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Dedication

I dedicate this work to my wife, Stephanie, who has stood by and with me during 34 years of marriage. Without her support, love, and encouragement this dissertation would have never seen the light of day, especially at this late stage of life's journey. I also dedicate this work to my Father and Mother, Billy and Patricia Freeze, who instilled within me a love of learning, an appreciation of hard work, and the desire to always strive to do what's right, especially in service to God and to others.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

MANUSCRIPT 1

No Figures.

MANUSCRIPT 2

MANUSCRIPT 3

Abstract

Hope has been found to be a strong predictor of employee well-being. However, until now, no scale existed to measure whether leaders were activating and operationalizing hope within employees. The Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL) scale addresses that void. Using the framework of Snyder's established Hope Theory and Yukl's Taxonomy of Leadership Behaviors, this study constructed a conceptualization of HCL, developed and validated the HCL measure, and demonstrated HCL as a resource in the Job Demands-Resources model. First, HCL was defined as behaviors that activate and nurture hope through setting task-oriented goals, navigating change-oriented pathways, and cultivating relations-oriented agency. Second, a sample of 340 teachers was utilized to validate the measure. Confirmatory factor analysis confirmed an a priori first-order structure consisting of nine items. Convergent and discriminate validity was confirmed through structural equation modeling (SEM) utilizing hope, collective hope, and trust. Third, HCL was tested using a sample of 501 individuals within the Job Demands-Resources model to determine if HCL served as a job resource. SEM results indicated that HCL did serve as a job resource through positive correlations with collective hope and workplace well-being while reducing the effects of job demands (i.e., exhaustion, abusive supervision) leading to burnout. Consequently, practitioners now have a valid measure built on established theory for use in determining if leaders are fostering hope within employees through goals, pathways, and agency.

Keywords: Hope-Centered Leadership, Hope, Collective Hope, Burnout, Snyder, Yukl, Leadership Taxonomy, Hope Theory, Goals, Pathways, Agency

INTRODUCTION

The publication of leadership resources appears driven by the perpetual yearning from consumers for leadership insights leading to positive organizational improvements. For millennia, from Confucius to Plato to Machiavelli to current leadership authors, people have sought good leadership ideas (Silva, 2016). In the last 100 years, the evolution of leadership studies has broadly covered five main approaches: trait, behavioral, contingency, relational, and transformational (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Some of the more popular leadership theories such as Trait, Behavioral, Situational, Path-Goal, LMX, Transactional, and Transformational have been studied for decades (Badshah 2012; Northouse, 2022). However, the number of new (i.e., post-transformational) leadership theories and concepts has continued to proliferate. Mango (2018) documented 66 different leadership theories and then added his own theory: Ethical and Effective Leadership.

Each concept and theory usually comes with its own nuanced leadership definition which contributed to Bennis (1959) calling leadership studies "hazy and confounding" (p. 259) and nearly forty years later estimating there were hundreds of leadership definitions (cf. Silva, 2016). Northouse (2022) proffered a definition that incorporated two widely referenced aspects of leadership - influence and goal attainment - which have received broad support: "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 6). While leadership theories, concepts, and definitions continue to capture consumers' attention, a consensus

has coalesced around at least one fact: leadership matters (e.g., Bartsch et al., 2020; Goodall et al., 2011; Nohria & Khurana, 2010).

Yet, even though leadership matters, there is an unstated perception that what has been taught as good leadership practices over the past 100 years plus has not consistently produced tangible fruit. For example, in Gallup's polling of leadership and management, as of September 2022 only 19 percent of respondents claimed their leader was engaging them in a way which led to higher motivation and job performance; as few as 24 percent of respondents said they were included in setting goals; barely 21 percent trusted their leadership; and approximately 50 percent of mangers were looking for new job opportunities (Gallup, 2022). Leadership, in general, has been found to have a direct association with employee and organizational well-being and performance (Ciarrochi et al, 2015; van Dierendonck et al., 2004; Lee & Gallagher, 2018; Park et al, 2004; Peterson & Byron, 2008; Reichard et al., 2013; Skakon et al., 2010; Snyder et al, 2000) with specific leadership behaviors (e.g., supportiveness, communication, involvement, feedback, recognition) having stronger effects on employee mental states and actions (Fernandez, 2008; van Dierendonck et al., 2004). There is a negative side to leadership as well, with abusive leadership behaviors having been shown to lead to negative relationships with and attitudes about the leader resulting in counterproductive behavior, poor performance, and poor well-being (Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Schilling, 2009).

The link between leadership behavior and increased well-being – in all its manifestations – posits a number of questions: How do leaders influence employees toward successful goal attainment? Are there specific frameworks for operationalizing

leadership behaviors that can predict an employee's well-being? Is it possible to measure how well a leader is nurturing employees towards goal achievement and well-being? Should leadership behaviors be seen as job resources for, or as demands upon, employees? These issues and questions helped set the direction for this dissertation.

Research Problem

Researchers have demonstrated that hope, as envisioned and defined by Snyder (1991a, 1991b; 1994, 2002), is a leading predictor of well-being (Lee & Gallagher, 2018). Snyder (1991b) defined hope a cognitive process for achieving goals by reciprocally incorporating both pathways (routes to the goals) and agency (energy to pursue the goals). In other words, hope is the ability to identify pathways towards goal attainment, ascertain potential hurdles, and sustain the motivation to press forward when problems arise (Snyder, 2000). High hope individuals were found to subjectively assess their goal attainment, set challenging goals, and utilize failure or feedback as motivation (Snyder 1991a, 1991b, 2002). However, compared to his substantial body of work, Snyder had little to say about hope and leadership beyond the hypothesis that high-hope individuals should be high-hope leaders. Further, his assessment of leadership behaviors was limited to concluding that leaders would best help employees by utilizing a transformational leadership approach using Posner and Kouzes' (1990) leadership process (Snyder & Shorey, 2004). Consequently, little information is known regarding the leadership behaviors needed to foster employee hope.

Much is known, though, about the broad spectrum of leadership behaviors (see Bowerman & van Wart; 2014; Northouse, 2022; Stogdill, 1950). Yukl (2012) developed

a parsimonious leadership taxonomy centered on identifying relevant effective leadership behaviors. He reduced the behaviors into four meta-categories: task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external leadership of which the first three have been widely used in leadership research (Borgmann et al., 2016; Yukl et al., 2019). For this study, all four meta-categories were considered for their connection to hope and in the development of Hope-Centered Leadership.

The primary research questions were: (1) what leadership behaviors would constitute Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL)? (2) is HCL measurable in an organizational context? (3) Is HCL a job resource that can influence employee mental states and engagement? These questions guided the three papers that comprise the dissertation: Paper one conceptualizes HCL by drawing on Hope Theory and Yukl's Leadership Taxonomy. Paper two develops and tests a scale to measure HCL. Paper three tests the HCL framework as a resource within the Job Demands-Resources model.

Progression of Inquiry

Throughout all three papers the central theme is that HCL does not attempt to replace existing or leading leadership theories. Rather, HCL is a concept that defines leadership behaviors that can activate social and psychological determinants of hope. These behaviors address goals, pathways, and agencies which are the interdependent elements of hope. These leadership behaviors are goal-inspiring, pathway-generating, and agency-sustaining and HCL is hypothesized to lead to increased well-being and job performance over and above the variance of existing models. HCL offers opportunities to

identify and put into practice the behaviors which can then serve as resources for employees and organizations.

In the first paper, Snyder's Hope Theory (1991a) and Yukl's Leadership Taxonomy (2012) were utilized to develop HCL. Specifically, the focus was on how the two theories were intertwined resulting in the conceptualization of HCL. The first paper began by defining HCL as leadership behaviors that nurtured hope through the setting of goals, identification of pathways, and sustainability of agency. HCL takes a future-leaning cognitive approach to activating hope through goal-setting, pathway-generating, and agency-inspiring behaviors. These behaviors were then viewed through Yukl's task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external-oriented leadership behaviors. Conceptually, HCL offers a mechanism by which leaders can be trained in activating hope in employees as well as measuring how well leaders are doing in that endeavor.

The second paper utilized the HCL concept and data collected from 340 teachers to develop and validate a measure for examining an employee's assessment of their leader as hope centered. An item generation process was conducted and shared with a small group of individuals and experts to ascertain content validity through congruent item testing. This procedure resulted in identifying a 12-item measure which was used in the data collection process. Survey respondents taught school in a southwestern state and evaluated their principal as the primary leader in their organization through an online survey process. Empirical tests for structural, divergent, and convergent validity were conducted as well as a test for reliability. Confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the initial 12-item measure was not a good model fit. A post-hoc review resulted in the

measure being reduced to 9-items which provided a better model fit. This new model confirmed that HCL was a first-order factor with high internal reliability. Convergent and divergent correlational analysis and model fit indices indicted that HCL confirmed the tested hypotheses for expected positive or negative relationships with other measures.

The third paper used data collected from 501 employees across, public, private, non-profit, and law enforcement sectors to demonstrate how HCL served as a resource for employees in an organization. The Job Demands-Resources model was utilized to theorize how HCL works through employee mental states to influence work well-being. The theorized paths include a positive relationship with collective hope and a negative relationship with exhaustion. As a resource, HCL would need to activate the resources of collective hope and protect employees from experiencing the maladaptive state of exhaustion which may be the result of abusive supervision.

In summary, this dissertation establishes a line of inquiry into HCL. It responds to the call for systemic research on leadership and hope by establishing a concept that reveals leadership behaviors that are hope centered. Empirical evidence supports the conceptual framing of HCL and the theoretical argument that HCL is a job resource.

MANUSCRIPT 1

Toward A Conceptualization of Hope-Centered Leadership

This manuscript was prepared for submission to the peer-reviewed
Springer Studies on Populism, Identity Politics and Social Justice and is the first of three
manuscripts prepared for a journal-ready doctoral dissertation.

Abstract

Purpose. This study begins with a definition and conceptualization of Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL). The conceptualization builds upon Snyder's Hope Theory and Yukl's Taxonomy of Leadership Behaviors to establish a framework for how leaders can activate hope within employees.

Design/methodological/approach. Interweaving Hope Theory with its emphasis on goals, pathways, and agency, and Leadership Taxonomy of effective leadership behaviors, the author argues that leadership leading to increased well-being is embodied through embracing behaviors centered on setting task-oriented goals, generating change-oriented pathways, and inspiring relations-oriented agency.

Findings. HCL contributes to Hope Theory and leadership research by identifying behaviors that leaders can employ to activate hope within employees. HCL addresses the gap between Hope Theory and the activation of hope by establishing a framework which can be empirically tested in future research.

Practical implications. HCL offers practitioners seeking to improve employee well-being, job performance, job satisfaction, and reduce burnout a framework for ascertaining a leader's success in meeting those organizational and societal goals.

Originality/value. Until now, a robust treatment of the integration of hope and leadership had yet to be examined. The integration of Hope Theory with the leadership taxonomy distinguishes HCL from other positive psychological constructs relying on self-efficacy, optimism, and resilience. This paper provides the foundation upon which HCL can be measured and applied.

Keywords. Hope, Hope Theory, Leadership, Goals, Pathways, Agency, Taxonomy, Hope-Centered Leadership

Toward A Conceptualization of Hope-Centered Leadership

John Gardner (1968) penned the statement, "The first and last task of a leader is to keep hope alive" (p. 134). Keeping hope alive during work-place challenges such as stress, exhaustion, decreased motivation, waning job performance, and lower job satisfaction is paramount to effective leadership. Because hope is one of the best predictors of well-being among employees (Lee & Gallagher, 2018; Mouton & Montijo, 2018), it is imperative that leaders understand how to activate hope within employees. Gardner's statement has three clear implications for leadership and hope. First, it implies hope exists in the workplace and is capable of being developed. Second, it implies hope has demonstrable value for people and organizations. Finally, it implies that leadership behaviors are consequential for hope and well-being.

A modicum of evidence relates to the first two implications. Peterson and Luthans (2003), drawing upon Snyder et al.'s work (1991a), noted the relevance of hope for increased certainty around goals and acceptance of challenges associated with challenging goals. Youssef and Luthans (2007) noted that hope positively impacted job performance, work happiness, and organizational commitment. Passmore et al. (2020) demonstrated that leaders who nurtured hope within their organization helped mitigate the negative psychological effects of burnout. Snyder theorized that individuals were often elevated as leaders due to their ability to instill hope in others (Snyder & Shorey, 2004). These studies assert that hope as a mental state is a fabric of organizational life that shapes individual and group functioning.

Gardner's third assertion remains understudied and requires attention. Hope research has not empirically identified leadership practices that activate hope through employee goals, pathways, and agencies. Given the impact of hope on human functioning (Snyder, 1994; 2002) and on mitigating negative work outcomes (Pharris et al., 2022; Yavas et al., 2013; Yoon et al., 2021), extending hope research into the leadership domain has the potential to structure how leaders engage people in pursuing organizational goals (Wandeler et al., 2016). This paper develops the concept of Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL) for the purpose of examining how leaders might approach building, activating, and sustaining hope in employees. HCL is derived from integrating Snyder's science of hope (1991a, 1994, 2002) with Yukl's (2012) taxonomy of leadership behaviors.

Conceptualization of Hope-Centered Leadership

The conceptualization of HCL begins with a definition before presenting a nuanced description of the concept. HCL draws on Snyder's (2002) hope theory and Yukl's (2012) taxonomy of leadership behaviors. HCL is defined as behaviors that activate and nurture hope through setting task-oriented goals, navigating change-oriented pathways, and cultivating relations-oriented agency. This definition has two interdependent components: (1) cognitive processes involved in hope beliefs, and (2) leadership behaviors that can activate these processes. Future-oriented cognitive processes actively shape one's understanding of how goals, pathways, and agency work interdependently in forming the belief that future results can be better than negative past results.

The Meaning of Hope

Throughout history, philosophers have attempted to give meaning to life by defining, discussing, and debating phenomena (see van den Heuvel, 2020). While the definitions, meanings, and necessities of hope have widely varied, history has shown that people generally believe hope exists. What is less known in the field of leadership is how hope can be supported and activated by individuals in leadership roles. A useful hope-centered leadership framework depends on a scientific understanding of hope.

While not the first to scientifically explain hope, Snyder's hope definition has been widely accepted, studied, and advanced. His research led him to hypothesize that hope was a bidimensional construct focused on goal attainment that emphasized both agentic and pathway thinking (Snyder et al., 1991a, 1991b, 1996). Snyder stated that hope was, first, a result of increased agency during goal pursuit, which itself was increased through determination based on past events and applied to present and future experiences. Second, hope was influenced by the ability to generate multiple viable pathways while pursuing goals. His hypothesis led to his defining hope as, "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder et al, 1991b, p. 287). He also referred to hope as a cognitive state (Snyder et al., 1991a). In common language, Snyder (1994) defined hope as "the sum of the mental willpower and waypower that you have for your goals" (p. 5). Common to all these definitions is the idea that goals are successfully achieved through the reciprocal and additive expression of pathways and agency – both are necessary and not synonymous. Not only must

individuals set a goal, but they must find the motivation (i.e., willpower) and take actions (i.e., waypower) in goal pursuit.

Snyder et al. (2000a) emphasized that individuals could have high agency towards accomplishing goals, but still fail because no pathways were available. Conversely, a goal may have multiple available pathways, yet individuals could lack agency to successfully pursue their goal. He hypothesized that high-hope individuals would subjectively assess their agency and pathways in pursuing goals while low-hope individuals would typically assess their goal attainment as having low probability leading to negative emotions regarding the goal (Snyder et al., 2000a). Snyder et al. (1996) postulated that while hope levels may fluctuate depending on current events in a person's life (i.e., state or state-like), over time an individuals' level of hope was relatively stable (i.e., trait or trait-like). Consequently, higher-hope people cognitively fashioned multiple and challenging goals and identified multiple pathways across domains, tasks, and situations. High hope sustained agency and pathways while low hope decreased agency and pathways (Snyder et al., 1991b, 1996, 2006).

Snyder et al. (1991a; 2001, 2002a) explicitly placed hope theory within the broader framework of expectancy-valued motivation theories similar to theories of self-efficacy and optimism. Snyder et al. (1991, 1996) incorporated aspects of Lee, Locke, and Latham's (1989) work on goal-setting theory and Heppner's (1982) Problem-Solving Inventory to help distinguish hope from other psychological constructs. For Snyder (1994, 2002), a goal may be value neutral, but it must be important or highly valued (i.e., high expectation outcome) for maintaining sustained motivation. However, the ties with

expectancy and other underlying theories were often assumed in his writings and rarely deconstructed. Also, as Mouton and Montijo (2018) argued, Snyder and his colleagues (see 1991a, 199b, 1997, 2000b, 2002, 2005) rarely articulated specific behaviors necessary for fostering hope (see Snyder et al., 2006 as a possible exception) beyond the need to break large goals into subgoals, identify multiple pathways, and maintain motivations – concepts fundamental for development of HCL.

Hope: A Distinct Cognitive Belief from Other Related Positive Constructs

HCL is grounded in hope theory which is itself grounded in the field of positive psychology (Snyder et al., 2002b). While other positive psychological constructs may help leaders, research by Snyder and others have repeatedly demonstrated moderate to strong convergent and divergent validity between hope and the constructs of optimism, self-efficacy, problem solving, and self-esteem (Snyder et al., 1991a, 1991b; Snyder, 2002). While their research did not address resilience as a separate construct from hope, others have (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2016; Munoz et al., 2020; Pharris et al., 2022). Research demonstrated the constructs of hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism are all determinants of behavior leading to increased well-being (Heinitz et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2019; Lopez et al., 2000; Magaletta & Oliver, 1999; Reichard et al., 2013; Snyder et al., 2000a). Although consistent with evidence, these concepts differ in their cognitive structures and activation function, an important consideration for HCL.

Important to the conceptualization of HCL is an understanding of the cognitive process of hope, particularly in comparison with other positive psychology constructs. Thus, HCL is comprised of behaviors that influence cognitive processes based on goals,

pathways, and agency. Drawing upon previous work by Erikson (1964), Stotland (1969), Gottschalk (1974), Breznitz (1983), Staats (1989), and Staats and Stassen (1985), who all spoke to the idea that hope was linked to the confident expectations of achieving desired wishes or dreams, Snyder et al. (2005) concluded that the cognitive elements of hope are malleable and shaped by information from the environment. McCormick (2001) proposed that a leader's behavior can activate the cognitive processes in people.

Hope is developed and sustained through a cognitive thought process which influences emotions but not conversely (Snyder, 1995). Hope rests not on self-efficacy's self-confidence or optimism's outward influences or resiliency's elasticity properties. Instead, hope requires an individual to internally perceive, intentionally identify, and purposefully nurture both the pathways (i.e., different ways to reach a desired goal) and the agency (i.e., motivation to pursue the goal) even in the face of significant challenges and barriers (Snyder, 2002). As Snyder et al. (2000b) stated, agency and pathways are additive and iterative where both constructs work together to the mutual benefit of the other during goal pursuit. This emphasis on both agency and pathways as part of the cognitive process helps to distinguish hope from other psychological constructs aligned to leadership behaviors.

Bandura (1977) defined self-efficacy as a belief in one's ability to perform a specific task (i.e., efficacy expectancy) while pursuing a goal (Bandura, 2012). Self-efficacy, like hope, underscores a cognitive appraisal process, but the appraisal is specific to one's ability to achieve a goal in a situation-specific context (Rand, 2018). Hope is based on an appraisal of one's agency and perceived pathways required for achieving a

desired future state. Maddux (2002) claimed that self-efficacy was not a skill or an intention to act in a certain manner, but a belief that a person could perform an action that might lead to a desired outcome. He further stated that self-efficacy was dose dependent on experiences and time. Hope is not dose and time dependent. It depends on how goals, pathways, and agency shape cognitive believes. Therefore, hope, rather than self-efficacy alone, offers leaders a cognitive process for ascertaining useful behaviors for goal-directed pursuits leading to increased well-being and performance (Rand, 2018; Snyder et al., 1991a).

