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HOPE AND BURNOUT IN HUMAN SERVICES NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

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Abstract

In the nonprofit sector, organizations that provide services to victims of violence or abuse present job contexts that are naturally stressful and prone to employee burnout. The aim of this study was to determine the relationship of burnout with employee hope and leader hope. A cross-sectional, correlational research design employed an online survey administered to Family Justice Center Alliance organizations across the United States. The results showed that Hope (r = -.494, p < .001) and leader hope (r = -.283, p = .003) were both significantly correlated to burnout indicating higher levels of hope and leader hope were related to lower levels of burnout in this context. Hope (β = -.192, p = .035) also showed predictive power to burnout, however, leader hope (β = - .076, p = .347) did not. The study supported past research demonstrating higher hope people experience lower levels of burnout, and contributed to the scarce research on leader hope in the workplace. The presence of a correlation between leader hope and burnout, but the absence of predictability suggest further research is needed, as well as a distinct and accurate measure of leader hope.

Keywords: hope, leader hope, burnout, stress, nonprofit, hopeful leadership

Chapter One: Introduction

The average, working-age American experiences stress in the workplace. A 2013 Work Stress Survey found that 83% of Americans are stressed by at least one thing at work, and 14% responded that their top stressors were low pay, as well as unreasonable workload. In rank order, the next most stressful aspects of work were annoying coworkers and commuting (tied at 11%), working in a job that was not their chosen career (8%), poor work-life balance (7%), lack of opportunity for advancement (6%), and fear of being fired or laid off (4%) (Globe Newswire, 2013).

The financial impact of workplace stress is steep for an organization due to a wide range of issues such as healthcare costs, absenteeism, lower productivity, work-related injuries, burnout, and employee turnover (American Institute of Stress, 2018). An estimated 75-90% of visits to health care providers are attributed to stress (Maxon, 1999) and the health-related numbers have been rising for some time. The number of American employees that called in sick due to stress tripled from 1996 to 2000; some 60% of lost work days are attributed to stress every year. Approximately 1 million employees are absent each day due to stress, at an average of $602.00 per worker per day, costing U.S industry over $300 billion a year (American Institute of Stress, 2018; Claussen, 2011; Maxon, 1999). Stress causes employees to make more mistakes, have trouble concentrating, get angry more easily, conduct unsafe work practices or take shortcuts to save time or effort (Claussen, 2011; Maxon 1999). In 1999, a Wall Street Journal survey reported that a third of respondents considered quitting their jobs because of stress and 14% actually did quit (Maxon, 1999). This additionally leaves the organization with the cost of hiring replacement employees and training them.

Recognizing the need to counteract workplace stress, some organizations have instituted support systems such as flexible work weeks and telecommuting, so their employees can attain some work-life balance. The Families and Work Institute conducted a Business Work-Life study that suggested organizations should provide similar support systems, particularly, developing work-family programs, and specifically holding managers accountable for sensitivity to their employees' work- family needs (Maxon, 1999).

Background of the Problem

When stress is constant it becomes chronic and sets the stage for burnout. Some researchers consider burnout to be the result of prolonged stress caused by the existence of threats to an individual's resources (Alarcon, Bowling, & Khazon, 2013; Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Hobfoll, 2001; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). Resources can include job resources such as team climate or autonomy, and personal resources such as self-efficacy or hope (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

Burnout has more to do with situational factors than individual personalities. It is a psychological state where a help giver becomes unmotivated and apathetic, loses self-esteem, becomes emotionally withdrawn, depersonalizes the very people they are meant to help, and can occur in any occupation but is most prevalent in those who do 'people work' (Maslach, 1982; Wortman & Loftus, 1992). Commonly cited causes are overwork from heavy caseloads, the constant emotional demands of meeting others' needs, limited resources, and even the worker's own idealistic initial expectations about the work itself (Maslach, 1982; Wortman & Loftus, 1992). A quick Google search using the terms "burnout in nonprofits" produces 421,000 results; a cursory review of the results suggests common themes are chronic stress and health ailments even when the workers claim they have passion for and love their work.

In burnout research, nurses are a frequently studied demographic of human service workers. Some studies tested the proposition that burnout could be interpreted as a result of loss of hope (Wortman & Loftus, 1992; Sherwin, et al, 1992). The nurses were measured using the Hope Scale and the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Results showed the nurses experiencing the least hope had the highest emotional exhaustion, the highest levels of depersonalization, and the lowest sense of accomplishment. A prolonged lack of sense of accomplishment, due to a long nursing career, was found to be an especially good predictor of low hope. This indicated that burnout reflects the repeated perception that we have been unable to reach important goals and therefore, lose hope (Snyder, 1994).

Nonprofit employees also perform 'people work'. Nonprofit managers are particularly challenged to maintain performance when their employees give in to stress, lose hope, and suffer burnout. Part of a leader's responsibility is to keep hope alive in difficult times and, in so doing, strengthen their followers' resiliency and boost their performance. Inspiration and motivation are at the core of every leader's concerns, but without the availability of extrinsic motivators such as profit-shares, and with the ever-present pressure that peoples' lives may depend on the work, a nonprofit leader's skills are laid bare. This basically leaves a reliance on altruism and passion -- intrinsic motivators. Workers in helping organizations in particular are at risk for suffering burnout.

Hope as a coping resource. Hope is defined 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, Irving, & Anderson, 1991a, p. 287). This definition from positive psychology fundamentally changes how we typically think of hope. Where before its characterization ranged anywhere from unbounded emotion to unrealistic flight of fancy, this

two-component model makes it almost tangible; a tool practitioners can intentionally utilize towards specific ends. Now defined as a noun, hope is a force that enables people to set and successfully pursue goals towards a possible future state even when disruptive obstacles get in the way (Helland & Winston, 2005). As such, hope can be particularly useful in the resolution of workplace challenges and the attainment of work-related goals. Several studies of factory and production line employees have found a relationship between hope and positive workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work happiness, and merit salary increases (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Li, 2005; Larson & Luthans, 2006; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Hope in the workforce and nonprofit organizations. Today's workforce can potentially benefit from a greater emphasis on hope. An employee who has high hope is capable of setting long-range goals and working through the steps necessary to achieve them (Snyder, 1994). Meeting an organization's valuable goals, such that it benefits the organization and its members, is the purpose of effective leadership and helps create meaning for all members of the organization (Hickman, 2012; Snyder, 1994). Leaders can create high-hope environments by providing employees with sufficient autonomy to set their own goals that advance theirs and the company's interests simultaneously (Snyder, 2000). Creating one's own pathways towards goal attainment increases employees' hope, self-esteem, and enthusiasm, as well as overall efficiency due to the diversity of thought involved in allowing employees to determine how to reach those goals (Snyder, 2000). Productivity and performance both increase, as do both employees' and leaders' levels of hope and satisfaction (Snyder, 2000).

In this same way, managers and leaders can mitigate the negative effects of stress in the workplace to increase performance and prevent burnout. High-hope leaders know to expect

difficulties on the path to organizational goals, and they have the intrinsic willpower to activate the alternate pathways they have envisioned (The Howell's Group, 2017; Ellis, 2012). By guiding employees to work through adversity both during planning and execution, managers help attenuate some of the uncertainty of outcome that leads to a sense of loss of control and to stress. This mitigates the feeling of a lack of 'fate control' which directly contributes to burnout (Maslach, 1982). Maintaining optimism is easier when the setbacks an organization encounters are seen as temporary and an alternate approach is readily available. Resiliency is also strengthened when the pathway towards bouncing back is more certain, as the negative effects of the change in outcome are reduced (Balakrishnan, 2016).

Some job contexts are naturally steeped in stress, i.e. domestic violence or child welfare workers. Due to factors such as a natural lack of extrinsic incentives for employees, a sense of high stakes, mission creep, and often low overhead, non-profit organizations have the necessary underpinnings for stress and burnout in the workplace. Since the turn of the century, nonprofit organizations ("nonprofits") have been one of the fastest growing sectors in the American economy (Faith Based Nonprofit Resource Center, 2012). They operate on a more complex business model than most for-profit organizations which brings with it unique stressors. The first stressor that often springs to mind is fundraising which can take up the bulk of a nonprofits' concerted effort. A related challenge is maintaining mission focus when donors apply pressure towards interests that stray beyond the stated mission. Relying on the generosity and altruism of others, whether they are board members or volunteers, can feel inconsistent or unpredictable. Nonprofit leaders must balance their work forces' creativity with productivity to keep stakeholders satisfied while simultaneously focusing on accomplishing major goals. (Concord Leadership Group, 2016; Forbes Nonprofit Council, 2016; Guidestar, 2014).

Nonprofits also have unique leadership challenges to contend with, the most commonly identified being maintaining mission focus, strategic planning, leadership development, and succession planning (Concord Leadership Group, 2016; Forbes Nonprofit Council, 2016; Guidestar, 2014). Maintaining mission focus is a never-ending battle in any organization but reaches new heights of effort when an administrator's donors and board members would like their own special interests satisfied. This is how mission creep sets it, and is further enabled by the fact that roughly 60% of nonprofits surveyed have a general lack of strategic planning (Concord Leadership Group, 2016). There has also been a realization that most of the leadership development programs available to the nonprofit community are not sufficiently growing leaders, but are instead training managers. The lack of skilled leaders with abilities to plan for and move the organization towards a long-term vision is compounded by an absence of succession planning. Many nonprofits today were founded years ago by passionate individuals who are now in their 50s and 60s and will soon retire. Yet few nonprofits have a plan in place for training a replacement or for making a smooth transition to new leadership. (Faith Based Nonprofit Resource Center, 2012; Guidestar, 2014).

Past research. Research shows that hope is associated with numerous personal and professional benefits. Hope is a consistent predictor of well-being. Hope can mitigate burnout. Hope is associated with better outcomes in academia, better physical health, better psychological adjustment, and better outcomes in psychotherapy (Snyder, 1994; Snyder, et al., 1991a; Curry, 1994).

High-hope people set more goals, have more challenging goals, have more success meeting those goals, enjoy greater happiness and less distress, have superior coping skills, recover better from physical injury, and report less burnout at work (Snyder, 1994). Studies have

shown that hopeful leaders actually do impact important organizational outcomes, to include significantly affecting business unit financial performance (r = .35), employee satisfaction (r = .41), and employee retention (r = .37). This suggests hope's efficacy as a motivational force at the organization level (Norman, Luthans & Luthans, 2005). Shorey and Snyder (2004) consider hope a common process in organizational leadership. Hopeful leaders, through their own hopeful thoughts and actions, can influence hopeful thinking in their followers (Helland & Winston, 2005; Norman, et al., 2005). Managers with higher hope levels tend to have higher performing work units (Peterson & Luthans, 2003). In their influential bestseller, *The Leadership Challenge*, Kouzes & Posner go so far as to assert that hope is absolutely essential to the highest levels of performance (2002).

Research into hope's specific relationship with leadership in the workplace is relatively scarce, partly because hope has often been considered an emotion and therefore difficult to define or measure (Helland & Winston, 2005). However, sufficient research has been performed to suggest areas we do not yet know about this relationship. Helland & Winston (2005) identified gaps in the knowledge of what hopes people bring to the leader-follower relationship; what leaders and followers hope for, and what happens if these hopes are not met in the period before personal/social identification is firmly established. They also asked if hopeful followers have the ability to raise the hopes of discouraged leaders and if so how; and, if hopeful followers become informal group leaders who then help raise the hope of colleagues (p. 51). Norman et al. (2005) ask if a leader's high hope can influence followers' hope and resilience, does that influence extend to an organization's hope and resilience? Can hopeful leadership be developed as a skill, and if so, can such skill development be successfully expanded through programs that

enhance leader, follower, and overall organizational hope? (Helland & Winston, 2005; Norman, et al., 2005).

Past research on hope has focused largely on sports or academics (Norman, et al., 2005) leaving the workplace, with its associated stressors, a largely untapped well. Contemporary researchers propose exploration into several areas. Norman et al. (2005) focus on the relationship between hope and resiliency, and recommend researching whether the level of leader hope is positively related to the level of follower hope; if follower hope levels are positively related to the asset component of their resiliency; and, if leader hope levels are positively related to the asset component of their resiliency. Authentic leadership, a leadership theory that has recently become mainstream, has a strong hope component and is also a frequently mentioned area for further research. Helland & Winston (2005) recommended testing its propositions that personal and social identification of follower with leaders mediates the relationship between authentic leadership and hope; and, that hope is positively related to follower work attitudes that are manifested by follower behavior (Avolio, Luthans, & Walumbwa, 2004). Research into the practical implications of development of hopeful thinking in both leaders and followers (Shorey & Snyder, 2004; Peterson & Luthans, 2003) has also been recommended.

Helland & Winston encapsulate suggested future research into four focus priorities: (1) integrating the components of hope theory with existing theories of leadership to determine where they converge and where they diverge and the implications for theory development and application; (2) designing research studies that are theory based and focused on understanding the significance of hopeful thinking for leaders and followers in applied settings; (3) developing methods that reveal and measure hope in leadership processes; (4) determining how to further

develop hopeful thinking in leaders and designing leadership development programs that enhance hopeful thinking in current leaders (2005, p. 51).

Statement of the Problem and Significance of the Study

In addition to meeting stated goals and tackling unique leadership challenges, leaders in any organization are responsible for reducing excessive stress in the environment, so as to increase workforce performance, care for their employees' needs, and to prevent burnout. The emerging literature provides evidence of meaningful relationships between hope and workplace outcomes such as performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. Studies of the impact of hope on workplace outcomes, and in particular burnout, are relatively scarce.

The present study will build upon the existing knowledge of hope theory by examining the relationship of employee hope to burnout in the nonprofit workplace. This study will assist nonprofit organizations by providing evidence of hope as a malleable coping resource to combat burnout. This study will contribute to organizational strategies leaders can use to manage the workforce by clarifying the potential role of hope as a coping resource or as a protective factor against burnout.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this cross-sectional, correlational study is to determine the relationship between hope and burnout in employees of nonprofit organizations. Furthermore, this study will examine whether the components of hope individually affect the dimensions of burnout.

Theoretical Framework

This study will examine hope theory and the theory of burnout to explore the relationship between those two constructs in the context of human service nonprofit organizations. The aim

of this study is to determine a relationship between an employee's level of hope and their level of burnout. In this way, this study will draw from and contribute to both theoretical arenas.

Also, since evidence exists in the literature that high-hope leaders influence the hopefulness of their work environment and of their employees, a secondary aim of this study is to determine if the perception of high levels of hope in managers (or, "leader hope") is related to high levels of hope in employees (see Figure 1).

