., 2003; Kumari et al., 2012).

According to Hagenauer (2014), individuals with higher degree or education tend to express more emotions and are not passive. The evidence suggests that education is a great way to convey one's perspective, recognizing the emotions they are feeling and be collaborative with each other. Education helps an individual in developing the social skills along with the self-regulation techniques, impulse control and sensation feeling while dealing with the other individuals in the organization (as per *Bradley Busch, Director of InnerDrive).* Additionally, education aims at gaining better knowledge and skills along with identifying the correct denomination of emotions, foreseeing the harmful effects of negative emotions, regulation of skills increasing the tolerance, developing the positive attitude towards life as well as societal and social experiences/ties (Ferres et al., 2004; Weidong et al., 2010; Bisquerra, 2012). Emotions, whether expressed or wanted, are processes that gets activated every time the individual detects any stimuli/ changes to its balance. The processes can range from anger or sadness to affection, belongingness and happiness (Greco, 2010; Gómez-Díaz et al., 2017). This supported the result for expressed inclusion and expressed affection (diploma having higher mean as compared to the graduate and PG degree & above courses). Further, the notion supported the result for wanted control; wherein there is a significant mean difference between the employees who have a graduation degree and employees having a diploma course and a PG degree & above.

5.2.2. Accomplishment of Objective 2

5.2.2.1. Optimism and Gender

Optimism has been characterized as a cognitive construct, but with emotional overtones (whether expecting good or bad things to happen) and motivational implications (levels of expectation; Carver & Scheier, 2014). Optimism plays an important role across many areas in our lives, such as in educational, organizational, and health-related contexts. For instance, optimism is an essential characteristic for leaders (Gupta & Singh, 2015), because being optimistic allows them to inspire people, to see opportunities even in adverse situations, and to lead people towards a better future (Rai & Sinha, 2000; Molon et al., 2012). It is, therefore, not surprising that, optimism is a key variable in positive psychology the sub-field of psychology that studies virtuous aspects, psychological strengths, and positive emotions in our lives (Snyder et al., 2010).

The current study tries to analyze the relationship between optimism dimensions and gender. The results indicated that male and female differ in the dimensions of optimism. The results are supported with the previous literature, wherein the interaction between gender and optimism has been established in the context of older adults (Gawronski et al., 2016). Additionally, Felton et al. (2003) highlighted that males and females differ in the levels of optimism as in it may lead to different behavioral tendencies, depending on the domain/issue, in which continued effort and information seeking are likely to lead to desired outcomes. Further, both biological and socio-cultural explanations have been proposed to explain these basic differences (Buss, 2009).

In 2011, Sharot et al. recommend that relative to females, males are more optimistic and update their beliefs or opinions selectively based on the information available about the present, future, personal, as well as, general economic conditions or uncertainties. This environment affects their overall behaviors and, in turn, their careers. Additionally, studies also claim that gender-related roles and the societal background of countries, in this case, India, can affect outcome expectancies, which indirectly affect work and hence, a general outlook in life (Petroni, 2000). Particularly, females may make career-related decisions in sync with their age and set priorities in favour of a work-life balance owing to responsibilities of males and females in a family context or obligations towards one's family rather than solely on the basis of seeking success as a career women, a corporate leaders or an entrepreneur (Forret et al., 2010; Dhameja & Yadav, 2015). In a similar vein, the transition from college to professional status can affect the way an individual behaves. These considerations may include notions of "the appropriate age" for marriage or childbearing in the eyes of society. This can clearly act as a setback leading to a less optimistic outlook or expectancy for the outcome. As such, the gender difference might be a machination of a societal methodology rather than a true discrepancy in the prevalence of emotions like optimism, hope and resilience (Saquero et al., 2018).

In the limelight of the above discussion, females are not significantly less optimistic than males; it is just that this trait is leading to different course of actions in males and females. This suggests that what it means to be optimistic to males might differ for females and therefore, cannot be characterized in the same fashion. Females have a tendency to averse the risk/ environmental risks and may buffer them against any optimistic tendency to behave in a manner consistent with their optimistic evaluations. Males, on the other hand, have a general tendency to take a risky path/ alternative keeping the environmental altercations in view (Connell & Burgess, 2006; Ginevra et al., 2017). Thus, the results supported the view of the previous researchers for personal

optimism supporting the significant mean difference between male (M=4.09) and female (M=3.98) employees.

Further, a significant difference was reflected in the mean scores for males (M=4.01) as compared to females (M=3.97) for self-efficacy optimism. Self-efficacy optimism is a central facet of social cognitive theory, wherein behavior is best understood in terms of the reciprocal relationship of triads namely behavior, cognition, and the environment, and are determined to a great extent by their interaction (Park, 2010; Maddux, 2016). According to various researchers (Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017), self-efficacy/optimism is based on self-perception, i.e. the perception that one has the skills or capabilities to perform a task and has positive attitude towards his capabilities. Further, Cassidy & Eachus (2002) added that males significantly differ from the females in terms of self-efficacy. Researchers (Pajares & Schunk, 2002; Scherer & Siddiq, 2015) supported the argument that there exist gender differences in individual's self-efficacy and males are more efficacious than females and are self-regulated as well as motivated to achieve excellence in their life. Also, the results are in contrast to few studies that highlighted that females express greater self- efficacy optimism and showcase greater confidence in their capabilities (Pajares & Valiante, 1999).

5.2.2.2. Optimism and Age

The outcomes of the study resulted in establishing that age differences influence the optimism level in adult employees. The analysis results depicted that in both the dimensions of optimism namely personal (Mean; young= 3.97, middle-age=4.17, old-age=4.01) and self-efficacy optimism (Mean; young= 3.98, middle-age=4.05, old-age=4.03), the level of optimism was higher in the case of middle age employees as compared to old and young age employees. This can be supported with the argument that middle-aged adult employees have higher level of optimism owing to growth orientation in Indian context (Bharti & Rangnekar, 2018). Along with shifts in psychological adjustments, one has observed developments into maintenance-related and prevention of loss orientations, which play a dominant part in old age (Palgi & Shmotkin, 2010). High optimism level can also be driven by motivational reasons, such as an overall desire to feel happy owing to achievement orientation and stability (Chang & Sanna, 2001). The expectancy model (Atkinson, 1964) reflected that in middle age and old age is dialectical in nature which is comparatively interdependent in the case of younger adult employees. The results indicated that old adults have less optimism in comparison to middle-age adults.

The results reflect that as people age their time-based variables become less significant in predicting optimism and are arguably less important in acting as a predictor of satisfaction with life. Aging individuals have an ability to maintain self-views in changing times or environments (Burns & Seligman, 1989; Preethi et al., 2011). Additionally, a sense of reality appears to develop referring to chronological age and the differential change in age, which affects optimism and further, to an extent, hinders satisfaction levels (Schaie & Willis, 2010). This is not entirely surprising as learned dependency in old age due to various disabilities or diseases is a phenomenon of developmental or biological aging, which often makes the picture gloomy (Carstensen et al., 2006). The results also strongly support the life span development theory, which reflects that development occurs throughout life and the balance of trajectories, mainly focusses upon the changes in lifespan. This, then, focusses on growth and decline as important features of life (Dixon & Baltes, 1986). Changes in the lifespan are continuously affected by a sense of stability (a feature reflected by middle age), variations owing to future or economic instability, complexity owing to biological or cultural dimensions, and the impact of aging in process domains such as emotions, self, memory and others (Baltes et al., 2006).

5.2.2.3. Optimism and Education

The results suggested that employees with different educational level perceive optimism differently. The analysis depicted significant mean differences in personal optimism (diploma= 4.45, graduate=4.15, PG & above=3.98) and self-efficacy optimism (diploma=3.79, graduate=4.03, PG & above=4.11). The concept of instinctive optimism has been widely associated with the process of learning. The researchers suggested that with the agentic trait like optimism an individual remains confident and positive that, no matter what challenges s/he faces, with perseverance s/he will ultimately succeed (Tierney & Farmer, 2002). Additionally, the employees consider the organization as a developmental challenge that they are engaged with and will master in an optimistic way. However, the challenges of the competitive environment remind them that they are being evaluated and no matter how well they perform they'll always be reminded that there is a room for improvement (Gidwani & Dangayach, 2017; Pisedtasalasai & Rujiratpichathorn, 2017; Pattnaik et al., 2018). The system is entirely driven by reward motivation or the challenge or the thrill of something new. According to a survey conducted by BBC Capital (2017), the individuals, who are more educated, are more optimistic about the future prospects i.e. job/employment situation, job satisfaction, health etc.