Scheier and Carver (1985) viewed optimism as an inherent part of a person's personality with a generalized expectancy that people were behaviorally motivated to pursue valued goals. They viewed optimism as a belief that more good things than bad things will happen to a person, especially during goal pursuit, but the outcome has less to do with personal control over a situation and more to do with external influences (Carver & Scheier, 2002; Rand, 2018). As an expectancy-based theory, people who judged their goal pursuit efforts favorably would continually provide the necessary effort to achieve their goal. However, if they judged their goal pursuit efforts unfavorably, they would reduce their effort or discontinue their goal pursuit altogether. Consequently, optimism places a heavy emphasis on outcome expectancies (Scheier & Carver, 1985). In contrast, Snyder (2002) stated high-hope individuals pursued goals with equal emphasis on pathways and motivation – two constructs critical to leadership skill development (Mumford et al., 2017). Snyder also contrasted hope with Seligman's (1991) version of optimism which stated optimistic individuals distanced themselves from negative outcomes (Snyder et al, 1991b; Snyder, 2002). In an environment dependent on cognitive

goal setting and goal-pursuing behaviors, the work of Bryant and Cvengros (2004), who found that hope was a better predictor of attaining specific goals than optimism, is illuminating.

Rutter (1987) suggested that resilience was a concept that shifted attention away from a position of vulnerability leading to stress and adversity and toward an ability to successfully cope during difficult situations. Luthans (2002) defined resilience in the workplace using similar adaptive terminology – addressing both positive and negative changes – without the specific emphasis on trauma. He claimed that employees could bounce back from challenging or changing workplace demands if they were provided the necessary resources. Resilience has been viewed by many as a trait, a process, or an outcome (Southwick et al., 2014), making the study of resilience somewhat elusive given its moving referent. Hope is different from resilience because it has been narrowly defined, empirically supported, and cross-situationally consistent (Snyder, 2002). While some researchers have sought to link leadership behaviors and resilience, the lack of understanding on how resilience is cognitively developed or applied by leaders is troubling (Southwick et al., 2014). As a positive psychological construct, hope is a strength that can be cognitively nurtured and developed and is different from other psychological constructs which rely more on the impulses of personal beliefs, wishes, or emotions. Consequently, hope provides a strong foundation for cognitively reasoning through workplace challenges. Identifying corresponding hope-centered behaviors is vital for leaders to effectively help employees achieve goals.

Yukl's Taxonomy and Hope Centered Leadership Behaviors

Fundamentally, HCL places an emphasis on the behaviors a leader should undertake to set goals, navigate pathways, and cultivate employee motivation. These ideas are usually implicit, at best, in leadership definitions which commonly address the concept of one person using influence on two or more people to achieve a common goal (Bowerman & van Wart, 2014; Northouse, 2022; Stogdill, 1950). Bowerman and van Wart (2014) identified leadership behaviors as the first observable actions a leader takes toward followers regardless of a preferred leadership style. One resource available to leaders in identifying relevant leadership behaviors is Yukl's (2012) leadership taxonomy.

Yukl's (2012) leadership taxonomy consists of four behavioral-related meta-categories: task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external-oriented leadership (see Table 1.1). *Task-oriented* behaviors enhance employee effectiveness and work assignments through planning, clarifying, monitoring, and problem-solving activities related to setting and achieving goals which corresponds with Snyder's emphasis on pursuing challenging goals. *Relations-oriented* behaviors seek to improve human resources and experiences through supporting, developing, recognizing, and empowering employees in a manner corresponding with Snyder's emphasis on cultivating agency. *Change-oriented* behaviors focus on increasing innovation and facilitating learning through advocating and envisioning change, which is similar to Snyder's emphasis on identifying pathways, solving problems, and overcoming barriers. Finally, *external-oriented leadership* behaviors are outward focusing items such as

17

networking, external monitoring, and favorably representing the organization which individually encompass one of the three aspects of Snyder's hope theory.

Table 1.1

Yukl's Taxonomy of Leadership Behaviors Integrated with Hope Theory

Leadership Behaviors	Goal	Pathway	Agency
Task-oriented			
Planning	x		
Clarifying	x		
Monitoring	x		
Problem-Solving	x		
Relations-oriented			x
Supporting			x
Developing			x
Recognizing			x
Empowering			x
Change-oriented			
Advocating Change		x	
Envisioning Change		x	
Encouraging Innovation		x	
Facilitating Learning		x	
External			
Networking		x	
External Monitoring	x		
Representing			x

Note. Adapted from Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *26*(4), 66-85.

Yukl's taxonomy helps to identify HCL behaviors that align with the motivational theories and goal setting theories that explain the formation of hope. Helland and Winston (2005) discussed how hopeful leaders could combine leadership and motivation theories to raise followers' hope through achieving valued goals, inspiring shared goals, collaborating in goal setting, and providing helpful resources. HCL interweaves Yukl's taxonomy with theories underlining the development of goal setting, agency, and pathways in cognitive-based HCL.

Goal-Setting Behaviors. Goals are the anchors or cornerstones for which people find purpose and motivation (Snyder, 2002). In organizations, individuals who hold formal leadership positions are charged with either setting or implementing goals. A leader's effectiveness in increasing performance and minimizing negative outcomes is tied to the employees' value assessment of the goal. Higher valued goals typically provide higher levels of motivation (Vroom et al., 2005). Locke and Latham (2019) demonstrated that setting challenging goals valued by employees led to increased performance and were a better predictor of improved performance than solely using extrinsic rewards such as money. In describing goal attainment, Snyder (2002) stated that high-hope individuals set achievement, challenging, and multiple goals while low-hope individuals preferred avoidant, easy, or near impossible goals. High hope individuals used their goals to increase their performance levels while low hope people had little confidence in achieving their goals, had a foreboding sense of failure, and exhibited negative emotions and negative self-talk during goal pursuit (Snyder et al., 1998).

Yukl's (2012) task-oriented category with its emphasis on planning, clarifying, monitoring, and problem-solving aligns with setting goals that enhance hope. Each task-oriented behavior can activate an individual's goal-oriented cognitive process. *Planning* behaviors include setting goals and identifying multiple types of resources necessary for goal achievement. Conversely, negative planning behaviors lead to impractical, unworkable, or avoidant-type goals which are often under resourced (i.e., demands) and drain people's hope (Yukl, 2012). *Clarifying* behaviors center around communicating the goals, policies, procedures, and expectations necessary for successful goal achievement while non-clarifying behaviors result in confusing, ambiguous, and directionless (cf. Locke & Latham, 2019) actions which drain hope (Yukl, 2012).

Yukl (2012) claimed that to ensure goals were being met, leaders must engage in some level of employee monitoring. *Monitoring* allows a leader to ascertain goal pursuit progress, adjust goals or pathways depending on observations and feedback, and glean information useful for encouraging, praising, or directing employees (Yukl, 2012). Snyder's hope theory incorporates feedback to enhance the goal achievement process (Snyder, 1994; 2005). He found that high-hope individuals used feedback in a positive way to overcome barriers or, if necessary, adjusted the goal or identified a new goal. These practices elevated high hope individuals over low-hope individuals and allowed them to better cope with challenges (Snyder et al., 1999; 2000a). As such, monitoring is useful as a goal, pathway, and agency leadership behavior.

Yukl (2012) identified the need for *problem solving* related to task-oriented goal achievement when work disruptions or emergency situations potentially impeded goal

pursuit. Identifying organizational problems and quickly providing direction was deemed by Yukl (2012) to be examples of task-oriented actions. He also acknowledged that depending on the severity of the problem, additional change-oriented actions might be necessary (Yukl, 2012). Snyder and Shorey (2004) and Yukl (2012) agree that when leaders effectively solve challenges associated with goals, they help employees learn how to address challenges themselves as well as the actions necessary to successfully pursue goals.

HCL involves the pursuit of goals that a person values which are clear and directed toward achievement, are challenging, and can be monitored with useful feedback. Planning, clarifying, monitoring, and problem-solving behaviors around goals are only as effective as a leader's ability to execute and communicate those tasks in ways that resonate with a person. HCL directed toward goals would engage employees in planning which goals bring value, clarifying task expectations to make progress, monitoring performance with useful feedback, problem solving inevitable routine issues, and recognizing goal achievement contributions to the person and organization.

Agency-Inspiring Behaviors. Hope theory describes agency as the inner energy a person channels and puts toward the pursuit of a future goal (Little et al., 2006; Snyder, 2002). Agency, from a Self-Determination Theory (SDT) perspective, is found in the autonomous motivation and action of people (Deci et al., 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Agency is volitional, self-determined behavior that is derived from a person's internal resources (Ryan & Deci, 2000). These resources are activated when the psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Autonomy is activated when people engage in behaviors of their own free will and choice. In organizations, employees display autonomy when they take ownership of their work and use feedback to improve their performance. Competence is activated when an employee receives rewards or positive feedback that enhances their performance through knowledge, skills, and abilities and results in intrinsically accepting organizational goals. Relatedness is activated when employees feel respect, support, and belonging from others in their work environment and are encouraged to learn and be creative (Deci et al., 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000). High hope people draw on their agency deriving from the satisfaction of psychological needs. Low hope people tend to suffer from limited agency based on beliefs that the environment overwhelms their internal capacity (Snyder et al., 1991a; Wandeler & Bundick, 2011).

Yukl's (2012) taxonomy aligns with SDT in its emphasis on supporting agency through relations-oriented behaviors. *Supporting* behaviors address the need to build mutual relationships that help fulfill a person's needs and allow for individuals to share their feelings. The stress of many jobs can result in diminished well-being and through supportive behaviors a leader can demonstrate goal value, develop mutual trust, and decrease organizational conflict (Yukl, 2012). Beginning with Snyder's early work, trust was understood to be derived from relational and social support (Snyder, 1989; Shorey et al., 2002) and has been effective in enhancing leader and follower relationships (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Pizer & Haetel, 2006). Further, supportive behaviors contribute to high-hope individuals assessing both positive and negative emotions in a manner which increases their agency while low-hope people focus on failures creating self-doubt and reducing agency (Snyder et al, 2006).

Developing behaviors encompass a range of activities from offering career advice to providing training opportunities to aligning personal with organizational goals (Yukl, 2012). Hope Theory promotes similar behaviors with its emphasis on developing skills important for addressing problems and on mentoring others which contributes to success and encourages employees to think hopefully (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Shorey et al., 2002; Snyder et al, 2006; Snyder & Shorey, 2004). *Recognizing* behaviors addresses the primary issue of praise and opportunities to provide tangible rewards (Yukl, 2012). When tasks are satisfying and in line with personal goals, rewards are provided when goals are achieved, and when the work environment is safe and supportive, employee motivation is enhanced and, by extension, so is their hope (Helland & Winston, 2005). *Empowering* behaviors encourage employees to be creative and develop solutions to problems. From a leadership lens, empowering is often equated to employees participating in the decision-making process (Yukl, 2012). Hope theory supports the empowerment and encouragement of individuals through which high-hope individuals directly participate and find motivation in setting and achieving challenging goals with the acquisition of skills necessary to overcome barriers (Peterson & Luthans, 2003; Snyder et al., 2002).

HCL acknowledges the contribution that leadership behavior makes to an individual's well-being and performance through the cultivation of agency (Deci et al., 2017). Supporting, developing, recognizing, and empowering employees is fundamental to a leader's ability to support the agency inherent in people (Deci et al., 2017; Yukl, 2012). Thus, HCL involves hope-centered behaviors that create safe and supportive environments to express opinions, feelings, and feedback, provide equal opportunities to learn and deploy new job-related skills, favorably acknowledge contributions, provide

valued rewards, demonstrate respect, delegate responsibilities, provide coaching, reduce stress, express confidence, and provide developmental and advancement opportunities.

Pathway-Generating Behaviors. As a psychotherapist, Snyder et al. (2000b) suggested that teaching individuals the necessity of identifying pathways and cultivating motivation was a viable means for increasing a person's hopefulness. Snyder (1989; Snyder et al., 1991a) was influenced by Heppner and Peterson's (1982) problem-solving inventory which drew upon Rotter's (1978) hypothesis that "the most important of all problem-solving attitudes is the expectancy that one can affect or control, at least in part, what happens to oneself" (p. 4). Heppner and Peterson (1982) identified three predominate factors for solving problems: problem-solving confidence, approach-avoidance style, and personal control. Problem-solving confidence addresses the confidence and conviction a person has in confronting multiple challenges. Approach-avoidance style speaks to whether a person is inclined to embrace or avoid challenges. Personal control addresses a person's self-control over their behaviors when solving problems (Heppner et al., 2004). These factors are incorporated in Snyder's hope theory with his similar emphasis on building confidence through identifying multiple pathways and overcoming barriers, setting achievement goals, and being self-controlled and not driven by emotions (Snyder, 1994, 2002, 2006). Developing cognitive problem-solving skills, such as those identified by Heppner and Peterson (1982) and emphasized by Snyder (1991a), and understanding how to deploy such skills, as elaborated by Mumford et al. (2000), were found to be two of the most important predictors of effective leadership in organizations. These findings support the framework of and necessity for HCL.

24

In Yukl's (2012) third grouping of leadership behaviors, which he called change-oriented, he addressed the need for advocating change, envisioning change, encouraging innovation, and facilitating collective learning. *Advocating Change* behaviors deal with the need to recognize impediments to achieving a goal due to a threat or opportunity. A leader's ability to communicate the need to address barriers, especially if organizational change is required, increases the likelihood that employees will embrace a new goal likely resulting in increased motivation and effective problem solving (Yukl, 2012). Hope theory directly addresses advocating for change in its pathway's component. High-hope individuals are more likely to respond favorably to changes related to their job responsibilities arising from organizational challenges if they have the skill set and freedom to solve problems (Strauss et al., 2015).

Envisioning Change addresses how leaders share their vision in an inspiring and motivating way that directly ties to the employee's beliefs, desires, and goals and increases confidence of success (Yukl, 2012). Similarly, hope theory has been theorized as a means of inspiring followers (Helland & Winston, 2005), building confidence (Rand, 2009), and averting negative outcomes (Snyder et al., 2000a). *Encouraging Innovation* behaviors directly address creative thinking stemming from the leader's willingness to create a safe culture and demonstrating there are not negative consequences for innovative or abstract thinking (Yukl, 2012). Hope theory correlates well with the emphasis on encouraging creative thinking (Rego et al., 2014) through its demonstration that high-hope individuals are more creative in developing multiple pathways to goals and overcoming barriers in a manner that does not derail motivation (Adams et al., 2015; Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Snyder, 2002).

Facilitating Collective Learning behaviors are about improving employees and organizations through the development of new skills or discovery of new knowledge. Failure is an option because from failures and mistakes learning takes place which can lead to increased performance (Yukl, 2012). Rego et al. (2014) suggested that leaders intent on developing employee hope would succeed by encouraging employees to undertake learning opportunities. Snyder (2005) specifically linked learning activities to the development of hope and showed that high-hope individuals benefited from learning opportunities where mistakes were an expected part of the learning process. In other words, high-hope individuals do not try to protect themselves by shying away from potential failure (Snyder et al., 1997). Further, research has found that high-hope individuals prefer pursuing learning goals (e.g., mastery of subject) over performance goals (e.g., demonstration of ability) (Peterson et al., 2006) which contributes to the collective knowledge of the organization.

HCL behaviors include advocating change, envisioning change, encouraging innovation, and facilitating collective learning which enhances a leader's ability to build pathways successfully leading to goal-fulfillment. A hope-centered leader generates pathways with people by actively monitoring for threats and opportunities, communicating the need for change, developing strategies for achieving goals, identifying potential problems, soliciting creative ideas for overcoming barriers, and seeking new ways for the organization to increase its collective knowledge by letting employees fail. Being attentive to the importance of pathways in goal pursuit helps distinguish effective and ineffective leadership.

External Leadership Behaviors. Yukl's taxonomy includes a fourth category addressing outward focused leadership behaviors rather than internally focused behaviors. These three areas are networking, external monitoring, and representing. Networking supports pathway generation, external monitoring enhances goal pursuit, and representing generates agency. *Networking* behavior drives relationship building with individuals outside the leader's immediate sphere of influence who are positioned to provide support or resources necessary to overcome problems. *External monitoring* behaviors encompass information potentially useful to forecasting whether current goals need to be reassessed due to new developments or reemphasized to take advantage of opportunites. These behaviors have a direct impact on goal achievement. *Representing* behaviors are closely tied to activities that could directly affect an employee or team's motivation. These behaviors lend themselves to promoting a team's good work to stakeholders, helping ensure conflict does not reduce motivation, and defending the team members' reputation from unwarranted attacks.

Networking, external monitoring, and representing behaviors are all consistent with a leader seeking to instill and nurture hope in employees and employees should be able to easily detect and articulate whether a leader is exhibiting related behaviors. A hope-centered leader uses networking to generate pathways by encouraging employees to attend conferences or professional societies where ideas are discussed and creative ways for addressing problems can be discussed informally. External monitoring provides a means for leaders to identify information from outside stakeholders and competitors that may either be a threat to current goals or an opportunity to pursue a new goal. Representing allows leaders to promote employees' work with superiors which could

lead to acquiring additional recognition or resources. While leadership behaviors are often inward facing, incorporating outward facing behaviors into a leaders' overall repertoire enhances the potential for increased effectiveness.

Yukl's (2012) identification and explanation of task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external-oriented leadership behaviors aligns well with Snyder's (1994, 2002) hope theory, both of which form the basis of HCL. As envisioned, the HCL model encompasses leadership behaviors that activate hope through tasks aligned with setting goals, relationships aligned with building agency, and changes aligned with identifying pathways. HCL compliments a leader's work and establishes a framework for enhanced effective leadership.

Hope-Centered Leadership: A Complimentary Concept

Hope-Centered Leadership is a distinct concept that complements leadership theories that are often taught as part of leadership development found in research and practice. HCL's emphasis is not, for example, on whether a leader embraces transformational, transactional, authentic, or servant leadership. Instead, HCL emphasizes the consequences of a leader's behavior in identifying, developing, and nurturing employee hope. HCL promotes goal setting, pathway navigation, and agency cultivation through the integration of Yukl's leadership taxonomy and Snyder's hope theory. Snyder characterized hope as being a cognitive approach to achieving goals and Yukl (2012) identified task-, relationship-, change-, and external-oriented leadership behaviors necessary for effective leadership. Similarly, HCL has been conceptualized as a cognitive

process available to leaders through the implementation of behaviors which activate hope in employees.

While numerous leadership theories exist that emphasize elements of positive psychology (Wang & Thompson, 2006), what was missing was an emphasis on hope as an evidence-informed approach to effective leadership resulting in the goal of employee well-being and organizational performance. HCL is one such approach. In Helland and Winston's (2005) seminal work on hope and leadership, they concluded that hope was both a behavioral precursor and outcome where "hope begets hope" (p. 50). Snyder and Shorey (2004) concluded that while leaders may themselves have high hope, their influence is displayed in the hope they bring to their employees and the resulting increased performance.

HCL contributes to the hope and leadership discussion by identifying behaviors that serve in developing hope by leaders among followers. Helland and Winston (2005) called for further development of a theory integrating hope and leadership that encompassed prior research in both disciplines with current scholarship. They specifically called for the development of a measurement tool to measure collective hope among employees and leaders. Methods for measuring individual hope (Snyder et al., 1991a; 1996) and collective hope (Hellman et al., 2023) already exist. HCL offers a framework not only for practitioners seeking to develop hope-centered training programs for leaders, but also for researchers seeking to measure hope-centered leadership as a phenomenon. Future research should address the development and validation of a measure capturing the elements of HCL.

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MANUSCRIPT 2

The Development and Validation of the Hope-Centered Leadership Scale

Abstract

Purpose. This study begins by offering a definition and conceptualization of Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL). Next, a hypothesized measure and model of HCL was constructed and then empirically tested.

Design/methodological/approach. The empirical study had two parts. First, conceptual items were generated around the facets of goals, pathways, and agency to construct the scale for testing. Second, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed to confirm the hypothesis that HCL activated hope within employees. Data originated from a sample of 340 teachers in a southwestern state.

Findings. The empirical tests revealed that the 9-item HCL scale provided valid and reliable evidence for the measure of HCL. Consistent with the hypothesized model, HLC had a strong, positive relationship with collective hope and a small, positive relationship with hope. Additionally, HCL confirmed a strong, negative relationship with abusive supervision.

Practical implications – HCL offers practitioners a valid and reliable means for measuring and addressing whether leaders are exhibiting behaviors which activate employee hope. HCL also provides a framework for training leaders.