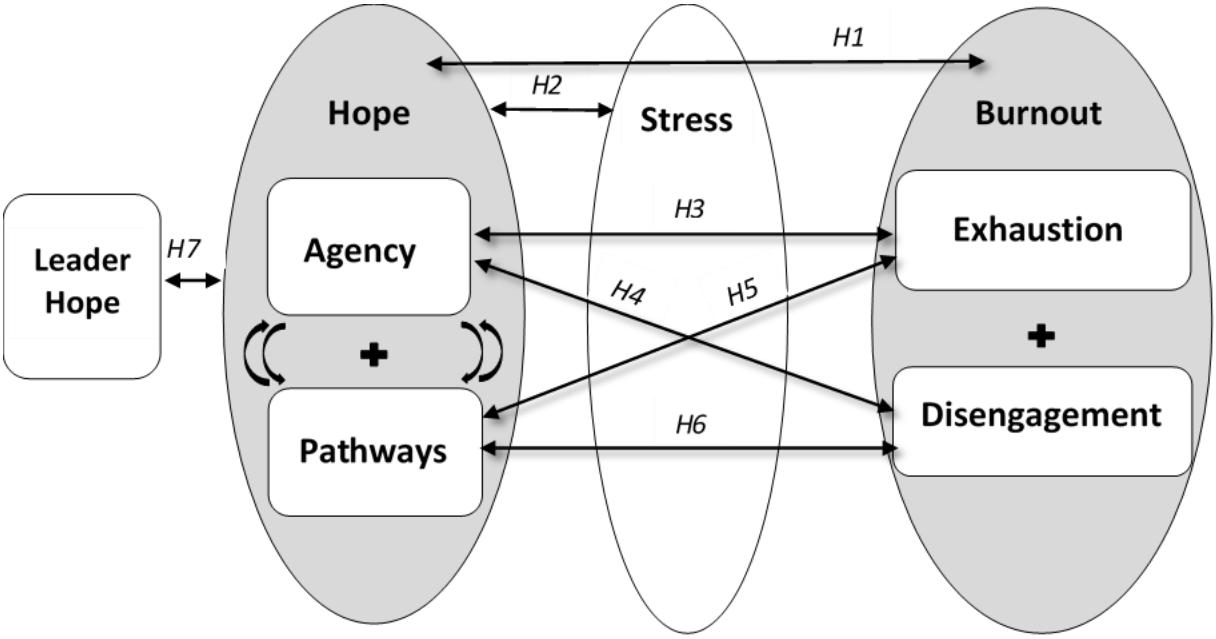


Figure 1. Conceptual Model for this study

Primary Research Questions

The following research questions informed this study:

A. What is the relationship between hope and burnout in nonprofit employees?

B. Is there a relationship between the perceived hope of managers ("leader hope") and employee burnout?

Research Hypotheses

The review of the literature informed the development of the following hypotheses for this study:

H_1. Individuals who report higher levels of hope will report lower levels of burnout

H_2. Individuals who report higher levels of hope will report lower levels of stress

H_3. Exhaustion will decrease as agency thinking increases

H_4. Disengagement will decrease as agency thinking increases

H_5. Exhaustion will decrease as pathways thinking increases

H_6. Disengagement will decrease as pathways thinking increases

H_7. Individuals who perceive higher levels of hope in their manager ("leader hope") will report higher levels of hope for themselves

Chapter Two: Review of the Literature

Nonprofit Organization Workforce

Challenges of nonprofit leaders and employees. According to the 2012 Nonprofit Almanac, there are more than 2.3 million nonprofits in the U.S. While most other major industries in the country have downsized their employee numbers, the nonprofit sector's workforce has grown (Faith Based Nonprofit Resource Center, 2012). Part of this growth has been attributed to increased demand in the middle class, as well as an increase in numbers below the poverty line. Changes in the labor force over the last few decades resulted from an increase in working mothers with young children who need childcare. Our longer life expectancies have led to greater numbers of elderly requiring nursing home and medical care. And, the overall continued increase in income support and medical assistance spending have all contributed to this sector growth (Herman, 1994).

At least one comprehensive definition of effective leadership in the nonprofit sector is the production of a greater social good through increasing organizational capital, harnessing social energy, and producing real work/real value/real change (Nanus & Dobbs, 1999). Unique challenges accompany this definition. Among the most frequently cited leadership challenges for nonprofits are mission focus, board governance, leadership development and succession planning, personnel issues, and fundraising (Forbes Nonprofit Council, 2016; Nanus & Dobbs, 1999; Word & Norton, 2011). For the purposes of this study, we will concentrate on mission focus, leadership development and succession planning, and motivation.

Mission focus. Mission focus consists of managing competing interests. Nonprofit leaders must clarify their mission, values, and goals. Then they must adamantly adhere to that limited scope (Bernstein, 1997). This clarification occurs through effective strategic planning

that centers on the important and socially justifiable reason the nonprofit exists. Identification of that reason and specification of how the nonprofit will address it serve as inspiration to key stakeholders, employees and volunteers (Herman, 1994).

Unfortunately, the need for funding, community relations and other resources opens the door for external stakeholders to impose their will on the mission. This is not just limited to primary donors, it includes the internal influence of paid and volunteer staff who are driven to expand services where they see a need in the environment. The result is mission creep as both project scope and project deadlines expand. Though this may bring with it service program funds, it typically does not include an increase in budget for associated operating costs (Forbes Nonprofit Council, 2016; Guidestar, 2014).

Lack of leadership development and succession planning. The nonprofit sector's growth in the economy has not been indicative of growth in its leadership development (Faith Based Nonprofit Resource Center, 2012). There is concern that the leadership development programs in place are not adequately growing leaders with the necessary skills and visionary mindset to guide nonprofits into the future. Instead, existing programs are more likely to be geared towards developing managers (Faith Based Nonprofit Resource Center, 2012). While growth of managerial skill is critical, those skills serve to maintain the status quo, not adapt and innovate with purpose, as an organization leader should.

Creating an organizational culture and a guiding vision are imperatives of leadership. However, they require time and energy that can be easily consumed by day-to-day productivity if a leader is not prepared to identify those distractions, or capable of effectively communicating, advocating, delegating, and motivating, among other skills (Forbes Nonprofit Council, 2016). More specific to nonprofit leaders, they must also be skilled at coalition building, conflict

resolution, bargaining, compromising, and forming alliances (Herman, 1994). This lack of leadership development factors into succession planning where passionate nonprofit founders may be hesitant to hand the reins over to others they see as insufficiently qualified or visionary. The hesitation takes on additional gravity when nonprofit challenges literally involve life-and-death issues, not just institutional or organizational ones (Guidestar, 2014).

The lack of succession planning and leadership development can be seen as a crisis in the nonprofit sector (Kunreuther et al., 2009). The initial alarm was sounded by the results of several national and regional studies of nonprofit executive directors that took place in the early 2000s. The studies reported that 65-75% of nonprofit executive directors planned to leave their jobs over the following five years. However, that mass exodus was not entirely realized; younger generations then felt stifled by their inability to progress into those executive director positions, and felt unprepared by their lack of leadership experience when the time did come to move up the ranks (Kunreuther, Kim, & Rodriguez, 2009).

Motivation. High mission expectations from key stakeholders, low overhead managed by minimally paid or volunteer staff, and a complex business model (when compared to for-profit organizations) all contribute to difficulty in aligning efforts and motivating the nonprofit workforce (Forbes Nonprofit Council, 2016). Many nonprofits that are able to hire good employees often lose them within a couple of years when they have acquired sufficient skills and experience to make them more marketable elsewhere. Some nonprofits overly depend on the intrinsic motivators that initially drew staff to nonprofit work. National surveys reaching back into the 1960s show the majority of nonprofit volunteers, many of whom also became paid staff, were motivated by the desire to help people, and to do something good or useful (Herman, 1994).

Whereas the for-profit sector can rely on performance measurement systems to provide external motivators like pay, nonprofits experience difficulty doing likewise (GuideStar, 2014). A review of more than 800 nonprofits revealed that over 75% of them did not have reliable data on what impact, if any, they were making in their mission areas (GuideStar, 2014). Thus, performance measurement was elusive and represented one less way they could motivate their employees.

Job Burnout

Despite being an independent construct in social psychology since 1982, the definitions of burnout vary in their inclusion of its three main dimensions. Some definitions describe burnout as a type of occupational stress-reaction among human service professionals; a chronic affective response pattern that results from the emotionally charged relationships between caregivers and recipients (Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991). Stress itself has been conceptualized as a dynamic condition where an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, or demand that makes the end-state of a valued outcome uncertain (McGrath, 1976; Schuler, 1980). Burnout then becomes part of that conceptualization (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Further, burnout has also been defined and studied as a pattern of responses to stressors at work (Shirom, 1989).

A leading burnout scholar, Christina Maslach, defined burnout as "a syndrome of exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among people who do 'people work'" (1982, p. 3). Burnout has been described as a debilitating psychological state where the employee withdraws from the job of helping, or depersonalizes (Wortman & Loftus, 1992).

Of the three dimensions, emotional exhaustion is the most robust indicator of burnout (Snyder, 1994; Wallace & Brinkerhoff, 1991). Emotional exhaustion represents a lack of energy, of feeling drained or overextended, and a sense of emotional resources being fully consumed by work (Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Wallace & Brinkerhoff, 1991). In a study of nurses' mindsets, respondents who had the highest emotional exhaustion on the Maslach Burnout Inventory also reported the least hope on the Hope Scale (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Snyder, 1994).

Depersonalization is the cynical and negative view of, and a distancing response to, the clients intended to receive the helper's services (Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Snyder, 1994). It belies a concern for the client. In the same nurses study, those who reported the least hope on the Hope Scale also reported the highest depersonalization levels on the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Snyder, 1994).

Finally, the dimension of reduced personal accomplishment reflects the tendency to evaluate oneself negatively in regards to one's work with clients (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). It is a lowered sense of competency and productivity (Snyder, 1994). This dimension may exacerbate the depersonalization dimension as burnout victims often rationalize their own failures by attributing them to their clients (Wortman & Loftus, 1992). Those same nurses who showed the least hope on the Hope Scale, also had the lowest scores on sense of personal accomplishment in the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Snyder, 1994).

Though all three dimensions are defined and measured through the Maslach Burnout Inventory, there is empirical evidence that the core of burnout consists of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005). This same evidence suggests that reduced personal accomplishment develops independent of the other dimensions, and some researchers

have suggested it may be more of a personality factor than a symptom of burnout (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008).

Causes of Burnout

Burnout consists of situational, rather than personality factors (Maslach, 1982). The largest cause is excessive workload, where a helper's caseload exceeds their available resources. Unrealistic expectations on the part of the helper are also to blame; most workers in the helping professions begin their careers with idealistic notions and lofty goals, that get knocked down as time and reality set it. Lastly, helping professions typically have heavy emotional demands that come from constantly dealing with the distress, suffering, misery, or trauma most helping professions regularly encounter (Snyder, 1994; Wortman & Loftus, 1992).

Workload and Stress. Of the many causes for workplace stress and burnout, the most cited is workload. In a single generation, work-hours increased by 8%, averaging out at 47 hours per week. American employees work more now than 25 years ago and, starting in 2000, put in the equivalent of an extra 40-hour work week compared to the previous ten years; Americans outwork the Japanese by a month, and work three months more than Germans. (Maxon, 1999). Down-sizing also impacts this increased workload since the staffs get smaller but the same amount of work remains to be done. After the massive layoffs from the technology industry bust of the 1990s, followed by the real estate market bust of the 2000s, and recent years of economic slump, job insecurity remains a real and lingering concern. The rise of lean management principles and expected growth of automation mean that even more manufacturing jobs are on the hook.

Workplace stress, alternatively known as job stress or occupational stress, varies by job context but can be present in any setting. Workplace stress rises generally during economic

slumps, when companies downsize and job loss and job insecurity increase (Claussen, 2011). It is also more prevalent in traditionally high-risk or high-stress jobs, such as police officers, trauma nurses, or crisis intervention (e.g., domestic violence or child abuse) (Claussen, 2011). But it is also present in many American jobs today, as evidenced by an Attitudes in the American Workplace report where 80% of respondents feel stress on the job, nearly half say they needed help learning how to manage their stress, and 42% say their coworkers need help managing stress as well (American Institute of Stress, 2018).

Chronic stress. The background upon which situational factors of burnout depend is the presence of constant, or chronic, stress in the work environment (Maslach, 1982; Ross & Nisbett, 1991). Regardless of occupation, research has shown the most stressful kind of work is anywhere excessive demands and pressures are highly valued, but are not matched to workers' knowledge and abilities. Additionally, workers who have little choice or control over work processes, and lack support from supervisors and colleagues are likely to experience stress (World Health Organization (WHO), 2017, Claussen, 2011).

Work content includes job content where stress can come in the form of monotony, under-stimulation, meaningless tasks, lack of variety, etc. Too much or too little workload also causes stress, as does work pace such as when one works to meet a short deadline. Working hours present a problem when they are too strict, inflexible, long, unpredictable, and when they do not allow opportunity for socialization; all of these can occur in badly designed shift systems. Lack of participation in decision-making and lack of control over work process, pace, hours, methods, and the work environment all contribute to workplace stress (WHO, 2017; Claussen, 2011).

In nonprofits, primary work content issues for employees center around excessive workload, and long hours, but it is the emotionally demanding work environments that seem to take the largest toll. In a 2011 study, 59% of nonprofit employees reported their work required them to provide comfort to people in crisis, 40% reported their work required them to guide people through sensitive and/or emotional issues, 36% reported their work involved dealing with emotionally charged issues as a critical dimension of the job, and 42% often felt "used up" at the end of the work day (Word & Norton, 2011).

Passion for a compelling mission can lead to emotional attachment which is good in that it promotes employee engagement. However, there is strong evidence that employees who are emotionally attached to their work may feel the need to hide their true feelings in adverse conditions. This is known as 'surface acting' and can be common in human services nonprofits where employees deal with clients who are in difficult health, social, or economic situations. Previous research suggests surface acting can lead to burnout or disengagement, and, ultimately, higher rates of turnover (Word & Norton, 2011).

Work context includes areas associated with career development, status and pay such as job insecurity, lack of promotion opportunities, under- or over-promotion, work of 'low social value', piece rate payment schemes, unclear or unfair performance evaluation systems, and being over- or under-skilled for a job. Unclear or conflicting roles are a cause of stress. Interpersonal relationships in the workplace present a problem when they are inadequate or inconsiderate. Or, when supervisors are unsupportive of employees, when workers have poor relationships with colleagues, when bullying, harassment, or violence are present, and when work is solitary or done in isolation (WHO, 2017; Claussen, 2011).

In the same 2011 study, 66% of employees reported they had a clear understanding of what their supervisor expected them to do, 18% did not have a clear understanding, and 16% did not express strong feelings. When it came to job duties, 74% felt they had a clear understanding of their job duties, but over half (57%) felt they lacked the authority to accomplish all aspects of their job. Even if they could fulfill all their job responsibilities, nearly half reported doing so did not improve their chances of being promoted, over a third felt strongly that there was no opportunity for upward mobility, and that their professional development was not considered important in their organization (Word & Norton, 2011).