Also, education has been considered as one of the important dimensions—albeit related—represent partly different health-relevant capabilities (Herd et al., 2007). Especially, low education reflects limited opportunities and reduced abilities to control the everyday life and to shape one's future in positive ways, thereby affecting the optimistic self-beliefs and well-being of the individuals (Piperopoulos & Dimov, 2015; Hampton & Newcomb, 2018). The study indicated that individuals, with low level of education, reported the worse health and less psychological as well as social resources. Positive self-efficacy beliefs affect the outcome by fostering a positive life expectancy- style (Steptoe et al., 2006). This is also acknowledged by the central role that self- beliefs plays in all the psychological theories of behavior (Noar & Zimmerman, 2005; Schöllgen et al., 2011). In addition, various studies supported that education and related experiences/ activities effect the positive expectancy of once capabilities or self-efficacy and perceived as an important factor towards a career/ choice (Chai et al., 2006; Lent et al., 2002). Also, education has been conferred the status of a system of allocation, conferring success on some and failure on other (Pisedtasalasai 2010; Chan et al., 2016). The more an individual is educated, the more one assesses the surrounding environment considering the policy changes or growth of an economy that affects the workplace scenario mainly concerned with the personal optimism of an individual (Cho et al., 2007; Su et al., 2014). Further, with the help of the possessed knowledge and regular learning individual focusses on different realms of the job/ vocation, in turn proving his metal in the job. Also, an individual tends to believe in oneself or the one's abilities that helps in having a positive outlook towards future. The individuals having modest and confident self-efficacy beliefs, tend to be more accurate and would be able to predict the future outcome as compared to the individuals with over-confident self-efficacy optimism. The above arguments suffice that the dimensions of optimism (personal and self-efficacy optimism) varies with the employee's education level.

5.2.3. Accomplishment of Objective 3

5.2.3.1. Career Engagement and Gender

The results suggested that male and female employees perceive CE differently in Indian organizations. The results indicated significant mean differences for the dimensions of career engagement namely career planning (male=4.15, female=3.96), networking (male=4.45, female=4.34), and career satisfaction (male=3.93, female=4.42). The study is supported by previous research of Danziger and Eden (2007) that highlighted that gender-related dissimilarities in an individual's objectives and career attainment are important social issues that can have an effect on someone's career. Patton et al. (2004) conducted a study on Australian

sample and suggested that there exists gender differences for career correlates i.e. planning, exploration and goals. The study suggested that self-esteem of an individual predicts the expectations/ career planning in an individual. Further, SCCT theory (Social Cognitive Career Theory) recognize gender as an influential person input factor and as such indicates that there are many pathways concerning the career/ decision making of an individual (Hackett et al., 1991; Petrone, 2000). The study is in lieu with the previous career developmentalists (Creed et al., 2009; Cech, 2016) that males and female differ in their take on career engagement wherein females take into account the family and make or plan their careers by considering family, flexibility at work and other factors whereas males do not recognize the environmental constraints related to their career aspirations (Chung, 2002; Spurk et al., 2015; Rani et al., 2018). The results suggested that males actually turn out to be more planful than females in making career decisions and may simply increase their skills in describing and articulating their plans. The results could be supported with the argument that females live the life of a student, wife/home-maker, mother, an in-law, employee, performer at the same time and have to fight out the battle of transformations (Hormonal or physical) whereas males takes the responsibilities of the breadwinner in a country like India and the attitude towards one's gender role affects the career planning (Bharti & Rangnekar, 2018 in press).

Additionally, males and females further differ in networking with respect to their job or careers. Researchers have considered networking a burgeoning terrain of research in organizational studies (Ibarra et al., 2005; Rho & Lee, 2018). The scholarly community added that involvement in networks is vital for an efficacious career since interpersonal networks can provide diverse career opportunities (Burt, 2005; kim et al., 2008; Kim & Fish, 2010). The attention to gender has been considered as a sophisticated notion in network studies that focuses on gender as a social practice and not as a variable (Feldman & Orlikowski, 2011). The results of the current study suffice the previous studies reflecting that networking plays an important role in gaining access to resources as well as influencing the success of an individual. Additionally, the studies suggested a significant difference between females and males with respect to the use of their networks (Hanson & Blake, 2009; Watson, 2011). According to Becker (1964), theory of human capital has suggested that gender differences in the occupational or vocational aspirations originate from the family itself. Also, the human capital theory recommended that a more educated individual is expected to obtain greater outcomes (Dhar et al., 1999; Ballout, 2007; Verma & Dhar, 2016).

Literature suggested that gender forms an integral part of an individual's personality and highlighted that females are more involved in the networks consistent with their gender role norms, whereas males promote maintenance of relations/networks concerned with task-focussed activities that are achievement oriented (Guadagno et al., 2011; Muscanell & Guadagno, 2012). The difference could be explained by the gender expectations that reflect that males are more adventurous and more willing to meet and collaborate with people, while female tend to be more interpersonal oriented as in engage in less interactions compared to males (Zhao & Dai, 2003; Fogel & Nehmad, 2009).

Further, the study suggested that female employees are more satisfied with their careers as compared to the male employees. Gender differences in the career specific activities are born from gender-specific socialization experiences from the assumption that males and females learn gender-specific attitudes about what it means to be a male or a female (Benschop, 2009; Hartijasti & Cho, 2018). Research reflected that there is positive relationship of engagement in formal networks with respect to career satisfaction suggesting that there exist systematic differences about career in values of males and females (Martins et al., 2002; Shukla & Rai, 2015). This could be due to many factors for example, cognitional factors like self-efficacy, higher pay, workplace conditions, balanced personal life and others (Boles et al., 2003; Saxena & Rai, 2015; Biron & Hanuka, 2018). Also, employees who are satisfied with their careers are more persuaded to pursue social contacts and engage in networking (Hetty Van Emmerik et al., 2006). The above notion could be supported with the argument that females tend to expect less as compared to males – approx. 22 percent females expect to remain in entry-level role compared to 10 percent of males. Despite the differing career expectations and uncertainty around pay, job etc. female employees in Asia-Pacific region are more satisfied with jobs that offer a healthy balanced environment, personal life choices that make them happier overall because they choose work-life balance, comfortable job location rather than focussing exclusively on one thing (mostly pay) like males tend to (Michael Page India Senior Managing Director Sebastien Hampartzoumian).

5.2.3.2. Career Engagement and Age

The results supported the hypothesis that young, middle-age and older employees perceive CE (career engagement) differently in Indian setting. The results suggested that career planning (Mean; young=4.19, middle-age=4.12, old age=4.09) decreases with age that is in lieu with the previous studies reflecting that career planning is generally important at young age, when an individual begins to explore his/her abilities, interests, opportunities and values for career

exploration (Gati & Saka, 2001; Pyne et al., 2002). The studies highlighted that choosing a career is secondary to one's partner in terms of the impact on one's life (Bardick et al., 2004; Rani et al., 2015). Additionally, the significance of career planning appears at a developmental stage when the individuals are concerned with their futures in order to meet their career goals (Julien, 1999; Van der Horst et al., 2017). Further, middle-age and old age are considered the career-renewal/ establishment or maintenance stage and is driven by transition phase as it applies to career development. The research revealed that old age is ruled by status, function and step-like career path (Furunes, 2015; Yadav & Shankar, 2017; Yadav, 2018).

The current research established that age differences affect the networking of individuals and young (M=4.21), middle-age (M=4.13) and old age (M=4.09) employees differ in network size. Further, the negative relationship between age and personal networking size has been considered as one of the robust findings in social gerontology. The finding is in support to the previous studies that suggest that old age individuals have fewer ties as compared to young individuals (Lang & Baltes, 1997; Cornwell, 2011; Marcum, 2012). While relations and networks among kins are likely to continue, old age individuals, are less likely to form new networks in organization as well as in neighbourhood. This could be due to the reason that old age individuals are associated with a contraction in the variety of ties active in the formal networks of old age individuals as they rely on a smaller set of people engaged in a wider range of relations leading to greater multiplexity. Additionally, old age individuals tends to compartmentalize the relations diffusely across networks leading to few networks (Smith et al., 2014). Further, young age individuals are and have been exposed to numerous group projects throughout their education, making them comfortable working with others. They have a strong grasp on the use of technology to build social networks harnessing the power of informal employee networks that ends in mobilizing knowledge and talent across organizations (Mckinsey & Company, 2007; Dai et al., 2015; Yadav, 2017).

The concept of career reflects the impression of change and development over a period of time. The study supported that an individual keeps on exploring, establishing and maintaining one's career with time and age. The mid-career concern is dominated by getting promotion at the workplace. The study suggested that old age employees (M=4.19) are more satisfied with their career in comparison to young (M=4.01) and middle-age (4.13) individuals (Zacher & Griffin, 2015). This could be explained with the help of an argument i.e. old age individuals look more engaged as they feel that their work is being justified and carried on by their employing firm

(Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2011). Also, the old age employees are near the end of their career and therefore, are more concerned with the highest order need of self-actualization as compared to the young concerned with ego needs (esteem & autonomy). This suggests that as people become aged, increasing numbers have a more instrumental attitude towards work, valuing work for its satisfaction of the security & self-actualization needs (Hall & Mansfield, 1975). To add on, Gallup Healthways survey for well-being (2011) established that old-age individuals have the highest level of satisfaction with their job, as well as career reporting that they're satisfied with their work.