Originality/value. Hope-Centered Leadership advances a new framework for studying the activation and operationalization of hope by leaders. The concept allows for the direct measurement of HCL leading to increased Collective Hope and a Hope-Centered Organization.

Keywords. Hope, Leadership, Goals, Pathways, Agency, Hope-Centered Leadership

The Development and Validation of the Hope-Centered Leadership Scale

Rokeach (1973) argued that people order and conduct their lives based on their foundational beliefs. Specifically, he reasoned that all beliefs "have cognitive, affective, and behavioral components" (p. 7) that are activated when (1) a person knows the right way to behave (i.e., cognitive), (2) advocates for good or opposes bad behaviors (i.e., affective), and (3) engages in behaviors consistent with their beliefs (i.e., behavioral). According to Rokeach, these beliefs form the bases of both self-centered and society-centered values. Hope is one such foundational belief that when activated can provide both personal and societal benefits. Snyder (1994, 2002) and others have argued that individual and collective hope can be activated by leaders through an emphasis on developing goals, identifying pathways, and encouraging agency (Hellman et al, 2023). However, leadership behaviors necessary to support this argument are conceptual and propositional. No specific framework into how leaders activate and foster hope in employees has been established (Wandeler et al., 2016). Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL) addresses this problem.

HCL integrates hope theory (Snyder et. al., 1991a; Snyder, 1994, 2002) and Yukl's (2012) taxonomy of leadership behavior to describe how leaders can activate hope through setting goals, navigating pathways, and cultivating agency in the people with whom they work. The purpose of this study was twofold: (1) to use the conceptualization of HCL and existing hope scales to construct items that measure components of the HCL construct, and (2) to test the validity and reliability of items forming the HCL scale. This paper begins with a definition and description of HCL and a review of literature on

40

existing hope scales. Next, items are constructed that align with the HCL definition and reflect aspects of established hope scales. The paper concludes with an empirical test of HCL items.

Hope-Centered Leadership: Definition and Conceptual Foundation

Hope is a personal resource leaders can use to influence and support the well-being and performance of employees (Lee & Gallagher, 2018; Wandeler et al., 2016). HCL defines behaviors that activate and nurture hope through setting task-oriented goals, navigating change-oriented pathways, and cultivating relations-oriented agency (Freeze, 2023). HCL focuses on both shaping how a person views the future and increasing the capacity of individuals (Lee & Gallagher, 2018; Magaletta & Oliver, 1999; Murphy, 2023), organizations (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Youssef & Luthans, 2007), and communities (see Ludema et al, 1997) to achieve desired future performance goals (Peterson & Byron, 2008). At its foundation, HCL incorporates both Snyder's hope theory (Snyder 1994, 1995, 2002; Snyder et al., 1991a) and Yukl's (2012) leadership taxonomy.

Hope Theory

Snyder et al. (1991a) theorized that hope led to successful goal attainment through the identification of pathways and sustainment of agency. He demonstrated that both pathways (identifying strategies for goal pursuit) and agency (energy for pursuing strategies) were required for goal achievement and operated in an iterative and additive relationship. Snyder (2002) further theorized that individuals lose hope when the actions

41

and behaviors of others stress or sever connections. In a work context, when leaders prevent employees from pursuing their goals, individuals can be robbed of their hope. Snyder and Shorey (2004) suggested that effective leaders were themselves high-hope individuals. As a result, they should be able to conceptualize, articulate, and facilitate goals in a way that motivates employees. They concluded that leaders who had both technical and relational skills and utilized those skills as part of a pathway and agency strategy should be capable of instilling hope in others. However, except for stating that leadership behaviors should be fair, inspiring, stimulating, and satisfying, Snyder and Shorey (2014) did not identify specific behaviors for activating hope within employees.

Helland and Winston (2005) concluded that after years of research seeking to explain a leader's use of power and influence, the behaviors and determinants of effective leadership were elusive. They hypothesized one concept for enhancing leadership effectiveness was rooted in positive psychology. Specifically, they suggested that for individuals, organizations, and communities to thrive, leaders should incorporate hope theory. If leaders embraced hope, then they should be able to "awaken hopeful thinking" within employees (Helland & Winston, 2005, p. 45). However, consistent with Snyder and Shorey (2004), Helland and Winston (2005) only identified broad actions by leaders such as understanding employee's needs, inspiring employees through a vision, motivating employees through goal setting, and increasing commitment through supporting employee goal pursuit. They looked to traditional leadership theories (e.g., positive approach to leadership, authentic, and spiritual) for ways by which leaders could stimulate employee hope. They concluded their research by calling for the development of a viable measurement tool to assess a leader's hopeful impact on employees.

Yukl's Taxonomy

HCL behaviors can be extrapolated from Yukl's (2012) taxonomy. Yukl (2012) postulated four meta-categories for effective leadership behaviors: task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external-oriented. As these categories relate to HCL, hope derived goal-setting behaviors encompasses Yukl's four task-oriented activities: planning, clarifying, monitoring, and problem solving. These behaviors directly stimulate an employee's cognitive processes towards goal pursuit. Agency-inspiring behaviors align with Yukl's four relations-oriented activities: supporting, developing, recognizing, and empowering employees. These behaviors nurture hope-related employees' agency by identifying personal needs, increasing professional training, praising tangible results, and encouraging decision-making participation. Pathways-generating behaviors are associated with Yukl's (2012) four change-oriented elements: advocating change, envisioning change, encouraging innovation, and facilitating learning. Related hope-activated pathways behaviors include addressing barriers to goals, communicating the need for overcoming barriers, sharing an inspiring vision, and encouraging creative thinking within a safe environment. Finally, Yukl's (2012) three external leadership concepts – networking, external monitoring, and representing – touch on all three hope constructs. Networking behaviors increase hopeful pathways through identifying resources for overcoming barriers. External monitoring behaviors enhance hopeful goals by recognizing goal opportunities. Representing behaviors promote employees' successes to stakeholders outside the organization.

A Conceptual Model of HCL

Figure 2.1 represents a HCL conceptual model. Specifically, it highlights how Snyder's Hope Theory (Snyder et al., 1991a, 1996, 2002) and Yukl's Taxonomy (Yukl, 2012) are interconnected in behaviors and actions that form HCL. HCL is observed in behaviors that support employees in setting task-oriented goals, cultivate relations-oriented agency, and develop change-oriented pathways. HCL itself is not the goal. The purpose of HCL is to activate hope as a resource in employees that can increase well-being and performance. HCL is a pathway to the goal through task-oriented, relations-oriented, and change-oriented behaviors. When understood and implemented, HCL cultivates hope within both leaders and employees.

Figure 2.1

Hope-Centered Leadership Conceptual Model
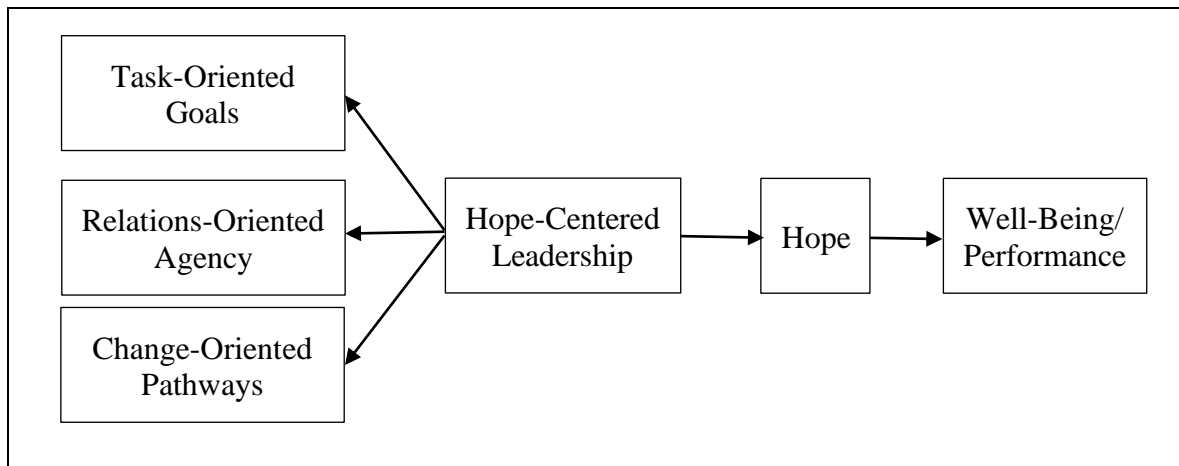
Measuring Hope: A Review of Relevant Hope Scales

Within leadership studies, hope has received limited attention (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Peterson & Byron, 2008**;** Peterson & Luthans, 2003). No measure has yet been published assessing how leaders can activate hope within employees. The process utilized by Snyder, his colleagues, and subsequent researchers to develop and validate hope scales is useful for the development and validation of the HCL tool. For this study, the instruments developed for measuring dispositional, state, domain, work-related, and collective hope serve as a guide (see Table 2.1) for constructing the HCL measure.

Adult Hope Scale

Snyder's original Adult Hope Scale (AHS) measured trait (i.e., dispositional) hope using two factors: agency and pathways. Snyder et al. (1991a) originally drafted 45 items which were administered to 384 university psychology students. Students rated the items using a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Definitely False* to 4 = *Definitely True*) and, based on the results, the initial pool of items was reduced to 14. Snyder reviewed the item-remainder coefficients and reduced the 14 to a final total of 12. After testing multiple samples, the AHS' initial Cronbach alphas ranged from .74 to .84 with re-test results of .80 or above. Factor analysis confirmed a two-factor model (i.e., agency and pathway) accounting for 52% to 63% of total variance. Analysis of the first twenty years of use confirmed similar reliability estimates (Hellman et al., 2013). To address convergent and divergent validity, Snyder compared AHS against optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1985), success (Fibel & Hale, 1978), life experiences (Burger & Cooper, 1979),

problem solving (Heppner & Petersen, 1982), self-esteem (Rosenberg,1965), hopelessness (Beck et al., 1974), personality (Hathaway & McKinley, 1951), and self-consciousness (Fenigstein et al., 1975). Snyder concluded the results confirmed convergent and divergent validity and did not measure the same constructs (Snyder et al., 1991a).

State Hope Scale

Following the AHS development, Snyder et al. (1996) developed the State Hope Scale (SHS). The SHS measured an individual's temporal level of hope related to current life events. The SHS was constructed by adapting the eight original AHS agency and pathways questions while eliminating the four distractor questions. The AHS scale was administered to 444 college students with different levels of measured dispositional hope. Based on those results 240 of the 444 psychology college students (separated into equal groups of low, medium, and high hope) were selected to take the SHS survey. Of the 240 participants, 168 completed the measure using an 8-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Definitely False* to 8 = *Definitely True*). The participants were also administered the AHS, State Self-Esteem Scale (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991), and the State Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson et al., 1988). In addition, participants kept a 29-day journal outlining their significant thoughts for the day and daily completing the SHS. These SHS results were submitted to factor analysis which confirmed a two-factor model of three agency and three pathway questions (i.e., a 6-item scale). Cronbach alphas ranged from .82 to .95 and a model that accounted for 72% to 87% of the total variance. Temporal variance analysis supported the hypothesis that state hope is malleable and can vary

widely on a day-to-day basis by returning daily correlation values ranging from .48 to

.93. Convergent and divergent validity with the concurrently tested measures was

supported. Additional studies were conducted to support the SHS construct with the

conclusion that SHS strongly predicted performance on immediate goal-directed tasks

(Snyder et al., 1996).

Domain Specific Hope Scale

Sympson (1999) created the Domain Specific Hope Scale (DSHS) to assess

whether hope was adaptable across six specific domains: social, academic, family,

romantic, work, and leisure. She modified the original 8-item AHS to address each of the

six identified domains. She then administered the DSHS to a sample of 343 college

psychology students with differing degrees of dispositional hope who answered the

questions utilizing an 8-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Definitely False* to 8 = *Definitely*

True). Her analysis of the results indicated a Cronbach alpha of .94. Results were

positively correlated with the AHS with a value of .69. To evaluate concurrent and

discriminate validity, Sympson utilized measures pertaining to leisure (Iso-Ahola &

Weissinger, 1990), work (Ironson et al., 1989), social support (Procidano & Heller,

1983), loneliness (Russell et al., 1980), state self-esteem (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991),

and depression (Beck et al., 1961). Sympson concluded that dispositional low-hope

individuals reported higher levels of satisfaction in domains important to them than did

trait high-hope individuals and that the DSHC scale demonstrated convergent and

discriminate validity. She concluded her analysis by reaffirming Snyder et al.'s (1991a)

categories of low, medium, and high levels of hope (Sympson, 1999).

Work Hope Scale

The Work Hope Scale (WHS) was designed by Juntunen and Wettersten (2006) for the purpose of measuring the three hope components – goals, pathways, and agency – as they related to work and work-related matters specifically in a vocational domain. Both authors developed potential questions, reviewed the other's work, and then solicited feedback from outside experts. This process resulted in 28 initial items which were administered to 79 individuals in a midwestern area using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 7 = *Strongly Agree*). To address convergent and discriminant validity, the authors administered scales for vocational aspirations (MVS-VI; Holland et al., 1980) and career self-efficacy (CDSE-SF; Betz et al., 1995). The results indicated significant correlation between the WHS, MVS-VI, and CDSE-SF scales. After reviewing the results and the expert reviewer's comments, the authors reduced the scale to 24 items measured on a 6-point Likert-type Scale. A second study designed to measure reliability and validity was administered to 224 participants drawn from a community college, two universities, a community event, an adolescent program, and women receiving Temporary Aid for Needy Families (TANF) benefits. The WHS, CDSE-SF, DSHS Goal, and Life-Orientation Test - Revised (Scheier et al., 1994) scales were used for this study. Unlike the AHS, SHS, and DSHS two-factor construct, Juntunen and Wettersten sought to validate a three-factor model of goals, agency, and pathways. However, the factor analysis did not confirm the three-factor hypothesis, but instead confirmed a one-factor model. Juntunen and Wettersten hypothesized that the inclusion of a goal construct may have weakened the traditional two-factor model (e.g., AHS, SHS, DSHS) resulting in a single factor model instead of identifying a three-factor model.

Juntunen and Wettersten (2006) concluded that with a Cronbach alpha of .93, the WHS provided a viable but limited measure for vocational counselors and researchers seeking to provide assistance to individuals addressing work-related matters, particularly among marginalized groups.

Collective Hope

Hellman et al. (2023) developed a measure to capture the perception that individuals working together can accomplish an organization's goals. The new measure was called the Collective Hope Scale (CHS). Additionally, CHS was designed to demonstrate the protective factor of hope against negative work experiences such as burnout. The development began with university faculty and graduate students who identified 63 potential questions designed to capture the constructs of goals, pathways, and agency. After discussion, the questions were reduced by the panel to a total of six questions with two questions per construct. Utilizing a sample of 15,892 public sector workers from a Midwest state agency, participants responded using a 6-item Likert-type scale (1 = *Definitely False* to 6 = *Definitely True*). For gauging reliability, the authors also administered the AHS. Multiple subsamples were drawn from the total sample and subjected to exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis which confirmed CHS as a single factor model distinct from AHS and having a high internal consistency (i.e., Cronbach alpha = .96). The authors concluded that the CHS offered a new means for measuring hope and addressing workplace issues such as reducing burnout (Hellman et al., 2023).

Table 2.1

Hope Scales

Scale	Components	No. of Items	Response Format	Initial N =	Participants	Cronbach Alpha	Development Process
Adult Hope (1991)	Agency; Pathway (Two Factor Model)	12 Total (4 – Agency) (4 – Pathway) (4-Distractors)	Likert-type; 1= Definitely False to 8 = Definitely True	384	Students	.74 to .84	Item generation; reviewed by experts; Snyder choose original 8 questions
State Hope (1996)	Agency; Pathway (Two Factor Model)	6 Total (3 – Agency) (3 – Pathway)	Likert-type; 1= Definitely False to 8 = Definitely True	240	Students	.82 to .95	Adapted AHS questions
Domain Specific Hope (1999)	Social Academic Romantic Family Work Leisure (Six Factor Model)	8 questions per domain; 6 domains (48 total questions)	Likert-type; 1 = Definitely False to 8 = Definitely True	343	Students	.94	Adapted AHS questions
Work Hope (2006)	Goals; Agency; Pathway (Single Factor Model)	24 total (9 – Goal) (8 – Pathway) (7 – Agency)	Likert-type; 1= Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree	224	Students (110); Community (21); Adolescent program (39) TANF recipients (54)	.93	Item generation; pilot study; expert review
Collective Hope (2023)	Goals; Agency; Pathway (Single Factor Model)	6 total (2 – Goal) (2 – Pathway) (2 – Agency)	Likert-type; 1 = Definitely false to 6 = Definitely true	15,892	Midwest State Agency employees	.96	Item generation; expert review

Summary

Three insights were gleaned from reviewing the construction of the five hope scales. First, empirical evidence suggested that the addition of a third facet of hope incorporating goals along with agency and pathways in a scale resulted in a single order latent construct. This suggests that the HCL model may cohere around the three facets of a first-order construct. Second, the focus of hope scales was specific in a way that captured the level of hope within a specific referent. HCL is not measuring trait, state,

domain, work, or collective hope, but the behaviors and actions of leaders which activate and foster hope. Third, the initial hope scales (e.g., AHS, SHS, DSHS) utilized an 8-point Likert-type Scale ranging from 1 (*Definitely False*) to 8 (*Definitely True*) and the CHS utilized a 6-point Likert-type Scale ranging from 1 (*Definitely False*) *to* 6 (*Definitely True*). The WHS utilized a 7-point Likert-type Scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) *to* 7 (*Strongly Agree*). While 7-point Likert-type Scales have been shown to have higher reliability than shorter response formats (e.g., 1 to 4) and while respondents often favored a 10-point response format (Preston & Colman, 2000), Weijters et al. (2010) found that a 5-point Likert-type response format was ideal for a broad range of non-student or expert populations. Chyung et al. (2017) found in their review of Likert-type response-focused studies that 5-point scales were more quickly completed and had high levels of internal consistency, and Hinkin (1998) recommended all new measures incorporate a 5-point scale.

Item Generation

Similar to other hope measures, items used to operationalize HCL derive from the conceptual definition. HCL consists of interrelated leadership behaviors that together aim to identify people's aspirational goals, pathways to achieve their goals, and the agency necessary to persist during goal pursuit. Items were constructed based on the three elements of hope portrayed in Figure 2.1 (i.e., task-oriented goals, relations-oriented agency, change-oriented pathways). The item generation exercise utilized the following construct definitions:

Goals are the anchors or cornerstones of what people are striving to attain. High-hope people set challenging goals and are focused on learning outcomes more than performance outcomes (Peterson, 2006). High-hope people are interested in how other people are doing as well as their own progress (Snyder, 1994; Snyder et al., 1997). To foster an employee's goal-setting hope, a leader engages employees in setting goals that align with the employee's and organization's values, that are high but achievable, and that are focused on learning and growth. A leader also engages employees in monitoring progress toward goals with useful feedback and clarifying expectations (Yukl, 2012). The goal items (Table 2.2) are intended to measure leader behaviors that support task-oriented goals in the HCL model.

Table 2.2

HCL Initial Goal Item Pool

	Initial Goal Items
1	My supervisor encourages me to set challenging goals.
2	My supervisor asks for my participation in setting organizational goals.
3	My supervisor expresses interest in my personal goals.
4	My supervisor sets clear expectations for achieving goals.
5	My supervisor provides helpful feedback on my performance.
6	My supervisor helps me manage my work by dividing large goals into smaller goals.
7	My supervisor sets high expectations for my performance.
8	My supervisor helps align my personal goals with the organization's goals.
9	My supervisor encourages me to sets goals that require me to stretch beyond my comfort zone.
10	My supervisor uses the performance review process to help me accomplish my goals.

Pathways are the cognitive processes people undertake to develop routes to the goal and overcome obstacles along the way. High-hope people are creative and develop multiple pathways, are not derailed when barriers occur, and seek new skills or knowledge to enhance their success (Snyder, 1995). To foster an employee's pathway-generating hope, a leader works with the employee to overcome work disturbances, articulate future directions in light of problems, discern potential threats, advocate for new courses of action, overcome resistance to change, inspire creativity, create a safe and supportive environment, and provide learning opportunities (Yukl, 2012). The pathway items (Table 2.3) are intended to measure leader behaviors that support change-oriented goals in the HCL model.