Also, most nonprofit employees do not make enough money to compensate for the hours and emotional toll of their jobs. In one 2014 study, 43 percent of nonprofit employees in New England were found to make less than $28,000 per year— well below the national median income of $40,000 to $50,000 per year (Third Sector, 2014).

Finally, an unhealthy organizational culture comprising of poor communication, poor leadership, lack of behavioral rule, lack of clarity about organizational objectives, structures and strategies contributes to workplace stress. And, workplace stress is largely affected by pressures from home: work-life balance issues such as conflicting demands of work and home, lack of support for domestic problems at work, lack of support for work problems at home, lack of organizational rules and policies to support work-life balance are also culprits (WHO, 2017; Claussen, 2011).

High levels of organizational and personal demands such as these have been consistently related to emotional exhaustion (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Again, research has shown that emotional exhaustion is key to the burnout process, and is a more robust indicator of burnout

than even depersonalization or reduced personal accomplishment (Snyder, 1994; Wallace & Brinkerhoff, 1991).

Burnout Models

Conservation of Resources model. In the Conservation of Resources (COR) Model of burnout, stress and burnout are the result of threats to valuable resources (Alarcon et al., 2013; Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Hobfoll, 2001; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). The stress portion occurs from the initial threat, and burnout occurs from the existence of prolonged threat, or from the continued loss of resources. The threat perception is especially salient when the individual has heavily invested resources in work. The effect of the extended nature of the threat leading to burnout is consistent with the negative effects of how chronic stress on an individual can develop into burnout (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004).

Job demands and job resources are thought to differentially predict burnout, and its individual dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment (Leiter, 1991, 1993). Job demands include workload, time pressure, and intellectual demands (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2000, 2001; Karasek, 1979). Job resources include variables such as feedback, task variety, social support, participation in decision making, financial rewards, etc. (Demerouti et al., 2000, 2001; Karasek, 1979). Job demands involve effort and can have psychological costs such as stress and burnout. Job resources facilitate goal achievement, personal growth, and are thought to diminish job demands (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004).

This differentially predictive ability is key to the COR model. Researchers found that while job demands were more likely to result in burnout, the natural assumption that job resources would serve as protective factors did not hold (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Hobfoll

& Freedy, 1993). Also, job demands were found to have a stronger relationship than job resources to emotional exhaustion (Lee & Ashforth, 1996).

Job Demands-Resources model. The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model integrates the traditions of stress research and motivation research. Through it, we can explore the interaction of working conditions and employee well-being to the extent that the model can even reliably predict well-being and performance at work, as well as burnout and work engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job resources are conceptualized the same way as in COR (Demerouti et al., 2000) and may be located at different levels: the macro/organizational level, the interpersonal level, the specific job position level, and the task level (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

In the JD-R model, job demands and job resources interact such that resources are assumed to act as buffers to the impact of demands on job strain (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Unlike the COR model that relies on the interaction of demands and resources to predict burnout, the JD-R model focuses on the additive main effects of job demands and job resources to predict burnout (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Demerouti et al. (2001) predicted that demands are more closely associated with exhaustion, and that resources are inversely related to depersonalization (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004), suggesting that demands and resources lead to different component outcomes of burnout.

Pertinent to this review of the literature, later versions of the JD-R model (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011) acknowledge the potential impact of personal resources on job performance, burnout, and work engagement. Among these personal resources is Psychological Capital, which includes resilience, efficacy, optimism, and hope.

Hope

Positive psychology origins of Hope Theory. The late 1990's saw the emergence of positive psychology, and with it, a new approach to addressing what motivates people, keeps them going during strife, and gives life meaning. Professor Martin Seligman (1998) is credited with creating this movement as a direct response to the pathological psychology approach of the mid-20th century; he sought to discover and deconstruct what was right and positive with people, versus what was wrong and negative with them. Furthermore, he worked to develop ways to increase the positivity and distill it so others could replicate it for themselves. As a result of the positive psychology movement, we are now seeing concepts like hope, happiness, and well-being emerging in the scientist practitioner model of applied research.

Hope Theory is based upon a future orientation that enables people to visualize a promising future and to set and pursue goals, even in the face of overwhelming obstacles (Helland, 2005). Hope Theory is described by a two-component model of a positive, goal-oriented way of thinking (Snyder, 2000). Hope is based on the presence and level of two primary factors (a) *agency* (or, goal-directed thinking, aka willpower) and (b) *pathways* (or, planning to meet goals, aka waypower) (Snyder, et al., 1991a; Luthans, 2002; Luthans, Luthans, Hodgetts, & Luthans, 2001). These two factors are additive and iterative, and contribute to an individual's *expectation for goal attainment*. In the end, that is what hope is about: goal-attainment. A description of Hope Theory's evolutionary ancestry is in order, starting with its breeding ground in motivation and goal-setting theories.

Evolution of Hope

Motivation theories. The legendary Hawthorne studies, conducted from 1927 to 1932 at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company, investigated whether physical factors

affected work performance, by adjusting lighting levels on the plant floor (Roethlisberger, 1941). In the process, researchers discovered workers' performance was affected by other factors they had not anticipated. Contrary to the scientific management-based organizational approaches of the day, they saw that non-rational needs like working for recognition motivated workers' performance (Rusaw, 2001; Carnevale, 2003).

Maslow's (1943) Theory of Human Motivation centered on an individual's fulfillment of basic needs. The now familiar set of goals, or basic needs, that drove all human motivation were physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. Humans were driven to satisfy these goals and were additionally motivated to maintain the conditions necessary for the goals to remain satisfied. Needs satisfaction is then the primary incentive for all human achievement, great or small.

Maslow's theory has famously been represented as a pyramid with the most basic need, physiological, at the bottom, followed by increasingly higher-order needs of safety, love, and esteem with the highest, self-actualization, at the top. According to the theory, an individual will be motivated to satisfy the most basic needs first, and will not fully realize a higher-order need without first fully satisfying its predecessor. However, an individual can exist at a level of partial satisfaction among several needs. Maslow suggested that most healthy members of society were partially satisfied in all their basic needs and partially unsatisfied in all their basic needs simultaneously (1943). To explain this conundrum, he noted that once a basic need is largely satisfied, a person can then see and begin to satisfy a higher-order need. For example, if need A is satisfied only 10% then need B might not be visible at all, but as need A becomes satisfied 25%, need B emerges at 5%, and as need A becomes satisfied 75% need B emerges at 90%, etc. Key to the concept of motivation is that once a need is 100% satisfied, it ceases to be a

motivator; either a higher-order need then becomes a primary motivator or, the individual realizes and is satisfied with their own personal version of self-actualization (Maslow, 1943).

Goal-setting theories. Motivation theories blend into goal-setting theories such that their boundaries sometimes blur. Case in point are McClelland's (1966) Theory of Needs and Latham & Locke's (1979) Goal-Setting Theory. In the Theory of Needs, achievement motivation is based on individuals who display high achievement needs. However, that conclusion is only generalizable to the 10 to 20 percent of naturally high achievers within a country's workforce. Those workers will naturally pursue more difficult goals than the majority of the population. Goal-setting theory, on the other hand, is based on people in general, where achievement motivation was still supported for challenging goals, so long as the individual accepted and committed to those goals (Robbins, 2005).

In Goal-Setting Theory, when intentions are expressed as goals, they can be powerful sources of motivation (Latham & Locke, 1979; Robbins, 2005). Latham & Locke found that the more difficult a goal is, the higher the level of performance a committed individual will contribute towards goal attainment. They also implied a curvilinear relationship between goal difficulty and level of effort, where after a certain level of perceived goal difficulty, a person may decide they have no hope of attaining the goal, and not exert any effort (Latham & Locke, 1979; Helland & Winston, 2005). Additionally, they found that specific goals and feedback given to the individual were shown to lead to higher performance than vague goals and no feedback (Robbins, 2005).

In his Theory of Achievement Motivation, Atkinson (1964) argued that the incentive value of a goal is negatively related to its probability of attainment, meaning that easy tasks are not highly motivating and that attainment of difficult goals provides the value of increasing an

individual's pride more than the attainment of easy goals. A person will make this pride enhancing choice, so long as the goal is not so difficult that it appears unattainable. Also, if a goal is both easy to attain and still enhances pride, the person is more likely to choose that goal versus a more difficult one (Latham & Locke, 1979; Atkinson, 1964; Stotland, 1969).

Similarly, according to Expectancy Theory, individuals will pursue goals based upon their estimation of the expected results (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970). The more highly an individual desires the end-result of attaining a goal, and the outcome of attaining that goal is a valued reward, the more effort an individual will see as being worthwhile (Helland & Winston, 2005; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). Motivation, effort and performance will be high when the probability of attaining the desired outcome is high. Likewise, if the probability is low, motivation, effort and performance will also be low (Campbell et al., 1970; Rusaw, 2001). Expectation of goal-achievement and the significance of the goal itself are also central to similar theories by Rotter (1954) and Atkinson (1964), and thus cross back over the boundary to motivation theories.

As an individual gets psychologically closer to their goal, an increase in motivation occurs. This is Lewin's (1951) conceptualization of a positive goal gradient where the degree of closeness is interpreted as the number of different activities an individual perceives they must perform in order to achieve a goal (Stotland, 1969). The positive goal gradient was also interpreted as a relationship between closeness to a goal and the subjective probability of success (Diggory, 1966). One hypothesis used to test this relationship is that the expected number of activities, or obstacles, on the path towards goal attainment determines the slope of the goal gradient. The more activities or obstacles, the more gradual the slope of the gradient (Stotland, 1969).

Describing Hope

Traditionally, hope has, at best, been closely aligned with wishful thinking, as in hoping for the best during times of trouble (Luthans et al., 2004). At worst, it was seen as highly impractical and even written off by serious scholars as a manifestation of naivete, maladjustment, and even psychopathology (Peterson, 2000). When scholarly attention was finally given to hope, it was as a perception that one could reach a desired goal, however, this description did not fully capture the positive psychology process of hope described later (Luthans et al., 2004; Snyder et al., 2000).

Past conceptualizations of hope have described it as a unidimensional construct with an overall perception that goals can be met and an assumption that people are naturally goal-directed (Snyder, et al., 1991a). French (1952) attempted to describe the activation process of goal-directed behavior as beginning with the motivating pressure of a need, which then led to hope of satisfaction. Hope of satisfaction was based on an evaluation of the current goal as well as an individual's confidence provided by previous successes, to form a plan for realizing the hope. Hope of satisfaction would then activate and guide execution of the plan (Stotland, 1969).

Luthans, Van Wyk, and Walumbwa (2004) compiled several contemporary characterizations of Hope that differentiated from C.R. Snyder's popular definition as a positive motivational state based on the iterative interaction of successful (a) agency and (b) pathways (Snyder et al., 1991b). Hope has been portrayed as a general tendency of being positively creative and reactive towards the perceived future, by subjectively assessing what is important in the future (Nunn, 1996); a future-referenced, affective cognition based on wished-for events and some expectation of the occurrence of these events (Staats, 1987); and as a state of being, characterized by an anticipation of a continued good state, an improved state, or a release from a

perceived entrapment (Miller & Powers, 1988). The unifying thread here is that hope is goal-directed thinking and requires the existence of a goal in order to exist (Snyder, Thuy, Schroeder, Pulvers, Adams, & Laub, 2008).

More recently, Shorey & Snyder (2004) described hope as a cognitive goal-directed process composed of having clear, well-defined goals, the perceived ability to develop routes to those goals, and the necessary motivation to use those pathways in pursuit of goals. Hope is seen as both dispositional and trait-like, as well as situationally dependent and state-like. This is despite originally being thought of as only fixed or trait-like (Luthans et al., 2004; Snyder et al., 1991a; Snyder et al., 1996).

Hope components. Hope requires the agency, or motivational energy, to pursue a goal and multiple alternate pathways, or contingency plans, to attain that goal (see Figure 2). In this way, hope consists of both the will and the way to achieve a goal, which is particularly useful since most worthwhile goals require the pursuer to overcome obstacles and redirections along the way (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007b). To fully define Hope, agency and pathways must be considered; separately, they do not provide a sufficient definition (Snyder et al., 1991b).

The agency and pathways components of hope can also be thought of as ways of thinking. Both agentic and pathways thinking contribute to higher levels of hopeful thought. This is how agentic and pathways thinking have an additive and reciprocal interaction; each iteration of the interaction increases hopeful thoughts towards a goal (Snyder, 2000; Snyder et al., 2008). Hope is then the accumulation of the iterations of perceived agency and pathways thinking (Snyder et al., 1991b).

The agency component of Hope reflects an individual's motivation and determination that goals can be achieved *as well as* the individual's belief in their own ability to formulate

successful plans towards those goals (Snyder, 2000). Agency reflects an individual's desire to initiate action towards a goal and remain committed to it (Luthans et al., 2004). For this reason, it is often referred to as willpower. Therefore, pathways thinking contributes not just to the overall expectation of goal attainment, but also to the motivation within agency thinking, which in turn makes its own, separate contribution to expectation of goal attainment.

The pathways component, also referred to as waypower, represents an individual's assessment of their ability to generate successful plans. The strength of this component results from an individual's previous experiences at goal attempts and the subsequent observations of correlation or causality based on those past successes or failures (Luthans et al., 2004; Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002). A person with a high level of pathways thinking views obstacles to their goals as opportunities instead of threats, and develops alternate means to maintain progress towards those goals (Luthans et al., 2004).

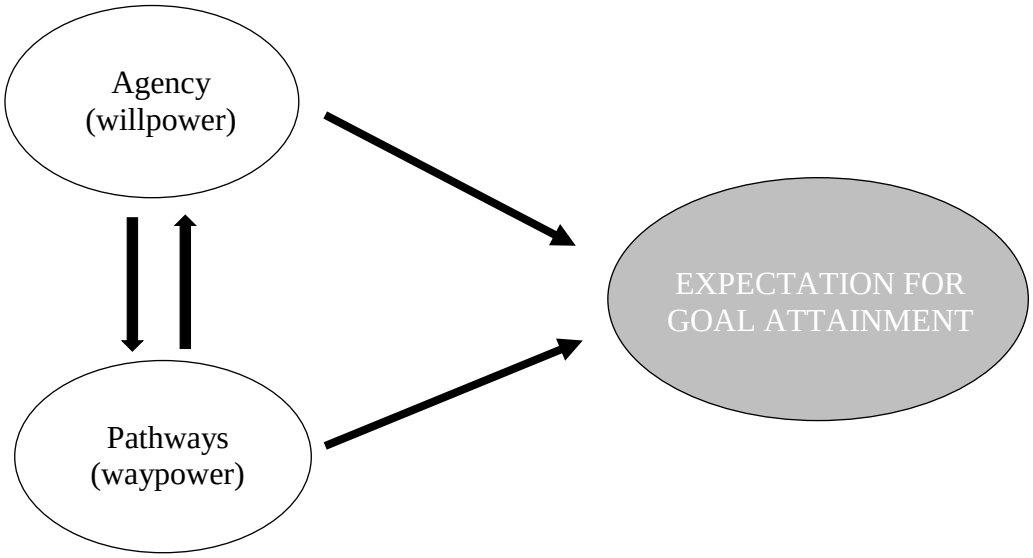


Figure 2. Simplified Hope Theory model (Gwinn & Hellman, 2018)

Emotions. Emotions are an important, interwoven element of hope. Though Hope Theory is conceptualized as highly cognitive, emotions are still considered the consequence of cognitive appraisals of goal-related activities (Snyder et al., 1991b). Research suggests that positive emotions enable people to discover original or novel lines of thought for action, and increase mental flexibility and creative thinking (Fredrickson, 1988, 2000, 2001; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Fredrickson & Levenson, 1998) (also see Appendix B).