5.2.3.3. Career Engagement and Education

Education plays an important role in pursuing, furthering and building one's career over time. The study suggested that education and career engagement are significantly related and led to the acceptance of the hypothesis. The previous studies suggested that career planning (Mean; diploma=3.57, graduate=3.93, PG & above=3.45) is an ongoing process that becomes a tool once an individual gets employed and helps in directing the individual's overall career path to gain skills and abilities (McGuinness & Shankar, 2018). Further, a solid educational foundation and a commitment to ongoing training and education acts as a major contributor to the career variables (especially career planning) in order to achieve success in life (Öznacar & Mümtazoğlu, 2017). Also, individuals often chose an education path to take advantage of the career development assistance as well as networking to get the required support (Wirt et al., 2004). Numerous studies (Trusty et al., 2005; Trusty & Niles, 2004) suggested that the effective education-career planning has become vital in career development. This could be explained such that if individuals do not plan and behave in a consistent manner with their educational goals or do not have clear goals, then negative consequences fall to individual. Thus, the results are in lieu with the previous studies indicating that career planning differs for individuals with a diploma, or a graduation degree or a PG & above degree course owing to the reason that an individual plans his/her career according to the level of education one has (Goldhammer & Taylor, 1972; Hartung et al., 2015).

The study suggested that individuals with different education backgrounds vary in networking (Mean; diploma=3.93, graduate=4.03, PG & above=4.17) and career satisfaction owing to the reason that academic level encourages liaisons (Erickson, 2017). Also, the knowledge and training helps in developing networking skills and allows an individual to maximise the opportunities when they meet other individuals. This comes handy for individuals who are at a junior position and hopes to climb the career ladder (Elliott, 1999; Greenhow & Askari, 2017).

Education as such is empowering and helps in inculcating the ability and willingness to develop vital skills required for a particular job. The highly educated people keeps on learning continuously in order to grow rapidly (Ivlevs, 2015). Further, the results sufficed that significant mean differences in career satisfaction (diploma=4.01, graduate=4.07, PG & above=4.23) owing to differential education backgrounds. This could be because more education is related with better and additional skills leading to a better career i.e. greater pay for higher degree and hence, more satisfaction with one's career (Livingstone, 2018). This supported that those who were highly educated were getting higher earnings and were more satisfied with their career as well as personal life (Duffy et al., 2015; Noe et al., 2017). Further, an educated individual easily evaluates the differential work context connected with physical as well as psychological health that leads to decreased workforce turnover and increased productivity, thereby, motivating the employees to work in effective manner that leads to career development.

5.2.4. Accomplishment of Objective 4

The fourth objective of the current study aims to understand the relationship between IR and CE dimensions in Indian organizations and was examined by analyzing the hypotheses associated with it.

Hypothesis 4a assumed that expressed need for inclusion is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). The analysis revealed that expressed inclusion acts as a strong predictor of career planning (β=.107), networking (β=.119) and career satisfaction (β=.135) providing support to the hypothesis. The results depicted that individuals who expressed their behaviors in terms of inclusion predicted high performance and satisfaction (Manoharan et al., 2012; Raju et al., 2012). Also, when an individual seeks for somebody's help/opinion on professional or personal front (per say), then the next individual starts believing that the seeker considers the other as superior in terms of knowledge and learned self and would utilize all the capabilities vested in oneself to help the seeker. This further, creates a sense of belonging as well as a sense of security in the individual. This sheds light on the phenomenon of resonation to sharpen their career relevance, who receive the effective intervention from others when needs are being expressed (Agrawal et al., 2006; Bissell, 2010). In a cultural & collectivist setting like India, wherein we depend on one another looking forward to their advice and guidance by their own beliefs and orientations to work/career. This forms an essential part of counselling, wherein the counsellors provide deep knowledge of the ways of career world that are effective for career correlates (Griffin & Miller, 2007; Huhtala, 2017).

Additionally, the results provided partial support to hypothesis 4c i.e. expressed control predicts career planning (β=.115) and networking (β=.129) dimension of career engagement. Also, expressed control does not significantly impact career satisfaction (β=.037) in employees. Individual attitude is mainly described in terms of psychological tendency being expressed while evaluating some degree of favour or disfavour and thus, influencing others. According to Orpen (1994) and Park et al. (2012) the leadership skills (mainly determined by the need for control-expressed) influence the tactics and individual career planning and added significant variation to the career success. Also, it has a long-term perspective i.e. extending beyond the performance of employees and present satisfaction in employees. The leadership/control skills effects the plans of an individual and looks at career –effectiveness from numerous perspectives as something that is not exclusively associated with the attainment of socially-sanctioned ranks but also, with realizing the goals that are personally important to an individual (Shastri, 2008; Shastri et al., 2010; 2011). This is derived from the psychological success model of Hall and Foster (1977) that highlights how an individual plans his or her career and what influences in order to stand a good chance to succeed in normal circumstances. Further, the expressed need for control is often a part of soft-skills and incorporate various personality traits or individual abilities that can help an individual in all aspects of the career (Hartijasti, 2016; Lase & Hartijasti, 2018; Zhai et al., 2018). The individuals feels motivated and orchestrate the actions and behaviors of others while working with others in an organization consequently realising the networking attitude of an individual (Rothwell et al., 2015; Fasbender et al., 2019). Additionally, anyone, who is being driven with excessive need for control would behave like an autocrat and is not much welcomed in the present times when we are witnessing a new workforce, open-door policy and shared workspace etc. and the traditional way of working is ceased to exist. Further, an individual looks forward to somebody whom he thinks is capable of influencing others in an organization in order to learn and develop career paths focussing on accomplishing a particular role/ position (Schulz & Enslin, 2014; Guo et al. 2017).

The study also reflected that expressed affection significantly predicts the career engagement dimensions i.e. networking (β=.121) and career satisfaction (β=.137) and does not significantly impact career planning (β=.083) in the employees of Indian organizations. This could be further sufficed with the help of previous literature highlighting the importance of expressed behavior. The studies suggested that expressed emotion/behavior is a measure of family environment that is considered as a well replicated psychosocial behavior reflecting warmth towards one another (Hooley & Campbell, 2002). Numerous researchers established that an individual per say

managers need to have the skills, knowledge, will power and affection in order to affect the cooperation capabilities of individuals in the firm (Moutinho et al., 1997; Niemelä, 2004; Weigel et al, 2006). This is in support with the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), wherein individuals self-initiate behaviors to achieve the required outcome. Additionally, individual's cognition, affection and behavior are influenced by interacting with colleagues/peers and the positioned environment. This also influences an individual's self-concept, development of affective ties (formal & informal) and the career variables (like networking, management and satisfaction) at large (Scholtz et al., 2017). This provides support to the psychological needs as well as the social needs of the individual at workplace (Hetty van Emmerik et al., 2006).

Further, wanted inclusion (Beta coefficient; CP=.013, NW=.021, CS=.024), wanted control (Beta coefficient; CP=.014, NW=.059, CS=-.027), and wanted affection (Beta coefficient; CP=.051, NW=.079, CS=.013), results were found to be insignificant predictors of career engagement dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). This could be attributed to the findings reflected in the previous studies that established that wanted behavior is mainly associated with the negative dimensions of a personality. Also, Mahoney and Stasson (2005) in a study of 192 samples suggested that wanted needs are negatively associated with personality traits like agreeableness, conscientiousness and extraversion. The above mentioned triad of personality traits are present in somebody who would express and readily communicate or be social with others as the case of an effective team. Further, individuals with high wanted needs are more despots, as they try to impose themselves and do not prefer working with consensus (Furnham & Bachtiar, 2008). Additionally, Broonen (2015) suggested thast individuals having high wanted behavioral needs, tend to shield their behavior, have less exposure and are not able to focus on their professional careers. Furthermore, such type of individuals have a restricted sphere (limited network), are rather unstable and are not able to work in a team to achieve the organization's goal (Niemelä, 2018). DeRue & Morgeson (2007) established that wanted inclusion and wanted control needs are associated with career indecisiveness i.e. the individual with higher wanted inclusion and higher control needs are less comfortable in working with people/individual and prefer others to make important decisions. The study added that individuals that are high on wanted affection are negatively associated with putting people at ease and do not show much concern for the lives of others (personal or professional). These individuals are less equipped at building career networks and sustaining them that results in insignificant career behaviors. Lewis (2013) highlighted that individuals with higher wanted needs (inclusion, control

and affection) reflect less interpersonal networks at workplace and are not satisfied with their careers.

The interpersonal needs of an individual can help the professionals in predicting the personality of an individual. Though, all individuals have interpersonal needs, all the needs are not dominant (Siegel et al., 2010). Thus, if the needs are identified then organizations can motivate the individual by satisfying his/her dominant need and putting him in a role that is in sync with the dominant need. It would further, help the top management to find the Person-job fit. Previous studies suggested that careers were made and destroyed based on the wanted behaviors of the individuals (Hammer & Schnell, 2000; Behfar et al., 2008). The studies suggested that wanted behavior signifies a reduced interpersonal compatibility and is not useful in team setting i.e. resulting in internal conflicts, reduced trust and performance (Hempel et al., 2009).

5.2.5. Accomplishment of Objective 5

The fifth objective of the study was to understand the relationship between optimism and CE dimensions in Indian organizations and was examined by analyzing the hypotheses associated with it.