Table 2.3

HCL Initial Pathway Item Pool

	Initial Pathway Items
11	My supervisor encourages me to learn new skills.
12	My supervisor encourages me to be creative in addressing problems.
13	My supervisor creates a safe and supportive environment for me to succeed.
14	My supervisor allows me to adjust my work as necessary.
15	My supervisor encourages me to develop multiple ways to achieve goals.
16	My supervisor successfully anticipates possible barriers to achieving goals.
17	My supervisor is willing to adjust a goal if the original goal is no longer possible.
18	My supervisor encourages me to be innovative in solving problems.
19	My supervisor actively monitors events for potential threats to achieving goals.
20	My supervisor actively monitors events to take advantage of opportunites.
21	My supervisor is transparent in communicating the reasons for change.

Agency is the energy and effort a person puts toward achieving a goal. High-hope people draw upon past experiences, find motivation from within, use both positive and

negative emotions effectively, and thrive in achieving challenging goals (Snyder, 1995).

To foster an employee's agency-inspiring hope, a leader recognizes and acknowledges an

employee's progress and achievement, rewards achievement, demonstrates respect, and

provides opportunities for development and advancement (Yukl, 2012). The agency items

(Table 2.4) are intended to measure leader behaviors that support relations-oriented goals

in the HCL model.

Table 2.4

HCL Initial Agency Item Pool

	Initial Agency Items
22	My supervisor rewards me in ways that help me feel fulfilled.
23	My supervisor respects me.
24	My supervisor delegates responsibility so I can develop professionally.
25	My supervisor regularly takes an interest in what motivates me.
26	My supervisor helps create a climate where people respect each other.
27	My supervisor shows appreciation of my efforts.
28	My supervisor encourages me to learn through my mistakes.
29	My supervisor allows me freedom in how I perform my job responsibilities.
30	My supervisor supports my decision-making skills.
31	My supervisor helps me feel a sense of belonging among my peers.
32	My supervisor listens carefully to me when I have questions or concerns.

Assessing Validity of the HCL Items

Clark and Watson (2019) advised that "good scale construction is an iterative

process involving several states of item writing, each followed by conceptual and

psychometric analysis that sharpen one's understanding of the nature and structure of the

target domain and may identify shortcomings in the initial item pool" (p. 1415). The

process of developing and validating the HCL measure follows their guidance as well as the guidance of other experts. HCL interweaves Hope Theory and Yukl's Leadership Taxonomy. HCL is theorized to measure how well leaders activate hope in others through identified behaviors that promote goal setting, pathway identification, and agency stimulation for the purpose of successful goal achievement. HCL is distinct from traditional leadership theories which often focus on outcomes rather than behaviors (Behrendt et al., 2017). What is currently missing and necessary to provide evidence of HCL's usefulness is the validation of the proposed measure which began with the item generation of the HCL measure.

The creation of a pool of questions was generated from the literature review centered around hope theory, leadership behaviors, goal setting, problem solving and motivational theories. Following guidance by Clark and Watson (1995), the item language was reviewed for clarity, simplicity, redundancy, and relevance resulting in a pool of 32 items: 10 pertaining to goals, 11 pertaining to pathways, and 11 pertaining to agency. Table 5 contains the list of the goal, pathway, and agency original pool of 32 items. As the HCL is designed for employees to assess whether their immediate leader or supervisor is activating and nurturing hope, each measurement item begins with "my supervisor" to ensure consistency of the referent.

Item-Objective Congruency

Anderson and Gerbing (1991) identified pretesting as a means for establishing the substantive validity of a new measure as part of the overall content validity process. Anderson and Gerbing defined substantive validity as the input of individuals,

specifically non-experts, who represented the target population to whom the measure would be administered. Drawing upon procedures from Hemphill and Westie's (1950) "index of homogeneity of placement" (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991, p. 733), Anderson and Gerbing called for judges to assess the relevance of items by placing the item in one of three categories: items that met the construct characteristics, items that failed to meet the construct characteristics, and items where the judges were undecided. Next, they cited Rovinelli and Hambleton's (1977) "index of item-objective congruence" which had judges rate items on a scale of 1.0 to -1.0 relative to item congruency with higher overall scores - a suggested value of .75 or higher - equating to higher substantive validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991, p. 733).

For this study, the work of Rovinelli and Hambleton (1977) was primarily utilized where participants were provided with specific and detailed instructions around item congruency to help them understand the purpose of the exercise (Hinkin & Tracey, 1999). The 32 generated pool items were presented to individuals whose primary qualifications were they were adults with the experience as an employee at some point in their lives and had the intellect to rate the items and definitions (Hinkin & Tracey, 1999). A total of 17 individuals provided usable responses to a Qualtrics survey which provided context for the exercise, definitions of the constructs being considered (i.e., goals, pathways, agency), and directions for how to consider if the item was congruent (1.0), neutral (0.0), or incongruent (-1.0) with the HCL construct (Colquitt et al., 2019). Results of the item-congruency test are outlined in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5

HCL Items and Congruency Results

	Item	Congruent	Neutral	Incongruent
1	My supervisor encourages me to set challenging goals.	1.0	.00	.00
2	My supervisor asks for my participation in setting organizational goals.	.82	.12	.06
3	My supervisor expresses interest in my personal goals.	.82	.14	.06
4	My supervisor sets clear expectations for achieving goals.	.76	.18	.06
5	My supervisor provides helpful feedback on my performance.	.71	.29	.00
6	My supervisor helps me manage my work by dividing large goals into smaller goals.	.64	.18	.18
7	My supervisor sets high expectations for my performance.	.41	.41	.18
8	My supervisor helps align my personal goals with the organization's goals.	.82	.12	.06
9	My supervisor encourages me to sets goals that require me to stretch beyond my comfort zone.	.59	.29	.12
10	My supervisor uses the performance review process to help me accomplish my goals.	.47	.29	.24
11	My supervisor encourages me to learn new skills.	.82	.18	.00
12	My supervisor encourages me to be creative in addressing problems.	.88	.06	.06
13	My supervisor creates a safe and supportive environment for me to succeed.	.76	.18	.06
14	My supervisor allows me to adjust my work as necessary.	.53	.41	.06
15	My supervisor encourages me to develop multiple ways to achieve goals.	.88	.00	.12
16	My supervisor successfully anticipates possible barriers to achieving goals.	.64	.18	.18
17	My supervisor is willing to adjust a goal if the original goal is no longer possible.	.65	.29	.06

18	My supervisor encourages me to be innovative in solving problems.	.82	.12	.06
19	My supervisor actively monitors events for potential threats to achieving goals.	.76	.18	.06
20	My supervisor actively monitors events to take advantage of opportunities.	.47	.35	.18
21	My supervisor is transparent in communicating the reasons for change.	.71	.23	.06
22	My supervisor rewards me in ways that help me feel fulfilled.	.88	.06	.06
23	My supervisor respects me.	.94	.06	.00
24	My supervisor delegates responsibility so I can develop professionally.	.64	.29	.06
25	My supervisor regularly takes an interest in what motivates me.	.52	.24	.24
26	My supervisor helps create a climate where people respect each other.	.82	.12	.06
27	My supervisor shows appreciation of my efforts.	.94	.06	.00
28	My supervisor encourages me to learn through my mistakes.	.71	.06	.23
29	My supervisor allows me freedom in how I perform my job responsibilities.	.71	.12	.17
30	My supervisor supports my decision-making skills.	.64	.24	.12
31	My supervisor helps me feel a sense of belonging among my peers.	.64	.24	.12
32	My supervisor listens carefully to me when I have questions or concerns.	.82	.12	.06

Note: Items grayed out were removed from consideration based on the item congruency test.

While the suggested heuristic by Rovinelli and Hambleton (1977), as cited by

Anderson and Gerbing (1991), was .75, in this study the congruency value was set at .70.

This decision was based on finding that items with scores between .70 and .74 also had

higher neutral values and low negative values indicating uncertainty by the judges and not outright rejection. Using a predetermined cutoff value followed guidance by Hinkin and Tracey (1999) which helped to significantly reduce the subjective judgment of the process. Consequently, after the item-congruency test (see Table 2.5), 12 of the 32 items were eliminated (items 6, 7, 9, 10, 14, 16, 17, 20, 24, 25, 30, 31) leaving 20 items for the HCL measure: six goal (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8), seven pathway (11, 12, 13, 15, 18, 19), and seven agency (22, 23, 26, 27, 28, 29, 32).

Expert Review

Given the feedback and analysis from some of the original 17 non-expert reviewers, the 20 items were presented to a small cadre of experts in the fields of hope, leadership, and measurement construction. The expert review followed Hinkin and Schriesheim's (1989) scale development guidance for further reducing measurement items. The purpose of the expert review was to help ensure the proposed measurement items specifically captured leadership behaviors leading to setting goals, navigating pathways, and cultivating agency and not a separate construct.

Feedback from the experts led to the following conclusions: 1) goal items 1 and 8 required more specificity and rewording; 2) goal items 2, 3, 4, and 5 were redundant and should be eliminated; 3) a goal item capturing the concept of a brighter future should be added; 4) pathway items 11, 12, 13, and 15 required rewording for clarity and connection to goal attainment; 5) pathway item 18 was duplicative; 6) pathway times 19 and 21 were too vague and should be eliminated; 7) agency items 22, 23, and 29 required rewording for better clarity; and 8) agency items 26, 27, 28, and 32 were too vague and should be

eliminated. Their feedback led to a further reduction and refinement of the proposed

measurement items from 20 items to 12 items (See Table 2.6).

Table 2.6

HCL 12-Item Measure

Please answer as you think about your current supervisor.

1	My supervisor encourages me to set difficult and challenging goals.
2	My supervisor helps me to believe that our organization has a bright future.
3	My supervisor helps me to see that my personal goals align with the organization's goals.
4	My supervisor provides useful opportunities to learn skills that help me achieve goals.
5	My supervisor encourages me to be creative in solving problems in route to achieving goals.
6	My supervisor creates a safe and supportive environment to successfully work through challenges to goal attainment.
7	My supervisor encourages me to generate multiple routes to achieve goals.
8	My supervisor encourages me to change directions when accomplishing a goal is no longer viable.
9	My supervisor instills confidence in my ability to overcome challenges and achieve goals.
10	My supervisor inspires by demonstrating respect for me.
11	My supervisor recognizes my progress in successfully reaching goals.
12	My supervisor allows me to craft my job responsibilities to be more meaningful and satisfying.

Note. The HCL measure used for this study utilized a 5-item Likert-type scale of 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Regularly, and 5 = Always.

Hypothesized First-order Structure

Loevinger (1957) stated that construct validity of a measure consisted of three processes: item generation, structural analysis and selection of the items, and correlation of scores with additional variables. She recommended that measurement items broadly consider various contexts that encompass the trait under consideration. As such, the structural relationship between the items should faithfully and accurately represent the central trait being measured while demonstrating a strong internal coefficient among the items as determined by factor analysis (Loevinger, 1957).

As demonstrated by the 12-item measure, HCL is hypothesized to function as an integrated conceptual model with shared variance between the goal, pathway, and agency items cohering around one factor. This theorized construct is supported by previous hope scale research of single order, one-factor conceptual models (Hellman et al., 2023; Juntunen and Wettersten, 2006) as well as the initial hope theory where, even though the measures were demonstrated to be two-factor models, both factors were necessary to successfully achieve goals (Snyder et al., 1991a, 1991b, 1996). Therefore, this study hypothesized a first order factor structure (see Figure 2.2) of task-oriented goals, change-oriented pathways, and relations-oriented agency sharing the variance around the latent HCL concept.

Figure 2.2

Hypothesized First-Order Factor Model of 12-Item HCL
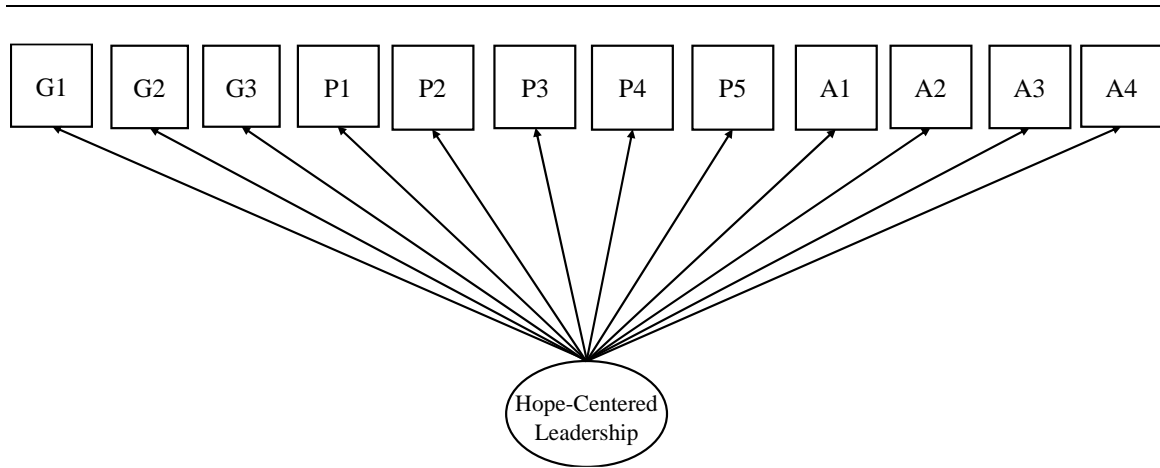
Convergent and Discriminant Validity Rationale

Messick (1995) stated relationships of different measures were evaluated on the degree to which they were similar (convergent) or dissimilar (divergent). Of the two, he argued that demonstrating two measures were discriminant was important for the validation process, a recommendation that echoed earlier comments by Campbell and Fiske (1959). To reliably test relationships between two measures, researchers must have confidence the new measure captures the trait under consideration. This confidence, according to Campbell and Fiske (1959) is primarily established when two measures designed to generally test a similar construct have some degree of convergence (cf. Lehmann, 1988).

Hope and Collective Hope are being used for convergent and discriminant validity. It is predicated that HCL will have a stronger relationship with Collective Hope than Hope. Collective Hope is defined as the perception that an organization or group of

people can successfully achieve its goals through identified pathways and generated agency (Hellman et al., 2023). Collective Hope is organizationally specific. Goals, pathways, and agency relate to organizational conditions and actions, of which HCL is predicted to influence and shape. Trait hope in adults is defined as the perception an individual can successfully achieve life goals through their constructed pathways and agency (Snyder et al., 1991a). Trait hope is a general disposition toward life; it is not specific to an organization. HCL and Collective Hope are organizationally situated. Therefore, the following hypothesis is advanced:

> *H_1: HCL will have a stronger relationship with collective hope than with trait hope.*

Trust is an additional concept for convergent validity testing. Trust in this study follows the work of Forsyth et al. (2011) who highlighted that trust is inherently a collective quality which allows individuals to expect that others, particularly leaders, to uphold their promises and act in a reliable and trustworthy manner toward employees. They suggested that leaders build trust by being trustworthy. That is, leaders should be engaging with others in ways that demonstrate a leader to be perceived as competent, benevolent, open, honest, and reliable (Forsyth et al., 2011). Similarly, HCL focuses on a leader's actions and behaviors that are believed to position the leader as trustworthy. Supporting people in goal setting, constructing pathways, and building agency, would seem to convey competence, benevolence, openness, honesty, and reliability. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

> *H_2: HCL will have a strong positive correlation with trust in leadership.*

Likewise, leadership behaviors can be categorized as abusive or toxic. Abusive

supervision is defined as the perception by employees that a leader is verbally and

nonverbally expressing hostile behaviors (Tepper, 2000). Mitchell and Ambrose (2007)

utilized this idea and measured how a supervisor's aggressive and passive hostile

behaviors could result in disengaged or disruptive employee behaviors. These behaviors

are the antithesis of HCL. A leader who is abusive breaks promises, lies, ridicules, and

blames others (Tepper, 2000). HCL should serve as a positive motivating factor whereas

abusive supervision should serve as a strain or stress on employees. Therefore, it is

hypothesized that:

H_3: HCL will have a strong negative correlation with the Abusive Supervision.

Empirical Study

Participants and Data Collection Procedure

The purpose of the empirical test was to examine the structural, convergent, and

discriminant validity of the items comprising the HCL scale. Data originated from a

random sample of certified teachers within a southwestern state and was analyzed

utilizing SPSS 29.0. In August 2023, an electronic survey was sent to each teacher's

email address with a total of two follow-up reminder emails with non-respondents.

Participation was voluntary and confidential. A total of 674 teachers opened or started the

online survey with 340 teachers completing said survey for a response rate of 50-percent.

Survey results were imported into SPSS followed by a data cleaning process. Missing

values were replaced using SPSS' series mean function. See Appendix B for the number

of replacements for each variable as well as the mean and standard deviations with and without the missing values.

Descriptive statistics of participants are presented in Table 2.7. The gender was overwhelming female (n = 266, 78%), followed by male (n = 69, 20%), transgender (n = 1, 0.3%), and those who did not identify a gender (n = 1, 0.3%). Ethnically, the breakdown was diverse, but largely white, and consisted of Asian (n = 4, 1.2%), Black (n = 4, 1.2%), Hispanic (n = 10, 2.9%), Native American (n = 36, 10.6%), Multiracial (n = 7, 2.1%), and White (n = 276, 81.2%). Age was captured by asking with which generation (e.g., Baby Boomer, Gen. Z) the respondent identified. Baby Boomers accounted for 19.4% (n = 66), Generation X accounted for 46.5% (n = 158), Generation Y accounted for 29.1% (n = 99), and Generation Z accounted for 2.6% (n = 9). Years of service ranged from zero (0.0) indicating less than 6 months on the job to a high of 48 years. The average tenure of years on the job was 10.32 years (SD = 8.84).

Table 2.7

Demographic Statistics

Variable	*n*	*%*
Gender		
Female	266	78.2
Male	69	20.3
Transgender	1	0.3
Do not identify as male, female, or transgender	1	0.3
Ethnicity		
Asian	4	1.2
Black	4	1.2
Hispanic	10	2.9
Multiracial	7	2.1

Native American	36	10.6
White	276	81.2
Age		
Silent Generation (1928 – 1945)	0	0.0
Baby Boomers (1946 – 1964)	66	19.4
Generation X (1965 – 1980)	158	46.5
Generation Y / Millennials (1981 – 1996)	99	29.1
Generation Z (1997 - present)	9	2.6

Note. Sample sizes and percentages represent participants who reported information for that variable.

Measures

Abusive Supervision. The Abusive Supervision measure was used to capture an employee's perception that a supervisor engaged in verbal or non-verbal offensive behaviors (Tepper, 2000). For this study, a shortened version of 6 items was utilized drawing upon Mitchell and Ambrose's (2007) factorial analysis of Tepper's (2000) original 15-item measure identifying the highest scores for both active and passive abusive behaviors. Three items with the highest factor loadings for both active and passive behaviors were chosen. Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) used a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly Agree*; 7 = *Strongly Disagree*). Examples included "My supervisor blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment" (e.g., passive) and "My supervisor puts me down in front of others" (e.g., active). A total score was calculated by averaging the active and passive items. Higher scores indicated higher levels of abusive supervision behaviors. The original measure demonstrated good internal consistency with a coefficient of .90 (Tepper, 2000). For this study, responses were scored on a 5-point

Likert-type scale (1 = *Never*; 5 = *Always*) to better align with the HCL response scale and Chyung et al. (2017) guidance regarding 5-point scales.

Adult Hope Scale. The Adult Hope Scale (AHS) was used to measure hope among respondents (Snyder et al., 1991). The AHS originally consisted of 12 items (4 items each for pathway, agency, and distractor) scored on an 8-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Definitely False*; 8 = *Definitely True*). For this study the 8 items addressing pathways and agency were administered. Sample items include "I energetically pursue my goals" (e.g., Agency) and "There are lots of ways around any problem" (e.g., Pathway). A total hope score was calculated by averaging the agency and pathway items. Higher scores indicated higher levels of hope. The AHS has demonstrated good internal consistency with Cronbach alphas in the range of .74 to .84 and re-test results of .80 or above. The AHS has demonstrated positive correlations with goal expectancy, locus of control, and well-being (Hellman et al., 2013; Lee & Gallagher, 2018; Snyder, 1991).