Positive emotions have been shown to predict positive human attitudes and behaviors to include coping with adversity, commitment, and developing long-term plans and goals (Avolio et al., 2004b). Research has shown the capacity to set long-range goals and commit to executing the steps needed to achieve them are critical to high levels of hope (Snyder, 1994; Snyder et al., 1991b). Also, hopeful and emotional behaviors are similar in that they both result from early socialization, and are a consequence of social interaction with others (Snyder, 2000; Weiss, & Cropanzano, 1996). Given these attitudes and behaviors, it makes sense that emotions are not irrelevant to Hope Theory (Snyder et al., 1991b).

Life and Work Impacts of Hope

High-hope and low-hope people. A person's underlying level of hope, their dispositional hope, develops during childhood through prolonged interaction with and guidance from a mentor (Avolio, et al., 2004b; Snyder, 1994, 2000; Shorey, Snyder, Yang, & Lewin, 2003). Snyder & Shorey (2004) and their team conducted a study where they asked adults to reflect on their childhoods. They found that the highest-hope people reported having caregivers who spent large amounts of time mentoring them. Quite often this occurred through the child's relationship with a high-hope parent, but the mentor was not always the parent. Other relatives, caregivers, coaches or teachers could also instill hope in a child by teaching them to set clear goals, with

milestones along the path towards the goal so they can measure, and gain confidence from, their progress. They also teach the child to imagine alternate activities, or pathways, in case their original strategy does not work. Then, by gradually helping a child set goals that are slightly higher than those previously accomplished, a mentor helps a child expand their range of hope (Snyder et al., 2000).

This sets a foundation for developing a skills base in major life arenas like academics, athletics, and social situations where high-hope children are rated as more competent (Snyder, 1994). Hope continues to be fostered whenever a child, and later an adult, overcomes obstructions to goal-directed actions (Snyder, 1994). In interviews with high-hope individuals, Snyder (1994) found that they would anticipate problems and plan ahead for them, while low-hope individuals would not.

High-hope individuals are more likely to be happier, report higher self-esteem, and generally have better life outcomes because of their affinity for concrete and challenging goals throughout their lives (Locke & Latham, 1984; Pervin, 1989; Snyder, 1994). Higher-hope people tend to have more goals in more areas of their lives, set more difficult goals, and are more successful at achieving goals than lower-hope people (Elliott, Witty, Herrick, & Hoffman 1991; Sherwin, Elliot, Rybarczyck, Frank, Hanson, & Hoffman 1992; Snyder et al. 1991; Snyder, 1994). When faced with obstacles or failure, high-hope people attribute these setbacks to use of the wrong strategy and not to their lack of ability or talent (Rieger, 1993; Snyder, 1994; Snyder et al., 2000).

High-hope people share several other general characteristics. Compared to low-hope, or even average-hope individuals, high-hopers are more likely to maintain their high-hope thinking across time, have their own standards for setting goals but do consider relevant external

standards set by others, be confident in and challenged by their goals, and enjoy the goal-attainment process. Academically, they are more likely to have higher grades in school, are less likely to drop out, are less anxious in evaluation/test-taking circumstances, and are more likely to graduate from college. Socially, they are more likely to make friends easily, they enjoy interacting with others and listening to different perspectives, and they more easily develop reciprocal relationships where both parties gain from the interchange. They are more likely to perform better in athletics. Overall, they tend to enjoy more positive affectivity, higher levels of well-being and perceived self-worth, higher self-esteem and confidence in multiple areas, and even better recovery from injuries (Curry, 1994; Peterson & Luthans, 2003; Snyder, 1994; Snyder et al., 2000).

High-hope and low-hope work environments. Many of these characteristics make high-hope workers very useful in the workplace. Notably, high-hope workers' tendencies to be confident in their goals, to feel challenged by them, to value progress, and to enjoy interacting with others are a benefit at any level of most work environments. Additionally, their likelihood to experience lower levels of anxiety in stressful situations, and to adapt better to new and collaborative relationships as well as changes in the environment can provide a professional advantage over others (Peterson & Luthans, 2003; Snyder, 1997; Snyder et al., 2000). Lastly, research shows that high-hope workers experience less distress, have superior coping skills, and report less burnout at work (Elliott, Witty, Herrick, & Hoffman 1991; Sherwin, et al., 1992; Snyder et al. 1991b; Snyder, 1994).

Another tendency that is particularly helpful in the workplace is that higher-hope people care about communal, or shared goals, as well as their own. Research suggests that when it comes to goals, most people engage in personal goals half the time, and communal ones the other

half (Snyder, 2000). Snyder (2000) and his colleagues (Snyder et al., 2000) found that high-hopers were equally interested in furthering other's goals as much as their own, indicating a natural empathy for others' points of view and an interest in "we" goals as well as "me" goals. A workplace with an abundance of high-hope workers who value attainment of communal work goals as well as their personal goals would theoretically be a productive and high-performing one. In the absence of such a workplace, the best option is to create a high-hope work environment where workers are allowed some autonomy to generate their own goals for advancing the interests of the company (Snyder, 2000).

Snyder (2000) describes a high-hope work environment, as one where workers are not only allowed to set their own goals towards company interests, they also determine their own pathways to preset company goals. Reciprocity comes into play here since creating their own pathways would increase workers' agency, which combined would increase their hope. Ideas and pathways generated by workers, instead of managers, are more likely to increase efficiency since they would include granular nuances and issues about how the work is actually done. Such detail is not visible to managers who oversee at a higher-level, but do not actually perform the work.

A high-hope work environment is also one where workers' private lives are valued as well as their professional lives. This increases hope by allowing workers time to pursue personal goals in other areas outside of work. As previously noted, high-hope people enjoy success in attaining goals across many arenas of life. And, the hope and confidence resulting from one successful arena translates to other arenas. The more that managers and employees can establish environments of hope, the more productivity will increase and the more employees will be able to maintain the high levels of hope needed for high performance (Snyder, 2000).

In contrast, a low-hope work environment is one where goals are generated at top management levels and driven down without opportunity for employees to determine their own pathways. This would especially be the case for employees at the lower levels of a company. The irony is, when given the autonomy to do so, workers typically set higher goals than their managers would (Pink, 2009; Snyder, 2000). Lastly, low-hope work environments, where top-down, other-generated goals are prevalent, are usually ones where employees are forced to neglect their personal lives for the sake of the company (Snyder, 2000).

The impacts to the employee, and eventually the bottom-line, are not surprising. Low worker motivation results from employees having no power over the goals or pathways they spend their working lives on. Low quality of work performance, low worker conscientiousness, and little pride in work accomplished result from the inability to appreciate the importance of the other-generated company goals (the importance is usually evident in self-generated goals). Low morale and low self-esteem result from the lack of opportunities to develop their sense of agency both at work and in their neglected personal lives. An increase in employee sick days and poor attitudes are also typical results (Snyder, 2000).

Hopeful leadership. Correcting for a low-hope work environment starts with the relationship between the employee and the manager (Snyder, 1994). They must work to improve their relationship, their communication skills and their individual people skills. These skills provide the vehicle through which trust and hope are developed and reinforced through consistency of word and actions, fairness in providing rewards and punishments, and encouragement of employee ideas and involvement (Carnevale, 2003; Pink, 2009; Sinek; 2009). Research suggests that well developed, inclusive work structures that are perceived to be

structurally and interactionally fair engender trust in the systems and in the decision-makers, while also encouraging positive, hopeful environments (Luthans et al., 2004).

A leader's purpose is to achieve an organization's valued goals through the effective mobilization of resources, including the cooperation of the members of their organization (Bass, 2000; Carnevale, 2003; Helland & Winston, 2005). Leadership theorists and practitioners alike agree that leaders must inspire, and encourage hope in their followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Their ability to generate hope has been dubbed a force multiplier (Luthans & Avolio, 2003); they further escalate hope into joint aspiration (Burns, 1978); they have been called "purveyors" of hope (Helland & Winston, 2005). Napoleon Bonaparte stated, "a leader is a dealer in hope" (Bertaut, 1916). The main challenge lies in identifying and activating the source of hope, and in making it readily accessible to others (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

To find that source, leaders need to determine their followers' needs. Per our review of motivation theories, as needs become more concrete and purposeful, as they more closely relate to collective goals and values, leaders can help transform their followers' needs into hopes, aspirations, and expectations. Then, they can guide followers to realize commonality between their personal goals and the organization's goals (Burns, 1978; Rusaw, 2001). Effective leadership is an art form that awakens hopeful thinking (Helland & Winston, 2005).

High-hope leaders have an abundance of motivation and willpower (agency), well formulated plans and goals, and clearly constructed alternative courses of action (pathways) (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Luthans, et al., 2004; Norman & Luthans, 2005). Leaders with strong pathways thinking ability view obstacles as opportunities, try to forecast them and plan for them so as to still achieve desired outcomes (Avolio, et al., 2004b). High-hope leaders are considered

credible sources of input and feedback (Avolio et al., 2004a). Shorey & Snyder (2004) suggest that as high-hope leadership becomes a reliable part of an organization, it provides followers a sense of security and trust that enables them to better focus their creative energies on goal-related endeavors, instead of concentrating on whether or not communications are reliable.

There is limited empirical evidence of the relationship of hope in the workplace, and even less of a leader's hope on performance outcomes in the workplace. In a study of Chinese factory workers, the employees' hope levels were found to be related to their supervisory-rated performance and merit salary increases (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Li, 2005). Another study found hope levels of production workers in a small Midwestern factory were related to their job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Larson & Luthans, 2006), while a study of a large cross-sectional sample of employees found a relationship between hope and satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work happiness (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

Some evidence suggests that high-hope leaders have higher performing business units, have more satisfied employees and lower turnover rates (Luthans, et al., 2004). Adams et al., (2002) found that firms with higher-hope human resources were more profitable, had higher retention rates, and reported greater levels of employee satisfaction and commitment. Higher hope entrepreneurs were found to have greater satisfaction with business ownership and considered themselves relatively better compensated than their lower hope counterparts (Luthans & Jensen, 2002). Peterson & Luthans (2003) conducted an exploratory study where they identified a significant relationship between fast-food managers' level of hope and unit financial performance (r = .35), employee satisfaction (r = .41) and employee retention (r = .37).

Why hope matters in the workplace. Human beings are social animals, and as such, we naturally gravitate towards social groups where we feel safe and secure. Within these groups,

roles, responsibilities, and norms function to maintain order and unity. Consequently, people seek to find a place, a role, within the group that is meaningful and gives some purpose to their existence as an individual and as a member of the group. Snyder and his colleagues (1994) believe that goal-related activities define what is meaningful in our lives and the probability of creating that meaning increases through goal pursuits that are linked to valued societal roles. In one laboratory study, Feldman & Snyder (1999) found a positive correlation between perceived sense of meaning in life and higher levels of hope.

Similar Constructs

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

An important criteria of PsyCap is that each of its constructs are conceptually independent and have been empirically determined to have discriminant validity (Bandura, 1997; Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Luthans et al., 2007b; Snyder 2000, 2004). Another important criteria is that each included construct must be state-like and therefore developable (Luthans et al., 2006; Luthans et al., 2007b).

The conflation into this higher-order construct of PsyCap is thought to represent the common source of variance often evident in analyses of these four constructs (Luthans, et al., 2007b). They are thought to have common mechanistic processes (Luthans et al., 2007b). There

is also evidence that they may have stronger mediating power taken together rather than separately. In a study of Chinese factory workers, Luthans et al., (2005) found the combination of hope, optimism, and resilience showed a higher relationship with rated performance than they did individually.

Luthans et al., (2007b) also propose compounded motivational effects due to the combination of these constructs. Resilient employees are thought be able to recover from setbacks at work more easily, and when combined with hope, these same resilient employees also develop specific pathways by which to bounce back and move on. Overcoming challenges consequently builds self-efficacy and an optimistic outlook in the individual.

Convenient to this review of the relevant literature, PsyCap consists of the constructs most similar to hope and provides a nice context for describing them.

Resilience. Resilience is known as the ability to 'bounce back' after hardship and is characterized by consistent positive adaptation in the face of significant adversity or risk (Masten & Reed, 2002; Norman et al., 2005). It is also generally characterized by positive coping behaviors executed in response to significant risk or adversity (Masten, 2001; Masten & Reed, 2002). It can be viewed as consisting of two components: an existing threat or risk, and a positive reaction to the threat or risk (Norman et al, 2005).

However, a positive input can also trigger these coping behaviors. For example, in workplace settings, resilience is defined as the positive psychological capacity to rebound from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure, or even positive change, progress, and increased responsibility . Therefore, it may be more accurate to say that resilience represents positive coping behaviors in response to change in the environment that disrupts a previous state of homeostasis (Luthans et al., 2007b).

Resilience and hope. Several researchers have drawn parallels between resilience and hope. Masten & Reed (2002) recognized that resilience and hope were both cognitive processes that each partially consisted of pathways systems such as our minds, schools, religions and cultural tradition, as well as their associated behaviors (e.g., prayer in response to tragedy). Snyder (2000) himself drew a connection between the two constructs by describing high-hope people as being confident in their ability to adapt to potential difficulties and losses. He also described resilient children as those who adapt successfully to adversity by calling on trusted others to assist in stressful goal-blocking situations (Snyder, 1994).

The primary difference between resilience and hope lies in how adaptation occurs. Resilience consists of external adaptation through the leveraging of family, community, or other support structures as well as adopting specific, reactive behaviors. Meanwhile, hope is characterized by internal adaptation and proactive behaviors (Masten & Reed, 2002).