Hypothesis 5a asserted that personal optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). The results indicated that personal optimism significantly impacts some CE dimensions (Beta coefficient; CP=.093, NW=.125) in the Indian employees and is insignificant in case of CS (Beta coefficient =.051, p>.05). Also, the study reflected that personal optimism is perceived less frequently among Indian employees. Rationally, this may be due to the fact that distinct phases of life, the phase- specific expectancies seem to have an effect on the pursuits of an employee. Further, the individual, who believes in the general expectancy that world is full of possibilities as compared to the constraints and holds himself responsible for the things that happen or occur, in other words, often, is self- reinforcing and is more engaged with their goals (Andersson, 2001). This indicated that in the Indian context, positive outlook or outcome expectancies predispose individuals to look forward, incorporate a well-planned approach and get actively involved in career behaviors (Moutinho & Smith, 2000; Creed et al., 2002; Tolentino et al., 2014). A positive and mature attitude usually inclines an individual's outlook into the future of world-of-work; therefore, one needs to get acquainted with occupations and develop networks to gain insights in the career world. Simply stated, individuals need to find suitable work- related options which can reasonably foster or lead to more satisfactory work lives in the shorter run, if not in the longer run, further turning to better career

prospects and career adjustment owing to the uncertainties in life. The focus on cultivating a positive outlook is aimed at better maintenance of career vitality and hedging an individual's bet against downsizing and job loss (Lent et al., 2013).

Additionally, the present study is in lieu with the previous research conducted by Savickas et al. (2009) that suggested that optimism or positive attitude towards an outcome and the hope which reflects the concerns of an individual, and strongly impacts the career planning/ satisfaction and related behaviors. Further, Creed et al. (2006) highlighted that personal optimism is associated with career correlates like career planning, career satisfaction, career management and others. Also, the study supported that an optimistic explanatory style (Seligman et al., 1984) is associated with a wide array of constructive career and performance deliverables in fields like athletics, academia and other functional domains (Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 1986; Peterson et al., 1988). Additionally, enhancement in the positive attitude towards career results in better job satisfaction and career satisfaction (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Alkhateri et al., 2018), thus, signifying that potential changes in the optimism and career planning can subsequently lead to changes in career success (Spurk et al., 2014). Few researchers like Wolff and Moser (2009) and Fugate et al. (2004) highlighted that networking behavior is important for building up the employability and career resources of social capital. Networking behavior has been considered as one of the important factors affecting the career related social networks. Mcllveen et al. (2013) asserted that agentic traits like personal optimism affect the vocational identity of an individual, thus, generating career satisfaction. It suggested that an individual having optimum level of optimism considering the current environmental circumstances, not only predicts the career planning activities, but also, correlates with job satisfaction and career satisfaction (Lounsbury et al., 2007). Career counsellors have asserted the important role of positive outlook, skills and knowledge, current situation, goals and competencies in building career identities, planning strategies related to career goals as well as subjective career (Rottinghaus & Day, 2005).

Hypothesis 5b established that self-efficacy optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (Beta coefficient; CP=.237, NW=.215, CS=.117). The study contended that self- efficacy optimism, which characterizes an individual having belief in his capability, i.e. belief that an individual can successfully accomplish a goal (Ford, 1992; Moutinho & Vargas-Sanchez, 2018) influences the career engagement of Indian employees. This further subsumes the Scheier and Carver (1993) concept of optimism that indicates that the outcomes are matters of

direct apprehension to the individual. According to Schweizer and Koch (2001), self-efficacy optimism is considerably related to the performance in diverse situations resulting in motivation which leads to achievement orientation. Also, Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) indicated that the self-efficacy optimism of an individual powerfully determines individual performance and career satisfaction. The studies suggest that individuals, who have more self-efficacy optimism i.e. being positive towards one's superiority, could play a role in leadership disputes, arguments over rewards, and the development of cohesive teams (Park & Kim, 2013; Parker et al., 2015; Saleh et al., 2018). Chowdhury et al. (2002) found that greater levels of optimism about one's abilities leads to motivation and positively influences individual satisfaction and performance. This further develops the feelings of optimism in the entire team and affects the collective confidence acting as a team facilitator, thereby, building networks and relations (Kellett et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2014). Further, social cognitive career theory provides an explanatory base to the domain of career behaviors and highlights the role of self-efficacy optimism in career development literature (Lent et al., 1994). The theory supports that self- efficacy highly affects the learning processes and the career behaviors keeping in view that self- efficacy of an individual is a continuous learning process, which involves the competency and the positive expectancies about the environment as well as outcomes (Lent & Brown, 1996; Pandey & Gupta, 2008). Thus, following this approach, the individuals can be made more engaged with their career (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997).

Most of the empirical investigations of self-efficacy concern content dimensions of career behaviors, such as occupational or academic selection of an individual. Self-efficacy optimism has been found associated with career decision-making exhibiting higher level of vocational decision and is significantly related with the network size (Zeiss et al., 1999). Ozgen and Baron (2007) highlighted that the individual's self-efficacy is associated with general networking functions. According to Lyubomirsky et al. (2005), happy and optimistic people are more successful, healthier and further inclined to be engaged and to find a meaning in both work-related and personal capacity. Lastly, personal optimism has the potential to boost the capacity of an individual to cope with the challenges being presented and therefore, self- efficacy optimism comes into picture which helps to return into the zone of engagement (Pickerell, 2013).

5.2.6. Accomplishment of Objective 6

Objective 6 of the current study aims to understand the mediating role of optimism on the relationship of IR and CE in Indian organizations. Based on the above objective, the following hypothesis has been drawn which states that optimism mediates the relationship between IR and CE. The analysis indicated that interpersonal relationship predicts optimism (β =.373, $p<.05$) and indicated that optimism partially mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationship and career engagement (β value dropped from .437 to .391, $p<.05$), thereby, supporting the hypothesis. In 1991, Swanson and Tokar claimed interpersonal relationship as one of the career barriers and studied it with optimism around the realms of career behaviors. The individuals who face interpersonal relationship/ social support barriers are less optimistic than those who face less interpersonal relationship barriers in life. Further, more optimism is associated with more career exploration and planning (Ragini et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2017). Duffy et al. (2013) established that optimism or higher the positive outlook in life, the more an individual plans the course of his career. Lent (2013) reflected that social support can be encouraged as a universal approach to encourage more planning behavior in individuals that resulted in higher level of optimism. According to a study conducted by Lent et al. (2016) in a German setting career planning and optimism related to career can be inculcated via career coaching and networking. Hall (1971) suggested that realisation of one's career objective/ goal or CS (career satisfaction) indicates one's ability to efficiently act upon one's environment and the overall interpersonal functioning. Renee Barnett and Bradley (2007) recognised that individual career management behavior (including career planning, career strategy, skills development, networking and visibility) are positively associated to the positive outlook of an individual. Further, the previous literature suggested that the criterion measures of vocational identity, level of intelligence and optimism for the future is related with career behaviors (Petrone, 2000). Sundstrom et al. (2016) highlighted that agentic traits like optimism impacts the career behaviors (career strategy, career satisfaction etc.) of individuals. In 2015, Duffy et al. reflected that optimism or confidence in oneself led to more academic satisfaction in 412 undergraduates.

Santilli et al. (2017) analyzed a sample of 726 Italian and 533 Swiss young people, and established that hope and optimism (positive orientation) lead to more adaptability and career satisfaction. The findings highlighted the need of positive thinking to execute the plans in order to be satisfied with one’s career that further leads to engagement. Additionally, the results emphasize on the potential relations between cognition and human functioning (Mishra et al., 1999; Chauhan et al., 2005; Pathak et al., 2009). To add on, a positive view of the future requires

an optimistic evaluation of the current PE fit (person–environment fit), or a comparatively robust conviction that things would be better in future. Further, Biswas-Diener et al. (2016) reflected that in order to articulate and retain such beliefs the person is relying on a sense of conviction and personal capacity, as well as, on a constructive evaluation of the social context and its 'ability' to provide the essential support.

Furthermore, the results are in sync with the previous studies reflecting the mediating role of optimism with career variables (Rai & Singh, 2013; Spurk et al., 2015), self-efficacy and well-being (Karademas, 2006), transformational leadership and social support (Tims et al., 2011; Segerstrom et al., 2011). According to researchers (Ho et al., 2010; Souri, & Hasanirad, 2011; Fischer, 2018), optimism has been identified as a mediating variable of meaning in life and well-being. Moreover, the results suffice the literature that optimism has been significantly associated and mediates the relationship between educational environment, career adaptability and motivation in nursing undergraduates (Fang et al., 2018).

It is a well-established phenomenon that an organization is as good as the morale, skill and optimism of its workforce. The sheer grit and sense of belongingness along with optimism lead to exponential growth and financial gains of business organizations (Higgins et al., 2010; P. Nirmala et al., 2010). Hence, the importance of employee optimism cannot be denied as optimism as a perceived feature of organizational importance has been studied with performance (Ghosh et al., 2014; Rai et al., 2018), organizational commitment, job satisfaction (Kluemper *et al.*, 2009; Medlin & Faulk, 2011) and work engagement (Sanghi, 2002; Ugwu, 2012; Chaudhary et al., 2018). The individuals with a positive/optimistic approach and a mature attitude usually incline one's outlook into the future of world-of-work. Therefore, ignoring the positive aspect of work is inappropriate if one appreciate the meaning and effects of working (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008) along with the interpersonal relations that are being provided by the peers at workplace. In 2018, Umukoru and Okurame suggested that an individual enhances his/her career attributes by getting feedback in the critical areas from others, developing a sharper focus on the details of the business, learning specific skills and knowledge that are relevant to adaptive strategies, learning to be positive about the environment as well as one's capabilities and having a friendly ear with which to share frustrations as well as success (Ghosh et al., 2003; Ghosh, 2007).