Collective Hope. The Collective Hope Scale (CHS) was used to measure how individuals perceived an organization's ability to successfully achieve its goals through identified pathways and persistent agency (Hellman et al., 2023). The CHS consists of 6 items scored on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Definitely False*; 6 = *Definitely True*). Examples include "My organization can identify shared goals" (e.g., Goals) and "My organization will actively pursue its goals" (e.g., Agency). A total collective hope score was calculated by averaging all six items. Higher scores indicated higher levels of collective hope as perceived by employees. The CHS has previously demonstrated good internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha of .956 (Hellman et al., 2023).

Omnibus Trust Scale. The Omnibus Trust Scale was used to measure trust in an employee's supervisor or leader. For this study, a shortened 5-item scale was adapted from the original 15-item scale developed to measure parent trust in faculty (Forsyth et al., 2011). One high-loading factor item for honesty, benevolence, competence, openness, and reliability were selected. Forsyth et al. (2011) used a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 4 = *Strongly Agree*). Sample items include "My supervisor has high standards for all employees" (e.g., Competence) and "My supervisor is very reliable" (e.g., Reliability). A total score was calculated by averaging the five items. Higher scores indicated higher levels of trust. The original measure demonstrated good internal consistency with a coefficient of .90 (Forsyth et al., 2011). For this study, responses were scored on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 6 = *Strongly Agree*) based on Chang's (1994) findings that increased scale points assisted with reliability and validity.

Analysis

CFA was utilized to test the HCL's structural validity since HCL was developed as an *a priori* latent variable measure. To run the CFA, AMOS (Version 29.0) with Robust Maximum Likelihood (MLR) was chosen due to its robustness with non-normality violations and ease of use with ordinal Likert-type items (Finney and Distefano, 2006; cf. Bandalos, 2014). CFA was used to test the first order factor hypothesis. Next, two structural equation models were created to assess the correlations between (1) HCL, trait hope, and collective hope, and (2) HCL, trust, and abusive supervision. Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended utilization of common fit indices such

as chi-square value, comparative fit index (CFI > .95), the standardized root mean residual (SRMR < .08) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA < .06). These indices and values were used to test the variance of the sample data for the hypothesized structural relationships.

Limitations

The development and validation of the HCL measure is not without its limitations. First, the participants in the study were all teachers who were asked to rate their principal when completing the survey. As schools differ in size and organization structure, the possibility arises that teachers may have multiple levels of supervision and leadership locally and at the district level (Burkman et al., 2019). Second, the sample was heavily weighted towards females over other genders as well as the predominate ethnicity being white, which may have skewed how other genders and ethnicities view hope and leadership. Third, HCL was not tested against widely recognized leadership models (e.g., transformational, authentic). Other models may have strong correlations with the variables used in this study leading to a need to further examine how those models compare with HCL.

<div align="center">

Results

</div>

Structural Validity

CFA results confirmed an *a priori* hypothesized first-order structure for HCL. Results of the model fit, as presented in Table 2.8 and Figure 2.3, were: $\chi^2_{(54)} = 415.39$, *p* < 0.001; CFI = .908; SRMR = 0.06; RMSEA = 0.141, 90% CI (0.128, 0.153). The

estimated fit indices fell outside the standards to accept the model as a good fit,

necessitating a post-hoc analysis. As seen in figure 2.3, all 12 items cohered around the

latent HCL concept. Parameter estimates, with the exception of G1, were all above .70,

ranging from a low of .674 (G1) to a high of .892 (A1). Model fit for the 12-item HCL

was not as strong as the recommended parameter estimates of CFI > .95 and RMSEA <

.06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Table 2.8

Model Fit Indices for Initial 12-item HCL First-Order Specification

Model	α	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Hypothesized 12-item Model	.975	415.39	54	0.14	0.90	0.06

Figure 2.3

12-item HCL Measure with Standardized Regression Weights
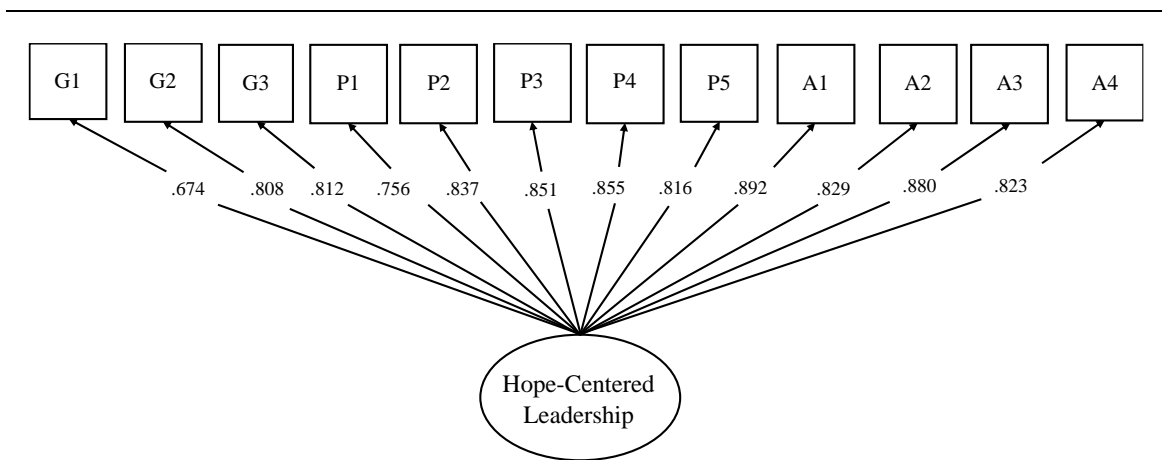
A post-hoc review of the 12-item HCL measure was undertaken to determine if

the measure should be reduced or trimmed in order to find a better model fit. The review

considered the wording, standardized regression weights, and standard error for each

question within the model. As a result, one item from each of the three subcategories (goals, pathways, and agency) was removed. Specifically, goal item 1, pathway item 4, and agency item 2 were eliminated resulting in a 9-item measure.

As presented in Figure 2.4 and Table 2.9, all 9 items cohere around the latent HCL concept. Parameter estimates were all above .70 and ranged from a low of .757 to a high of .882. Results of the calculated model fit: $\chi^2_{(27)} = 136.73$, $p < 0.001$; CFI = .96; SRMR = 0.04; RMSEA = 0.10, 90% CI (0.92, 0.128). The fit indices, except for RMSEA, fell within the conventual recommended ranges suggested by Hu & Bentler (1999). However, as determined by Shi et al., (2019), higher RMSEA scores were likely influenced by a low number of variables ($p < 30$) and smaller populations size ($N < 1000$). Thus, the estimates for the 9-item HCL measure indicate a good fitting model. The 9-item measure exhibited strong internal reliability with a Cronbach alpha of .95.

Table 2.9

Model Fit Indices for 9-item HCL First-Order Specification

Model	α	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Confirmed 9-item Model	.95	136.73	27	0.10	0.96	0.04

Further studies can consider whether a model fit that captures the theoretical concepts of HCL measure should be explored. In sum, the CFA results lent confirmation a first-order, 9-item measure consisting of goals, pathways, and agency. The results indicate an empirical relationship between the data and construction of the model.

Figure 2.4

9-item HCL Measure with Standardized Regression Weights
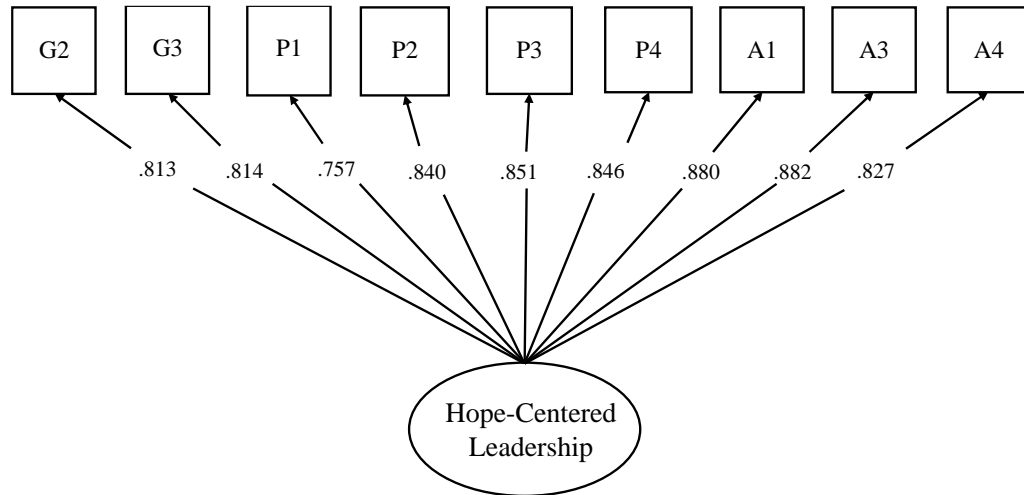
Convergent and Discriminant Validity

To examine convergent and discriminant validity, two structured equation models (SEM) were calculated and are presented in Figure 2.5, Figure 2.6, and Table 2.10. As predicted in hypothesis 1, SEM confirmed HLC had a stronger positive relationship with Collective Hope (r = .624, p < .01) than with Hope (r = .303 p < .01) (Figure 2.5). The relationship between Hope and Collective Hope was moderate and positively related (r = .330 p < .01) (Figure 2.5). The correlations supported hypothesis 1 in that there was a distinction in the relationships between HCL and Collective Hope and HCL and Hope.

Standardized regression parameter estimates for the HCL, Collective Hope, and Hope model were all above .70, with the exception of H2, and ranged from a low of .644 (H2) to a high of .887 (CH3). Results of the calculated model fit were: $\chi^2_{(186)} = 570.39$, p

< 0.001; CFI = .93; SRMR = 0.06; RMSEA = 0.078, 90% CI (0.071, 0.085) (See Table

2.10).

Table 2.10

Model Fit Indices for Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
1. HCL, Collective Hope, & Hope	570.39	186	0.078	0.93	0.06
2. HCL, Trust, Abusive Supervision	843.65	167	0.109	0.90	0.05

Figure 2.5

Convergent and Discriminate Validity of HCL with Hope and Collective Hope Model
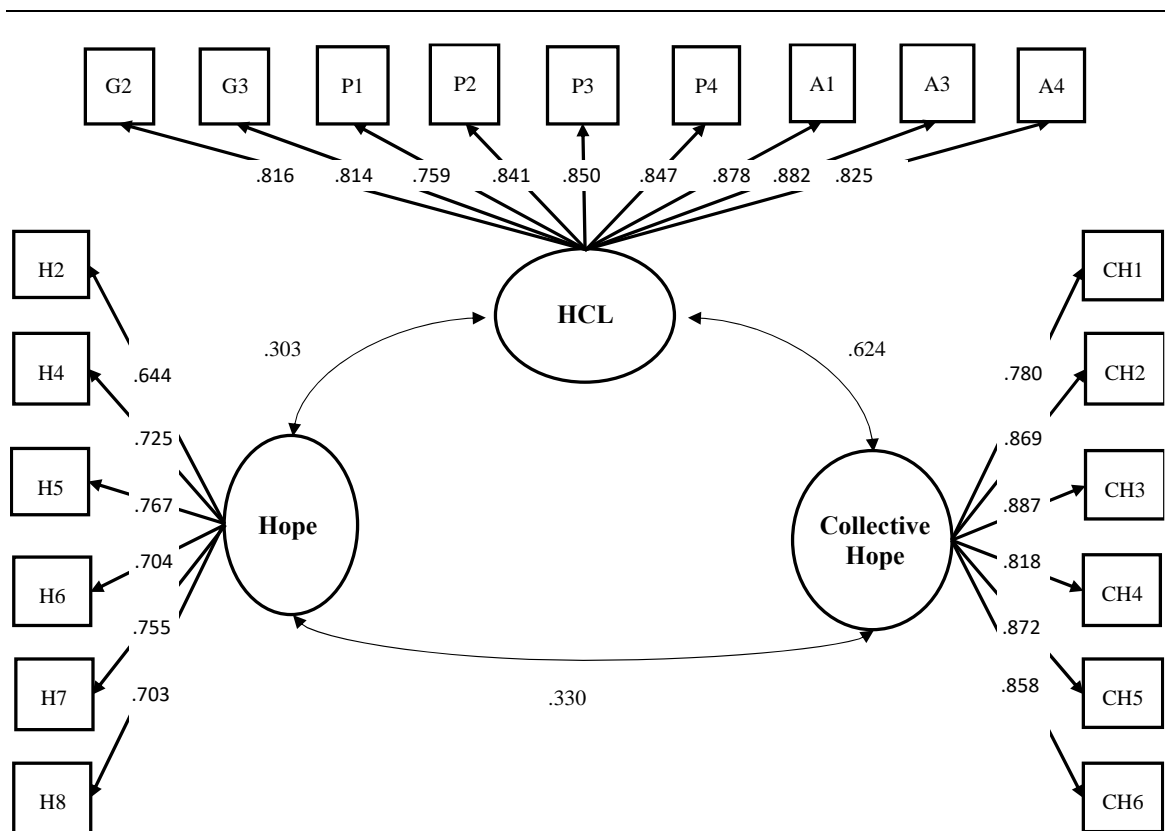
Additionally, as predicted in hypotheses 2 and 3, HLC had a strong, positive

correlation with Trust (r = .834, p < .01) and a strong, negative correlation with Abusive

Supervision (r = -.700, p < .01) (Figure 2.6). The relationship between Trust and Abusive

Supervision showed a strong, negative correlation (r = -.832, p < .01) (Figure 2.6). The

correlations support hypotheses 2 and 3 in that HCL converges with Trust and Abusive

Supervision. The more teachers perceived principals as exhibiting HCL, their trust in

leaders increased. Conversely, lower reports of HCL were associated with higher reports

of Abusive Supervision.

Figure 2.6

Convergent Validity of HCL with Trust and Abusive Supervision
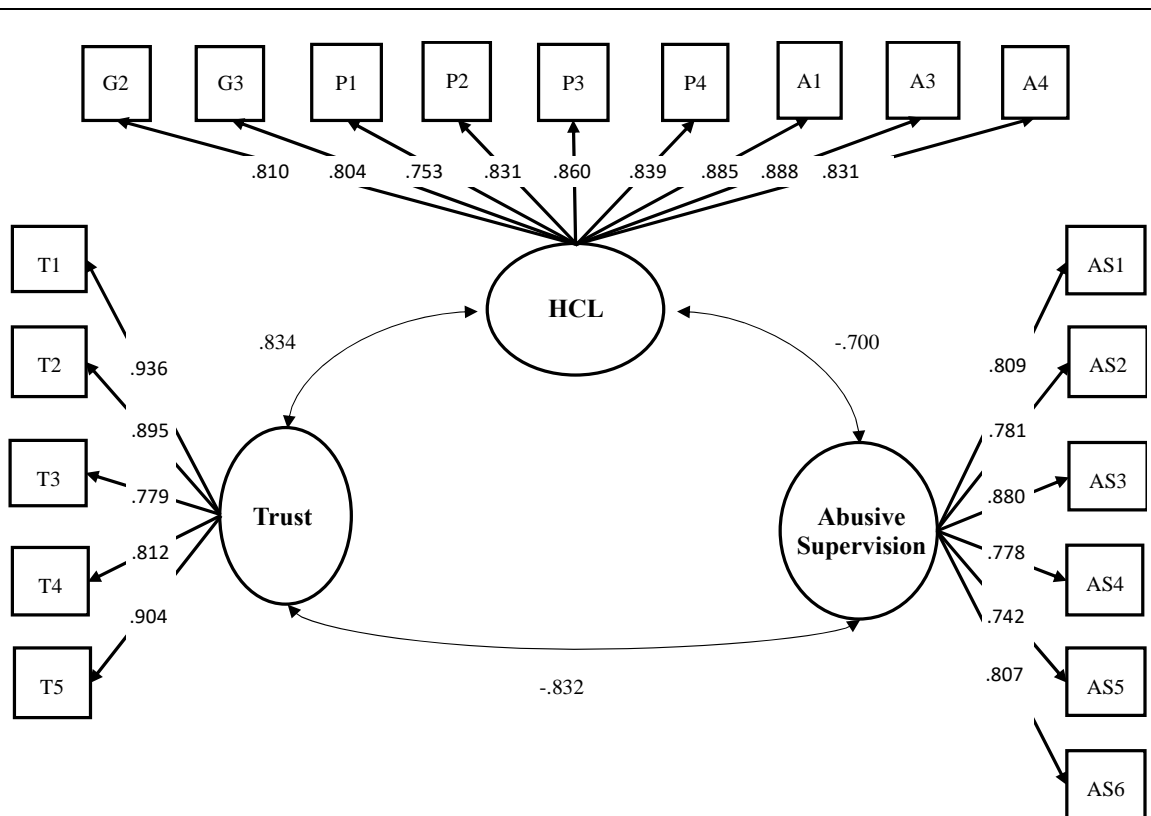
Parameter estimates for the HCL, Trust, and Abusive Supervision model were all above .70. The estimates ranged from a low of .779 (T3) to a high of .936 (T1). Results of the calculated model fit were: $\chi^2_{(167)} = 843.65$, $p < 0.001$; CFI = .899; SRMR = 0.065; RMSEA = 0.109, 90% CI (0.102, 0.117) (See Table 2.10).

In summary, the data analysis and empirical tests support the theory and conceptualization of the new HCL measure (see Appendix A). Consistent with the hypothesized model, HCL supports hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. Parameter estimates for the 12 and 9 item HCL measure cohered strongly around the HCL construction. Model fit was better for the 9-item measure, resulting in the conclusion that the 9-item measure is a more parsimonious and effective model. HCL had a strong statistically significant relationship with Collective Hope and Abusive Supervision supporting convergent validity and a smaller statistically significant relationship with trait Hope supporting discriminant validity.

Discussion

Yukl (2012) claimed that "the essence of leadership in organizations is influencing and facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (p. 66). One resource for potentially achieving individual and shared goals is by activating a person's hope (Snyder et al., 1997). Hope is a psychological mental state that can be developed and activated with positive results. The cognitive presence of hope drives successful goal achievement, fosters well-being, develops positive coping skills, and protects against strains leading to burnout (Snyder, 1995). Extensive research supports the claim that successful goal achievement requires the presence and utilization

of hope (Snyder, 2002; Wandeler et al., 2016). Drawing upon robust evidence, Wandeler et al. (2016) suggested that organizations should consider programs for promoting hope which incorporated the shared aspirations and interests of both the employees and organization. Within an organization, the actions and behaviors of leaders have the potential to activate or suppress an individual's hope (Helland & Winston, 2005). However, until now, no framework or measure existed to capture whether leaders' behaviors were conducive to fostering and nurturing hope within employees. HLC has the potential for addressing the challenge of determining how leaders influence hope.

HCL integrates Hope Theory (Snyder, 2002) and Yukl's (2012) Taxonomy of Leadership Behaviors to define leadership actions capable of setting goals as well as identifying pathways and agency crucial for pursuing the goals – steps which help generate positive beliefs about the future. The HCL items correspond with specific behaviors leaders can use with employees to set task-oriented goals, generate change-oriented pathways, and sustain relations-oriented agency. HCL was hypothesized as a measure with interrelated items that dynamically work together to center leadership around the social and psychological determinants of hope. The combined empirical evidence supports this conceptualization, validity, and measurement of HCL. Further, based on this evidence, the results have implications for additional research and practice.

CFA results confirmed the *a priori* first-order structure of HCL. Parameter estimates were determined for the 12-item model, but the model fit results were not within conventionally accepted estimates (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Consequently, a post-hoc review was conducted necessitating the elimination of three items - one goal question,

one pathway question, and one agency question – resulting in a 9-item measure with strong parameter estimates and a good model fit (Barrett, 2007; Shi et al., 2019) as well as strong internal reliability ($\alpha = .95$). As specified, employee hope can be nurtured through specific HCL behaviors which work through an interrelationship to shape and enhance the relational connection between a leader and employee. HCL behaviors are dependent upon each other: actions influence goals which influence pathways and agency, while agency building actions require identifying goals and pathways.