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is the positive belief or judgement that one can successfully carry out the courses of action required to deal with a specific, prospective situation (Bandura, 1982). Regarding the workplace, Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) defined it as an employee's conviction or confidence about their abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, or courses of action required to successfully perform a specific task within a given context. A high sense of efficacy fosters cognitive constructions of effective courses of action and, reiteration of those effective courses of actions strengthens self-perceptions of efficacy (Bandura, 1989; Bandura & Adams, 1977). Self-efficacy is positively related to work-related outcomes and performance (Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Motivation is thought to be determined by self-efficacy. Level of self-efficacy at a particular task affects how much effort an individual will exert and how long they will persist in

their determination to accomplish the task, even when faced with obstacles (Bandura, 1989). People with high self-efficacy have been found to be more persistent, less anxious, less depressed, and more academically successful (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Myers, 1994). An individual with low self-efficacy will doubt their capabilities, exert less effort, settle for mediocre results, be more easily dissuaded by failure, and quit prematurely (Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Bandura, 1989). Adopting attainable sub-goals towards accomplishment of the task, and achieving those sub-goals, will increase self-efficacy, which in turn, increases motivation and leads to pursuit of larger future tasks (Bandura, 1982).

Expectancies are a key part of self-efficacy theory. Efficacy expectancies represent the individual's confidence in their ability to successfully perform a specific task. Outcome expectancies represent the individual's belief that a specific behavior will produce a given outcome (Bandura, 1997; Luthans & Jensen, 2002).

Self-efficacy and hope. As with the development of hope, Bandura (1997, 1982) believes that self-efficacy increases through the successful undertaking of progressively more challenging tasks, or goals. And, just as higher-hope people set more challenging goals, people with higher self-efficacy set higher goals for themselves and are more committed to seeing them through (Bandura, 1989; Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984, Taylor, Locke, Lee & Gist, 1984). More challenging goals that require perseverance elevate levels of motivation and performance; easy successes lead to an expectation of quick results which undermine self-efficacy when sustained effort is necessary (Bandura, 1989).

Other similarities, and some differences, in the two constructs lie in expectancies (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Luthans et al., 2004; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Efficacy expectancies are similar to the agency (or willpower) component of hope, while outcome

expectancies are similar to the pathways (or waypower) component. However, Bandura (1997) considered the efficacy expectations to be stronger predictors of behavior and therefore more important than outcome expectancies, especially with regard to goal-directed behaviors (Snyder, et al., 1991b). He also considered efficacy expectancies to be limited to the specific situation. In hope theory, Snyder (2000) views both components of agency and pathways as equally important due to their iterative nature and he asserts that both components are applicable to any situation (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Finally, the impact of emotions on hopeful thinking is acknowledged in hope theory, while it is not included in self-efficacy (Helland & Winston, 2005).

Optimism. The familiar understanding of optimism has a folksy, if not entirely common-sense, feel to it. Adages like, "look at the sunny side of life" or "every dark cloud has a silver lining," remind us that life's trials and tribulations can be viewed from different perspectives, and that the future is not as bleak as it might first appear. Optimism ranges from the cautious to the blind, with a range of positive, future-focused mindframes in between to include realistic optimism and learned optimism. It is viewed as a personality trait; there is a general belief that some people are simply born pre-disposed to be more optimistic than others. Its operational definition, in psychological terms, has fluctuated over time through various researchers and perspectives.

Several models of optimism can be found in the literature. Tiger (1979) describes optimism as "a mood or attitude associated with an expectation about the social or material future, one which the evaluator regards as socially desirable, to his or her advantage, or for his or her pleasure". Peterson (2000, 2006) further differentiates between "big" optimism – large, general expectations (e.g., "our country is on the verge of something great") -- and "little"

optimism – specific, positive expectations (e.g., "I will find a convenient parking space this evening").

The most dominant theoretical perspective in the literature is Scheier & Carver's (1985) conception of dispositional optimism as a generalized outcome expectancy that good things will happen (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Jensen, Luthans, Lebsack, & Lebsack, 2007; Luthans, et al., 2004; Scheier & Carver, 1985). In this definition, the researchers claim outcome expectancies are formed through forces outside the self (Scheier & Carver, 1985, 1987), implying a level of comfort with some lack of control over circumstances. They conclude that although efficacy expectancies can influence the analysis of outcome expectancies, it is outcome expectancies that are the most powerful analyses in determining goal-directed behavior (Scheier & Carver, 1985).

Seligman (1998) borrowed from attribution theory to define optimism as a cognitive process involving positive outcome expectancies with causal attributions for life events. Negative events were attributed to external, temporary, and specific causes, while positive events were attributed to internal, stable, and global causes (Jensen et al., 2007; Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans et al., 2007b; Seligman, 1998; Snyder, 1994).

After years of studying learned helplessness as a clinical psychologist, he developed the idea of learned optimism. Seligman and his colleagues conducted experiments where they manipulated different irritants on their subjects. For animal subjects, the irritant would be mild, inescapable electric shock; for human subjects it would be an uncontrollable and random noise, or unpredictable slot machine payouts. The key was that no action on the part of the subject would have any effect on the positive or negative outcome. The subjects would eventually realize their efforts were futile and stop trying to exert any control over the irritant, thus learning to be helpless. Through these experiments, Seligman and his team demonstrated that animals

and people could be taught to be helpless in the presence of trivial irritation. However, the researchers discovered that one out of every three animals, and one out of every three people did not become helpless. They continued to display a sense that subsequent outcomes might be different and positive—they were optimistic (Seligman, 1998).

This led Seligman to postulate that if humans could learn to become helpless in the face of trivial irritants, they could likely learn to become helpless in real life circumstances where their efforts to control situations or outcomes are futile (Seligman, 1998). Learned helplessness could extend to instances of rejection, failure, relationships, health or even tragedy and death. In circumstances over which an individual has limited control, and when the outcomes are repeatedly negative, cynicism or apathy are often the result. In contrast, and drawing from the 33% of test subjects who never became helpless, Seligman and this team hypothesized that if helplessness could be learned, optimism could also be learned to counter it (Seligman, 1998).

The way optimism can be learned and developed is by adopting a purposeful, positive explanatory style. This stems from the difference in how optimists and pessimists explain the causes for events in their lives, both to themselves and to others. Optimists naturally attribute negative events to external circumstances that are temporary and specific to the situation at hand. As a result, they maintain a confidence that good things will happen and that they will be able to handle anything life throws their way (Wortman & Loftus, 1992). Pessimists, on the other hand, naturally attribute negative events to their own shortcomings and expect that such events will continue to happen (are stable) and will occur in any situation (are global). Bad things are their fault, will persist, and will always affect them in any area of life; they lack the confidence to cope with life's setbacks (Wortman & Loftus, 1992).

Explanatory style evolves from a person's habitual self-talk, which over time, forms how they see and value their own worth in the world. It is the "hallmark of whether you are an optimist or a pessimist" (Seligman, 1998, p. 44) and is made up of three dimensions: permanence, pervasiveness, and personalization. The permanence dimension is the expectation that the causes of life events are permanent versus temporary. People whose expectations for bad events are permanent tend to give up easily; while those with temporary expectations for bad events resist helplessness. Meanwhile, those with permanent expectations for good events try even harder after they succeed, and those with temporary expectations for good events may still give up even after gaining success, seeing their good fortune as a fluke. The pervasiveness dimension is about explaining bad events as being universal -- a bad event in one area is generalized to all other areas of life and a person gives up trying on anything – or specific, where a bad event in one area of life is isolated to that one area and the person continues to try in other areas. The personalization dimension is about internalizing, or blaming oneself, when bad things happen (Seligman, 1998).

At the root of explanatory style is attribution theory, where the factors, or causes, that people attribute to their successes and failures were key determinants in why some people were high achievers while others were not (Weiner, 1971). In attribution theory, human behavior is a result of an internal mental state resulting from explanations about why the environment's reinforcement of the behavior occurred as it did (Seligman, 1998).

Optimism is thought to pre-dispose individuals to positively reinterpret negative events as a way of coping with them. This coping mechanism then influences psychological and physical well-being with a host of empirically verified positive outcomes (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994).

Optimism enjoys a significant correlation with workplace performance across various contexts and industries (Jensen et al., 2007; Luthans et al., 2005; Luthans et al., 2004; Seligman, 1998). Optimism has been shown to have a significant and inverse relationship with stress and work/non-work conflict in call center employees (Tuten & Neidermeyer, 2004). Research has shown a significant and positive relationship between level of optimism, job satisfaction, and relative performance in bank tellers, and between level of optimism and midlevel managers' performance (Jensen, et. al, 2007). Optimism has been found to be a better predictor of job performance than technical knowledge in insurance sales and better than personality in production (Seligman, 1998; Jensen, et. al, 2007). Optimists are also more likely to develop plans of action in adverse situations (Strack, Carver, & Blaney, 1987), are less likely to give up (Seligman, 1998), and tend to have a more positive outlook on stressful situations (Jensen et al., 2007).

Optimism can have a negative side. 'False optimism' can exist when the situation is overwhelmingly negative but an individual persists in expecting a positive outcome despite clear evidence of the opposite occurring. This Pollyana-esque type of optimism borders, or even crosses into neuroticism. For this reason, flexible optimism and realistic optimism are important to develop and maintain. 'Flexible optimism' is the ability to use both optimistic and pessimistic explanatory styles and adapt one's explanatory style to the situation. In this way, flexible optimism allows for a more balanced and situationally aware outlook (Jensen et al., 2007; Peterson, 2000, 2006; Seligman, 1998). A similar approach is 'realistic optimism' which exists in the middle ground between the extremes of internalizing good events and externalizing negative ones. This approach has specific forms which include having leniency for past events that can no longer be changed, appreciation for the present or living in the moment, and

opportunity-seeking for the future where a project is viewed as a challenge instead of a problem (Jensen et al., 2007; Seligman, 1998; Schneider, 2001).

Optimism and hope. Perhaps more than the other psychological capital inclusion criteria, Optimism and Hope are the two most often confused and used interchangeably (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Both are goal-oriented cognitive processes employed towards achievement of a valued outcome (Luthans et al., 2007b; Peterson & Luthans, 2003; Snyder, 2000) and both have an element of positive outlook in their execution. Optimists have sometimes been described as being "hopeful" toward the future and pessimists have been described as being "hopeless" (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004).

Seligman (2002) conflates optimism and hope through explanatory style. The pervasiveness and permanence of one's explanatory style indicates whether or not an individual has hope. Attributing negative events to temporary and specific causes limits the resulting helplessness one feels to a restricted situation and time, instead of generalizing helplessness to all of one's endeavors for the foreseeable future. He eloquently writes, "finding temporary and specific causes for misfortune is the art of hope…finding permanent and universal causes for misfortune is the practice of despair" (p. 48).

A key difference between the two constructs is the individual's level of control. Hope's agency component implies personal responsibility and self-initiation of actions that increase the expectancy of goal attainment, whereas that expectancy in optimism *may* result from self-initiated actions, but could equally result from external forces beyond the individual's control (Alarcon et al., 2013; Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Peterson & Luthans, 2003; Seligman, 1998). An optimist maintains favorable expectancies that good outcomes will generally occur through any combination of inputs – luck, personal charisma, affability, social or professional network,

skill, intelligence, etc. (Alarcon et al., 2013; Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Scheier & Carver, 1985). A hopeful person maintains a favorable expectancy that good outcomes will specifically occur through their own personal capabilities (Alarcon et al., 2013; Bryant & Cvengros, 2004). Optimism is then better suited for situations where the individual can exert little personal control, and hope is optimal when a high level of personal control is possible (Gallagher & Lopez, 2009).

A general consensus among researchers is that while optimism and hope are positively related, there exists discriminant validity between the two constructs, as well as conceptual distinction (Alarcon et al., 2013; Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Gallagher & Lopez, 2009). This becomes evident when the constructs are broken down and compared by their components where optimism was found to be more closely related to hope agency than hope pathways through its component of pessimism (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Snyder, Sympson, Michael, & Cheavens, 2001). Pessimism has most in common with hope's component of agency; generalized pessimism depends upon agency-like expectancies regarding goal attainment, implying a similarity. However, pessimism was found to be more distinct from the pathways component. This makes sense with Hope Theory's notion that it is possible for an individual to know the means (pathways) to reach their goals, but lack the motivation or confidence to realize those goals (agency) (Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Snyder et al., 2001).

Chapter Three: Method

The present research will explore the relationship between hope and burnout in nonprofit employees. The following section provides a brief description of the research design, procedure target population, measures used, and data analysis employed. Prior to conducting this research study, a formal application will be submitted to the University of Oklahoma Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the Protection of Human Subjects in accordance with established protocol.

Research Design

This research will utilize a non-experimental, cross-sectional, correlational research design to assess the relationship between hope and burnout among a sample of nonprofit employees. This research will also assess the relationship between the components of hope and the dimensions of burnout in nonprofit employees. Cross-sectional designs collect all the data required at a single point in time among a sample of individual cases, or participants, of different age groups. This data is then used to determine if a relationship, or correlation, exists between two or more variables and to what extent (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

Procedure

Quantitative and demographic data will be collected via an on-line survey instrument hosted by the University of Oklahoma. While demographic data will be collected, no personally identifying information will be gathered in order to preserve the anonymity of the participants. Upon approval from the University of Oklahoma Institutional Review Board (IRB) to commence with the present research effort, the researcher will send a link to the completed on-line survey instrument along with an explanatory email to the prospective participants. Participants will be required to agree to an electronic version of an informed consent statement prior to taking the

survey. If they choose not to agree to the informed consent, they will not be required to take the survey.

Target Population

The target population for the present study will consist of the employees of nonprofit organizations belonging to the Family Justice Center Alliance. This sample will be a convenience sample of employees for who respond to an email from the Family Justice Center Alliance containing the survey link.

Measures

Several instruments will be used in this research study to measure the hope components of agency and pathways, and the burnout dimensions of exhaustion and disengagement, as well as the overall level of hope and burnout in employees. The level of perceived manager hope will be measured due to its potential as a third variable. The contributing factor of stress will also be measured.

Hope (agency and pathways). Hope will be measured using the Adult Hope Scale (AHS; Snyder et al., 1991b), also referred to as the Dispositional or Trait, Hope Scale (see Appendix C). The AHS consists of eight items, four of which address the agency component, and four that address the pathways component. These items are measured on an eight-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *Definitely False* to 8 = *Definitely True*. This eight-point scale has been found to yield higher average score reliability over Snyder's original four-point response format (Hellman, Pittman, & Munoz, 2013). The combined score of these eight component measuring items gives the overall level of dispositional hope of an individual. For the internal consistency reliability of the total scale, Cronbach's α ranged from .74 to .84.

The Hope Scale demonstrated construct validity across multiple studies that tested hope with other goal-related behaviors such as responses to stressors, goal obstacles, and goal difficulty (see Snyder et al., 1991b). Temporal stability was demonstrated through the examination of four samples of University of Kansas undergraduates. The test-retest correlations were .85, $p < .001$, over a 3-week interval ($N = 130$); .73, $p < .001$, over an 8-week interval ($N = 115$); and .76 and .82 respectively, $p < .001$, over a 10-week interval in two samples ($N = 205$; $N = 133$). Factor analyses support the two-component model. The agency and pathways component scores correlated positively meaning that agency and pathways components are related but not synonymous (Babyak, Snyder, & Yoshinobu, 1993; Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Snyder et al., 1991b).