5.2.7. Accomplishment of Objective 7

The objective 7 of the current research was to understand the mediating role of IR on the relationship of optimism and CE in Indian organizations. The analysis reflected that optimism significantly predicts CE (β=.391, $p<.05$) but fails to predict interpersonal relationship (β=.007). The analysis depicted insignificant results reflecting that the hypothesis stands rejected suggesting that IR does not mediate the relationship between optimism and CE. A large body of research has focused on human strengths and positive qualities that can be "measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (Luthans, 2002; Siengthai et al., 2008; Meena et al., 2018). According to Hobfoll (1998) and Antonovsky (1979), the general personal orientation toward the world leads individuals to perceive events as predictable and generally occurring in one's best interest. Also, Segerstrom et al. (2017) added that interpersonal relations are benefitted by the positive attitude/outlook of an individual, indicating that an optimist works on relationship and not the vice versa. The studies suggest that both interpersonal relations and optimism have been associated with numerous variables such as the well-being of individuals, quality of life, satisfaction etc (Bhal & Debnath, 2006; Bhal & Ansari, 2007). But according to a study conducted by Yamada (2011), relationships do not mediate the association between optimism and cognition variables. This is in lieu with the studies that suggested that it is necessary to promote the learning of the required social aptitudes, including expression of positive outlook to oneself and to others, in other to build sturdier and healthier interpersonal relationships that not only protect but also promote the well-being of an individual (Argyle, 1993; Bhal & Ansari, 2002). Further, interpersonal relationships lost the statistical support in a study conducted by Ruvalcaba-Romero et al. (2017) to assess the mediating role of interpersonal relationships between positive emotions/attitude and life satisfaction. This added to the new paradigm of psychology suggesting that individuals having positive manifestations and agentic traits like optimism are more satisfied and have strong relationships. Brissette et al. (2002) suggested that the individuals with a positive outlook or positive future expectancy have more interpersonal relations i.e. social support and not the other way round indicating that optimistic individuals are more accepted by others and their relationships are longer in duration.

5.2.8. Accomplishment of Objective 8

The eighth objective of the current study is to understand the moderating role of demographic variables (gender, age and educational level) on the relationship of optimism and CE in Indian organizations.

Hypothesis 8a assumed that gender moderates the relationship of optimism and CE. The results depicted that gender has a significant moderation effect on the optimism- career engagement relationship (*optimismXgender*; β=.331, p<.01). The study is supported by previous research of Danziger and Eden (2007) that highlighted that gender-related dissimilarities in an individual's objectives and career attainment are important social issues that can have an effect on someone's career. Also, traditional gender roles attached to an individual can explain the basis of the gender gap in career success (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987). The roles associated with males and females affect the career behaviors, i.e. males are seen as more beneficial and optimistic about their future career plans as compared to females who are considered to be more communal and have less agentic traits (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Further, researchers have found that agentic roles (earlier known as personality variables, includes independence, optimism, activity (Abele, 2003; Lee et al., 2011; Vries et al., 2017) have a significant association with career correlates (Marongiu & Ekehammar, 1999). Gender has been identified as an important person input factor within the framework of SCCT theory and has shown different pathways concerning the career decision-making for females and males.

The present study supports the claims made by Jacobsen et al. *(*2014) that males are more optimistic as compared to females and tend to forecast errors in the economic downturn situations. When a lot of information is not handy, males remain more optimistic than females. Furthermore, males are more optimistic as compared to females in various scenarios namely the state of the economy (Chaney et al., 1998), relationship survival and marriage (Assad et al., 2007; Srivastava et al., 2006) and others. Likewise, Sharot et al. (2011) suggested that males are more optimistic and they update their beliefs selectively based on the information available as compared to females about the present, future, personal as well as general economic conditions or uncertainties, which, in turn, affects the career behaviors. Further, studies also claim that gender-related roles as well as the societal background of the countries; in this case, India can also affect the outcome expectancies which indirectly affects the career- related variables (Dhameja, 2002). Notably, women have a tendency to make career decisions and keeping in mind the work-life balance owing to the responsibilities of females and males in family or obligation towards one's family and society as presumed by the society. The gender-roles are determined in lieu with the societal obligations rather than solely to seek success as a career woman, a corporate leader or an entrepreneur (Demaiter & Adams, 2009; Brown & McClure, 2009; Litzky & Greenhaus, 2007). Another study done by Rosenfeld (2009) on the theme of career planning precisely established that several of the women, who were interviewed, never planned to rise to

the level they had in their career. As career planning is a continuous effort and it involves periodic rounds of scanning the environmental, goal setting, self-assessment, gap analysis, planning and performing, and therefore, warrants an individual to have positive outcome expectancies with a hint of pessimism such that s/he should remain in touch with the real scenario (Ghosh & Das, 2004; Rodts & Lamb, 2008).

Additionally, Patton et al. (2004) concluded that optimism is recommended to perform an important role in motivating the career developmental expectations and goals in encouraging the students to remain engaged in career- related activities, despite the adversities. In the case of males, a propensity to anticipate good things will contribute to the expectancies and will relate to one's own efforts, hence, striving for better career outcomes making him feel that he controls the uncertainties. For females, the positive expectation directly and positively affects the setting of career goals. Thus, for males, it appears that the belief that outcomes are within one's control, affects the optimism and career goals relationship, but it is insignificant for females. Research evidence suggests that a women's career progress is more complex than that of their counterpart because of the barriers they face (Broadbridge & Fielden, 2015). Further, women in India have not been able to optimally utilize the fundamental right conferred upon them owing to the presence of several prejudices, socio-economic obstacles and covert discrimination (Sharma, 1982). This is also supported by a research study done by Dataquest-Jobs Ahead (2003), which found that females tend to drop out as they rise to senior levels and constitute only 19 percent of the workforce in India (Sharma & Sharma, 2015). Therefore, a cognitive developmental view suggests that younger adults have clear-cut black and white view of the situation and they tend to approach problems more dualistically. It established that those with high levels of optimism revealed higher levels of career planning and exploration, were clearer about their career decisions and had more career-related goals (Creed et al., 2009).

Additionally, gender-role ideology has an effect on the process of planning as well as the level of engagement at large (Pati & Kumar, 2011; Zhou et al., 2013) as males takes the responsibilities of the breadwinner and females the home-makers in a country like India and the attitude towards one's gender role affects the career behaviors like planning etc. (Adachi, 2006). Females have evolved from the roles of nurturing and rearing kids to create their spaces on earth and universe. In Indian economy, the expectation and reality paradigm of a career-focused women moves from skill or expertise to mere fulfilment of social norms/beliefs and getting preoccupied with social-stigmas. Career planning takes a role reversal as a girl has to become a student, wife, mother, an in-law, employee, performer at the same time and have to fight out the battle of transformations

(Hormonal or physical). Also, there is a transformational role reversal among the males and females, where more and more participation has been seen among the females in each and every field, considering that gender equality has become the moral cry of the nation (Corell, 2001; Seth et al., 2005; 2006). Consequently, the results might be different with the advent of the twenty-second century.

Hypothesis 8b assumed that age will moderate the relationship of optimism and CE. The results supported the moderating role of age in optimism-CE relationship (o*ptimismXage*; β=.271, $p<.01$). Research on age-related patterns has remained a fundamentally interesting topic for the psychologists that have some trait like features reflecting the individual personality differences (Donnellen & Lucas, 2008; Anusic et al., 2011). Past studies have focussed upon adolescence, childhood and older adults which reflected inconsistent outcomes (Chen at al., 2016; Luo et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2017). Also, researchers (Palgi et al., 2011) indicated that age is unrelated to optimism in case of China. You et al. (2009) revealed that older Americans are more optimistic as compared to older Chinese; thus, indicating significant impact of age fashions on optimism. Further, the results supported that in Indian context, the middle-aged employees have higher level of optimism owing to the growth orientation along with the shift in the psychological adjustments, into a maintenance-related and prevention of loss orientation which plays a dominant part during the old age (Palgi & Shmotkin, 2010). Also, various motivational reasons (overall desire to feel happy owing to the achievement orientation and stability of a situation) have been attributed to contribute to this high level of optimism in the individuals (Chang & Sanna, 2001). Further, the dialectical nature of the expectancy model (Atkinson, 1964) is comparatively interdependent in the case of younger adult employees as compared to the middle-age and old age employees. The results indicated that old individuals have less optimism in comparison to the middle- age individuals.

The results of the study suggests that as people age, the time-based variables becomes less significant in predicting optimism and are less vital in acting as a predictor of satisfaction with life. Burns and Seligman (1989) the aging individuals have an ability of maintaining their self-views in the changing times or environment. Additionally, the study supports that the sense of reality develops referring to the chronological age and the differential role either of theoretical or methodological nature of differential change in the age which affects the optimism. This further, to an extent, hinder the level of satisfaction in individuals (Shaie & Willis, 2010; Narayana et al., 2014). In the old age, the learned dependency owing to various disabilities or diseases is a phenomenon of progressive or biological aging, which often, makes the picture

gloomy (Cartenson et al., 2006). Additionally, the results strongly support the psychological theory of aging or the life span development theory which reflects that development occurs throughout the life and the balance of trajectories mainly focuses upon the changes in lifespan which focuses on the growth and decline as the important feature of life (Dixon & Baltes, 1986). The theory is based on the paradigm that individuals have a sense of being actively engaged in shaping their lives. The changes in the life span are continuously affected by the stability (a feature reflected by the middle age), variations owing to the future or economic instability, complexity owing to the biological or the cultural dimensions and thus, signifying the impact of aging in the process domains such as emotions, self, memory and others (Baltes et al., 2006). Additionally, individuals follow the developmental paths that are coherent in terms of ascertaining and meritoriously pursuing long-term goals and, when necessary, disengaging from goals that are no longer attainable. Even in a situation of negative outcome or being confronted with setbacks, discontents, and failures, humans have a remarkable capacity to stay on a chosen path and sustain a sense of personal agency.