The correlation results provided validity evidence for the HCL concept and measure. As hypothesized, HCL had a stronger positive correlation with Collective Hope than with Hope, implying that HCL differentiates between a generalized or individualized hope that a person may hold and hope that is specific to the organization. HCL and Collective Hope arise from organizational conditions and often have a reciprocal impact upon each other. In contrast, Hope is a belief shaped by life experiences across different domains, many of which are outside the organization (Snyder, 2002). This distinction supports the concept that HCL functions within an organizational context similar to Collective Hope.

Convergent validity was further supported by the strong, positive correlation with Trust and a strong, negative correlation with Abusive Supervision. As predicted, individuals who viewed their leaders as hope-centered reported higher levels of trust in leaders and lower levels of abusive supervision. Ostensibly, HCL demonstrates a level of competence, benevolence, openness, honesty, and reliability. Therefore, HCL and Trust should be related. Additionally, abusive behaviors are antithetical to HCL actions making

77

it unlikely that an abusive leader would also be hope centered. In summary, the empirical tests resulted in validating HCL as a viable measure designed to capture whether a leader is building employee hope in an organizational context. The setting of task-oriented goals, navigation of change-oriented pathways, and cultivation of relations-oriented agency are wholly necessary and function together as interrelated facets of HCL.

The findings have implications for leadership research and practice. Within leadership studies, the ability to measure whether a leader is actively engaging in cultivating hope within employees was limited to extrapolating meaningful results primarily from the administration of trait, state, or collective hope scales (Hellman et al., 2023; Snyder et al., 2002). The HCL concept and measure now make it possible to study individual, group, and organizational leadership effects generated through the application of goals, pathways, and agency. Future research might focus on demonstrating how HCL serves as a job resource within organizations.

Additionally, research should ascertain whether HCL operates differently across different organizational structures (e.g., nonprofit, governmental, law enforcement). An additional question based on the CFA results is whether the HCL items can be further reduced yet still capture both the concept and theory supporting the measure. Finally, the interaction and outcomes between HCL and leadership theories such as transformational, authentic, and servant leadership should be explored.

HCL establishes a framework to examine whether employees are encouraged to learn new skills, creatively apply knowledge, consider different routes to achieve goals,

and build confidence and meaningful experiences during goal pursuit. HCL serves as the pathway for helping organizations achieve a brighter future.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to develop and validate the HCL measure and establish HCL as an evidenced-based means for operationalizing hope within an organization through the identification of behaviors leading to setting task-oriented goals, nurturing relations-oriented agency, and identifying change-oriented pathways. Confirmatory factor analysis and structure equation modeling confirmed the predicted hypotheses that HCL had a stronger positive correlation with Collective Hope than with Hope and a strong negative correlation with Abusive Supervision. These findings suggest that HCL likely serves as a viable means for operationalizing hope within employees in a way that increases leadership effectiveness and positive psychological and organizational outcomes. Leaders seeking to improve workplace well-being can benefit from the implementation of the HCL model.

HCL invites conversation around the question of improving employee hope, workplace well-being, and performance (Peterson & Byron, 2008; Wandeler et al., 2016; Youssef and Luthans, 2007). HCL likely offers a framework for implementing leadership and management training leading to increased collective hope and improved outcomes (cf. Reichard et al., 2013) and reducing the negative psychological effects associated with work such as burnout (Passmore et al., 2020). HCL fits strongly within an organizational context where leaders directly impact how employees view their organization's ability to identify and achieve its goals (Hellman et al., 2023).

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Appendix A: Hope-Centered Leadership Measure

	Items	Subcategory
1	My supervisor helps me to believe that our organization has a bright future.	Goal
2	My supervisor helps me to see that my personal goals align with the organization's goals.	Goal
3	My supervisor provides useful opportunities to learn skills that help me achieve goals.	Pathway
4	My supervisor encourages me to be creative in solving problems in route to achieving goals.	Pathway
5	My supervisor creates a safe and supportive environment to successfully work through challenges to goal attainment.	Pathway
6	My supervisor encourages me to generate multiple routes to achieve goals.	Pathway
7	My supervisor instills confidence in my ability to overcome challenges and achieve goals.	Agency
8	My supervisor recognizes my progress in successfully reaching goals.	Agency
9	My supervisor allows me to craft my job responsibilities to be more meaningful and satisfying.	Agency

Note. The HCL measure used for this study utilized a 5-item Likert-type scale of 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Regularly, and 5 = Always.

Appendix B: Analysis Of Missing Value Replacement

Variable	Before Replacement			After Replacement		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
HCL	328	3.60	0.966	340	3.61	0.971
Abusive Supervision	335	1.52	0.722	340	1.52	0.717
Hope	336	6.81	0.860	340	6.81	0.856
Trust	336	4.86	1.188	340	4.86	1.181
Collective Hope	336	4.74	0.989	340	4.75	0.984
Workplace Well-being	337	4.86	1.060	340	4.86	1.055
Exhaustion	331	2.64	0.553	340	2.64	0.548

MANUSCRIPT 3

Hope-Centered Leadership: A Resource for Employee Well-being

This manuscript was prepared for submission to the peer-reviewed
Journal of Happiness Studies and is the third of three manuscripts prepared for
a journal-ready doctoral dissertation.

Abstract

Purpose. The purpose of this study was to assess whether the application of Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL) served as a job resource through the lens of the Job Demands-Resources model (JD-R).

Design/methodological/approach. The empirical study utilized correlational analysis and structural equation modeling. Data originated from a sample of 501 employees employed in governmental, non-profit, law enforcement, private, and education sectors. Individuals averaged 9 years in their organization. Approximately, 80-percent identified as female and 19-percent as male. Fifty-four percent listed White, and 37-percent listed Black as their ethnicity. The largest group were government employees (65-percent) followed by non-profit (16-percent) and law enforcement (14-percent).

Findings. As hypothesized, HLC had a moderate to strong positive correlation with Collective Hope and Workplace Well-being and a small negative correlation with Exhaustion. Additionally, HCL was found to absorb the negative effects of Abusive Supervision upon Collective Hope, Workplace Well-being, and Exhaustion indicating HCL functioned as a job resource and mitigated job demands.

Practical implications – HCL provides a framework for increasing employee job resources leading to increased positive outcomes and decreasing the strain attributable to exhaustion, an important component of burnout. Further, HCL counteracted the negative behaviors of abusive supervision.

Originality/value. The results reveal that HCL can serve as a framework for improving leadership effectiveness and accomplishing employee and organizational well-being. Until now, no evidenced-based measure existed for confirming whether a leader's ability to activate employee hope was a job resource or a job demand.

Keywords. Collective Hope, Leadership, Hope-Centered Leadership, Job Demands-Resources, Abusive Supervision, Well-being

Hope-Centered Leadership: A Resource for Employee Well-being

In their 20-year retrospective on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, Bakker and Demerouti (2017) concluded, "it was now possible to investigate under which conditions employees flourish at work" (p. 275). Specifically, they discussed how job-related resources could serve as protective factors against psychological strains leading to burnout and thereby increase employee well-being and performance (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Similarly, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) argued job-demands potentially lowered employee performance by stimulating psychological strains which, if unaddressed, could result in maladaptive coping strategies and ill-being. Within the JD-R model, resources and demands are largely pliable configurations and conditions that leaders can influence (Schaufeli, 2017); however, leadership was not directly incorporated into the JD-R model until Schaufeli's work in 2015. Schaufeli (2015) expanded the model drawing upon the conclusions by Skakon et al. (2010) that leadership behaviors were closely linked with employee well-being. Schaufeli sought to determine how a leader's impact on the work climate impacted job demands and resources.

Creating a work environment leading to happy or productive employees has long been of interest to organizational psychologists (Clark, 2010; Cropanzano & Wright, 1999). Additionally, predicting the antecedents to improved well-being and measuring their effects has long been a focus of positive psychology (Diener, 2009). One such positive psychological strength leading to improved well-being is hope (Lee & Gallagher, 2018; Park et al., 2004). A leading framework for examining hope was developed by

Snyder et al. (1991a). Research utilizing hope theory has demonstrated hope is a significant predictor of well-being (Gallagher & Lopez, 2009). However, until recently the conceptualization and operationalization of leadership behaviors conducive for activating hope had not been established. Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL) made that connection (Freeze, 2023a, 2023b).

The present study situates HCL within the JD-R model to examine its capability of supporting positive mental states like employee workplace well-being, which in this study measures the effect of well-being leading to work engagement (Zheng et al., 2015). The study further examines how HCL can serve as a resource against maladaptive states like exhaustion, a component of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001). Additionally, the study compares the influence of HCL against the negative leadership behaviors of Abusive Supervision. The paper begins with a definition of HCL then a review of the JD-R model and the function of leadership as a resource and a demand. From there, rationales and a hypothesized model are advanced for empirical investigation.

Hope-Centered Leadership

One means of examining the effects of leadership behaviors for fostering and developing hope in employees is HCL. HCL was built upon Hope Theory (Snyder, 1994, 2002; Snyder et al., 1991a, 1996) and a Taxonomy of Leadership Behaviors (Yukl, 2012) to conceptualize how leaders work with employees on task-oriented goals, change-oriented pathways, and relations-oriented agency (Freeze, 2023a). Two tenants of HCL for this study are (1) leaders can activate hope within employees utilizing a cognitive developmental process, and (2) an organization's future can be brighter when employees

have access to HCL as a job resource. Since hope has been demonstrated as a predictor of well-being (Gallagher & Lopez, 2009) and can serve as a protective factor against burnout (Pharris et al., 2022), the ability to shape an employee's work engagement through the application of substantiated leadership behaviors should be important to and useful for leaders.

Snyder had little to say on the specific topic of leadership (cf. Snyder & Shorey, 2004). Instead, his focus was on how high-hope leaders could positively affect employees leading to the increased effectiveness of both. Snyder hypothesized that high hope leaders should be able to set clear goals and identify pathways (which he said were subgoals) leading to increased employee agency. In short, Snyder and Shorey (2004) theorized that leaders became leaders based on their ability to impart hope in others. However, the specific leadership behaviors necessary to activate hope in employees was not given significant treatment nor was a means for measuring a leaders' effectiveness in operationalizing hope explored.

Freeze (2023b) developed and validated a measure to support the conceptualization of HCL which now makes it possible to ascertain the impact leaders have on the operationalization of hope within an organizational climate. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) confirmed a 9-item first-order measure demonstrating strong internal reliability ($\alpha = .95$) and coalescing around items related to goals, pathways, and agency. SEM path analysis found a stronger positive relationship between HCL and collective hope ($r = .624$, $p < .01$) than between HCL and hope ($r = .303$ $p < .01$). Further, a strong, negative relationship between HCL and abusive supervision ($r = -.700$, $p < .01$)

was established demonstrating that HCL and abusive supervision were inverse constructs. The analysis confirmed HCL as a practical means for operationalizing hope by leaders (see Appendix A for the 9-item measure; Freeze, 2023b). What has yet to be tested is whether HCL itself serves as a job resource within the JD-R model.

Job Demands – Resources Model

The JD-R model was first introduced in English by Demerouti and her colleagues in 2001. JD-R incorporated aspects of the Demand-Control Model (DCM; Karasek, 1979) with its emphasis on a person's ability to control or influence work demands and Hobfoll's (2002) conservation of resources theory which states, "people seek to obtain, retain, and protect resources and that stress occurs when resources are threatened with loss or lost or when individuals fail to gain resources after substantive resource investment" (p. 312; Hobfoll, 1989).

Job Demands-Resources Theory

The theory behind the JD-R model is based on three premises as demonstrated in Figure 3.1. First, the theory claims that all aspects of a job can be bifurcated into two groups: job demands and job resources. As such, the application of JD-R is flexible enough and viable for all organizations and work situations. While the demands and resources vary between groups or occupations, they can be applied to the JD-R model (Bakker et al., 2014). Second, available or increased resources can lead to motivation, engagement, and enjoyment which can subsequently lead to improved employee and organizational outcomes. However, increased demands can lead to exhaustion, decreased

health, and stress which can subsequently affect desired outcomes (Bakker et al., 2014). The imbalance between demands and resources helps explain the presence of burnout which was why the JD-R model was initially developed (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli, 2017). Third, the interaction between job demands and resources influences well-being. Job resources can act as a buffer to job demands as demands rise (Bakker et al., 2014).

As use of the model matured, researchers began to incorporate a bottom-up approach to the work environment instead of the previous top-down approach which addressed the negative aspects of work. Consideration was given to how employees might proactively craft their job responsibilities (job or task crafting), engage with others (relationship crafting), and increase their job satisfaction (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). When employees have freedom to provide input on their responsibilities through job crafting, as an example, an upward trajectory occurs resulting in higher levels of motivation and engagement. Conversely, when employees are plagued by symptoms leading to burnout a downward trajectory occurs where employees further undermine their efforts and exacerbate burnout through stress and self-undermining (Tummers & Bakker, 2017. One of the notable advances of the JD-R was the inclusion of personal resources of which, goal setting, was seen as a positive resource leading to improved agency, job performance, and job satisfaction (Bakker et al., 2014; Judge et al., 2005).

Description of Job Demands

Drawing upon the DCM, Bakker et al. (2008) argued that as job demands rise so does the energy necessary to keep performance at the desired level. When demands

95

become too high and energy is not replenished, performance suffers. Bakker and

Demerouti (2007) asserted that "job demands refer to those physical, psychological,

social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or

psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with

certain physiological and psychological costs" [e.g., exhaustion] (p. 312). For example,

work-related job demands can have a negative psychological or physical toll on an

individual's well-being which are often caused by conflict with leaders, clients, or co-

workers. (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Tummers & Bakker,

2017).

Figure 3.1

Job Demands-Resources Model
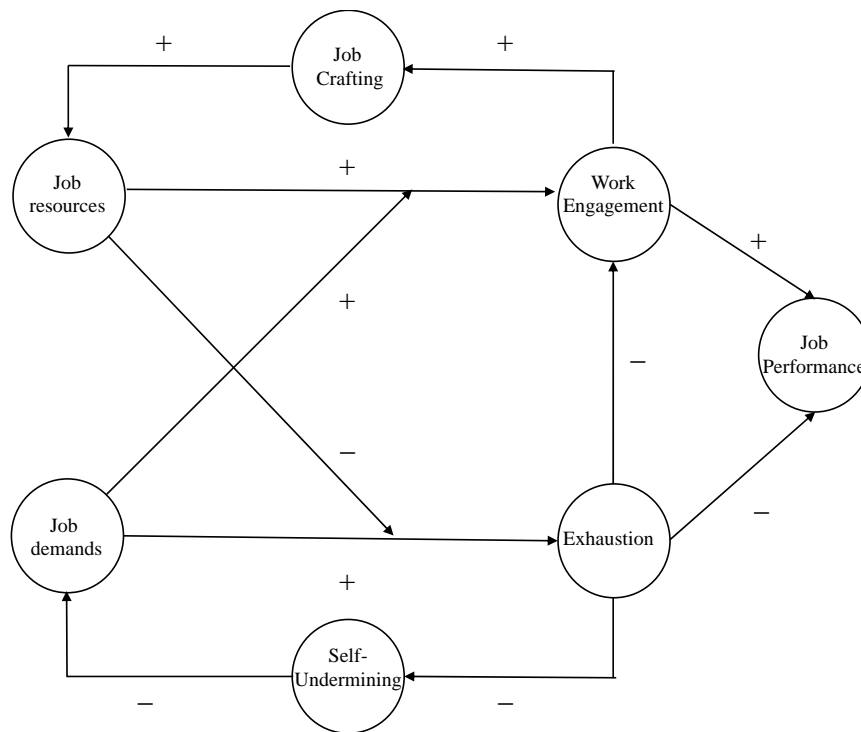
Note: Adapted from Bakker et al., 2014; and Bakker & Demerouti (2017).

In his guide to applying the JD-R model, Schaufeli (2017) recounted 26 job demands across three categories: qualitative, quantitative, and organizational (Table 3.1). Examples of qualitative demands include emotional, mental, physical, and work-home challenges. Quantitative examples include heavy workloads, insufficient workloads, and poorly executed changes. Organizational demands equate to negative change, bureaucracy, harassment, role conflict, and interpersonal conflict. Broadly, researchers have identified the most significant job demands as "role ambiguity, role conflict, role stress, stressful events, workload, and work pressure" (Bakker et al., 2014, p. 392; cf. Alarcon, 2011; cf. Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Bakker and Demerouti (2017) named two additional demands: hindrance and challenge. Hindrance demands prevent goal achievement and equate with role ambiguity and conflict demands. Challenge demands are often viewed positively in organizations, but research has demonstrated that work overloads, time constraints, and excessive responsibilities can hinder goal achievement depending on the work context. Instead of trying to eliminate job demands leading to burnout, which can be difficult depending on the occupation, what is needed is the identification of resources which can act as protective factors against the detrimental effects of burnout (Bakker et al., 2005; Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli, 2015).

Description of Job Resources

Job resources were defined by Bakker and Demerouti (2007) as "those physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that are either: functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; [or] stimulate personal growth, learning, and development." (p. 312).

Job resources play a significant role in the JD-R model and in how job-related strains are addressed. One meta-analysis found that job resources were a strong and important predictor of work engagement (Christian et al, 2011). Engagement increased when resources served as a motivational force which, in turn, often resulted in increased performance. The motivators can be either intrinsic, which correspond with learning and personal development resource elements, or they can be extrinsic with their focus on others for help in goal achievement contributing to fulfillment and commitment to the organization (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Snyder et al., 1997). When work engagement increases due to sufficient job resources, so too does workplace well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2014).

Schaufeli (2017) identified 51 job resources which he grouped into four categories: social, work, organizational, and developmental resources (Table 3.1). Examples of social resources are supervisor and peer support, role clarity, and recognition. Work examples include job control, participation in decision making, and availability of tools. Organizational resources incorporate matters such as communication, trust in leadership, organizational justice, and value congruency. Developmental resources involve feedback and career enhancement opportunities. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) took a different approach to classifying job resources. They suggested resources could be found at the organizational level (e.g., financial, developmental), interpersonal/social level (e.g., supervisor and peer support), position level (e.g., role clarity, decision making), and task level (e.g., skills, significance, feedback). Regardless of grouping, external resources are necessary for successfully coping with the effects of job demands and for achieving goals (Demerouti et al., 2001).

While personal resources were not envisioned in the original JD-R model, they have become a valuable addition. Personal resources in the JD-R discussion incorporate positive psychological constructs such as resilience, self-efficacy, and optimism as well as positive self-evaluations of life satisfaction, goal identification, and motivation (Bakker et al., 2014; Schaufeli, 2017). Interestingly, in two important studies on personal resources, Xanthopolou et al. (2009) found that three personal resources (i.e., self-efficacy, organizational self-esteem, and optimism) did not directly reduce job demands. Instead, these personal resources, which were deemed malleable, served as mediators between job resources and work engagement. In other words, "engaged employees do not only feel good about themselves, but also they are best able to mobilize support from colleagues, receive feedback, and to create opportunities at work" (Xanthopolou et al., 2009, p. 241).

This finding was in line with Hobfall (2002) who suggested that as employees in a positive work environment utilized job resources their personal resources (e.g., self-efficacy and optimism) helped build additional job resources through their reciprocal effect on their work environment (Xanthopolou et al., 2009). Xanthopolou et al. (2009) envisioned their idea of personal resources similar to how Luthans and Youssef (2007) defined positive psychological capital - hope, optimism, resiliency, and efficacy - and how those psychological states influenced the work environment. A question that arises from the literature is whether HCL serves as a job resource leading to higher levels of well-being and performance and decreased exhaustion.

Table 3.1

Categories and Examples of Job Demands and Job Resources

Job Demands	Examples	Job Resources	Examples
Qualitative		*Social*	
	Emotional		Supervisor support
	Mental		Peer support
	Physical		Role clarity
	Work-home		Recognition
Quantitative		*Work*	
	Heavy Workloads		Job control
	Insufficient workloads		Decision making participation
	Poorly executed changes		Availability of tools
Organizational		*Organizational*	
	Negative change		Communication
	Bureaucracy		Trust
	Harassment		Justice
	Role Conflict		Value congruency
	Interpersonal		
		Developmental	
			Feedback
			Career opportunities

Note. Adapted from Bakker and Demerouti (2007).