An example of the four items that measure agency asks the respondent to rate whether they energetically pursue their goals. For the internal consistency reliability of the agency subscale, Cronbach's α ranged from .71 to .76.

An example of the four items that measure pathways asks the respondent to rate whether they can think of many ways to obtain the things in life that are most important to them. For the internal consistency reliability of the pathways subscale, Cronbach's α ranged from .63 to .80.

Hope in managers will be measured using a variation of the AHS known as the Modified Hope Scale (MHS; Snyder, 1994). It consists of eight items, four of which address the agency component, and four that address the pathways component of another person (see Appendix D). Snyder and his team (1994) found a moderate correspondence between the hope a person reveals through completing the AHS for themselves, and the hope revealed when someone who is knowledgeable of that person performs the assessment.

Burnout (exhaustion and disengagement). Burnout will be measured using the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou & Kantas, 2003). The OLBI consists of 16 items, eight of which assess exhaustion, and eight that assess disengagement (see Appendix E). These items are measured on a four-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly Agree* to 4 = *Strongly Disagree*. The internal consistency reliability was .897. Removing an item from the scale would not significantly impact Cronbach's α, resulting in a range of .887 to .903 (Olinske, 2009).

An example of the eight items that measure exhaustion asks the respondent if there are days where they feel tired before they arrive at work. Internal consistency reliability for the exhaustion scale was .876. Removing an item from the scale would not significantly impact Cronbach's α, resulting in a range of .85 to .87 (Olinske, 2009).

An example of the eight items that measure disengagement asks the respondent if they always find new and interesting aspects in their work. Internal consistency reliability for the disengagement scale was .782. Removing an item from the scale would not significantly impact Cronbach's α, resulting in a range of .734 to .800 (Olinske, 2009).

Over the years, researchers have extended the burnout research beyond the traditional, service-work intensive population group of nurses to other health care industry occupations as well as non-service occupations. These studies showed that even with the same conceptualization as the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), burnout is experienced in non-service occupations. Therefore, the study of burnout does not need to be limited to service-work or the healthcare contexts (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Leiter & Schaufeli, 1996).

For this study, the OLBI was selected over the MBI due to methodological and conceptual conflicts in the literature regarding the dimension of reduced personal

accomplishment. Some researchers have argued that this dimension is better conceptualized as a personality factor and there has been less consistency in its empirical relationships (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Another consideration for utilizing the OLBI over the MBI comes from Demerouti et al., (2001) who argued that the MBI contains a critical psychometric limitation in that its three subscales are all phrased in the same direction which could result in response biases and an artificial clustering of factors. Finally, the MBI assesses only on affective components of emotional exhaustion, while the OLBI also assesses cognitive and physical components of exhaustion (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004).

Stress. The perception of stress will be measured using the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; Cohen, et al., 1983). The PSS is the most widely used psychological instrument for measuring the perception of stress. The items ask a respondent about feelings and thoughts that occurred during the last month, and how often they occurred (see Appendix F). The scale consists of ten items in a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from *1 = Never*, to *5 = Very Often*. There are four positively stated items and six negatively stated items. Scores are obtained by reversing the responses for the positively stated items and summing all items. An example of a positively stated item is, "In the last month, how often have you felt you were on top of things?". An example of a negatively stated item is, "In the last month, how often have you felt nervous and 'stressed'".

Higher PSS scores have been associated with failure to quit smoking, failure among diabetics to control blood sugar levels, greater vulnerability to stressful life-event-elicited depressive symptoms, and more frequent colds (Cohen, 1994).

Data Analysis

Statistical analysis will be conducted to include general descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, and regression analysis to determine the relationships between observed variables. This will be performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

Limitations

The analysis of data obtained through cross-sectional, correlational studies has several known limitations. Since the cross-sectional survey only gathers information from one point in time, the information is not as generalizable as it would be with a longitudinal study (Creswell, 2009). Also, the effects of any extraordinary situational or personal events on the survey respondents at the time they take the survey could skew the resultant responses. In a longitudinal study, such an effect would be attenuated by the greater volume of data available. The most often mentioned limitation regarding correlation is the inability to attribute causation, regardless of extent of correlation between variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Finally, self-report data from survey instruments such as the one for this study is subject to social desirability bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Chapter Four: Results

Examining the hypotheses of this study involved calculation of Pearson product moment correlations and multiple linear-regression analyses for the hypotheses. The correlation coefficients (r) and the coefficients of determination (R^2) were the measures of effect size (Cohen, 1992). Combined, these analyses addressed the primary research questions regarding the relationship between hope and burnout in nonprofit employees, and the relationship between leader hope and employee burnout.

Missing data was discovered during the course of this analysis. The most common example of how missing data occurred was that of a respondent providing answers for the first sections of the on-line survey instrument (i.e., demographics, hope scale, leader hope scale) but not providing answers for remaining sections (i.e., burnout scale, perceived stress scale). Entire scales were left unanswered, the most impacted were the burnout and perceived stress scales where neither were answered by 20 respondents. It is likely the respondents may have become fatigued, bored, or pressed for time since 125 total respondents answered some part of the initial demographics items. There was also evidence that some respondents intentionally or unintentionally skipped items throughout the survey.

The effect of this missing data was a wide range of sample sizes which affected how correlations and regressions were calculated. By default, SPSS computes correlations by excluding missing values pair-wise, therefore SPSS only used instances of variables where respondents had entered valid data for both variables (the paired variables) being correlated. For correlations, sample sizes ranged from a low of 95 to a high of 104. The SPSS default for regression computation is a list-wise exclusion. If any of the data for any of the variables in the

regression is missing, SPSS deletes that entire case from the regression analysis. For multiple regressions, sample sizes ranged from a low of 95 to a high of 100.

Assumptions

The basic statistical assumptions of multiple regression were met in this study. Since regression is sensitive to outliers, the standardized residuals for each regression analysis was checked for compliance with values less than three. All residuals cases complied. The condition of normal distribution of the residuals was determined by interpreting histograms of the standardized residuals. All histograms were normally distributed. Scatterplots of predicted and actual scores for each dependent variable showed linear distribution, marking compliance with the assumption of linearity. Finally, Durbin-Watson scores were computed for each regression to test for independence of errors, and all scores fell within the acceptable range of one to three.

Demographics

This study involved employees and volunteers of Family Justice Centers across the United States. The majority of the respondents were female at 94.0% (n = 116) and the average age of respondents was 42.4 (n = 113). Most reported they were Caucasian at 68.8%, Black/African American and Hispanic/Latino tied for the next most reported group at 11.2% each (n = 125). Most respondents were paid employees with 80.8% reporting as full-time, paid employees, and 8% reporting as part-time, paid employees; there were only three volunteers (.8% full-time, 1.6% part-time) (n = 125). Most respondents reported their educational background as post-graduate (43.2%) and college graduate (39.2%), while 8.8% reported having some college (n = 125). Almost half reported themselves as being a Manager or Supervisor (49.6%) (n = 125).

Correlations

The data showed that for the non-directional primary research questions, a moderate negative correlation was observed between hope and burnout (r = -.494, p < .001), while a weak negative correlation was observed between leader hope and employee burnout (r = -.283, p = .003), as shown in Table 1.

Since the hypotheses were directional, the correlations for all study variables were tested at the one-tail. For the main construct variables -- burnout, leader hope, hope, perceived stress -- there was a weak negative correlation between burnout and leader hope (r = -.283, p = .003); a moderate negative correlation was observed between burnout and hope (r = -.494, p < .001); and a strong positive correlation between burnout and perceived stress (r = .664, p < .001). Leader hope and hope showed a moderate positive correlation (r = .316, p = .001); while leader hope and perceived stress showed a weak negative correlation (r = -.267, p = .004). A strong negative correlation was observed between hope and perceived stress (r = -.508, p < .001).

H_1: Individuals who report higher levels of hope will report lower levels of burnout

A Pearson's r data analysis showed a moderate negative correlation between hope (M = 56.49, SD = 6.10) and burnout (M = 34.73, SD = 6.83) at r = -.494. This supported the hypothesis that higher levels of hope would be reported along with lower levels of burnout.

H_2: Individuals who report higher levels of hope will report lower levels of perceived stress

A Pearson's r data analysis showed a strong negative correlation between hope (M = 56.49, SD = 6.10) and perceived stress (M = 19.67, SD = 5.00) at r = -.508. This supported the hypothesis that higher levels of hope would be reported along with lower levels of perceived stress.

H_3: Exhaustion will decrease as agency thinking increases

A Pearson's r data analysis showed a moderate negative correlation between exhaustion (*M* = 18.30, *SD* = 3.88) and agency (*M* = 27.91, *SD* = 3.64) at *r* = -.381. This supported the hypothesis that exhaustion decreases as agency thinking increases.

H_4: Disengagement will decrease as agency thinking increases

A Pearson's r data analysis showed a moderate negative correlation between disengagement (*M* = 16.38, *SD* = 3.67) and agency (*M* = 27.91, *SD* = 3.64) at *r* = -.352. This supported the hypothesis that disengagement decreases as agency thinking increases.

H_5: Exhaustion will decrease as pathways thinking increases

A Pearson's r data analysis showed a moderate negative correlation between exhaustion (*M* = 18.30, *SD* = 3.88) and pathways (*M* = 28.32, *SD* = 3.34) at *r* = -.331. This supported the hypothesis that exhaustion decreases as pathways thinking increases.

H_6: Disengagement will decrease as pathways thinking increases

A Pearson's r data analysis showed a moderate negative correlation between disengagement (*M* = 16.38, *SD* = 3.67) and pathways (*M* = 28.32, *SD* = 3.34) at *r* = -.428. This supported the hypothesis that disengagement decreases as pathways thinking increases.

H_7: Individuals who perceive higher levels of hope in their manager will report higher levels of hope for themselves.

A Pearson's r data analysis showed a moderate positive correlation between leader hope (*M* = 55.73, *SD* = 8.93) and employee hope (*M* = 56.49, *SD* = 6.10) at *r* = .316. This supported the hypothesis that individuals who report higher levels of hope in their manager will report higher levels of hope for themselves.

Table 1 *Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Cronbach's Alphas for Study Variables, n ranges from 95 to 104*

Variable	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Hope	56.49	6.10	(.857)							
Pathways	28.32	3.34	-.857	(.818)						
Agency	27.91	3.64	-.881	.511	(.839)					
Leader Hope	55.73	8.93	.316	-.385	.161	(.946)				
Burnout	34.73	6.83	-.494	-.430	-.412	-.283	(.862)			
Exhaustion	18.30	3.88	-.410	-.331	-.381	-.190	.894	(.825)		
Disengagement	16.38	3.67	-.447	-.428	-.352	-.270	.881	.576	(.764)	
Perceived Stress	19.67	5.00	-.508	-.323	-.515	-.267	.664	.667	.436	(.872)

Note: Cronbach's alphas are shown in parentheses on the diagonal. Correlations are statistically significant at the p < .01 level.

Multiple Regressions

In order to further examine the hypotheses, a series of multiple regressions were run to test models of four different dependent variables. The first tested burnout as the dependent variable with hope, leader hope and perceived stress as independent variables. In this model (Tables 2 thru 4), the independent variables accounted for 46.2% of the variation in the dependent variable, burnout [$R^2(adj)$ = .462; F (3, 91) = 27.905; p < .001]. However, the data showed that hope, leader hope, and perceived stress were not all significant. While hope (β = -.192; p = .035) and perceived stress (β = .564; p < .001) were significant predictors of burnout, leader hope (β = -.076; p = .347, *ns*) was not. Also, no significant moderation effect was observed in a test of the interaction between hope and leader hope on burnout.

Table 2

Burnout Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.692[a]	.479	.462	5.01401	2.080

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived Stress, Leader Hope, Hope
b. Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 3

Analysis of Variance for Burnout Model[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2104.650	3	701.550	27.905	.000[b]
	Residual	2287.771	91	25.140		
	Total	4392.421	94			

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout
b. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived Stress, Leader Hope, Hope

Table 4

Coefficients for Burnout Model[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	35.487	7.505		4.729	0.000	20.580	50.394
	Hope	-0.216	0.101	-0.192	-2.139	0.035	-0.416	-0.015
	Leader Hope	-0.058	0.062	-0.076	-0.945	0.347	-0.180	0.064
	Perceived Stress	0.746	0.121	0.546	6.162	0.000	0.505	0.986

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

Table 5

Residuals Statistics for Burnout Model[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	26.1706	48.0203	34.7368	4.73180	95
Residual	-13.68193	12.33791	.00000	4.93335	95
Std. Predicted Value	-1.810	2.807	.000	1.000	95
Std. Residual	-2.729	2.461	.000	.984	95

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout

For the second model, the exhaustion component was the dependent variable, with the independent variables being agency, pathways, and leader hope. In this model (Tables 6 thru 8), the independent variables accounted for 15.7% of the variation in the dependent variable, exhaustion [$R^2(adj)$ = .157; F (3, 96) = 7.154; p < .001]. The data showed that agency (β = -.287; p = .011) was a significant predictor of exhaustion, but pathways (β = -.157; p = .185, *ns*) and leader hope (β = -.008; p = .378, *ns*) were not.

Table 6

Exhaustion Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.427[a]	.183	.157	3.61822	1.899

a. Predictors: (Constant), Pathways, Leader Hope, Agency
b. Dependent Variable: Exhaustion

Table 7

Analysis of Variance for Exhaustion Model[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	280.976	3	93.659	7.154	.000[b]
	Residual	1256.784	96	13.091		
	Total	1537.760	99			

a. Dependent Variable: Exhaustion
b. Predictors: (Constant), Pathways, Leader Hope, Agency

Table 8

Coefficients for Exhaustion Model[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	34.630	3.683		9.401	.000	27.318	41.941
	Leader Hope	-.039	.044	-.088	-.886	.378	-.127	.048
	Agency	-.307	.119	-.287	-2.582	.011	-.544	-.071
	Pathways	-.194	.145	-.157	-1.336	.185	-.483	.094

a. Dependent Variable: Exhaustion

Table 9

Residuals Statistics for Exhaustion Model[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	16.0747	25.0796	18.3200	1.68468	100
Residual	-6.78923	9.52996	.00000	3.56297	100
Std. Predicted Value	-1.333	4.012	.000	1.000	100
Std. Residual	-1.876	2.634	.000	.985	100

a. Dependent Variable: Exhaustion

The third model used disengagement as the dependent variable and agency, pathways and leader hope as independent variables. In this model (Tables 10 thru 12), the independent variables accounted for 18.7% of the variation in the dependent variable, disengagement [R^2*(adj)* = .187; F (3, 96) = 8.598; $p < .001$]. The data showed agency (β = -.232; p = .032) was a significant predictor of disengagement, but pathways (β = -.213; p = .064, *ns*) and leader hope (β = -.158; p = .108, *ns*) were not.