In 2011, Bertolino et al. established that age moderated the association between the agentic variables and the career variables inclusive of motivation, as well as the training behavioral intentions. The study supported the age-moderated relationship between proactive personality traits like optimism, self-efficacy and the career related outcomes. A possible explanation for the current findings is that agentic traits like optimism may lead to different manifestations depending on the individual's age and may affect the work outcomes as well as the career stages (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Further, the researchers suggested that employee's motivation or positive expectancy could be associated with the different factors depending on the stage of life. Additionally, they highlighted that the old aged employees are less threatened by the failures, and are on a plateau stage because career achievement plays a smaller role in their lives and are more oriented towards job maintenance as compared to the young and middle-aged employees. Adding to this, Ebner et al. (2006) suggested that young and middle-aged individuals are more concerned with optimization or growth and are more proactive in life. In 1978, Wright and Hamilton suggested that the old aged individuals go through a "grinding down stage" where they come to terms with what is available to them and lessen their expectancy/expectations for satisfying work or career at large. This highlighted that individuals have different perceptions about time play and the critical role it plays in goal setting (Zacher & Griffin, 2015).

Further, Hypothesis 8c analyzed the moderating role of educational level in the relationship of optimism and CE. The results depicted that education level significantly moderates the relationship of optimism and career engagement (*optimismXeducation*, β=.231, p<.01). This could be explained with the previous literature that suggested that by means of constant learning & developing the required skillset, an individual tends to view things differently as in recognizing, creating, and using unexpected events as opportunities. Education directly aims at the self-efficacy, satisfaction and well-being of an individual that leads to diverse career behaviors. Additionally, education helps in skill promotion, developing more optimistic, resilient, and better attuned individuals, who are well organised for upheavals in their future occupational life. The process of leaning helps in viewing new opportunities as attainable that plays a major role in the association of self-efficacy and career engagement (Mitchell et al., 1999; Praskova et al., 2013). Further, studies reflected that individuals who have intended happenstance skills are actively involved in exploring their career and feels more optimistic/confident about the career decision-making process that leads to career certainty (Konstam & Lehmann, 2011; Boyle et al., 2018). Also, SCCT i.e. Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent et al., 1994) postulated that agentic traits like optimism/confidence and background or circumstantial influences plays a prominent role in building learning experiences, skills, self-efficacy, and career behaviors (e.g. career planning, career satisfaction etc.). Also, the level of education and right guidance help an individual to assess his/her abilities, skills i.e. how much competence one has in their career development (Tanlamai & Soongswang, 2006; Sanghi 2009; Pati & Kumar, 2010; 11). Also, the positive thinking and being optimistic about the outcomes can help an individual behave actively towards their career development and would lead to the state of career engagement (Skorikov, 2007; Kim et al., 2014).

Heckhausen et al. (2010) added that educational attainment (i.e. social capital) is a driving force underpinning goal-striving processes. This is in line with the expectancy-based theories, that suggested that the individual behavior is best anticipated when the specificity of the expectancy matches that of the behavior (Rasmussen, et al., 2006). Savickas' (2012) further added that career behaviors incorporate effective planning, decision making, confidence/optimism, risk solving, and network building that leads to overall well-being of the individual. Rasmussen et al. recommended that an individual with more positive ideas of the self, the world, and the future (i.e., optimistic or confident) should benefit by being more able to engage in new activities. Consistent with this, they found that optimism was associated with engagement in an individual. Likewise, Aspinwall and Richter (1999) established that individuals with higher

level of education have more favourable beliefs (greater optimism and greater sense of control), get engaged with one's career, and put more effort to the tasks than individuals with less favourable beliefs. This could be because an individual with higher level of education rigorously explores one's own interests, values, experiences, and examines the external environment such as occupations, training options, specific employers and gathers information related to the career/progress.

5.3.Chapter Summary

The current chapter presented a detailed discussion on the results obtained in the study. The findings contribute to the extant literature on the variables i.e. interpersonal relationships, employee optimism and career engagement. Based on the available literature, eight objectives were drawn in order to understand the nature of the variables under study.

Objective one of the study focussed upon realising the role played by demographic variables in IR (interpersonal relationships). The results depicted that gender plays a significant role in expressed inclusion, wanted inclusion and expressed affection. Also, the dimensions i.e. expressed control, wanted control and wanted affection did not show significant results. Further, the role of age in interpersonal relationship dimensions was analyzed. Expressed inclusion, wanted inclusion, expressed control and expressed affection tend to vary with the age of employees. The results revealed that no significant difference existed for the other dimensions with respect to the age of employees working in the organizations. Additionally, the educational level reflected significant difference between the employees having diploma and the employees having a PG degree and above for expressed inclusion and expressed affection. Moreover, significant difference was observed between employees having graduate degree and a PG degree & above for wanted control and no significant difference was reported in the remaining dimensions of interpersonal relationship.

The second objective dealt with analyzing the role of attitudinal/demographic factors i.e. gender age and education in employee optimism. The dimensions of optimism namely personal optimism and self-efficacy optimism were found significantly related with the employee demographics.

The third objective was to comprehend the level of career engagement with respect to the demographic factors i.e. gender, age and education. The results depicted that all the dimensions of career engagement i.e. career planning, networking and career satisfaction have significant association with the demographics.

The fourth objective of the study aims to understand the relationship between IR and CE. The results depicted that expressed inclusion (EI) acts as a significant predictor of the dimensions of CE (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). Further, expressed control and affection predicted the dimension of career engagement i.e. EC (CP & networking) and EA (networking & CS) and not associated with all the dimensions of CE. While the other dimensions of IR i.e. wanted inclusion, wanted control and wanted affection were not reflected as the significant predictors of CE (career planning, networking, career satisfaction).

The fifth objective of the study aims to analyze the relationship between optimism and CE. The results established that personal optimism only predicts career planning and networking in the employees working in Indian organizations, whereas self-efficacy predicts all the dimensions of career engagement.

Objective six of the current study aims to understand the mediating role of optimism on the relationship of IR and CE. The results reflected that optimism acts as a mediating variable and significantly explained the career engagement of employees that is being predicted by IR with the help of mediating variable i.e. optimism. The results offered a partial support to the objective.

The seventh objective focussed on analyzing the mediating role of IR in optimism-career engagement relationship. Hierarchical regression technique by using Baron and Kenny approach (1986) was utilized to test the mediating effect of IR (mediating variable) in optimism-career engagement relationship. The results indicated that though optimism predicts CE, but the results were insignificant while depicting the direct effect of optimism on IR. Further, mediation analysis could not be performed owing to the insignificant results.

Objective eighth of the study was to assess the moderating role of demographics namely gender, age and education in Optimism-CE relationship in Indian context. The results supported the moderating role of gender, age and education in the Optimism-CE relationship in Indian context. Mean CE was higher for female/optimism participants compared to the male/optimism participants i.e. as the gender changes from female to male the strength of relationship between optimism and career engagement also increases. However, it was stronger for male employees at the high level of optimism in comparison to the female employees. This can be explained with the reason that gender-roles are determined in lieu with the societal obligations rather than solely to seek success as a career woman, a corporate leader or an entrepreneur. Also, the relationship between optimism and career engagement is stronger for middle-aged as compared to the old-aged and young-age employees. Further, results depicted that the relationship between optimism and career engagement is stronger for employees having high education level than employees

having low education level. Hence, the management is suggested to promote healthy workplace relations along with positive attitude by means of training programs. Further, support should be rendered from the management, as well as, from the colleagues in understanding the diverse career behaviors. As evident from the results this would create a win-win situation for both the employees as well as the organization.

Chapter 6

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

6.1. Introduction

The current chapter provides an outline of the research work conducted in the study by discussing major results. The implications of outcomes from analysis has also been provided. They aim to ensure its usage by both academicians and practitioners. Additionally, the limitations of the current study have also been provided by the researcher. Finally, future research directions are also recommended.

6.2. Conclusion

The research focused upon studying career engagement as a function of employee optimism and interpersonal relationship in Indian sub-continent. The study underwent an in-depth analysis of research article and the selected search criteria, excludes reports, masters and doctoral dissertations, textbooks and the conference papers with some top articles that shed light on the statement of problem. Based upon the extensive literature the objectives of the current study has been formulated.