Leadership and Job Demands-Resources Model

Tummers and Bakker (2021) concluded that leadership can directly influence demands and resources leading to an effect on job performance. Drawing upon the work of Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) and Skogstad et al. (2007), Schaufeli (2015) reported that positive leadership led to increased motivation and engagement while abusive leadership contributed to higher degrees of burnout. However, Schaufeli (2015) squarely placed the negative impact of job demands on the leaders' shoulders. He called for leaders to

manage job demands and resources in a way that contributed to healthy and productive employees.

This argument aligned with Breevaart et al. (2014) who found that positive leadership behaviors linked with transformational leadership were seen by followers as a job resource. Their research demonstrated that employees who were influenced by transformational leadership behaviors exhibited a higher level of engagement and well-being. However, they caveated their study by revealing that the positive effects of a leader's transformational behavior were moderated by the employee's independence. This led Breevaart et al. (2014) to suggest that other leadership theories might be more applicable.

Tummers and Bakker (2021) appeared to heed Breevaart's caveat of measuring the impact of transformational, transactional, supportive, and abusive leadership supervision upon job demands and resources. They found three clear connections between leaders and the JD-R model (Figure 3.2). First, leaders can directly impact demands and resources organizationally through their leadership behaviors through increasing resources and decreasing or counteracting demands. Leadership behaviors that embrace employee autonomy and social support were deemed to be job resources while increased workload was a demand (Tummers & Bakker, 2021).

Figure 3.2

Influence of Leadership on JD-R Model
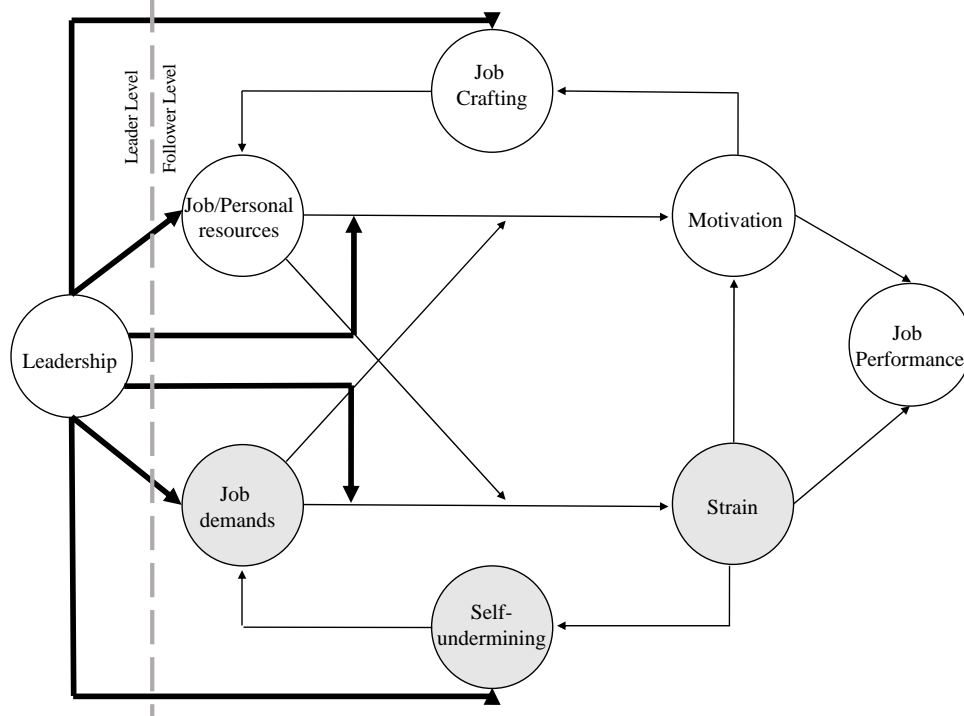
Note: Adapted from Tummers and Bakker, 2021.

Second, Tummers and Bakker (2021) said leadership can act as a moderator between job resources and motivation as well as job demands and strain. For example, leaders who help employees deploy their resources or provide more autonomy (e.g., job crafting) should see an increase in motivation. Further, leaders who helped employees increase their passion for achieving the organization's goals could help reduce job demands if workloads subsequently increased (Tummers & Bakker, 2021).

Third, Tummers and Bakker (2021) said leaders can significantly impact an employee's job crafting or self-undermining. Leaders empower employees through job

crafting when they allow the employee to have significant input on the required job responsibilities. They suggested that leaders who empowered their employees through job crafting saw higher engaged employees and a more thriving work climate. Conversely, leaders can also respond with abusive supervision leading to a downward spiral of employee self-undermining when the employee is constantly criticized for mistakes or primarily receives negative feedback on his or her performance (Tummers & Bakker, 2021).

Rationale and Hypothesized Model for Present Study

In this study, HCL will be examined as a resource within the JD-R model. As observed in Figure 3.2, job resources can lead to increased motivation which, in turn, can lead to an increase in the desired goal. Conversely, job demands can lead to increased strain leading to a decrease in the desired goal. Further, a decrease in job resources can lead to increased strain while a decrease in job demands can lead to an increase in motivation. For this study, collective hope serves as a motivational resource for all employees, exhaustion is specified as a maladaptive state, and workplace well-being is the desired goal or outcome. The influence and results of HCL are compared against the job demand of abusive leadership.

Collective hope was defined by Hellman et al. (2023) as the perception by a group of employees as to how likely an organization can achieve its goals through identified pathways and sustained agency. While Bernardo (2010; 2015) demonstrated that individuals use internal trait hope in their pursuit of life satisfaction and increased well-being, achieving one's goals also has an external locus meaning other people had the

103

ability to shape and influence the development of hope within others. His research supported the work of Bandura (2001) who identified the role of collective agency in pursuing shared goals. Ludema et al. (1997) said hope was extremely powerful when it was exercised collectively in an organizational context when values and ideals were being pursued. Hellman et al. (2023) partially drew upon Bernardo (2010; 2015) in the development of a new collective hope measure. In their study, they acknowledged that a leader's ability to influence trait hope was usually limited in an organizational setting. Rather, leaders were well placed to develop a group's collective hope and achieve shared organizational goals (Hellman et al., 2023). This collective agency was observable when employees participated in setting goals and identifying pathways were group efforts. Hellman et al. (2023) demonstrated in their research that collective hope had a positive correlation in reduced burnout among public sector employees.

In their work on burnout and JD-R, Bakker et al. (2014) utilized Fruedenberger's (1974) definition of burnout which said exhaustion was due to the strains caused by a person's professional life where motivation and devotion no longer existed. Maslach and Leiter (2008) stated exhaustion was the primary contributor to burnout and resulted when a person's resources were depleted which was confirmed by research conducted by Bakker et al. (2005). Consequently, individuals experiencing burnout often distanced or removed themselves from their work as a coping mechanism. When individuals experience an increased level of strain (e.g., exhaustion), and the resources are no longer sufficeint to overcome the strains, they are more likely to be dissatisfied, be chronically absent from work, and consider leaving the organization's employment (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). In essence, they are lacking what Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) called vigor

(i.e., high energy) and dedication (i.e., passion). Two leading factors related to the extent to which exhaustion affects an employee is the behavior of the supervisor and the support from fellow coworkers (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) reached the conclusion that when positive psychological states are activated through available resources, employees have a stronger attachment to their organization and higher employee well-being (cf. Bakker et al., 2014).

Diener (1984) reported that well-being, specifically subjective well-being, dealt with how individuals positively experienced their lives. He found at the time of his writing, that well-being measures were highly correlated with one's satisfaction of family life, but less correlated with one's work and health. He concluded that the relationships were potentially biased due to the subjective nature of the evaluation. Zheng et al. (2015) took this subjectivity into consideration when developing the Employee Well-being Scale (EWB). Developing a scale less dependent on subjective well-being was important given the collective nature Chinese culture. In China, individuals are likely to consider the goals and needs of the group over those of the individual (Markus et al., 1996; Zheng et al., 2015). As part of the EWB, Zheng et al. (2015) proposed three concepts of well-being: life well-being (LWB), psychological well-being (PWB), and workplace well-being (WWB). For this study, WWB was utilized which captured the facets of well-being pertaining to an employee's workplace. Zheng et al. (2015) proffered that leaders and supervisors could use their scale to develop viable interventions designed to increase employee well-being. Van Horn et al. (2004), drawing upon the work of Warr (1987; 1994), surmised that addressing work-related well-being was advantageous given the strong relationship with exhaustion which was found to diminish workplace well-being.

Burton (2010) argued that the well-being of employees was a necessary consideration for establishing a healthy workplace and that the achievement of well-being required leadership involvement. Lizano (2015) specifically concluded that employee well-being interventions required leaders to develop strategies to specifically address the reduction of exhaustion due to the diminished resources. In their meta-analysis work on leadership behaviors and well-being, Skakon et al. (2010), concluded that "leader behaviors and leadership style impact employee stress and affective well-being" (p. 133). Specifically, leadership behaviors that were supportive, developed trust, and providing feedback reduced stress and increased well-being.

Tepper (2000) defined abusive supervision as "the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (p. 178). The application of abusive supervision has been linked to negative outcomes such as employee turnover, work-life imbalance, job dissatisfaction, and exhaustion. When employees lack the resources to effectively cope with sustained abuse, their well-being diminishes (Tepper, 2000).

The hypothesized model is presented in Figure 3.3. For this study, HCL is hypothesized to be a job resource that is related to collective hope (i.e., motivation), and has a direct and indirect relationship with workplace well-being. Additionally, abusive supervision is hypothesized to act as a job demand directly related to increased strain (i.e., exhaustion) and decreased workplace well-being. As a resource, HCL will also directly mitigate the effects of job demands (e.g., exhaustion) and absorb the negative effects of abusive supervision on collective hope.

106

Figure 3.3

HCL Hypothesized Model Path Analysis
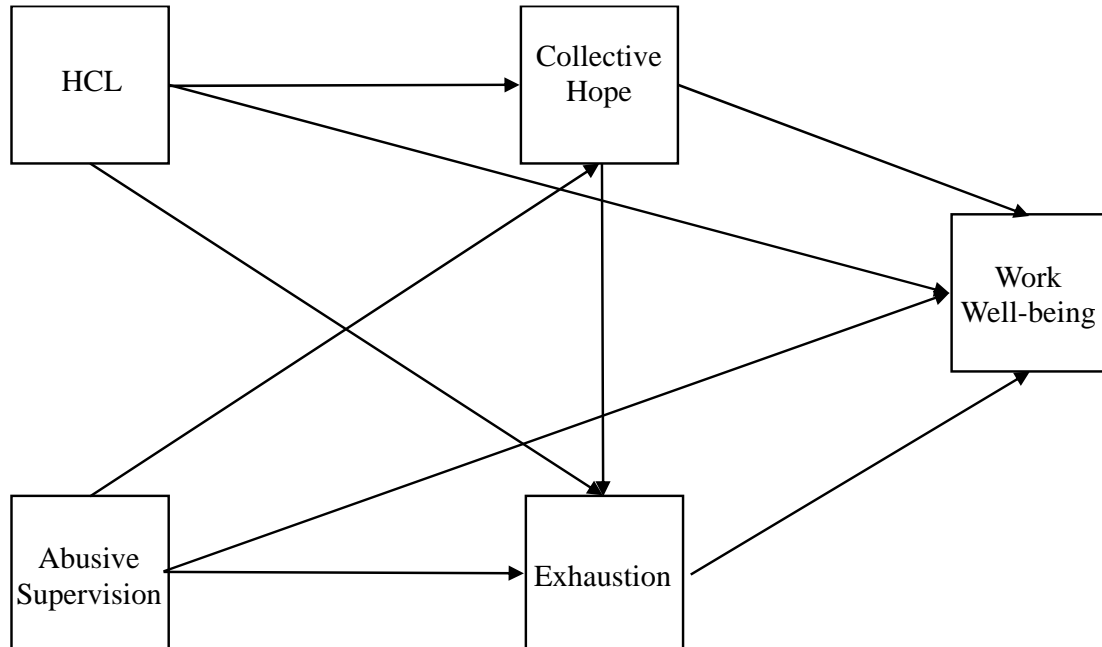
Empirical Methods

Participants and Data Collection Procedure

This study was designed to assess the impact of HCL on collective hope, exhaustion, and workplace well-being. Data originated from a sample of individuals solicited from public, private, non-profit, and law enforcement agencies. In August 2023, an electronic survey was sent to the executive directors and senior leaders of various organizations seeking their support in having employees complete the survey. Participation was voluntary and confidential. A total of 501 individuals completed the survey and results were imported into SPSS 29.0 followed by a data cleaning process.

Missing values were replaced using SPSS' series mean function (see Appendix B for descriptive statistics for each variable before and after missing value replacement). Due to the small number of replacements, no statistical differences were noted between the original and replaced value data sets.

Presented in Table 3.2 are the demographic statistics for the survey respondents. The gender was overwhelming female (n = 400, 79.8%), followed by male (n = 93, 18.6%), transgender (n = 2, 0.4%), and those who did not identify a gender (n = 1, 0.2%). Ethnically, the breakdown was moderately diverse and consisted of Asian (n = 1, 0.2%), Black (n = 184, 36.7%), Hispanic (n = 12, 2.4%), Native American (n = 3, 0.6%), Multiracial (n = 19, 3.8%), and White (n = 271, 54.1%). Age was captured by asking with which generation (e.g., Gen. X, Millennial) the respondent identified. Baby Boomers accounted for 12.2% (n = 61), Generation X accounted for 45.3% (n = 227), Generation Y accounted for 35.3% (n = 177), and Generation Z accounted for 5.4% (n = 27). Years of service ranged from zero (0.0) indicating less than 6 months on the job to a high of 40 years. The average tenure of years on the job was 8.97 years (SD = 7.95).

The largest percentage of participants reported working for a government agency (n = 326, 65.1%) followed by non-profits (n = 78, 15.6%), law enforcement (n = 68, 13.6%, private business (n = 11, 2.2%), and education (n = 11, 2.2%). Participants overwhelmingly had a 4-year degree or higher (n = 420, 83.8%) followed by some college (n = 59, 11.8%) and then high school or GRE status (n = 14, 2.8%). Nearly three-quarters of respondents worked more than the traditional 40 hours in a week (n = 368, 73.5%) with approximately a quarter (n = 121, 24.2) working 20 to 40 hours per week

and a small percentage (n = 7, 1.4%) employed part time. Finally, slightly more than half (n = 265, 52.9%) held no formal leadership or supervisor position with the remaining respondents holding formal leadership positions (n = 216, 43.1%).

Table 3.2

Demographic Statistics

Variable	*n*	*%*
Gender		
Female	400	79.8
Male	93	18.6
Transgender	2	0.4
Do not identify as male, female, or transgender	1	0.2
Ethnicity		
Asian	1	0.2
Black	184	36.7
Hispanic	12	2.4
Multiracial	19	3.8
Native American	3	0.6
White	271	54.1
Age		
Silent Generation (1928 – 1945)	0	0.0
Baby Boomers (1946 – 1964)	61	12.2
Generation X (1965 – 1980)	227	45.3
Generation Y / Millennials (1981 – 1996)	177	35.3
Generation Z (1997 – present)	27	5.4
Type of Organization		
Non-profit	78	15.6
Private business	11	2.2
Government Agency	326	65.1
Law Enforcement	68	13.6
Teacher	11	2.2

Education		
High School or GRE	14	2.8
Some College	59	11.8
4-year degree or higher	420	83.8
Formal Leadership Position		
Yes	216	43.1
No	265	52.9
Hours Worked Per Week		
1 – 20 hours	7	1.4
20 – 40 hours	121	24.2
40+ hours	368	73.5

Note. Sample sizes and percentages represent participants who reported information for that variable.

Measures

Abusive Supervision. The Abusive Supervision scale was used to capture an employee's perception that a supervisor engaged in verbal or non-verbal offensive behaviors (Tepper, 2000). For this study, a shortened version of 6 items was utilized drawing upon Mitchell and Ambrose's (2007) factorial analysis of Tepper's (2000) original 15-item measure. Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) identified and utilized the highest scores for both active and passive abusive behaviors and used a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly Agree*; 7 = *Strongly Disagree*). Examples included "My supervisor blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment" (e.g., passive) and "My supervisor puts me down in front of others" (e.g., active). A total score was calculated by summing the active and passive items and then finding the average. The original measure demonstrated good internal consistency with a coefficient of .90 (Tepper, 2000) and was consistent with the observed alpha for this study ($\alpha = .94$). For this study, responses were

110

scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Never*; 5 = *Always*) to better align with the HCL response scale.

Hope-Centered Leadership. Freeze (2023b) developed the Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL) measure to capture whether a leader's behaviors activate an employee's hope through setting goals, navigating pathways, and cultivating agency. For this study, the 9-item measure used a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Never*; 5 = *Always*). Examples included "My supervisor helps me to believe that our organization has a bright future" and "My supervisor instills confidence in my ability to overcome challenges and achieve goals." An average total score was calculated by summing all nine items and then finding the average. Higher scores indicated higher frequency of HCL behaviors. For this study the measure demonstrated strong reliability with a Cronbach alpha of .97 which was consistent with a previous result (α = .95) (Freeze, 2023b).

Collective Hope. The Collective Hope Scale (CHS) measures how well individuals perceive their organization's ability to successfully achieve its goals through recognized pathways and attentive agency (Hellman et al., 2023). The CHS consists of 6 items scored on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Definitely False*; 6 = *Definitely True*). Examples include "My organization can identify shared goals" (e.g., Goals) and "My organization will actively pursue its goals" (e.g., Agency). An average total score was calculated by summing all six items and then finding the average. Higher scores indicated higher levels of collective hope. The CHS has consistently demonstrated good internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha of .95 (Hellman et al., 2023) and an observed alpha in this study of .95.

Exhaustion. The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) was developed by Demerouti et al. (2002) and translated from German into English by Halbesleben & Demerouti (2005). The OLBI consists of two factors: exhaustion and disengagement. For this study, the 8-item exhaustion items were used to capture an employee's feelings of excessive strain and depletion of resources utilizing a four-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 4 = *Strongly Agree*). Examples include "There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work" (reverse scored) and "This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing." A total exhaustion score was calculated by summing all eight items after considering the items that were reverse scored and then finding the average. The OLBI exhaustion subscale demonstrated good internal consistency for this study with a Cronbach alpha of .87. Exhaustion has been demonstrated to be strongly related to the pressures of work and mental states (Demerouti et al., 2010).

Workplace Well-being. Employee workplace well-being was measured using the Workplace Well-being scale (WWB) validated by Zheng et al. (2015). The 6-item WWB is part of a larger 18-item employee well-being scale that includes scales for life well-being and psychological well-being. For this study the WWB was scored on a six-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 6 = *Strongly Agree*). Examples include "I can always find ways to enrich my work" and "I feel basically satisfied with my work achievements in my current job." A total well-being score was calculated by summing all six items and then finding the average. The WWB subscale originally demonstrated good internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha of .87 and for this study returned an alpha of .92. The WWB scale was designed to capture the dispositional affect of work

engagement and an individual's satisfaction with work to include both positive and negative aspects (Zheng et al., 2015).

Limitations

This study on demonstrating HCL as a resource within the JD-R model is not without its limitations. First, the participants in the study were primarily government, non-profit, and law enforcement employees. Had private sector employees participated at higher rates, the results may have differed, especially on how the private sector leadership impacts HCL. Second, the sample was heavily weighted toward black and white ethnicities. Had additional ethnically diverse employees participated, insights on how HCL functioned as a resource across diverse ethnicities could have been examined. Third, HCL was not tested in the JD-R model against widely recognized leadership theories (e.g., transformational, transactional, authentic). Therefore, additional investigation as to how HCL contributed to workplace well-being and exhaustion over other theories may have suggested different results.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The mean, standard deviation, range, alpha, and bivariate correlation coefficients are conveyed in Table 3.3. The means were as follows: HCL - 3.55, exhaustion - 2.53, collective hope - 4.75 and workplace well-being - 4.81. The mean for abusive supervision was 1.59. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to evaluate the relationships between variables. Consistent with the conceptualization of HCL, there was a significant

strong positive relationship between HCL and collective hope (r = .506, p < .01) and between HCL and workplace well-being (r = .523, p < .01). There was a significant strong negative correlation with abusive supervision (r = -.706, p < .01) and a significant moderate negative correlation with exhaustion (r =-.393, p < .01).

These correlations indicate that HCL and abusive supervision are significantly different concepts and constructs. Further, the relationships between HCL and collective hope and HCL and workplace well-being indicate that HCL has a direct bearing on how employees: (1) perceive their organization's ability to achieve its goals, and (2) how their workplace well-being was impacted through leadership behaviors.