Table 10

Disengagement Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.460[a]	.212	.187	3.27172	2.042

a. Predictors: (Constant), Pathways, Leader Hope, Agency
b. Dependent Variable: Disengagement

Table 11

Analysis of Variance for Disengagement Model[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	276.111	3	92.037	8.598	.000[b]
	Residual	1027.599	96	10.704		
	Total	1303.710	99			

a. Dependent Variable: Disengagement
b. Predictors: (Constant), Pathways, Leader Hope, Agency

Table 12

Coefficients for Disengagement Model[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	33.046	3.331		9.922	0.000	26.434	39.657
	Leader Hope	-.065	.040	-.158	-1.620	.108	-.144	.015
	Agency	-.226	.104	-.232	-2.171	.032	-.432	-.019
	Pathways	-.241	.129	-.213	-1.877	.064	-.496	.014

a. Dependent Variable: Disengagement

Table 13

Residuals Statistics for Disengagement Model[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	13.9644	23.1346	16.2700	1.67003	100
Residual	-8.49736	7.32725	.00000	3.22177	100
Std. Predicted Value	-1.381	4.110	.000	1.000	100
Std. Residual	-2.597	2.240	.000	.985	100

a. Dependent Variable: Disengagement

The fourth model used perceived stress as the dependent variable with the independent variables of hope and leader hope (Tables 14 thru16). Interestingly, while a significant negative correlation between leader hope and perceived stress was observed (r = -.267; p = .005), no predictive value was observed for leader hope when combined with hope in a model to predict perceived stress [$R^2(adj)$ = .255; F (2, 94) = 17.444; p < .001]. Together, these independent variables accounted for 25.5% of the variance in perceived stress, however, hope was a significant predictor of perceived stress (β = -.472; p < .001), leader hope was not (β = -.117; p = .212, *ns*).

Table 14

Perceived Stress Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.520[a]	.271	.255	4.27755	1.467

a. Predictors: (Constant), Hope, Leader Hope
b. Dependent Variable: Perceived Stress

Table 15

Analysis of Variance for Perceived Stress Model[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	638.367	2	319.184	17.444	.000[b]
	Residual	1719.963	94	18.297		
	Total	2358.330	96			

a. Dependent Variable: Perceived Stress
b. Predictors: (Constant), Hope, Leader Hope

Table 16

Coefficients for Perceived Stress Model[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	45.192	4.386		10.304	.000	36.484	53.900
	Leader Hope	-.065	.052	-.117	-1.256	.212	-.168	.038
	Hope	-.387	.076	-.472	-5.090	.000	-.538	-.236

a. Dependent Variable: Perceived Stress

Table 17

Residuals Statistics for Perceived Stress Model[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	16.2546	30.2059	19.7010	2.57869	97
Residual	-9.61121	12.06305	.00000	4.23276	97
Std. Predicted Value	-1.336	4.074	.000	1.000	97
Std. Residual	-2.247	2.820	.000	.990	97

a. Dependent Variable: Perceived Stress

Conclusions

The primary aim of this study, the overall relationship between hope and burnout in Hypothesis 1 was supported, but the strength of the relationship was moderate, with a Pearson's coefficient of $r = -.481$ ($p < .000$). For every standard deviation increase in hope, burnout decreased by .192 standard deviations. Respondents who reported higher levels of hope, reported lower levels of burnout. These results lend additional support to the literature on the impact of hope on burnout.

Similar conclusions can be drawn regarding the effects of the separate components of hope (agency thinking, pathways thinking) on the separate dimensions of burnout (exhaustion, disengagement) in correlation analyses of Hypotheses 3 thru 6. In each case, a significant, moderate negative relationship was observed, as would be expected based on the literature. Increases in agency thinking and pathways thinking accounted similarly for decreases in exhaustion and disengagement. One of these relationships stood slightly apart: disengagement and pathways thinking showed a stronger correlation when compared to the other component-dimension combinations at $r = -.428$ ($p < .000$).

These component-dimension combinations were compared to determine if the agency-exhaustion combination would be more strongly correlated to each other than the pathways-disengagement combination, and vice versa. There was only a small difference in correlations between agency-exhaustion ($r = -.381$, $p < .000$) and pathways-exhaustion ($r = -.331$; $p < .000$). A larger difference was observed in the correlations between pathways-disengagement ($r = -.428$; $p < .000$) and agency-disengagement ($r = -.352$; $p < .000$). This indicates that, among the hope components and burnout dimensions, the strongest relationship may exist between

pathways thinking and disengagement, which could help focus educational efforts when employing Hope Theory to combat burnout in the work environment.

The overall relationship between hope and perceived stress in Hypothesis 2 was also supported with a Pearson's coefficient of $r = -.508$ ($p < .001$). Respondents who reported higher levels of hope, reported lower levels of perceived stress. These results lend additional support to the literature on the impact of hope on perceived stress.

The secondary aim of this study – Hypothesis 7 -- was to determine if high levels of hope reported in managers (aka, leader hope) was related to high levels of hope in employees. As stated previously, this hypothesis was supported; the data observed indicated a weak positive relationship ($r = .302$; $p < .001$), where an increase in leader hope corresponded with an increase in employee hope. This data supports that leaders can influence their employees' level of hope.

However, given the results of the multiple regressions conducted for this study, the researcher is led to believe that on its own, leader hope has insufficient explanatory or predictive power regarding burnout, its components of exhaustion and disengagement, or perceived stress. This has implications for further study and will be addressed in the discussion chapter.

Chapter Five: Discussion

This study examined the relationship of hope and burnout within human services nonprofit organizations, specifically, the alliance of Family Justice Centers in the United States. The findings of the study aligned with the literature on hope theory and theories of burnout. There exists a relative dearth of research on hope itself, but especially on hope's role in the workplace (Alarcon et al., 2013). The current study contributed new information on the nature of the relationship between hope and burnout in the workplace.

Review of Purpose, Research Questions, and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between hope and burnout in human services nonprofit organizations, and to further examine whether the components of hope individually affected the dimensions of burnout. The study was informed by two overarching research questions that asked what the relationship was between hope and burnout in nonprofit employees, and if there was a relationship between the perceived hope of managers and employee burnout.

This study specifically examined seven directional hypotheses: (1) individuals who report higher levels of hope will report lower levels of burnout, (2) individuals who report higher levels of hope will report lower levels of stress, (3) exhaustion will decrease as agency thinking increases, (4) disengagement will decrease as agency thinking increases, (5) exhaustion will decrease as pathways thinking increases, (6) disengagement will decrease as pathways thinking increases, (7) individuals who perceive higher levels of hope in their manager will report higher levels of hope for themselves.

Summary of Findings

The main research questions and all hypotheses were supported by the results of this cross-sectional, correlational study. As employees' levels of hope increased, their levels of burnout decreased. This held true across the associated component-dimension combinations, where as the levels of agency thinking and pathways thinking increased, the dimensions of exhaustion and disengagement decreased. When related to perceived stress, as levels of hope increased, employees' stress levels decreased. And finally, those who perceived higher levels of hope in their manager or leader, felt higher levels of hope in themselves. Unfortunately, leader hope did not show any significant difference in burnout or its dimensions of exhaustion and disengagement.

Implications for Research

The majority of the findings in this study correspond to expected findings from implementation of the hope, burnout, and perceived stress scales used. However, the observed relationships were weaker than the researcher expected. In the context of nonprofits, hope may have a different baseline level depending on the type of work performed at the nonprofit organization, and therefore have less of an impact upon burnout. For example, nonprofit employees may be predisposed to higher levels of hope, which could have been part of what initially drove them to work in areas like the human services provided at Family Justice Centers. They may have already been equipped to better handle stress, and stave off burnout; this moderating effect could have led to lower scores for stress and burnout than might have otherwise been reported.

Perceived stress was included in the current study due to its recognized relationship to burnout, with stress occurring mainly from an initial perceived threat to a person's resources, and

burnout occurring from the prolonged existence of the threat (Alarcon et al., 2013, Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Hobfoll, 2001; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). Stress is complex in that, though it is very situationally dependent, one individual can be predisposed to experience higher levels of stress than another person. Personality and disposition play a role (Claussen, 2011). People who have persistent negative thoughts bring stress with them to the workplace when they tell themselves they are going to fail, that the day is not going to go well, or that others will react negatively towards them (Maxon, 1999). People with poor communication skills also tend to experience more stress because they cannot sufficiently convey their needs, concerns, ideas or provide feedback. Others have higher individual needs for recognition or achievement that their workplace may not meet (Maslow, 1943; Maxon, 1999). These individual differences can confound burnout research, and may have affected the results of this study.

Maslach & Leiter (1997) saw that people react differently to burnout despite the presence of common organizational stressors, and suggested that personal attributes facilitated their relative fit to the environment. Even the relationship between work hours and burnout is mediated by the individual's preference for certain working hours (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). The mediating effect of personal attributes and preferences deserve more attention in similar research.

The findings of the current study also suggest that nonprofit employees who are above a certain age or are managers either exhibit higher levels of hope or cope better with stress and burnout. Over 66% of the respondents were above the age of 35 and more than 49% stated they were a manager or supervisor. The literature supports both of these implications, since as people age or progress in their careers, they naturally amass more resources, whether personal or professional which give them a better sense of control and efficacy over their situation

(Demerouti et al., 2001; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Bandura, 1982). There are also implications for the observed effects of leader hope; since nearly half of the respondents were themselves leaders in their organization, they may have developed coping mechanisms for, or discovered ways to desensitize themselves to, the negative effects of stress in their workplace.

In the literature, hope has shown significant relationships to burnout and stress (Snyder, 1994). One of the primary research questions the current study sought to explore was if hope's relationship to burnout extended to leader hope. The results indicate that while leader hope does have a significant negative relationship to burnout (r = -.283), unlike hope, it does not help explain or predict burnout. This suggests that individual, dispositional hope may have more of an effect than leader hope on burnout in a nonprofit workplace. This may demonstrate more about the power of hope than the impotence of leader hope. Many of the study limitations described below could have restricted evidence of leader hope's effectiveness. A more detailed examination of leader hope is warranted to determine how it is best perceived, most accurately measured, against what negative workplace phenomena it may be most effective, and if its impact is the same across different work contexts.

The study results showed a significant relationship between the disengagement component of burnout and the pathways dimension of hope. This was the strongest relationship noted among the component-dimension combinations. The implication here is that this relationship may further inform methods to increase hope in employees through their pursuit of goals. The pursuit of a goal is itself often motivating and engaging (Latham & Locke, 1979; Robbins, 2005); developing a workers' ability to conceptualize and activate different pathways when a goal is blocked will improve the goal pursuit experience. The observed relationship

suggests that the better a person is at pathways thinking the less they will disengage from their job.

In terms of methodologies, burnout research has been conducted primarily through case study designs, structural equation modeling, some longitudinal designs, and mostly cross-sectional, correlational designs. Cordes & Dougherty (1993) recommended boosting research rigor by using multivariate analyses to clarify relationships with a third-variable. Though the current study employed a cross-sectional, correlational design, the primary research questions were explored through multiple regression analysis thus making a small contribution towards understanding third variable relationships associated with burnout.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The first observed limitation of this study is the small sample size. The resulting correlation sample sizes ranging from $n = 95$ to $n = 104$, and the regression sample size of $n = 95$, make it difficult to generalize the study results to the larger population of nonprofits. Future research in this area should cast a wider net across more nonprofit organizations to collect a larger sample size. Also, future survey instruments should reduce the number of items as much as possible. The researcher further posits that the lengthy informed consent message preceding the survey may have increased the fatigue or boredom some respondents potentially experienced, leading them to stop answering the survey scales prematurely. Future survey instruments should employ a shorter version of the informed consent message.

Second, the study employed a proxy measure for leader hope. The modified hope scale has been reliably used in the past to obtain the level of hope of someone other than the survey respondent (Snyder, 1994), as was done in the current study. However, such a proxy measure leaves the interpretation of a leader's hope open to various influences, such as communication

style differences between the leader and employee, or in-group/out-group biases. A more accurate measure of leader hope, as separate from the respondents' hope, would be to identify supervisor-employee pairs and administer individual dispositional hope scales to each.

Third, several work content, work context, and personal factors were not included in the current study. The most notable of these is workload, which is the most cited cause for workplace stress and burnout in the literature (American Institute of Stress, 2018; WHO, 2018; Claussen 2011). It is not known what level of workload the respondents experienced, and how that impacted stress and burnout. Related factors such as regional demographics, socio-economics, crime rate, urban or suburban settings, heavy commute areas, individual income, marital status, and parental status can also contribute to overall stress and burnout (Maxon, 1999). These were not included in this study and future research should take them into account.

Fourth, several potentially moderating variables were not included in the current study, namely optimism, efficacy, and resilience. Any one, or a combination of, these constructs could have significant impact on burnout as well as hope. Luthans et al., (2007b) proposed that a combination of these constructs has compounding motivational effects. For example, resilient employees are thought to develop specific pathways by which to bounce back, thus overcoming setbacks which contributes to the additive nature of hope, builds self-efficacy, and increases an optimistic outlook in the individual. The combination of these positive constructs in the survey respondents could have served as protective factors against burnout, over and above leader hope. These constructs could additionally explain the observed variance in burnout, and shed light on the insufficient explanatory and predictive power of leader hope. Future research in this area should include these constructs in the analysis.

Fifth, the cross-sectional, correlational design of the study is a limitation to the generalizability of the study results. Future similar research should employ a longitudinal design which would allow for more complex statistical analysis and for which results would be more generalizable to the nonprofits population.

Finally, a necessary limitation of using a survey instrument in a study is the reliance on self-report data, which may be more reflective of respondents' beliefs about themselves or their desire to be seen in a certain light, versus their true nature.

Along with what has already been suggested for future research, the researcher recommends a baseline of average hope scores be established across human services nonprofit organizations. Snyder, et al. (2000) determined the average hope score for college students was 48. As a basis for comparison, it would be helpful to know the average human services nonprofit employees' hope score and, for that matter, their average burnout score. In the current study, the average hope score was a 56.24, and the average burnout score was a 34.67. Having a baseline would provide useful context by which to assess what is acceptable in a nonprofit work environment versus another work environment. It might also inform effectiveness assessments of efforts to increase employees' hope or decrease their burnout, to know the expected range of burnout and predict how much it could be improved.

Research along these lines could also help determine if nonprofit employees are naturally more hopeful, and if that hopeful disposition was part of why they were drawn to nonprofit work. Applicable to this current study, a naturally hopeful disposition could have been a protective factor against stress and burnout, over and above any impact of leader hope. Past research has demonstrated that high-hope workers experience less stress, have superior coping skills, and report less burnout at work (Elliot et al., 1991; Sherwin et al., 1992; Snyder et al., 1991b; Snyder,

1994). Employee hope and leader hope could be related such that an increase in leader hope does not decrease burnout over and above employee hope, but instead, it boosts hope such that the employee is left even more resistant to burnout.