The first objective of the study was to analyze the role of IR (interpersonal relationship) with respect to demographics (gender, age and educational level) in Indian organizations. The results suggested that demographics play a vital role. Also, interpersonal relations play a crucial role in the organization as the organizations take benefit of the synergies of the employees working together as a team. There are many reasons that sufficed the significant role being played by interpersonal relations at workplace, i.e. bad interpersonal relations among the employees result in poor performance, more conflicts and organizations may lose its valuable human resource. This indicated that positive interpersonal relations at workplace have an advantageous effect on individual as well as the organization. Also, the employees have expressed and wanted behavior that was evident while working in a team. This suggested that organizations need to foster healthy relations to maintain an effective workplace communication and to avoid the toxic environment that leads to unpleasant work experience.

The second objective focused upon assessing the role of optimism with respect to demographics (gender, age and educational level) in Indian organizations. The results suggested that

demographics play a vital role. The results indicated that personal as well as self-efficacy optimism plays an important role owing to the positive outlook towards the future. The results reflected that the employees consider the organization as a developmental challenge that they are engaged with and will master in an optimistic way. The analysis depicted that self-efficacy optimism (being positive about ones' capacity and abilities) and personal optimism (having positive outlook towards the future considering that the environment plays an important role) helps an organization in assessing the psychological strengths of the employees indicating better person-environment fit.

Further, the third objective focused on the role of career engagement of employees in Indian organizations. The results suggested that demographics play a vital role. The results established that an individual's job should be in sync with the defined career paths/ behaviors in order to succeed in life. This suggests that individuals, who plan and work in accordance with their career goals, result in higher networking as well increased satisfaction levels. The study also suggested that organizations need to facilitate proper environment i.e. help building the skills, provide vocational training etc. to help individual in adding to the overall career engagement.

The fourth objective of the study was to assess the relationship between IR and CE in Indian setting. The results analyzed the predicting nature of IR dimensions in CE dimensions i.e. career planning, networking and career satisfaction. The study highlighted that expressed inclusion acts as a strong predictor of career planning, networking and career satisfaction. The results depicted that individuals, who expressed their behaviors in terms of inclusion, exhibited high performance and satisfaction. Also, expressed control predicts career planning and networking whereas expressed affection significantly predicts the networking and career satisfaction. Further, wanted inclusion, wanted control and wanted affection were found to be insignificant predictors of career engagement dimensions (career planning, networking and career satisfaction). The interpersonal needs of an individual can help the professionals in predicting the personality of an individual. Thus, if the needs are identified then organizations can motivate the individual by satisfying his/her dominant need and putting him in a role that is in sync with the dominant need.

The fifth objective of the study focused upon the predicting nature of optimism in CE dimensions in Indian setting. The results reflected that though personal optimism is significantly related with career planning, networking and career satisfaction, it is perceived less frequently among Indian employees. Further, self-efficacy optimism is positively related to CE dimensions (career

planning, networking and career satisfaction). The study established that self- efficacy optimism, which characterizes an individual having belief in his capability i.e. belief that an individual can successfully accomplish a goal is likely to influence the career engagement of Indian employees.

The objective six of the current study investigated the mediating role of optimism in the relationship of IR and CE in Indian setting by using hierarchical mediation technique. The result indicated the case of partial mediation. The findings highlighted the need of positive thinking to execute the plans in order to be satisfied with one's career that further leads to engagement. The results suggested that an individual enhances his/her career attributes by getting feedback in the critical areas from others, developing a sharper focus on the details of the business, learning specific skills and knowledge that are relevant to adaptive strategies, learning to be positive about the environment as well as one's capabilities and having a friendly ear with which to share frustrations as well as successes.

The seventh objective of the study focused on the mediating role of IR in optimism-CE relationship in Indian setting. The analysis depicted insignificant results reflecting that the hypothesis stands rejected. The studies suggest that both interpersonal relations and optimism have been associated with numerous variables but relationships do not mediate the association between optimism and cognition variables.

Lastly, eighth objective analyzed the moderating role of gender, age and education on optimism-career engagement relationship. The results suggested that gender, age and education moderates the relationship. Further, females are more optimistic as compared to their counterparts about the career correlates but the relationship gets reversed after they get married and as they progress in life. Furthermore, middle-aged employees have more positive outlook towards their career and feel more engaged as compared to the young and old-aged employees. Also, individuals get optimistic about their career and gets satisfied depending on the level of education they have. This suggested that education along with age of employees moderated the above relationship in Indian setting.

Thus, the study significantly adds to the existing literature on engagement by addressing that a continuous process of engagement is considerably related to the positive thinking or attitude towards the future. The study revealed that intra-individual and social cognitive factors like optimism especially the cognitions i.e. self-efficacy optimism tend to affect the career- behaviors

that incline the people to actively engage and encourage the engagement in task and career. Also, in a global era where the world is facing harsh employment challenges and a more intricate labour market, it is vital to identify the critical contextual factors that are meaningful to the workforce of a specific region. The current study is the first step, responding to this strategic quest by providing viable suggestions for organizations such that it becomes practical in shaping the career behaviors.

6.3. Implications

6.3.1. Implications for Academicians

- The study sheds light on having or developing a positive expectation related to the outcome and helps adolescents or students in framing their future. The role of positive thinking and cultivating a positive attitude towards the future can help the students and adolescents to plan for their professional as well as personal lives.
- It significantly contributes to the SCCT theory as well as Life Span Development theory and establishes it in the Indian context where there is a lacuna of literature.
- Academicians can prepare the course or training guidelines for positive thinking or developing interpersonal relationships in public sector organizations.
- There are definitional problems intrinsic with the word "career"; the term is used in a different way even within the community of career development and is frequently considered identical with one's present job or work role by the public.
- This research has discussed different techniques along with their advantages and disadvantages, which work as a source of learning in the selection of an appropriate technique by the researcher.
- The relationship between interpersonal relationship, optimism and career engagement has been identified which can be used as a base for further study in this field.
- The validated model may be helpful for academicians to develop different models in the different areas of interest.
- The questionnaire used in the present study can be used to carry out an empirical study related to interpersonal relationship issues in different industries.
- The assessment of issues related to interpersonal relationships, optimism and career engagement can be used as a teaching support for the development of case studies.

6.3.2. Implications for Practitioners

- There is a need to understand the importance of positive thinking and to what level it affects the course of their work, the workplace behavior and in turn their career, which should be demonstrated by the employer as well.
- Personal optimism and self-efficacy optimism should be cultivated in the employees by providing training and development to promote the competence and skill-building events which would help in enhancing the productivity resulting in better understanding of the scenario at workplace.
- The study might be helpful to organization behavior and human resource practitioners in preparing the guidelines for positive thinking related to the outcome, which can be executed in the different organizations.
- Practitioners could use self- efficacy optimism as it is of supreme importance for increasing the engagement level of Indian managers.
- This study recommends that organizations should aid and include the role of optimism as well as social networks to enable employee's getting more engaged with their careers by challenging their capacity which doesn't make them feel underutilized or over-utilized and leads to engagement.
- Managers can use personal optimism as it helps to shield the employees from powerful forces within the organization and is closely related to life satisfaction and negatively related to depression or stress.
- The organizations need to continuously provide a facilitative environment, which ultimately results in various behavioral outcomes such as higher performance, morale, fewer turnover intentions. This could be done by implementing new strategies or policies by conducting sessions for the junior and senior organizational members to help them comprehend the welfares of having or developing a positive outlook, which leads to transformations, career engagement and helps in developing learning capabilities.
- It is concluded that life span developments owing to constant aging which is of supreme importance to comprehend the significance of optimism in one's life, especially in the context of Indian employees where the economy has been growing exponentially and is set to new environmental changes.
- Further, decision-makers must follow a clear line of thought in order to channelize the practice of positive thinking. Additionally, organizations can work on intervention of the positive psychology as it helps in augmenting the well-being and prosperity of the employees.

- While developing interventions or programs that focus on career orientation in individuals or employees of an organization, an important component is to include methods to increase the participants' levels of optimism.
- Practitioners might give importance to the mechanisms and procedures in order to facilitate engagement among the Indian managers. It is, for instance, plausible that self-regulatory and goal-directed behavior – is enabled when individuals are engaged in their career because they have the motivation (want to do) and have the energy (can do) to commence any actions which helps them in performing better as well as increasing their chances for a better career development.
- The organization might be committed to make the work itself more engaged and meaningful for employees, which can be a major catalyst for optimism in the workplace.
- The study suggests that it is also important to promote engagement at the workplace which would be a redemptive experience, giving control and choice to the employee – but then again individuals have inculcated the right attitudes and skillset, and engage in a constant process of personal career development.
- Human Resource (HR) and organization development (OD) professionals in organizations can improve individual and organizational performance by enhancing the optimism and inclusivity of employees.
- Employees who are already engaged in positive emotions, and want to raise their optimism level further. It is the responsibility of supervisors, trainers, Human Resource managers, organizational development professionals, coaches, and leaders to ensure that people in the organization, who are experiencing lower levels of optimism and inclusion, should be encouraged to attend such positive interventions. In other words, they have to persuade them to get benefit from such efforts.
- Practitioners can make the employees understand the importance of positive thinking and to what level it affects the course of the career, which should be demonstrated by the employer as well.
- From the findings of the study, practitioners can prepare the guidelines for developing a culture of positive thinking, which can be executed in the manufacturing organizations as well as in other sectors.
- Both men and women need to be able to communicate effectively and develop meaningful relationships with others in the organization. Knowledge of why some individuals are more likely to engage in networking behaviors than others may represent valuable information for selection processes and training programs.