Table 3.3

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	*M*	SD	Range	HCL	AS	CH	WWB	Ex	NP	Govt	LE
HCL	3.55	1.210	1 to 5	1	(.97)						
AS	1.59	0.940	1 to 5	-.706**	1	(.94)					
CH	4.71	1.120	1 to 6	.506**	-.330**	1	(.95)				
WWB	4.81	1.075	1 to 6	.523**	-.397**	.551**	1	(.92)			
EX	2.53	0.597	1 to 4	-.393**	.296**	-.397**	-.591**	1	(.87)		
NP	0.16	0.363	*na*	.163**	-.105*	.197**	.148**	-.159**	1		
Govt	0.65	0.477	*na*	.036	-.014	.052	.021	.111*	-.586**	1	
LE	0.14	0.343	*na*	-.206**	.114*	-.272**	-.183**	.050	-.170**	-.541**	1

Note. ** p < .01. * p < .05. *n* = 501. Cronbach Alpha displayed on the diagonal. HCL = Hope-Centered Leadership; AS = Abusive Supervision; CH = Collective Hope; WWB = Workplace Well-being; EX = Exhaustion; NP = Non-profit; Govt = Government; LE = Law Enforcement.

To better understand whether being employed at different types of organizations had a direct bearing on the variables under consideration, new variables were created for the non-profit, government, and law enforcement organizational types. While data was collected for private businesses and teachers, those totals represented less than 5% of the entire sample and were not included in this analysis. The Point biserial correlation coefficients for these new variables indicated there was no statistically significant relationship between HCL and government employees (r_{pb} = .036, p > .05) while there was a statistically significant, weak, positive relationship between HCL and non-profits (r_{pb} = .163, p < .05) and a statistically significant, weak, negative relationship between HCL and law enforcement (r_{pb} = -.206, p < .05).

Like the relationships with HCL, there was no statistically significant relationship between abusive supervision and government employees (r_{pb} = -.014, p > .05), a statistically significant weak, negative correlation for nonprofit employees (r_{pb} = -.105, p < .05), and a statistically weak, strong correlation for law enforcements (r_{pb} = .114, p < .05). This result indicates that the leadership construct of abusive supervision, consistent with HCL, is minimally affected by organization type while employees are largely impacted by the application of leadership behaviors.

Additional analysis revealed there was a statistically significant, weak, positive correlation between collective hope and non-profits (r_{pb} = .197, p < .01), a statistically significant, weak, negative correlation with law enforcement (r_{pb} = -.272, p < .01), and no statistical relationship with government (r_{pb} = .052, p > .05). Finally, there was a statistically significant, weak, negative correlation between exhaustion and non-profits

(r_{pb} = -.159, p < .01), a statistically significant, weak, positive correlation with government (r_{pb} = .111, p < .05), and no statistical relationship with law enforcement (r_{pb} = .050, p > .05).

These results are consistent with the understanding that an employee's type of work has either no or a minimal bearing on the constructs of HCL, collective hope, workplace well-being, and exhaustion. Rather, employees as a group are affected by how leadership behaviors effect the variables under consideration.

Structure Equation Model

A path estimate model was created using AMOS 29.0 to test the hypothesized model and is presented in Figure 3.4. Table 3.4 presents the unstandardized effects of HCL and abusive supervision on workplace well-being while Table 3.5 presents the standardized effects of the same. As predicted, HCL functions as a job resource for employees. As seen in Figure 3.4., HCL had a strong, positive relationship to collective hope (i.e., motivation) (β = .533, p < .01) and a small, negative relationship with exhaustion (β = -.225, p < .01). HCL also had a direct relationship with workplace well-being (β = .191, p < .01) operating through collective hope and the reduction of exhaustion. Abusive supervision had no statistical effect on collective hope (β = .054, p > .05), exhaustion (β = .050, p > .05), or workplace well-being (β = -.057, p > .05). Finally, collective hope had a small, positive relationship to workplace well-being (β = .295, p < .01) and a small, negative relationship with exhaustion (β = -.276, p < .01). Exhaustion had a medium, negative relationship with workplace well-being (β = -.392, p < .01).

116

Table 3.4

Standardized Effects of HCL and Abusive Supervision on Workplace Well-being

Variable	Standardized Effects			
	Abusive Supervision	HCL	Collective Hope	Exhaustion
Collective Hope	.054	.533**	.000**	.000**
Exhaustion	.050	-.225**	-.276**	.000**
Workplace Well-being	-.057	.191**	.295**	-.392**

Note. ** $p < .01$.

Figure 3.4

HCL Model Path Analysis With Unstandardized and Standardized Coefficients
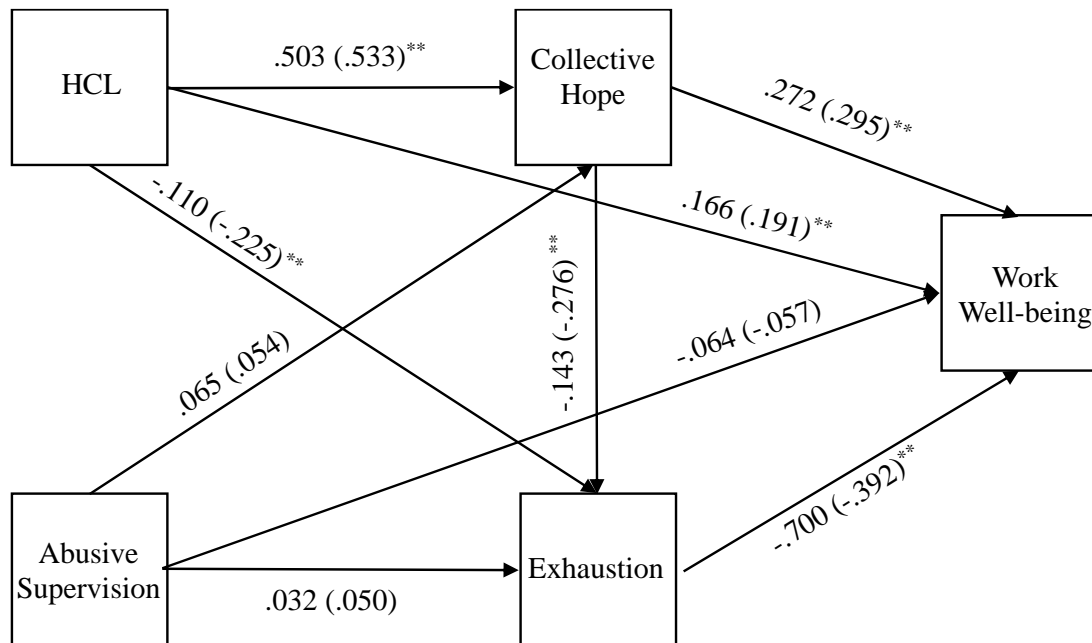
Note. Coefficients in parenthesis are standardized regression coefficients. ** $p < .01$.

117

Table 3.5

Unstandardized Effects of HCL and Abusive Supervision on Workplace Well-being

Variable	Unstandardized Effects			
	Abusive Supervision	HCL	Collective Hope	Exhaustion
Collective Hope	.065	.503**	.000**	.000**
Exhaustion	.032	-.110**	-.143**	.000**
Work Well-being	-.064	.166**	.272**	-.700**

Note. ** $p < .01$

In sum, the empirical tests and SEM path models provided evidence in support of the hypothesized model. HCL demonstrated it can serve as a job resource by enhancing collective hope and reducing exhaustion leading to increased workplace well-being. The hypothesized model also demonstrates that abusive supervision functions as a job demand leading to reduced workplace well-being. Additionally, when HCL is used by an organization's leadership, the effects of abusive supervision become insignificant.

Discussion

Snyder and Shorey (2004) hypothesized that leaders should be capable of nurturing hope within followers through the identification of pathways and activation of agency (cf. Snyder et al., 1991a). Wandeler et al. (2017), commenting on Hobfoll's (1998, 2002) conservation of resources theory, specifically highlighted higher levels of hope as a positive job resource leading to improved workplace well-being. They suggested that further research should examine how leadership behaviors fostered hope within employees. As a cognitive mental state, hope research has demonstrated the

capacity of individuals to learn, develop, and apply hope within the organizational environment (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Reichard et al., 2013).

Empirical evidence supported the hypothesis that a leader had the ability to activate and operationalize hope within an organizational climate and that HCL can be measured (Freeze, 2023b). In this study, the empirical evidence suggested that HCL would function as a job resource in the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model. Specifically, HCL would function as a job resource increasing collective hope and workplace well-being while mitigating job demands such as abusive supervision which can result in exhaustion – a leading cause of burnout in organizations (Bakker et al., 2008; Borst et al. 2019; Wandeler et al., 2017).

Additionally, SEM demonstrated that HCL countered the effects of abusive supervision by absorbing significant variance contributed by abusive supervision on collective hope, exhaustion, and workplace well-being. Thus, HCL has a stronger influence on employee's mental states, both on positive workplace well-being and the reduction of the leadership demand of abusive supervision. Hope-centered leaders are interested in their employee's goals, the paths to reaching those goals, and the motivation necessary to keep an employee engaged. Abusive supervision is primarily self-centered leadership and more conducive to accomplishing the leader's personal goals than accomplishing shared goals.

In summary, the empirical tests demonstrated that HCL serves a job resource designed to ameliorate the negative effects of exhaustion, particularly the effects of abusive supervision leading to exhaustion, while serving as a resource contributing to the

positive improvement of workplace well-being. These results are explained utilizing the JD-R model which demonstrates how leadership behaviors can lead to increased motivation (e.g., collective hope) and decreased strain (e.g., exhaustion). The HCL framework, as demonstrated in the JD-R model, confirms the conceptualization that hope can be operationalized through the setting of task-oriented goals, navigation of change-oriented pathways, and cultivation of relations-oriented agency.

Mumford et al. (2000) stated that leaders were expected to improve their problem-solving skills and enhance their effectiveness as they progressed to higher leadership positions. They stated that enhanced effectiveness was accomplishable through leadership training. Implementing a training program focusing on the facets of HCL would likely demonstrate promising results. Nearly 75 years ago, Stogdill (1950) argued that organizations needed well-trained leaders who exhibited positive goal-achieving behaviors that enhanced individual and organizational well-being (Stogdill, 1950). HCL contributes to Stogdill's call for enhanced employee well-being by demonstrating that leaders trained on HCL will potentially be more effective and have a greater positive influence on employees and organizational policies (cf. Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Snyder et al., 2000a).

Future Research

Future research should focus on demonstrating how HCL serves as a job resource as compared to leadership theories such as transformational, transactional, servant, or authentic leadership. In the present study, results were limited to employees in the governmental, non-profit, and law enforcement sectors. Additional research in the private

120

sector would contribute to the understanding of how HCL works in sectors with fewer operational restrictions and increased autonomy and rewards. Utilizing the JD-R model, additional research on outcomes other than workplace well-being should be investigated. Tummers and Bakker (2021) acknowledged that mid-level managers are often at a disadvantage over senior executives in reducing job demands or increasing job resources. Additional research on how HCL serves as a resource specifically affecting both mid-level and senior executives could be examined. Finally, examining the relationship between HCL and job crafting and HCL and self-undermining should be explored to better understand how HCL functions as a leadership resource.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to ascertain how the HCL framework functioned as a job resource within the Job Demands-Resources model. Specifically, an examination was conducted to capture the relationship of HCL on workplace well-being, exhaustion, collective hope, and abusive supervision. The results of this study contributed to the knowledge of the science of hope through the support of the hypotheses that HCL is a job resource and provides increased improvement in employee workplace well-being and decreased strain resulting in exhaustion – a primary factor of job burnout. These findings suggest that HCL likely serves an effective leadership tool if implemented as part of a training program.

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Appendix A: Hope-Centered Leadership Measure

	Items	Subcategory
1	My supervisor helps me to believe that our organization has a bright future.	Goal
2	My supervisor helps me to see that my personal goals align with the organization's goals.	Goal
3	My supervisor provides useful opportunites to learn skills that help me achieve goals.	Pathway
4	My supervisor encourages me to be creative in solving problems in route to achieving goals.	Pathway
5	My supervisor creates a safe and supportive environment to successfully work through challenges to goal attainment.	Pathway
6	My supervisor encourages me to generate multiple routes to achieve goals.	Pathway
7	My supervisor instills confidence in my ability to overcome challenges and achieve goals.	Agency
8	My supervisor recognizes my progress in successfully reaching goals.	Agency
9	My supervisor allows me to craft my job responsibilities to be more meaningful and satisfying.	Agency

Note. The HCL measure used for this study utilized a 5-item Likert-type scale of 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Regularly, and 5 = Always.

Appendix B: Analysis Of Missing Value Replacement

Variable	Before Replacement			After Replacement		
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
HCL	477	3.52	1.202	501	3.53	1.182
Abusive Supervision	483	1.58	0.949	501	1.59	0.940
Collective Hope	493	4.71	1.128	501	4.71	1.119
Work Well-being	489	4.81	1.078	501	4.81	1.075
Exhaustion	486	2.53	0.604	501	2.53	0.597

FINAL CONCLUSION

When John Gardner (1993) called for keeping hope alive as the first and last tasks of leaders, he did so with the understanding that life, leading, and labor were difficult. He said that effective leadership which kept hope alive required helping employees believe their future could be better and that they had the power to accomplish their goals. However, other than anecdotal evidence, neither he nor any subsequent researchers and authors could provide evidence-based results on whether leaders were successful in activating, fostering, and nurturing employee hope. The conceptualization, development, validation, and application of the new Hope-Centered Leadership (HCL) measure fills this 30-year void.

HCL was built on the foundation of Snyder et al.'s (1991a, 1996) conceptualization of Hope Theory and Yukl's (2012) Taxonomy of Leadership Behaviors. This dissertation conceptualized HCL based on the interrelatedness of hope theory and leadership taxonomy. The result was a definition of HCL as leadership behaviors that activate and nurture hope through setting task-oriented goals, navigating change-oriented pathways, and cultivating relations-oriented agency. The HCL conceptualization led to the development of a measure intent on identifying and capturing the behaviors consistent with the HCL model and demonstrating its viability as a job resource within the Job Demands-Resources model. Within the dissertation, paper one conceptualized HCL, paper two developed and tested the HCL measure, and paper three tested HCL as a job resource. Throughout the dissertation, HCL was viewed as a mechanism for determining whether leaders could activate the social and psychological

130

determinants of hope. The results demonstrated that the 9-item measure positively

fulfilled how leaders could activate, foster, and nurture employee hope.

HCL helps address the question of "how" hope can lead to improved work- and

employee-related outcomes (Reichard et al., 2013). While HCL was demonstrated to be a

job resource, for leaders and employees to benefit, and to further validate the

effectiveness of HCL, additional intervention and longitudinal studies are necessary. One

of the strengths of hope theory is the test-retest evidence conducted in multiple settings

and domains (Snyder, 2002). HCL would benefit from similar research.

For HCL to gain wide acceptance, the framework of HCL needs to be converted

into a leadership training program where each of the 9-items is presented, explained, and

demonstrated. Conducting a pre- and post-test before and after the HCL training would

help establish HCL as a viable means of increasing employee collective hope, burnout,

engagement, well-being, and turnover intentions as well as important organizational

outcomes. Continued engagement with a representative sample of leaders in an

organization committed to applying HCL would help ascertain the long-term benefits of

HCL.

HCL was validated utilizing teachers in a southwestern state. The sample was

heavily weighted towards females. Given the state of current state of the education

profession and its challenges with burnout and teachers leaving the profession (Rajendran

et al., 2020), additional work determining how HCL fit in with other educationally related

leadership strategies could demonstrate its effectiveness as a strategy for teachers. While

different organizational structures did not impact HCL, HCL did impact employees from

131

different organizational structures. However, the sample size did not include a significant amount of private sector employees for testing. Therefore, additional research in private sector organizations is warranted to discover if HCL affected employees in a similar manner as government, non-profit, and law enforcement.

Research has demonstrated the role of hope in improving outcomes of individuals with trauma and high adverse childhood experiences (ACEs; Baxter et al., 2017; Blake et al., 2020). However, research on how hope-centered leadership behaviors mitigate ACEs or trauma has yet to be fully explored in an organizational setting. While Simmons et al. (2009) conducted research on secure attachment theory, trust, hope, and burnout on job performance, their work did not address specific leadership behaviors designed to activate hope. HCL should serve as a means for mitigating trauma and increasing hope within an organization. Discovering the correlations between HCL, trauma, and trust should add to the knowledge of positive organizational behaviors.

The development and validation of the HCL measure addressed Wandeler et al.'s (2016) call for employee involvement in goal setting, the need for setting clear goals, and allowing employees to creatively solve problems related to identified goals. One recommendation by Wandeler et al. (2016) relates to an important challenge in today's work culture: change management. Given the uncertainty in today's work climate (Cullen et al., 2014), future research on whether HCL had a positive impact on reducing the anxiety and uncertainty around change management potentially opens new avenues for reducing turmoil in organizations.

The empirical results reported in this dissertation support the conceptualization, development, validation, and application of the HCL framework. HCL leads to the activation of hope within employees and serves as a valued job resource. The study continues to add to the knowledge of the science of hope as well as the further discussion of effective leadership. The findings suggest that HCL would potentially enhance any leadership training program.

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Appendix A: Items of Self-Report Measures

Items to assess Abusive Supervision:

1. My supervisor blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment.

2. My supervisor breaks promises he/she makes.

3. My supervisor lies to me.

4. My supervisor ridicules me.

5. My supervisor puts me down in front of others.

6. My supervisor makes negative comments about me to others.

Items to assess Collective Hope:

1. My organization can identify shared goals.

2. My organization can achieve its goals.

3. My organization can identify one or more ways to attain its goals.

4. My organization can find resources to achieve its goals.

5. My organization has the willpower to achieve its goals even when times are tough.

6. My organization will actively pursue its goals.

Items to assess Exhaustion:

1. There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.

2. After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.

3. I can tolerate the pressure of my work well. (R.)

4. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.

5. After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities. (R.)

6. After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.

7. Usually, I can manage the among of my work well. (R.)

8. When I work, I usually feel energized. (R.)

Items to assess Hope:

1. I can think of many ways to get out of a jam.
2. I energetically pursue my goals.
3. There are lots of ways around any problem.
4. I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are most important to me.
5. Even when others get discouraged, I know I can find a way to solve the problem.
6. My past experiences have prepared me well for my future.
7. I've been pretty successful in life.
8. I meet the goals that I set for myself.

Items to assess Trust:

1. My supervisor is trustworthy.
2. My supervisor treats everyone with respect.
3. My supervisor has high standards for all employees.
4. My supervisor has an open door policy.
5. My supervisor is very reliable.

Items to assess Work Well-being:

1. I am satisifed with my work.
2. In general, I feel fairly satisifed with my present job.
3. I find real enjoyment in my work.
4. I can always find ways to enrich my work.
5. Work is a meaningful experience for me.
6. I feel basically satisifed with my work achievements in my current job.

Appendix B: IRB Letter of Approval

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects

Approval of Initial Submission – Exempt from IRB Review – AP01

Date: August 09, 2023   **IRB#:**   16237

Principal Investigator: Christopher W Freeze

Approval Date: 08/09/2023

Exempt Category: 2

Study Title: Measuring Hope in Leaders: The Development and Validation of the Hope-Centered Leadership Scale

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board (IRB), I have reviewed the above-referenced research study and determined that it meets the criteria for exemption from IRB review. To view the documents approved for this submission, open this study from the *My Studies* option, go to *Submission History*, go to *Completed Submissions* tab and then click the *Details* icon.

As principal investigator of this research study, you are responsible to:
- Conduct the research study in a manner consistent with the requirements of the IRB and federal regulations 45 CFR 46.
- Request approval from the IRB prior to implementing any/all modifications as changes could affect the exempt status determination.
- Maintain accurate and complete study records for evaluation by the HRPP Quality Improvement Program and, if applicable, inspection by regulatory agencies and/or the study sponsor.
- Notify the IRB at the completion of the project.

If you have questions about this notification or using iRIS, contact the IRB @ 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

Cordially,

Aimee Franklin, Ph.D.
Chair, Institutional Review Board