A parallel can be drawn to the human immune system. Some people naturally have stronger immune systems and rarely get ill, while others seem to catch every passing cold. A daily vitamin supplement or a more nutritious diet may have no discernible effect on the first group, but the immune systems of the second group would likely benefit. Their newly boosted immune systems would make them less susceptible to illness. In a similar way, leader hope may have no discernible effect on a high-hope employee's resistance to burnout, but could boost the resistance of a low-hope employee. Future researchers should consider that high-hope employees may be less affected by their leaders' level of hope than less hopeful employees. To do this, a more accurate measure of leader hope should be developed.

Further analysis of the relationship between disengagement and pathways thinking is also needed. Especially for NPOs with tight budgets and short timelines, being able to zero-in on effective and concise training solutions would be ideal. If disengagement and pathways thinking are indeed strongly correlated, then increasing worker engagement by helping them develop skills to create new pathways or reformulate old ones could help keep burnout at bay. This could be done by teaching nonprofit employees techniques for assessing failure of past strategies (e.g., root cause analysis, five Why's analysis) and using lessons learned to methodically develop new pathways towards goal-attainment.

Final Conclusions

A common theme in the nonprofit sector today is the sacrificing of one's self in the service of others (Kanter & Sherman, 2017). The missions of most nonprofits inspire passion

and drive to create awareness, improve others' lives, and effect social change. That passion often sustains nonprofit employees through the trials and tribulations of their work, but it can backfire if they are so driven that they don't notice, or worse ignore, symptoms of burnout (Kanter & Sherman, 2017).

While dedication is needed to make changes in a world that resists change, researchers point out the importance of distinguishing between sufficient hard work and making excessive personal sacrifices that lead to burnout (Kanter & Sherman, 2017). To that end, there has been an increase of self-care awareness in nonprofit leadership development and coaching programs (Kanter & Sherman, 2017). These programs could incorporate training on how to better recognize and decrease burnout, and how to boost levels of hope. Leaders in any organization must remain cognizant of their responsibility to keep hope alive, strengthen their employees' resiliency to burnout and boost overall performance.

Another training component a leader can use to increase hope and boost performance is promoting employee autonomy. By allowing employees the autonomy to set their own goals and create their own pathways to meet those goals, leaders increase employees' hope, self-esteem, enthusiasm and overall efficiency (Snyder, 2000). Promoting autonomy in this way can feel like an uncomfortable loss of control for many leaders and therefore requires formal education programs and practice.

This study provides insight into the effects of hope and leader hope on burnout in nonprofit organizations. The study also highlights several areas for further empirical study on the impact of leader hope on employee burnout, as well as the correlations between dimensions of burnout and components of hope. In retrospect, the scope of the study could have been larger in terms of survey respondents, types of nonprofit organizations involved, and number of

variables analyzed. However, it revealed interesting relationships that were not previously anticipated, illuminated a need for a specific measurement instrument of leader hope, and suggested practical training and education applications. With no end in sight to the ever-increasing demands placed on modern nonprofit organizations, the need for research to inform development of tactics, techniques, and procedures to combat burnout will only continue to grow.

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Appendix A



Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects

Approval of Initial Submission – Exempt from IRB Review – AP01

Date: August 21, 2018 **IRB#:** 9609

Principal Investigator: Yira Y Muse **Approval Date:** 08/20/2018

Exempt Category: 2

Study Title: Sacrificing for the Mission: Hope for Burnout in Non-profit Organizations.

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,



Ioana Cionea, Ph.D.
Vice Chair, Institutional Review Board

The UNIVERSITY of OKLAHOMA

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects

Approval of Study Modification – Expedited Review – AP0

Date: September 05, 2018 **IRB#:** 9609

Principal Investigator: Yira Y Muse **Reference No: 682975**

Study Title: Sacrificing for the Mission: Hope and Burnout in Non-profit Organizations.

Approval Date: 09/04/2018

Modification Description:
We would like to add three scales to the approved survey. These include a psychological stress scale, flourishing scale, and collective hope scale.

The review and approval of this submission is based on the determination that the study, as amended, will continue to be conducted in a manner consistent with the requirements of 45 CFR 46.

To view the approved documents 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.

If the consent form(s) were revised as a part of this modification, discontinue use of all previous versions of the consent form.

If you have questions about this notification or using iRIS, contact the HRPP office at (405) 325-8110 or irb@ou.edu. The HRPP Administrator assigned for this submission: Karen Braswell. Cordially,



Ioana Cionea, Ph.D.
Vice Chair, Institutional Review Board

The UNIVERSITY of OKLAHOMA

Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects

Quality Improvement Evaluation Report

October 15th, 2018

Yira Muse
Advanced Programs
University of Oklahoma
Norman, OK 73019

RE: IRB No. 9609 "Sacrificing for the Mission: Hope and Burnout in Non-profit Organizations."

Ms. Muse,

Thank you for cooperating with the Office of Human Research Participant Protection (OHRPP) – Quality Improvement Program during the routine evaluation conducted on **October 15th, 2018** for the study noted above.

The OHRPP at the University of Oklahoma is committed to the improvement of the quality, efficiency, and integrity of our research activities. In pursuit of this commitment, the main objective of the Quality Improvement Program is to ensure the quality of research, proper documentation, record keeping, data analysis, and compliance to all components that constitute good academic research practices.

Listed below are the categories reviewed with comments and/or corrective action taken to address each issue:

STUDY SUMMARY

- The purpose of this research is to determine the relationship between hope and burnout in employees of non-profit organizations, in addition to examining whether the components of hope individually affect the dimensions of burnout. - Participants will complete an online survey.

EDUCATION

- All key study personnel are up-to-date on training.

REGULATORY/IRB DOCUMENTATION (RECORD KEEPING) Summary:

- All data will be obtained online and stored on the Qualtrics secured server.
- Data downloaded from Qualtrics will be stored on the researcher's and faculty sponsor's password protected computers.
- There will be no hard copy materials used in this study.
- The researcher will retain the data for approximately five years after the study has concluded.

Findings:

- The researcher has stored all files according to the approved protocol.

Recommendations:
- *No action required.*

DATA COLLECTION & SOURCE DOCUMENTS Summary:
- Participants will complete a 10 to 15-minute online survey.

Findings:
- The currently approved protocol is active within iRIS.

Recommendations:
- *No action required.*

INFORMED CONSENT PROCESS

Summary:
- The consent process for this study involves an online unsigned consent form.
- Participants must read the consent form prior to completing the survey.
- Participants must agree to participate in the research via the online consent form before they are forwarded on to the survey.
- Participants can choose to leave the survey at any time before completion and without penalty.

Findings:
- The currently approved consent form is active within iRIS.

Recommendations:
- *No action required.*

SUBJECT RECRUITMENT/SELECTION

Summary:
- Participants consist of adult employees of health and human services non-profit organizations in the state of Oklahoma.
- The Tulsa Area United Way, along with other non-profit organizations in the Tulsa area, will distribute a recruitment email from the researcher to potential participants.
- The identities of the participants will be unknown to the researcher, and the researcher will have no direct contact with participants.
- The study is approved for a maximum of 1000 participants.

Findings:
- A total of 134 participants have been enrolled to date.
- The researcher has followed the approved recruitment methods.
- The study is open to enrollment.

Recommendations:
- *No action required.*

PROTOCOL DEVIATIONS
- *None reported*

UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS
- *None reported*

ALLOCATIONS OF RESPONSIBILITIES

- The principal investigator and faculty sponsor work together on the project and maintain weekly communication regarding the progress of the study and any problems or issues that may arise.
- The principal investigator and faculty sponsor both submit forms through the iRIS system as needed.

EVALUATION SCORE: 100/100

CORRECTIVE ACTION PLAN

- **No corrective action plan needed.**

All documentation and confirmation for the corrective action(s) must be addressed and submitted to the HRPP Office within 30 calendar days of receiving this report. If the corrective actions include submitting a modification or reporting a deviation, this must be completed by using the appropriate forms in iRIS.

We appreciate your commitment to the Office of Human Research Participant Protection. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this evaluation report, please feel free to contact me at (405) 325-8110 or by email at kbraswell@ou.edu.

Sincerely,

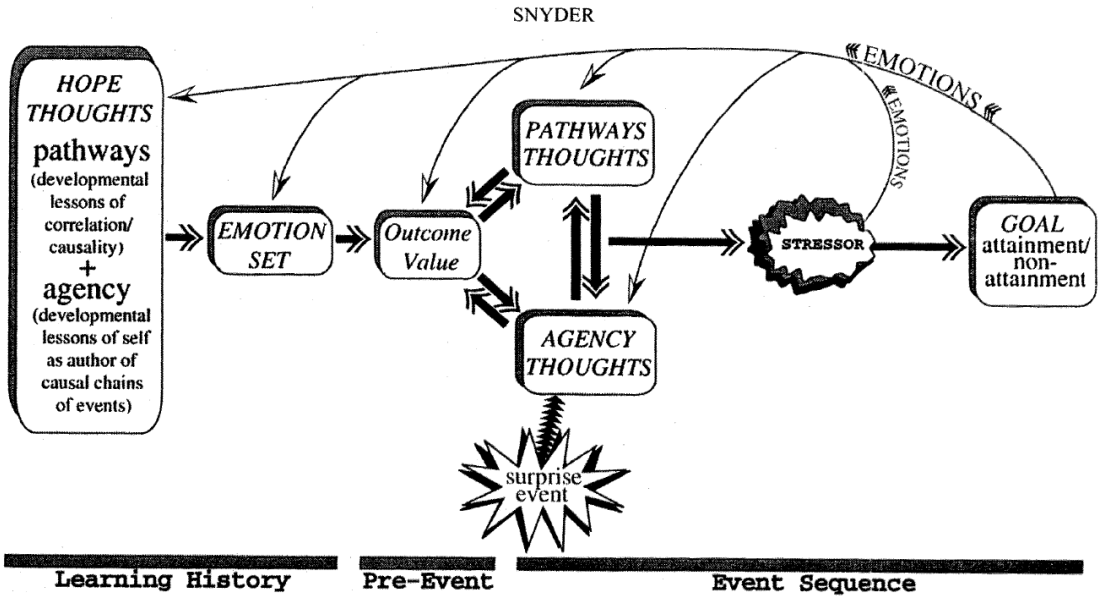
Karen Braswell
Quaility Improvement, Education & Training Coordinator
Office of Human Research Participant Protection
University of Oklahoma

cc:

Sierra Smith – Director, IRB/HRPP
Aimee Franklin, PhD – IRB Chair, Board 1
Ioana Cionea, PhD – IRB Vice Chair, Board 1
Nicole Cunningham – IRB Administrator
Chan Hellman, PhD – Faculty Sponsor

Appendix B

C.R. Snyder's Full Hope Model (2002)



Appendix C

The Adult Hope Scale (AHS; Snyder, et al., 1991b)

Directions: Read each item carefully. Using the scale shown below, please select the number that best describes YOU and put that number in the blank provided.

1 = Definitely False
2 = Mostly False
3 = Somewhat False
4 = Slightly False
5 = Slightly True
6 = Somewhat True
7 = Mostly True
8 = Definitely True

____ 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.

When administering the scale, it is called The Future Scale. The agency subscale score is derived by summing items 2, 6, 7, and 8; the pathway subscale score is derived by adding items 1, 3, 4, and 5. The total Hope Scale score is derived by summing the four agency and the four pathway items.

Appendix D

The Modified Hope Scale (MHS; Snyder, 1994)

Directions: Read each item carefully. Please select the choice that best describes your IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR. Don't try to think how your supervisor would respond to each item, but rather make your judgment about what you perceive about them based on your observance.

1 = Definitely False
2 = Mostly False
3 = Mostly True
4 = Definitely True

____ 1. This person energetically pursues personal goals.
____ 2. This person can think of many ways to get out of a jam.
____ 3. Past experiences have prepared this person well for the future.
____ 4. This person believes that there are lots of ways around any problem.
____ 5. This person has been pretty successful in life.
____ 6. This person can think of many ways to get the things in life that are most important.
____ 7. This person meets personal goals.
____ 8. Even when others get discouraged, this person has no doubts about finding a way to solve the problem.

Appendix E

The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI, Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010)

Instruction: Below you find a series of statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the scale, please indicate the degree of your agreement by selecting the number that corresponds with each statement.

1 = Strongly Agree
2 = Agree
3 = Disagree
4 = Strongly Disagree

____ 1. I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.
____ 2. There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.
____ 3. It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.
____ 4. After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.
____ 5. I can tolerate the pressure of my work well.
____ 6. Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically.
____ 7. I find my work to be a positive challenge.
____ 8. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.
____ 9. Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work.
____ 10. After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.
____ 11. Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.
____ 12. After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.
____ 13. This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.
____ 14. Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.
____ 15. I feel more and more engaged in my work.
____ 16. When I work, I usually feel energized.

Note: Disengagement items are 1, 3(R), 6(R), 7, 9(R), 11(R), 13, 15. Exhaustion items are 2(R), 4(R), 5, 8(R), 10, 12(R), 14, 16. (R) means reversed item when the scores should be such that higher scores indicate more burnout.

Appendix F

The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; Cohen, Kamarck, Mermelstein, 1983)

The questions in this scale ask you about your feelings and thoughts during the last month. In each case, you will be asked to indicate *how often* you felt or thought a certain way.

1 = Never
2 = Almost Never
3 = Sometimes
4 = Fairly Often
5 = Very Often

____ 1. In the last month, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?
____ 2. In the last month, how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?
____ 3. In the last month, how often have you felt nervous and "stressed"?
____ 4. In the last month, how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?
____ 5. In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?
____ 6. In the last month, how often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?
____ 7. In the last month, how often have you been able to control irritations in your life?
____ 8. In the last month, how often have you felt that you were on top of things?
____ 9. In the last month, how often have you been angered because of things that were outside your control?
____ 10. In the last month, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?

Appendix G

Frequency Tables – Education, Work Status, Manager or Supervisor Status

Education Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	HS/GED	1	0.8	0.9	0.9
	Vocational school	1	0.8	0.9	1.7
	Some college	11	8.8	9.5	11.2
	College graduate	49	39.2	42.2	53.4
	Post graduate	54	43.2	46.6	100.0
	Total	116	92.8	100.0	
Missing	System	9	7.2		
Total		125	100.0		

Work Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Full-time, paid employee	101	80.8	88.6	88.6
	Part-time, paid employee	10	8.0	8.8	97.4
	Full-time, volunteer	1	0.8	0.9	98.2
	Part-time, volunteer	2	1.6	1.8	100.0
	Total	114	91.2	100.0	
Missing	System	11	8.8		
Total		125	100.0		

Manager or Supervisor

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	62	49.6	53.4	53.4
	No	54	43.2	46.6	100.0
	Total	116	92.8	100.0	
Missing	System	9	7.2		
Total		125	100.0		