- Employers cannot make significantly different policies for men and women. They need to recognize that the outcomes of policy changes will have different effects on males and females. In order to improve satisfaction with work, co-workers, supervisor satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, and policy satisfaction, employers need to determine those aspects of the work environment and home environment that generate role conflict, role ambiguity, and WFC (work family conflict).
- The identification of differences across the genders and the role of person inputs of optimism and self-esteem contributes to the conceptual understanding of career development. It also aids in the development of career development programs, and provides a guide for the career development assessment and counselling process.

6.4. Limitations and Future Research

The current study is associated with some limitations that holds a great value to become interesting future researches.

- The study has been conducted in a culturally dominated nation (India) which stands second in terms of population and hence, can be studied in different countries. Also, a comparative study can be undertaken as the case of a developed economy and developing economy and how it impacts the optimistic viewpoint in career driven individuals.
- The use of a cross-sectional design in the study excludes any causal inference. The use of a longitudinal design in order to clarify the causal relationships between the variables under study can be done in future research. Also, female respondents were less in the present study therefore, future studies could take the sample in consideration and examine the relationship among variables.
- Thirdly, the study used a homogenous sample from manufacturing sector organizations. Future research can collect the data heterogeneously i.e. from other sectors such as banking service and retail, across different groups also. Also, the future studies should seek to explore the role to understand the career anchors/behaviors and examine the reverse relationship between the variables under study.
- The future studies could consider other variables like pessimism, personality traits, positive and negative affect, career and its correlates, well- being, spirituality, happiness, healthier lifestyle, emotional intelligence, employee commitment and others. Additionally, a number of areas need to be further examined for example: how does optimism impact the job performance and the role of mediating (self-esteem, trust, resilience and others) and moderating variables (income, religion, hierarchical level etc.)? Related to this, the

importance of positive outlook in defining an individual's career-related activities and career course needs to be studied. It is likely that optimism research will substantiate a productive opportunity to facilitate a better understanding of the career development outlook.

- In Indian economy, the expectation and reality paradigm of a career focused women moves from skill or expertize to mere fulfilment of social norms/ beliefs and getting preoccupied with social-stigmas. Also, there has been a transformational reversal in the roles being played by females and males where more and more participation has been seen on their front in the millenials. Thus, future studies can be undertaken as the results for millenials might differ owing to the changes in perception and thought process.

6.5. Chapter Summary

The current chapter discussed the detailed conclusion, implications and limitations of the current study. The study has given implications for both the academicians and the practitioners to be incorporated. Based on the limitations the future research directions have been highlighted to be incorporated in the future work of academicians.

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ANNEXURE-1
Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee

Department of Management Studies

Dear Participants,

Greetings of the day!

Career is the new buzz word these days. It defines an individual's journey through the different phases of life. Career engagement is the new realm of research in which the research fraternity has taken keen interest in the recent years. As it symbolises the cognitive and emotional association to one's career i.e. where one is focussed and s/he derives pleasure from the life activities. Thus, the organizations are emphasising on the concept more and more these days owing to the reality that it takes into account the skills, capacity of an individual. Further, in order to assess the career engagement of an individual/employee one needs to take the capacity component i.e. the skills, supportive colleagues/ interpersonal relationships, positive outlooks or optimism towards the future. In this study we aim to investigate the impact of interpersonal relationship and optimism on career engagement.

In this direction, the attached research instrument is a tool that helps us understand your perceptions about the organizational policies and practices and organizational leadership. Your response will add value to our research as well as to the literature. We therefore, request your response to the survey. Your response will enhance the reliability of the findings of this research. In return for your participation, we undertake to respect strictly your anonymity by using your responses only as statistical data for the research. For further queries kindly contact bhartiteena17@gmail.com.

Thank you for your helpful response.

Your Sincerely

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Part A- DEMOGRAPHIC SECTION

1. Name: _____

2. Age (in yrs): _____

3. Gender: _____

4. Marital Status: _____

5. Name of the organization where currently employed: _____

6. Current Organization is: ☐ Private ☐ Public

7. Current Job Hierarchy: ☐ Junior Level ☐ Middle Level ☐ Senior Level

8. Experience with current organization: _____

9. Total Experience in years: _____

10. Current Salary (per annum): _____

11. Education: ☐ Diploma ☐ Graduation ☐ PG & above

12. Place: _____

Part B

Please rate your responses in front of the items on the basis of 7 point Likert scale as indicated below for the constructs. Kindly respond keeping in mind

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP (FIRO-B Scale; Schutz, 1958)

No.	Items	1) USUALLY	2) OFTEN	(3) SOMETIMES	4) NEUTRAL	(5) OCCASIONALLY	(6) RARELY	(7) NEVER
1	I try to be with people at workplace.							
2	I let other people decide what to do at workplace.							
3	I let other people decide what to do at workplace.							
4	I try to have close relationships with people at workplace.							
5	I tend to join social organizations when I have an opportunity at workplace.							
6	I let other people strongly influence my actions at workplace.							
7	I try to be included in informal social activities at workplace.							
8	I try to have close personal relationships with people at workplace.							
9	I try to include other people in my plans at workplace.							
10	I let other people control my actions at workplace.							

11	I try to have people around me at workplace.							
12	I try to get close and personal with people at workplace.							
13	When people are doing things together, I tend to join them at workplace.							
14	I am easily led by people at workplace.							
15	I try to avoid being alone at workplace.							
16	I try to participate in group activities at workplace.							
		(1) MOST PEOPLE	**(2) MANY PEOPLE**	**(3) SOME PEOPLE**	**(4) CAN'T SAY**	**(5) FEW PEOPLE**	**(6) ONE OR TWO**	**(7) NOBODY**
17	I try to be friendly to people at workplace.							
18	I let other people decide what I do at workplace.							
19	My personal relationships with people are cold and distant at workplace.							
20	I let other people take charge of things at workplace.							
21	I try to have close relationships with people at workplace.							
22	I let other people strongly influence my actions at workplace.							
23	I try to get close and personal with people at workplace.							
24	I let other people control my actions at workplace.							
25	I act cool and distant with people at workplace.							
26	I am easily led by people at workplace.							
27	I try to have close, personal relationship with people at workplace.							
28	I like people to invite me to things at workplace.							
29	I like people to act close and personal with me at workplace.							
30	I try to influence strongly the actions of other people at workplace.							
31	I like people to invite me to join in their activities at workplace.							
32	I like people to act close towards me at workplace.							
33	I try to take charge of things when I am with people at workplace.							
34	I like people to include me in their activities at workplace.							
35	I like people to act cool and distant towards me at workplace.							
36	I try to have other people do things the way I want them done at workplace.							

37	I like people to ask me to participate in their discussions at workplace.							
38	I like people to act friendly towards me at workplace.							
39	I like people to invite me to participate in their activities at workplace.							
40	I like people to act distant towards me at workplace.							
		(1) USUALLY	**2) OFTEN**	**(3) SOMETIMES**	**4) NEUTRAL**	**(5) OCCASIONALLY**	**(6) RARELY**	**(7) NEVER**
41	I try to be the dominant person when I am with people at workplace.							
42	I like people to invite me to things at workplace.							
43	I like people to act close towards me at workplace.							
44	I try to have other people do things I want done at workplace.							
45	I like people to invite me to join in their activities at workplace.							
46	I like people to act cool and distant towards me at workplace.							
47	I try to influence strongly other people's action at workplace.							
48	I like people to include me in their activities at workplace.							
49	I like people to act close and personal with me at workplace.							
50	I try to take charge of things when I am with people at workplace.							
51	I like people to invite me to participate in their activities at workplace.							
52	I like people to act distant towards me at workplace.							
53	I try to have other people do things the way I want them done at workplace.							
54	I take charge of things when I am with people at workplace.							

OPTIMISM (Gavrilov-Jerkovic *et al*., 2014)

No.	Item	(1) Strongly Disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Somewhat Disagree	(4) Neither disagree nor agree	(5) Somewhat Agree	(6) Agree	(7) Strongly Agree
1	I am facing my future in an optimistic way at workplace.							
2	I can think of something positive in the future at workplace.							
3	I do not worry about my future at workplace.							
4	It often seems to me that everything is bright in future at workplace.							
5	For each problem I will find a solution at workplace.							
6	In difficult situations I will find a way at workplace.							
7	I master difficult problems at workplace.							
8	I can master difficulties at workplace.							
9	I always find a solution to a problem at workplace.							

CAREER ENGAGEMENT (Hirschi et al., 2014)

No.	Items	(1) Strongly Disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Somewhat Disagree	(4) Neither disagree nor agree	(5) Somewhat Agree	(6) Agree	(7) Strongly Agree
1	I actively sought to design my professional future.							
2	I undertook things to achieve the career goals.							
3	I cared for the development of my career.							
4	I developed plans and goals for my future career.							
5	I sincerely thought about personal values, interests, abilities and weaknesses.							
6	I collected information about employers, professional development opportunities or the job market in my desired area.							
7	I established or maintained contacts with people who can help me professionally.							
8	I voluntarily participated in further education, training or other events to support my career.							
9	I assumed duties or positions that will help me progress professionally.							

PUBLICATIONS

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